

1 **Quantifying black carbon light absorption enhancement by a novel**
2 **statistical approach**

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18 **Abstract**

19 Black carbon (BC) particles in the atmosphere can absorb more light when coated by non-
20 absorbing or weakly absorbing materials during atmospheric aging, due to the lensing effect. In this
21 study, the light absorption enhancement factor, E_{abs} , was quantified using one year's measurement of
22 mass absorption efficiency (MAE) in the Pearl River Delta region (PRD). A new approach for
23 calculating primary MAE (MAE_p), the key for E_{abs} estimation, is demonstrated using the Minimum R
24 Squared (MRS) method, exploring the inherent source independency between BC and its coating
25 materials. A unique feature of E_{abs} estimation by the MRS approach is its insensitivity to systematic
26 biases in EC and σ_{abs} measurements. The annual average E_{abs550} is found to be 1.50 ± 0.48 (± 1 S.D.),
27 exhibiting a clear seasonal pattern with higher values in summer and lower in the winter. Elevated E_{abs}
28 in the rainy summer season is likely associated with aged air masses dominating from marine origin,
29 along with long-range transport of biomass burning influenced air masses from Southeast Asia. E_{abs}
30 induced by hygroscopic growth at elevated RH could be as high as 1.3. Core-shell Mie simulations
31 along with measured E_{abs} and Angstrom absorption exponent (AAE) constraints suggest that in the
32 PRD, the coating materials are unlikely to be dominated by brown carbon and the coating thickness is
33 higher in the rainy season than the dry season. A negative correlation is found between $AAE_{470-660}$ and
34 RH, suggesting a dominant particle size of $D_{core} = 130$ nm and D_{shell}/D_{core} range of 2 to 4.

35 **1 Introduction**

36 Originating from incomplete combustion, black carbon (BC) is a crucial constituent of
37 atmospheric aerosols, and is an air pollutant itself, having an adverse health impacts on humans (Suglia
38 et al., 2008). BC has also been recognized as the third most important climate forcer due to its broad
39 light absorbing capability across the UV-Vis-IR spectrum (IPCC, 2013). BC can alter the climate in a
40 variety of ways, including by direct forcing (Bond et al., 2011), affecting cloud cover (Koch and Del
41 Genio, 2010) and precipitation (Tao et al., 2012), reducing the albedo of snow and ice (Hansen and
42 Nazarenko, 2004) and causing surface dimming (Wild, 2011). The climate effects of BC can be global
43 or regional (Ramanathan and Carmichael, 2008). A recent study found BC can modify planetary
44 boundary layer meteorology, and thus enhance local pollution indirectly (Ding et al., 2016). However,
45 due to its variable optical characteristics induced during atmospheric aging, large uncertainties still
46 exist in estimating the radiative forcing from BC. Optical properties of BC can be predicted by
47 knowing the mass concentration, mixing state and size distribution, which collectively serve as the
48 cornerstone for modeling the climate effect of BC. In 3D modeling studies, to conserve computational
49 resources, the mass absorption efficiency (MAE) or mass absorption cross-section (MAC) is widely
50 used to convert black carbon mass concentration to light absorption coefficient (σ_{abs}). MAE is a
51 quantity to describe the light absorption ability per unit EC mass:

$$52 \quad \text{MAE } (m^2 g^{-1}) = \frac{\text{absorption coefficient } \sigma_{abs} (Mm^{-1})}{\text{EC mass concentration } (\mu g m^{-3})} \quad (1)$$

53 As a fundamental input parameter, MAE has a critical impact on BC's radiative forcing
54 estimation in climate modeling studies. Mixing state is one of the governing factors affecting MAE.
55 Light absorption of soot particles is enhanced when coated with non-absorbing materials (Fuller et al.,
56 1999) or weakly absorbing materials (Lack and Cappa, 2010) during atmospheric aging. The coating
57 materials can focus more light onto the soot core through the lensing effect, resulting in elevated MAE
58 (Wang et al., 2017). Strong correlations between MAE and the number/volume fraction of coated
59 particles have been reported in urban areas like Tokyo (Naoe et al., 2009), Shenzhen (Lan et al., 2013)
60 and Xi'an (Wang et al., 2014), implying that the elevated MAE observed at these locations was mainly
61 due to the elevated fraction of coated of soot particles. Total absorption ($\sigma_{abs,t}$) of coated particles can

62 be separated into two parts: primary absorption ($\sigma_{abs,p}$) due to the uncoated soot core alone, and extra
 63 absorption ($\sigma_{abs,c}$) due to lensing effect of the coating (Bond et al., 2006; Jacobson, 2006; Liu et al.,
 64 2016a) and the presence of secondarily formed brown carbon (BrC) (Lack and Cappa, 2010; Liu et al.,
 65 2016b).

$$66 \quad \sigma_{abs,t} = \sigma_{abs,p} + \sigma_{abs,c} \quad (2)$$

67 The absorption enhancement factor (E_{abs}) then can be defined as ratio of the total absorption and
 68 primary absorption coefficients or the corresponding MAE values:

$$69 \quad E_{abs} = \frac{\sigma_{abs,t}}{\sigma_{abs,p}} = \frac{MAE_t}{MAE_p} \quad (3)$$

70 Where MAE_p represents the ratio of $\sigma_{abs,p}/EC$ for uncoated soot particles, similar to the concept of
 71 the primary OC/EC ratio in the EC tracer method:

$$72 \quad MAE_p = \frac{\sigma_{abs,p}}{EC} \quad (4)$$

73 And the MAE of coated BC can be defined as:

$$74 \quad MAE_t = \frac{\sigma_{abs,t}}{EC} \quad (5)$$

75 Thus, elevated MAE induced by coating during atmospheric aging results in an E_{abs} larger than 1.

76 Previous model studies suggest that absorption by aged soot particles can be 1.5 times greater than
 77 fresh soot (Fuller et al., 1999; Bond et al., 2006). Laboratory studies have demonstrated that soot
 78 particles coated with SOA (Saathoff et al., 2003; Schnaiter et al., 2005) and sulfuric acid (Zhang et al.,
 79 2008; Khalizov et al., 2009) can increase E_{abs} . An artificial coating experiment by Shiraiwa et al. (2010)
 80 found an E_{abs} of 2 for graphite particles growing in diameter from 185 to 370 nm. A laboratory study
 81 by McMeeking et al. (2014) found that in the presence of BrC, light absorption enhancement is more
 82 pronounced at the shorter wavelength. A recent chamber study coupling actual ambient air with seed
 83 BC particles implies that the timescale for E_{abs} reaching 2.4 is only 5 hours in Beijing but 18 hours in
 84 Houston (Peng et al., 2016). Field studies conducted in recent years have also substantiated enhanced
 85 light absorption in Canada (Knox et al., 2009; Chan et al., 2011), US (Lack et al., 2012b), UK (Liu et
 86 al., 2015) and Japan (Nakayama et al., 2014; Ueda et al., 2016). In contrast, field studies in California,

87 US (Cappa et al., 2012) found a weaker light absorption enhancement (6% on average). A recent study
88 suggests the mass ratio of non-BC content to BC particles determines the occurrence of the absorption
89 enhancement of black-carbon particles (Liu et al., 2017).

90 Two approaches are widely used to determine E_{abs} from ambient measurements. The first approach
91 removes the coating materials on particles physically using a thermal denuder (TD) (Lack et al., 2012a)
92 or by aerosol filter filtration-dissolution (AFD) (Cui et al., 2016b). The TD approach is briefly
93 discussed here. Coating materials can be removed by TD at a working temperature around 200 to
94 300 °C (depending on the charring characteristics of aerosols at the sampling site) to measure $\sigma_{abs,p}$,
95 which are cycled with measurements of $\sigma_{abs,t}$ (without passing through TD), allowing E_{abs} to be
96 obtained from the ratio of $\sigma_{abs,t}/\sigma_{abs,p}$ following Eq.3. The major advantage of the TD approach is
97 its ability to provide highly time resolved measurements (minutes). A photo-acoustic spectrometer
98 (PAS) is commonly used with TD for detection to satisfy its high time resolution demands. As an in-
99 situ technique, PAS eliminates the artifacts associated with filter-based methods (Weingartner et al.,
100 2003; Coen et al., 2010) and is often considered as the reference instrument for light absorption
101 coefficient determination (Arnott et al., 2003; Arnott et al., 2005). One limitation of the TD approach is
102 that a universal optimal operation temperature does not exist. If the temperature is too low, the coating
103 cannot be fully removed, and charring can occur if the TD temperature is too high, leading to biased
104 results. Another issue is particle loss due to TD, which can be ~20% and needs to be taken into account
105 (Ueda et al., 2016). It's also worth noting that MAE_p by the TD approach is different from the MAE_p
106 at the emission source. First, the morphology of thermally denuded BC particles (compact aggregates)
107 is different from that of freshly emitted BC particles (chain-like aggregates). Second, most of the
108 coatings is removed with the TD denuded soot particles, but freshly emitted soot particles usually
109 come with a thin coating of OC formed from condensation of OC vapors as the temperature drops
110 from engine to the ambient air. As a result, the MAE_p by TD approach is expected to be lower than
111 the MAE_p of emission source. In this sense, the TD approach may not be a perfect "time machine" to
112 reverse the aging process for E_{abs} determination.

113 The second approach is the MAE ratio method, which is also stated in Eq. 3. The key to this method
114 is determining an appropriate MAE_p that can represent the MAE from primary emissions. One

115 approach is to adopt the reference MAE_p from the literature but it may fail to represent the actual
116 MAE_p at a specific sampling site, since MAE_p varies temporally and spatially. For example, MAE_p of
117 diesel soot was found to be 7.1 m²g⁻¹ at 532 nm (Adler et al., 2010). A much higher MAE_p (16 m²g⁻¹
118 at 530 nm) was observed from natural gas flaring (Weyant et al., 2016). MAE_p of biomass burning
119 (BB) samples is highly varied due to a wide range of fuel types and combustion conditions (Reid et
120 al., 2005; Roden et al., 2006). A range from 6.1 to 80.8 m²g⁻¹ was reported for BB MAE_p at 550 nm
121 (Pandey et al., 2016). Without the knowledge of source contributions, it is not feasible to derive a
122 representative MAE_p for E_{abs} estimation. The other commonly used approach is to determine MAE_p
123 from the dependency of MAE on the number fraction of coated soot particles measured by SP2 (Lan
124 et al., 2013). Since MAE (y axis) is positively correlated with the number fraction of coated soot
125 particles (x axis), MAE_p can be determined by extending the regression line to x=0. It is worth noting
126 that this approach provides only a rough approximation of E_{abs} since the parameter used here (coated
127 soot particles number fraction) ignores other main drivers of light absorption enhancement (e.g.
128 coating thickness). As a result, this approach is only valid for a period of measurements, for which
129 coating thickness is relatively constant and the MAE variations are dominated by coated soot particles
130 number fraction.

131 However, the high cost of the TD-PAS system and SP2 limit the field measurement of E_{abs} around
132 the world. In addition, long-term E_{abs} measurements by a TD-PAS system and SP2 are not easily
133 achieved and rarely reported. On the other hand, an Aethalometer and RT-ECOC analyzer can be
134 effectively deployed for long term measurements and E_{abs} estimation, at a relatively lower cost. In this
135 study, based on one year of hourly MAE measurements (with the field carbon analyzer and
136 Aethalometer) at a suburban site in the Pearl River Delta (PRD) region of China, quantification of
137 MAE_p is demonstrated by a novel statistical approach, the Minimum R squared method (MRS) (Wu
138 and Yu, 2016). The aim of this study is to demonstrate the capability of E_{abs} estimation using a year-
139 long dataset from cost-effective instrumentation. The seasonal variability of MAE, AAE and E_{abs} in
140 the PRD region are characterized and their dependency on air mass origin, biomass burning and RH
141 are discussed. Abbreviations used in this study are summarized in Table 1 for a quick lookup.

