



1 Dynamic shape factor and mixing state of refractory
2 black carbon particles in winter in Beijing using an
3 AAC-DMA-SP2 tandem system

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15 **Abstract**

16 Refractory black carbon (rBC) is one of the most important short-lived climate forcers in the
17 atmosphere. Light absorption enhancement capacity largely depends on the morphology of
18 rBC-containing particles and their mixing state. In this study, a tandem measuring system,
19 consisting of an aerodynamic aerosol classifier (AAC), a differential mobility analyzer (DMA)
20 and a single particle soot photometer (SP2), was adopted to investigate dynamic shape factor
21 (χ) and its relationship with the mixing state of rBC-containing particles at an urban site of
22 Beijing megacity in winter. The results demonstrated that the aerosol particles with an
23 aerodynamic diameter of 400 ± 1.2 nm normally had a mobility diameter (D_{mob}) ranging from
24 250 nm to 320 nm, reflecting a large variation in shape under different pollution conditions.
25 Multiple Gaussian fitting on the number mass-equivalent diameter (D_{mev}) distribution of the
26 rBC core determined by SP2 had two peaks at $D_{\text{mev}} = 106.5$ nm and $D_{\text{mev}} = 146.3$ nm. During
27 pollution episodes, rBC-containing particles tended to have a smaller rBC core than those
28 during clean episodes due to rapid coagulation and condensation processes. The χ values of
29 the particles were found to be ~ 1.2 during moderate pollution conditions, although the shell-
30 core ratio (S/C) of rBC-containing particles was as high as 2.7 ± 0.3 , suggesting that the
31 particles had an irregular structure as a result of the high fraction of nascent rBC aggregates.



32 During heavy pollution episodes, the χ value of the particles was approximately 1.0, indicating
33 that the majority of particles tended to be spherical, and a shell-core model could be reasonable
34 to estimate the light enhancement effect. Considering the variation in shape of the particles, the
35 light absorption enhancement of the particles differed significantly according to the T-matrix
36 model simulation. This study suggested that accurate description of the morphology of rBC-
37 containing particles was crucially important for optical simulation and better evaluation of their
38 climate effect.



39 **1. Introduction**

40 It has been well acknowledged that black carbon aerosols play a key role in climate change by
41 disturbing the atmospheric radiation balance on regional and global scales (Bond et al., 2013).
42 First, black carbon aerosol particles can directly absorb downward shortwave solar radiation,
43 heating the atmosphere in the planet boundary layer (PBL), reducing the radiation quantity on
44 the ground, and increasing atmospheric stability (Wang et al., 2018c). It has been reported that
45 black carbon aerosols can suppress the development of the PBL, which facilitates the rapid
46 accumulation of particulate matter (PM) during high pollution episodes (Ding et al., 2016).
47 Many studies in China have pointed out that the interaction between aerosols and meteorology
48 could be attributed to 2-30% of the fast growth of pollution (Wang et al., 2018a; Gao et al.,
49 2015). Second, black carbon aerosols in the atmosphere experience continuous aging processes
50 (coagulation, condensation, oxidation, etc.). As a result, the physical properties of black carbon
51 change from hydrophobic to hydrophilic, which influences their activation capacity to become
52 cloud condensation nuclei (CCN) and consequently influences cloud formation and life span
53 (Laborde et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2013). Black carbon aerosols also contribute to detrimental
54 impacts on human health. These aerosols are normally small with large specific surface areas,
55 and they could be easily inhaled and deposited in the respiratory system with a large fraction
56 of aromatic compounds (such as soot and PAHs). Higher risk of high blood pressure was
57 reported to be related to highway proximity and black carbon emission from cookstoves
58 (Baumgartner et al., 2014).

59 Black carbon aerosols have different emission sources, such as on-road vehicles, industry,
60 residential activities, and open biomass burning (Zhang et al., 2009). Because black carbon
61 aerosols are mostly produced from incomplete combustion of fossil and biofuel, they are
62 chemically closer to carbon-rich materials consisting of not only carbon nanospheres but also
63 organic matter such as brown carbon (BrC). In practice, mass concentration of black carbon
64 aerosol is operationally determined on the basis of distinct measurement techniques (Lack et
65 al., 2014). For instance, terminology of black carbon normally refers to the light absorbing
66 carbonaceous aerosols that are measured by commercial instruments such as an aethalometer
67 and a multiangle absorption photometer. Another definition, soot, has also been widely used in
68 the combustion research. Soot is normally referred to as refractory black carbon (rBC) and is
69 quantified by a single particle soot photometer on the basis of laser-induced incandescence (LII)
70 emission at a boiling point (Moteki and Kondo, 2007). Not only the mass-equivalent size
71 distribution of rBC but also the mixing state of rBC particles with their host matter could be



72 reasonably estimated according to scattering and incandescent signals. Currently, such a
73 technique is recognized as one of the most reliable for characterizing the microphysical and
74 optical properties of rBC-containing particles. Thus, we adopted rBC terminology in this study.

75 As mentioned, freshly produced rBC particles are normally hydrophobic and in branch-like
76 structures. These particles are initially externally mixed with other particles (Riemer et al.,
77 2004). With atmospheric aging processes (coagulation, condensation, etc.), the particles
78 gradually mix with other pollutants and become hydrophilic (Zhang et al., 2008). It has been
79 reported that loosely structured rBC aggregates could collapse to compact and spherical
80 aggregates (Adachi et al., 2010). In some cases, rBC particles form a core and become fully
81 encapsulated by their host matter, and consequently, the light-absorbing capacity of rBC-
82 containing particles will enhance significantly due to the “lensing effect” of the coatings. Such
83 absorption enhancement (E_{abs}) has been studied by both Mie theory calculations and
84 observations. Field measurement (Liu et al., 2015) during wintertime in the United Kingdom
85 showed that the E_{abs} value could increase by a factor of up to 2 with increasing coating thickness
86 of the rBC core. In other cases, rBC fractions may be located at the surface or attached to its
87 host material, which results in limited absorption enhancement. For instance, Cappa et al. (2012)
88 reported a small observed E_{abs} value (~6%) on average irrelevant to photochemical aging. Both
89 the above viewpoints have been supported by observational evidence. Liu et al. (2017) pointed
90 out that the absorption enhancement effect is accountable only for a mass ratio of non-rBC to
91 rBC (M_{R}) greater than 3, and it is very suitable for describing rBC particles from biomass
92 burning sources. Considering the large temporal and spatial variation in emissions, pollution
93 level and meteorological conditions, the mixing state of rBC-containing particles was unevenly
94 distributed from region to region. Therefore, assuming a simplified mixing state and/or E_{abs}
95 value would result in large uncertainty in evaluation of the rBC climate effect.

