

1 **Synergistic effect of water-soluble species and relative humidity on**
2 **morphological changes of aerosol particles in Beijing mega-city during**
3 **severe pollution episodes**

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18 **Abstract.** Depolarization ratio (δ) of backscattered light is an applicable parameter for real-time distinguishing sphericity of
19 particle, which has been widely adopted by ground-based Lidar observation. In this study, δ value of particles and chemical
20 compositions in both PM_{2.5} (aerodynamic diameter less than 2.5 μ m) and PM₁₀ (aerodynamic diameter less than 10 μ m) were
21 concurrently measured on the basis of a bench-top optical particle counter with a polarization detection module (POPC) and
22 a continuous dichotomous Aerosol Chemical Speciation Analyzer (ACSA-14) from November 2016 to February 2017 at an
23 urban site in Beijing mega city. In general, measured δ value depended on both size and sphericity of the particles. During
24 observation period mass concentration of NO₃⁻ in PM_{2.5} (fNO₃) was about an order of magnitude higher than that in PM_{2.5-10}
25 (cNO₃) with a mean fNO₃/cNO₃ ratio of 14 ± 10 . Relative low fNO₃/cNO₃ ratio (~ 5) was also observed under higher relative
26 humidity condition, mostly due to heterogeneous processes and particles in the coarse mode. We found that δ value of ambient
27 particles in both PM_{2.5} and PM_{2.5-10} obviously decreased as mass concentration of water-soluble species increased at

28 unfavorable meteorological condition. It indicated that morphology of particles was changed as a result of water-absorbing
29 processes. The particles with $D_p = 5 \mu\text{m}$ were used to represent mineral dust particles, and its δ values ($\delta_{D_p=5}$) decreased by
30 50% as mass fraction of cNO_3 increased from 2% to 8% and ambient relative humidity increased up to 80%, suggesting that
31 mineral dust particles were likely to be spherical during humid pollution episode. During the observation, relative humidity
32 inside the POPC measuring chamber was stable at $34 \pm 2\%$, lower than that in ambient condition. Its influence on the
33 morphology was estimated to be limited and did not change our major conclusion. This study highlights the evident alteration
34 of non-sphericity of mineral dust particles during their transport owing to synergistic effect of both pollutant coatings and
35 hygroscopic processes which play an important role in evaluation of its environmental effect.

36 **1 Introduction**

37 Tropospheric aerosols, in particular the particles with aerodynamic diameter less than $2.5 \mu\text{m}$ ($\text{PM}_{2.5}$), have detrimental impact
38 on human health (Zheng et al., 2015). It degrades the air quality by increasing atmospheric turbidity, and affects regional/global
39 climate by disturbing the solar radiation transfer in the Earth system via scattering/absorbing light directly and altering amount
40 and lifespan of cloud (Ramanathan et al., 2001; Kaufman et al., 2002). In the past decades, intensive anthropogenic/industrial
41 activities in East Asia emitted huge amount of primary pollutants such as SO_2 , NO_x , NH_3 , VOCs etc., which resulted in severe
42 air pollution. $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ was mainly composed of light-scattering species (sulfate, nitrate, ammonium, organics etc.) and light-
43 absorbing matter (BC, BrC etc.). Under high relative humidity condition, most of aerosol particles absorb water vapor and
44 undergo apparently hygroscopic growth, which lead to dramatic changes in its mass concentration, size distribution, optical
45 properties (single scattering albedo etc.), as well as its corresponding morphologies (Li et al., 2017).

46 Mineral aerosol is also one of the key compounds in East Asia, it was frequently reported to be coated by anthropogenic
47 pollutants along its transport owing to heterogeneous reactions with reactive acidic gas and coagulation of soluble particles.
48 In polluted area, photo-chemically formatted nitric acid (HNO_3) could easily react with CaCO_3 to form $\text{Ca}(\text{NO}_3)_2$ on the
49 surface of dust particles. The consecutive water-absorbing process will also lead to apparent morphological changes of dust
50 particles (Krueger et al., 2003; Laskin et al., 2005; Tang et al., 2016), which also impact on dust-cloud interaction (Sullivan et
51 al., 2009; Tang et al., 2015) and new particle formation etc. Till now, online investigation on the morphological changes of
52 aerosol particle in the ambient environment is still limit. The widely-adopted method to study the morphology and mixing
53 state of particles is filter-based single particle sampling with electron-microscopy inspection in laboratory. For example,
54 scanning electron microscopy (SEM) coupled with energy dispersive X-ray spectrometry (EDX) could provide information
55 about surface topography, composition of the sample surface by scanning it with a high-energy beam of electrons. Li and Shao
56 (2009) using Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) found that approximate 90% of sampled mineral particles were
57 covered by visible coatings during pollution episode in Central East China. As a matter of fact, such hygroscopic coating on
58 some individual dust particles was observed not only in polluted area but also at clean marine area. The observation on R/V
59 during ACE-Asia found that dust particles mixed with chloride was sometimes dominant over sulphate and nitrate due to
60 disassociation of acidified sea salt particles (Sullivan et al., 2007). Tobo et al. (2010) found that Asian dust particles could

61 also be deliquescent to aqueous droplet as a result of formation of CaCl_2 . Dust particle could also acquire sulfate coatings via
62 either heterogeneous uptake of gaseous SO_2 and subsequent oxidation or coagulation within cloud or fog droplets (Kojima et
63 al., 2006), as well as volatile carbonaceous species due to condensation processes (Kim and Park, 2012). Although diversity
64 in chemical composition and structure of single particles with different degree of aging were investigated in the past studies,
65 these analyses had to be inspected subjectively one by ones, and such labor-intensive operation cause difficult in broadening
66 the results due to poor statistics(Li and Shao, 2009;Li et al., 2017).

67 To obtain better understanding the real-time morphological variation of atmospheric processing particles, polarization
68 property of backscattering light from the illuminated particle has been used as an applicable surrogate. For spherical particle,
69 oscillation direction of magnetic wave of scattering light was identical to the incident light. Therefore, depolarization ratio
70 (DR, here defined as the ratio of *s*-polarized to *p*-polarized backward component) was zero theoretically. However, for
71 uncoated dust particles, the direction deviates significantly with a large DR value. Such characteristic is widely used to
72 distinguish dust and spherical particles by both ground-based Lidar observation (Asian Dust and Aerosol Lidar Observation
73 Network, AD-Net) (Shimizu et al., 2016) and satellite on-board remote sensing (Cloud-Aerosol Lidar with Orthogonal
74 Polarization on-board the CALIPSO) (Winker et al., 2009;Zhang et al., 2018) presuming that spherical particles and dust were
75 externally mixed. On the basis of this technique, studies on spatial-resolved distribution (Hara et al., 2008;Uno et al., 2008),
76 transport pattern (Uno et al., 2009) of pollution and dust, and data processing algorithm (Nishizawa et al., 2007;Nishizawa et
77 al., 2011;Winker et al., 2009) have been widely performed. For instance, Shimizu et al. (2004) summarized the contributions
78 of different aerosol types on the total backscattering coefficient at multiple sites in East Asia using three-channel Mie scattering
79 Lidar data. Huang et al. (2015) identified anthropogenic dust particles due to human activities and its contribution to global
80 dust loading on the basis of CALIPSO observation. Recently, a multi-wavelength Mie-Raman Lidar (MMRL) and a new
81 algorithm were developed to estimate extinction coefficients for black carbon, dust, sea salt, and air-pollution aerosols (a
82 mixture of sulfate, nitrate and organic carbon substances)(Hara et al., 2017;Nishizawa et al., 2017).