142 **2 Ambient measurements**

143 Sampling was conducted from Feb 2012 to Jan 2013 at the suburban Nancun (NC) site (23° 0'11.82"N,
144 113°21'18.04"E). NC, situated on the top of the highest peak (141 m ASL) in Guangzhou's Panyu
145 district, is located at the geographic center of the PRD region, making it a representative location for
146 average atmospheric mixing characteristics of city clusters in the PRD region. Light absorption
147 measurements were performed by a 7- λ Aethalometer (AE-31, Magee Scientific Company, Berkeley,
148 CA, USA). The Aethalometer was equipped with a 2.5 μm cyclone with a sampling flow rate of 4 L
149 min^{-1} . Weingartner's algorithm (Weingartner et al., 2003) was adopted to correct the sampling artifacts
150 (aerosol loading, filter matrix and scattering effect) rooted in filter based method. A customized
151 Aethalometer data processing program (Wu, 2017a) with graphical user interface was developed to
152 perform data correction and detailed descriptions can be found in the SI (The program is available
153 from <https://sites.google.com/site/wuchengust>). Details of the Aethalometer setup and data correction
154 can be found in our previous paper (Wu et al., 2013).

155 EC mass concentrations were determined by a real time ECOC analyzer (Model RT-4, Sunset
156 Laboratory Inc., Tigard, Oregon, USA). The sunset carbon analyzer was sampling on hourly cycles at
157 a flow rate of 8 Lmin^{-1} with a $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ sharp-cut cyclone inlet. For each measurement hour, the first
158 45min were for sample collection and the remaining 15 min for thermal-optical analysis. OC is
159 volatilized first by step-wise temperature ramping in an oxygen-free atmosphere while in the second
160 stage EC is combusted in the presence of oxygen. Laser transmittance is applied to correct the charring
161 artifact during the OC stage.

162 Considering a measurement precision of 5% for the Aethalometer (Hansen, 2005) and 24% for the
163 RT-ECOC analyzer (Bauer et al., 2009), the propagated relative precision of E_{abs} ($E_{\text{abs,Unc}}$) is 35%
164 following Eq. S1&S2 in the SI. It should be noted that $E_{\text{abs,Unc}}$ is mainly attributed to the
165 measurement precision of EC by the RT-ECOC analyzer. Since the measurement precision of the RT-
166 ECOC analyzer estimated by Bauer et al. (2009) is obtained from field measurement at an environment
167 (EC below 1 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) where EC is much lower than the present study (annual average EC 2.66 ± 2.27
168 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$), the $E_{\text{abs,Unc}}$ of 35% should be considered as an upper limit for the present study.

169 Light scattering was measured by an integrating nephelometer (Aurora-1000, Ecotech, Melbourne,
170 Australia). Water soluble ions were measured by MARGA (The instrument for Measuring AeRosols
171 and GAses)(ten Brink et al., 2007). Both instruments are equipped with a PM_{2.5} inlet to remove the
172 coarse particles.

173 **2.1 Uncertainties of MAE determination**

174 Two major uncertainties associated with the σ_{abs} and EC determination techniques should be taken
175 into account when comparing MAE across different studies. For the σ_{abs} determination technique,
176 photo-acoustic spectroscopy (PAS) is an in-situ technique free from filter based artifacts, but its
177 application is limited by its high cost. The filter based optical transmittance method (e.g., Aethalometer
178 and Multi Angle Absorption Photometer, MAAP) is the most widely used technique around the world,
179 but data correction is needed to minimize the bias from artifacts due to the loading effect, matrix effect
180 and scattering effect (Weingartner et al., 2003; Arnott et al., 2005; Schmid et al., 2006; Virkkula et al.,
181 2007; Coen et al., 2010; Drinovec et al., 2017; Saturno et al., 2017). Besides these artifacts, RH is also
182 a source of σ_{abs} measurement uncertainty. Elevated RH is not only a driving force of increased σ_{abs}
183 due to the hygroscopic growth of particles, but also a factor affecting ambient σ_{abs} measurements.
184 Previous studies found σ_{abs} by PAS exhibit a systematic decrease when RH>70% (Arnott et al., 2003;
185 Kozlov et al., 2011). Water evaporation was found as the major cause for the biased PAS σ_{abs}
186 measurements under high RH (Raspert et al., 2003; Lewis et al., 2009b; Langridge et al., 2013). Filter-
187 based measurements are also affected under high RH conditions. For example, Arnott et al. (2003)
188 observed erratic responses by particle soot absorption photometer (PSAP) as RH changed. The main
189 reason is traced to the hydrophilic cellulose membrane, which serves to reinforce the quartz filter used
190 in PSAP. The fibers can swell and shrink as RH changes, causing unwanted light attenuation signal.
191 The PTFE-coated glass-fiber tape has become available since 2012 for the recent model of
192 Aethalometer to minimize the RH interference (Magee-Scientific, 2017). A study by Schmid et al.
193 (2006) reported dependency of PSAP σ_{abs} on RH, but found negligible effect of RH on Aethalometer
194 performance. It is also worth noting that RH in the Aethalometer optical chamber may be lower than
195 the ambient RH due to the slightly elevated temperature inside the instrument. The magnitude of RH
196 difference was found similar between different instruments: 20% for the Aethalometer (Schmid et al.,
197 2006) and 15% for the nephelometer (Guyon et al., 2004). The RH in the Aethalometer optical chamber
198 was not measured in this study. We expected its level to be slightly lower than the ambient RH. Cappa
199 et al. (2008) found σ_{abs} measurements by PSAP and PAS maintained a high linearity even under high

200 RH conditions (65-91%). Inter-comparison studies demonstrated that with proper corrections,
201 Aethalometer σ_{abs} measurements agree well with those by PAS (Ajtai et al., 2011). During the inter-
202 comparison study of an Aethalometer (AE-16) and a PAS in Guangzhou (Wu et al., 2009), good
203 correlation was found ($R^2=0.96$) as shown in Figure S1. These comparison results imply that the
204 Aethalometer results are linearly correlated with PAS measurements and RH has a limited interference
205 on Aethalometer measurements. In our study, careful corrective measures (Wu et al., 2013) are
206 conducted for the Aethalometer σ_{abs} data treatment to minimize these artifacts. But such artifacts
207 still cannot be fully eliminated.

208 For the EC determination, different thermal optical analysis (TOA) protocols can impact the
209 measurement variability and thus MAE. As shown in Table S1, MAE for the same samples at Fresno
210 varied from 6.1 to 9.3 $\text{m}^2 \text{g}^{-1}$, depending on which EC analysis protocol was applied (Chow et al.,
211 2009). Studies in the PRD found that discrepancies in measured EC by different analysis protocols
212 could be as large as a factor of 5 (Wu et al., 2012; Wu et al., 2016a), which adds to the uncertainty for
213 the MAE estimation. In addition, EC by TOA is also different from refractory BC (rBC) reported by
214 the laser induced incandescence (LII) technique (e.g. single particle soot photometer, SP2). For
215 example, two studies in Toronto (Knox et al., 2009; Chan et al., 2011) both used the PAS for σ_{abs}
216 measurement but different techniques for EC mass determination, resulting in very different MAE
217 results. LII instruments are usually calibrated with a commercially available surrogate (e.g. fullerene)
218 since direct calibration with ambient soot is not easy to achieve. Laborde et al. (2012) indicates that
219 the incandescence response of SP2 exhibits a dependency on soot type (15% between fullerene and
220 denuded diesel soot particles; 14% between biomass burning and denuded diesel soot particles). Due
221 to the absence of widely accepted reference materials for EC, the uncertainties in EC determination
222 will exist in the foreseeable future. All these uncertainties, including the uncertainty of rBC mass
223 determination by SP2, uncertainty of EC in TOA, the discrepancy between SP2 rBC and TOA EC and
224 the discrepancy of σ_{abs} between filter transmission and photo-acoustic methods, can contribute to the
225 differences in MAE listed in Table S1.

226 Systematic bias in MAE (e.g. overestimation of σ_{abs} and variability of EC mass by different
227 TOA protocols) discussed above have little effect on E_{abs} estimation by MRS. As shown in Eq. 3, E_{abs}

228 is the ratio of MAE_t to MAE_p or $\sigma_{abs,t}$ to $\sigma_{abs,p}$, thus most of the bias in EC mass or σ_{abs} is
229 cancelled out during the E_{abs} calculation. More details are discussed in section 4.1.

230 **3 Methodology**

231 **3.1 MAE_p estimation by MRS from the ambient data**

232 In this section, a new approach for MAE_p estimation is introduced for E_{abs} determination, which
233 requires the knowledge of differentiating $\sigma_{abs,p}$ and $\sigma_{abs,c}$ portions in $\sigma_{abs,t}$. The idea of
234 decoupling $\sigma_{abs,t}$ into $\sigma_{abs,p}$ and $\sigma_{abs,c}$ is conceptually similar to decoupling OC into primary OC
235 (POC) and secondary OC (SOC) in the EC tracer method as shown in Table 2. In the EC tracer method,
236 if $(OC/EC)_p$ is known, POC can be determined from OC (Turpin and Huntzicker, 1991). The role of
237 MAE_p here is similar to the role of $(OC/EC)_p$, the primary OC/EC ratio in the EC tracer method (a
238 comparison is given in Table 2). If MAE_p (average MAE from primary emission sources) is known,
239 E_{abs} can be obtained from the ratio of MAE_t/MAE_p (Eq. 3). Therefore, the key for E_{abs} estimation is to
240 derive an appropriate MAE_p. It is worth noting that MAE_p here does not represent MAE from a single
241 or specific primary emission source, instead it reflects an average and effective MAE that has taken
242 consideration of various primary emission sources. Thus, the MAE_p is conceptually analogous to
243 $(OC/EC)_p$ in the EC tracer method, in which the primary ratio reflects an overall ratio from primary
244 emission sources rather than from a single primary source.

245 The Minimum R squared method (MRS) explores the inherent independency between
246 pollutants from primary emissions (e.g., EC) and products associated with secondary formation
247 processes (e.g., SOC, $\sigma_{abs,c}$) to derive the primary ratios (e.g., $(OC/EC)_p$, MAE_p) in the EC tracer
248 method (Wu and Yu, 2016). When applying MRS for light absorption enhancement estimation, MRS
249 is used to explore the inherent independency between EC and $\sigma_{abs,c}$, which is gained during
250 atmospheric aging after emission. An example of MAE_p estimation by MRS is shown in Figure 1.
251 Firstly, the assumed MAE_p value is varied continuously in a reasonable range (0.01 to 50 m² g⁻¹ as
252 shown in Figure 1). Then at each hypothetical MAE_p, $\sigma_{abs,c}$ can be calculated by Eq. 6 (a combination
253 of Eq. 2&4) using EC and $\sigma_{abs,t}$ from ambient measurements.