96 The morphology of particles changes significantly during atmospheric processing (Zhang et
97 al., 2008). An aggregate model showed that E_{abs} of rBC-containing particles was constrained
98 by the particle morphology with a maximum of ~3.5, even though the M_{R} value was larger than
99 10 (Wu et al., 2018). For fresh rBC aggregates, laser-induced incandescence and scattering
100 signals are more sensitive to fractal dimension (He et al., 2015) and monomer polydispersity
101 (Wu et al., 2015) due to the conductive cooling effect (Bambha and Michelsen, 2015). For
102 measurement, quantification of morphological characteristics of rBC-containing particles is
103 labor intensive from the observation on the basis of transmission electron microscopy and
104 discrete dipole approximation (Adachi et al., 2010). Alternatively, the dynamic shape factor (χ)



105 is an applicable parameter describing the morphological effects of a nonspherical particle in
106 the flow. χ was defined by (Fuchs et al., 1965) as the ratio of actual drag force on the particle
107 to that on an ideal ball with the same volume equivalent diameter. For a spherical particle, the
108 χ value is almost equal to 1.0. The more irregular the particle, the greater the χ value is. In
109 practice, the χ value can be reasonably estimated using a tandem observation system consisting
110 of an aerodynamic aerosol classifier (AAC) and a differential mobility analyzer (DMA). An
111 AAC can select a narrow range of monodispersed aerosol with a known aerodynamic diameter
112 (D_{ac}) that is defined as the diameter of a sphere with a density of 1.0 g/cm^3 that settles at the
113 same terminal velocity as an irregular particle. DMA was used to select the particles with
114 known electrical mobility diameter (D_{mob}), which is defined as the diameter of a sphere that
115 has the same drift velocity in an electric field as an irregular particle. Both the parameters were
116 affected by the shape of the particles.

117 A tandem observational system consisting of AAC-DMA and SP2 can provide helpful
118 information in estimating the mixing state of rBC-containing particles. However, few studies
119 have been reported in China. The aim of this study is to investigate the variations in the
120 dynamic shape factor of aerosol particles during pollution processes in winter in an urban
121 environment, and the relationship between the morphology of particles and the mixing state of
122 rBC-containing particles, chemical compositions and formation scheme are discussed. The
123 field measurement was performed at the observation field of the State Key Laboratory of
124 Atmospheric Boundary Layer Physics and Atmospheric Chemistry (LAPC) in the Institute of
125 Atmospheric Physics, Chinese Academy of Sciences. The AAC-DMA-SP2 tandem measuring
126 system was placed in an air-conditioned container. Detailed information of the observation site
127 and sampling system have been described in the literature (Pan et al., 2019).

128 **2. Experimental design and method**

129 **2.1 Instruments**

130 **2.1.1 Single Particle Soot Photometer (SP2)**

131 In this study, the mass size distribution of rBC particles was determined by a single particle
132 soot photometer (SP2, Droplet Measurement Technologies Inc. USA). The principle of SP2
133 has been described at length in the literature (Schwarz et al., 2008; Moteki and Kondo,
134 2007; Gao et al., 2007). Briefly, when a rBC particle is passing through a continuous intracavity
135 Nd:YAG laser beam (1064 nm, TEM00 mode), rBC, as a black body, continuously absorbs



136 energy and eventually emits incandescence at its boiling point (~4000 K). Because peak height
137 of the incandescent signal is approximately linearly proportional to the total mass of the rBC
138 fraction, the mass size distribution of rBC could be obtained presuming a spherical structure
139 and density. In most ambient circumstance, rBC particles are mostly encapsulated or engulfed
140 by other non-refractory matter, and rBC needs more time to evaporate the coating matter before
141 reaching its boiling point. Therefore, the delay time in the occurrence of the peak of the
142 incandescent signal and scattering signal (Δt) is sometimes adopted as a measure to quantify
143 the coating thickness of a rBC-containing particle in many studies (Sedlacek et al., 2012; Huang
144 et al., 2011). A positive value of Δt indicates that the rBC particle is in an internally mixed
145 state, and a negative value indicates the rBC particle might be externally mixed or attached to
146 its host matter.

147 The SP2 was calibrated before the experiment according to well-established procedures
148 (Miyakawa et al., 2017; Pan et al., 2017). Aquadag aerosols (Lot #9627, Acheson Inc., USA)
149 were used as a calibration standard for the SP2. We adopted an atomizer (model 3072, TSI Inc.,
150 USA) and a diffusion dryer and a differential mobility analyzer (DMA; Model 3081, TSI Inc.,
151 USA) to prepare the monodispersed Aquadag aerosols, and then the mass of particles (0.5-22
152 fg) was precisely selected by a centrifugal particle mass analyzer (CPMA, Cambustion Ltd.
153 UK). Note that SP2 was apparently 20~40% more sensitive to Aquadag aerosol than to other
154 rBC types (e.g., fullerene and diesel exhaust). To avoid overestimation resulting from the
155 Aquadag-based calibration curve (Laborde et al., 2012), we corrected the broadband
156 incandescent signal of SP2 with a scaling factor of 0.75. Mass equivalent diameter (D_{mev}) of
157 rBC was calculated assuming a density of 1.8 g cm^{-3} and an ideally spherical structure. During
158 the observation period, the laser power was stable at 4.8 within $\pm 5\%$ at a laser current of 1950
159 mA, indicating that detection of the rBC size was reliable. Detection efficiency of SP2 was
160 determined to be 0.95-1.05 for the rBC particle with D_{mev} at 80-200 nm. Total uncertainty of
161 the D_{mev} was estimated to be less than 10%.

162 The scattering signal of SP2 was calibrated using commercially produced polystyrene latex
163 spheres (PSL, Nanosphere Size Standards, Duke Scientific Corp., USA.) with sizes of 203 nm
164 (Lot #185856), 303 nm (Lot #189903), and 400 nm (Lot #189904). Sizes of pure scattering
165 particles or non-rBC matter were determined according to a calibration curve with a prefixed
166 refractive index of $1.48-0i$.

167 **2.1.1 Aerodynamic Aerosol Classifier (AAC)**



168 In this study, the particles with known aerodynamic diameter (D_{ae}) were precisely selected with
169 an aerodynamic aerosol classifier (AAC, Cambustion Ltd., UK). The AAC was designed for
170 generating truly monodispersed aerosols with known D_{ae} between 25 nm and 5 μm on the basis
171 of particle relaxation time (τ) that describes the motion of the particle in a shear flow, which is
172 dependent upon instrumental setups such as classifier dimensions, rotating speed, sheath flow,
173 air viscosity and mean free path. The AAC consists of two concentric cylinders rotating at the
174 same direction and rotational speed. Once the aerosols enter the sheath flow through a slit in
175 the inner cylinder wall, the particles experience both a centrifugal force and drag force in the
176 radial direction. Only a particle with a proper τ value can exit with the sampling flow, while
177 the particles with larger τ values adhere to the outer cylinder and particles with smaller τ values
178 exit the classifier with the exhaust flow. Since a charger or neutralizer was not adopted,
179 transmission efficiency of the AAC is higher than 80% for D_{ae} between 200 and 1000 nm. A
180 detailed description of the operation and transfer function is in the literature (Tavakoli and
181 Olfert, 2013). In principle, the aerodynamic diameter D_{ae} and physical characteristics of the
182 AAC in a balanced flow are expressed as the following formula:

183

$$184 \frac{C_c(D_{ae})\rho_0 D_{ae}^2}{18 \mu} = \frac{2Q_{sh}}{\pi\omega^2(r_1 + r_2)^2 L}$$

185 (1)

186

187 where μ is the viscosity of the gas, C_c is the Cunningham slip correction factor, and ρ_0 is the
188 standard density of a particle (1000 kg/m^3). On the right side, Q_{sh} is sheath flow of particle-
189 free air, ω , r_1 and r_2 are the rotational speed and the radius of the inner and outer cylinders,
190 respectively, and L is the distance between the two slits through which the particle enters and
191 leaves the classifier.