83 Once the dust particles were coated by other water-soluble pollutants, its polarization degree altered. Till now, it is still a
84 challenge to real-time classifying in coated/uncoated dust particles according to its morphological changes. In particular, Lidar
85 adopted a volume depolarization ratio to discriminate different aerosol types; it was easily biased due to presence of small
86 spherical particles in the volume of targeted air volume. To overcome this shortcoming, recently a bench-top optical particle
87 counter equipped with a depolarization module (Polarization Optical Particle Counter) was developed to detect the size-
88 resolved polarization of individual particles. POPC is capable of investigating the temporal variation of mixing state of single
89 dust particles. The observation at an urban site in Japan showed that DR of super-micron particles decreased evidently due to
90 an increase of mass fraction of nitrate concentration during a long stagnant dust event (Pan et al., 2015). In Beijing,
91 sphericalized dust particles were observed during a typical dust even at high relative humidity condition (Wang et al., 2017;Pan
92 et al., 2017). The long-term comprehensive observation on such effect was still lacking.

93 From November 15, 2016 to February 18, 2017, Beijing consecutively suffered from several severe air pollutions with hourly

94 averaged mass concentration of PM_{2.5} and PM_{2.5-10} larger than 300 µg/m³ and 100 µg/m³. It provided a good chance to
95 investigate into the interaction between dust particles with pollutants. During this period, chemical composition, size
96 distribution, polarization properties of aerosol particles were concurrently measured, as well as vertical profile of
97 backscattering coefficient by Lidar at a downtown tower site of Beijing mega city. The objective of this study was to
98 investigate depolarization properties of aerosol particles in the polluted urban site on the single-particle basis, and to study the
99 impact of both water-soluble species and relative humidity (RH) on the morphological changes of dust particles. This study
00 will provide useful information in better understanding the physical and optical properties of particles in East Asia, and
01 improving numerical simulation on its environment/climate effect.

02 **2 Observations**

03 **2.1 Observation overview**

04 The field measurement was performed at a tower campus of Institute of Atmospheric Physics/Chinese Academy of Sciences
05 in the downtown area of Beijing mega city. The observation site located between 3rd North Ring road and 4th North Ring road,
06 where anthropogenic emissions are intensive in the daytime. Within the campus (150 m x 50 m), there is a 325-m tower for
07 meteorological measurement and scientific research; therefore, anthropogenic activity nearby is limited. During the
08 observation period, a continuous dichotomous Aerosol Chemical Speciation Analyzer (ACSA-14) was placed on the roof of
09 two-story building in the campus. Polarization Optical Particle Counter was placed in air-conditioned room on the roof to
10 measure polarization properties of single particle less than 10 µm. To avoid loss of particles in coarse mode, the sampled air
11 was drawn into the room by a supporting pump (flow rate: 10 lpm) through 2 m long 1/4-inch vertically assembled stainless
12 steel tube. From November 15 to December 15 2016, a UK-China joint field campaign, entitle as “In-depth study of air
13 pollution sources and processes within Beijing and its surrounding region (APHH-Beijing)” was also performed in the tower
14 campus. Detailed information about the objectives and instruments are shown in webpage (https://www.atmos-chem-phys.net/special_issue932.html).

16 **2.2 Instruments**

17 In this study, mass concentrations of particulate matter and water-soluble chemical compounds in both PM_{2.5} and PM_{2.5-10}
18 were measured by ACSA-14 (KIMOTO electric Co. Ltd, Osaka, Japan) with 1-hour intervals at the observation site. The mass
19 concentration of particulate matter was determined using beta-ray absorption method. Mass concentration of SO₄²⁻ was
20 determined on the basis of BaSO₄-based turbidimetric method with addition of BaCl₂ dissolved in polyvinylpyrrolidone
21 solution. Mass concentrations of NO₃⁻ and water-soluble organic carbon were determined using ultraviolet absorption-
22 photometric method. Because mass concentration of NO₃⁻ was general high in Beijing, the instrument generally collected
23 aerosol samples in the first 5~10 minute in each hour and analyzed the samples in the rest time to guarantee follow Beer-
24 Lambert Law. The acidity of particles [H⁺], in unit of nmol/m³, was semi-quantitatively determined using pH-indicator
25 absorption-photometric method. The basic equation is $\text{pH}_{\text{solution}} = -\log [\text{H}^+ \times 10^{-6} + 10^{-4.6}]$, presuming that all the water-soluble

26 matter was dissolved in the extract liquid with pH value of 4.6. A factor of 10^{-6} was used to convert unit of $[H^+]$ from nmol/m^3
27 to mol/L. The comparison of $[H^+]$ in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ between ACSA and off-line filter-pack measurement showed a good linear
28 correlation ($[H^+]_{\text{ACSA}} = 3.33 + 0.81 \times [H^+]_{\text{FP}}$) with $r^2 = 0.54$ (Personal communication with Prof. Osada in Nagoya University).
29 The details of the ACSA instrument are described in literature (Kimoto et al., 2013).

30 Depolarization ratio (δ) of single particle was determined using a Polarization Optical Particle Counter (POPC). POPC adopted
31 a 780 nm linearly polarized laser beam to illuminate the aerosol particles that passed through measuring chamber vertically.
32 The direction of vibration of the electric field of the incident laser is parallel to the plane of the scattering angle. Detailed
33 information about POPC was described in literatures (Kobayashi et al., 2014; Pan et al., 2016; Pan et al., 2017). Forward
34 scattering signal at 60-degree respect to direction of incident light was measured by a photodiode with acceptance angle of
35 45-degree to determine the size of particle. The backward scattering signal at 120 degree was split into P component (parallel
36 with respect to the plane of the scattering angle) and S component (perpendicular with respect to the plane of the scattering
37 angle). Herein, the depolarization ratio (parallel with respect to the plane of the scattering angle) of the particles was defined
38 as the ratio of S component to P component (S/P). To avoid the coincidence error of the measurements, the inlet flow rate of
39 POPC was set to 80 cubic centimeters per minute (ccm) and was diluted with zero air (920 ccm). During measurement, the
40 temperature and relative humidity inside measuring chamber were stable at 29.2 ± 0.1 °C and 34.3 ± 1.6 %, respectively.
41 Overall measurement uncertainty in size determination was less than 15%.

42 During observation period, the vertical structure of backscattering coefficient for aerosols was derived from Mie-scattering
43 Lidar system that installed at the same place of ACSA-14. This Lidar system, developed by the research group in National
44 Institute for Environmental Studies (NIES), employs a flash-lamp-pumped Q-switching Nd:YAG laser as the light source. It
45 emits pulsed lights with wavelength of 1064 nm and 532 nm with at a frequency of 10 Hz, and collects the backscattered light
46 from the atmosphere by a 20 cm Schmidt-Cassegrain telescope. The light at 532-nm wavelength is also further separated into
47 S and P component (Sugimoto et al., 2002). The algorithm for classifying sphere and dust particles was described in literatures
48 (Shimizu et al., 2017; Nishizawa et al., 2011). To be noted that, direct comparison of depolarization ratio between POPC and
49 Lidar system was difficult. Firstly, Lidar system receives backscattering light at almost 180 degree with a field of view of 1
50 mrad; whereas POPC employs 120-degree backscattering signal. Secondly, Lidar system measures the total volume
51 depolarization from a volume of targeted air parcel; whereas depolarization properties from POPC is on a single particles
52 basis.

53 **2.3 Footprint analysis**

54 We simulated footprint region of aerosol particles at the observation site using NOAA Hybrid Single Particle Lagrangian
55 Integrated Trajectory (HYSPLIT) model (v4.9; available at <http://ready.arl.noaa.gov/HYSPLIT.php>). This model has been
56 widely applied into calculating long-range or meso-scales transport and footprint regions of air pollutions with fast
57 computational speed and high spatial resolution. HYSPLIT model is capable of forward/backward run in time to simulate the

58 dispersion/potential source of tracers in a given location. Detailed description and validations of this model was shown in
59 webpage. In this study, input meteorological data of model is the product (GDAS dataset) of Global Forecast System (GFS)
60 from National Centers for Environmental Prediction (NCEP) with a spatial resolution of 0.5 by 0.5 degree, and a time-
61 resolution of 3 hours (0000, 0600, 1200 and 1800 UTC from data assimilation product; 0300, 0900, 1500 and 2100 UTC from
62 forecast model). By offsetting the release point by a meteorological grid point in the horizontal and 0.01 sigma units in the
63 vertical, ensemble simulation have 27 trajectories were calculated simultaneously in each hour, providing great advantage in
64 evaluate the uncertainty and potential footprint region. In the present study, the grids at which height of backward endpoint of
65 air parcel was less than the height of mixing layer were labeled as potential footprint region.