254
$$\sigma_{abs,c} = \sigma_{abs,t} - MAE_p \times EC \quad (6)$$

255 Accordingly, for each hypothetical MAE_p , a correlation coefficient value (R^2) of $\sigma_{abs,c}$ vs.
256 EC (i.e., $R^2(\sigma_{abs,c}, EC)$) can be obtained. The series of $R^2(\sigma_{abs,c}, EC)$ values (y axis) are then plotted
257 against the assumed MAE_p values (x axis) as shown by the red curve in Figure 1. The physical meaning
258 of this plot can be interpreted as follows. The $\sigma_{abs,p}$ is the fraction of light absorption owing to
259 primary emitted soot particles. As a result, $\sigma_{abs,p}$ is well correlated with EC mass. In contrast, the
260 $\sigma_{abs,c}$ is the fraction of light absorption gained by the lensing effect of the coating on particles after
261 emission. The variability of $\sigma_{abs,c}$ mainly depends on the coating thickness of the soot particles.
262 Consequently, $\sigma_{abs,c}$ is independent of EC mass. Since variations of EC and $\sigma_{abs,c}$ are independent,
263 the assumed MAE_p corresponding to the minimum $R^2(EC, \sigma_{abs,c})$ would then represent the most
264 statistically probable MAE_p of the tested dataset.

265 A computer program (Wu, 2017b) in Igor Pro (WaveMetrics, Inc. Lake Oswego, OR, USA)
266 was developed to facilitate MRS calculation with a user friendly graphical user interface. Another two
267 Igor Pro based computer programs Histbox (Wu, 2017c) and Scatter Plot (Wu, 2017d) are used for
268 generating histograms, box plots and scatter plots (with Deming regressions) presented in this study.
269 Detailed descriptions of these computer programs can be found in the SI and the computer programs
270 are available from <https://sites.google.com/site/wuchengust>.

271 **3.2 Mie simulation**

272 It can be informative to model a single soot particle using Mie theory (Bohren and Huffman,
273 1983) and understand the theoretical range and variability of the soot particle's optical properties.
274 Three types of mixing state are widely employed for parameterization: internal mixing, external
275 mixing and core-shell. To better represent the real situation (coating due to the aging process), a core-
276 shell model is considered in the Mie calculation (Figure S2), which is more realistic than a volume
277 mixture model (Bond et al., 2006). An aerosol optical closure study in the North China Plain (NCP)
278 found that the core-shell model can provide better performance than assuming purely internal mixing
279 and external mixing (Ma et al., 2012). A morphology study using Scanning Transmission X-ray
280 Microscopy found that core-shell is the dominating mixing state in ambient samples (Moffet et al.,

281 2016). It should be noted that the core-shell model assumption still has its own limitations. A single
282 particle soot photometer (SP2) study by Sedlacek et al. (2012) reported a negative lag time between
283 the scattering and incandescence signals in samples influenced by biomass burning, implying a near
284 surface location of soot relative to non-absorbing materials. Near surface type mixing of soot has also
285 been observed in Tokyo, but accounted for only 10% of total mixed soot containing particles (Moteki
286 et al., 2014). Considering the domination of core-shell type particles in the ambient environment, the
287 core-shell assumption in our optical model is sufficient to approximate the real situation.

288 As shown in Figure S2, fresh emitted soot particles are chain-like aggregates of small spheres
289 (30~50 nm). After the aging process, soot particles are coated with organic and inorganic materials.
290 Sufficient evidence has shown that the coating not only results in particle size growth, but also makes
291 the soot core become more compact due to its collapse (Alexander et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2008;
292 Lewis et al., 2009a), especially under high RH conditions (Leung et al., 2017). Since the spherical like
293 core and shell favor Mie simulation, both core and shell are considered as spheres in the Mie
294 calculation.

295 To investigate the spectrum properties of soot particles, 11 wavelengths (370, 405, 470, 520,
296 532, 550, 590, 660, 781, 880 and 950 nm) are considered in calculations to cover wavelengths in the
297 most frequently used absorption measurement instruments. A refractive index (RI) of $1.85 - 0.71i$ is
298 adopted for soot core (Bond and Bergstrom, 2006) and 1.55 for non-absorbing coating (clear shell) in
299 the Mie calculation for all wavelengths. Studies suggest a group of organic matter (OM), known as
300 Brown Carbon (BrC), can absorb solar radiation at UV wavelengths (Kirchstetter et al., 2004). Thus,
301 a BrC coating (brown shell) scenario is also considered in Mie simulation following the wavelength-
302 dependent RI suggested by Lack and Cappa (2010), which ranges from $1.55-0.059i$ (370 nm) to $1.55-$
303 $0.0005i$ (950 nm). A modeling study by Bond et al. (2006) indicates that absorption amplification is
304 not sensitive to the RI, thus the result below is not expected to be sensitive to the RI variability. Due
305 to the spherical assumption of the BC core, a constant particle density is adopted for simplicity instead
306 of size dependent particle density. But it is worth noting that in reality, the effective density of soot
307 varies with particle size due to the morphology change during particle aging (Tavakoli and Olfert,
308 2014; Dastanpour et al., 2017). Both core diameters (D_{core}) and shell diameters (D_{shell}) are constrained

309 in the range of 10 ~ 3000 nm in the model simulations. The Mie calculations are implemented with a
310 customized program (Wu, 2017e) written in Igro Pro (WaveMetrics, Inc. Lake Oswego, OR, USA)
311 and it is available from <https://sites.google.com/site/wuchengust>. It should be noted that the core-shell
312 type mixing state of particles is still rare in 3D atmospheric models like WRF-Chem (Matsui et al.,
313 2013; Nordmann et al., 2014) due to computational cost limitation.

314 **3.2.1 Mie modeled absorption angstrom exponent (AAE)**

315 Absorption Angstrom Exponent (AAE) is a widely used parameter that describes the
316 wavelength dependence of aerosol light absorption (Moosmuller et al., 2011), which can be written
317 explicitly as

$$318 \quad AAE(\lambda_1, \lambda_2) = -\frac{\ln(\sigma_{abs,\lambda_1}) - \ln(\sigma_{abs,\lambda_2})}{\ln(\lambda_1) - \ln(\lambda_2)} \quad (7)$$

319 It is well known that ambient soot particles exhibit an AAE close to unity (Bond, 2001).
320 Modeled variability in $AAE_{470-660}$ of bare soot particles is shown in Figure S3. For soot particles with
321 $D_{core} < 200$ nm, $AAE_{470-660}$ is very close to 1 and decreases significantly for particles with $D_{core} > 200$
322 nm. Considering a typical D_{core} of fresh emitted soot particles smaller than 200 nm (Rose et al., 2006;
323 China et al., 2013), the model results confirm the frequently observed AAE close to 1 from ambient
324 measurements (Kirchstetter et al., 2004). Modeled variability in $AAE_{470-660}$ of soot particles coated by
325 non-absorbing substances (clear shell) and weakly absorbing materials (brown shell) is shown in
326 Figure 2. Elevated AAE to ~2 is observed in the clear shell scenario (Figure 2a and 3b) for the most
327 probable soot core particle sizes (<200 nm), which agrees well with a previous model study (Lack and
328 Cappa, 2010), implying that elevated AAE cannot be exclusively attributed to mixing with BrC. AAE
329 elevation is more pronounced in the brown shell scenario. For soot particles with $D_{core} < 200$ nm, brown
330 shell $AAE_{470-660}$ can easily reach 3 for a coating of $D_{shell}/D_{core}=3$ (Figure 2c and 2d). These high AAE
331 results are consistent with the previous model study (Lack and Cappa, 2010) and could partially
332 explain the high AAE observed in measurement studies (Kirchstetter et al., 2004; Hoffer et al., 2006),
333 since the presence of externally mixed BrC particles also contribute to the wavelength dependent light
334 absorption.

335 **3.2.2 Mie modeled single scattering albedo (SSA)**

336 Variability in modeled SSA of soot particles coated by non-absorbing substances and weakly
337 absorbing materials (e.g. BrC) is shown in Figure S4. For particles with $D_{\text{core}} < 200$ nm and $D_{\text{shell}}/D_{\text{core}}$
338 < 3 , the SSA increases gradually (up to ~ 0.9) with a thicker coating and behaves similarly between
339 clear shell and brown shell scenarios.

340 **3.2.3 Mie modeled mass absorption efficiency (MAE)**

341 MAE is a useful indicator for soot mixing state. Variability in MAE of bare soot particles as a
342 function of particle size at a wavelength of 550 nm is illustrated in Figure S5. The magnitude of MAE
343 is sensitive to the soot density assumption, especially for particles < 200 nm (Figure S5), but the overall
344 trend of particle size dependency is similar between different density scenarios. MAE peaks at a
345 particle size of 200 nm and decreases dramatically for larger particles. In our MAE calculation, a soot
346 density of 1.9 g cm^{-3} is adopted, as suggested by Bond and Bergstrom (2006). The purpose of adopting
347 constant density is to simplify the MAE calculation. It should be noted that the effective density of
348 soot core is highly variable in ambient environments. For example, a study in Beijing (Zhang et al.,
349 2016b) found a value of 1.2 g cm^{-3} . A recent chamber study found the effective density of soot can
350 evolve from 0.43 to 1.45 g cm^{-3} during aging as coated by m-Xylene oxidation products (Guo et al.,
351 2016). A study by a single-particle aerosol mass spectrometer in Guangzhou found the effective
352 density of soot increased with particle size in the range of 400 to 1600 nm (Zhang et al., 2016a). The
353 MAE of coated particles from different core/shell diameter combinations are shown in Figure S6. For
354 thickly coated particles, the MAE in the clear shell scenario varied as $D_{\text{shell}}/D_{\text{core}}$ increased, but the
355 MAE of brown shell scenario increased quasi-monotonously with $D_{\text{shell}}/D_{\text{core}}$.

356 **3.2.4 Mie modeled light absorption enhancement factor (E_{abs})**

357 E_{abs} is a better indicator for soot mixing state than MAE since it does not rely on the soot density
358 assumption and is more suitable for comparing Mie simulations with ambient measurements. Modeled
359 variability in E_{abs} of soot particles coated by non-absorbing substances and weakly absorbing materials

360 (e.g. BrC) is shown in Figure 3a and 3c respectively. E_{abs} is not only sensitive to the core/shell diameter
361 combination, but also behaves very differently on the clear and brown shell assumptions. For the clear
362 shell scenario, when $D_{\text{coat}}/D_{\text{core}} < 2$, E_{abs} does not exceed 2 for particles with different soot core sizes,
363 but for the same $D_{\text{coat}}/D_{\text{core}}$, a larger soot core size yields a higher E_{abs} (Figure 3b, cross-sections of
364 Figure 3a). If $D_{\text{coat}}/D_{\text{core}} > 2$, E_{abs} could be 3 to 5 for particles with a soot core smaller than 200 nm, but
365 for particles with a soot core larger than 200 nm, the E_{abs} is limited to ~ 2 as shown in Figure 3b. For
366 the brown shell scenario, E_{abs} increased quasi-monotonically with $D_{\text{coat}}/D_{\text{core}}$, and this trend is similar
367 for different soot core sizes (Figure 3d). The main reason behind is that in the brown shell scenario,
368 both lensing effect and BrC absorption contribute to E_{abs} . As shown in Figure S7, the BrC absorption
369 contribution to total E_{abs} strongly depends on coating thickness and is insensitive to soot core diameters.
370 When the coating is relatively thin (< 5 nm for $\lambda@370$ nm, < 15 nm for $\lambda@550$ nm and < 40 nm for
371 $\lambda@880$ nm), BrC absorption contribution to the total E_{abs} is less than 20%. As the coating increases to
372 a certain level (~ 15 nm for $\lambda@370$ nm, ~ 35 nm for $\lambda@550$ nm and ~ 90 nm for $\lambda@880$ nm), BrC
373 absorption contribution is comparable to the lensing effect contribution, each contributing $\sim 50\%$ to
374 the total E_{abs} . When the BrC coating is sufficiently thick (> 30 nm for $\lambda@370$ nm, > 90 nm for $\lambda@550$
375 nm and > 110 nm for $\lambda@880$ nm), BrC absorption dominates the E_{abs} contribution. As a result, if BrC
376 coating is indeed present in ambient samples, a strong wavelength dependent E_{abs} could be observed,
377 since a BrC coating of 30 nm would be enough to induce a large amount of detectable E_{abs} in the UV
378 range. Another major difference between the clear and brown shell scenarios is that, for thickly coated
379 particles (e.g. $D_{\text{coat}}/D_{\text{core}} > 2$), the brown shell can yield a much higher E_{abs} than the clear shell.

