



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

3 Cheng Wu^{1,2}, Dui Wu^{1,2,3}, Jian Zhen Yu^{4,5,6}

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5 ¹Institute of Mass Spectrometer and Atmospheric Environment, Jinan University, Guangzhou 510632, China

6 ²Guangdong Provincial Engineering Research Center for on-line source apportionment system of air
7 pollution, Guangzhou 510632, China

8 ³Institute of Tropical and Marine Meteorology, China Meteorological Administration, Guangzhou 510080,
9 China

10 ⁴Division of Environment, Hong Kong University of Science and Technology, Clear Water Bay, Hong Kong,
11 China

12 ⁵Atmospheric Research Centre, Fok Ying Tung Graduate School, Hong Kong University of Science and
13 Technology, Nansha, China

14 ⁶Department of Chemistry, Hong Kong University of Science and Technology, Clear Water Bay, Hong
15 Kong, China

16 *Corresponding to:* Cheng Wu (wucheng.vip@foxmail.com) and Jian Zhen Yu (jian.yu@ust.hk)

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18 Abstract

19 Black carbon (BC) particles in the atmosphere can absorb more light when coated by non-absorbing
20 or weakly absorbing materials during atmospheric aging, due to the lensing effect. In this study, the light
21 absorption enhancement factor, E_{abs} , was quantified using one year's measurement of mass absorption
22 efficiency (MAE) in the Pearl River Delta region (PRD). A new approach for calculating primary MAE
23 (MAE_p), the key for E_{abs} estimation, is demonstrated using the Minimum R Squared (MRS) method, exploring
24 the inherent source independency between BC and its coating materials. The annual average E_{abs} is found to
25 be 1.52, exhibiting a clear seasonal pattern with higher values in summer and lower in the winter. Elevated
26 E_{abs} in the rainy summer season is likely associated with aged air masses dominating from marine origin,
27 along with long-range transport of biomass burning influenced air masses from Southeast Asia. E_{abs} induced
28 by hygroscopic growth at elevated RH could be as high as 1.3. Core-shell Mie simulations along with
29 measured E_{abs} and Angstrom absorption exponent (AAE) constraints suggest that in the PRD, the coating
30 materials are unlikely to be dominated by brown carbon and the coating thickness is higher in the rainy season
31 than the dry season. A negative correlation is found between $\text{AAE}_{470-660}$ and RH, suggesting a dominant
32 particle size of $D_{\text{core}} = 130$ nm and $D_{\text{shell}}/D_{\text{core}}$ range of 2 to 4.



33

34 **1 Introduction**

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

$$50 \quad \text{MAE} (m^2 g^{-1}) = \frac{\text{absorption coefficient } \sigma_{abs} (Mm^{-1})}{\text{EC mass concentration } (\mu g m^{-3})} \quad (1)$$

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



60 extra absorption ($\sigma_{abs,c}$) due to lensing effect of the coating and the presence of secondarily formed brown
61 carbon (BrC).

$$62 \quad \sigma_{abs,t} = \sigma_{abs,p} + \sigma_{abs,c} \quad (2)$$

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

$$65 \quad E_{abs} = \frac{\sigma_{abs,t}}{\sigma_{abs,p}} = \frac{MAE_t}{MAE_p} \quad (3)$$

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

$$68 \quad MAE_p = \frac{\sigma_{abs,p}}{EC} \quad (4)$$

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

$$70 \quad MAE_t = \frac{\sigma_{abs,t}}{EC} \quad (5)$$

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

72 Previous model studies suggest that absorption by aged soot particles can be 1.5 times greater than fresh soot
73 (Fuller et al., 1999; Bond et al., 2006). Laboratory studies have demonstrated that soot particles coated with
74 SOA (Saathoff et al., 2003; Schnaiter et al., 2005) and sulfuric acid (Zhang et al., 2008; Khalizov et al., 2009)
75 can increase E_{abs} . An artificial coating experiment by Shiraiwa et al. (2010) found an E_{abs} of 2 for graphite
76 particles growing in diameter from 185 to 370 nm. A recent chamber study coupling actual ambient air with
77 seed BC particles implies that the timescale for E_{abs} reaching 2.4 is only 5 hours in Beijing but 18 hours in
78 Houston (Peng et al., 2016). Field studies conducted in recent years have also substantiated enhanced light
79 absorption in Canada (Knox et al., 2009; Chan et al., 2011), US (Lack et al., 2012b), UK (Liu et al., 2015) and
80 Japan (Nakayama et al., 2014; Ueda et al., 2016). A recent study suggests the mass ratio of non-BC content to
81 BC particles determines the occurrence of the absorption enhancement of black-carbon particles (Liu et al.,
82 2017).

83 Two approaches are widely used to determine E_{abs} from ambient measurements. The first approach
84 removes the coating materials on particles physically using a thermal denuder (TD) (Lack et al., 2012a) or by
85 aerosol filter filtration-dissolution (AFD) (Cui et al., 2016b). The TD is briefly discussed here. Coating



86 materials can be removed by TD at a working temperature around 200 to 300 °C (depending on the charring
87 characteristics of aerosols at the sampling site) to measure $\sigma_{abs,p}$, which are cycled with measurements of
88 $\sigma_{abs,t}$ (without passing through TD), allowing E_{abs} to be obtained from the ratio of $\sigma_{abs,t}/\sigma_{abs,p}$ following
89 Eq.3. The major advantage of the TD approach is its ability to provide highly time resolved measurements
90 (minutes). A photo-acoustic spectrometer (PAS) is commonly used with TD for detection to satisfy its high
91 time resolution demands. One limitation of the TD approach is that a universal optimal operation temperature
92 does not exist. If the temperature is too low, the coating cannot be fully removed, and charring can occur if
93 the TD temperature is too high, leading to biased results. Another issue is particle loss due to TD, which can
94 be ~ 20% and needs to be taken into account (Ueda et al., 2016).

95 The second approach is the MAE ratio method, which is also stated in Eq. 3. The key to this method is
96 determining an appropriate MAE_p that can represent the MAE from primary emissions. One approach is to
97 adopt the reference MAE_p from the literature but it may fail to represent the actual MAE_p at a specific sampling
98 site, since MAE_p varies temporally and spatially. The other commonly used approach is to determine MAE_p
99 from the dependency of MAE on the number fraction of coated soot particles measured by SP2 (Lan et al.,
100 2013). Since MAE (y axis) is positively correlated with the number fraction of coated soot particles (x axis),
101 MAE_p can be determined by extending the regression line to $x=0$.

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



113 2 Ambient measurements

114 Sampling was conducted from Feb 2012 to Jan 2013 at the suburban Nancun (NC) site (23° 0'11.82"N,
115 113°21'18.04"E). NC, situated on the top of the highest peak (141 m ASL) in Guangzhou's Panyu district, is
116 located at the geographic center of the PRD region, making it a representative location for average atmospheric
117 mixing characteristics of city clusters in the PRD region. Light absorption measurements were performed by
118 a 7-λ Aethalometer (AE-31, Magee Scientific Company, Berkeley, CA, USA). Light scattering was measured
119 by an integrating nephelometer (Aurora-1000, Ecotech, Melbourne, Australia). Water soluble ions were
120 measured by MARGA (The instrument for Measuring AeRosols and GAses)(ten Brink et al., 2007). EC mass
121 concentrations were determined by a real time ECOC analyzer (Model RT-4, Sunset Laboratory Inc., Tigard,
122 Oregon, USA). The Aethalometer was equipped with a 2.5 μm cyclone with a sampling flow rate of 4 L min⁻¹.
123 Weingartner's algorithm (Weingartner et al., 2003) was adopted to correct the sampling artifacts (aerosol
124 loading, filter matrix and scattering effect) rooted in filter based method. A customized Aethalometer data
125 processing program (Wu, 2017a) with graphical user interface was developed to perform data correction and
126 detailed descriptions can be found in the SI (The program is available from
127 <https://sites.google.com/site/wuchengust>). Details of the Aethalometer setup and data correction can be found
128 in our previous paper (Wu et al., 2013). The sunset carbon analyzer was sampling on hourly cycles at a flow
129 rate of 8 Lmin⁻¹ with a PM_{2.5} sharp-cut cyclone inlet. For each measurement hour, the first 45min were for
130 sample collection and the remaining 15 min for thermal-optical analysis. OC is volatilized first by step-wise
131 temperature ramping in an oxygen-free atmosphere while in the second stage EC is combusted in the presence
132 of oxygen. Laser transmittance is applied to correct the charring artifact during the OC stage.