192 2.2 Tandem system setup

193 A schematic flow chart of the experimental setup is illustrated in Figure 1. As shown,
194 polydispersed aerosols were drawn through a $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ cyclone (URG-2000-30EN) at a flow rate
195 of 10 lpm by a supporting pump. The sampling flow was dried by passing through a Nafion
196 dryer (MD-700-24S, TSI) at a flow rate of 0.4 lpm. During the experiment, the AAC was used
197 to select monodispersed particles with a fixed D_{ae} at 400 nm at a constant setpoint ($R_s = 5$).
198 Then, the sampling aerosols were introduced into the DMA to identify their mobility size



199 distribution at a scanning mode, and the concentrations of total particles and rBC-containing
200 particles were concurrently measured with a condensation particle counter (Model 3775, TSI)
201 and SP2. As an electrostatic classifier, DMA normally produces monodispersed aerosol with
202 multiple charging artifacts. To avoid such a problem, the scanning D_{mob} range of the DMA was
203 set between 150 and 400 nm, in which there was a distinct singly charged peak with negligible
204 doubly charged particles.

205 **2.3 Methods**

206 **2.3.1 Dynamic shape factor**

207 The dynamic shape factor (χ) is theoretically defined as the ratio of the actual drag on the
208 particle to the drag on a sphere of equivalent volume at the same velocity (Fuchs et al., 1965),
209 as follows,

$$210 \quad \chi = \frac{F_{\text{D}}}{F_{\text{D,ve}}} \\ 211 \quad (2)$$

$$212 \quad F_{\text{D}} = \frac{3\pi\mu\nu\chi D_{\text{ve}}}{C_{\text{c}}(D_{\text{ve}})} \\ 213 \quad (3)$$

214 where F_{D} and $F_{\text{D,ve}}$ are the drag force on a non-spherical particle and its volume equivalent
215 sphere, ν is the velocity of the particle with respect to the gas, D_{ve} is the volume equivalent
216 diameter defined as the diameter at which the non-spherical particle was melted to form a
217 droplet while internal void spaces were preserved. The χ value is always larger than one.

218 For a non-spherical particle that is migrating at a steady velocity in an electric field, its
219 electrical mobility is the same as that of a spherical particle; therefore, we can infer that,

$$220 \quad \frac{C_{\text{c}}(D_{\text{ve}})}{D_{\text{ve}}\chi} = \frac{C_{\text{c}}(D_{\text{mob}})}{D_{\text{mob}}} \\ 221 \quad (4)$$

222 In addition, D_{ae} is defined as the diameter of a spherical particle with a unit density having the
223 same settling velocity (V_{TS}) as the irregular particles under consideration. The equation is given
224 below:



$$v_{TS} = \frac{\rho_P C_c(D_{ve}) D_{ve}^2}{18\mu\chi} = \frac{\rho_0 C_c(D_{ae}) D_{ae}^2}{18\mu}$$

(5)

where ρ_P is the density of a particle with internal voids, and we can obtain that,

$$D_{ae} = D_{ve} \sqrt{\frac{\rho_P C_c(D_{ve})}{\chi \rho_0 C_c(D_{ae})}}$$

(6)

Among equations (4) and (6), D_{ae} and D_{mob} of the particles were directly measured by the AAC and DMA by solving the equation (Farzan Tavakoli and Jason S. Olfert, 2014), and the D_{ve} and χ values can be obtained as follows,

$$D_{ve} = \sqrt[3]{\frac{D_{ae}^2 D_{mob} C_c(D_{ae}) \rho_0}{\rho_P C_c(D_{mob})}}$$

(7)

$$\chi = \frac{C_c(D_{ve}) D_{mob}}{C_c(D_{mob}) D_{ve}}$$

(8)

In this study, the shell-to-core ratio (S/C) of the rBC-containing particles was calculated as follows,

$$S/C = \frac{D_{ve}}{D_{mev,BC}} \text{ or } \frac{D_{mob}}{D_{mev,BC}}$$

(9)

2.3.1 Effective density

In this study, effective density (ρ_{eff}) of a particle was derived on the basis of the common definition (shown in equation (10)), where the mass of a particle was divided by its volume, the latter of which was calculated using measured D_{mob} presuming the particle was spherical.

$$\rho_{eff} = \frac{6m}{\pi D_{mob}^3}$$

(10)



247 Here, the mass of the particle was obtained according to the AAC measurement, where the
248 relaxation time of a particle (τ) equals the mass of the particle (m) multiplied by its mobility
249 (B), as shown in equation (11).

$$250 \quad \tau = B * m$$
$$251 \quad (11)$$

252 where B and m were calculated according to equations (12) and (13)

$$253 \quad B = \frac{C_c(D_{\text{mob}})}{3 \pi \mu D_{\text{mob}}}$$
$$254 \quad (12)$$

$$255 \quad \tau = \frac{C_c(D_{\text{ae}}) \rho_0 D_{\text{ae}}^2}{18 \mu}$$
$$256 \quad (13)$$

257 Since the D_{mob} was directly measured, ρ_{eff} depends on both the size and shape of the particle.
258 It was for non-spherical particles that the external physical morphology of the particles played
259 a key role in determining ρ_{eff} , not internal voids in the particle.

260 **3. Result and discussion**

261 **3.1 Laboratory test of the tandem system**

262 The reliability of the tandem system was verified using both PSL and Aquadag particles. We
263 first used an AAC to choose monodispersed PSL particles with $D_{\text{ae}} = 210, 315$ and 415 nm,
264 and their corresponding mobility size distributions were scanned by a SMPS. We found that
265 the mobility size distributions of all three tested particles show a perfect Gaussian distribution
266 with mode D_{mob} values of $197.8, 304.1$ and 396.9 nm. Effective density of the PSL particles
267 was determined by the AAC-DMA system at $1.08\text{--}1.12$ g/cm³, approximately 3–6% higher
268 than material density (1.05 g/cm³), as shown in Figure 2. Our result was consistent with the
269 experiment using DOS (Bis-2-ethylhexyl sebacate) aerosol by (Irwin et al., 2018). For
270 Aquadag particles, To avoid fragmentation of Aquadag particle clusters at dramatic motion in
271 the high-speed rotating cylinder of the AAC, a DMA-AAC tandem experiment was tested. We
272 found that the peak values of the size distribution of D_{ae} were $159.7, 195.5, 232.2, 258.7, 289.4$
273 and 437.8 nm for the particles with $D_{\text{mob}} = 200, 250, 300, 350, 400$ and 602 nm, respectively.
274 Their effective densities were calculated to be $0.724, 0.691, 0.669, 0.615, 0.587$ and 0.572



275 g/cm^3 , respectively, in good consistency with the calibration results via mass-mobility methods
276 (mass of the particle was measured by an aerosol particle mass analyzer or centrifugal particle
277 mass analyzer), as shown in SF.1.

