1	Chemical properties, sources and size-resolved
2	hygroscopicity of submicron black carbon-containing
3	aerosols in urban Shanghai
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Abstract. Refractory black carbon (rBC) aerosols play an important role in air quality and climate change, yet high time-resolved and detailed investigation on the physicochemical properties of rBC and its associated coating is still scarce. In this work, we used a laser-only Aerodyne soot particle aerosol mass spectrometer (SP-AMS) to exclusively measure the rBC-containing (rBCc) particles, and compared their properties with the total non-refractory submicron particles (NR-PM₁) measured in parallel by a high-resolution AMS (HR-AMS) in Shanghai. The observation shows that rBC was overall thickly coated with an average mass ratio of coating to rBC core (R_{BC}) of \sim 5.0 (\pm 1.7). However, mass of rBC coating species only occupied 19.1 (\pm 4.9)% of those in NR-PM₁; sulfate tended to condense preferentially on non-rBC particles therefore its portion on rBC was only 7.4 (\pm 2.2)%, while the majority of primary organic aerosols (POA) were associated with rBC (72.7 \pm 21.0%). Positive matrix factorization reveals that cooking emitted organics did not coat on rBC, and a portion of organics coated on rBC was from biomass burning which was unidentifiable in NR-PM₁. Small rBCc particles were predominantly from traffic, while large-sized ones were often mixed with secondary components and typically had thick coating. Sulfate and secondary organic aerosol (SOA) species were generated mainly through daytime photochemical oxidation (SOA formation likely involved with in-situ chemical conversion of traffic-related POA to SOA), while nocturnal heterogeneous formation was dominant for nitrate; we also estimated the average time of 5~19 hours for those secondary species to coat on rBC. Particles during a short period that was affected by ship emissions, were characterized with a high vanadium concentration (on average 6.3 \pm 3.1 ng m⁻³) and a mean vanadium/nickel mass ratio of 2.0 (\pm 0.6). Furthermore, the size-resolved hygroscopicity parameter (κ_{rBCc}) of rBCc particles was obtained based on its fully chemical characterization, and was parameterized as $\kappa_{rBCc}(x) = 0.29 - 0.14 \times 10^{-10}$ $\exp(-0.006 \times x)$ (x is from 150 to 1000 nm). Under critical supersaturations (SSc) of 0.1% and 0.2%, the D_{50} values were 166 (\pm 16) and 110 (\pm 5) nm, respectively, and with 16 (\pm 3)% and 59 (\pm 4))% of rBCc in number could be activated into cloud condensation nuclei (CCN). Our findings are valuable to advance the understanding of BC chemistry as well as the effective control of atmospheric BC pollution.

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1 Introduction

Refractory black carbon (rBC) aerosols can directly absorb solar radiation, indirectly change the nature of cloud and alter the albedo of snow or glaciers (Jacobi et al., 2015), resulting in a positive radiative forcing that is second only to carbon dioxide on both regional and global scales (Ramanathan and Carmichael, 2008; Bond et al., 2013). The fresh rBC particles produced by incomplete combustion of biomass and fossil fuel tend to be fractal in morphology and can mix with many other components (Peng et al., 2016;Li et al., 2021). After entering into the atmosphere, fresh rBC can further externally or internally mix with organic/inorganic species which are primarily emitted or secondarily formed, and such aged rBC-containing (rBCc) particles (Chen et al., 2017; Lee et al., 2017) might have contrasting chemical properties and morphologies (or mixing states) (Liu et al., 2017a; Lee et al., 2019; Xie et al., 2019). In addition, when rBC mixes with hydrophilic materials, its hygroscopicity, cloud condensation nuclei (CCN) activity and size distribution, etc., can be significantly changed, which subsquently affect its atmospheric behavior, impact and lifecycle (Liu et al., 2013; Lambe et al., 2015). Therefore, it is necessary to elucidate the physicochemical characteristics and sources of rBC cores and associated coating materials, so as to better understand their influences on climate and air quality.

Chemical composition of ambient *r*BCc particles is largely dependent upon atmospheric conditions and emission sources. In general, the thickness of coating, mass contribution of secondary components (such as sulfate, nitrate and secondary organic aerosol (SOA) species) and oxidation degree of the coated organics of *r*BCc particles, increase with the aging time or oxidation capacity of ambient environment (Cappa et al., 2012;Liu et al., 2015;Wang et al., 2017;Collier et al., 2018;Wang et al., 2019), except in some specific cases that thickly coated *r*BCc might be dominated by primarily emitted particles (such as from biomass burning (Wang et al., 2017)). Recent field observations report that SOA species coated on *r*BC cores could account for 35% and 41% of the total SOA mass near traffic emission sources and in a polluted offshore environment, respectively (Massoli et al., 2012;Massoli et al., 2015). A study of *r*BCc particles in Singapore finds that over 90% of *r*BC derived from local combustion

sources (mainly traffic), while 30% of rBC was associated with fresh SOA generated under the influences of daytime shipping and industrial emissions (Rivellini et al., 2020). The SOA material concentrated on the surface of rBC was found to be chemically different from the SOA that was externally mixed with rBC (Lee et al., 2017) in Fontana, California, and another study in Shenzhen, China, reveals that more oxidized SOA preferred to mix with rBC due to that abundant transition metals detected on rBC cores might act as catalysts to convert less oxidized SOA to more oxidized SOA in aerosol aqueous phase (Cao et al., 2022); the rBC could catalyze SO₂ to form sulfate as well, as observed in Beijing (Zhang et al., 2020) and Guangzhou (Zhang et al., 2021), China. Besides SOA, cooking-related OA is found to be externally mixed with rBC (Lee et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2019), and a unique biomass burning related OA factor was identified and was only present in rBCc rather than non-rBC particles during summertime in Beijing (Wang et al., 2020a). Size distribution of rBCc particles is also modulated greatly by their original sources and ageing processes. For example, a study in Shanghai shows a bimodal size distribution of rBCc, with a condensation mode dominated by traffic emissions (small core size, thin coating) and a droplet mode including highly aged biomass burning particles (large core size and thick coating) and highly aged traffic particles (small core size and very thick coating) (Gong et al., 2016). Another study in Beijing (Liu et al., 2019) further resolves four size modes of rBCc, relevant with traffic (small core, thin coating), coal or biomass burning (moderate coating, both small and large cores), coal combustion (large core, think coating) and secondary process (thick coating, both small

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and large cores).