380 Both primary soot size distribution and coating thickness can affect the absorption
381 enhancement of ambient BC particles. Ambient measurements by LII found soot particle number and
382 mass modes peaking at 110 nm and 220 nm, respectively, in the PRD (Huang et al., 2011b). A study
383 in Shanghai found similar results (70 nm for number concentrations and 200 nm for mass
384 concentrations)(Gong et al., 2016). Considering that the LII technique is specific for BC mass
385 determination which is independent of BC mixing state, the size distribution reported by LII can
386 represent the size distribution of the BC core. A study using a Micro Orifice Uniform Deposit Impactor
387 (MOUDI) found a EC mass size distribution in the PRD exhibiting three modes peaking at ~ 300 , ~ 900

388 and ~5000 nm (Yu et al., 2010), implying a substantial coating of BC particles, and a diameter
389 amplification of 3. BC sizing by LII is based on volume equivalent diameter (VED), while MOUDI is
390 based on aerodynamic diameter. As a result, these two techniques do not necessarily yield similar sizes,
391 even for the bare soot particles. The conversion between these two types of diameters involves the
392 knowledge of particle density and morphology (drag force). A recent closure study on BC mixing state
393 in the PRD region suggests σ_{abs} is dominated by coated soot particles in the range of 300~400 nm
394 (Tan et al., 2016). Considering the dominant BC core distribution measured by SP2 (110 nm), the
395 upper limit of E_{abs} in the PRD is roughly estimated as ~2 for the clear shell scenario (Figure 3b).

396 **4 Results and discussions**

397 **4.1 Annual measurement statistics**

398 The frequency distribution (log-normal) of σ_{abs550} is shown in Figure 4a, with an annual average (± 1
399 S.D.) of $42.65 \pm 30.78 \text{ Mm}^{-1}$. A log-normal distribution is also found in the EC mass concentration
400 (Figure 4b), with an annual average of $2.66 \pm 2.27 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. Figure 4c demonstrates the yearlong
401 frequency distribution of MAE_{550} at the NC site. The annual average MAE_{550} is $18.75 \pm 6.16 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ and
402 the peak (± 1 S.D.) of the lognormal fit is $15.70 \pm 0.22 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$. A good correlation is observed between
403 σ_{abs} and EC mass ($R^2=0.92$) as shown in Figure 4d, and the color coding indicates a MAE dependency
404 on RH (the RH effect will be discussed in section 4.5). Annual average $\text{AAE}_{470-660}$ is 1.09 ± 0.13 (Figure
405 S8a), indicating that soot is the dominant absorbing substance in the PRD and the brown shell scenario
406 shown in the Mie simulation is unlikely to be important. Annual mean SSA_{525} is 0.86 ± 0.05 (Figure
407 S8c), similar to previous studies in the PRD (Jung et al., 2009; Wu et al., 2009). For comparison
408 purpose, MAE measured at original wavelength and MAE scaled to 550 nm following the λ^{-1}
409 assumption are both shown in Table S1. The MAE comparisons discussed below are MAE at 550 nm.
410 MAE_{550} by previous studies at various locations was found to cover a wide range, from 5.9 to 61.6 m^2
411 g^{-1} . Annual average observed MAE_{550} at NC ($18.75 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$) is higher than many studies shown in Figure
412 5, e.g., Shenzhen (Lan et al., 2013), Beijing (Yang et al., 2009), Mexico city (Doran et al., 2007) and
413 Fresno (Chow et al., 2009).

414 As shown in Figure 1, the annual average $MAE_{p,550}$ estimated by MRS is $13 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$. MAE_p by
 415 MRS represents the MAE_p at the emission source, which is different from the MAE_p by the TD
 416 approach for two reasons. First, the morphology of thermally denuded BC particles (compact
 417 aggregates) is different from that of freshly emitted BC particles (chain-like aggregates). Second, most
 418 of the coatings are removed for TD denuded soot particles, but freshly emitted soot particles usually
 419 come with a thin coating of OC formed from condensation of OC vapors as the temperature drops from
 420 the flame to the ambient air. As a result, the MRS-derived MAE_p is expected to be higher than the
 421 MAE_p by the TD approach. The estimated $MAE_{p,550}$ is higher than a previous study in Guangzhou
 422 ($7.44 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$) (Andreae et al., 2008), but comparable to Xi'an ($11.34 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$) (Wang et al., 2014) and
 423 Toronto ($9.53\sim 12.57 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$) (Knox et al., 2009). The annual average E_{abs550} by MRS following Eq. 3
 424 is estimated to be 1.50 ± 0.48 (mean ± 1 S.D.).

425 It should be noted that the E_{abs} estimation approach demonstrated here is insensitive to the MAE
 426 bias (e.g. overestimation of σ_{abs} and variability of EC mass by different TOA protocols) discussed in
 427 section 2.1, because bias in EC mass or σ_{abs} is cancelled out in the E_{abs} calculation (Eq. 3), since E_{abs}
 428 is the ratio of $\sigma_{abs,t}$ to $\sigma_{abs,p}$. To investigate the performance of the MRS approach in response to
 429 systematic bias in EC and σ_{abs} , two simple tests are conducted as shown in Figures S9 and S10 by
 430 adding systematic biases to σ_{abs550} and EC. Test A represents a situation when σ_{abs} is overestimated
 431 and EC is underestimated. The biased data are marked as σ'_{abs550} and EC' respectively, as shown
 432 below:

$$433 \quad \sigma'_{abs550} = \sigma_{abs550} \times 2 \quad (8)$$

$$434 \quad EC' = EC \times 0.7 \quad (9)$$

435 As a result, the average MAE_{550} changed from 18.75 to $53.58 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ and MAE_p changed from 13 to 37
 436 $\text{m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ (Figure S9). However, E_{abs} by ratio of averages remain the same (1.44).

437 In Test B, EC by different TOA protocols are compared to investigate the effect of different EC
 438 determination approaches while σ_{abs550} remains unchanged. EC by IMPROVE TOR protocol is
 439 calculated from NIOSH TOT EC following an empirical formula for suburban sites derived from a 3-
 440 year OCEC dataset in PRD (Wu et al., 2016a):

$$441 \quad EC_{IMP_TOR} = 2.63 \times EC_{NSH_TOT} + 0.05 \quad (10)$$

442 As shown in Figure S10, MAE_{550} changed from 18.75 to 7.02 $m^2 g^{-1}$ and MAE_p changed from 13 to 5
443 $m^2 g^{-1}$, but E_{abs} remain almost the same (1.40). Result of Test B implies that although EC is
444 operationally defined, the discrepancy of EC between TOA protocols did not weaken the role of EC
445 serving as a tracer for primary emissions in MRS application. These examples demonstrate that
446 systematic biases in σ_{abs550} and EC have no effects on E_{abs} estimation by the MRS approach.

447 As mentioned in section 1, the definition of MAE_p by the TD approach is different from the
448 MAE_p of emission source. The TD MAE_p is expected to be slightly lower than the MAE_p of emission
449 source. Therefore, the corresponding E_{abs} are slightly different and it should be cautioned when
450 comparing MRS-derived E_{abs} with E_{abs} by the TD approach and Mie simulations. The E_{abs} could vary
451 by location, depending on the coating thickness and size distribution of the primary aerosols. After
452 undergoing atmospheric aging, the E_{abs} can be increased during transport from emission source to rural
453 areas. The magnitude of the E_{abs} found at the NC site is comparable to other locations such as Boulder
454 (Lack et al., 2012a) (1.38), London (Liu et al., 2015) (1.4), Shenzhen (Lan et al., 2013) (1.3), Yuncheng
455 (Cui et al., 2016b) (2.25), Jinan (Chen et al., 2017) (2.07) and Nanjing (Cui et al., 2016a) (1.6) and is
456 higher than studies in California (Cappa et al., 2012) (1.06), as listed in Table 3. Spectrum E_{abs} are
457 calculated from 370 to 950 nm as shown in Figure S11. E_{abs} in the PRD exhibits a weak wavelength
458 dependence, with slightly higher E_{abs} at the shorter wavelength (e.g. $E_{abs370} = 1.55 \pm 0.48$) and is
459 relatively lower in the IR range (e.g. $E_{abs950} = 1.49 \pm 0.49$).

460 **4.2 Monthly characteristics of MAE, AAE and SSA**

461 Monthly variations of MAE_{550} at the NC site are shown in Figure 6a and Table S2, revealing distinct
462 patterns of higher MAE_{550} in summer and lower in winter. On the other hand, $AAE_{470-660}$ is lower in
463 summer and higher in winter (Figure 6b and Table S3). Monthly SSA_{525} varied from 0.83 to 0.90
464 without a clear seasonal pattern, as shown in Figure S12 and Table S4. $MAE_{p,550}$ estimation for
465 individual months is shown in Figure 6a (the purple line) and monthly E_{abs550} is calculated accordingly
466 following Eq. 3 (Figure 6c). E_{abs550} shows clear seasonal variations, with higher values from April to
467 August (1.52~1.97 as shown in Table S5) and relatively lower values from September to March

468 (1.24~1.49). The highest enhancement is found in August (1.97). Factors affecting variation of $E_{\text{abs}550}$
469 are discussed in the following sections, including air mass origin, biomass burning and RH.

470 **4.3 The effect of air mass origin**

471 It's of interest to understand the seasonal variations of optical properties in the PRD. Hourly backward
472 trajectories for the past 72 hours were calculated using NOAA's HYSPLIT (Hybrid Single Particle
473 Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory, version 4) model (Draxier and Hess, 1998) from Feb 2012 to Jan
474 2013 as shown in Figure S13. Cluster analysis was conducted using MeteoInfo (Wang, 2014). By
475 examining the total spatial variance (TSV), the number of clusters was determined to be four as shown
476 in Figure S14. Cluster 1 (C1) represents continental air masses from the north, accounting for 44.4%
477 of total trajectories. C2 (22.8%) represents marine air masses coming from the South China Sea. C3
478 represents air masses from the east (Taiwan island). C4 (15.8%) represents transitional air masses
479 coming from the east coastline of China. As shown in Figure 7, $E_{\text{abs}550}$ from C2 (1.78) is higher than
480 other clusters (1.30 – 1.42). Further Wilcoxon-Mann-Whitney tests show that $E_{\text{abs}550}$ from C2 is
481 significantly higher than $E_{\text{abs}550}$ from C1, C3 and C4 (Figure S15), implying that particles from the
482 South China Sea cluster is likely more aged than other clusters. Air mass origin in the PRD is
483 dominated by C2 from Apr to Aug (Figure S16a) as a result of the South China Sea monsoon in the
484 rainy season. In contrast, the dry season is ruled by continental air masses from the north (C1) due to
485 the influence of the northeast monsoon. $E_{\text{abs}550}$ from C2 varied from 1.67 to 2.19, but was always
486 higher than $E_{\text{abs}550}$ from C1 and C3 during the rainy season (Figure S16b). As a result, the domination
487 of aged air mass from the vast ocean is one of the reasons for the much higher $E_{\text{abs}550}$ found in the rainy
488 season.