66 **3 Results and discussions**

67 **3.1 Overview in particulate matters and chemical species**

68 **3.1.1 Comparison of mass concentration of particulate matters**

69 Figure 2a shows the temporal variations of mass concentrations of ambient $PM_{2.5}$ that were measured by ACSA-14 at the
70 observation site. For comparison, mass concentration of $PM_{2.5}$ observed at a state-controlled monitoring station (Olympic
71 Centre, about 3 km northeast of the LAPC site) was plotted in the figure. In general, two results were in good consistence with
72 $r^2 = 0.8$, indicating that the pollution events were generally in regional scale with minor interference from emission sources
73 nearby. During observation period, number size distribution of ambient particles with optical diameter between $0.3 \mu m$ - 10
74 μm were measured with POPC, and the mass concentration of $PM_{2.5}$ was estimated assuming that all the particles were
75 spherical with a density of $1.77 g/cm^3$. Mass concentration of $PM_{2.5}$ estimated by POPC was compared well with ACSA-14
76 measurement before January 7, 2017, when ambient relative humidity (RH) was almost above 40%. Whereas estimated mass
77 concentration of $PM_{2.5}$ was underestimated obviously. One possible explanation is that, both air temperature and ambient RH
78 after January 7, 2017 decreased evidently. The interaction between water-soluble matters in $PM_{2.5}$ and moisture were unlikely
79 occurs, and the hypothesis of spherical shape of particles due to hygroscopic may resulted in relatively larger uncertainty in
80 estimating the optical size of particle on the basis of scattering light. Another possibility is that the chemical composition of
81 particles was different (section 3.1.2). As shown in Figure 2d, the northerly wind become stronger, which resulted in larger
82 proportion of mineral dust matters, the latter which have larger density ($2.2 - 2.8 g/cm^3$). Deploying the same density for both
83 particle in fine mode and coarse mode will lead to underestimation of total mass. It was pronounced for the case in January
84 29, 2017 that observation site was subject to floating dust event with a hourly averaged mass concentration of PM_{10} reached
85 $734 \mu g/m^3$. Daily averaged mass concentration of $PM_{2.5}$ measured by ACSA-14 was $354.3 \mu g/m^3$, four times higher than the
86 values ($77.1 \mu g/cm^3$) estimated by POPC. Deployment of a larger particle's density of $2.8 g/cm^3$ only explain 35% of the
87 difference. Low detection limit of particle size of POPC was $0.5 \mu m$, and miscounting of particles less than $0.5 \mu m$ was
88 estimated to contribute another 10% of the difference. The most possible reason is that the irregularity of particles in fine
89 mode resulted in significant underestimating in particle diameter on the basis of scattering signal. However, the estimation of

90 spherical particles diameter by POPC bears smaller bias theoretically. For example, during a typical anthropogenic pollutant
91 dominant case on January 1, 2017, mass concentrations of PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀ was as high as 438.8 and 626.2 µg/m³, respectively.
92 Hourly averaged mass concentration of PM_{2.5} estimated by POPC correlated well with ACSA-14 measurement with a ratio of
93 1.1 ± 0.1. It was noticeable that PM_{2.5} accounted for 80% of PM₁₀, and ambient relative humidity was 65%. It implied that
94 anthropogenic water-soluble compounds in PM_{2.5} underwent hygroscopic processes that may alter non-sphericity of the
95 particles (section 3.5).

96 Regarding the particles in coarse mode, mass concentration estimated by POPC is much better than that in fine mode. It was
97 because, firstly, the detection efficiency of POPC for the particles in coarse mode was better than that in fine mode, and
98 miscounting of particles in coarse mode by POPC was less likely to occur; secondly, interference of non-sphericity of particles
99 in coarse mode was insignificant in determining size of particle according to scattering signal. Besides, change in the refractive
100 index of particles due to mixing of mineral dust particles with anthropogenic pollutants (such as black carbon) also have
101 limited impact in size determination. In general, daily averaged mass fraction of PM_{2.5-10} in PM₁₀ (PM_{2.5-10}/PM₁₀) was ranging
102 0.25 ~ 0.7 (Supplementary Figure). The minimum value occurred in severe pollution days when daily averaged mass
103 concentration of PM_{2.5} was larger than 250 µg/cm³ (Air Quality Level: VI), whereas PM_{2.5-10}/PM₁₀ ratio increased as mass
104 concentration of PM_{2.5} decrease. It was because formation of secondary particulate matters (such as sulfate and nitrate) during
105 pollution episode was so overwhelming that make the contribution of mineral dust decrease, although mass concentration of
106 PM_{2.5-10} increased. A number of studies have addressed the importance of mineral dust in promoting new particle formation
107 (Nie et al., 2014) and conversion of SO₂ to sulfate (He et al., 2014), both of which was related to formation of OH radical.
108 However, this study was performed in winter, role of mineral dust in the formation of regional pollution is out of scope of this
109 study.

110 **3.1.2 Chemical compounds in fine and coarse mode**

111
112 In winter, nitrate, sulfate and water-soluble organic carbon (WSOC) were found in both fine mode and coarse mode (Figure
113 3). Mass concentration of nitrate in the fine (fNO₃) was 28.3 ± 33.7 µg/m³ averagely with a maximum value of 190.9 µg/m³.
114 Mass concentration of nitrate in the coarse mode (cNO₃) was 2.9 ± 4.8 µg/m³. The maximum value of cNO₃ (43.1 µg/m³)
115 occurred at the different time from that for fNO₃, implying of complicated mass equilibrium of nitrate among different size
116 range. Table 1 summarizes the fNO₃/cNO₃ ratio as a function of mass concentration of PM_{2.5} at RH > 40% and RH < 40%.
117 We found that, when ambient RH was less than 40%, fNO₃/cNO₃ ratio has a positive correlation with mass concentration of
118 PM_{2.5}, which demonstrated that nitrate mass preferentially formed in fine mode and mass transfer of nitrate toward coarse
119 mode was unlikely happen due to hygroscopic processes of particles; However, when ambient RH was larger than 40%,
120 fNO₃/cNO₃ ratio did not increase with PM_{2.5} concentration with a mean of 12.4 ± 6.5. The possible explanations were, first,
121 once the aerosol phase nitrate formed in the fine mode, it absorbed water vapor simultaneously and grew larger; secondary,
122 ambient nitric acid may directly stick on the surface of particles in coarse mode through heterogeneous processes; Although

high concentration of PM_{2.5} in Beijing was regarded as synergistic contributions from both local formation and long-range transport, it did not influence the fNO₃/cNO₃ ratio apparently, at least in the present study.

Mass concentration of sulfate in the fine mode (fSO₄) and in the coarse mode (cSO₄) were 18.9 ± 24.8 μg/m³ and 2.2 ± 2.5 μg/m³ with maximum values of 143.1 μg/m³ and 25.2 μg/m³, respectively. As shown in Figure 3b, the variabilities of fSO₄ and cSO₄ concentrations generally have the same trend. fSO₄/cSO₄ ratio increased with mass concentration of PM_{2.5}, irrespective of ambient RH. The positive correlation between fSO₄/cSO₄ ratio and RH indicated that water vapor also took effect in the formation of sulfate. It was worthy to note that, fNO₃/fSO₄ ratio varied among cases due to different air mass origin and meteorology condition. For instance, on Dec 21, 2016 (blue shaded strip in Figure 3), mass concentration of fNO₃ and fSO₄ were 122.4 μg/m³ and 74.1 μg/m³, with a fNO₃/fSO₄ ratio of 1.6; however on Jan 1, 2017 (red shaded strip in Figure 3), mass concentration of fSO₄ increased to 125.2 μg/m³ and fNO₃ decreased to 99.2 μg/m³ with a fNO₃/fSO₄ ratio of 0.79. Backward trajectory analysis for the case on Jan 1, 2017 showed that the air mass was mainly transport from North China Plain along Taihang Mountain, fossil fuel usage in NCP in winter mainly contribute to the sharp increase of fSO₄; however, for the case on Dec 21, 2016, the air mass was mostly stagnant near Beijing area, and the intensive emission of NO_x resulted in the large difference between fNO₃ and fSO₄. The variability of WSOC in both fine mode (fWSOC) and coarse mode (cWSOC) were consistent with fSO₄ with maximum values of 167.6 μg/m³ and 8.7 μg/m³ (Figure 3c).