133 Considering a measurement uncertainty of 5% for the Aethalometer(Hansen, 2005) and 24% for the RT-
134 ECOC analyzer (Bauer et al., 2009), the propagated relative uncertainty of E_{abs} ($E_{abs,Unc}$) is 35% following
135 Eq. S1&S2 in the SI. It should be noted that $E_{abs,Unc}$ is mainly attributed to the measurement uncertainty of
136 EC by the RT-ECOC analyzer. Since the measurement uncertainty of the RT-ECOC analyzer estimated by
137 Bauer et al. (2009) is obtained from field measurement at an environment (EC below 1 μg m⁻³) where EC is
138 much lower than the present study (annual average EC 2.63 μg m⁻³), the $E_{abs,Unc}$ of 35% should be
139 considered as an upper limit for the present study.



140 2.1 Uncertainties of MAE determination

141 Two major uncertainties associated with the σ_{abs} and EC determination techniques should be taken
142 into account when comparing MAE across different studies. For the σ_{abs} determination technique, photo-
143 acoustic spectroscopy (PAS) is an in-situ technique free from filter based artifacts, but its application is limited
144 by its high cost. The filter based optical transmittance method (e.g., Aethalometer and Multi Angle Absorption
145 Photometer, MAAP) is the most widely used technique around the world, but data correction is needed to
146 minimize the bias from artifacts due to the loading effect, matrix effect and scattering effect (Coen et al.,
147 2010). In our study, careful corrective measures (Wu et al., 2013) are conducted for the Aethalometer σ_{abs}
148 data treatment to minimize these artifacts. But such artifacts still cannot be fully eliminated.

149 For the EC determination, different thermal optical analysis (TOA) protocols can impact the
150 measurement variability and thus MAE. As shown in Table S1, MAE for the same samples at Fresno varied
151 from 6.1 to 9.3 $\text{m}^2 \text{g}^{-1}$, depending on which EC analysis protocol was applied (Chow et al., 2009). Studies in
152 the PRD found that discrepancies in measured EC by different analysis protocols could be as large as a factor
153 of 5 (Wu et al., 2012; Wu et al., 2016a), which adds to the uncertainty for the MAE estimation. In addition,
154 EC by TOA is also different from refractory BC (rBC) reported by the laser induced incandescence (LII)
155 technique (e.g. single particle soot photometer, SP2). For example, two studies in Toronto (Knox et al.,
156 2009; Chan et al., 2011) both used the PAS for σ_{abs} measurement but different techniques for EC mass
157 determination, resulting in very different MAE results. LII instruments are usually calibrated with a
158 commercially available surrogate (e.g. fullerene) since direct calibration with ambient soot is not easy to
159 achieve. Laborde et al. (2012) indicates that the incandescence response of SP2 exhibits a dependency on soot
160 type (15% between fullerene and denuded diesel soot particles; 14% between biomass burning and denuded
161 diesel soot particles). Due to the absence of widely accepted reference materials for EC, the uncertainties in
162 EC determination will exist in the foreseeable future. All these uncertainties, including the uncertainty of rBC
163 mass determination by SP2, uncertainty of EC in TOA, the discrepancy between SP2 rBC and TOA EC and
164 the discrepancy of σ_{abs} between filter transmission and photo-acoustic methods, can contribute to the
165 differences in MAE listed in Table S1.

166 It is worth noting that MAE uncertainties (e.g. uncertainties of σ_{abs} and variability of EC mass by
167 different TOA protocols) discussed above have little effect on E_{abs} estimation. As shown in Eq. 3, E_{abs} is the



168 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 cancelled out during
169 the E_{abs} calculation.

170 3 Methodology

171 3.1 MAE_p estimation by MRS from the ambient data

172 In this section, a new approach for MAE_p estimation is introduced for E_{abs} determination, which requires the
173 knowledge of differentiating $\sigma_{abs,p}$ and $\sigma_{abs,c}$ portions in $\sigma_{abs,t}$. The idea of decoupling $\sigma_{abs,t}$ into
174 $\sigma_{abs,p}$ and $\sigma_{abs,c}$ is conceptually similar to decoupling OC into primary OC (POC) and secondary OC (SOC)
175 in the EC tracer method as shown in Table 2. In the EC tracer method, if $(OC/EC)_p$ is known, POC can be
176 determined from OC (Turpin and Huntzicker, 1991). The role of MAE_p here is similar to the role of $(OC/EC)_p$,
177 the primary OC/EC ratio in the EC tracer method (a comparison is given in Table 2). If MAE_p (average MAE
178 from primary emission sources) is known, E_{abs} can be obtained from the ratio of MAE_t/MAE_p (Eq. 3).
179 Therefore, the key for E_{abs} estimation is to derive an appropriate MAE_p . It is worth noting that MAE_p here
180 does not represent MAE from a single or specific primary emission source, instead it reflects an average and
181 effective MAE that has taken consideration of various primary emission sources. Thus, the MAE_p is
182 conceptually analogous to $(OC/EC)_p$ in the EC tracer method, in which the primary ratio reflects an overall
183 ratio from primary emission sources rather than from a single primary source.

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

$$192 \quad \sigma_{abs,c} = \sigma_{abs,t} - MAE_p \times EC \quad (6)$$

193 Accordingly, for each hypothetical MAE_p , a correlation coefficient value (R^2) of $\sigma_{abs,c}$ vs. EC (i.e.,
194 $R^2(\sigma_{abs,c}, EC)$) can be obtained. The series of $R^2(\sigma_{abs,c}, EC)$ values (y axis) are then plotted against the



195 assumed MAE_p values (x axis) as shown by the red curve in Figure 1. The physical meaning of this plot can
196 be interpreted as follows. The $\sigma_{abs,p}$ is the fraction of light absorption owing to primary emitted soot particles.
197 As a result, $\sigma_{abs,p}$ is well correlated with EC mass. In contrast, the $\sigma_{abs,c}$ is the fraction of light absorption
198 gained by the lensing effect of the coating on particles after emission. The variability of $\sigma_{abs,c}$ mainly
199 depends on the coating thickness of the soot particles. Consequently, $\sigma_{abs,c}$ is independent of EC mass. Since
200 variations of EC and $\sigma_{abs,c}$ are independent, the assumed MAE_p corresponding to the minimum
201 $R^2(EC, \sigma_{abs,c})$ would then represent the most statistically probable MAE_p of the tested dataset.

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

208 3.2 Mie simulation

209 It can be informative to model a single soot particle using Mie theory (Bohren and Huffman, 1983)
210 and understand the theoretical range and variability of the soot particle's optical properties. Three types of
211 mixing state are widely employed for parameterization: internal mixing, external mixing and core-shell. To
212 better represent the real situation (coating due to the aging process), a core-shell model is considered in the
213 Mie calculation (Figure 2), which is more realistic than a volume mixture model (Bond et al., 2006). An
214 aerosol optical closure study in the North China Plain (NCP) found that the core-shell model can provide
215 better performance than assuming purely internal mixing and external mixing (Ma et al., 2012). A morphology
216 study using Scanning Transmission X-ray Microscopy found that core-shell is the dominating mixing state in
217 ambient samples (Moffet et al., 2016). It should be noted that the core-shell model assumption still has its own
218 limitations. A single particle soot photometer (SP2) study by Sedlacek et al. (2012) reported a negative lag
219 time between the scattering and incandescence signals in samples influenced by biomass burning, implying
220 a near surface location of soot relative to non-absorbing materials. Near surface type mixing of soot has also
221 been observed in Tokyo, but accounted for only 10% of total mixed soot containing particles (Moteki et al.,



222 2014). Considering the domination of core-shell type particles in the ambient environment, the core-shell
223 assumption in our optical model is sufficient to approximate the real situation.