489 **4.4 The effect of biomass burning**

490 Biomass burning (BB) and vehicular emission are the two major sources of soot particles. BC
491 from biomass burning emission, depending on the fuel type and burning condition, may have a higher
492 OC/EC ratio and a thicker coating, resulting in a higher MAE than vehicular emission (Shen et al.,
493 2013; Cheng et al., 2016). In this study, the influence of BB on optical properties is investigated using

494 the K^+/EC ratio as a BB indicator. As shown in Figure 8, MAE_{550} is positively correlated with the
495 K^+/EC ratio, which exhibits a clear seasonal pattern that is higher in the rainy season and lower in the
496 dry season (Figure S17a). Southeast Asia has the highest fire emission density globally due to the high
497 biofuel consumption along with frequent fire activity in this region (Aouizerats et al., 2015), making
498 Southeast Asia a large contributor to BC emissions (Jason Blake, 2014). During the rainy season when
499 oceanic wind prevails, BC from BB emission in Southeast Asia can reach PRD through long range
500 transport (LRT), resulting in an elevated K^+/EC ratio and MAE_{550} . The Deming regression intercept
501 (11.89) in Figure 8 represents the MAE without the BB effect. This non-BB MAE_{550} ($11.89 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$) is
502 only slightly lower than $MAE_{p,550}$ ($13 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$) obtained in section 4.3, implying that a large fraction of
503 $MAE_{p,550}$ could not be explained by the BB source. Additional evidence was obtained through
504 examining regression relationships of $MAE_{p,550}$ with K^+/EC month-by-month (Figure S17b).
505 Correlation of monthly $MAE_{p,550}$ vs. K^+/EC ratio yield a R^2 of 0.23 (Figure S17c). In contrast, a much
506 higher correlation ($R^2=0.58$) was observed (Figure S17d) between $MAE_{p,550}$ and non-BB MAE_{550} (i.e.,
507 K^+/EC intercepts from Figure S17b). These results imply that BB is one of the contributors to the
508 $MAE_{p,550}$ variations, but unlikely the dominating one.

509 Many studies have found that BB influenced samples exhibit elevated AAE due to the presence
510 of wavelength dependent light absorbing substances like BrC and Humic-Like Substances (HULIS)
511 (Kirchstetter et al., 2004; Hoffer et al., 2006; Sandradewi et al., 2008; Herich et al., 2011; Pokhrel et
512 al., 2017). It is of interest to investigate whether elevated AAE observed in the PRD during the dry
513 season is associated with BB influence. As shown in Figure S18, $AAE_{370-470}$ and $AAE_{470-660}$ did not
514 correlate with the BB indicator, K^+/EC ratio. These results suggest that the elevated AAE observed in
515 the PRD wintertime is unlikely to be dominated by the BB effect. Beside the independency between
516 $AAE_{470-660}$ and K^+/EC ratio, the measured $AAE_{470-660}$ range also implies that BB is not the major
517 driving force of $AAE_{470-660}$ variations. The limited light absorption contribution from BrC in RPD
518 region is observed in a recent study (Yuan et al., 2016) , which suggest an upper limit of BrC
519 contribution of 10% at 405 nm in the winter time using the AAE approach. As discussed in our Mie
520 simulation (section 3.1) and a previous study (Lack and Cappa, 2010), coating of non-absorbing
521 materials onto soot particles can increase AAE up to 2. Since the monthly average $AAE_{470-660}$ in

522 wintertime did not exceed 1.2 (Table S3), the variations of $AAE_{470-660}$ in the PRD are more likely
523 associated with coatings rather than the contribution of BrC. The results also imply that attempts on
524 BrC absorption attribution for the PRD dataset presented in this study could be risky, considering that
525 elevation of AAE is actually dominated by coating (Lack and Langridge, 2013).

526 **4.5 The effect of relative humidity (RH) on optical properties**

527 Soot particles are relatively hydrophobic when freshly emitted, but tend to gain hygroscopicity
528 during atmospheric aging. Hygroscopic growth of coated laboratory generated model BC was reported
529 by McMeeking et al. (2011). Growth of ambient BC particle size by a factor of 1.4-1.6 under high RH
530 has been observed in a UK study (Liu et al., 2013). Located in the subtropical zone, RH plays an
531 important role on aerosol optical properties in the PRD region. The yearlong measurements at the NC
532 site provide a unique opportunity to investigate the effect of RH on aerosol optical properties, since
533 most existing ad hoc studies in the PRD only last for months. Liquid water content (LWC) was
534 calculated using the E-AIM (model 2) thermodynamic model (Clegg et al., 1998). As shown in Figure
535 S19, LWC on average accounted for a significant fraction (44%) of non-EC $PM_{2.5}$ mass, making it an
536 important component of $PM_{2.5}$ mass and due to high RH in the PRD. Previously, hygroscopic growth
537 was only considered for particle scattering in the IMPROVE formula for chemically resolved light
538 extinction budget studies. In this study $f(RH)$ of MAE was obtained from yearlong measurements as
539 shown in Figure 9a for $RH = 30 \sim 100\%$ and color coded for LWC. It clearly shows that MAE_{550}
540 measured in NC is positively correlated with RH and the enhancement can be fitted by a polynomial
541 equation. When RH is close to 100%, the LWC can account for 70% of $PM_{2.5}$ mass. The maximum
542 $f(RH)$ can reach 1.3, which is higher than the value found in Beijing (1.2) (Wu et al., 2016b), but lower
543 than a numerical study (1.35) (Nessler et al., 2005). These results reveal that a large contribution of
544 E_{abs} is coming from high LWC under high RH in the PRD region. Because RH has a clear diurnal
545 pattern, it can affect the diurnal pattern of E_{abs} in the PRD. Since the RH effect on E_{abs} is rarely
546 considered in existing climate models, the inclusion of RH effect can reduce the uncertainty for
547 assessing BC's climate effect.

548 The $AAE_{470-660}$ dependency on RH is shown in Figure 9b. When RH is low (e.g. 30%), the
549 $AAE_{470-660}$ is around 1.25 and decreases to 1.10 as RH increases to 50%. $AAE_{470-660}$ remains around
550 1.12 when RH is 50-70%. Then $AAE_{470-660}$ decreases again when RH is higher than 70% and can reach
551 1 when RH is close to 100%. Since a higher RH results in hygroscopic growth and larger particle
552 diameters, the negative correlation between $AAE_{470-660}$ and RH provides a clue on soot particles'
553 primary diameter and mixing state. As shown in the Mie simulation in Figure 2b, for a particle with
554 D_{core} of 130 nm and D_{shell}/D_{core} of 2 to 4, $AAE_{470-660}$ decreases as the coating increases, and the decrease
555 tapers off when $D_{shell}/D_{core} = 3$. The D_{core} obtained here (130nm) is comparable with D_{core} obtained
556 from SP2 measurements (110nm) in the PRD (Huang et al., 2011a).

557 **4.6 Implications for mixing state**

558 Quantitative direct measurements of BC mixing state and coating thickness are still challenging.
559 SP2 can estimate the coating thickness using a lag-time approach or a Mie calculation approach can
560 be employed, but both methods have a limited range in coating thickness and uncertainties arise from
561 the assumptions made during the retrieval. For example, recent studies found that the mass equivalent
562 diameter of soot core measured by SP2 could be underestimated due to density assumptions (Zhang et
563 al., 2016b). Although size distribution measurement is not available in this study, clues of mixing state
564 still can be derived from bulk measurements of optical properties. As discussed in section 4.4.1,
565 elevated E_{abs550} observed in the rainy season is associated with aged air masses from a marine origin.
566 To probe the possible mixing state difference between dry and rainy season, E_{abs550} , SSA_{525} and
567 $AAE_{470-660}$ are used to narrow down the possible core-shell size range as shown in Figure S20. Monthly
568 averages with one standard deviation of $AAE_{470-660}$, SSA_{525} and E_{abs550} are used as constraints to extract
569 the intersecting core-shell size range from Figure 2a, Figure S4 and Figure 3a. January and August
570 data are used to represent two different scenarios: elevated $AAE_{470-660}$ (1.19 ± 0.11) with lower E_{abs550}
571 (1.31 ± 0.32) in dry season and low $AAE_{470-660}$ (1.04 ± 0.09) with elevated E_{abs550} (1.97 ± 0.71) in rainy
572 season. The results show that January and August have a very different core-shell size range: in
573 January, the core and shell range are 100 ~ 160 nm and 120 ~ 250 nm, respectively; in August, the

574 core and shell range are 120 ~ 165 nm and 170 ~ 430 nm, respectively. This confirms again that the
575 soot particles in the rainy season are likely to have a thicker coating than in the dry season.

576 **5 Caveats of the MRS method in its applications to ambient data**

577 The data in this study is dominated by BC absorption that did not show much influence from
578 BrC. However, extra care should be taken if the samples exhibit substantial BrC signature (e.g.
579 AAE>2). Such situations are equivalent to the two-source scenarios discussed in our previous paper
580 on the MRS method (Wu and Yu, 2016) and the major findings are described below. Two types of
581 two-source scenarios are considered: two correlated primary sources (scenario A) and two independent
582 primary sources (scenario B). In scenario A in which both BC and primary BrC are dominated by BB,
583 using BC as a solo tracer to calculate the primary ratio (MAE_p) still works. In scenario B in which BC
584 and primary BrC are independent, using BC alone to determine a single primary MAE_p could lead to
585 a considerable bias in E_{abs} estimation. Alternatively, if a reliable primary BrC tracer is available, the
586 corresponding MAE_{p,BrC} can be determined by MRS. With the knowledge of MAE_{p,BrC} and MAE_{p,BC}, light
587 absorption by BC and BrC can be calculated separately and the E_{abs} can be determined using Eq. (11) :

$$588 \quad E_{abs} = \frac{\sigma_{abs,t}}{\sigma_{abs,p,BC} + \sigma_{abs,p,BrC}} = \frac{\sigma_{abs,t}}{MAE_{p,BC} \times EC + MAE_{p,BrC} \times BrC} \quad (11)$$

589 However, the implementation of Eq.11 is challenging due to the complexity in the chemical
590 composition of BrC. For example, a recent study found that the 20 most absorbing BrC chromophores
591 account for ~50% BrC light absorption and there is not a single compound contributing more than 10%
592 (Lin et al., 2016), making it difficult to choose a single compound as the BrC tracer. In addition, time
593 resolved measurement of BrC chromophores has yet to emerge. As a result, for scenario B (sample
594 AAE>2 & primary BrC variations independent of BC), estimation of E_{abs} by MRS is not practical at
595 this stage due to the lack of required input data. Using BC alone to determine a single primary MAE_p
596 could lead to a considerable bias and should be avoided.