Mass fraction of total water soluble matters (WSM) in PM_{2.5} and acidity of the particle are shown in Figure 3d. Here, WSM includes only SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻, WSOC, and NH₄⁺, the latter of which was estimated on the basis of equation ($[NH_4^+] = 18 \times ([SO_4^{2-}] / 96 \times 2 + [NO_3^-] / 62 \times 2 - [H^+] / 1000)$). In general, mass fraction of WSM in PM_{2.5} during pollution period was higher than that during clean period. On average, WSM/PM_{2.5} was 0.5 ± 0.16. We found that, WSM/PM_{2.5} was more likely related to origin and residence time of air mass than the ambient loading of PM_{2.5} concentration. For example, daily averaged mass concentration of PM_{2.5} reached the maximum (447.5 μg/m³) on Jan 1, 2017; whereas maximum value of WSM/PM_{2.5} (0.80) occurred on Jan 7, 2017 when the pollution period almost ended. On Jan 1, 2017 observation site was prevailing southwesterly wind which introduced pollutants from NCP where industrial emission was intensive; However, air mass was mostly from east region on Jan 7, 2017, and high concentration of cNO₃ (Figure 3a) and high RH (Figure 2d) indicated that heterogeneous processes played a key role. Mole concentration of [H⁺] in fine mode (fH⁺) correlated well with mass concentration of fSO₄ (Figure 3d), implying of possibility of presence of surplus of sulfuric acid that converted from SO₂ that emitted from coal burning during heating period.

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151
152

153 Table 1 The relationship between fNO₃/cNO₃, fSO₄/cSO₄ and mass concentration of PM_{2.5} at different RH condition.

RH Classification	PM _{2.5} Classification (μg/m ³)	PM _{2.5} (μg/m ³)		fNO ₃ /cNO ₃ (unitless)		fSO ₄ /cSO ₄ (unitless)		RH (%)	
		Avg.	S.D.	Avg.	S.D.	Avg.	S.D.	Avg.	S.D.
RH<40%	<25	16.3	6.3	12.5	6.8	3.6	2.2	29.3	4.7

	25-50	37.5	7.2	15.1	7.2	4.7	1.9	32.3	5.9
	50-75	59.9	7.8	17.5	8.5	5.6	1.8	33.4	6.8
	>75	98.2	23.4	26.2	12.1	6.2	1.8	32.2	6.4
RH>40%	<50	33.4	13.1	12.1	6.1	4.5	1.8	53.3	14.1
	50-100	82.1	8.3	13.0	9.6	5.6	2.3	54.4	10.6
	100-150	119.2	14.5	9.5	5.3	6.1	3.4	60.2	10.1
	150-200	175.6	14.5	12.9	5.9	7.8	2.7	59.8	6.8
	>200	290.9	61.6	14.3	5.3	10.3	2.0	61.1	9.2

!54

!55 **3.2 Volume size distribution and depolarization ratio**

!56 Volume size distribution of aerosols and averaged depolarization ratio (δ) during observation period are shown in Figure 4. In
!57 general, evolution of all the pollution cases were well captured by POPC. Volume size distribution of aerosols showed a
!58 pronounced peak at 1 μm , at which secondary anthropogenic pollutants were dominant. Correspondingly, δ value of particles
!59 were normally less than 0.1, consistent with the previous study in East Asia (Pan et al., 2016). On Nov 19, 2016, two peaks
!60 were observed at size range of 1 μm and 2~3 μm . δ value of particles at two size were as low as 0.1. Such pattern of volume
!61 size distribution has been described in previous studies (Pan et al., 2015; Pan et al., 2016), which classified such phenomena
!62 as a mixing pollution type that both anthropogenic pollutants and mineral dust particles interacted. Five-day trajectory analysis
!63 indicated that air mass mainly originated from Mongolia Plateau and they were stagnant over East China for days. Volume
!64 peak at size of 4~5 μm was not observed probably due to fast gravity settling of large particles in coarse mode during their
!65 stagnancy. On Nov 26, 2016, the observation site was influenced by floating dust, and volume size distribution had a
!66 pronounced peak at 4 ~ 5 μm , as expected. δ value of submicron particles also increased to 0.3, implying of the substantial
!67 presence of irregular mineral particles in the fine mode. From Dec 30, 2016 to Jan 8, 2017, it had a long-lasting pollution
!68 period in Beijing. Volume size distribution of aerosols varied due to impacts from both change in Planet Boundary Layer
!69 height and origin of aerosols. Multi-peak fitting analysis indicated that volume size distribution had two peaks with a dominant
!70 peak at size of 0.9 μm and another peak at size of 2 μm . Different from case on Nov 19, 2016, the δ values of particles were
!71 0.2~0.4, though ambient RH was the same (> 60%). It implied that chemo-physical properties of the particles were different,
!72 probably due to impact by mineral dust. Detailed discussion was in section 3.3.2.

!73

!74 **3.3 Variability of δ value for particles of different size**

!75 **3.3.1 δ value for particles in fine mode**

!76 As pointed out in previous study, δ value of particles generally depends on both their size and non-sphericity. Histogram
!77 analysis on the particles at size of 1 μm showed that there was one peak mode with δ value of 0.11; For the particles at size
!78 of 2 μm , a multi-Gaussian fitting for frequency distribution of δ value showed there were one dominant peak at a value of 0.17
!79 and a shoulder value of 0.23, the latter of which was mostly related to the impact of dust aerosols. We found that variability
!80 of δ value of particles in fine mode was a synergistic effect of both water-soluble inorganic matter (WSI) and RH. For example,
!81 in Figure 5, δ value of particles at size of 2 μm decreased gradually from 0.3 to 0.1 as mass fraction of WSI in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ increase

from 0.2 to 0.65, and RH increased from 38% to 85%. It notes that, δ value of particles in fine mode decreased only when RH > 60% and mass fraction of WSI > 0.6. Mass fractions of both fSO₄ and fNO₃ in PM_{2.5} showed a negative correlation with δ value of the particles at size of 2 μm with a slope of -0.3 and -0.1, respectively. We speculated that fNO₃ might play a key role in decreasing of δ value of particles in the fine mode because fNO₃ was accounting for ~50% of total WSI and deliquescent point of ammonium nitrate was ~60%, and the impact of ammonium sulfate was less important since it started to undergo hygroscopic growth only at higher RH (79%). Quantitatively distinguishing respective contribution of fNO₃ and fSO₄ on the decrease of δ value of particles was difficult in the present study.