278 3.2 Temporal variations in size distribution

279 Measurement of the mixing state of the rBC-containing particles using the AAC-DMA-SP2
280 tandem system was performed from November 27 to December 3 and from December 10 to
281 14, 2018. Figure 3 depicts the temporal variation in the size distribution of D_{mob} for particles
282 with $D_{\text{ac}} = 400$ nm, a corresponding D_{mev} of rBC particles, mass concentrations of inorganic
283 and organic compositions in PM_{10} , and dynamic shape factor (χ). The size distribution of
284 particles showed a dominant peak at $D_{\text{mob}} = 291.6$ nm and two small peaks at $D_{\text{mob}} = 193.3$ nm
285 and $D_{\text{mob}} = 150$ nm, as shown in Figure 3a and SF.2. The two small peaks were related to
286 negligible doubly and triply charged particles that only accounted for 1.3% of the total particles.
287 The first peak was attributed to the particle of interest. We can see in Figure 3a and 3e that
288 D_{mob} varied from 250 nm to 350 nm, with a small size (291 ± 8 nm) during heavy pollution
289 (mass concentration of $\text{PM}_{2.5} > 150 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) and clean periods ($\text{PM}_{2.5} < 35 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) and a
290 relatively larger size (316 ± 15 nm) during the moderate pollution period ($75 < \text{PM}_{2.5} < 150$
291 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$).

292 The size distribution of D_{mev} of the rBC particles as a function of time is shown in Figure 3b
293 and 3f. In general, D_{mev} of the rBC particles was 142.8 ± 46.4 nm on average with a large
294 variability between 100 and 200 nm. During the moderate pollution period, D_{mev} of the rBC
295 particles was obviously larger than that during the heavy pollution period. Multiple Gaussian
296 fitting of the size distribution of D_{mev} of the rBC particles during the whole observational period
297 had two peaks at $D_{\text{mev}} = 106.5$ and $D_{\text{mev}} = 146.3$ nm (Figure 4). As expected, the particles
298 during the heavy pollution period had a smaller rBC core because the high concentration of
299 non-rBC matter (sulfate, nitrate, organic carbon, etc.) gave the nascent rBC particles more
300 chance to grow rapidly to larger sizes via both coagulation and condensation processes.
301 Nevertheless, during the moderate pollution period aggregation of rBC particles might play a
302 vital role in growth of rBC clusters, which resulted in larger rBC cores in rBC-containing
303 particles. Figure 3c and 3g show the mass concentrations of chemical composition measured
304 by a high-resolution time-of-flight aerosol mass spectrometer (HR-ToF-AMS). As shown,
305 small D_{mev} of the rBC particles was always accompanied by a high concentration of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$, in
306 particular nitrate. However, D_{mev} of rBC particles was scattered in a larger size range when



307 organic matter was dominant. It is suggested that water-soluble inorganic matter plays a key
308 role in forming a small, compact rBC core.

309 **3.3 Dynamic shape factor**

310 During the observation period, the χ values varied between 1.0 and 1.2, as shown in Figure 3d
311 and 3h. A previous study (Hinds, 1999) pointed out that the χ value for flow in the continuum
312 regime was found to be ~ 1.08 for cubic particles, ~ 1.12 for a 2-sphere cluster, and ~ 1.17 for a
313 compact 4-sphere cluster. Zhang et al. (2016) reported a higher χ value of 1.4–2.0 for In-BC
314 cores with $D_{\text{mob}} = 150\text{--}200$ nm during summer at a suburban site in the Beijing megacity. As
315 a matter of fact, fresher rBC-containing particles normally had a larger χ value because of
316 irregularity of the rBC core. Laboratory calibration in this study indicated that Aquadag aerosol
317 had χ values between 1.35 and 1.96 for a D_{mob} between 200 and 602 nm. For the ambient
318 particles with $D_{\text{ac}} = 400$ nm, we found that the χ value had an obviously negative correlation
319 with the mass ratio of inorganic compounds (sum of sulfate, nitrate and ammonium) to organic
320 matter ($MR_{\text{inorg-to-org}}$). During the pollution period, the χ value was found to be 1.01 ± 0.01 on
321 average, with a $MR_{\text{inorg-to-org}}$ of 1.7 ± 0.8 , reflecting that the particles were mostly spherical in
322 shape. However, the χ value increased up to 1.09 ± 0.03 on average, with a $MR_{\text{inorg-to-org}}$ of 0.8
323 ± 0.6 , during the clean and moderate pollution periods. Meanwhile, we noticed that relative
324 humidity during the pollution period was apparently higher than that during the other periods.
325 This result implied that the mass fraction of inorganic matter and its hydrophilic processes
326 played an important role in forming spherical particles. Diurnal variation in χ values generally
327 showed a moderate night-high and day-low pattern (Figure 5). The more irregular particles at
328 night were mostly due to high atmospheric loading of primary particles and their coagulation
329 processes (Riemer et al., 2004; Chen et al., 2017). Furthermore, transport of heavy-duty diesel
330 vehicles in the city area also contributed a large amount of irregular soot particles. At noon,
331 the decreases in χ value was mainly related to photochemical processes on the surface of
332 particles, as suggested in (Moffet and Prather, 2009).

333 **3.4 Mixing characteristic of rBC-containing particles**

334 Temporal variation in the S/C ratio of rBC-containing particles calculated on the basis of both
335 D_{mob} (marked as $S/C_{D_{\text{mob}}}$) and D_{ve} (marked as $S/C_{D_{\text{ve}}}$) are shown in Figure 6a and 6c. We can
336 see that measured $S/C_{D_{\text{mob}}}$ was consistent with derived $S/C_{D_{\text{ve}}}$ during the heavy pollution period
337 with a mean value of 2.7 ± 0.3 (SF. 3). Since D_{ve} is defined as the diameter of a particle that is



338 melted to form a droplet while preserving any internal voids (Decarlo et al., 2004), it was
339 always smaller than D_{mob} for irregular particles and the same as that for spherical particles. In
340 this study, the good consistency between D_{mob} and D_{ve} during the heavy pollution period
341 indicated that the particles with $D_{\text{ac}} = 400$ nm were mostly spherical, and a high S/C ratio
342 implied that most of the rBC particles were capsulated by host matter and were in a core-shell
343 configuration as a whole. During the moderate pollution and clean periods, $S/C_{D_{\text{ve}}}$ was $2.2 \pm$
344 0.6 on average, $\sim 10\%$ smaller than $S/C_{D_{\text{mob}}}$. This result implied that the particles were irregular,
345 consistent with the analysis of χ .