597 **6 Conclusions**

598 In this study, a novel statistical approach is proposed and its application on ambient data is
599 demonstrated using one-year hourly OC and EC data coupled with Aethalometer measurements.
600 Unlike conventional E_{abs} determination approaches that require expensive instrumentation (e.g. TD-
601 PAS, VTDMA, SP2), this new approach employs widely deployed instruments (field carbon analyzer
602 and Aethalometer). The key of this new approach involves calculating MAE_p by the Minimum R
603 Squared (MRS) method (Wu and Yu, 2016). It is found that E_{abs} estimation by MRS is insensitive to
604 systematic biases in EC and σ_{abs} measurements. The annual average $\text{MAE}_{p,550}$ estimated by MRS is
605 $13 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ and annual average MAE_{550} is $18.75 \pm 6.16 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$, suggesting an annual average enhancement
606 factor ($E_{\text{abs}550}$) of 1.50 ± 0.48 . This value is within the upper limit of E_{abs} (~ 2) by core-shell Mie
607 simulations considering the typical soot size distribution and coating thickness in the PRD.

608 Both $\text{MAE}_{p,550}$ and E_{abs} show distinct seasonal variations, implying the complexity of soot
609 particle mixing state variations in this region. The elevated summertime $E_{\text{abs}550}$ in the PRD is found to
610 be associated with the domination of aged air masses from the South China Sea, along with the long-
611 range transport of biomass burning influenced air masses from Southeast Asia. Hygroscopic growth
612 with elevated RH contributes to E_{abs} as well, which could be as high as 1.3. A negative correlation is
613 found between $\text{AAE}_{470-660}$ and RH, suggesting a dominant particle size with a D_{core} of 130 nm and
614 $D_{\text{shell}}/D_{\text{core}}$ range of 2 to 4. Core-shell size ranges narrowed down by $E_{\text{abs}550}$ and $\text{AAE}_{470-660}$ constraints
615 suggest that soot particles in the rainy season are likely to have thicker coatings than in the dry season.

616 **Data availability**

617 OC, EC, inorganic ions and σ_{abs} data used in this study are available from corresponding authors
618 upon request.

619

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1016 Table 1. Abbreviations.

1017

Abbreviation	Definition
AAE ₄₇₀₋₆₆₀	Absorption Angstrom Exponent between 470 and 660 nm
BB	Biomass burning
BrC	Brown Carbon
D _{core} , D _{shell}	Particle diameter of core/shell
E _{abs550}	Light absorption enhancement factor at 550 nm
σ_{abs550}	Light absorption coefficient at 550 nm
$\sigma_{abs,t}$	Total light absorption coefficient of a coated particle
$\sigma_{abs,p}$	Primary light absorption coefficient attributed to the soot core alone of a coated particle
$\sigma_{abs,c}$	Extra light absorption coefficient due to the lensing effect of coating on the soot core
LII	Laser induced incandescence technique for soot measurement
LWC	Liquid water content
MAE ₅₅₀	Mass absorption efficiency at 550 nm, also known as mass absorption cross-section (MAC)
MAE _{p,550}	Primary MAE of freshly emitted soot particles at 550 nm
MAAP	Multi Angle Absorption Photometer
MOUDI	Micro Orifice Uniform Deposit Impactor
MRS	Minimum R squared method
PAS	Photo acoustic spectrometer
PRD	Pearl River Delta region, China
SP2	Single particle soot photometer
SSA	Single scattering albedo
TD	Thermal denuder
TOA	Thermal optical analysis
TSV	Total spatial variance in backward trajectories cluster analysis

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1019 Table 2. Comparison of MRS application on $(OC/EC)_p$ (for SOC estimation) and MAE_p (for E_{abs} estimation).
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	MRS in EC tracer method for SOC estimation (Wu and Yu, 2016)	MRS in EC tracer method for E_{abs} estimation (this study)
Key parameter of fresh EC particles to be determined	$\left(\frac{OC}{EC}\right)_p = \frac{POC}{EC}$	$MAE_p = \frac{O\sigma_{abs,p}}{EC}$
Input quantities for MRS from measurements	OC, EC (tracer)	$\sigma_{abs,t}$, EC (tracer)
Variable to be decoupled by the tracer	$OC = POC + SOC$ $= \left(\frac{OC}{EC}\right)_p \times EC + SOC$	$\sigma_{abs,t} = \sigma_{abs,p} + \sigma_{abs,c}$ $= \left(\frac{O\sigma_{abs,t}C}{EC}\right)_p \times EC + \sigma_{abs,c}$
Ambient measurement at its closest to fresh emissions	Minimum R^2 (SOC, EC) $SOC = OC - \left(\frac{OC}{EC}\right)_p \times EC$	Minimum R^2 ($\sigma_{abs,c}$, EC) $\sigma_{abs,c} = \sigma_{abs,t} - MAE_p \times EC$
Graph	<p>Minimum R^2 $(OC/EC)_p = 2.26$</p>	<p>Minimum R^2 $(OC/EC)_p = 13$</p>

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1022 Table 3. Comparison of E_{abs} between various studies.

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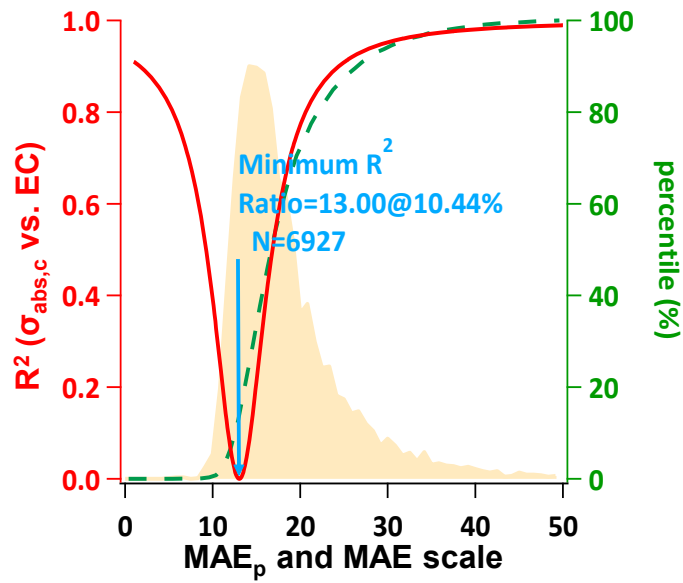
Location	Type	Sampling Duration	λ (nm)	Instrument	E_{abs}	Method	Reference
Guangzhou, China	Suburban	2012.2-2013.1	550	AE+OCEC	1.50±0.48	MAE	This study
Xi'an, China	Urban	2012.12-2013.1	870	PAS	1.8	MAE	(Wang et al., 2014)
Shenzhen, China	Urban	2011.8-9	532	PAS	1.3	MAE	(Lan et al., 2013)
Jinan, China	Urban	2014.2	678	OCEC	2.07 ± 0.72	AFD	(Chen et al., 2017)
Nanjing, China	Suburban	2012.11	532	PAS	1.6	MAE	(Cui et al., 2016a)
Boulder, USA	Forest fire	2010.9	532	PAS	1.38	TD 200°C	(Lack et al., 2012a)
London, UK	Rural	2012.2	781	PAS	1.4	TD 250°C	(Liu et al., 2015)
California, USA	Rural	2010.6	532	PAS	1.06	TD 250°C	(Cappa et al., 2012)
Noto Peninsula, Japan	Rural	2013.4-5	781	PAS	1.22	TD 300°C	(Ueda et al., 2016)
Yuncheng, China	Rural	2014.6-7	678	OCEC	2.25 ± 0.55	AFD	(Cui et al., 2016b)
San Jose, Costa Rica	Rural	2006 winter	1064	SP2	1.3	Mie+SP2	(Schwarz et al., 2008)

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AE: Aethalometer ; OCEC: OCEC analyzer; PAS: photo acoustic spectrometer; SP2: Single particle soot photometer; TD: Thermal denuder AFD: filter filtration-dissolution

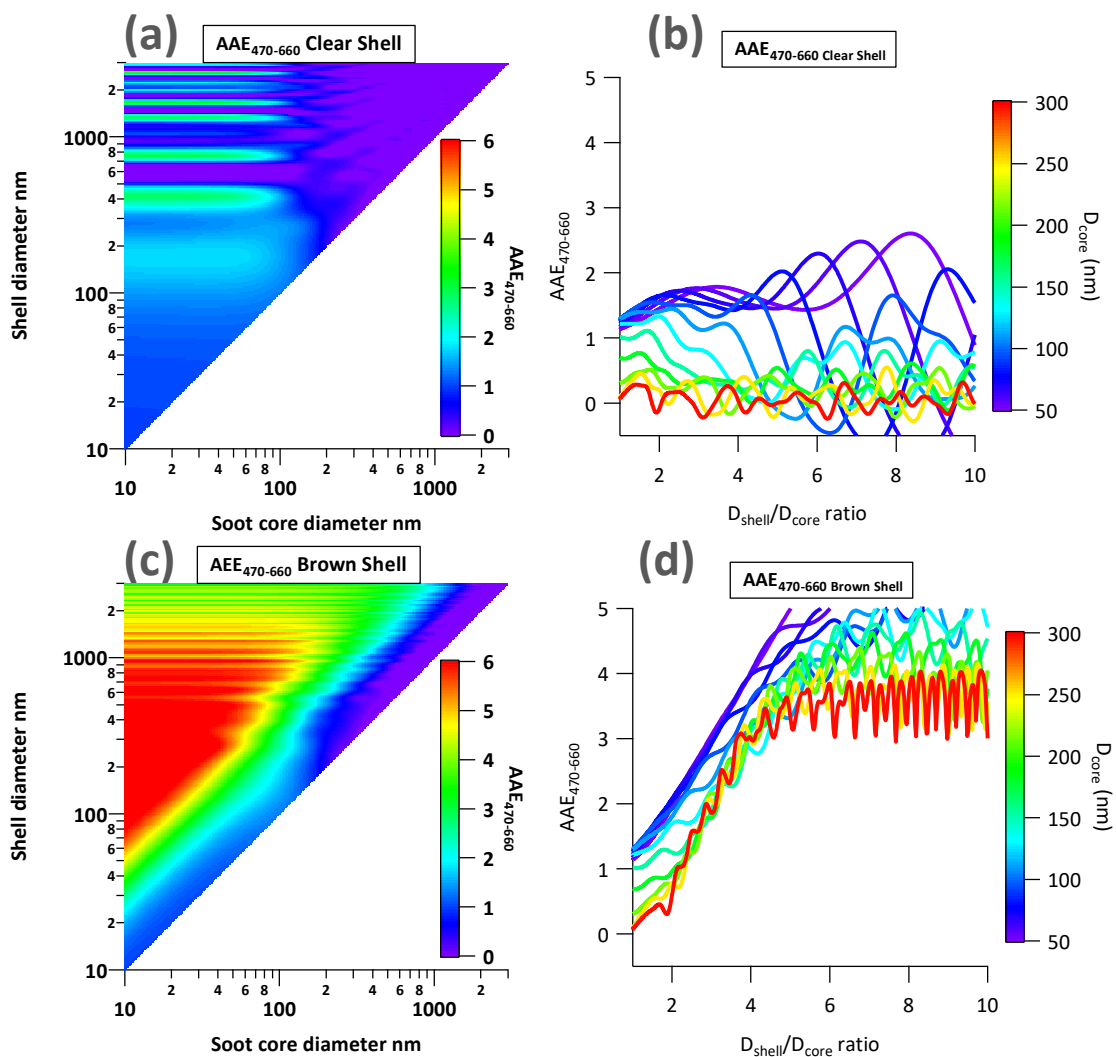
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1028 Figure 1. Minimum R squared (MRS) plot for calculating MAE_p at 550 nm. The red curve is the correlation result between
 1029 $\sigma_{abs,c}$ ($\sigma_{abs,t} - EC * MAE_p$) and EC mass. The shaded area in light tan represents the frequency distribution of observed
 1030 MAE. The dashed green line is the cumulative distribution of observed MAE.