224 As shown in Figure 2, fresh emitted soot particles are chain-like aggregates of small spheres (30~50
225 nm). After the aging process, soot particles are coated with organic and inorganic materials. Sufficient
226 evidence has shown that the coating not only results in particle size growth, but also makes the soot core
227 become more compact due to its collapse (Alexander et al., 2008;Zhang et al., 2008;Lewis et al., 2009). Since
228 the spherical like core and shell favor Mie simulation, both core and shell are considered as spheres in the Mie
229 calculation.

230 To investigate the spectrum properties of soot particles, 11 wavelengths (370, 405, 470, 520, 532, 550,
231 590, 660, 781, 880 and 950 nm) are considered in calculations to cover wavelengths in the most frequently
232 used absorption measurement instruments. A refractive index (RI) of 1.85 – 0.71i is adopted for soot core
233 (Bond and Bergstrom, 2006) and 1.55 for non-absorbing coating (clear shell) in the Mie calculation for all
234 wavelengths. Studies suggest a group of organic matter (OM), known as Brown Carbon (BrC), can absorb
235 solar radiation at UV wavelengths (Kirchstetter et al., 2004). Thus, a BrC coating (brown shell) scenario is
236 also considered in Mie simulation following the wavelength dependent RI suggested by Lack and Cappa
237 (2010). A modeling study by Bond et al. (2006) indicates that absorption amplification is not sensitive to the
238 RI, thus the result below is not expected to be sensitive to the RI variability. Both core diameters (D_{core}) and
239 shell diameters (D_{shell}) are constrained in the range of 10 ~ 3000 nm in the model simulations. The Mie
240 calculations are implemented with a customized program (Wu, 2017e) written in Igro Pro (WaveMetrics, Inc.
241 Lake Oswego, OR, USA) and it is available from <https://sites.google.com/site/wuchengust>. It should be noted
242 that the core-shell type mixing state of particles is still rare in 3D atmospheric models like WRF-Chem (Matsui
243 et al., 2013;Nordmann et al., 2014) due to computational cost limitation.

244 3.2.1 Absorption Angstrom Exponent (AAE)

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

$$247 \quad AAE(\lambda_1, \lambda_2) = -\frac{\ln(\sigma_{abs,\lambda_1}) - \ln(\sigma_{abs,\lambda_2})}{\ln(\lambda_1) - \ln(\lambda_2)} \quad (7)$$



248 It is well known that ambient soot particles exhibit an AAE close to unity (Bond, 2001). Modeled
249 variability in $AAE_{470-660}$ of bare soot particles is shown in Figure S1. For soot particles with $D_{core} < 200$ nm,
250 $AAE_{470-660}$ is very close to 1 and decreases significantly for particles with $D_{core} > 200$ nm. Considering a typical
251 D_{core} of fresh emitted soot particles smaller than 200 nm (Rose et al., 2006; China et al., 2013), the model
252 results confirm the frequently observed AAE close to 1 from ambient measurements (Kirchstetter et al., 2004).
253 Modeled variability in $AAE_{470-660}$ of soot particles coated by non-absorbing substances (clear shell) and
254 weakly absorbing materials (brown shell) is shown in Figure 3. Elevated AAE to ~ 2 is observed in the clear
255 shell scenario (Figure 3a and 3b) for the most probable soot core particle sizes (< 200 nm), which agrees well
256 with a previous model study (Lack and Cappa, 2010), implying that elevated AAE cannot be exclusively
257 attributed to mixing with BrC. AAE elevation is more pronounced in the brown shell scenario. For soot
258 particles with $D_{core} < 200$ nm, brown shell $AAE_{470-660}$ can easily reach 3 for a coating of $D_{shell}/D_{core} = 3$ (Figure
259 3c and 3d). These high AAE results are consistent with previous model studies (Lack and Cappa, 2010) and
260 measurement studies (Kirchstetter et al., 2004; Hoffer et al., 2006).

261 3.2.2 Single scattering albedo (SSA)

262 Variability in modeled SSA of soot particles coated by non-absorbing substances and weakly
263 absorbing materials (e.g. BrC) is shown in Figure S2. For particles with $D_{core} < 200$ nm and $D_{shell}/D_{core} < 3$, the
264 SSA increases gradually (up to ~ 0.9) with a thicker coating and behaves similarly between clear shell and
265 brown shell scenarios.

266 3.2.3 Mass absorption efficiency (MAE)

267 MAE is a useful indicator for soot mixing state. Variability in MAE of bare soot particles as a function
268 of particle size at a wavelength of 550 nm is illustrated in Figure S3. The magnitude of MAE is sensitive to
269 the soot density assumption, especially for particles < 200 nm (Figure S3), but the overall trend of particle size
270 dependency is similar between different density scenarios. MAE peaks at a particle size of 200 nm and
271 decreases dramatically for larger particles. In our MAE calculation, a soot density of 1.9 g cm^{-3} is adopted, as
272 suggested by Bond and Bergstrom (2006). The purpose of adopting constant density is to simplify the MAE
273 calculation. It should be noted that the effective density of soot core is highly variable in ambient environments.
274 For example, a study in Beijing (Zhang et al., 2016b) found a value of 1.2 g cm^{-3} . A recent chamber study



275 found the effective density of soot can evolve from 0.43 to 1.45 g cm⁻³ during aging as coated by m-Xylene
276 oxidation products (Guo et al., 2016). A study by a single-particle aerosol mass spectrometer in Guangzhou
277 found the effective density of soot increased with particle size in the range of 400 to 1600 nm (Zhang et al.,
278 2016a). The MAE of coated particles from different core/shell diameter combinations are shown in Figure S4.
279 For thickly coated particles, the MAE in the clear shell scenario varied as $D_{\text{shell}}/D_{\text{core}}$ increased, but the MAE
280 of brown shell scenario increased quasi-monotonously with $D_{\text{shell}}/D_{\text{core}}$.

281 3.2.4 Light absorption enhancement factor (E_{abs})

282 E_{abs} is a better indicator for soot mixing state than MAE since it does not rely on the soot density
283 assumption and is more suitable for comparing Mie simulations with ambient measurements. Modeled
284 variability in E_{abs} of soot particles coated by non-absorbing substances and weakly absorbing materials (e.g.
285 BrC) is shown in Figure 4a and 3c respectively. E_{abs} is not only sensitive to the core/shell diameter combination,
286 but also behaves very differently on the clear and brown shell assumptions. For the clear shell scenario, when
287 $D_{\text{coat}}/D_{\text{core}} < 2$, E_{abs} does not exceed 2 for particles with different soot core sizes, but for the same $D_{\text{coat}}/D_{\text{core}}$, a
288 larger soot core size yields a higher E_{abs} (Figure 4b, cross-sections of Figure 4a). If $D_{\text{coat}}/D_{\text{core}} > 2$, E_{abs} could
289 be 3 to 5 for particles with a soot core smaller than 200 nm, but for particles with a soot core larger than 200
290 nm, the E_{abs} is limited to ~ 2 as shown in Figure 4b. For the brown shell scenario, E_{abs} increased quasi-
291 monotonically with $D_{\text{coat}}/D_{\text{core}}$, and this trend is similar for different soot core sizes (Figure 4d). Another major
292 difference between the clear and brown shell scenarios is that, for thickly coated particles (e.g. $D_{\text{coat}}/D_{\text{core}} > 2$),
293 the brown shell can yield a much higher E_{abs} than the clear shell.

