

On mineral dust aerosol hygroscopicity

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Abstract

Despite its importance, hygroscopicity of mineral dust aerosol remains highly uncertain. In this work, we investigated water adsorption and hygroscopicity of different mineral dust samples at 25 °C, via measurement of sample mass at different relative humidity (RH, up to 90%) using a **vapor sorption analyzer**. Mineral dust samples examined (21 in total) included seven authentic mineral dust samples from different regions in the world and fourteen major minerals contained in mineral dust aerosol. At 90% RH, the mass ratios of adsorbed water to the dry mineral ranged from 0.0011 to 0.3080, largely depending on the BET surface areas of mineral dust samples. The **fractional** surface coverages of adsorbed water were determined to vary between 1.26 and 8.63 at 90% RH, and it was found that the Frenkel-Halsey-Hill (FHH) adsorption isotherm could well describe surface coverages of adsorbed water as a function of RH, with A_{FHH} and B_{FHH} parameters in the range of 0.15-4.39 and 1.10-1.91, respectively. The comprehensive and robust data obtained would largely improve our knowledge of hygroscopicity of mineral dust aerosol.

40 **1 Introduction**

41 Mineral dust aerosol mainly comes from arid and semi-arid areas (Ginoux et al., 2012),
42 such as Saharan desert, Taklimakan desert, and etc. Its annual flux and atmospheric loadings are
43 estimated to be $\sim 2000 \text{ Tg yr}^{-1}$ and $\sim 19.2 \text{ Tg}$ (Textor et al., 2006; Huneus et al., 2011), making
44 mineral dust one of the most important aerosols in the troposphere. Mineral dust aerosol has
45 significant impacts on atmospheric chemistry, climate and biogeochemical cycles (Knippertz and
46 Stuut, 2014). It can alter the radiative forcing of the earth both directly (Balkanski et al., 2007;
47 Huang et al., 2014; Di Biagio et al., 2017) and indirectly (Cziczo et al., 2013; Karydis et al., 2017).
48 Mineral dust can also change the abundance of reactive trace gases as well as aerosol compositions
49 via heterogeneous reactions (Usher et al., 2003; Dupart et al., 2012; He et al., 2014; Tang et al.,
50 2017; Yu and Jang, 2019). Furthermore, the deposition of mineral dust will bring substantial
51 amounts of nutrients (e.g., Fe and P) into some marine and terrestrial ecosystems, thereby largely
52 affecting biogeochemistry in these regions (Jickells et al., 2005; Okin et al., 2011; Schulz et al.,
53 2012; Li et al., 2017; Tagliabue et al., 2017; Meskhidze et al., 2019).

54 Hygroscopicity largely determines the impacts of mineral dust aerosol on atmospheric
55 chemistry and climate. For examples, many studies found that relative humidity (RH) and thus the
56 amount of water associated with mineral dust have profound effects on the rates, mechanisms and
57 products of heterogeneous reactions (Vlasenko et al., 2009; Rubasinghege and Grassian, 2013;
58 Tang et al., 2014; Tang et al., 2017; Lasne et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2018; Yu and Jang, 2018;
59 Mitroo et al., 2019). In addition, hygroscopicity of mineral dust aerosol plays important roles in
60 its optical properties (and thus the direct radiative effect) and its ability to act as cloud condensation
61 nuclei and ice-nucleating particles (and thus the indirect radiative effect) (Sorjamaa and Laaksonen,
62 2007; Kumar et al., 2009; Garimella et al., 2014; Kreidenweis and Asa-Awuku, 2014; Laaksonen

63 et al., 2016; Tang et al., 2016; Tang et al., 2019a). Therefore, a number of previous studies have
64 investigated water adsorption and hygroscopic properties of mineral dust aerosol at <100% RH,
65 as reviewed by Tang et al. (2016). However, different studies displayed considerable discrepancies
66 as large as a few orders of magnitude (Tang et al., 2016), thus precluding a good understanding of
67 the roles mineral dust aerosol plays in atmospheric chemistry and climate.

68 As pointed out by Tang et al. (2016), such discrepancies are largely due to the non-
69 sphericity and low hygroscopicity of mineral dust particles, making it difficult to quantify the
70 amount of water associated with them at elevated RH. Instruments which measure mobility or
71 optical diameters of aerosol particles often found that the diameters of mineral dust particles did
72 not increase significantly (or even showed considerable decrease due to particle restructuring
73 during humidification) with increasing RH (Gustafsson et al., 2005; Vlasenko et al., 2005; Herich
74 et al., 2009; Koehler et al., 2009; Attwood and Greenslade, 2011). Fourier transform infrared
75 spectroscopy (FTIR) is a sensitive method to detect adsorbed water on mineral dust (Goodman et
76 al., 2001; Ma et al., 2010a; Joshi et al., 2017); however, it is not a trivial task to convert the intensity
77 of its infrared absorption to the amount of adsorbed water (Schuttlefield et al., 2007b; Ma et al.,
78 2010b; Tang et al., 2016). Quartz crystal microbalance (QCM) is another sensitive technique to
79 examine water adsorption and absorption (Schuttlefield et al., 2007b; Navea et al., 2010; Yeşilbaş
80 and Boily, 2016); however, it is in doubt that the underlying assumptions required to convert the
81 change in resonance frequency of the quartz crystal to the change in sample mass are always
82 fulfilled (Tang et al., 2016; Tang et al., 2019a).

83 In our previous work (Gu et al., 2017), we developed a new method to investigate
84 hygroscopic properties of atmospherically relevant particles using a vapor sorption analyzer,
85 which utilized a very sensitive balance to measure the mass of a sample (typically with a dry mass

86 of tenths or a few mg) as different RH under isotherm conditions. Comprehensive validation
87 carried out confirmed the robustness of this method (Gu et al., 2017), and this instrument has been
88 employed to study hygroscopic properties of various particles, including nonspherical particles
89 such as saline mineral dust and pollen grains (Chen et al., 2019; Tang et al., 2019b; Tang et al.,
90 2019c). This instrument was used in the present work to quantitatively investigate hygroscopic
91 properties of a number of mineral dust particles, including several authentic mineral dust samples
92 from different regions in the world and individual minerals commonly found in mineral dust
93 aerosol. We also attempted to figure out which theoretical models could describe hygroscopic
94 properties of mineral dust particles, and examined the dependence of mineral dust hygroscopicity
95 on several parameters (such as particle diameter, surface area and the mass fraction of soluble
96 materials).

97 **2 Experimental section**

98 **2.1 Sample information**

99 In total 21 different types of mineral dust were investigated, including fourteen major
100 minerals commonly found in mineral dust aerosol (Formenti et al., 2011; Nickovic et al., 2012;
101 Journet et al., 2014; Scanza et al., 2015; Engelbrecht et al., 2016) and seven authentic mineral dust
102 samples, and their information can be found in Table 1. The fourteen major minerals examined
103 included four oxides (SiO_2 , TiO_2 , magnetite and hematite), one oxyhydroxide (goethite), three
104 feldspars (potassium feldspar, albite and microcline), two carbonates (CaCO_3 and dolomite) and
105 four clay minerals (montmorillonite, illite, kaolinite and chlorite). As shown in Table 1, SiO_2 ,
106 montmorillonite and kaolinite were supplied by Sigma Aldrich; TiO_2 (P25) was supplied by
107 Degussa; hematite and magnetite were supplied by Strem; goethite was provided by Santa Cruz;
108 microcline, CaCO_3 and dolomite were provided by Alfa Aesar. Potassium feldspar and albite were

109 obtained from National Research Center of Testing Techniques for Building Materials
 110 (NRCTTBM, Beijing, China), and illite (IMt-1) was obtained from the Clay Mineral Society at
 111 Purdue University, Indianan, USA (Schuttlefield et al., 2007b; Tang et al., 2014). In addition,
 112 chlorite was collected by one co-author from Liaoning Province, China.

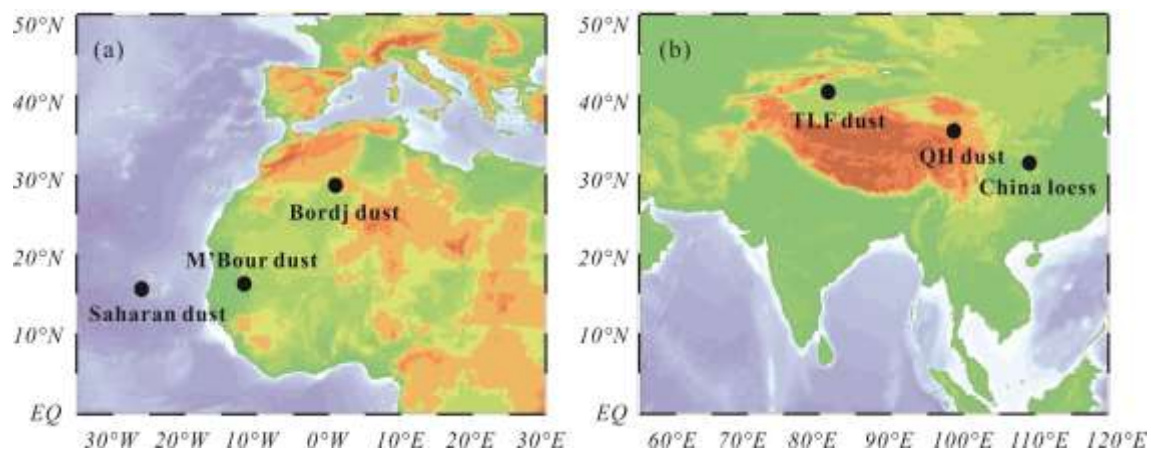
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114 **Table 1.** Measured BET surface areas (BET), average particle diameters (d_p) and sources of
 115 mineral dust samples examined in this work.

sample	BET (m ² /g)	d_p (μm)	source
SiO ₂	6.54±0.01	1.65 ±0.30	Sigma Aldrich
TiO ₂	54.60±0.01	1.66 ±0.31	Degussa
hematite	9.23±0.17	0.80 ±0.13	Strem
goethite	13.41±0.01	1.00 ±0.21	Santa Cruz
magnetite	6.34±0.04	1.70 ±0.33	Strem
potassium feldspar	3.96±0.01	8.25 ±1.57	NRCTTBM
albite	3.62±0.02	5.51 ±1.05	NRCTTBM
microcline	2.17±0.01	14.33 ±1.87	Alfa Aesar
CaCO ₃	2.18±0.01	3.12 ±0.56	Alfa Aesar
dolomite	11.79±0.05	7.41 ±1.42	Alfa Aesar
illite	24.04±0.14	20.23 ±2.42	The Clay Minerals Society
kaolinite	9.64±0.01	9.99 ±1.45	Sigma Aldrich
montmorillonite	249.91±0.42	23.95 ±2.49	Sigma Aldrich
chlorite	9.95±0.03	19.19 ±2.27	Liaoning, China
ATD	36.67±1.06	1.05 ±0.20	Powder Technology Inc.
China loess	11.71±0.02	2.44 ±0.42	Chinese Academy of Geological Science
QH dust	8.79±0.02	18.56 ±2.38	Chinese Academy of Geological Science
TLF dust	8.49±0.01	8.04 ±1.46	Turpan, Xinjiang, China
Bordj dust	16.40±1.20	32.30 ±3.06	Bordj, Senegal
M'Bour dust	14.50±1.00	54.41 ±5.99	M'Bour, Algeria
Saharan dust	51.46±0.34	23.70 ±2.59	Cape Verde

116

117 The seven authentic mineral dust samples were obtained from Africa, Asia and North
118 America. As shown in Figure 1, three authentic mineral dust samples (M'Bour dust, Bordj dust
119 and Saharan dust) were collected from topsoil in Senegal, Algeria and Cape Verde Islands (Tang
120 et al., 2012; Joshi et al., 2017), respectively. QH dust (which is brown desert soil) and China loess,
121 collected from topsoil in Qinghai and Shaanxi, were supplied by Chinese Academy of Geological
122 Science as certificated materials (GBW07448 and GBW07454) (Tang et al., 2019c). TLF dust
123 were airborne dust particles collected on 23 April 2010 at an urban site in Turpan (Xinjiang, China)
124 during a major dust storm. In addition, Arizona Test Dust (ATD, nominal 0-3 μm fraction), an
125 authentic mineral dust sample commercially available from Powder Technology Inc. (Minnesota,
126 USA) and widely used in atmospheric aerosol research (Vlasenko et al., 2005; Sullivan et al.,
127 2010a; Tang et al., 2016), was also investigated in our work.