Moreover, water uptake and CCN activity of rBCc particles can increase with the encapsulation of water-soluble substances such as sulfate, nitrate, and SOA (Liu et al., 2013; Wu et al., 2019). Based on the measured chemical composition of rBCc, our previous work has established a method for calculating size-resolved hygroscopicity parameters of rBCc (κ_{r} BCc), and determined the CCN activation diameters of rBCc particles for given critical supersaturation (SSC) values (Wu et al., 2019).

Highly time-resolved chemical characterization of rBCc particles were seldom

reported in China and is still lacking in Shanghai. In this study, we utilized an Aerodyne soot particle aerosol mass spectrometer (SP-AMS) to determine the concentration, composition and size distribution of rBCc particles exclusively (technical details in Section 2.1) in urban Shanghai for the first time. We also compared the SP-AMS measurement results with those from a co-located Aerodyne high-resolution time-of-flight aerosol mass spectrometer (HR-AMS), to comprehensively investigate the characteristics of rBCc particles. We analyzed κ_{r} BCc and estimated the proportions of activated rBCc numbers at given SS_C as well.

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2 Experimental methods

2.1 Sampling site and instrumentation

The field measurement was conducted from October 31 to December 2, 2018, during which the instruments were deployed on 8th floor of the building of Shanghai Academy of Environmental Sciences (SAES) (31°10'33.348" N, 121°26'10.978" E). Shanghai can be a representative of the densely populated megacity across the world; the measurement period also belonged to the cold season when sources of rBCc might be complex, and can offer rich information about the rBCc; of course, future measurements in other seasons are still essential to achieve a complete understanding of rBCc. East of the sampling site is a large commercial shopping center, and the site is surrounded by residential areas with two busy arterial roads directly to the east (~450 m) and south (~150 m), respectively (Figure S1 in the supporting information). In addition, the adjacent areas are densely populated with roadside residents, office workers, and market traders, as well as crowds in and out of the Caobao Road Metro station (~100 m). The measurement period was dominated by northeasterly winds, while many international freight companies located on northeastern side of the site, and many freighters were reposing on the Huangpu River. Overall, the sampling site was probably influenced by vehicular emissions, residential activities and the northeast Cargo ship emission plumes, etc.

An Aerodyne SP-AMS and an HR-AMS were operated in parallel during the campaign. The two AMSs shared a same sampling line with a $PM_{2.5}$ cyclone (Model

URG-2000-30EN) in front to remove coarse particles. Ambient air pulled through the sampling line was dried using a diffusion dryer filled with silicon gel and was subsequently drawn into both instruments. Due to the transmission efficiency of the inlet lens, both AMSs measured mainly particles of 30-1200 nm (denoted as PM₁).

The working principle of SP-AMS has been described in detail previously (Onasch et al., 2012). However, in this work, we used only the intracavity infrared laser vaporizer to selectively measure rBCc particles (rBC cores and associated coating materials), as rBC can absorb 1064 nm laser light. The thermal tungsten vaporizer had to be physically detached otherwise non-rBC particles can still be detected as the filament can heat the vaporizer to ~200 °C even if it was turned off. Before sampling, the SP-AMS was tuned and calibrated following the steps described previously (Lee et al., 2015; Willis et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2017). During sampling, due to relatively low rBCc mass loadings, the SP-AMS was operated with two mass sensitive V modes (2.5 minutes per cycle), one with a particle time-of-flight (PToF) mode (30 s) and another one (120 s) with a mass spectral mode with mass-to-charge (m/z) ratio up to 500. Filtered air was also measured in the middle of campaign (for 60 min) to determine the limits of detection (LOD, three times the standard deviation) of various aerosol species and to adjust the air-influenced mass spectral signals (Zhang et al., 2005).

Before removal of the tungsten heater, the calibrations of ionization efficiency (IE) for nitrate and relative ionization efficiency (RIE) of sulfate were performed by using pure ammonium nitrate and ammonium sulfate particles (Jayne et al., 2000), and the values were assumed to be unchanged throughout the whole campaign (Willis et al., 2016). RIE of *r*BC to nitrate was calibrated by using size-selected (300 nm) BC particles (REGAL 400R pigment black, Cabot Corp.) (Onasch et al., 2012), and the average ratio of C₁⁺ to C₃⁺ was calculated to be 0.584 to correct the interference on C₁⁺ from other organics. RIEs of ammonium, nitrate, sulfate and *r*BC were determined to be 4.53, 1.10, 1.01, and 0.17, respectively, and RIE of organics used the default value of 1.4 (Canagaratna et al., 2007). The size was calibrated by Polystyrene latex (PSL) spheres (100–700 nm) (Duke Scientific Corp., Palo Alto, CA) before the measurement. This study applied a collection efficiency (CE) of 0.5 for SP-AMS.

The co-located HR-AMS (DeCarlo et al., 2006) was used to measure all PM1 including both *r*BCc and non-*r*BC particles, but it detected only non-refractory species (NR-PM1 species) as its 600 °C thermal heater is unable to vaporize *r*BC and other refractory components. In addition, mass concentrations of gaseous pollutants, carbon monoxide (CO), ozone (O3), nitrogen dioxide (NO2), and sulfur dioxide (SO2) were measured by the Thermo Scientific analyzers provided by SAES. Meteorological parameters including air temperature (T), relative humidity (RH), wind speed (WS), wind direction (WD) and precipitation, were obtained from Xujiahui Environmental Monitoring Station of Shanghai (31°11'49.1424"N, 121°26'34.44" E)(~2400 m away from the site). The concentrations of particle-phase vanadium (V) and nickel (Ni) that were used to investigate ship influence were measured independently by an Atmospheric heavy metal analyzer (XHAM-2000A, SAIL HERO., China).

2.2 Data analysis

The AMS data (both SP-AMS and HR-AMS) were analyzed using standard ToF-AMS data analysis tool (Squirrel version 1.59D and Pika version 1.19D), based on Igor Pro 6.37 (Wavemetrics, Lake Oswego, OR, USA). The mass concentrations and high resolution mass spectra (HRMS) of rBC and coating species (rBC_{CT}) were calculated from high-resolution (HR) fitting of V-mode data. Size distributions of rBCc components were determined by the PToF data with unit mass resolution and were scaled to their mass concentrations obtained above. In particular, size distribution of rBC was scaled to that of m/z 24 (C₂⁺) (the scaling factor is rBC mass concentration to that of calculated based on its size distribution), because m/z 24 as a rBC fragment, has least interference from other organic or inorganic species; such treatment was adopted in earlier studies too (Collier et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2016).