294 Both primary soot size distribution and coating thickness can affect the absorption enhancement of
295 ambient BC particles. Ambient measurements by LII found soot particle number and mass concentrations
296 peaking at 110 nm and 220 nm, respectively, in the PRD (Huang et al., 2011b). A study in Shanghai found
297 similar results (70 nm for number concentrations and 200 nm for mass concentrations) (Gong et al., 2016).
298 Considering that the LII technique is specific for BC mass determination which is independent of BC mixing
299 state, the size distribution reported by LII can represent the size distribution of the BC core. A study using a
300 Micro Orifice Uniform Deposit Impactor (MOUDI) found a EC mass size distribution in the PRD exhibiting
301 three modes peaking at ~ 300 , ~ 900 and ~ 5000 nm (Yu et al., 2010), implying a substantial coating of BC
302 particles, and a diameter amplification of 3. A recent closure study on BC mixing state in the PRD region



303 suggests σ_{abs} is dominated by soot particles in the range of 300~400 nm (Tan et al., 2016). Considering the
304 dominant BC core distribution measured by SP2 (110 nm), the upper limit of E_{abs} in the PRD is roughly
305 estimated as ~ 2 for the clear shell scenario (Figure 4b).

306 4 Results and discussions

307 4.1 Annual measurement statistics

308 The frequency distribution (log-normal) of σ_{abs550} is shown in Figure 5a, with an annual average (± 1
309 S.D.) of $42.20 \pm 30.81 \text{ Mm}^{-1}$. A log-normal distribution is also found in the EC mass concentration (Figure 5b),
310 with an annual average of $2.63 \pm 2.27 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. Figure 5c demonstrates the yearlong frequency distribution of
311 MAE_{550} at the NC site. The annual average MAE_{550} is $19.02 \pm 6.60 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ and peaks (± 1 S.D.) of the normal
312 and lognormal fits are 16.16 ± 4.57 and $15.70 \pm 0.22 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ respectively. A good correlation is observed between
313 σ_{abs} and EC mass ($R^2=0.92$) as shown in Figure 5d, and the color coding indicates a MAE dependency on
314 RH (the RH effect will be discussed in section 4.5). Annual average $AAE_{470-660}$ is 1.08 ± 0.12 (Figure S5a),
315 indicating that soot is the dominant absorbing substance in the PRD and the brown shell scenario shown in
316 the Mie simulation is unlikely to be important. Annual mean SSA is 0.86 ± 0.05 (Figure S5b), similar to
317 previous studies in the PRD (Jung et al., 2009; Wu et al., 2009). As shown in Table S1, MAE_{550} by previous
318 studies was found to cover a wide range, from 5.9 to $61.6 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$. Annual average observed MAE at NC (19.02
319 $\text{m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$) is higher than many studies shown in Figure 6, e.g., Shenzhen (Lan et al., 2013), Beijing (Yang et al.,
320 2009) and Mexico city (Doran et al., 2007).

321 As shown in Figure 1, the annual average MAE_p estimated by MRS is $13 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$. The estimated MAE_p
322 is higher than Guangzhou ($7.44 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$) (Andreae et al., 2008), but comparable to Xi'an ($11.34 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$) (Wang
323 et al., 2014), Toronto ($9.53\text{--}12.57 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$) (Knox et al., 2009) and a rural Mediterranean site ($12.04 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$)
324 (Pandolfi et al., 2011). The annual average E_{abs} by MRS following Eq. 3 is estimated to be 1.52.

325 It should be noted that the E_{abs} estimation approach demonstrated here is not affected by the MAE bias
326 (e.g. overestimation of σ_{abs} and variability of EC mass by different TOA protocols) discussed in section 2.1,
327 because bias in EC mass or σ_{abs} is cancelled out in the E_{abs} calculation (Eq. 3), since E_{abs} is the ratio of $\sigma_{abs,t}$
328 to $\sigma_{abs,p}$. The E_{abs} could vary by location, depending on the coating thickness and size distribution of the
329 primary aerosols. After undergoing atmospheric aging, the E_{abs} can be increased during transport from



330 emission source to rural areas. The magnitude of the E_{abs} found at the NC site is comparable to other locations
331 such as Boulder (Lack et al., 2012a) (1.38), London (Liu et al., 2015) (1.4), Shenzhen (Lan et al., 2013) (1.3),
332 Yuncheng (Cui et al., 2016b) (2.25), Jinan (Chen et al., 2017) (2.07) and Nanjing (Cui et al., 2016a) (1.6), as
333 listed in Table 3. Spectrum E_{abs} are calculated from 370 to 950 nm as shown in Figure S6. E_{abs} in the PRD
334 exhibits a weak wavelength dependence, with slightly higher E_{abs} at the shorter wavelength (e.g. $E_{\text{abs}370} = 1.57$)
335 and is relatively lower in the IR range (e.g. $E_{\text{abs}950} = 1.51$).

336 **4.2 Monthly characteristics of MAE, AAE and SSA**

337 Monthly variations of MAE_{550} at the NC site are shown in Figure 7a and Table S2, revealing distinct patterns
338 of higher MAE_{550} in summer and lower in winter. On the other hand, $AAE_{470-660}$ is lower in summer and
339 higher in winter (Figure 7b and Table S3). Monthly SSA varied from 0.83 to 0.90 without a clear seasonal
340 pattern, as shown in Figure S7 and Table S4. MAE_p estimation for individual months is shown in Figure 7a
341 and monthly $E_{\text{abs}550}$ is calculated accordingly following Eq. 3 (Figure 7c). $E_{\text{abs}550}$ shows clear seasonal
342 variations, with higher values from April to August (1.5~1.97 as shown in Table S5) and relatively lower
343 values from September to March (1.17~1.47). The highest enhancement is found in August (1.97). Factors
344 affecting variation of E_{abs} are discussed in the following sections, including air mass origin, biomass burning
345 and RH.

346 **4.3 The effect of air mass origin**

347 It's of interest to understand the seasonal variations of optical properties in the PRD. Hourly backward
348 trajectories for the past 72 hours were calculated using NOAA's HYSPLIT (Hybrid Single Particle Lagrangian
349 Integrated Trajectory, version 4) model (Draxier and Hess, 1998) from Feb 2012 to Jan 2013 as shown in
350 Figure S8. Cluster analysis was conducted using MeteoInfo (Wang, 2014). By examining the total spatial
351 variance (TSV), the number of clusters was determined to be four as shown in Figure S9. Cluster 1 (C1)
352 represents continental air masses from the north, accounting for 44.4% of total trajectories. C2 (22.8%)
353 represents marine air masses coming from the South China Sea. C3 represents air masses from the east
354 (Taiwan island). C4 (15.8%) represents transitional air masses coming from the east coastline of China. As
355 shown in Figure 8, $E_{\text{abs}550}$ from C2 (1.78) is significantly higher than other clusters (1.30 – 1.42), implying
356 that particles from the South China Sea cluster is likely more aged than other clusters. Air mass origin in the



357 PRD is dominated by C2 from Apr to Aug (Figure S10a) as a result of the South China Sea monsoon in the
358 rainy season. In contrast, the dry season is ruled by continental air masses from the north (C1) due to the
359 influence of the northeast monsoon. $E_{\text{abs}550}$ from C2 varied from 1.67 to 2.19, but was always higher than
360 $E_{\text{abs}550}$ from C1 and C3 during the rainy season (Figure S10b). As a result, the domination of aged air mass
361 from the vast ocean is one of the reasons for the much higher $E_{\text{abs}550}$ found in the rainy season.