389

3.3.2 δ value of mineral dust aerosols

Histogram analysis of δ value for the particles at size of 5 μm ($\delta_{Dp=5}$) value had a wide range 0.3 - 0.55. Laboratory experiments on typical spherical particles at a size of 5.124 μm (SS-053-P) showed that their $\delta_{Dp=5}$ value was 0.07 ± 0.01 . The larger $\delta_{Dp=5}$ value (> 0.3) of mineral dust particle in the ambient air indicated that they were aspherical in shape. Figure 6 shows time variation of vertical profile of extinction coefficient of dust particles derived from ground-based Lidar observation. We can see that there was a typical dust event on Dec 26, 2016 with a PM_{2.5-10}/PM₁₀ ratio of 68%, and extinction coefficient of dust particles at site was larger than 0.3 Km⁻¹. $\delta_{Dp=5}$ value of dust particle was varying around 0.5, and no decrease of δ value of dust particles was observed due to low cNO₃ concentration and low RH (Figure 6). Another dust event was from Jan 1, 2017 to Jan 7, 2017, we found that $\delta_{Dp=5}$ value of dust particles was apparently low with a mean value of 0.35. In particular, during the period that mass concentration of cNO₃ increased up to 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ and ambient RH was ranging above 60%, hourly averaged $\delta_{Dp=5}$ value of dust particles decreased to 0.2, implying that cNO₃ on the surface of dust particle may form as Ca(NO₃)₂ owing to heterogeneous processes, and consecutive hygroscopic growth resulted in the decrease of its $\delta_{Dp=5}$ value. Compared with the case on Dec 26, 2016, impact of this dust event was relative weak with a PM_{2.5-10}/PM₁₀ ratio of 27%. It was worth noting that all the mineral dust impacting cases were captured by both Lidar and POPC observations, nevertheless, the mixing state of mineral dust particles could be illustrated better with POPC measurement according to their $\delta_{Dp=5}$ variations. Once the morphology of mineral dust particles was modified due to cNO₃ coating at high RH condition, Lidar observation may underestimate the impact of dust due to decrease of $\delta_{Dp=5}$ value of particles. Such phenomena maybe more likely to happen at the downstream of polluted area. For instance, dust particles were found to be spherical due to interaction with HCl and HNO₃ at marine area (Tobo et al., 2010). Observations using POPC at Kyushu area of Japan also indicated that there was a large number of larger particles with a $\delta_{Dp=5}$ value between 0.05 ~ 0.15 when air mass came from NCP of China, implying that the morphology of dust particles were altering with transport (Pan et al., 2016).

311

3.4 Footprint analysis of mineral dust particles

As discussed above, the decrease of $\delta_{Dp=5}$ value of mineral dust particle was influenced by both mass concentration of cNO₃ and ambient RH. We selected two mineral dust-influencing episodes to demonstrate such impact (Figure 7). Here, footprint

15 region of the air mass was calculated for the period that hourly averaged mass concentration of $c\text{NO}_3$ was higher than $5 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$.
16 For the episode between Nov 24 and Dec 7 2016, the footprint region of air mass covered west of Inner Mongolia province
17 and South of Hebei province. The particles in coarse mode seemed to mostly related with anthropogenic dust (defined as dust
18 aerosols due to human activity, such as agriculture, industrial activity, transportation etc.) in NCP where NO_x emission and
19 atmospheric nitrate loading were also high. Averaged RH was relatively low with a mean value of 30% (Figure 7c). However,
20 for the episode between Jan 1 and Jan 8, 2017, averaged RH within the footprint region around NCP was as high as 60%
21 (Figure 7d), although mineral dust particle had similar origins. Adsorption of water vapour and consecutive heterogeneous
22 reaction lead to obvious decrease of $\delta_{\text{Dp}=5}$ value of mineral dust particles. It indicated that a synergetic effect of both nitrate in
23 coarse mode and high RH condition lead to morphological changes in dust shape. The variability of morphological changes
24 was simulated on the basis of T-matrix methodology and randomly oriented elongated ellipsoid particles. We found that
25 observed maximal $\delta_{\text{Dp}=5}$ value (0.5) of dust particle corresponded to an aspect ratio (defined as ratio of the longest dimension
26 to its orthogonal width) of 1.7. When δ value of mineral dust particles decrease to 0.2, the aspect ratio was estimated to be 1.5,
27 not being “spherical”. Therefore, we considered such dust particles as being ‘quasi-spherical’. Huang et al. (2015) pointed out
28 that layer-integrated δ value of anthropogenic dust particles in the PBL of NCP was lower than that of Taklimakan dust on the
29 basis of CALIPSO Lidar measurement, mostly due to mixed with other more spherical aerosol within the PBL. Because Lidar
30 observation just provide an averaged δ value of all the particle in the detecting volume, external mixing of dust particle with
31 substantial amount of secondary anthropogenic particles in spherical shape could also result in a low δ value. From view point
32 of this study, irregularity of anthropogenic dust particles in NCP were possibly the same as the nature dust in the source region,
33 however, their interaction in particular at high RH condition will obviously lead to decrease in δ value.
34

35 **3.5 Impact of heterogeneous reaction on δ value of particles**

36
37 As shown in Figure 8, δ value of particles decrease obviously with increase of mass fraction of water soluble Matters (WSM),
38 in particular at high RH condition. For the particles at $\text{Dp} = 2 \mu\text{m}$, their δ value was normally 0.3 when mass fraction of WSM
39 in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ was less than 0.2, whereas it decreased to 0.1 when the mass fraction of WSM increased to 0.6, and RH also increased
40 to 80% (Figure 8a). The linear relation was because the growth of particles in fine mode was closely related to formation of
41 secondary inorganic matters (sulfate, nitrate, etc.) and organic aerosols. Throughout the atmospheric chemistry processes, the
42 positive feedback between aerosol and water vapor was ubiquitous. For example, hygroscopic processes of anthropogenic
43 secondary inorganic resulted in abundance of aerosol liquid water content (Wu et al., 2018), and the latter of which could
44 provide an efficient media of multiphase reaction which promote new particle formation, and so on. Therefore, the particles
45 in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ generally approach to spherical in shape, resulted in a low δ value, and the high RH and the high possibility that
46 spherical particles formed. The morphological changes of particles in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ could be well simulated on the basis of T-matrix
47 method (Pan et al., 2017).

148 For mineral dust particles, as discussed, the $\delta_{Dp=5}$ value (0.3~0.5) was clearly higher than that of particle in fine mode (Figure
149 8b). Since the mass concentration of cSO_4 and cNH_4 were insignificant in coarse mode, the $\delta_{Dp=5}$ value was plotted versus
150 mass fraction of cNO_3 in $PM_{2.5-10}$. Decrease of δ value of dust particles as a function of mass fraction of cNO_3 in $PM_{2.5-10}$ was
151 also obvious, especially when RH was high than 60%. Numbers of studies have reported emission of anthropogenic dust in
152 NCP was significant, and calcium was the most abundant crustal element in NCP. We believed that that $Ca(NO_3)_2$ present on
153 the surface of mineral dust particles, and the decrease of $\delta_{Dp=5}$ value of particle in coarse mode was mostly due to heterogeneous
154 reactions and consecutive water-absorbing processes. Such kind of mineral dust particles coated with anthropogenic pollutants
155 have been observed by numbers of previous electro-microscopic studies. Previous studies (Reitz et al., 2011; Gu et al., 2017; Ma
156 et al., 2013) also demonstrated the presence of cSO_4 on the surface of dust particles, nevertheless, we think the effect of cSO_4
157 on the decrease of $\delta_{Dp=5}$ value was negligible because the mass fraction of cSO_4 was tiny (<0.02) and the $CaSO_4$ was hard to
158 dissolve in limited amount of aerosol liquid water content. To note that, the chemical compounds (such as kaolinite, illite,
159 humic matters, etc.) of particles in coarse mode was very complicated, $\delta_{Dp=5}$ value just indicate a synthetically effect of
160 morphological changes as a result of all physical and chemical processes. To quantitatively characterize their optical and
161 environmental effect, detailed studies on $\delta_{Dp=5}$ value variability of one-fold compound in the laboratory was still essentially
162 need.

163 **4 Conclusions and implications**

164 Depolarization properties of aerosol particles is an important parameter classifying the aerosol types and describing the
165 variability of morphology of particles, which is affected by complicated mixing processes and heterogeneous reactions. It also
166 has great impact on its transport and regional/global climate due to alteration of optical properties of particles. In 2017, a field
167 joint campaign (In-depth study of air pollution sources and processes within Beijing and its surrounding region, APHH-
168 Beijing) was performed at an urban site in Beijing mega city. One of key aims of the project is to assess the processes by
169 which pollutants are transformed through atmospheric chemical reactions. Taking this opportunity, we performed an online
170 observation on the depolarization ratio of single particles using a Polarization Optical Particle Counter. The chemical
171 compositions (SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^- , WSOC) and acidity of particles in both fine mode ($PM_{2.5}$) and coarse mode ($PM_{2.5-10}$) was
172 determined using a continuous dichotomous Aerosol Chemical Speciation Analyzer (ACSA-14). The main conclusions are as
173 follows: (1) Depolarization ratio (δ) of ambient particles generally increase with its size due to increase in irregularity of the
174 particles, and the characteristic values of δ for the particles at $Dp = 1 \mu m$ and $2 \mu m$ were 0.11, 0.17, respectively. Once the
175 observation site was influenced by dust event, both of δ values increased to above 0.3 due to presence of submicron mineral
176 dust particle in irregular shape. The δ value of the particles at $Dp = 2 \mu m$ was mainly determined by the mass fraction of water-
177 soluble inorganic matter in $PM_{2.5}$, in which water vapor was fully involved in their atmospheric formation processes. (2) In
178 NCP, anthropogenic dust was an important contributor to the atmospheric loading of particles, their δ values (0.2-0.3) were
179 found to be smaller than that (0.5) of nature dust because of adsorption of acidic substance (such as HNO_3) and coagulation
180 with water-soluble anthropogenic pollutants (nitrate, sulfate) and consecutive chemical reactions on the surface of dust.