The HR ion fitting of AMS data is able to distinguish various ions and isotopic ions and calculate elemental ratios of organics such as oxygen-to-carbon (O/C), hydrogen-to-carbon (H/C), nitrogen-to-carbon (N/C), and organic mass to organic carbon (OM/OC) ratios, via the original Aiken-ambient (A-A) method (Aiken et al., 2008) and the improved method (I-A) (Canagaratna et al., 2015b). Outcomes of both

methods correlated well. Average O/C, H/C, and OM/OC ratios from the I-A method used in this work were 24.9%, 7.3%, and 5.6%, respectively, higher than those from the A-A method.

Furthermore, we performed Positive matrix factorization (PMF) (Paatero and Tapper, 1994) analysis on the HRMS of organics measured by the SP-AMS via the PMF Evaluation Tool (Ulbrich et al., 2009). The PMF solutions were thoroughly evaluated following the protocols documented in Zhang et al. (2011). Finally, a 6-factor solution was chosen as the optimal one. The final result included four primary OA (POA) factors, namely hydrocarbon-like species enriched OA (HOA-rich), rBC-enriched OA (rBCrich), biomass burning OA (BBOA), water-soluble hydrocarbon-like species enriched OA (WS-HOA), and two secondary OA (SOA) factors including a less oxidized oxygenated OA (LO-OOA_{rBC}), and a more oxidized oxygenated OA (MO-OOA_{rBC}) (Key diagnostic plots in Fig. S2). As a comparison, the mass spectra of 5-factor and 7factor solutions are illustrated in Fig. S3 (for the 5-factor solution, factor 3 is a mixed factor of BBOA and WS-HOA, while for the 7-factor solution, MO-OOA clearly splits into factor 5 and factor 2). The HR-AMS data were processed in a similar way, and four factors of NR-PM1 organics were resolved, including hydrocarbon-related OA (HOANR-PM1), cooking OA (COANR-PM1), less oxidized oxygenated OA (LO-OOANR-PMI), and more oxidized oxygenated OA (MO-OOANR-PMI) (Mass spectra and time series shown in Fig. S4).

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2.3 Calculation of size-resolved hygroscopicity of rBCc

The hygroscopicity parameter κ is a single parameter representing the hygroscopicity of particles, calculated based on essentially the chemical composition (Petters and Kreidenweis, 2007). SP-AMS measured size-resolved chemical compositions of rBCc can thus lead to size-resolved hygroscopicity of rBCc (κ_r BCc) (Wu et al., 2019;Hu et al., 2021). This study applied a similar method proposed by Wu et al. (2019) and the critical parameters involved in calculation are detailed in Table S1. The procedures are briefly described here: (1) obtain the matrice of size-resolved mass concentrations of each rBCc component from SP-AMS analysis; (2) convert the size-

resolved concentration matrice of inorganic ions (SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^{-} and NH_4^+) to corresponding matrice of inorganic salts (NH_4NO_3 , NH_4HSO_4 , (NH_4)₂ SO_4) using a simplified solution of ion pairs (Gysel et al., 2007); (3) convert the size-resolved mass matrice of all components (inorganic salts, OA and rBC) to those of size-resolved volume fractions (Gysel et al., 2007;Chang et al., 2010;Wu et al., 2016); (4) combine with previously reported hygroscopic parameters (Gysel et al., 2007;Chang et al., 2010;Wu et al., 2016) to obtain the volumetric contributions of each component to the hygroscopicity of rBCc; (5) use the Zdanovskii-Stokes-Robinson (ZSR) rule to derive the size-resolved hygroscopicity of rBCc (κ_{rBCc}) (Topping et al., 2005b, a).

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3 Results and discussion

3.1 Overview of chemical characteristics of rBCc and NR-PM₁ particles

Figure 1 presents the time series of meteorological parameters, concentrations of gaseous pollutants (CO, NO2, O3, and SO2), ship emission tracers (vanadium and nickel), rBC and rBC_{CT} species and their mass percentages to the total rBCc mass, PMF-resolved OA factors and their corresponding fractional contributions. The sampling period was featured by relatively moderate temperatures and very stagnant conditions with average $(\pm 1\sigma)$ temperature of 15.3 (± 2.9) °C and wind speed (WS) of $0.16 (\pm 0.29) \text{ m s}^{-1}$. The wind with speeds $< 0.5 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ dominated most of the sampling days and 42% of sampling time was with near-zero wind, therefore overall influence of WS and WD on surface mass loadings of rBCc was insignificant. Yet one should keep in mind that WD can affect rBCc sources, and WS in higher altitude might be stronger therefore long-range transport of air pollutants was still possible. The average concentrations of CO, NO₂, O₃, SO₂, V, and Ni were determined to be 0.60 (± 0.26) ppm, 29.20 (\pm 17.07) ppt, 27.10 (\pm 15.97) ppt, 1.27 (\pm 0.72) ppt, 4.05 (\pm 3.19) ng m⁻³, and 3.06 (\pm 2.45) ng m⁻³, respectively. The mass loadings of rBC and rBC_{CT} ranged from 0.04 to $11.00 \mu g m^{-3}$ and 0.37 to 30.47 µg m⁻³ with campaign-mean values (\pm 1 σ) of 0.92 (\pm 0.81) µg m⁻³ and 4.55 (\pm 4.40) μ g m⁻³. The coating materials accounted for 81.8 (\pm 5.3)% of the total rBCc mass, of which organics was the most abundant species (2.54 \pm 2.52 μg m⁻³, 46.6 \pm 6.4%),