346 The distribution of the Δt values of the rBC-containing particles during the observation period
347 is shown in Figure 6b and 6d. We found that the mode Δt value was constant at ~ 2.6 μs with a
348 relatively larger variability during the clean period, consistent with the multiple Gaussian
349 fitting of the histogram of Δt values (SF.4). As mentioned in Figure 4, D_{mev} of the rBC core
350 during the moderate pollution period was 37% larger than that during the heavy pollution
351 period; however, they had the same Δt value, which indicated that the solo delay time-based
352 analysis might overestimate the coating thickness of rBC-containing particles, though many
353 studies have reported large difference in Δt values for rBC measured at urban pollution
354 (Subramanian et al., 2010; Moteki et al., 2007; Zhang et al., 2018), biomass burning plumes
355 (Pan et al., 2017) and remote marine regions (Taketani et al., 2016). For instance, Moteki and
356 Kondo (2007) found that Δt values of rBC-containing particles from urban areas increased
357 evidently with their aging time, and they classified the thinly coated and thickly coated rBC-
358 containing particles with an experimental threshold Δt value of ~ 2 μs . Some other studies
359 (Zhang et al., 2018) used a threshold value of 1.6 μs . In some circumstance, there was no
360 distinguished Δt dividing point, which made the classification obscure. For example, a biomass
361 burning experiment (Pan et al., 2017) showed that freshly emitted rBC-containing particles
362 only had one dominant peak, and an S/C ratio of 1.34 corresponded to a higher Δt value of ~ 3.2
363 μs . As a matter of fact, the Δt value of rBC-containing particles had no linear relationship with
364 coating thickness and depended on a variety of factors, such as material composition,
365 morphology, voidage, structure of rBC monomers, and compactness of the particle. Laboratory
366 experiments with a glycerol-coated graphite particle showed that the Δt value had a jumping
367 increase from ~ 1 μs to ~ 4 μs as the S/C ratio increased to 2, and it decreased gradually with a
368 further increase in the S/C ratio. The jumping time and magnitude depended on the size of the
369 graphite core (Moteki and Kondo, 2007). Bambha and Michelsen (2015) pointed out that the
370 aggregate size and morphology of rBC had a strong influence on the competition between



371 conductive cooling and absorption heating, which finally affected incandescent and scattering
372 signals and the corresponding Δt value. In this study, we speculated that the irregularity of the
373 particles resulted in a much later occurrence of the incandescent peak (or larger Δt value), albeit
374 their rBC core was larger.

375 **3.5 Influence of rBC on the χ value**

376 The dependence of the χ value as a function of the S/C ratio for rBC-containing particles is
377 shown in Figure 7. A decreasing tendency of the χ value with an increase in the S/C ratio was
378 observed. A power function fitting indicated an S/C ratio of ~ 3 was a threshold point for rBC-
379 containing particles with $D_{ac} = 400$ nm. When the S/C ratio was less than 2, the irregularity of
380 rBC-containing particles increased significantly, whereas the particles tended to be spherical
381 when the S/C ratio was larger than 3. Note that a thick coating did not mean that the rBC core
382 was compact and situated in the center of the host matter because the D_{mob} and D_{mev} in this
383 study were measured by different instruments. Our result was generally consistent with a
384 laboratory experiment (Xue et al., 2009), which showed that the χ value of fresh soot was 2.2–
385 4.7. The authors also pointed out that coating of the soot aggregates with organic acid decreased
386 χ because external voids as a result of irregularities were filled by condensed matter. Field
387 observation in Beijing (Zhang et al., 2016) on the χ of rBC cores showed a similar decreasing
388 tendency, and mixing of non-refractory matter evidently reduced the irregularity of the rBC
389 core. Liu et al. (2017) found that the rBC-containing particle could be treated as an internally
390 mixed sphere when its M_R was larger than 3. In this study, M_R of the rBC-containing particle
391 was estimated to be ~ 6.4 ; however, variation in the χ value indicated that the rBC particles
392 during the moderate pollution period were not spherical, although the rBC core might have
393 been fully encapsulated by the coating matter. Therefore, a Mie-theory simulation based on a
394 perfect shell-core structure might also result in large uncertainty. Dependence of the χ value
395 of rBC-containing particles on its number fraction in total particles ($N_{F,rBC}$) detected by SP2
396 (SF. 5) indicated that the χ value of rBC particles increased exponentially with their number
397 fraction, implying that the majority of fresh rBC particles were irregular in shape, particularly
398 during moderate pollution conditions when the mass fraction of the rBC particles in PM_{10} was
399 normally higher than 10%.

400 **3.6 Effective density**



401 Effective density (ρ_{eff}) of irregular particles was calculated based on equation (10). In this study,
402 ρ_{eff} values of particles with $D_{\text{ae}} = 400$ nm were found to be 1.71 ± 0.05 g/cm³ during the heavy
403 pollution period, apparently higher than that (1.56 ± 0.15 g/cm³) during the moderate pollution
404 period when a substantial amount of irregular particles existed. Our results were generally
405 consistent with mass-mobility-based measurements (~ 1.5 g/cm³) in polluted urban
406 environments (Qiao et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2016), but obviously higher than those in the
407 experiments on nascent particles emitted from gasoline engines (Momenimovahed and Olfert,
408 2015) and diesel engines (Rissler et al., 2013), fresh soot particles from a propane-fuel burner
409 (Zhang et al., 2008; Xue et al., 2009; Tavakoli and Olfert, 2014), and field observations in a
410 near-traffic urban environment in Denmark (Rissler et al., 2014). A brief summary of the
411 literature is shown in Table 1. In general, ρ_{eff} of particles decreases with increasing D_{mob} and
412 irregularity of the particles. Take nascent particles from vehicle engines for example, the ρ_{eff}
413 value was reported to be less than 1.0 g/cm³, and it could decrease to as low as 0.4 g/cm³ when
414 D_{mob} is larger than 300 nm. Fractional dimension (D_f , describing the sphericity of a particles)
415 was inherently relevant to ρ_{eff} of a particle, and they were reported to be 2, 2.17 and 3 for a
416 plane, typical soot particles and a sphere ball, respectively. Laboratory experiments (Zhang et
417 al., 2008) demonstrated that a particle with a smaller D_f value tended to have a faster decreasing
418 tendency of ρ_{eff} because of its irregularity. Note that irregular nascent soot particles would
419 shrink to compact particles once they were exposed to low concentrations of sulfuric acid and
420 a water environment. Consequently, ρ_{eff} of rBC-containing particles might increase as
421 atmospheric aging processes. As a matter of fact, soot agglomerate with a larger D_{mob}
422 experienced a greater degree of collapse due to the uptake effect in the polluted environment,
423 whereas the smaller soot particles acquired a larger sticky chemical mass fraction to cause
424 restructuring.