181 Ambient relative humidity plays a key role in altering the morphology of mineral dust as a result of hygroscopic processes of
182 deliquescent substances such as $\text{Ca}(\text{NO}_3)_2$, in particular when $\text{RH} > 80\%$. In this study, we found that δ values of mineral dust
183 particle in NCP could be as smaller as 0.2, which could be termed as “quasi-spherical”. (3) We found that allocation of
184 anthropogenic pollutants in fine and coarse mode was influenced by the RH along the trajectories of air mass, and increase of
185 nitrate mass in coarse mode was highly associated with the dust event. It indicated that the mineral dust particles in NCP was
186 mostly coated with anthropogenic pollution, upon which classification and quantitative determination of anthropogenic dust
187 emission was possible, though a pioneering study have been done on the basis of satellite remote sensing and land type (Huang
188 et al., 2015).

189 In this study, we provided solid evidences in morphological changes of mineral dust particles in NCP. Variability of δ value
190 of particles is also a valuable parameter in distinguishing how mineral dust particle interacted with anthropogenic pollutants
191 in formation of regional-scale haze pollutions. This result also spurs us to revisit decades of Lidar observation data in better
192 describing the transport and vertical distribution of Asian dust and pollution, and its regional environmental effects under the
193 scenarios of China thirty years’ rapid urbanizations. A reliable optical model capable of discriminating multiple aerosol types
194 was necessary for detailed analysis of polarization-related remote sensing observations. This study suggested that an integrated
195 observation network with single-particle-based depolarization measurement was necessary for synthetically understanding
196 chemo-physical properties of Asian dust issue.

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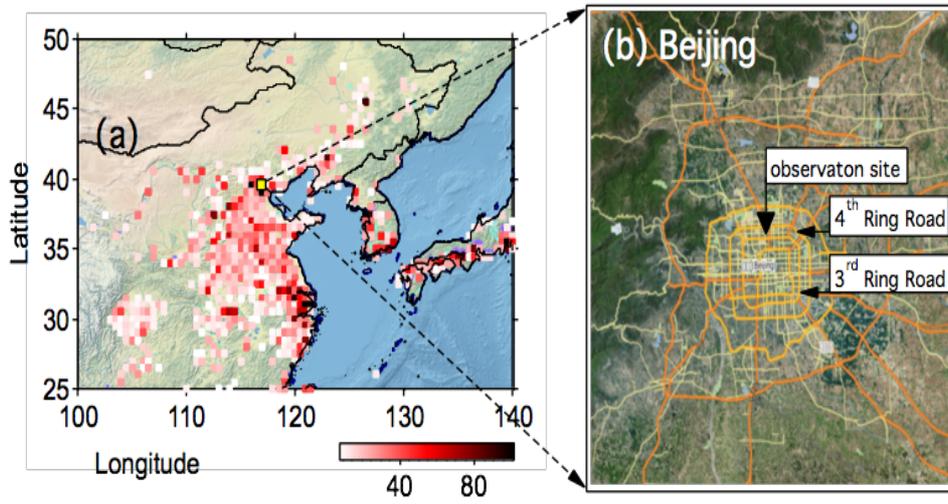
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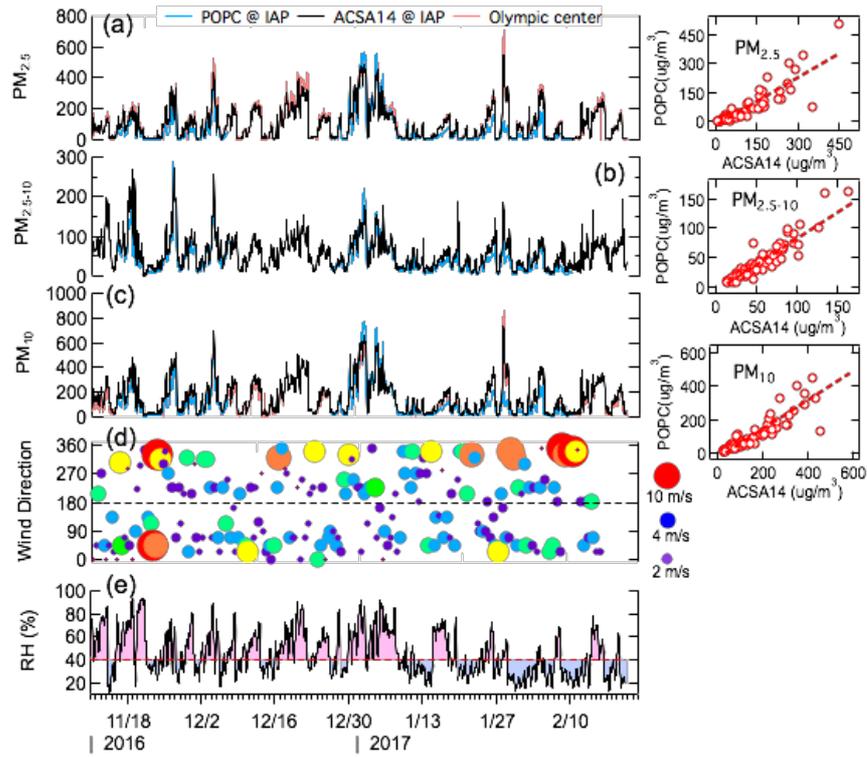
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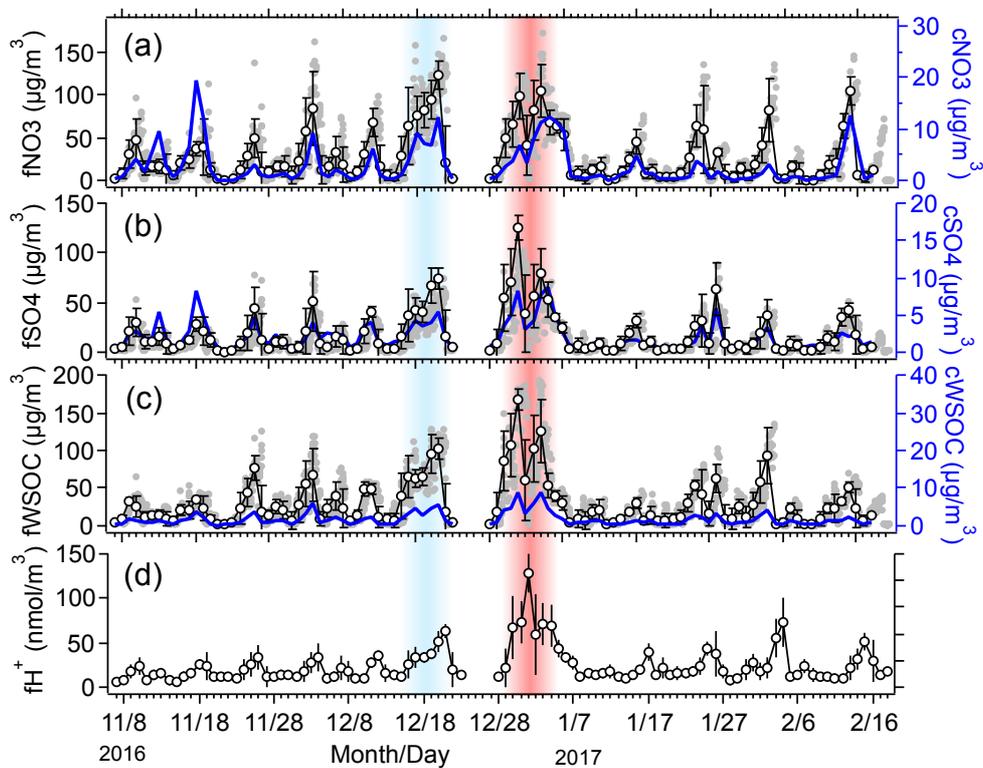