followed by nitrate $(1.20 \pm 1.30 \, \mu g \, m^{-3}, 18.5 \pm 8.0\%)$, ammonium $(0.44 \pm 0.40 \, \mu g \, m^{-3}, 18.5 \pm 8.0\%)$ 260 $8.0 \pm 2.0\%$), sulfate (0.30 ± 0.19 µg m⁻³, 7.1 ± 3.6%), and chloride (0.07 ± 0.05 µg m⁻³, 261 262 $1.7 \pm 1.0\%$). The mass ratio of rBC_{CT} to rBC (R_{BC}) ranged from 2.2 to 9.0, with an 263 average of \sim 5.0 (±1.7). The average $R_{\rm BC}$ was higher than that in California ($R_{\rm BC}$ = 2.3) (Collier et al., 2018) and in Shenzhen ($R_{BC} = 2.5$)(Cao et al., 2022), lower than that in 264 265 Tibetan Plateau (R_{BC} =7.7) (Wang et al., 2017) and similar to that in Beijing (R_{BC} =5.0) 266 (Wang et al., 2019), suggesting rBC was relatively thickly coated throughout the 267 campaign. Correlation between rBC and rBC_{CT} was moderate (Pearson's r = 0.76). 268 Correlation coefficients (r) of chloride, nitrate, sulfate and organics with rBC were 0.72, 269 0.87, 0.71 and 0.73, respectively, suggesting variability of sources among different 270 coating components. 271 Figure 2 compares the campaign-averaged diurnal patterns of rBCc and NR-PM₁ 272 species, chemical compositions of rBCc and NR-PM₁, and mass ratios of the species 273 coated on rBC to those of NR-PM₁. We found that the diurnal variations of nitrate, 274 sulfate, ammonium, chloride were very similar (r > 0.92) between the two particle 275 groups, while apparent difference was found for rBCc organics with a much obvious 276 morning rush hour peak (6:00 - 9:00). The results indicate that the formation processes 277 of inorganic salts coated on rBC were similar to those uncoated on rBC, but there were large difference regarding sources/processes existed for organics. For rBC itself, the 278 279 diurnal cycle presented clearly a morning peak and an evening peak, likely relevant 280 with rush hour traffic emissions (CO showed similar pattern). On the contrary, $R_{\rm BC}$ had 281 a minimum in the morning and dropped to a low level in later afternoon, probably due 282 to influence from traffic-emitted fresh and barely coated rBC particles (details in 283 Section 3.2.1). 284 Distributions of species between rBCc and non-rBC particles were also different, 285 leading to different chemical compositions (Figs. 2g and 2h). Sulfate tended to 286 preferentially condense on non-rBC particles, as its mass contribution to total rBCc 287 mass was only 6.5 (\pm 4.2)%, while its contribution to total NR-PM₁ was 17.6 (\pm 8.3)%. 288 Apportionment of nitrate between rBCc and non-rBC particles was about even as it 289 both occupied ~26% of the total rBCc and NR-PM₁ masses. Organics occupied 55.9 (±

9.2)% of rBCc mass, larger than it in NR-PM₁ (43.7 ± 11.7%), due to that primary OA species preferentially associated with rBC. Such result is similar to that observed in winter in Beijing but contrary to the result that SOA was more abundant in rBCc in Shenzhen (Cao et al., 2022).

On average, rBCc accounted for 19.1% of the total NR-PM₁ mass loading (21.61

 \pm 15.80 µg m⁻³)(Fig. 2i), comparable to that in Fontana, California (Lee et al., 2017). The finding reveals that significant fractions of aerosol species were externally mixed with rBC. Individually, sulfate captured by rBC only represented 7.4 (\pm 2.2)% of NR-PM₁ sulfate, similar to the earlier results (Lee et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2020a; Cao et al., 2022; Ma et al., 2020); mass fractions of rBCc nitrate (20.1 \pm 5.2%) and chloride (20.4 \pm 5.5%) in NR-PM₁ were similar to the portion of total rBCc (19.1 \pm 4.9%), while the fraction of organics was higher (26.1 \pm 7.3%). The lower fraction of sulfate in rBCc than nitrate was likely due to a few reasons. One probable reason is traffic was a dominant source of rBC (see Section 3.2.1 for details) and NO₂ is known to be mainly from traffic as well, therefore secondarily formed nitrate was easy to condense on coemitted rBC, however SO₂ is mainly from other sources rather than traffic. Another possible cause is that rBC concentration was relatively high during nighttime, and nighttime formation of nitrate was significant; Sulfate, on the other hand, was mostly formed in the afternoon due to photochemical oxidation in this study (see Section 3.3.2) for details), whereas afternoon rBC concentration was low. The relatively high ratio of organics was attributed to the fact that majority of POA species were coated on rBC (average ratio of 72.7 \pm 21.0%), while rBC-related SOA was 21.8 (\pm 7.7)% of the total. Note the rBCc POA here included all four POA factors, and COA_{NR-PM1} did not coat on rBC thus was not included in the calculation.

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3.2 Distinctive sources of OA in rBCc and in NR-PM₁

As shown previously, source apportionment results of OA in rBCc and NR-PM₁ were different. This section discusses in details the characteristics of OA sources in rBCc and in bulk NR-PM₁.

3.2.1 Source apportionment of OA in rBCc

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Figure 3 shows the HRMS and temporal variations of the six OA factors resolved from PMF analysis of rBCc organics. Note the PMF analysis included rBC signals (i.e., C_x ions) to aid identification of different factors, yet calculations of elemental ratios of these OA factors did not include C_x^+ ions in order to explicitly explore the properties of organic coating. The HRMS of HOA-rich and rBC-rich were similar to the OA previously reported in urban environments near traffic emissions and/or in gasoline/diesel vehicle exhaust (Massoli et al., 2012;Lee et al., 2015;Enroth et al., 2016; Saarikoski et al., 2016; Willis et al., 2016; Lee et al., 2017), therefore both factors were traffic-related. The HOA-rich mass spectrum was featured by intense hydrocarbon ion series (i.e., $C_nH_{2n+1}^+$ and $C_nH_{2n-1}^+$ ions in Fig. 3c), and a lowest O/C ratio of 0.07. Mass fraction of rBC signals (i.e., C_n^+ ions, such as m/z 12, 24, 36, 48, and 60, etc.) in HOA-rich was 8.1%. Mass spectrum of rBC-rich factor had remarkable contribution from rBC (24.2%). Beside C_n^+ ions, the rBC-rich factor contained more oxygenated organic fragments and presented a higher O/C ratio of 0.21 than that of HOA-rich, similar to previous studies (Willis et al., 2016; Lee et al., 2017). This result is reasonable as previous studies (Corbin et al., 2014; Malmborg et al., 2017) found that refractory organics could generate oxygenated ion fragments (such as CO⁺ and CO₂⁺ derived from oxygenated species on soot surface or inside soot nanostructure). HOA-rich factor correlated very well with the common AMS tracer of vehicular OA, C₄H₉⁺ (*r*=0.95, Fig. 3i), while rBC-rich factor did match the variation of rBC well (r=0.90, Fig. 3g). Since diesel combustion often releases more rBC than that of gasoline, it is likely that the rBC-rich factor is representative of diesel vehicle exhaust while HOA-rich factor represents gasoline combustion emissions. This result demonstrates that laser-only SP-AMS is capable of distinguishing diesel and gasoline burning particles which typically cannot be separated by other AMS measurements. Further verification should be subject of future work. In this work, a multiple linear regression for the three-dimension size-resolved