128
129 **Figure 1.** Locations where (a) African and (b) Asian authentic mineral dust samples examined in
130 this work were collected.

131
132 When received, three feldspars, dolomite, illite, chlorite and TLF dust contained significant
133 amounts of rock chips or giant particles; as a result, they were pretreated using the procedure
134 described in our previous work (Tang et al., 2019c). In brief, these samples were dried at 120 °C

135 for 24 hours using an oven; after that, they were ground manually and then using a ball mill so that
136 most particles were $<74 \mu\text{m}$ in diameter; finally, these samples were dried again at $120 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ for 24
137 hours and then cooled down. All the samples were stored in plastic bottles which were tightly
138 sealed to prevent contamination by lab air.

139 **2.2 Sample characterization**

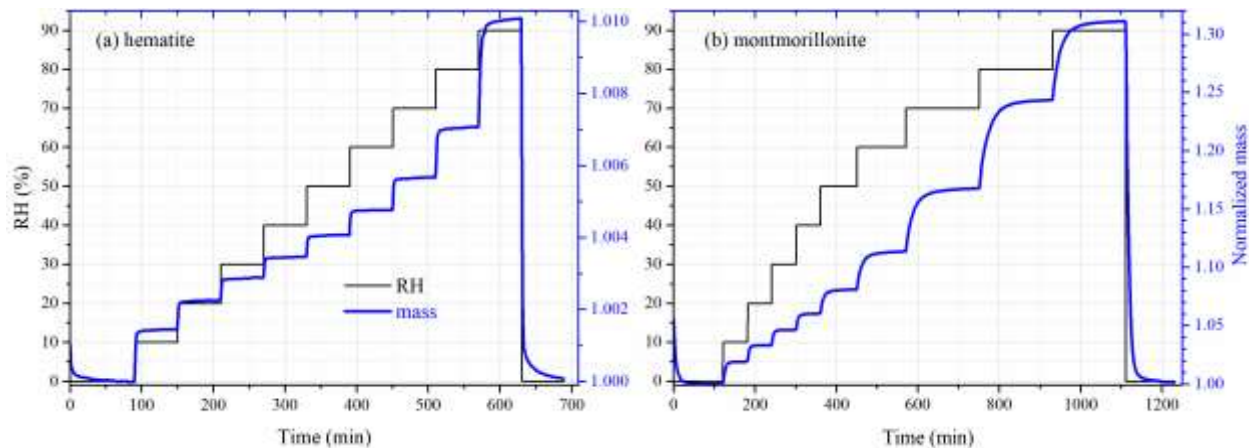
140 Dynamic light scattering (JL-1177, Jingxin Powder Technologies Inc., Chengdu, Sichuan,
141 China) was employed to measure size distributions of mineral dust samples examined in our work.
142 In addition, Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) surface areas of these samples were determined using
143 an accelerated surface area and porosimetry analyzer (ASAP 2020 PLUS, Micromeritics, Georgia,
144 USA), and N_2 was used as the adsorbate. Details on particle size and BET surface area
145 measurements can be found elsewhere (Li et al., 2020).

146 To measure their inorganic soluble compositions, each mineral dust sample ($\sim 10 \text{ mg}$) was
147 mixed with 10 mL ultrapure deionized water, and the mixture was stirred for 2 hours using an
148 oscillating table. After centrifugalization, the solution was filtered using a 5 mL syringe fitted with
149 a $0.2 \mu\text{m}$ PTFE membrane syringe and then analyzed using ion chromatography (Metrohm model
150 761 Compact IC, Metrohm, Herisau, Switzerland). More information on ion chromatography
151 analysis can be found in our previous work (Tang et al., 2019c). We attempted to measure five
152 cations (Na^+ , K^+ , NH_4^+ , Mg^{2+} and Ca^{2+}) and seven anions (NO_3^- , SO_4^{2-} , Cl^- , NO_2^- , Br^- , F^- and
153 PO_4^{3-}), and their detection limits were estimated to be around 0.02 mg/L .

154 **2.3 Hygroscopicity measurements**

155 Hygroscopic properties of mineral dust samples were investigated using a vapor sorption
156 analyzer (Q5000SA, TA instruments, Delaware, USA). This instrument, described in our previous
157 work (Gu et al., 2017; Chen et al., 2019; Tang et al., 2019b), measured sample mass as a function

158 of RH under isotherm conditions. Measurements could be conducted in the RH range of 0-98%
159 and in the temperature range of 5-85 °C. We routinely measured the deliquescence RH of NaCl,
160 (NH₄)₂SO₄ and KCl at 25 °C, and the measured values differed from the actual values by <1% RH.
161 The sample mass could be measured with an accuracy of ±0.1 µg, and the uncertainties for
162 temperature and RH were ±0.1 °C and ±1%.



163
164 **Figure 2.** RH (black curve, left y-axis) and mass of mineral dust (normalized to that at <1% RH,
165 blue curve, right y-axis) as a function of experimental time: (a) hematite; (b) montmorillonite.

166
167 In this work, the initial masses of mineral dust samples used typically ranged from 5 to 15
168 mg. As displayed in Figure 2, the sample under investigation was first dried at <1% RH; after that,
169 RH was increased in a stepwise manner to 90%, and at each step RH was increased by 10%; at
170 last, the sample was dried again at <1% RH. At each step we changed the RH only after the samples
171 mass became stable (in other words, only after an equilibrium was reached between gaseous and
172 particulate water), and the sample mass was considered to be stable when the mass change was
173 <0.05% in 30 min. In some experiments the sample was considered to reach the equilibrium only
174 when the mass change was <0.05% in 60 min, and no significant difference in results was found
175 for the two equilibrium criterions. All the experiments were carried out in triplicate at 25 °C.

176 **3 Results**

177 **3.1 Sample characteristics**

178 As shown in Table 1, the BET surface areas were found to vary between $2.17 \pm 0.01 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$
179 (microcline) and $249.91 \pm 0.42 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$ (montmorillonite), spanning over two orders of magnitude.
180 Except for montmorillonite, the BET surface areas were in the range of a few to tens of m^2/g . In
181 addition, the average particle diameters (d_p) were determined to range from $0.80 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$ (hematite) to
182 $54.41 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$ (M'Bour dust), and their size distributions can be found in Figures S1-S7.

183 Tables S1-S2 show mass fractions of water soluble inorganic ions for the 21 mineral dust
184 samples considered in this study. Na^+ , K^+ , Ca^{2+} , Mg^{2+} , F^- , Cl^- and SO_4^{2-} were detected in most of
185 the samples, while NH_4^+ was above its detection limit only for two samples. The total mass
186 fractions of all the soluble inorganic ions were found to be quite low, ranging from 0.16 mg/g for
187 SiO_2 and 12.55 mg/g for Bordj dust.

188 **3.2 Water uptake by different mineral dust**

189 As described in Section 2.3, sample mass of mineral dust was measured at different RH in
190 our work; therefore, the mass ratio of adsorbed water to the dry mineral, m_w/m_0 , could then be
191 determined as a function of RH. Furthermore, m_w/m_0 could be converted to **fractional** surface
192 coverage (**abbreviated as surface coverage**) of adsorbed water (θ), using Eq. (1) (Tang et al., 2016):

$$193 \quad \theta = \frac{m_w}{m_0} \cdot \frac{N_A \cdot A_w}{M_w \cdot A_{\text{BET}}} \quad (1),$$

194 where N_A is Avogadro constant ($6.02 \times 10^{23} \text{ mol}^{-1}$), M_w is the molar mass of water (18 g mol^{-1}), A_w
195 is the surface area each adsorbed water molecule would occupy (assumed to be $1 \times 10^{-15} \text{ cm}^2$)
196 (Schuttlefield et al., 2007a; Hatch et al., 2014; Tang et al., 2016), and A_{BET} is the BET surface (in
197 $\text{cm}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$) of the mineral dust under consideration. Tables 2-5 summarize m_w/m_0 and θ as a function
198 of RH for all the mineral dust examined in our work. Please note that our previous work (Tang et

199 al., 2019c) discussed water uptake by China loess and QH dust, and these results are included here
 200 to compare with the other nineteen mineral dust samples.

201

202 **Table 2.** Mass ratios of adsorbed water to the dry mineral (m_w/m_0) and surface coverages of
 203 adsorbed water (θ) as a function of RH (%) for SiO₂, TiO₂, magnetite, hematite, goethite and
 204 potassium feldspar.