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518 Figure 1. Geographic location of observation site and NOx emission in East Asia (a), the transportation map of Beijing mega
519 city and location of tower campus of IAP.



i21 Figure 2. Temporal variation of mass concentration of PM_{2.5} (a), PM_{2.5-10} (b), PM₁₀ (c) measured by ACSA14 and derived
 i22 from POPC measurement, wind speed and direction (d) and relative humidity (e) at observation site. The three scatter plots in
 i23 the right indicate the linear relationship between ACSA14 and POPC, the correlations are $Y_{\text{POPC}} = -6.8 + 0.89 \times X_{\text{ACSA14}}$ ($r^2 =$
 i24 0.86), $Y_{\text{POPC}} = -19.5 + 0.84 \times X_{\text{ACSA14}}$ ($r^2 = 0.77$), $Y_{\text{POPC}} = -27.7 + 0.87 \times X_{\text{ACSA14}}$ ($r^2 = 0.81$) for PM_{2.5}, PM_{2.5-10} and PM₁₀
 i25 respectively.



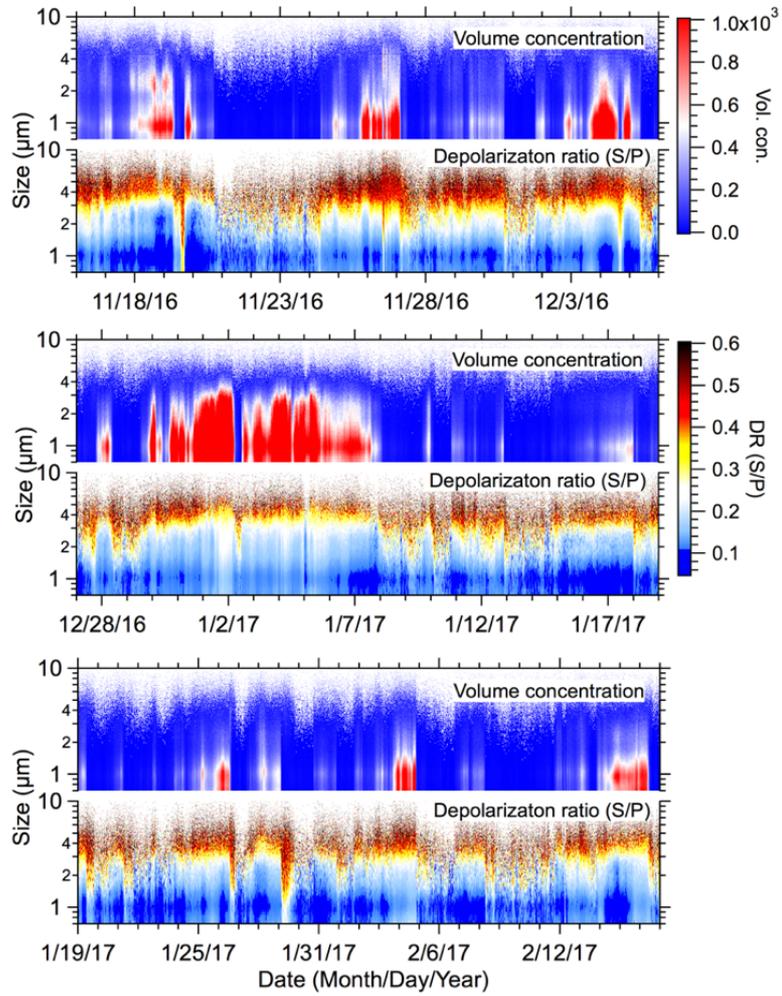
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i28 Figure 3 Temporal variations of mass concentrations of nitrate (a), sulfate (b) and water-soluble organic matters (c) in fine
i29 mode and coarse mode, and acidity of particle ($f\text{H}^+$) in the fine mode (d). Gray dots and white circles represent hourly and
i30 daily averaged values on averaged.

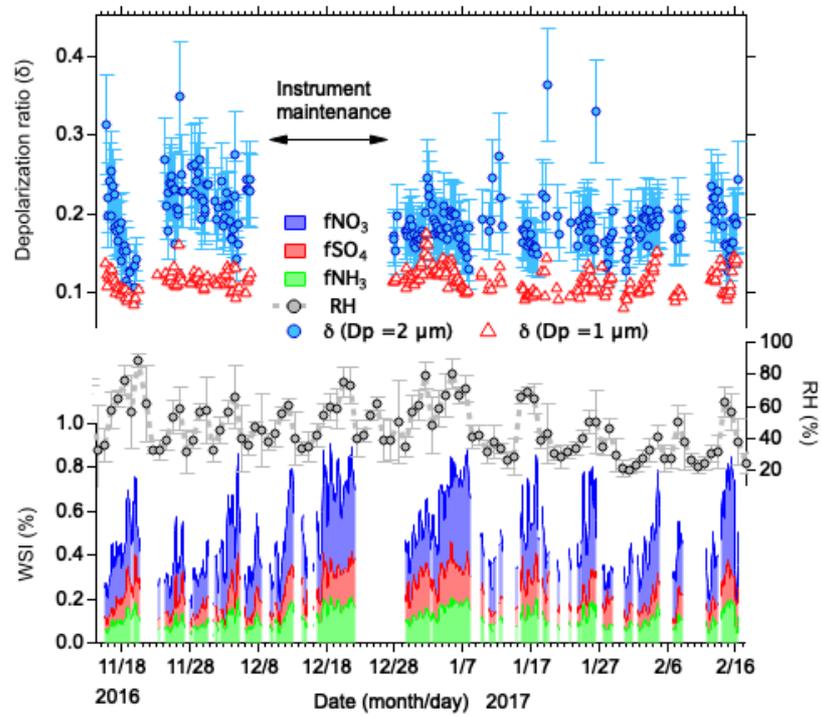
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i33 Figure 4 Volume concentrations of particles and corresponding depolarization ratio as a function of time during observation
i34 period. For better view the performance of the instrument, the observation results are shown in three-time slots.

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i43 Figure 5 Temporal variabilities of δ value for particles at size of 1 μm and 2 μm (a) and mass fraction of water-soluble
i44 inorganic matter (WSI, Blue: nitrate; Red: sulphate; Green: ammonium) in PM_{2.5}, ambient RH (b).