in Fig. S5. Overall, the lumped size distribution of six OA factor could reproduce well that of total OA (except for a few size bins, most deviations are within 10%). Correlation between measured and reconstructed OA of all size bins was very tight with r of 0.99 and a slope of 0.97, indicating the robustness of the regressed size distributions of all OA factors. The results together with size distributions of rBCc components, and corresponding mass fractional contributions of different components in all size bins are illustrated in Fig. 4. The average HOA-rich size distribution peaked around 150 nm (D_{va} , vacuum aerodynamic diameter), generally matching with previously reported size distribution of HOA (Sun et al., 2012; Ulbrich et al., 2012; Zhou et al., 2016). Interestingly, size distribution of rBC-rich factor presented two modes, with one peaking ~260 nm, and a more pronounced one peaking ~580 nm (Fig. 4a). The BBOA was identified owing to its obviously higher signals of $C_2H_4O_2^+(2.03\%)$ and $C_3H_5O_2^+$ (1.62%) than those in other factors, as these two ions are well-known AMS fragments of the biomass burning tracer, levoglucosan (Mohr et al., 2009; Cubison et al., 2011). The time series of BBOA correlated particularly tightly with both marker ions (r of 0.86 and 0.80, respectively); it in fact also correlated well with K^+ (r=0.79), another tracer of biomass burning emission. The O/C and H/C ratios of BBOA were 0.12 and 1.78, and C_n^+ ions accounted for 9.1% of BBOA, all suggesting that the factor was fresh and might be co-emitted with rBC. A relatively high N/C ratio (0.033) was found for BBOA, which could be attributed to the large amounts of nitrogen-containing organic species enriched in biomass burning OA (Laskin et al., 2009). In addition, the size distribution of BBOA (Fig. 4a) (peak size ~500 nm) was similar to that of biomass burning BC-containing particles obtained using single particle mass spectrometry in Shanghai (Gong et al., 2016). The PMF analysis deconvoluted a unique OA factor coated on rBC, namely WS-HOA. Firstly, the WS-HOA mass spectrum had a series of hydrocarbon ion fragments and its time series correlated well with them (e.g., r of 0.90 and 0.92 for WS-HOA vs. $C_4H_7^+$ and $C_4H_9^+$, respectively). Secondly, this factor correlated the best (r=0.57) with aerosol liquid water content (ALWC) (Fig. 3j) compared with the other five OA factors (all r<0.2). Thirdly, a previous study (Ye et al., 2017) that investigated specially the

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water-soluble fraction of OA via PMF analysis, separated also a HOA factor that contained significant nitrogen-containing organic fragments, with a highest N/C ratio among all other factors, and correlated well those nitrogenated fragments. The WS-HOA defined here showed similar characteristics with the highest N/C (0.037) among all factors and tight correlations with nitrogen-containing fragments (r>0.80). At last, although WS-HOA had a relatively high O/C (0.31) with remarkable contributions from $C_2H_3O^+$ and CO_2^+ , yet its correlations with these two ions were in fact not strong (r of 0.46 and 0.44, respectively); and WS-HOA had the least fraction of rBC fragments (0.9%) (note rBC is hydrophobic), even less than the two SOAs (Fig. 3d). Both results suggest that this factor is a collection of water-soluble primary OA species. The peak of WS-HOA size distribution was ~150 nm, close to that of HOA-rich (Fig. 4a). Aqueous-phase processed SOA (aqSOA) were typically with very high O/C ratio (Xu et al., 2019), and size distribution of aqSOA often presented a droplet mode, peaking in relatively large sizes (such as 500~600 nm)(Gilardoni et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2021; Ge et al., 2012). Therefore, the moderate O/C (0.31) and small mode size of WS-HOA again manifest it was not from aqueous-phase reactions but more likely the watersoluble fraction of POA. The PMF analyses separated two SOA factors, LO-OOA_{rBC} and MO-OOA_{rBC}. Mass spectral features of the two SOAs were consistent with previous studies: The LO- OOA_{rBC} was rich in $C_xH_yO_1^+$ ions (38.7%) (such as $C_2H_3O^+$ at m/z 43) but with less contribution from $C_xH_yO_2^+$ ions (7.6%) and an overall moderate O/C (0.25), while MO-OOA_{rBC} had much more contribution from C_xH_yO₂⁺ ion family (22.7%) (such as CO₂⁺ at m/z 44) and $C_xH_yO_1^+$ ions (44.7%), with a high O/C ratio (0.56). In addition, LO- OOA_{rBC} correlated better with nitrate (r=0.83) than it with sulfate (r=0.69), while the correlation between MO-OOA_{rBC} and sulfate (r=0.84) is better than it with nitrate (r=0.76). Size distributions of the two SOAs were also in accord with their secondary behaviors, both accumulating at larger sizes (~450 nm for LO-OOA_{rBC}, and a bit larger mode size of ~500 nm for MO-OOA_{rBC}), in agreement with previous observations (Sun et al., 2012; Ulbrich et al., 2012; Zhou et al., 2016).

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most abundant source of rBCc organics (39.1%); BBOA occupied ~18.4%; the contributions of two SOAs were on par with each other (20.2% for LO-OOA $_{r}$ BC, and 22.3% for MO-OOA $_{r}$ BC) (Fig. 2g). Among traffic POA, gasoline derived HOA-rich factor outweighed the diesel derived rBC-rich factor (11.4% vs. 6.3% of the total rBCc). Contributions of different factors varied greatly for different sizes of rBCc particles (Fig. 4b). Small-sized particles were overwhelmingly dominated by traffic POA; SOA contributions increased with increase of size, and dominated over POA for 300-800 nm ones; contribution of BBOA was also relative larger for 300-800 nm than for other-sized ones; the very large particles (800-1000 nm) were found to be affected mainly by traffic POA in this work. Correspondingly, for the total rBCc particles, rBC cores peaked at ~170 nm, while other secondary inorganic components, behaving like SOA factors, all peaked at a big size (~550 nm) (Fig. 4c) and their mass percentages were also large for large-sized particles (Fig. 4d).