RH	SiO ₂		TiO ₂		hematite	
	m_w/m_0 ($\times 10^{-3}$)	θ	m_w/m_0 ($\times 10^{-3}$)	θ	m_w/m_0 ($\times 10^{-3}$)	θ
10	0.5±0.1	0.25±0.02	3.1±1.1	0.19±0.07	1.4±0.1	0.52±0.02
20	0.8±0.1	0.40±0.05	5.4±1.2	0.33±0.07	2.2±0.1	0.81±0.03
30	1.1±0.1	0.55±0.05	7.2±1.2	0.44±0.07	2.9±0.1	1.03±0.04
40	1.4±0.1	0.70±0.05	8.9±1.2	0.54±0.07	3.4±0.2	1.24±0.06
50	1.7±0.1	0.86±0.06	10.8±1.2	0.66±0.08	4.0±0.2	1.46±0.07
60	2.0±0.1	1.04±0.07	13.5±1.3	0.82±0.08	4.7±0.2	1.72±0.07
70	2.6±0.2	1.32±0.09	16.8±1.3	1.03±0.08	5.7±0.2	2.06±0.07
80	3.5±0.3	1.81±0.14	21.8±1.3	1.34±0.08	7.1±0.2	2.56±0.07
90	5.8±0.7	2.95±0.35	35.5±1.3	2.17±0.08	10.1±0.2	3.68±0.08
RH	goethite		magnetite		potassium feldspar	
	m_w/m_0 ($\times 10^{-3}$)	θ	m_w/m_0 ($\times 10^{-3}$)	θ	m_w/m_0 ($\times 10^{-3}$)	θ
10	1.3±0.1	0.33±0.02	0.5±0.1	0.27±0.01	0.6±0.1	0.54±0.01
20	2.2±0.2	0.55±0.04	0.7±0.1	0.39±0.07	1.0±0.1	0.84±0.01
30	2.9±0.2	0.73±0.06	1.0±0.1	0.52±0.08	1.5±0.3	1.24±0.25
40	3.7±0.5	0.92±0.12	1.2±0.1	0.64±0.07	1.7±0.3	1.46±0.25
50	4.4±0.5	1.10±0.12	1.5±0.1	0.77±0.07	2.0±0.3	1.70±0.24
60	5.2±0.5	1.30±0.12	1.8±0.1	0.93±0.07	2.3±0.2	1.92±0.17
70	6.1±0.4	1.53±0.11	2.2±0.1	1.15±0.07	2.7±0.2	2.25±0.17
80	7.5±0.4	1.88±0.10	2.9±0.1	1.55±0.04	3.5±0.2	2.92±0.19
90	12.4±0.4	3.09±0.11	5.2±0.3	2.72±0.16	5.6±0.3	4.73±0.21

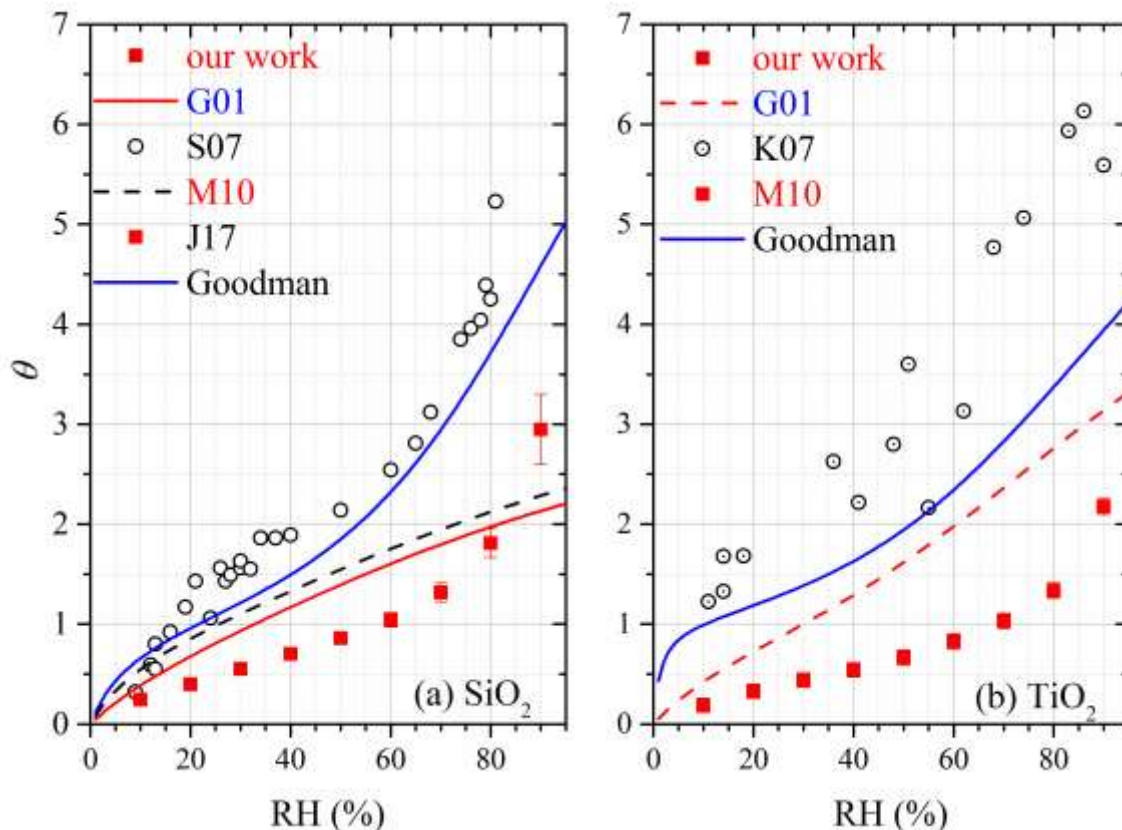
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207 Below we discuss hygroscopicity of mineral dust investigated, and compare our measured
208 m_w/m_0 and θ with those reported in previous work. As our work directly measured mass change of
209 mineral dust due to water uptake, we prefer to compare m_w/m_0 when such values were also reported
210 in previous studies; otherwise, we then choose to compare θ . As aerosol-based measurements are
211 usually not sensitive enough and also need the particle sphericity assumption (Tang et al., 2016),
212 we do not compare our results with those measurements.

213 **3.2.1 SiO₂ and TiO₂**

214 In our work m_w/m_0 was determined to be 0.0011, 0.0020 and 0.0058 for SiO₂ at 30%, 60%
215 and 90% RH, corresponding to θ of 0.55, 1.04 and 2.95, respectively. Figure 3a compares our work
216 with previous studies in which FTIR (Goodman et al., 2001; Ma et al., 2010a; Joshi et al., 2017)
217 and QCM (Schuttlefield et al., 2007a; Yeşilbaş and Boily, 2016) were used to measure water
218 uptake by SiO₂. At a given RH, θ values reported by the four previous studies (Goodman et al.,
219 2001; Schuttlefield et al., 2007a; Ma et al., 2010a; Joshi et al., 2017) were generally larger when
220 compared to our work, and the difference usually did not exceed a factor of three. Furthermore,
221 the differences between our work and the four previous studies became smaller at higher RH. For
222 example, at 80% RH our measured θ was very close to those reported by Ma et al. (2010a) and
223 Joshi et al. (2017), and at 90% RH our measured θ was 20-30% larger than those reported by the
224 two studies (Ma et al., 2010a; Joshi et al., 2017). Yeşilbaş and Boily (2016) employed a QCM to
225 investigate water adsorption on quartz (0.3-14 μm), and θ was determined to be ~ 2300 at $\sim 70\%$
226 RH, almost three orders of magnitude larger than these reported in our work and other previous
227 studies (Goodman et al., 2001; Schuttlefield et al., 2007a; Ma et al., 2010a; Joshi et al., 2017);
228 therefore, the results reported by Yeşilbaş and Boily (2016) are not displayed in Figure 3a.



229
 230 **Figure 3.** Comparison of surface coverages of adsorbed water (θ) measured in our work with those
 231 reported in previous studies for (a) SiO_2 and (b) TiO_2 . G01: Goodman et al. (2001); S07:
 232 Schuttlefield et al., 2007a; M10: Ma et al., 2010a; J17: Joshi et al., 2017; K07: Ketteler et al., 2007.

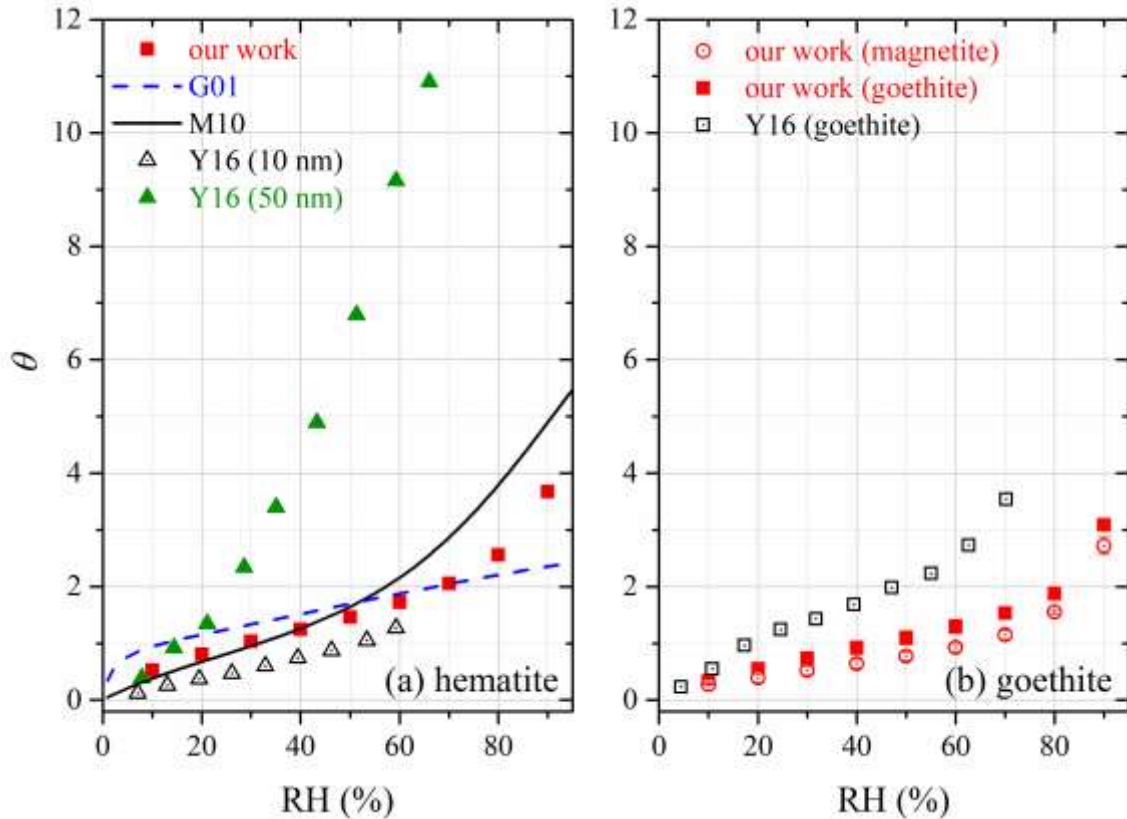
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 234 For TiO_2 , m_w/m_0 was determined to be 0.0072, 0.0135 and 0.0355 at 30%, 60% and 90%
 235 RH, corresponding to θ of 0.44, 0.82 and 2.17, respectively. Water adsorption on P25 TiO_2 was
 236 studied previously using FTIR (Goodman et al., 2001; Ma et al., 2010a), and another study
 237 (Ketteler et al., 2007) employed atmospheric pressure X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy to explore
 238 interactions of water vapor with the rutile single crystal surface (110). As shown in Figure 3b,
 239 when compared with our work, θ values reported by Ma et al. (2010a) were higher across the entire
 240 RH range, and the relative differences between our work and Ma et al. (2010a) were around a
 241 factor of two or smaller. The relative differences between our work and the other two studies

242 (Goodman et al., 2001; Ketteler et al., 2007) were larger, being a factor of ~5 at lower RH and
243 becoming smaller at higher RH.