425 In a traffic-dominant environment, ρ_{eff} of ambient particles determined based on the mass-
426 mobility method as a function of D_{mob} showed a similar trend with the laboratory studies of
427 diesel-engine exhaust emission (Rissler et al., 2013). In this study, ρ_{eff} of particles with $D_{\text{ae}} =$
428 400 nm decreased obviously with increasing NF_{rBC} . According to linear fitting (SF. 6), ρ_{eff} of
429 the rBC-containing particles with a C/S ratio = 2.7 was estimated to be ~ 1.48 g/cm³, similar to
430 the observation (1.24 – 1.46 g/cm³) for the particles with a volatile mass fraction larger than 80%
431 (defined as dense particle in the reference) and much higher than that (0.3 – 0.4 g/cm³) for
432 traffic-related fresh soot aggregates. It is suggested that the rBC particles in the urban site of



433 Beijing megacity might be coated rapidly owing to high atmospheric loading of chemical
434 compositions such as sulfate, nitrate and semivolatile organics.

435 **4. Discussion and atmospheric implication**

436 Quantification climate effect of rBC-containing particles has large uncertainty due to their
437 extremely complex morphology and coexisting chemical compositions. In an urban
438 environment, intensive emission of rBC particles was due to anthropogenic activities, such as
439 transport of on-road vehicles, house cooking, and waste incineration. The characteristics of the
440 mixing state of rBC-containing particles was reported to be distinguished differently region by
441 region. For instance, rBC particles observed in a developed metropolis were reported to present
442 as aggregation monomers, which had loose fractal structures, that were easily classified as
443 nascent. In Beijing, we found that rBC particles always had thick coatings mostly owing to
444 rapid mixing with high concentrations of other chemical compositions. (Peng et al., 2016)
445 pointed out the rBC aging exhibited two distinct stages with an initial destruction of rBC
446 particles from a fractal to spherical morphology and subsequent growth process at which a fully
447 compact core-shell configuration was formed, and even the time scale of such a transformation
448 was fast (less than ~ 4.6 hours). From the viewpoint of this study, we suggested that these two
449 processes would happen simultaneously, and rBC-containing particles with $D_{\text{mev}} = 100\text{--}150$
450 nm were irregular in shape, even though the rBC core was thickly coated or encapsulated by
451 the host composition. Spherical rBC-containing particles would be a true case only when high
452 mass concentration of water soluble matter and high relative humidity conditions were fulfilled,
453 and interaction with water vapor on the surface of rBC-containing particles would ultimately
454 change the irregularity, as archived in both observations (Zhang et al., 2008) and modeling
455 studies (Fan et al., 2016).

456 A proper parameterization for the mixing state of rBC-containing particles was essential for
457 evaluating its optical properties. In this study, we found that the overall morphology of rBC-
458 containing particles was still irregular even when the S/C ratio was high. Herein, the
459 morphologies of rBC-containing particles were constructed and integrated by a novel aggregate
460 model and their random-orientation scattering cross-sections of particles were simulated on the
461 basis of a superposition T-matrix method by solving Maxwell's equations numerically. Three
462 sensitive simulations were conducted. (I) Freshly emitted rBC particles were treated as a
463 branched agglomerate with hundreds of small spherical primary particles. (II) Thinly coated
464 rBC particles were simulated by the aggregation of core-shell monomers (Wu et al., 2014). (III)



465 Thickly coated rBC particles were in a core-shell configuration with an aggregated rBC core
466 heavily coated by large non-rBC particles, and all rBC monomers were inside of the non-rBC
467 particle (Cheng et al., 2014). D_f were applied for indicating the compactness of fractal
468 aggregated BC particles. In the simulations, the values of D_f were varied from 2 to 3 with a
469 fractal prefactor of 1.2, corresponding to the rBC aggregates with loose to compact structures.
470 The mean diameters of rBC monomers were assumed to be $0.04 \mu\text{m}$, and monomer numbers
471 of the individual aggregates were obtained by volume-equivalent diameter of pure rBC
472 components. The results showed that the variability in optical properties of thinly coated rBC
473 particles (I) were more significant than that of simulations of II and III, up to $\sim 60\%$ (mass
474 scattering cross-section, MSC) and $\sim 30\%$ (for mass absorption cross-section, MAC), especially
475 for the cases with small D_f . When the fractal aggregated rBC particles are heavily coated with
476 non-rBC particles, these diversities were weakened with $\sim 10\%$ variability for MAC. These
477 variations were mainly dependent on the growing contributions of non-rBC components and
478 the more compact morphologies of rBC aggregates. It is suggested to include the complex
479 particle morphology in the optical simulations of rBC-containing aerosols.

480 Recently, Liu et al. (2017) indicated that the ratio of the observed scattering cross-section of
481 rBC-containing particles to that of the Mie-theory simulation based on the simplified core-shell
482 model ($S_{\text{meas}}/S_{\text{model}}$) decreased evidently as M_R increased, and $S_{\text{meas}}/S_{\text{model}}$ tended to be ~ 1 when
483 M_R was larger than ~ 3 . The maximum discrepancy occurred at $1 < M_R < 2$, indicating that
484 mixing state of rBC-containing particles was more complicated at the initial timing of the
485 coating stage. Wu et al. (2018) pointed out that the simulation errors were mainly caused by
486 morphological simplification of the rBC-containing particles, although dramatic
487 morphological alteration and destruction of the rBC core occurred (China et al., 2013; Adachi
488 et al., 2010). This study provided direct evidence that the rBC-containing particles might also
489 be irregular in shape even when $M_R > 6$. This study also indicated that delay time analysis of
490 rBC-containing particles would result in large uncertainties in estimating the coating thickness
491 of particles in urban environments because of the more fractal structure of rBC aggregates.
492 Sedlacek et al. (2012) found rBC-containing particles in one biomass burning plume with a
493 clear negative Δt value; however, such a phenomenon was not observed in the laboratory
494 experiment (Pan et al., 2017). More observation studies on the size-selected rBC-containing
495 particles from open burning of biomass with different aging scales were suggested to better
496 manifest its mixing characteristics.



497 Mass concentrations of PM_{2.5} in both China (Ma et al., 2016) and western Japan (Wang et al.,
498 2017; Uno et al., 2017) were reported to be gradually decreasing recently due to a decrease in
499 SO₂ emission (Wang et al., 2018b). Nevertheless, urban air pollution in China was still serious
500 as a result of intensive anthropogenic activities such as on-road vehicle emission, which
501 included not only rBC particles but also semivolatile organics. As suggested in this study, the
502 nascent rBC particles would experience rapid transformation and reconstruction and
503 simultaneous coating processes. Therefore, measurement-constrained optical modeling of rBC
504 particles from both anthropogenic sources (i.e., transport, open biomass burning) and natural
505 sources (i.e., wild fire) would be helpful in better evaluating their metrological feedbacks and
506 regional environmental effects. In the urban environment, irregular rBC-containing particles
507 normally have very large specific surface areas, and heterogeneous reactions on the surface
508 could influence NO_x chemistry (Monge et al., 2010) and further atmospheric oxidants (Guan
509 et al., 2017). Therefore, a joint control on both vehicle ownership and quality of oil products
510 could benefit the campaign against urban pollution.