Figure 5a further demonstrates the changes of mass fractions of each rBCc component as a function of R_{BC} . R_{BC} is a proxy of coating thickness. It was found that the thinly coated rBCc (R_{BC} <3) were dominated (up to ~80%) by traffic-related POA. With the increase of R_{BC} , contribution of secondary components increased gradually, especially the two SOAs and nitrate (sulfate showed little changes across the whole R_{BC} range); SOA and nitrate contributions reached 40.2% and 31.3% at R_{BC} = 8, respectively. Accordingly, the oxidation degree (OSc = 2*O/C-H/C) (Kroll et al., 2011) of coated organics increased with R_{BC} . In Fig. 5b, we presented the mass contributions of OA factors to the rBC mass at different R_{BC} values. The rBC was as expected, predominantly associated with POA (from 94% at R_{BC} <2 to 66% at R_{BC} >8), similar to those from Fontana (Lee et al., 2017). Contribution of rBC-rich factor decreased obviously, and those of SOA factors increased with R_{BC} . The contributions of HOA-rich, WS-HOA and BBOA factors changed little.

3.2.2 Comparisons with NR-PM₁ organics

As shown in Fig. S4, PMF analysis separated four OA factor for NR-PM₁ organics. Two SOA factors (LO-OOA and MO-OOA) were resolved for both *r*BCc and NR-PM₁, and their contributions to them were also close (Figs. 2g and 2h). Correlations of time series between the two LO-OOA factors and between the two MO-OOA factors were also tight (r of 0.94 and 0.90, respectively), indicating similar formation processes for each SOA. But, of course, the SOAs from rBCc and from NR-PM₁ were not entirely the same, as later ones had higher O/C ratios (0.52 of LO-OOA_{NR-PM1} and 0.62 of MO-OOA_{NR-PM1}). On average, the portion of LO-OOA coated on rBC took up 21.6% mass of LO-OOA in total NR-PM₁, and the portion was 26.0% for MO-OOA. This result suggests that there were some differences regarding the partitioning of LO-OOA and MO-OOA onto *r*BCc and non-*r*BC particles. Compared with SOAs, source apportionment results of POA were quite distinct. Firstly, there was only one HOA factor resolved for NR-PM₁, while three HOA factors were separated for rBCc. Note the rBC-rich and WS-HOA factors occupied merely 3.1% and 2.1% of NR-PM₁ OA mass, respectively, probably the cause that they were not identified in NR-PM₁ OA. Nevertheless, mass loadings of the sum of HOA-rich, rBC-rich and WS-HOA factors (termed as HOArBC) agreed quite well with that of HOA_{NR-PM1} (r=0.95) (Fig. S7), verifying both source apportionment results. And, HOA_{rBC} took up 63.7% of HOA_{NR-PM1}, while previous studies reported that 81% (Massoli et al., 2012) and 87 % (Massoli et al., 2015) of HOA were associated with rBC. These results imply that HOA species in NR-PM₁ were largely internally mixed with rBC affected by vehicular emissions. Secondly, COANR-PM1 was only identified in NR-PM₁ OA. AMS-resolved COA_{NR-PM1} is mainly from cooking oil and food ingredients, therefore it negligibly internally mixes with rBC. This result is consistent with previous observations (Lee et al., 2015; Willis et al., 2016; Lee et al., 2017; Collier et al., 2018). At last, BBOA was identified in rBCc OA but not in NR-PM₁ OA. One plausible reason was that the BBOA mass contribution was minor (equivalent to <5% of NR-PM₁ OA mass) therefore was not able to be separated from other OA factors; another speculation is that laser only SP-AMS can detect refractory species that HR-AMS cannot, and a portion of these refractory species are likely rich in biomass burning OA. Identification of BBOA in rBCc rather than in simultaneously measured total NR-PM₁ was also found in Tibet (Wang et al., 2017) and Beijing (Wang et al., 2020a), role

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of such BBOA and its interplay with rBC core remain a subject of future work.

Diurnal cycles of the POA and SOA factors from both PMF analyses are compared in Figs. 6a and 6b. The diurnal pattern of stacked HOA_{rBC} indeed agreed with that of HOA_{NR-PMI}, both with two peaks in the morning and evening rush hours, and, the patterns of *r*BC-rich, HOA-rich, and WS-HOA factors showed similar behaviors individually (Fig. 6a). The diurnal variation of COA_{NR-PMI} had pronounced peaks during lunch and dinner times, and its percentage in NR-PM₁ OA reached 54% at night. Diurnal patterns of two LO-OOA factors were somewhat different (*r*=0.35)(Fig. 6b). LO-OOA_{rBC} has a major peak in the afternoon, while though LO-OOA_{NR-PMI} concentration rose in the afternoon too but peaked in early evening (~20:00). The daily variations of two MO-OOA factors were similar (*r*=0.83), both peaking at 16:00. The afternoon increases of both SOAs indicate an important role of photochemical reactions, yet differences in formation mechanisms, volatilities and partitioning behaviors of SOA products could lead to diversities of their diurnal patterns and HRMS.

3.3 Evolution and formation *r*BCc components

3.3.1 Behaviors of *r*BC cores

Size distribution of rBC cores shown in Fig. 4c was relatively wide. Beside the main peak at ~170 nm, it extended significantly into large sizes and had a small peak at ~550 nm, which was close to the peak of secondary components. With results shown in Fig. 5a, we found that small rBC cores were often thinly coated, while thickly coated rBCc particle were often highly aged and a portion of them also had large-sized rBC cores. This result is likely owing to that oxidation of rBC-bounded organics and/or condensation of secondary species onto rBC surface can induce restructuring of soot aggregates to form compact and large cores (Chen et al., 2018;Chen et al., 2016). Such phenomenon is in line with earlier studies (Liu et al., 2019;Gong et al., 2016). We further show the image plot of size distributions of rBC at different rBC in Fig. S8a. It can be found that the rBC mass in a large part concentrated in particles with rBC of 5-8, and there was indeed a significant portion of rBC appearing in large size range (400-800 nm) with very thick coating (rBC of 8-9).

3.3.2 Formation of inorganic salts

Sulfate and nitrate both peaked at a big size \sim 550 nm (Fig. 4c) and were mainly associated with thickly coated rBCc ($R_{BC}>6$, Figs. S8d and S8e). To investigate the impacts of photochemistry and aqueous/heterogeneous chemistry on the formation of rBCcT species, we plotted the image plots of size distributions of nitrate, sulfate and organics versus Ox (O₃ + NO₂) and relative humidity (RH) in Fig. 7. Here Ox is used as a proxy of photochemical activity (Xu et al., 2017), and RH is an indicator of aqueous reactions (Wu et al., 2018). Nitrate significantly concentrated in 65-100 ppb Ox range but there was a weak accumulation in low Ox as well (Fig. 7a), while in Fig. 8d, nitrate had a prominent hotspot in RH>85%. Generally, both strong photochemical activity and high RH could promote nitrate formation. For sulfate, although the distribution was scattered due to low level of mass loadings, high Ox level seemed to favor sulfate formation (Fig. 7b); sulfate was scattered in the whole RH range and there were some enhancements at high RH (>80%) but was much less clear-cut (Fig. 7e). Therefore aqueous-phase production of sulfate was not important in this campaign.