244 **3.2.2 Hematite, goethite and magnetite**

245 At 30%, 60% and 90% RH, m_w/m_0 was measured to be 0.0029, 0.0047 and 0.0101 for
246 hematite, corresponding to θ of 1.03, 1.72 and 3.68. Water adsorption on hematite was studied
247 previously using FTIR (Goodman et al., 2001; Ma et al., 2010a) and QCM (Yeşilbaş and Boily,
248 2016). Figure 4a reveals that our results agreed reasonably well with those reported by Goodman
249 et al. (2001) and Ma et al. (2010a), and the relative differences were found to be within a factor of
250 two. In addition, our results agreed fairly well with those reported for 10 nm hematite by Yeşilbaş
251 and Boily (2016), but were significantly smaller than their results for 50 nm hematite. Yeşilbaş
252 and Boily (2016) also studied water adsorption on 4 and 5 μm hematite particles, and θ were
253 reported to be ~300 at ~70% RH, almost two orders of magnitude larger than our results; therefore,
254 their measured θ for 4 and 5 μm hematite are not shown in Figure 4a.

255 In our work, m_w/m_0 was measured to be 0.0029, 0.0052 and 0.0124 at 30%, 60% and 90%
256 RH for goethite, corresponding to θ of 0.73, 1.30 and 3.09. Yeşilbaş and Boily (2016) employed
257 QCM to study water adsorption on goethite, and their measured θ are plotted in Figure 4b to
258 compare ours. When compared to our work, on average θ values measured by Yeşilbaş and Boily
259 (2016) were a factor of ~2 larger. We also investigated water adsorption on magnetite, and the
260 results can be found in Figure 4b. Compared to goethite, θ values were generally 20-30% smaller
261 for magnetite. As far as we know, water adsorption on magnetite was not quantitatively
262 investigated before.



263

264 **Figure 4.** Comparison of surface coverages of adsorbed water (θ) measured in our work with those
 265 reported in previous studies for (a) hematite and (b) goethite (θ measured in our work for magnetite
 266 are also plotted). G01: Goodman et al. (2001); M10: Ma et al., 2010a; Y16, Yeşilbaş and Boily,
 267 2016.

268

269 3.2.3 Feldspars

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Tables 2-3 show that the mass ratios of adsorbed water to the dry mineral were determined to be 0.0056, 0.0060 and 0.0048 at 90% RH for potassium feldspar, albite and microcline, respectively; correspondingly, θ were found to be 4.73, 5.53 and 7.37. QCM was used by Yeşilbaş and Boily (2016) to study water uptake onto microcline, and θ was measured to be ~ 300 at $\sim 70\%$ RH, about two orders of magnitude larger than our measurement. We are not aware of other previous studies which investigated water adsorption on feldspars in a quantitative manner.

276

277 **Table 3.** Mass ratios of adsorbed water to the dry mineral (m_w/m_0) and surface coverages of
 278 adsorbed water (θ) as a function of RH (%) for albite, microcline, CaCO₃, dolomite, illite and
 279 kaolinite.

RH	albite		microcline		CaCO ₃	
	m_w/m_0 ($\times 10^{-3}$)	θ	m_w/m_0 ($\times 10^{-3}$)	θ	m_w/m_0 ($\times 10^{-3}$)	θ
10	0.7±0.2	0.67±0.20	0.3±0.1	0.51±0.10	0.1±0.1	0.10±0.07
20	1.1±0.2	1.00±0.19	0.5±0.1	0.81±0.14	0.2±0.2	0.27±0.24
30	1.3±0.1	1.19±0.04	0.7±0.1	1.06±0.19	0.2±0.2	0.38±0.28
40	1.6±0.1	1.45±0.04	0.8±0.2	1.28±0.26	0.2±0.1	0.33±0.17
50	1.9±0.1	1.74±0.04	1.0±0.2	1.57±0.29	0.3±0.1	0.41±0.22
60	2.3±0.1	2.10±0.03	1.4±0.2	2.11±0.30	0.4±0.2	0.63±0.31
70	2.8±0.1	2.63±0.05	1.9±0.1	2.96±0.22	0.5±0.2	0.79±0.34
80	3.8±0.1	3.50±0.06	2.8±0.2	4.40±0.33	0.7±0.3	1.02±0.39
90	6.0±0.1	5.53±0.06	4.8±0.6	7.37±0.98	1.1±0.5	1.73±0.79
RH	dolomite		illite		kaolinite	
	m_w/m_0 ($\times 10^{-3}$)	θ	m_w/m_0 ($\times 10^{-3}$)	θ	m_w/m_0 ($\times 10^{-3}$)	θ
10	0.4±0.1	0.13±0.02	5.0±0.1	0.69±0.01	1.4±0.3	0.48±0.10
20	0.7±0.1	0.21±0.02	8.3±0.1	1.15±0.01	2.4±0.4	0.83±0.14
30	0.9±0.1	0.26±0.04	11.0±0.1	1.53±0.01	3.2±0.5	1.12±0.17
40	1.1±0.2	0.31±0.05	13.5±0.2	1.88±0.03	4.0±0.6	1.38±0.20
50	1.3±0.2	0.36±0.06	15.7±0.2	2.18±0.03	4.7±0.7	1.63±0.23
60	1.5±0.2	0.42±0.06	18.1±0.5	2.52±0.07	5.6±0.8	1.95±0.27
70	1.8±0.3	0.51±0.08	21.0±0.7	2.93±0.09	7.0±0.9	2.43±0.32
80	2.5±0.5	0.70±0.15	25.3±0.7	3.52±0.10	9.3±1.0	3.22±0.36
90	4.5±0.5	1.26±0.14	33.3±0.7	4.63±0.10	14.6±1.1	5.08±0.39

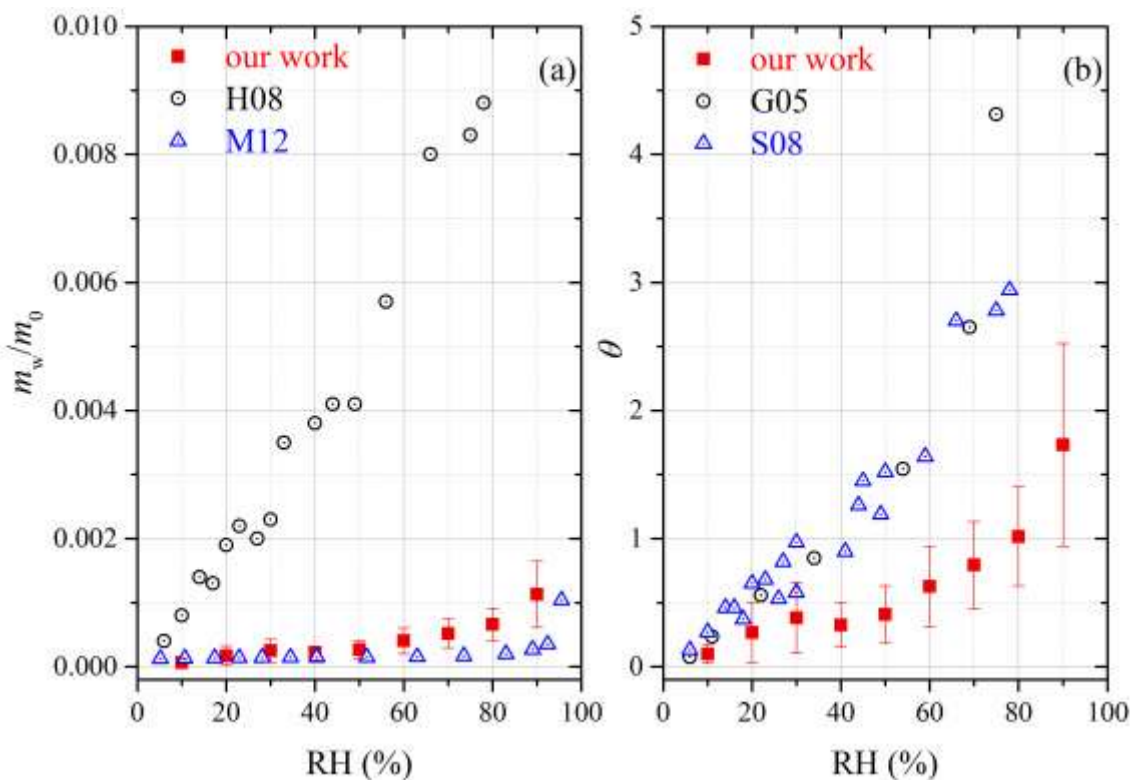
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281

282 **3.2.4 Carbonates**

283 The mass ratio of adsorbed water to the dry mineral, m_w/m_0 , was measured in our work to
284 be 0.0011 at 90% RH for CaCO_3 , giving a θ value of 1.73. Water adsorption on CaCO_3 was
285 investigated previously, using thermogravimetric analysis (Gustafsson et al., 2005), physisorption
286 analysis (Ma et al., 2012a) and QCM (Hatch et al., 2008; Schuttlefield, 2008; Yeşilbaş and Boily,
287 2016). Hatch et al. (2008) and Ma et al. (2008) reported m_w/m_0 as a function of RH. Figure 5a
288 shows that when compared to our work, m_w/m_0 values determined by Hatch et al. (2008) were
289 significantly larger (by a factor of 10 or more), whereas the results reported by Ma et al. (2012)
290 were only smaller by a factor of ~ 2 . We further compare our measured θ with those reported by
291 another two studies (Gustafsson et al., 2005; Schuttlefield, 2008). As shown in Figure 5b, the
292 results reported by Gustafsson et al. (2005) and Schuttlefield (2008) were found to be larger than
293 ours, by a factor of 2-3. In addition, θ was measured to be >100 at $\sim 70\%$ RH for CaCO_3 (Yeşilbaş
294 and Boily, 2016), approximately two orders of magnitude larger than our work.