362 4.4 The effect of biomass burning

363 Biomass burning (BB) and vehicular emission are the two major sources of soot particles. BC from
364 biomass burning emission, depending on the fuel type and burning condition, may have a higher OC/EC ratio
365 and a thicker coating, resulting in a higher MAE than vehicular emission (Shen et al., 2013; Cheng et al., 2016).
366 In this study, the influence of BB on optical properties is investigated using the K^+/EC ratio as a BB indicator.
367 As shown in Figure 9, MAE_{550} is positively correlated with the K^+/EC ratio, which exhibits a clear seasonal
368 pattern that is higher in the rainy season and lower in the dry season (Figure S11). Southeast Asia has the
369 highest fire emission density globally due to the high biofuel consumption along with frequent fire activity in
370 this region (Aouizerats et al., 2015), making Southeast Asia a large contributor to BC emissions (Jason Blake,
371 2014). During the rainy season when oceanic prevailing wind dominates, BC from BB emission in Southeast
372 Asia can reach PRD through long range transport (LRT), resulting in an elevated K^+/EC ratio and MAE_{550} ,
373 which might be a combination of a thicker coating when freshly emitted from BB sources and enhanced
374 coating during LRT. The Deming regression intercept (11.89) in Figure 9 represents MAE without a BB effect.
375 This non-BB MAE_{550} ($11.89 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$) is lower than MAE_p ($13 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$) obtained in section 4.3, implying that BB
376 is an ubiquitous source of BC in the PRD region.

377 Many studies have found that BB influenced samples exhibit elevated AAE due to the presence of
378 wavelength dependent light absorbing substances like BrC and HUMic-Like Substances (HULIS) (Kirchstetter
379 et al., 2004; Hoffer et al., 2006; Sandradewi et al., 2008; Herich et al., 2011; Pokhrel et al., 2017). It is of interest
380 to investigate whether elevated AAE observed in the PRD during the dry season is associated with BB
381 influence. As shown in Figure S12, $\text{AAE}_{370-470}$ and $\text{AAE}_{470-660}$ didn't correlate with the BB indicator, K^+/EC
382 ratio. These results suggested that elevated AAE observed in the PRD wintertime is unlikely to be dominated
383 by BrC. As discussed in our Mie simulation (section 3.1) and a previous study (Lack and Cappa, 2010), coating
384 of non-absorbing materials onto soot particles can increase AAE up to 2. Since the monthly average AAE in



385 wintertime didn't exceed 1.2 (Table S3), the variations of AAE in the PRD are likely more associated with
386 thicker coatings rather than the contribution of BrC. The results also imply that attempts on BrC absorption
387 attribution for the PRD dataset presented in this study could be risky, considering that elevation of AAE is
388 actually dominated by coating (Lack and Langridge, 2013).

389 **4.5 The effect of relative humidity (RH) on optical properties**

390 Soot particles are relatively hydrophobic when freshly emitted, but tend to gain hygroscopicity during
391 atmospheric aging. Hygroscopic growth of coated laboratory generated model BC was reported by
392 McMeeking et al. (2011). Growth of ambient BC particle size by a factor of 1.4-1.6 under high RH has been
393 observed in a UK study (Liu et al., 2013). Located in the subtropical zone, RH plays an important role on
394 aerosol optical properties in the PRD region. The yearlong measurements at the NC site provide a unique
395 opportunity to investigate the effect of RH on aerosol optical properties, since most existing ad hoc studies in
396 the PRD only last for months. Liquid water content (LWC) was calculated using the E-AIM (model 2)
397 thermodynamic model (Clegg et al., 1998). As shown in Figure S13, LWC on average accounted for a
398 significant fraction (44%) of non-EC PM_{2.5} mass, making it an important component of PM_{2.5} mass and due
399 to high RH in the PRD. Previously, hygroscopic growth was only considered for particle scattering in the
400 IMPROVE formula for chemically resolved light extinction budget studies. In this study $f(\text{RH})$ of MAE was
401 obtained from yearlong measurements as shown in Figure 10a for RH = 30 ~100% and color coded for LWC.
402 It clearly shows that MAE₅₅₀ measured in NC is positively correlated with RH and the enhancement can be
403 fitted by a polynomial equation. When RH is close to 100%, the LWC can account for 70% of PM_{2.5} mass.
404 The maximum $f(\text{RH})$ can reach 1.3, which is higher than the value found in Beijing (1.2) (Wu et al., 2016b).
405 These results reveal that a large contribution of E_{abs} is coming from high LWC under high RH in the PRD
406 region. Because RH has a clear diurnal pattern, it can affect the diurnal pattern of E_{abs} in the PRD. Since the
407 RH effect on E_{abs} is rarely considered in existing climate models, the inclusion of RH effect can reduce the
408 uncertainty for assessing BC's climate effect.

409 The AAE₄₇₀₋₆₆₀ dependency on RH is shown in Figure 10b. When RH is low (e.g. 30%), the AAE₄₇₀₋
410 ₆₆₀ is around 1.25 and decreases to 1.10 as RH increases to 50%. AAE₄₇₀₋₆₆₀ remains around 1.12 when RH is
411 50-70%. Then AAE₄₇₀₋₆₆₀ decreases again when RH is higher than 70% and can reach 1 when RH is close to
412 100%. Since a higher RH results in hygroscopic growth and larger particle diameters, the negative correlation



413 between $AAE_{470-660}$ and RH provides a clue on soot particles' primary diameter and mixing state. As shown
414 in the Mie simulation in Figure 3b, for a particle with D_{core} of 130 nm and D_{shell}/D_{core} of 2 to 4, $AAE_{470-660}$
415 decreases as the coating increases, and the decrease tapers off when $D_{shell}/D_{core} = 3$. The D_{core} obtained here
416 (130nm) is comparable with D_{core} obtained from SP2 measurements (110nm) in the PRD (Huang et al., 2011a).

417 **4.6 Implications for mixing state**

418 Quantitative direct measurements of BC mixing state and coating thickness are still challenging. SP2
419 can estimate the coating thickness using a lag-time approach or a Mie calculation approach can be employed,
420 but both methods have a limited range in coating thickness and uncertainties arise from the assumptions made
421 during the retrieval. For example, recent studies found that the mass equivalent diameter of soot core measured
422 by SP2 could be underestimated due to density assumptions (Zhang et al., 2016b). Although size distribution
423 measurement is not available in this study, clues of mixing state still can be derived from bulk measurements
424 of optical properties. As discussed in section 4.4.1, elevated E_{abs} observed in the rainy season is associated
425 with aged air masses from a marine origin. To probe the possible mixing state difference between dry and
426 rainy season, E_{abs550} and $AAE_{470-660}$ are used to narrow down the possible core-shell size range as shown in
427 Figure S14. Monthly averages with one standard deviation of $AAE_{470-660}$ and E_{abs550} are used as constraints to
428 extract the intersecting core-shell size range from Figure 3a and Figure 4a. The results show that March and
429 August have a very different core-shell size range: in March, the core and shell range are 130 ~ 155 nm and
430 140 ~ 250 nm, respectively; in August, the core and shell range are 120 ~ 165 nm and 170 ~ 430 nm,
431 respectively. This confirms again that the soot particles in the rainy season are likely to have a thicker coating
432 than in the dry season.

433 **5 Conclusions**

434 In this study, a novel statistical approach is proposed and its application on ambient data is
435 demonstrated using one-year hourly OC and EC data coupled with Aethalometer measurements. Unlike
436 conventional E_{abs} determination approaches that require expensive instrumentation (e.g. TD-PAS, VTDMA,
437 SP2), this new approach employs widely deployed instruments (field carbon analyzer and Aethalometer). The
438 key of this new approach involves calculating MAE_p by the Minimum R Squared (MRS) method (Wu and
439 Yu, 2016). The annual average MAE_p estimated by MRS is $13 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ and annual average MAE_{550} is



440 $19.02 \pm 6.60 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$, suggesting an annual average enhancement factor (E_{abs}) of 1.52. This value is within the
441 upper limit of E_{abs} (~ 2) by core-shell Mie simulations considering the typical soot size distribution and coating
442 thickness in the PRD.