We further calculated the sulfur oxidation ratio (SOR) and nitrogen oxidation ratio (NOR) (Xu et al., 2014), and plotted their variations against Ox and RH in Figs. 8a and 8e, respectively. The NOR rose substantially at Ox>60 ppb but showed no increase at Ox < 60 ppb, while it increased continuously with RH. Mass ratio of nitrate to *r*BC stayed at a high level during nighttime when RH was high as well (overall diurnal trend of NO₃/*r*BC was similar to that of RH, see Figs. S9a and S9d). This result indicates a likely more important role of nocturnal nitrate formation (N₂O₅ hydrolysis) (Pathak et al., 2011) (Sun et al., 2011) than photochemical production of nitrate during this campaign; moreover, low temperature and high RH favor nitrate partitioning into the particle phase during nighttime too (Gao et al., 2011). For sulfate, The SOR increased with Ox while it increased with RH under relatively dry conditions (<60%) but decreased with RH when RH>60%. This result, on the other hand, highlights that photochemical production is more important than aqueous/heterogenous formation for sulfate. In addition, mass ratios of sulfate to *r*BC were enhanced remarkably during daytime and peaked in the afternoon (Fig. S9e), supporting the key role of

photochemical formation of sulfate. Sulfate precursor SO₂ was at a high level during daytime too. The main formation pathway of sulfate is strikingly different from that observed in winter Nanjing (Wu et al., 2018), suggesting significant seasonal variability of sulfate formation even in the same region.

3.3.3 Evolution of organics

Organics had a broad average size distribution (Fig. 4c), but unlike rBC, its main peak appeared at 500~600 nm. Figure S8b shows that the majority of organics partitioned in rBCc with R_{BC} of 5.0-9.0 and wide size coverage (300-800 nm). Regarding its dependences on Ox and RH, it mainly accumulated at Ox>70 ppb (Fig. 7c) and very high RH (~90%) (Fig. 7f). Consistently, O/C ratio and OSc both peaked in the afternoon (Fig. S9b), all suggesting a critical role of photochemistry in affecting the behavior of organics.

Figure 8 illustrates the mass ratios of each OA factor to rBC varying with O_X and RH. Mass ratios of all four POA factors generally presented decreasing trends (despite some fluctuations) against O_X (Fig. 8b), and the total POA_{rBC} showed evident decrease with increase of O_X (Fig. 8d). Instead, both LO-OOA_{rBC} and MO-OOA_{rBC}, as well as their sum (SOA_{rBC}) increased continuously with O_X (Figs. 8c and 8d). This result proves that photochemical oxidation contributed significantly to both LO-OOA_{rBC} and MO-OOA_{rBC} formations. Comparatively, decreases of POA_{rBC} perhaps point to its reaction loss upon photochemical oxidation. With regard to RH, besides WS-HOA, the other three POA_{rBC} factors showed almost no dependences on RH (Fig. 8f); note the increase of WS-HOA with RH did not indicate the aqueous production of WS-HOA (see discussion in Section 3.2.1), but a result of enhanced dissolution with increase of moisture. Overall small increase of POA_{rBC} (Fig. 8h) with RH then mainly attributed to WS-HOA. Contrary to the trends with Ox, mass ratios of two SOA factors as well as the total SOA to rBC went down with increase of RH (Figs. 8g and 8h), indicating a trivial role of aqueous/heterogenous oxidation for the SOA coated on rBC observed during this campaign.

The aging of OA is generally characterized by the increase of O/C and decrease of

H/C (Ng et al., 2011; Zhao et al., 2019). The different aging pathways of OA follow different slopes in the Van Krevelen (VK) diagram (Heald et al., 2010). For example, addition of only one oxygen atom to the carbon skeleton results in a slope equal to 0, while replacement of the hydrogen atom with a carboxylic acid group (-COOH) results in a slope of -1 without fragmentation (C-C bond breaking), and -0.5 with fragmentation (Heald et al., 2010;Ng et al., 2011;Zhao et al., 2019). As presented in Fig. 10a, fitting of all OA data yielded a slope of −0.96, very close to −1, suggesting that OA ageing process resembled the hydrogen substitution with a -COOH group (carboxylation). Interestingly, the four OA factors (HOA-rich, WS-HOA, LO-OOA_{rBC} and MO-OOA_{rBC}) aligned almost in a straight line with a slope of -0.77 (Fig. 9a), also close to -1. Figure S10 further reveals that there was a strong anti-correlation between mass fractions of sum of HOA-rich and WS-HOA and sum of LO-OOA_{rBC} and MO- OOA_{rBC} (r=-0.97); the slope of fitted line was -0.86. All these results suggest that OA evolution may contain a channel of photochemical transformations from HOA-rich and WS-HOA to LO-OOA_{rBC} and then to MO-OOA_{rBC}. This result is also in line with the observed decrease of POA_{rBC} and increase of SOA_{rBC} against O_X. CHO+, CHO2+ and C2H2O2+ are the AMS tracer ions for carbonyl, carboxylic acid and glyoxal, respectively (Wang et al., 2020b; Canagaratna et al., 2015a; Yu et al., 2014). Mass fractions of these three fragment ions presented decreasing trends (or no clear trends) against RH (Fig. S11), suggesting again that aqueous processing is not an important pathway in OA evolution during this campaign. Conversely, fractional contributions of these three ions presented increasing trends versus Ox, supporting the dominance of photochemical oxidation pathway (Figs. 9b-d). Figures 9e-g show the scatter plots of H/C versus O/C at different O_X concentrations. The regressed slope was -1.03 for low O_X (<60 ppb) conditions (Fig. 9e), indicating that the OA aging at low Ox level is mainly analogue to the carboxylation process. This result corresponds precisely to the fact that mass fractions of CHO₂⁺ and C₂H₂O₂⁺ increased gradually with O_X at low O_X, whereas that of CHO⁺ remained essentially unchanged (Figs. 9b-d). The fitted slope was -1.14 for moderate O_X conditions (60-80 ppb), and it changed to -0.43for high O_X level (>80 ppb) but correlation became weaker (r=-0.57). This result

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implies that the OA evolution under high Ox conditions might include oxidations by the additions of alcohols, peroxides and carboxylation. In all, the evolution of rBCc OA in Shanghai during this campaign is governed by photochemistry rather than aqueous chemistry, but with different oxidation pathways at different Ox levels.