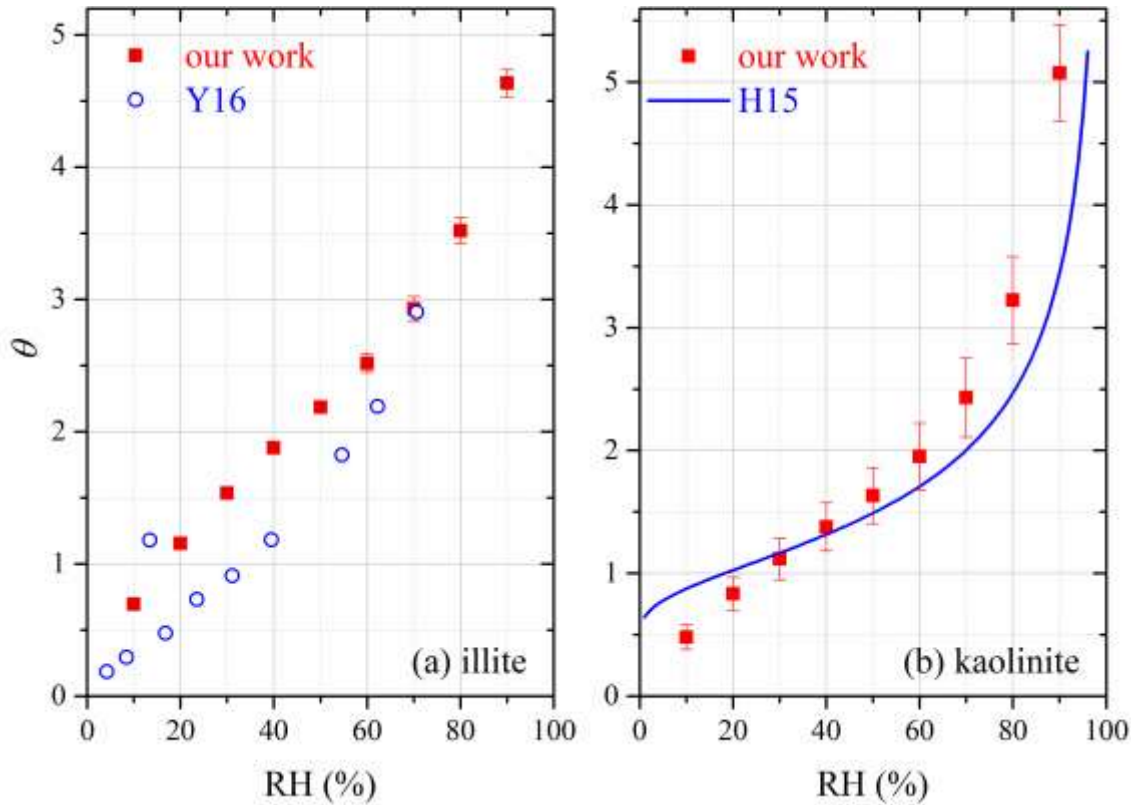
295 As shown in Table 3, our work suggested that around 1.26 monolayers of adsorbed water
296 was formed on dolomite at 90% RH, similar to that for CaCO_3 . To our knowledge, water
297 adsorption on dolomite has not been quantitatively explored by previous work.



298
 299 **Figure 5.** Comparison of water adsorption on CaCO₃ examined in different studies: (a) mass ratios
 300 of adsorbed water to the dry mineral (m_w/m_0); (b) surface coverages of adsorbed water (θ). G05,
 301 Gustafsson et al. (2005); H08, Hatch et al. (2008); S08, Schuttlefield (2008); M12, Ma et al. (2012).

302
 303 **3.2.5 Clay minerals**

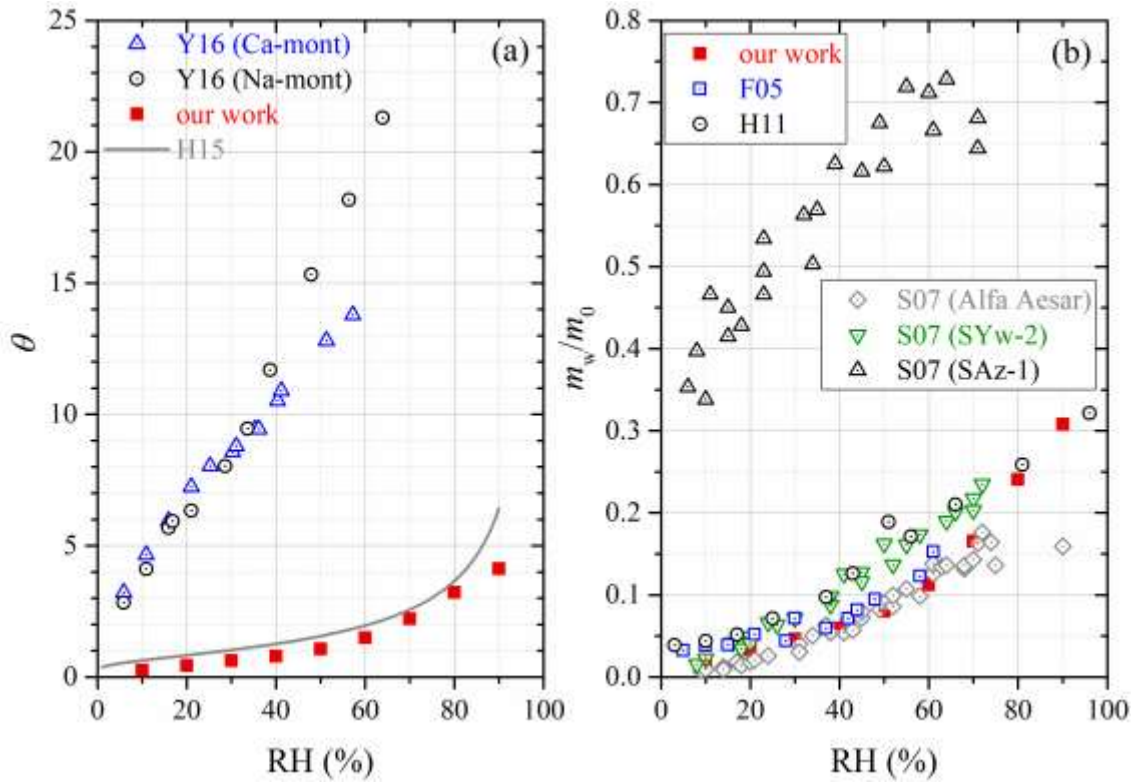
304 For illite, m_w/m_0 and θ were determined to be 0.0333 and 4.63 at 90% RH in our study
 305 (Table 3). QCM was employed to study water adsorption on illite, and m_w/m_0 was reported to be
 306 0.28 at ~90% RH (Hatch et al., 2011) and ~0.27 at 75% RH (Schuttlefield et al., 2007b), around
 307 one order of magnitude larger than our results. A recent study (Yeşilbaş and Boily, 2016) also
 308 investigated water uptake onto illite using QCM, and their reported θ are compared with our results
 309 in Figure 6a. The relative differences between our and their (Yeşilbaş and Boily, 2016) work were
 310 usually smaller than a factor of two, and became even smaller at higher RH.



311
 312 **Figure 6.** Comparison of surface coverages of adsorbed water (θ) measured by different studies
 313 for (a) illite and (b) kaolinite. H15, Hung et al. (2015); Y16, Yeşilbaş and Boily (2016).

314
 315 For kaolinite, m_w/m_0 and θ were determined in our work to 0.0093 and 3.22 at 80% RH and
 316 0.0146 and 5.08 at 90% RH, respectively. A few previous studies investigated water adsorption on
 317 kaolinite using QCM (Schuttlefield et al., 2007b; Hatch et al., 2011; Yeşilbaş and Boily, 2016)
 318 and physisorption analysis (Hung et al., 2015). Comparison with our measured θ with those
 319 reported by Hung et al. (2015) is displayed in Figure 6b for kaolinite, suggesting that the two
 320 studies were in good agreement, and the relative differences were usually within 30%. At ~80%
 321 RH, m_w/m_0 were determined to be ~0.03 for kaolinite provided by Alfa and ~0.1 for kaolinite
 322 (KGa-1b) obtained from Clay Mineral Society (Schuttlefield et al., 2007b), around three and ten
 323 times larger than our work. In the work by Hatch et al. (2011), m_w/m_0 was determined to be ~0.1

324 at ~80% RH for kaolinite (KGa-1b), about one order of magnitude larger than our result. Yeşilbaş
 325 and Boily (2016) examined water adsorption on two different kaolinite samples (kaolinite provided
 326 by Fluka and KGa-1), and θ were found to be up to 100 at ~70% RH, being >30 times larger than
 327 our work.



328
 329 **Figure 7.** Comparison of water adsorption on montmorillonite examined in different studies: (a)
 330 surface coverages of adsorbed water (θ); (b) the mass ratio of adsorbed water to the dry mineral
 331 (m_w/m_0). F05, Frinak et al. (2005); S07, Schuttlefield et al. (2007); H11, Hatch et al. (2011); H15,
 332 Hung et al. (2015); Y16, Yeşilbaş and Boily (2016).

333
 334 We also studied water adsorption on montmorillonite, and m_w/m_0 and θ were measured to
 335 be 0.308 and 4.12 at 90% RH. Physisorption analysis (Hung et al., 2015) and QCM (Yeşilbaş and
 336 Boily, 2016) were utilized to investigate water uptake onto montmorillonite. As shown in Figure

337 7a, our work agreed well with Hung et al. (2015), and the results obtained by Yeşilbaş and Boily
338 (2016) for Ca- and Na-montmorillonite were much larger (by a factor of >10), when compared
339 with our work. Figure 7b compares our measured m_w/m_0 with those reported in previous studies in
340 which FTIR (Frinak et al., 2005) and QCM (Schuttlefield et al., 2007b; Hatch et al., 2011) were
341 used. In general good agreement between our work and the three previous studies were found,
342 except for SAz-1 montmorillonite (Schuttlefield et al., 2007b) obtained from Clay Mineral Society.
343 One possible explanation for the observed discrepancy is that montmorillonite samples from
344 different sources may have different hygroscopic properties. We note that prior to 2005, a few
345 studies (Hall and Astill, 1989; Cases et al., 1992; Xu et al., 2000; Zent et al., 2001) also investigated
346 water uptake by montmorillonite, and it was found that these studies agreed well with Frinak et al.
347 (2005); therefore, the four studies conducted before 2005 should also be consistent with our work.

348 In addition, water uptake by chlorite was explored in our work. As shown in Table 4, m_w/m_0
349 and θ were measured to be 0.012 and 4.03 at 90% RH. To our knowledge, hygroscopic properties
350 of chlorite have not been examined before.

351

352 **Table 4.** Mass ratio of adsorbed water to the dry mineral (m_w/m_0) and surface coverages of
353 adsorbed water (θ) as a function of RH (%) for montmorillonite, chlorite, ATD, M’Bour dust,
354 Bordj dust and Saharan dust.