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

451 **Data availability**

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

454

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463 **Reference**

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740 Table 1. Abbreviations.

741

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

742



743 Table 2. Comparison of MRS application on $(OC/EC)_p$ (for SOC estimation) and MAE_p (for E_{abs} estimation).

744

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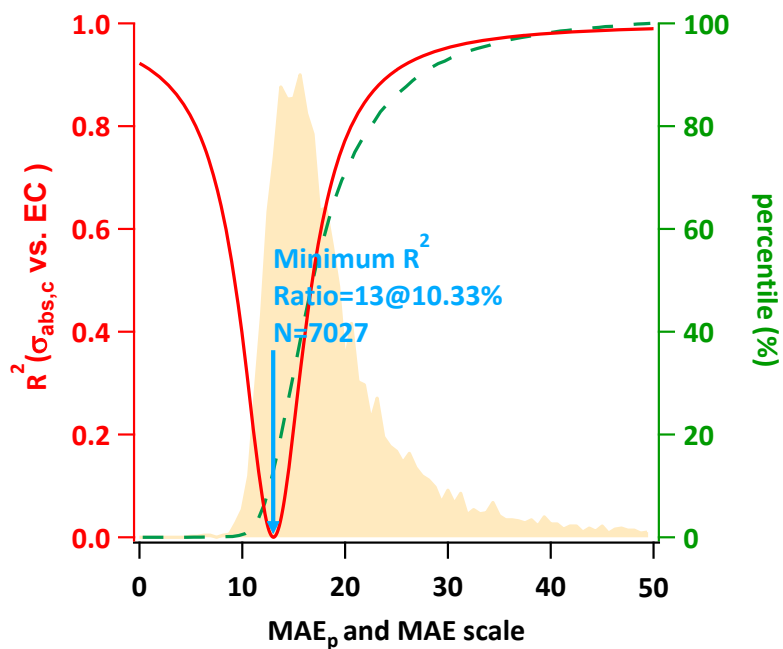
746 Table 3. Comparison of E_{abs} between various studies.

747

Location	Type	Sampling Duration	λ (nm)	Instrument	E_{abs}	Method	Reference
Guangzhou, China	Suburban	2012.2-2013.1	550	AE	1.52 ± 0.51	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)

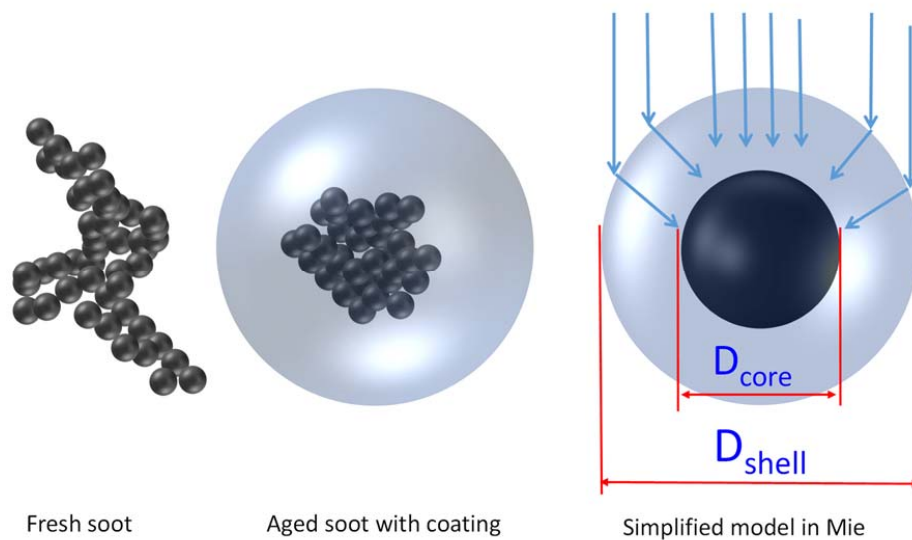
748 AE: Aethalometer ; PAS photo acoustic spectrometer; SP2: Single particle soot photometer; TD: Thermal denuder

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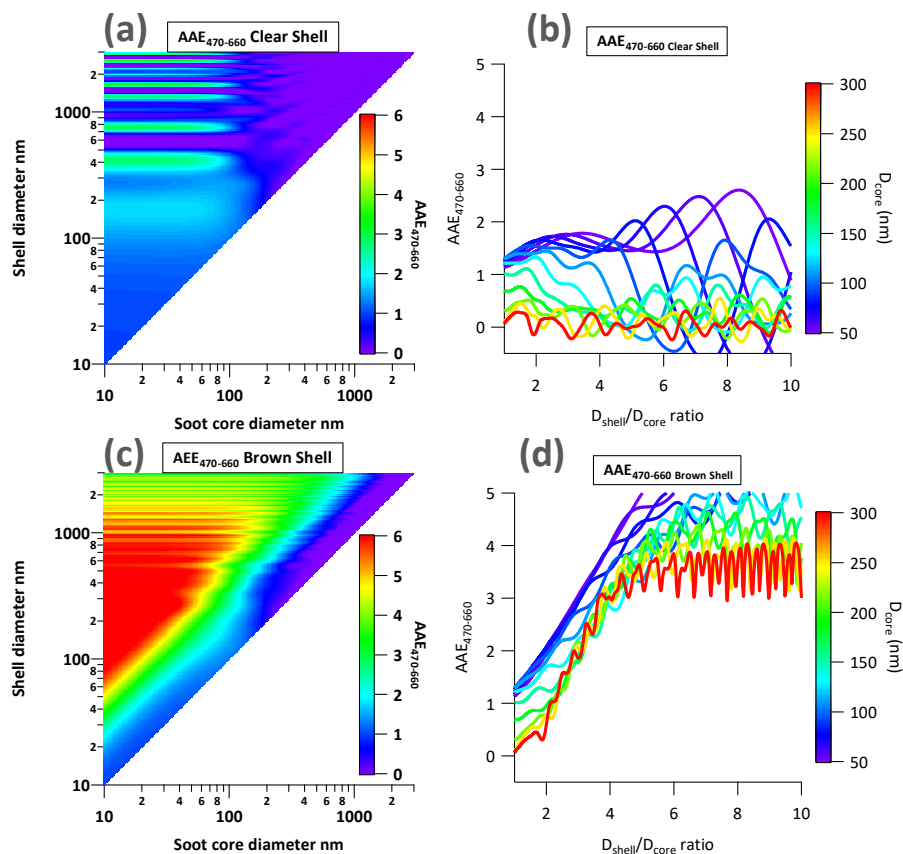
751 Figure 1. Minimum R squared (MRS) plot for calculating MAE_p . The red curve is the correlation result between $\sigma_{abs,c}$ ($\sigma_{abs,t} -$
 752 $EC * MAE_p$) and EC mass. The shaded area in light tan represents the frequency distribution of observed MAE. The dashed green
 753 line is the cumulative distribution of observed MAE.



754

755 Figure 2. Schematic of the aging effect on light absorption. More light is absorbed by the soot particle core due to the lensing effect
756 of the coating materials.