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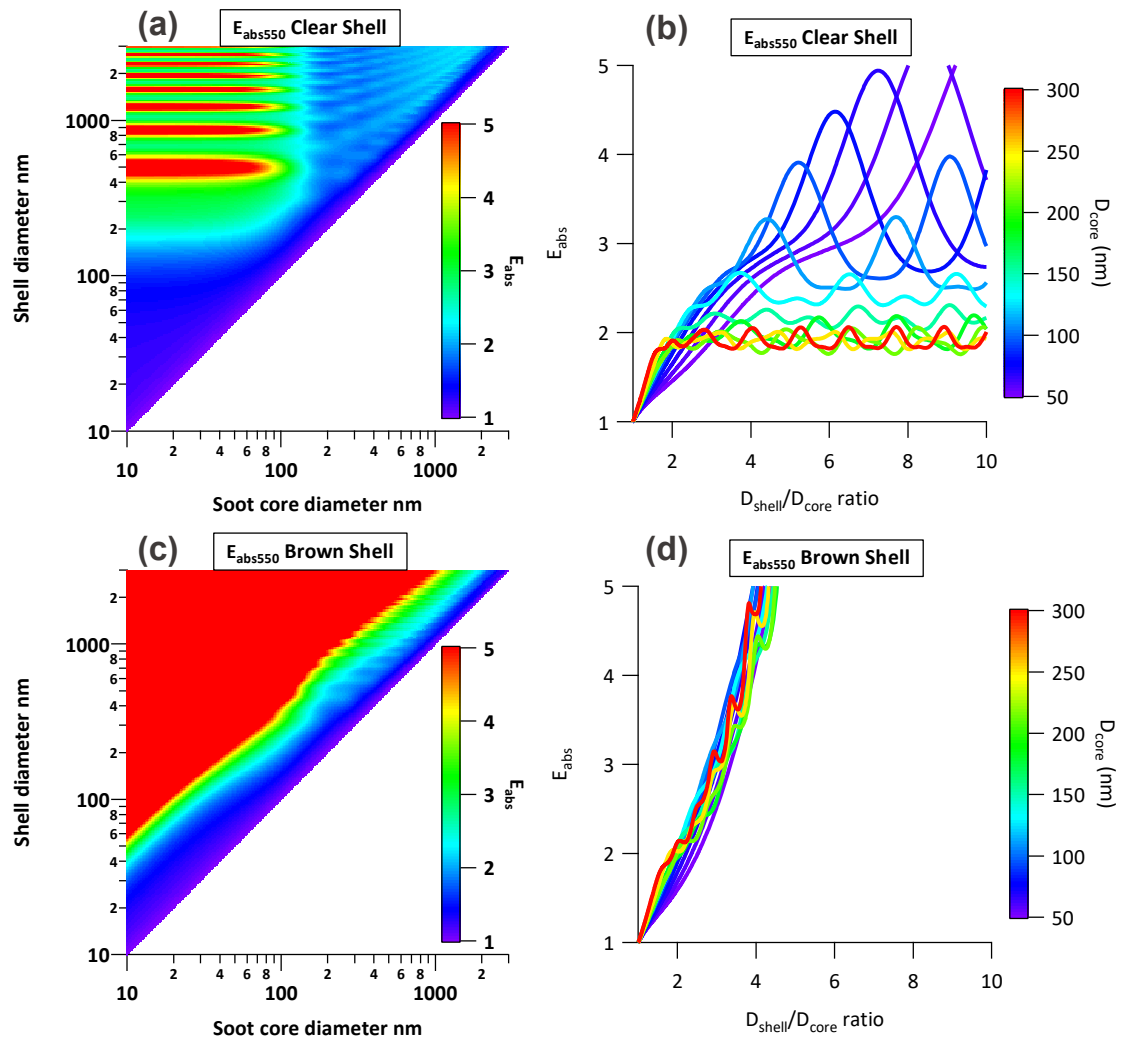
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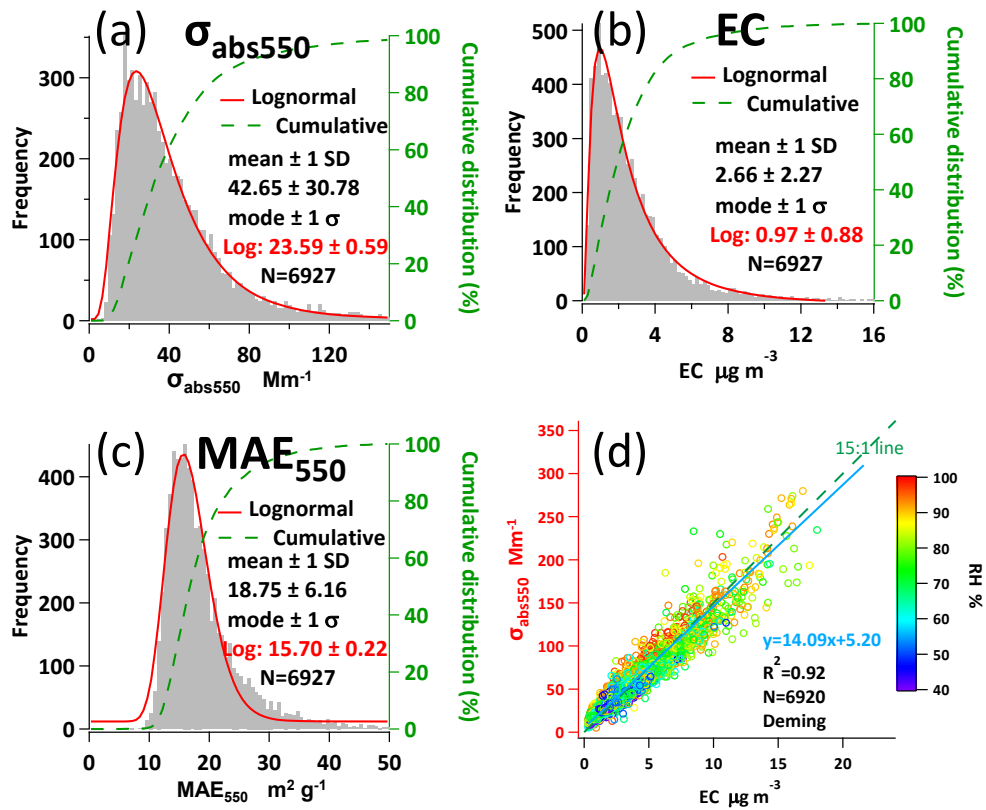
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Figure 2. Mie simulated size dependency of soot particles AAE₄₇₀₋₆₆₀. (a) Combination of different clear shell (y axis) and core diameters (x axis). The color coding represents the AAE₄₇₀₋₆₆₀ of a particle with specific core and clear shell size; (b) Cross-sections views of (a). The color coding represents different D_{core} in the range of 50 ~ 300 nm. (c)&(d) Similar to (a)&(b) but from the brown shell scenario.



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Figure 3. Mie simulated size dependency of soot particles E_{abs} at wavelength 550 nm. (a) Combination of different clear shell (y axis) and core diameters (x axis). The color coding represents the E_{abs} of a particle with specific core and clear shell size; (b) Cross-sections views of (a). The color coding represents different D_{core} in the range of 50 – 300 nm. (c)&(d) Similar to (a)&(b) but from the brown shell scenario.



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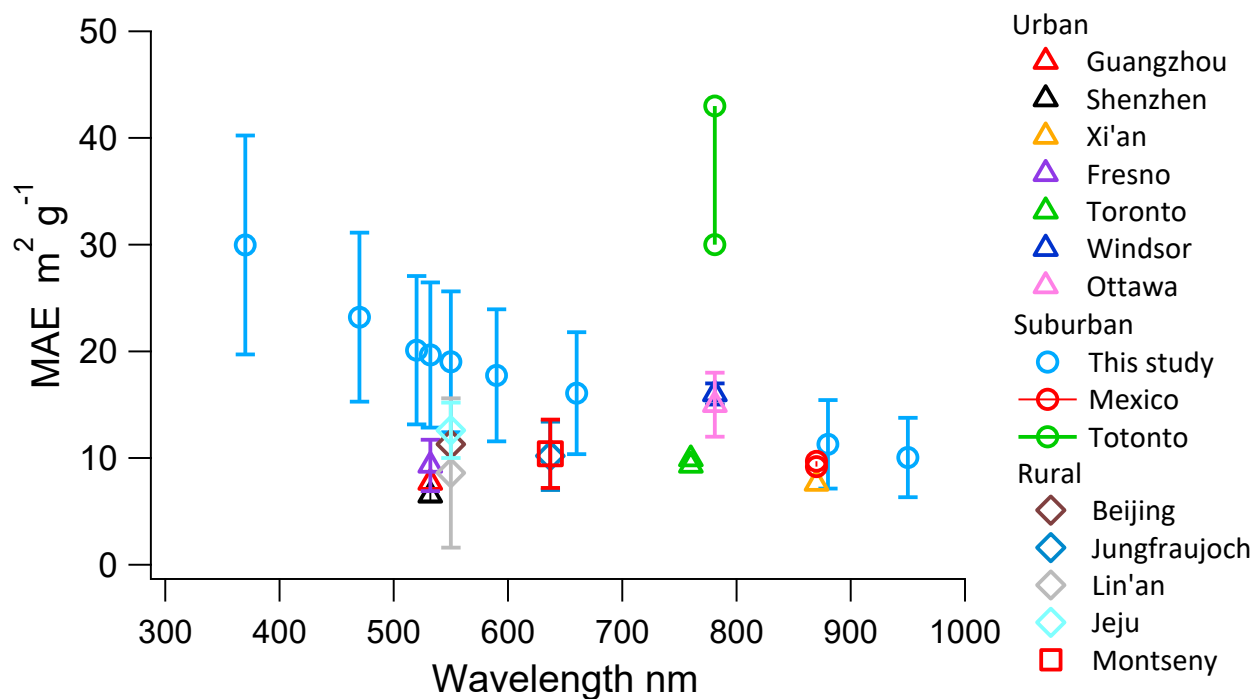
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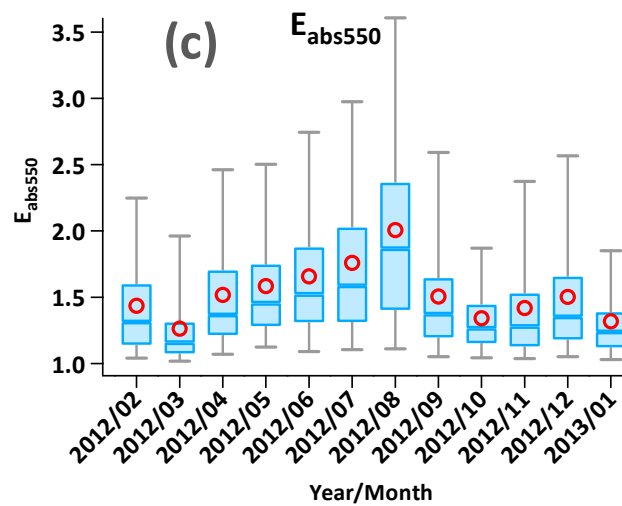
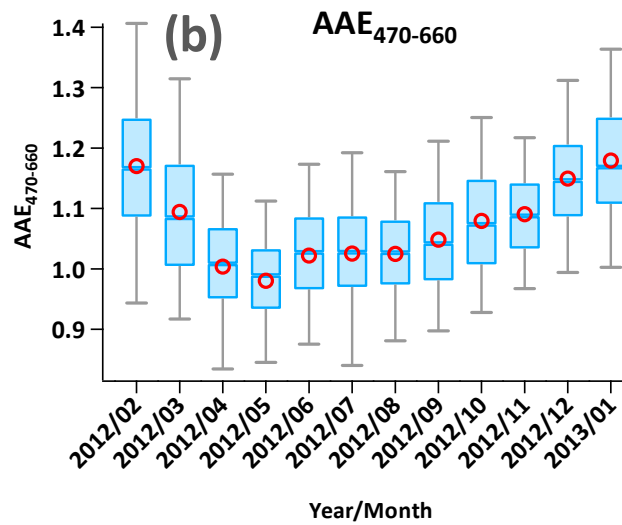
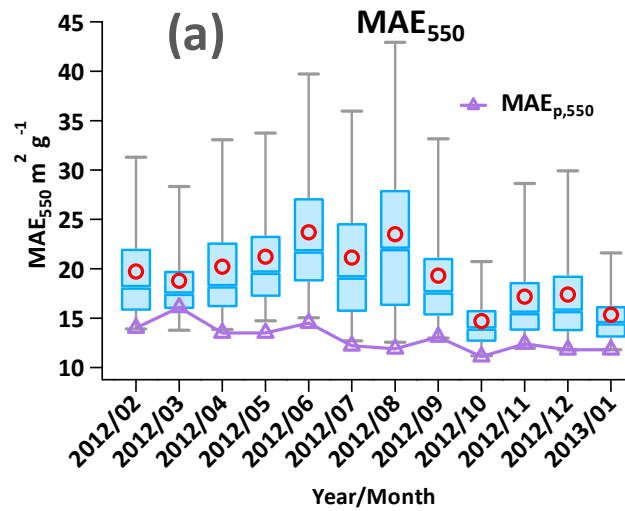
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Figure 4. Measured annual statistics of σ_{abs550} , EC and MAE₅₅₀. (a) Annual frequency distribution of light absorption at 550 nm. The red curve represents the fitting line for a log-normal distribution. (b) Annual frequency distribution of EC mass concentration (c) Frequency distribution of Mass absorption efficiency (MAE) at 550 nm. (d) Scatter plot of light absorption (550 nm) and EC mass. The slope represents MAE₅₅₀. The blue regression line is by Deming regression. The color coding represents RH.