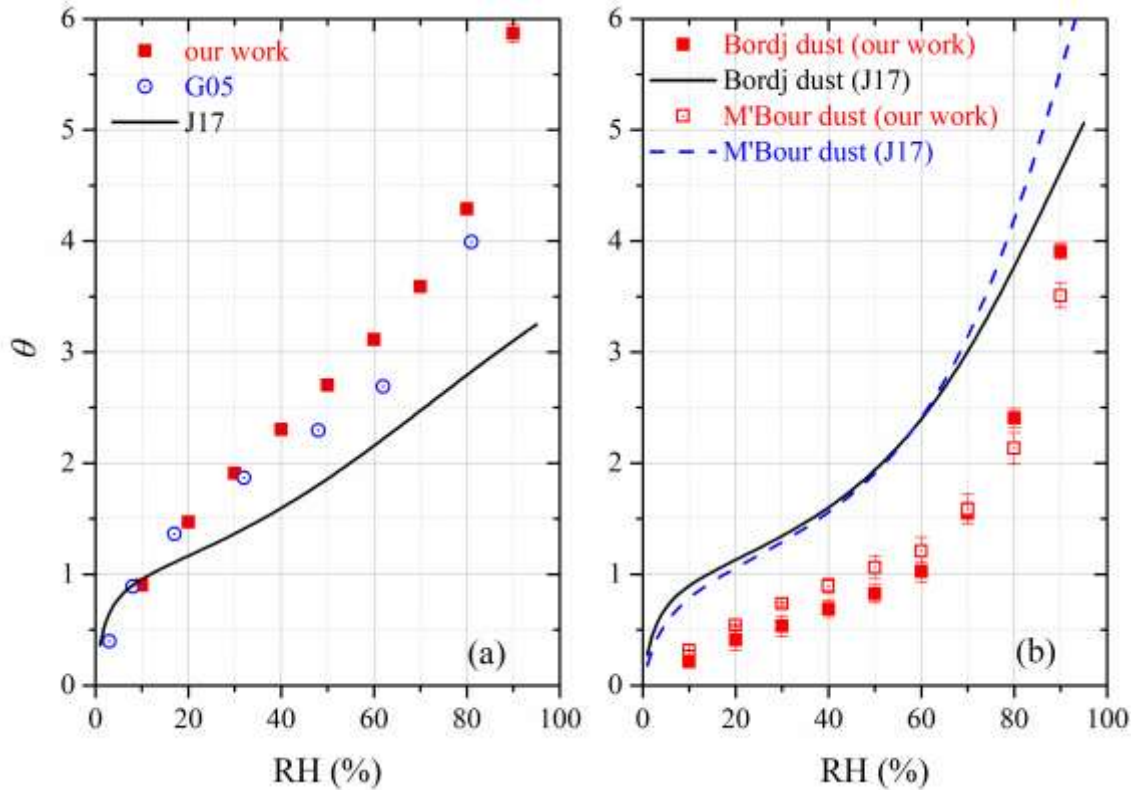
RH	montmorillonite		chlorite		ATD	
	$m_w/m_0 (\times 10^{-3})$	θ	$m_w/m_0 (\times 10^{-3})$	θ	$m_w/m_0 (\times 10^{-3})$	θ
10	19.2±0.2	0.26±0.01	1.3±0.1	0.42±0.02	9.9±0.1	0.90±0.01
20	33.3±0.3	0.45±0.01	2.1±0.1	0.70±0.03	16.1±0.2	1.47±0.02
30	46.3±0.4	0.62±0.01	2.8±0.1	0.94±0.04	20.9±0.1	1.91±0.01
40	59.7±0.8	0.80±0.01	3.4±0.1	1.14±0.04	25.3±0.1	2.31±0.01
50	80.2±0.9	1.07±0.01	4.0±0.1	1.34±0.05	29.6±0.1	2.70±0.01

60	112.5±1.1	1.51±0.02	4.7±0.1	1.57±0.05	34.1±0.1	3.11±0.01
70	165.4±2.3	2.21±0.03	5.7±0.1	1.93±0.05	39.4±0.1	3.59±0.01
80	240.7±2.5	3.22±0.03	7.7±0.1	2.57±0.05	47.0±0.3	4.29±0.03
90	308.0±2.9	4.12±0.04	12.0±0.2	4.03±0.08	64.4±0.9	5.87±0.08
RH	M'Bour dust		Bordj dust		Saharan dust	
	m_w/m_0 ($\times 10^{-3}$)	θ	m_w/m_0 ($\times 10^{-3}$)	θ	m_w/m_0 ($\times 10^{-3}$)	θ
10	1.4±0.1	0.31±0.01	1.0±0.1	0.21±0.01	10.2±0.2	0.66±0.02
20	2.3±0.1	0.54±0.01	2.0±0.5	0.41±0.09	16.6±0.4	1.02±0.03
30	3.2±0.1	0.73±0.02	2.6±0.5	0.53±0.09	21.4±0.2	1.39±0.01
40	3.9±0.3	0.90±0.07	3.4±0.4	0.69±0.08	26.0±0.2	1.69±0.01
50	4.6±0.4	1.06±0.10	4.0±0.4	0.82±0.08	30.4±0.3	1.98±0.02
60	5.2±0.5	1.21±0.13	5.0±0.4	1.02±0.09	36.0±0.2	2.34±0.02
70	6.9±0.6	1.59±0.13	7.6±0.5	1.55±0.10	43.8±0.3	2.84±0.02
80	9.2±0.6	2.13±0.14	11.8±0.4	2.41±0.08	55.7±0.7	3.62±0.05
90	15.2±0.5	3.51±0.11	19.2±0.3	3.91±0.07	79.3±1.5	5.15±0.10

355

356 3.2.6 Authentic mineral dust

357 **ATD:** Table 4 suggests that at 90% RH, m_w/m_0 and θ were measured in our work to be
358 0.0644 and 5.87 for ATD. Two previous studies (Navea et al., 2010; Yeşilbaş and Boily, 2016)
359 employed QCM to investigate water adsorption on ATD. In the first study (Navea et al., 2010),
360 m_w/m_0 was measured to be >0.1 at 70% RH, being 2-3 times larger than our result (~0.04 at 70%
361 RH); in the second study (Yeşilbaş and Boily, 2016), θ was measured to be >200 at ~70% RH,
362 almost two orders of magnitude larger than our work (~3.6 at 70% RH). Gustafsson et al. (2005)
363 used a thermogravimetric analyzer to study water uptake by ATD, and as shown in Figure 8a, their
364 results agreed very well with ours. A recent study (Joshi et al., 2017) investigated water adsorption
365 on ATD using FTIR; compared to our work, the values reported by Joshi et al. (2017) were ~30%
366 lower, suggesting fairly good agreement between the two studies.



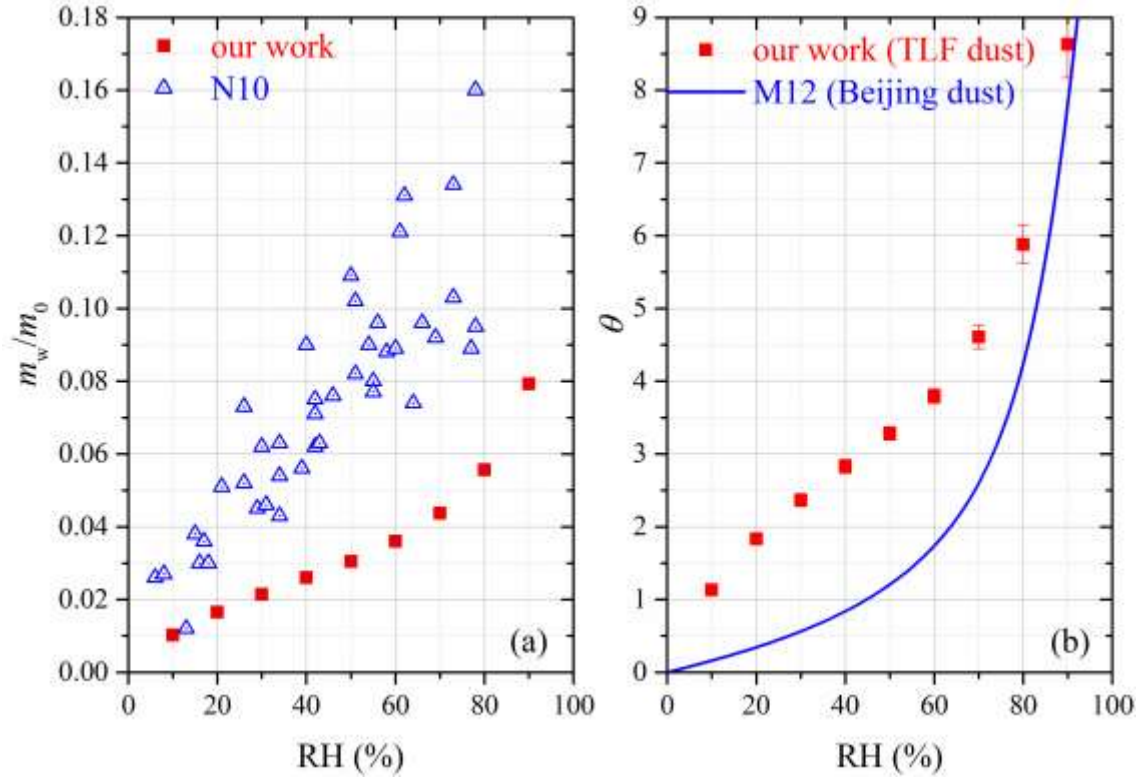
367

368 **Figure 8.** Comparison of surface coverages of adsorbed water (θ) reported in different studies for
 369 (a) ATD and (b) Bordj dust and M'Bour dust. G05, Gustafsson et al. (2005); J17, Joshi et al. (2017).

370

371 **African dust:** In our study, m_w/m_0 and θ were measured to be 0.0192 and 3.91 for Bordj
 372 dust and 0.0152 and 3.51 for M'Bour dust at 90% RH, respectively. Joshi et al. (2017) employed
 373 FTIR to investigate interaction of water vapor with Bordj dust and M'Bour dust. As suggested by
 374 Figure 8b, the relative differences between our and their work (Joshi et al., 2017) were usually
 375 within a factor of two for the two dust samples, and the discrepancy also became smaller at higher
 376 RH, suggesting fair consistence between the two studies.

377 For Saharan dust, m_w/m_0 and θ were determined in our study to be 0.0793 and 5.15 at 90%
 378 RH. Water uptake onto Saharan dust was studied using QCM (Navea et al., 2010), and their results,
 379 as shown in Figure 9a, were 2-3 times larger than our work.



380
 381 **Figure 9.** (a) Comparison of mass ratios of adsorbed water to the dry mineral (m_w/m_0) measured
 382 by our work and N10 (Navea et al., 2010) for Saharan dust. (b) Comparison of surface coverages
 383 of adsorbed water (θ) for TLF dust measured in our work with Beijing dust measured in M12 (Ma
 384 et al., 2012b).

385
 386 **Asian dust:** Table 5 summarizes our results obtained for three Asian mineral dust samples,
 387 including China loess, QH dust and TLF dust. It should be pointed out that m_w/m_0 have been
 388 reported in our previous work (Tang et al., 2019c) for China loess and QH dust, and they are
 389 included here for comparison. As shown in Table 5, the three Asian authentic dust samples
 390 exhibited very similar water uptake properties, and their m_w/m_0 were determined to be 0.021-0.022
 391 at 90% RH. Navea et al. (2010) employed QCM to study interaction of water vapor with China

392 loess, and m_w/m_0 was reported to be ~ 0.17 at 70% RH, more than one order of magnitude larger
 393 than our result (~ 0.012 at 70% RH).

394 As mentioned in Section 2.1, TLF dust examined in our work were airborne dust particles
 395 collected during a dust storm in Turpan (Xinjiang, China) which was very close to the dust source.
 396 In a previous study (Ma et al., 2012b), dust particles (termed as Beijing dust here) were collected
 397 during a dust storm in Beijing (and thus these particles had undergone atmospheric aging to some
 398 extent), and their hygroscopic properties were then investigated using a physisorption analyzer.
 399 As revealed by Figure 9b, our work agreed fairly well with Ma et al. (2012b) at high RH (70%,
 400 80% and 90%), though the differences became considerably larger at lower RH.