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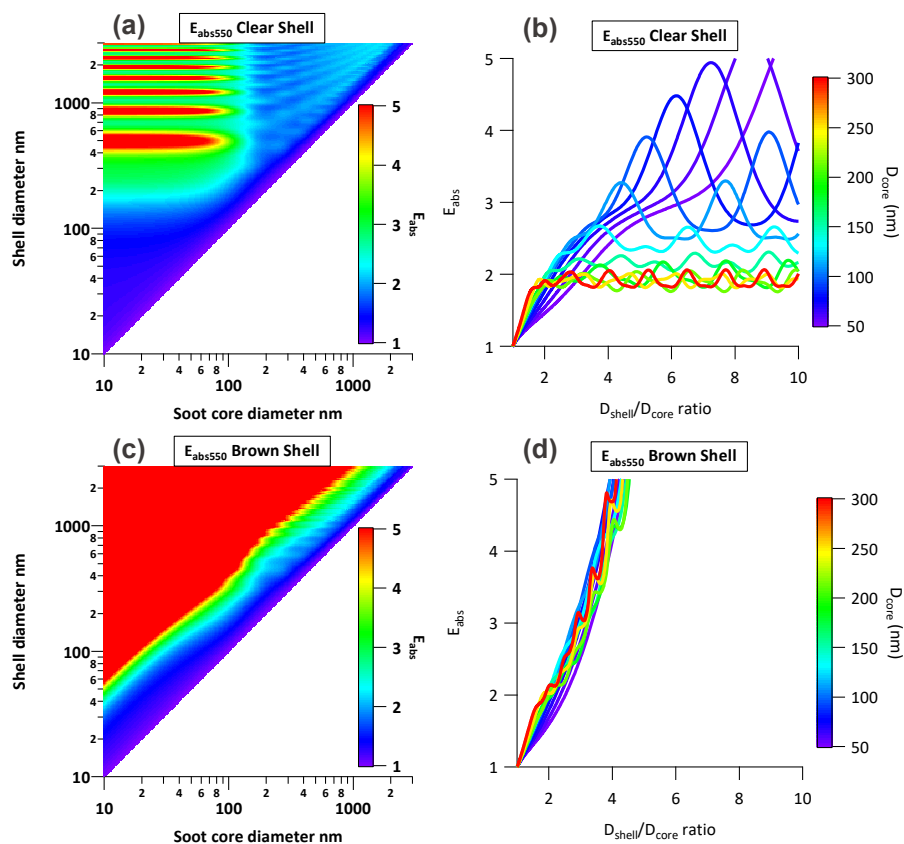
758

759 Figure 3. Mie simulated size dependency of soot particles AAE₄₇₀₋₆₆₀. (a) Combination of different shell (y axis) and core diameters
760 (x axis). The color coding represents the AAE₄₇₀₋₆₆₀ of a particle with specific core and shell size; (b) Cross-sections views of (a).
761 The color coding represents different D_{core} in the range of 50 ~ 300 nm. (c) Combination of different shell (y axis) and core diameters
762 (x axis). The color coding represents the AAE₄₇₀₋₆₆₀ of a particle with specific core and shell size; (d) Cross-sectional views of (c)
763 The color coding represents different D_{core} in the range of 50 – 300 nm.

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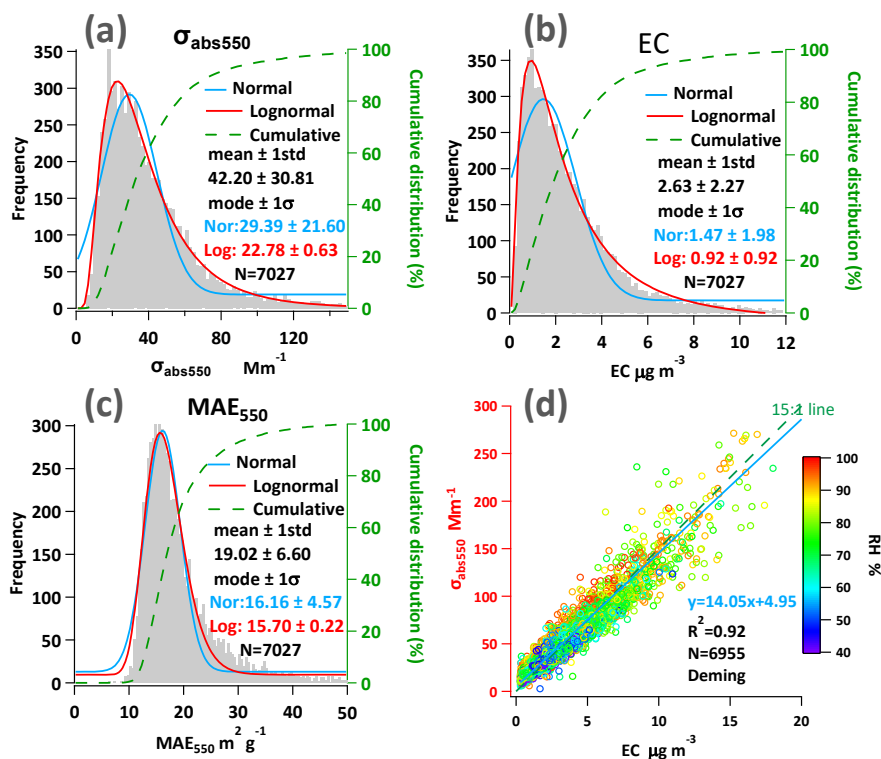
767

768 Figure 4. Mie simulated size dependency of soot particles E_{abs} at wavelength 550 nm. (a) Combination of different shell (y axis) and
769 core diameters (x axis). The color coding represents the E_{abs} of a particle with specific core and shell size; (b) Cross-sections views
770 of (a). The color coding represents different D_{core} in the range of 50 – 300 nm. (c) Combination of different shell (y axis) and core
771 diameters (x axis). The color coding represents the E_{abs} of a particle with specific core and shell size; (d) Cross-sectional views of
772 (c). The color coding represents different D_{core} in the range of 50 – 300 nm.

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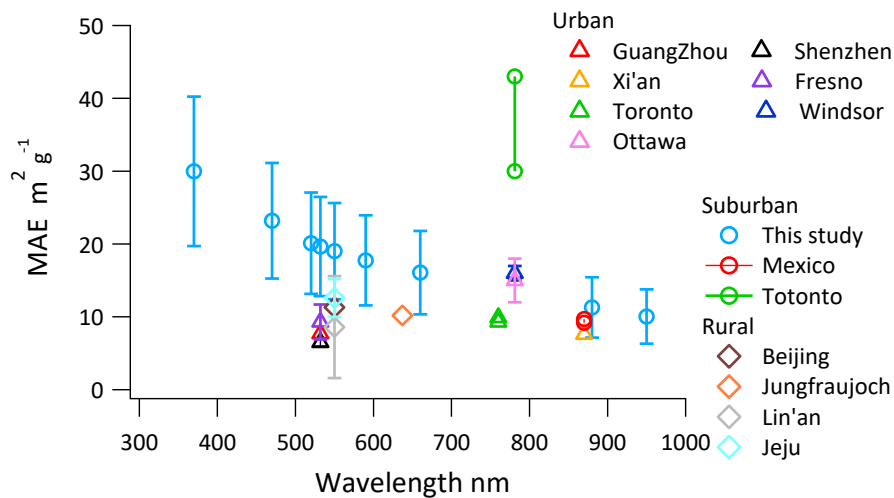
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777 Figure 5. Measured annual statistics of σ_{abs550} , EC and MAE_{550} . (a) Annual frequency distribution of light absorption at 550 nm.
 778 The blue curve represents the fitting line for Gaussian distribution while the red curve represents the fitting line for a log-normal
 779 distribution. (b) Annual frequency distribution of EC mass concentration (c) Frequency distribution of Mass absorption efficiency
 780 (MAE) at 550 nm. (d) Scatter plot of light absorption (550 nm) and EC mass. The slope represents MAE. The blue regression line
 781 is by Deming regression. The color coding represents RH.