511 **5. Conclusions**

512 In this study, mixing characteristics and dynamic shape factor of rBC-containing particles with
513 known aerodynamic sizes was investigated at a typical urban site in Beijing megacity using a
514 tandem measuring system consisting of an aerodynamic aerosol classifier (AAC), a differential
515 mobility analyzer (DMA) and a single particle soot photometer (SP2) in winter of 2018. Mass-
516 equivalent size distribution of rBC particles (D_{mev}), delay time (Δt), shell-core ratio (S/C) and
517 its dependence on dynamic shape factor (χ), as well as effective density (ρ_{eff}), were analyzed.
518 We found that in the urban environment, the D_{mev} distribution for the rBC-containing particles
519 with an aerodynamic diameter of 400 ± 0.5 nm had two peaks with a dominant mode value at
520 $D_{\text{mev}} = 146.3$ nm and a small peak at $D_{\text{mev}} = 106.5$ nm, and rBC-containing particles during
521 heavy pollution conditions had a smaller rBC core, implying that the rBC particles easily
522 gained coatings as a result of coagulation and condensation processes with other matter. D_{mob}
523 of particles had an obvious variation ranging from 250.6 nm (heavy pollution period) to 320
524 nm (moderate pollution period). During the clean period, the χ value of the rBC-containing
525 particles were estimated to be ~ 1.2 , suggesting that the particles were in an irregular structure
526 that was related to the high fraction of fractal rBC particles. During heavy pollution episodes,
527 the χ value of the particles was ~ 1.0 , indicating that the majority of particles tended to be
528 spherical, and a shell-core model could be reasonable to estimate its light enhancement effect.
529 Although the χ value varied obviously, the S/C ratio of rBC-containing particles during the



530 whole observation period had a mean value of 2.7 ± 0.3 , indicating the thickly coated rBC
531 particles might also have irregular shapes. Therefore, a spherical shell-core model may also
532 introduce bias for optical simulation. In addition, delay time analysis of the peaks of
533 incandescence and scattering signals showed a stale Δt value of $\sim 2.6 \mu\text{s}$, almost irrespective of
534 the shape of the particles due to conductive cooling of external voids, etc. Optical properties of
535 irregular rBC-containing particles were simulated on the basis of a novel aggregate model and
536 a superposition T-matrix method, which indicated that light absorption enhancement of
537 particles differed significantly if morphology of rBC-containing particles was considered.
538 Therefore, an appropriate description of the physical properties of rBC-containing particles
539 such as shape factor was crucially important in evaluating the climate effect.

540 **Data availability.** To request SP2 and SMPS data for scientific research purposes, please
541 contact Dr. Xiaole Pan at the Institute of Atmospheric Physics, Chinese Academy of Sciences,
542 via email (panxiaole@mail.iap.ac.cn)

543 **Competing interests.** The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

544 **Author contribution.** X. P., H. L. and Z. W. designed and conducted the experiment. Y.W.
545 and Y. T. and T. C. performed the model simulation on the optical property of aerosols. Y. S.
546 and C. X conducted observation on chemical compositions of submicron particles using
547 AMS.

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Tables

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Table 1 Brief summary of effective density measurement in previous studies.

Aerosol type	Measurement system	Particle size, D_m (nm)	Effective density (g/cm ³)	Description	Reference
Ambient particles	DMA+APM	50-350	1.25-1.50	Two peaks were found of effective density distribution. The data was effective density of the second peak.	(Rissler et al., 2014)
	DMA+CPMA	50-350	1.43-1.55	The measurement was conducted in Beijing in summer.	(Qiao et al., 2014)
Soot	DMA+APM	100-300	0.82-0.30	Vehicle exhaust	(Rissler et al., 2013)
	DMA+APM	100-300	0.41-0.18	Flame generated soot	(Momenimovahed et al., 2015)
	DMA+CPMA	50-250	0.77-0.38	Vehicle exhaust	(Frazan et al., 2014)
	DMA+AAC	95-637	0.18-0.86	Generated from an inverted burner	(Momenimovahed et al., 2015)
BC core	DMA+CPMA	50-250	0.68-0.36	Denuded vehicle exhaust	(Zhang et al., 2016)
	DMA+SP2	150-200	0.9-0.5	Denuded ambient rBC	(Xue et al., 2009)
	DMA+APM	150-200	0.4-0.2	Denuded laboratory soot	

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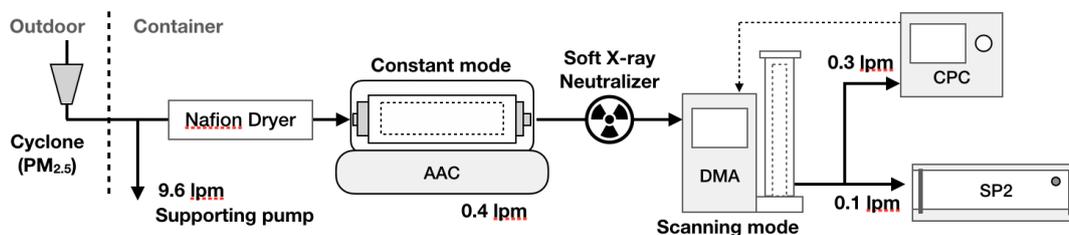


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Figures

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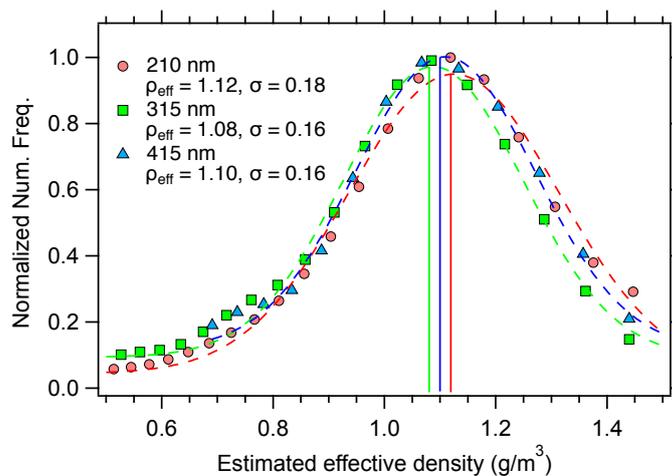


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775 Figure 1 Illustration of the experimental setup of the AAC-DMA-SP2 system.

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779 Figure 2 Estimated effective density of PSL particles on the basis of the AAC-DMA tandem
780 system.