401

402 **Table 5.** Mass ratios of adsorbed water to the dry mineral (m_w/m_0) and surface coverages of
 403 adsorbed water (θ) as a function of RH (%) for QH dust, China loess and TLF dust.

RH	QH dust		China loess		TLF dust	
	$m_w/m_0 (\times 10^{-3})$	θ	$m_w/m_0 (\times 10^{-3})$	θ	$m_w/m_0 (\times 10^{-3})$	θ
10	2.2±0.1	0.84±0.01	3.0±0.1	0.87±0.03	2.9±0.1	1.13±0.05
20	3.7±0.1	1.39±0.01	4.9±0.1	1.39±0.04	4.7±0.2	1.83±0.08
30	4.9±0.1	1.86±0.01	6.2±0.1	1.78±0.04	6.0±0.2	2.37±0.09
40	6.0±0.1	2.29±0.01	7.4±0.1	2.12±0.03	7.2±0.2	2.83±0.09
50	7.2±0.1	2.75±0.01	8.7±0.2	2.49±0.04	8.3±0.2	3.28±0.09
60	8.6±0.1	3.29±0.01	10.2±0.2	2.90±0.04	9.6±0.3	3.79±0.11
70	10.4±0.1	3.96±0.01	11.9±0.2	3.41±0.05	11.7±0.4	4.61±0.16
80	13.4±0.1	5.09±0.02	14.6±0.2	4.17±0.05	14.9±0.7	5.88±0.26
90	21.5±0.1	8.20±0.01	21.2±0.3	6.05±0.07	21.9±1.2	8.63±0.46

404

405 3.2.7 Discussion

406 To investigate water adsorption by mineral dust, one previous study (Gustafsson et al.,
 407 2005) employed thermogravimetric analysis which measured sample mass as a function of RH

408 (essentially the same to VSA used in our study), and another two groups (Ma et al., 2012a; Ma et
409 al., 2012b; Hung et al., 2015) employed physisorption analysis which measured change in water
410 vapor pressure caused by adsorption onto mineral dust (Ma et al., 2010b). Thermogravimetric
411 analysis, physisorption analysis and the VSA technique used in our work can be considered as
412 absolutely quantitative, and as discussed in Sections 3.2.1-3.2.6, in general our work agreed well
413 with these four previous studies (Gustafsson et al., 2005; Ma et al., 2012a; Ma et al., 2012b; Hung
414 et al., 2015).

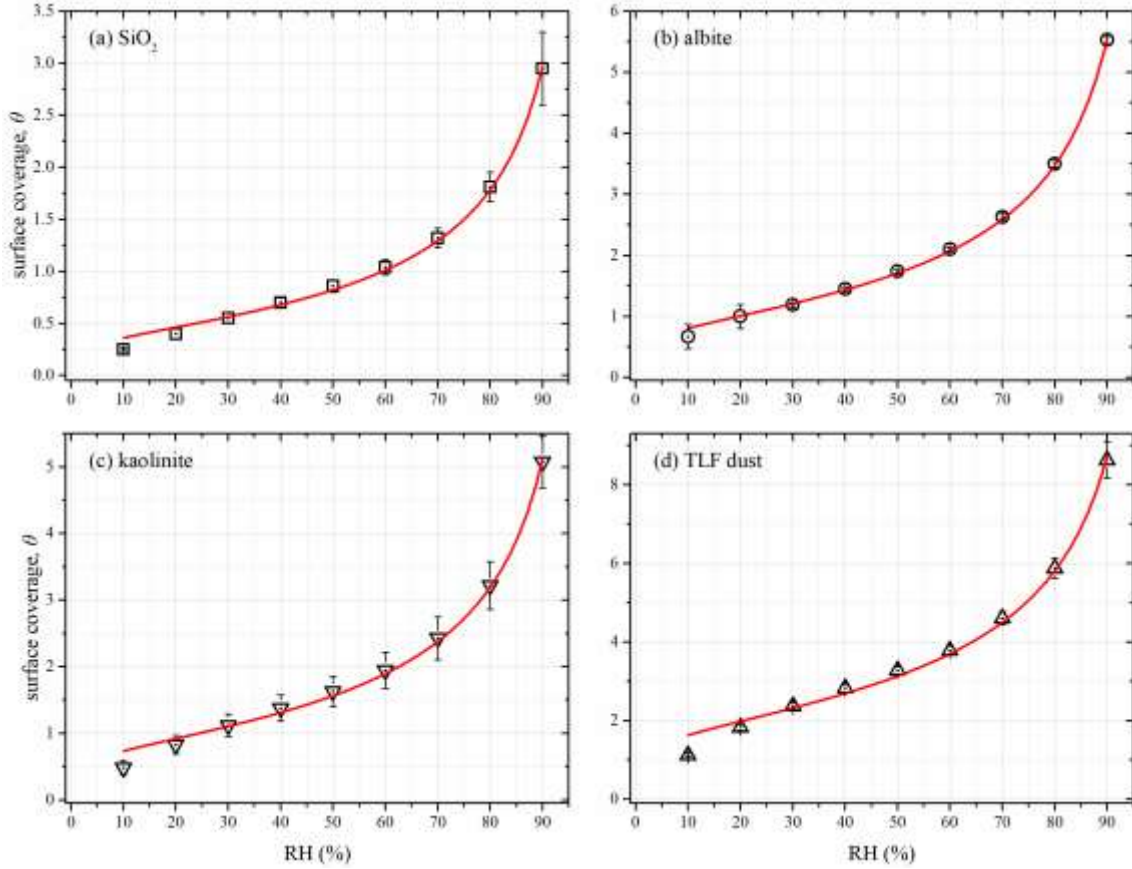
415 FTIR was widely employed in previous work (Goodman et al., 2001; Frinak et al., 2005;
416 Ma et al., 2010a; Joshi et al., 2017; Ibrahim et al., 2018) to study water uptake onto mineral dust,
417 although it is not straightforward to convert IR absorption intensities of adsorbed water to its
418 absolute amounts (Schuttlefield et al., 2007a; Ma et al., 2010b; Tang et al., 2019a). The relative
419 differences between these studies and our work were typically within a factor of 2-3; since even
420 for dust samples with the same name, samples examined in different studies may actually differ
421 substantially in composition and water uptake properties, the agreement between these studies and
422 our work can be considered as fairly good.

423 QCM is another technique widely used to investigate water uptake onto mineral dust
424 (Schuttlefield et al., 2007b; Hatch et al., 2008; Schuttlefield, 2008; Navea et al., 2010; Hatch et al.,
425 2011; Yeşilbaş and Boily, 2016). As shown in Section 3.2.1-3.2.6, though good agreement was
426 found for some mineral dust between our work and these QCM studies, large discrepancies (up to
427 2-3 orders of magnitude) were frequently observed. This implies that the underlying assumptions
428 required to convert the change in resonance frequency of the quartz crystal to the change in sample
429 mass may not be fulfilled, and as a result the QCM results should be used with cautions.

430 For the same dust (at least with the same name), different samples with distinctive
431 hygroscopicity may have been used in our work and previous studies, contributing to the observed
432 discrepancies; **in addition, previous work may adopt various pretreatment procedures, and it is**
433 **difficult to assess the effects of these pretreatment on dust hygroscopicity reported in different**
434 **studies.** To further understand and resolve the discrepancies identified, it will be very useful to
435 distribute the same samples to different groups (in which different techniques would be applied to
436 study their hygroscopic properties) and compare the results obtained; **furthermore, these samples**
437 **should be pretreated with same or very similar protocols after received by different groups.** Similar
438 strategies have already been adopted before to compare different instruments used for ice
439 nucleation research and shown to be valuable (Hiranuma et al., 2015; DeMott et al., 2018).

440 **3.3 Hygroscopicity parameterizations**

441 It has been suggested that water adsorption and hygroscopicity of insoluble particles can
442 be parameterized as a function of RH by several theoretical models, including 1) the Brunauer-
443 Emmet-Teller (BET) adsorption isotherm (Goodman et al., 2001; Ma et al., 2010a; Joshi et al.,
444 2017; Ibrahim et al., 2018), 2) the Freundlich adsorption isotherm (Hatch et al., 2011), 3) Frenkel-
445 Halsey-Hill (FHH) adsorption isotherm (Kumar et al., 2011b; Hatch et al., 2014; Hung et al., 2015;
446 Hatch et al., 2019) and 4) the κ -Köhler equation (Chen et al., 2019; Tang et al., 2019b). In this
447 work we attempted to use the aforementioned four models to fit our experimental data. As shown
448 in Figure 10 (where SiO₂, albite, kaolinite and TLF dust are used as examples), our work suggested
449 that the FHH adsorption isotherm could well describe the measured hygroscopicity of mineral dust
450 samples as a function of RH. In addition, we found that other three parameterization methods could
451 not fit our experimental data.



452

453 **Figure 10.** Surface coverages (θ) of adsorbed water on (a) SiO_2 , (b) albite, (c) kaolinite and (d)
 454 TLF dust as a function of RH (0%-90%) at 25 °C. The experimental data were fitted with Frenkel-
 455 Halsey-Hill adsorption isotherm model (solid curves).

456

457 The FHH adsorption isotherm, which describes surface coverages of adsorbed water (θ) as
 458 a function of RH, is given by Eq. (2) (Sorjamaa and Laaksonen, 2007; Tang et al., 2016):

459

$$\theta = B_{FHH} \sqrt{\frac{A_{FHH}}{-\ln(RH)}} \quad (2),$$

460 where A_{FHH} and B_{FHH} are empirical parameters. We found that Eq. (2) can well fit θ versus RH for
 461 all the 21 mineral dust samples examined (R^2 were found to be in the range of 0.94-0.99), and the
 462 generated A_{FHH} and B_{FHH} values are summarized in Table 6. As shown in Table 6, A_{FHH} values
 463 spanned from 0.15 ± 0.01 (dolomite) to 4.39 ± 0.81 (ATD), while the variation of B_{FHH} was much

464 smaller, ranging from 1.10 ± 0.04 (for Bordj dust) to 1.91 ± 0.18 (for ATD). Our results were largely
 465 consistent with the theoretical work by Sorjamaa and Laaksonen (2007), who suggested from a
 466 theoretical view that typical A_{FHH} and B_{FHH} values should be in the range of 0.1-3.0 and 0.5-3.0.