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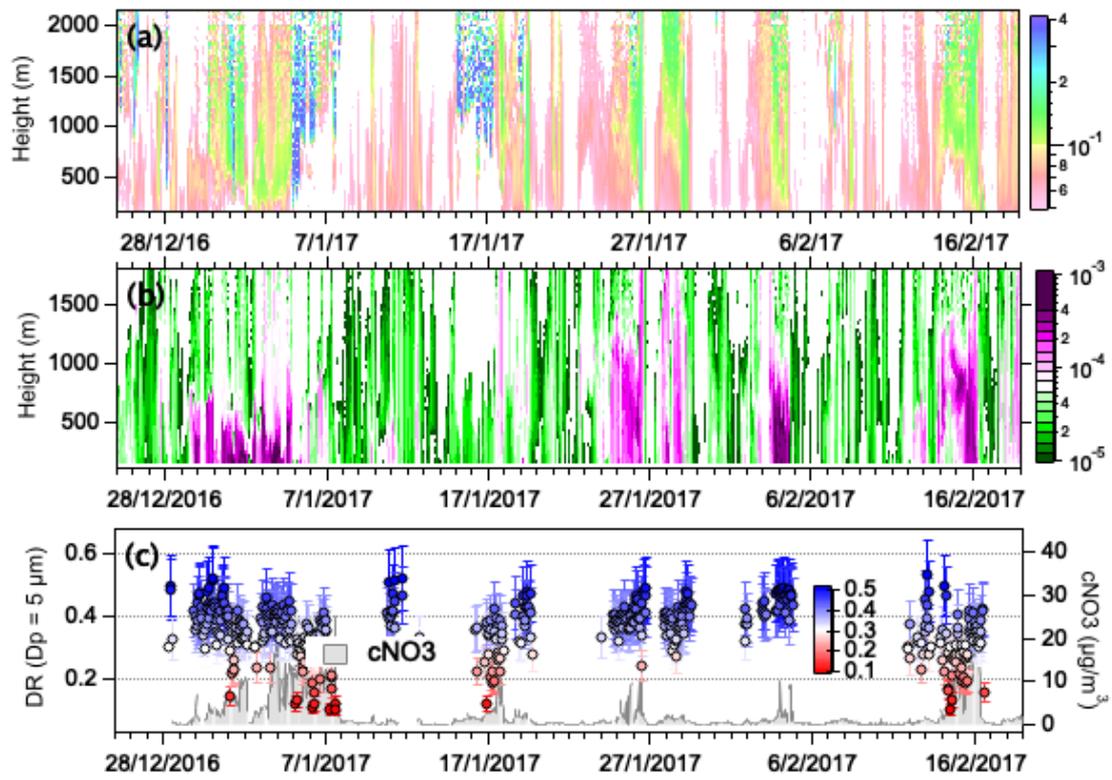
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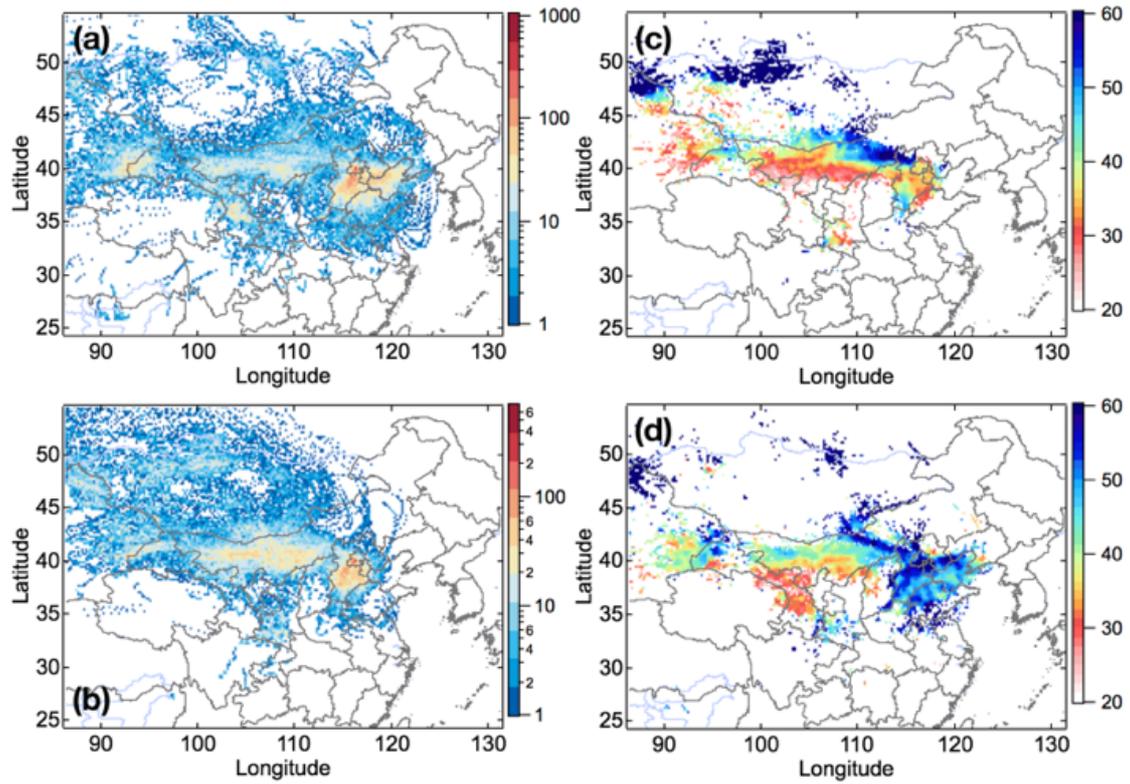
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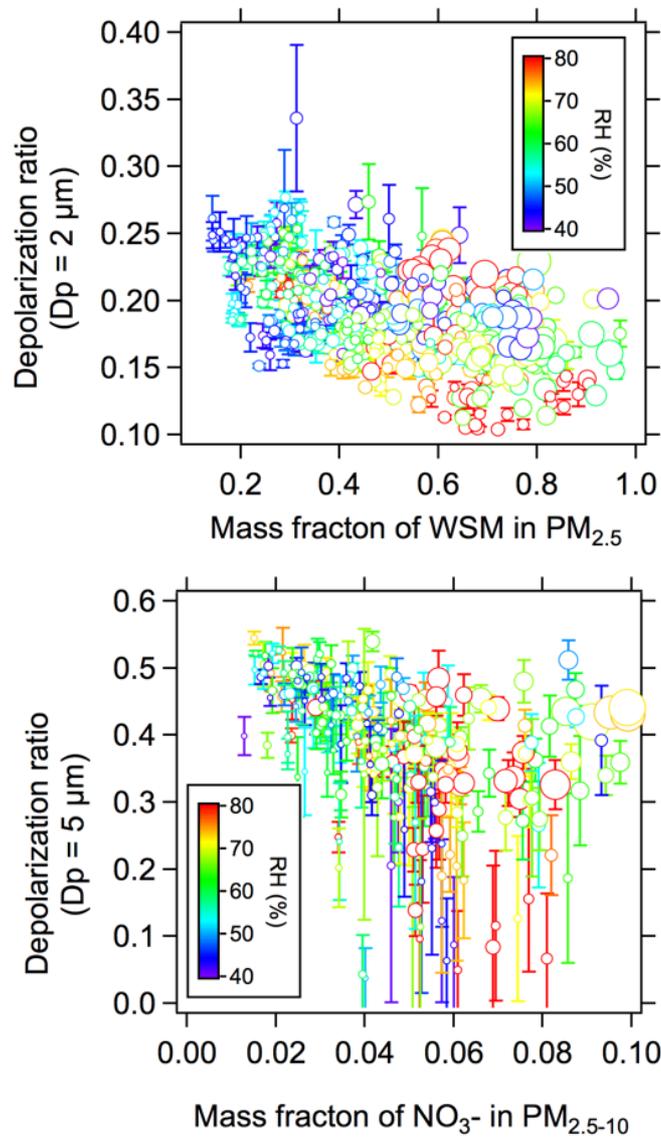
Figure 6 Vertical distribution of volume depolarization ratio (@532 nm) (a), extinction coefficient of dust particles derived from Lidar observation (b) and variability of δ value of mineral dust particles and NO_3^- in coarse mode aerosols (c) as a function of time. Here we choose the particles at a size of $5 \mu\text{m}$ to indicate the mineral dust particles, marked as $\delta_{D_p=5}$ correspondingly.



568 Figure 7 Footprint regions of mineral dust particles for the periods when averaged mass concentration of $c\text{NO}_3$ was higher
 569 than $5 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, while $\delta_{\text{Dp}=5}$ values were higher than 0.4 (a) and lower than 0.2 (b), and corresponding mean RH (c) and (d) in
 570 each grid within the footprint area on the basis of ensemble Hysplit analysis. Footprint height was defined as a height that
 571 endpoint of backward trajectory was lower than the height of mixing layer in that grid.

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575 Figure 8 The variation of $\delta_{D_p=2}$ as a function of mass fraction of WSM in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ (a), and $\delta_{D_p=5}$ as a function of mass fraction of
 576 cNO_3 in $\text{PM}_{2.5-10}$. The color represents the hourly averaged relative humidity during measurement.

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