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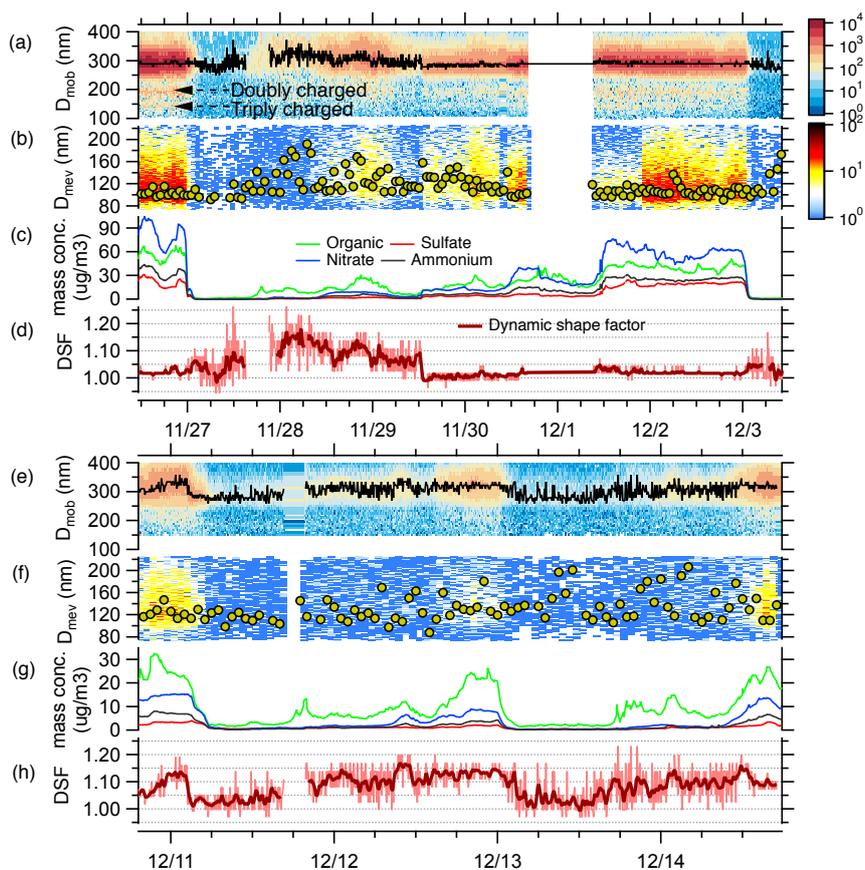
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789 Figure 3 Temporal variations in distribution of D_{mob} (a, e), D_{mev} (b, f), mass concentrations of
790 water soluble composition measured by AMS (c, g), and derived dynamic shape factor (d, h)

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during the observation periods



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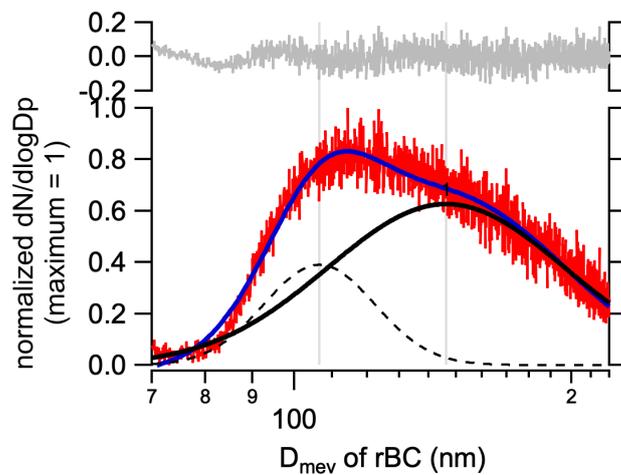
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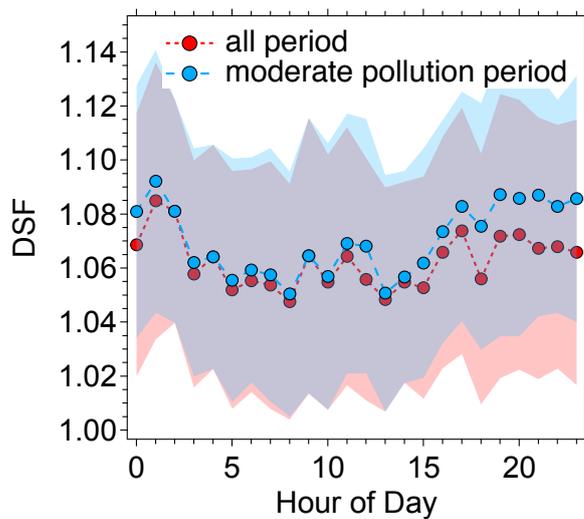
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800 Figure 4 Normalized size distribution of D_{mev} of rBC particles and multi-Gaussian fitting

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results.

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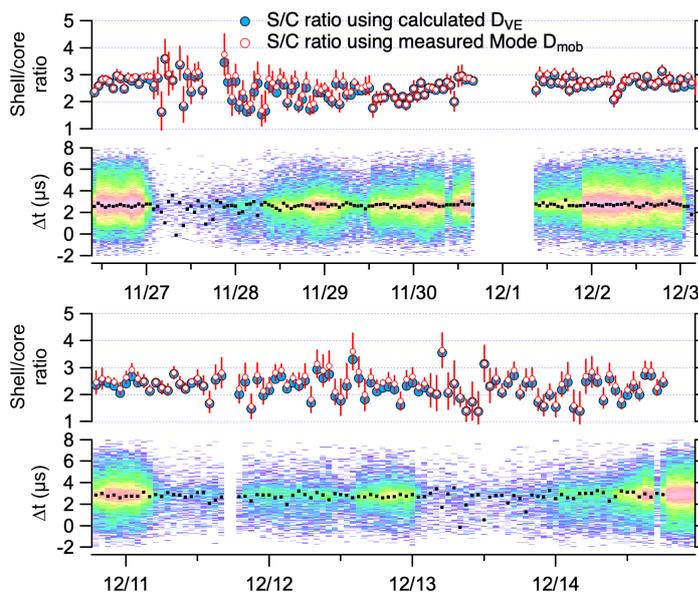
804 Figure 5 Diurnal variation in dynamic shape factor (χ) during the whole observation period
805 and moderate pollution period ($35 < \text{PM}_{2.5} < 75 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)

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811 Figure 6 Temporal variations in shell/core ratio of rBC-containing particles calculated by
812 both measured mode D_{mob} and derived D_{ve} and delay time distribution as a function of time.

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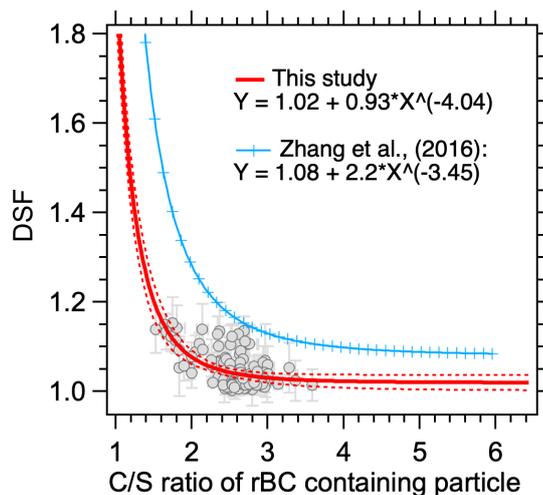


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823 Figure 7 Dependence of χ value as a function of S/C ratio of rBC-containing particles during
824 the observation period. Blue line with cross marks is the power function fitting result in the
825 literature (Zhang et al., 2016). Red dotted lines are the upper and lower limits at a confidence
826 interval of 90%.

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