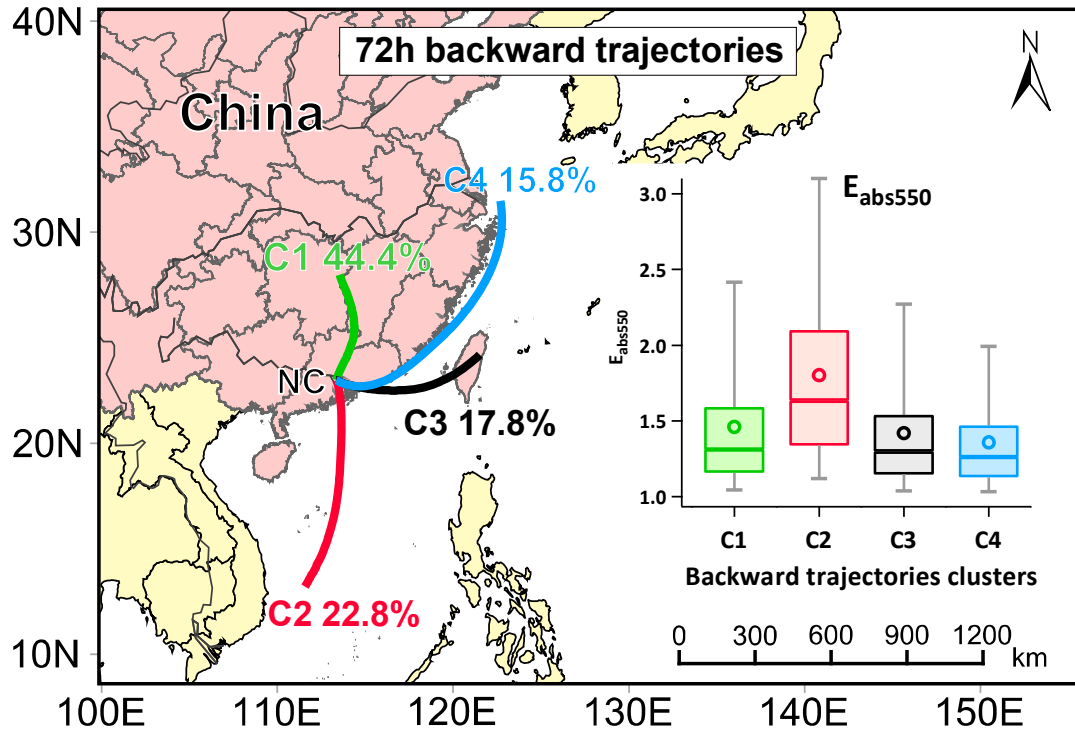
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1055 Figure 5. Comparison of spectral MAE measurements from this study with previous studies. Triangle, circle and rhombus
 1056 represent urban, suburban and rural respectively. Details and reference can be found in Table S1. The whiskers represent
 1057 one standard deviation.



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1059 Figure 6. Measured monthly variations of (a) MAE_{550} , the purple line represents $MAE_{p,550}$ estimated by MRS (b) AAE_{470-}
 1060 660 and (c) E_{abs550} . Red circles represent the monthly average. The line inside the box indicates the monthly median. Upper
 1061 and lower boundaries of the box represent the 75th and the 25th percentiles; the whiskers above and below each box represent
 1062 the 95th and 5th percentiles.

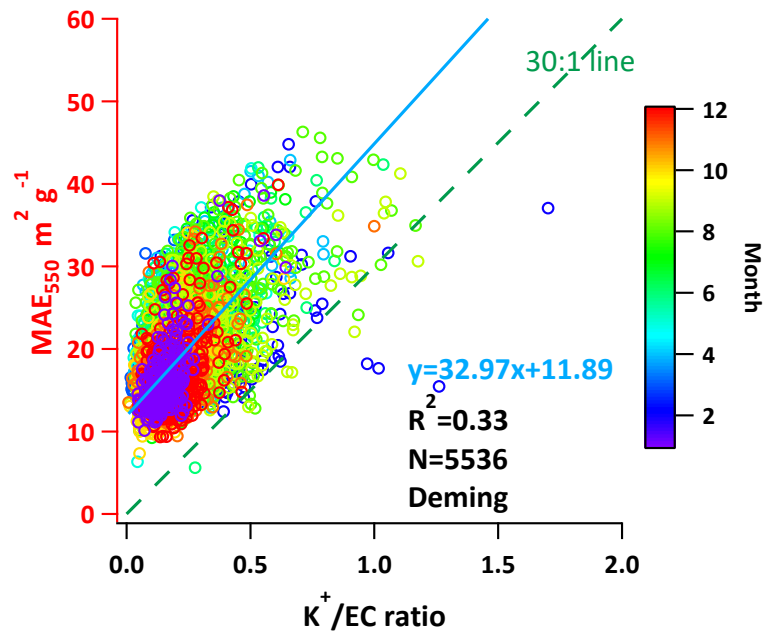


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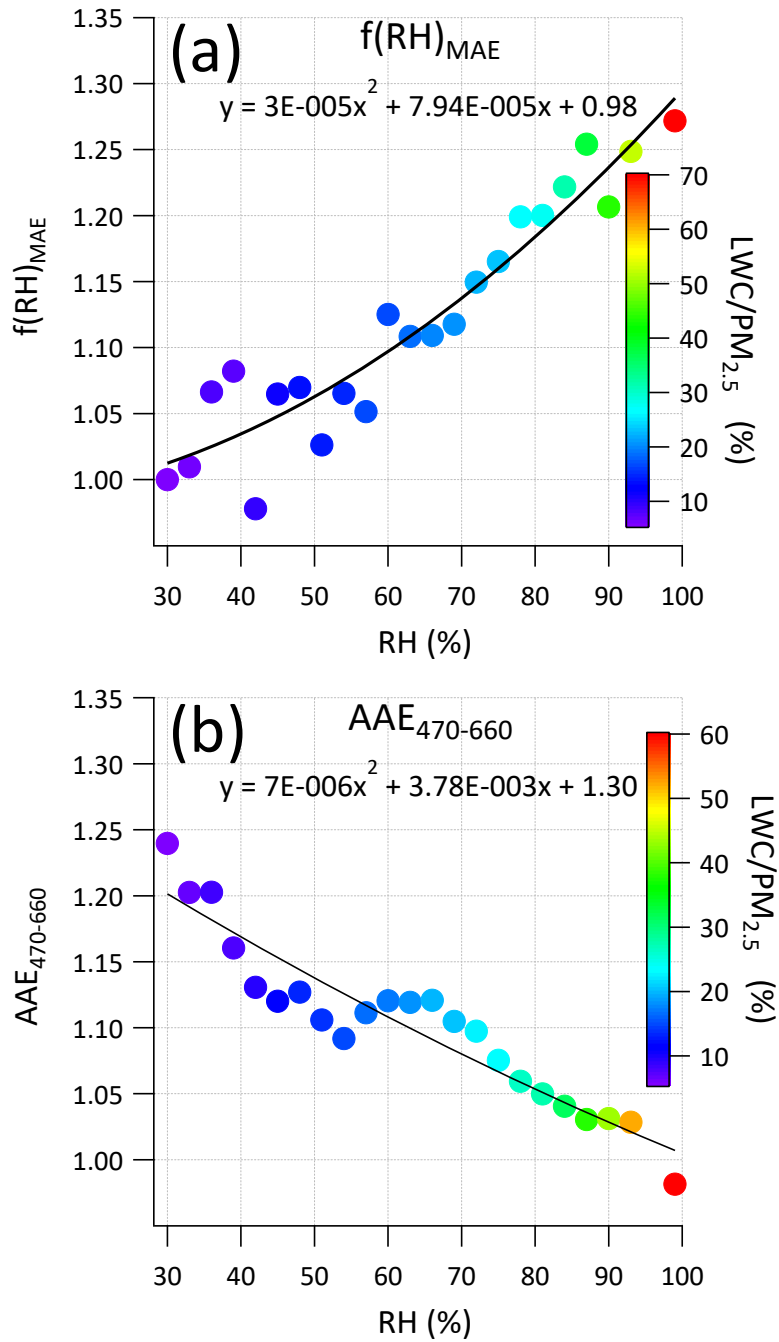
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Figure 7. Average backward trajectories arriving at 100 m at NC site for four clusters (2012 Feb - 2013 Jan). $E_{\text{abs}550}$ by different clusters are shown in the box plot.



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1067 Figure 8. MAE₅₅₀ dependency on biomass burning indicator K^+/EC ratio. The color coding represents months. The intercept
 1068 represents MAE without biomass burning effect. The 30:1 line serves as a reference line with an integer slope that
 1069 is close to the regressed slope through the origin.



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1071 Figure 9. Optical properties dependency on RH determined from one year's sampling data at NC site. (a) Hygroscopic
 1072 growth factor ($f(RH)$) of EC MAE₅₅₀ (b) $AAE_{470-660}$ as a function of RH.