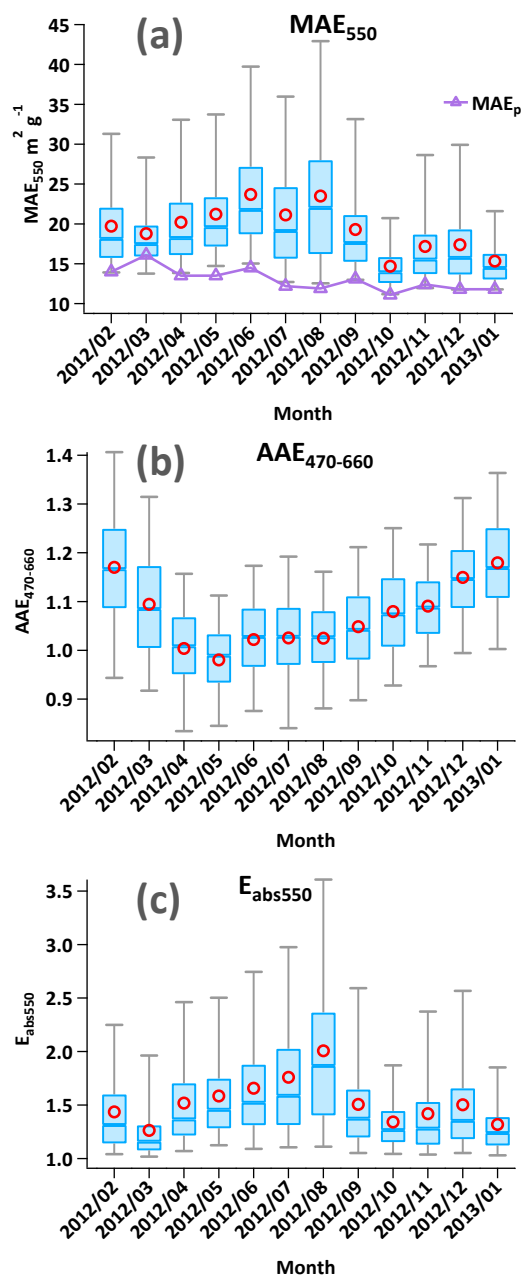
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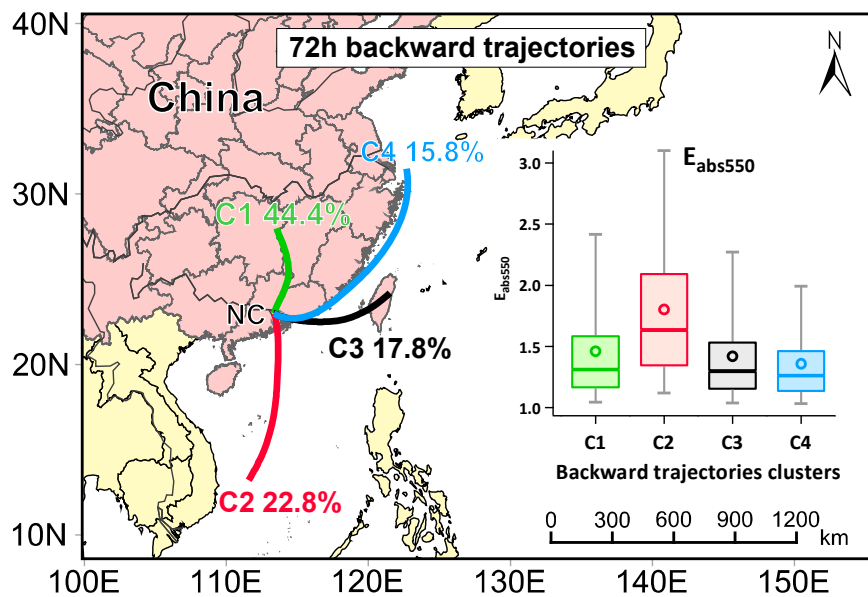
784 Figure 6. Comparison of spectral MAE measurements from this study with previous studies. Triangle, circle and rhombus represent

785 urban, suburban and rural respectively. The whiskers represent one standard deviation.



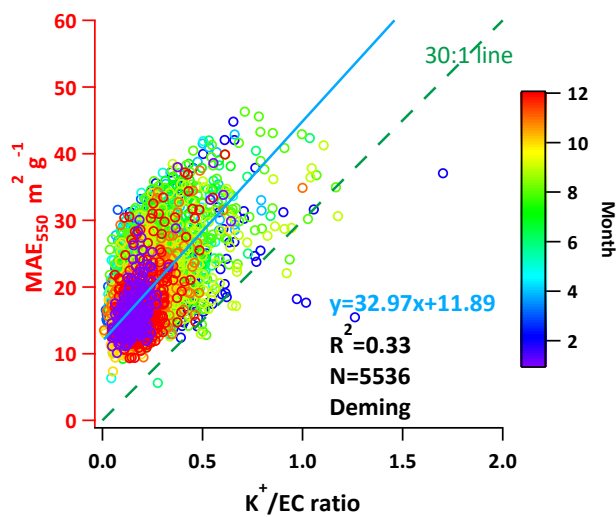
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787 Figure 7. Measured monthly variations of (a) MAE_{550} , the purple line represents MAE_p estimated by MRS (b) $AAE_{470-660}$ and (c)
788 E_{abs550} . Red circles represent the monthly average. The line inside the box indicates the monthly median. Upper and lower boundaries
789 of the box represent the 75th and the 25th percentiles; the whiskers above and below each box represent the 95th and 5th percentiles.



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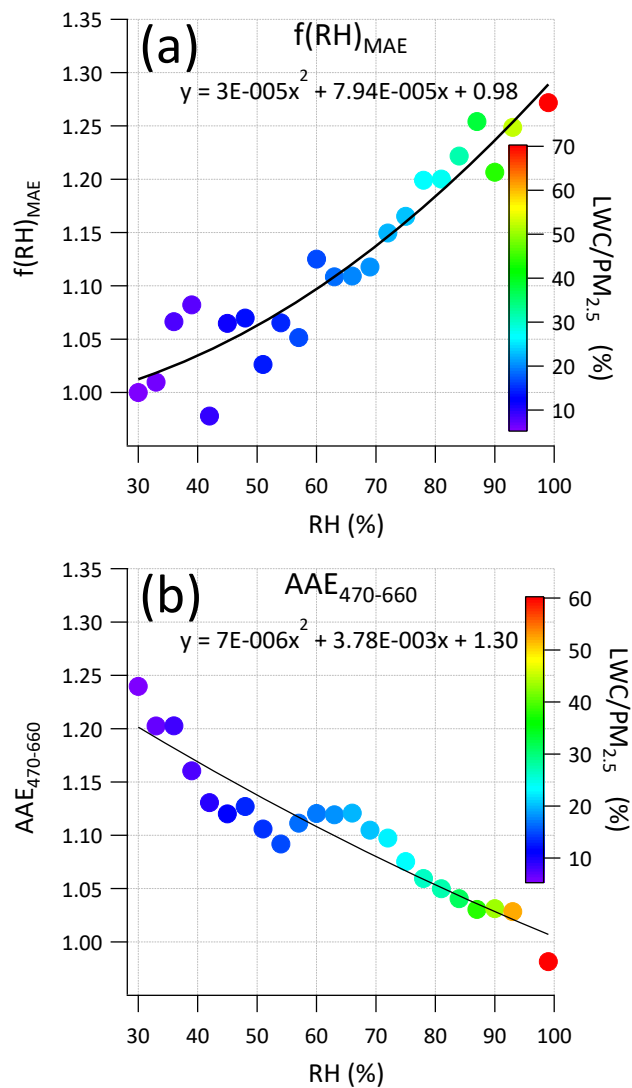
791 Figure 8. Average backward trajectories arriving at 100 m at NC site for four clusters (2012 Feb - 2013 Jan). E_{abs550} by different
792 clusters are shown in the box plot.



793

794 Figure 9. MAE_{550} dependency on biomass burning indicator K^+/EC ratio. The color coding represents months. The intercept

795 represents MAE without biomass burning effect.



796

797 Figure 10. Optical properties dependency on RH determined from one year's sampling data at NC site. (a) Hygroscopic growth

798 factor ($f(RH)$) of EC MAE (b) $AAE_{470-660}$ as a function of RH.