467
 468 **Table 6.** Comparison A_{FHH} and B_{FHH} values determined in our work for mineral dust with those
 469 reported in previous studies (^a: Kumar et al., 2011a; ^b: Hung et al., 2015; ^c: Hatch et al., 2019).

sample	A_{FHH}	B_{FHH}	sample	A_{FHH}	B_{FHH}
TiO ₂	0.35 ± 0.01	1.52 ± 0.05	SiO ₂	0.50 ± 0.03	1.23 ± 0.07
hematite	1.03 ± 0.09	1.67 ± 0.09		2.95 ± 0.05 ^a	1.36 ± 0.03 ^a
magnetite	0.41 ± 0.01	1.33 ± 0.03	CaCO ₃	0.23 ± 0.02	1.18 ± 0.09
goethite	0.59 ± 0.04	1.49 ± 0.07		3.00 ± 0.04 ^a	1.30 ± 0.03 ^a
dolomite	0.15 ± 0.01	1.43 ± 0.07	illite	1.96 ± 0.23	1.56 ± 0.21
albite	1.68 ± 0.02	1.61 ± 0.01		1.02 ± 0.38 ^a	1.12 ± 0.04 ^a
potassium feldspar	1.10 ± 0.06	1.42 ± 0.09		2.06 ^c	2.19 ^c
microcline	1.22 ± 0.05	1.17 ± 0.03	kaolinite	1.24 ± 0.10	1.48 ± 0.08
chlorite	0.96 ± 0.06	1.55 ± 0.07		1.70 ^b	2.25 ^b
China loess	3.19 ± 0.47	1.84 ± 0.12	montmorillonite	0.65 ± 0.05	1.13 ± 0.07
QH dust	2.53 ± 0.32	1.49 ± 0.08		2.06 ± 0.72 ^a	1.23 ± 0.04 ^a
TLF dust	4.08 ± 0.60	1.59 ± 0.12		1.23 ± 0.31 ^a	1.08 ± 0.03 ^a
Bordj dust	0.49 ± 0.03	1.10 ± 0.04		1.25 ^b	1.33 ^b
M'Bour dust	0.59 ± 0.05	1.27 ± 0.09		2.28 ^c	1.45 ^c
Saharan dust	2.03 ± 0.18	1.67 ± 0.11	ATD	4.39 ± 0.81	1.91 ± 0.18
				2.96 ± 0.03 ^a	1.28 ± 0.03 ^a

470
 471 A few previous studies investigated hygroscopic properties (Hung et al., 2015; Hatch et al.,
 472 2019) and CCN activities (Kumar et al., 2011b) of mineral dust, and reported A_{FHH} and B_{FHH} values
 473 for samples they examined. Their results are also compiled in Table 6. As revealed by Table 6,
 474 B_{FHH} values reported in our work were reasonably consistent with previous studies, while larger
 475 differences were observed for A_{FHH} values, **especially between our study and the work by Kumar**

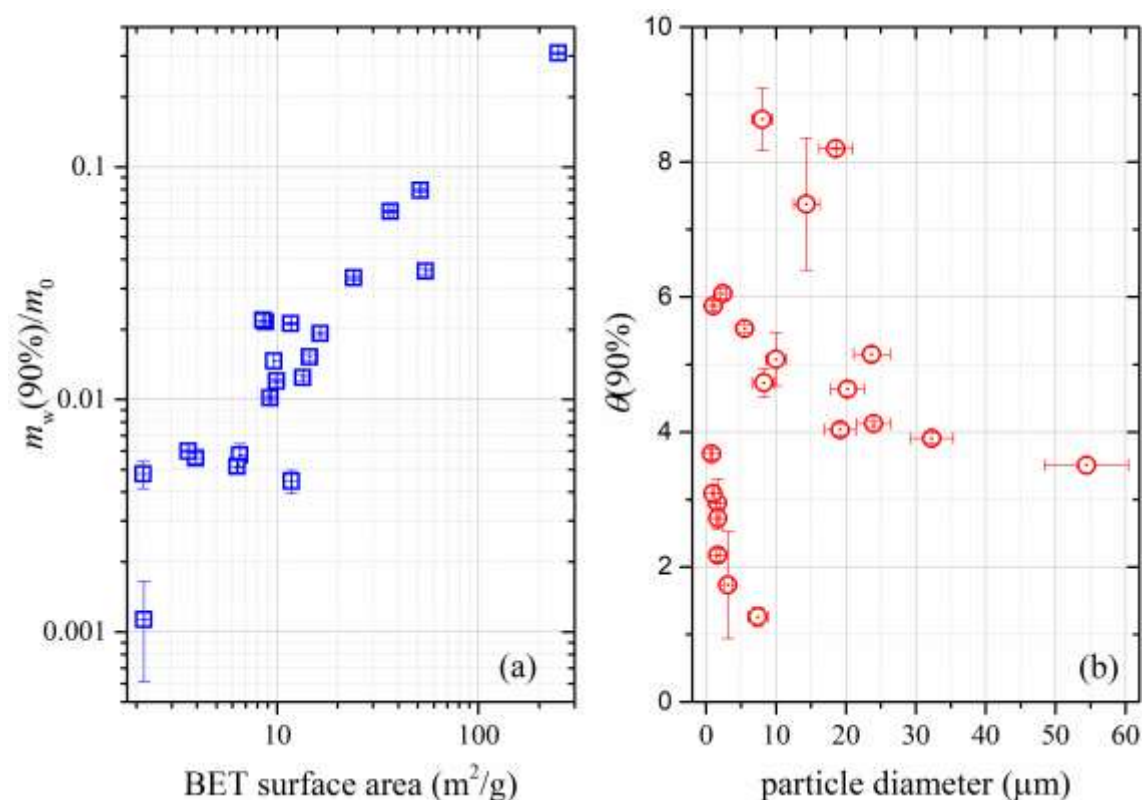
476 et al. (2011a) for SiO₂ and CaCO₃. One reason for such large difference is that Kumar et al. (2011a)
477 carried out their CCN activity measurements at >100% RH whereas our work on hygroscopic
478 growth was conducted at <100% RH. Another study (Kumar et al., 2011a) reported A_{FHH} and B_{FHH}
479 values for wet-generated mineral dust aerosols. Since the hygroscopicity of wet-generated mineral
480 dust aerosols could be very different from dry-generated aerosols (Sullivan et al., 2010b; Kumar
481 et al., 2011a), the results reported by Kumar et al. (2011b) for wet-generated aerosols are not
482 further discussed.

483 **4 Discussions**

484 As shown in Tables 2-5, among the 21 mineral dust samples examined, $m_w(90\%)/m_0$ (mass
485 ratios of adsorbed water at 90% RH to the dry sample) was found to range from 0.0011 for CaCO₃
486 to 0.0380 for montmorillonite, and $\theta(90\%)$ (surface coverages of adsorbed water at 90% RH)
487 varied between 1.26 for dolomite and 8.63 for TLF dust. It appears that clay minerals and authentic
488 mineral dust samples usually exhibited larger hygroscopicity on a per mass basis, when compared
489 to other types of mineral dust. TiO₂, for which $m_w(90\%)/m_0$ was only lower than ATD, Saharan
490 dust and montmorillonite, was an outstanding exception, probably because of its very large BET
491 surface area (54.6 m² g⁻¹).

492 One may expect that on a per mass basis, mineral dust samples with larger surface area would
493 have larger capacities to adsorb water. This was supported by our results shown in Figure 4a, which
494 suggests that for mineral dust samples considered in our study, overall $m_w(90\%)/m_0$ increased with
495 the BET surface area. Nevertheless, not all the samples obeyed this overall trend, as evident from
496 Figure 4a, indicating that other factors would also play some roles in determining the ability of
497 mineral dust to adsorb water on a per mass basis. We also explored if there was any relationship
498 between hygroscopicity of mineral dust samples and soluble materials they contained. It was found

499 that for the 21 mineral dust samples considered in our work, $m_w(90\%)/m_0$ did not show any general
500 dependence on the amounts of soluble inorganic ions.



501
502 **Figure 11.** (a) The dependence of $m_w(90\%)/m_0$ (mass ratios of adsorbed water to the dry mineral
503 at 90% RH) on BET surface areas; (b) the dependence of $\theta(90\%)$ (surface coverages of adsorbed
504 water at 90% RH) on average particle diameters.

505
506 Ibrahim et al. (2018) studied water adsorption on ATD particles with different particle sizes,
507 and found that the RH at which one monolayer of adsorbed water was formed increased with
508 particle size; in other words, at the same RH the surface coverages of adsorbed water would be
509 higher for smaller particles (Ibrahim et al., 2018). In contrast, Yeşilbaş and Boily (2016)
510 investigated water adsorption on different mineral samples (21 in total), and suggested that at the
511 same RH more monolayers of adsorbed water would be formed on larger particles. However, as

512 shown in Figure 11b in which our measured θ at 90% RH are plotted versus particles size, our
513 work revealed that surface coverages of adsorbed water at 90% RH showed no dependence on
514 particle size for the 21 mineral dust samples examined in our work. **This conclusion should be**
515 **used with caution as dust samples used in our work were far from being monodisperse (see Figures**
516 **S1-S7).**

517 **5 Conclusions**

518 Hygroscopicity largely determines environmental and climatic effects of mineral dust
519 aerosol, one of the most abundant tropospheric aerosols. However, hygroscopic properties of
520 mineral dust remain highly uncertain, due to relatively low hygroscopicity of mineral dust and its
521 non-sphericity. In our work, a vapor sorption analyzer, which measured sample mass as a function
522 of RH (<1 to 90%), was employed to investigate water adsorption and hygroscopic properties of
523 21 different mineral dust samples, including seven authentic mineral dust samples (from Africa,
524 China and America) and fourteen major minerals found in tropospheric mineral dust aerosol.

525 For all the mineral dust samples (21 in total) examined, $m_w(90\%)/m_0$ was found to range
526 from 0.0011 (CaCO_3) to 0.3080 (montmorillonite), and $\theta(90\%)$ varied between 1.26 (dolomite)
527 and 8.63 (TLF dust). When compared to other types of mineral dust, clay minerals and authentic
528 mineral dust samples usually exhibited larger hygroscopicity on a per mass basis. Our work
529 suggested that overall $m_w(90\%)/m_0$ increased with the BET surface area, indicating that on a per
530 mass basis, mineral dust samples with larger surface area would have larger capacities to adsorb
531 water in general. Our results revealed no dependence of $m_w(90\%)/m_0$ on the amount of soluble
532 materials contained, or no dependence of $\theta(90\%)$ on particle size. In addition, it was found in our
533 work that the Frenkel-Halsey-Hill (FHH) adsorption isotherm could well describe surface

534 coverages of adsorbed water as a function of RH for all the mineral dust investigated, and A_{FHH}
535 and B_{FHH} parameters were determined to be in the range of 0.15-4.39 and 1.10-1.91, respectively.

536

537 **Data availability.** Data used in this paper can be found in the main text or supplement of this
538 manuscript.

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

540 **Author contribution.** Mingjin Tang conceived this work; Lanxiadi Chen, Chao Peng, Wenjun Gu,
541 Hanjing Fu and Huanhuan Zhang carried out experiments under the advice of Xing Jian and
542 Mingjin Tang; Lanxiadi Chen, Chao Peng, Athanasios Nenes and Mingjin Tang analyzed the data;
543 Lanxiadi Chen, Chao Peng, Athanasios Nenes and Mingjin Tang wrote the manuscript with input
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553

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