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3.3.4 Coating time of secondary species onto *rBC*

Although the rBCc organics was dominated by primary sources (Fig. 2g), the diurnal variations of OSc, O/C and H/C of the total organics, were controlled predominantly by the two SOA factors. Correlations between the diurnal cycles of MO- OOA_{rBC}/rBC and OSc were extremely well (r=0.97 with OSc and r=0.98 with O/C), and those of LO-OOA/rBC were also tight (r=0.91 with OSc and r=0.92 with O/C). The correlations with LO-OOA, were a bit weaker than those of MO-OOA, BC, indicating that MO-OOA_{rBC} was probably the final products and was more important in governing the overall oxidation level of organic coating. Figure 10a depicts the diurnal variations of SOA_{rBC}/rBC and POA_{rBC}/rBC. Diurnal variations of POA_{rBC}/rBC and rBC were overall similar, while the daily pattern of SOA_{rBC}/rBC was almost opposite to that of rBC. This result likely indicates that most POA_{rBC} species were coemitted and coated on rBC cores originally, therefore the coating process during rBCclifecycle was mainly relevant with SOA species rather than POA species. This process is mainly through photochemical reactions, including in-situ oxidation of originally coated POA species (for example, oxidation of HOA-rich plus WS-HOA to LO-OOA_{rBC}, then to MO-OOA_{rBC}), and partitioning of secondary species formed in gasphase reactions onto rBC surface. In addition, sulfate and nitrate were both secondarily formed, but sulfate was dominated by photochemical production while nitrate was governed by nocturnal heterogenous formation (as discussed in Section 3.3.2); different diurnal patterns of them (Fig. S9) point to different coating processes too.

In this regard, we hereby propose a concept of average coating time (ACT), which is used to roughly estimate the timescales required for secondary components coated onto rBC. The specific method is listed as follows:

1. Move forward the diurnal variation of SA_{rBC}/rBC (SA represents a secondary

619 aerosol species) for n hours to get a new SA_{rBC}/rBC diurnal pattern, labelled as 620 "SA_{rBC}/rBC(r-nh-ahead)". Here, the r value is the linear correlation coefficient between the new SA_{rBC}/rBC diurnal pattern with that of rBC.

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2. Choose the best correlation coefficient (r-nh-ahead), and nh corresponds to the ACT for this secondary component.

It should be noted that the diurnal pattern of rBC might be affected by the changes of plantenary boundary layer (PBL) height, so that low PBL height could lead to high rBC concentrations during nighttime. We thus used SA_{rBC}/rBC rather than SA_{rBC} here to perform the correlation analyses with rBC. The relative variability of secondary species to rBC might be a good way to eliminate the impacts of PBL, and better represent the "coating process". Nevertheless, one should be cautious that this treatment is only a rough approximation of the "coating process". Diurnal patterns of LO- OOA_{rBC}/rBC and $MO-OOA_{rBC}/rBC$ are depicted in Fig. 10b. They were both opposite to the trend of rBC, and they were similar to each other, except that MO-OOA_{rBC}/rBC peaked hours later in the afternoon, signifying that the MO-OOA_{rBC} needs longer time to coated on rBC than LO-OOA_{rBC} does, consistent with the fact that MO-OOA_{rBC} was "more aged". Correspondingly, we obtained an ACT of 7 hours for MO-OOA_{rBC} (0.35-7h-ahead) and 5 hours for LO-OOA rBC (0.57-5h-ahead) (Fig. 10c) using the method described above. The ACT of sulfate (0.65-7h-ahead) and nitrate (0.30-19h-ahead) were 7 and 19 hours, respectively (Fig. 10d). The results suggest that the rBC emitted mainly in the morning rush hours requires a few hours to be adequately coated by LO-OOA_{rBC}, MO-OOA_{rBC} and sulfate, as these three species are mainly produced in the afternoon by photochemical reactions; while photochemical production of nitrate is insignificant, thus rBC was coated by nitrate until later night when nitrate was formed efficiently by heterogenous N_2O_5 hydrolysis. Note the best r values were not high (for example, 0.35) for MO-OOA_{rBC} and 0.30 for nitrate), yet the adjusted trends of all secondary components (Figs. 10c and 10d) matched that of rBC quite well during 3:00~12:00 (r of 0.90, 0.91, 0.84 and 0.84 for MO-OOA_{rBC}, LO-OOA_{rBC}, sulfate and nitrate, respectively), likely meaning that daytime variations of two SOAs and sulfate were indeed controlled by the coating process while governing factors of their nighttime variations might be complex, and *vice versa* for nitrate.

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3.4 Size-resolved hygroscopicity of rBCc

By using the method in Section 2.3, we calculated the size-resolved hygroscopicity parameters for the total rBCc (κ_{rBCc}) and the coatings materials (κ_{CT}) across the whole campaign. The image plots are illustrated in Figs. 11a and 11b. Generally, large κ_{rBCc} and $\kappa_{\rm CT}$ values occurred at big particle sizes, and this result was overall similar to that in Nanjing during winter (Wu et al., 2019). We further illustrate the size-resolved κ_{rBCc} as a function of R_{BC} in Fig. 11c. The figure shows that κ_{rBCc} overall became larger with increasing particle size regardless of the coating thickness. However, there were some (though not significant) relatively high κ_{rBCc} values in the range of 80-150 nm (bottom left and bottom right in Fig. 11c). In Figs. 12a and 12b, we further determined the average size-resolved κ_{rBCc} and $\kappa_{\rm CT}$ as a function of coated diameter ($D_{r\rm BCc}$). Both $\kappa_{r\rm BCc}$ and $\kappa_{\rm CT}$ values were relatively high at D_{rBCc}<100 nm and presented slight decreases from 100 to 150 nm. This is distinctive from those observed in Nanjing, where $\kappa_{\rm CT}$ increased with $D_{\rm rBCc}$ from 50 nm (Wu et al., 2019). From Figs. 4b and 4d, it can be seen the rBCc with D_{rBCc}<150 nm was dominated by a portion of ammonium and sulfate (8-10%) and organics (~60%), of which organics was dominated by WS-HOA. Such composition explains the relatively high hygroscopicity at DrBCe<150 nm as both ammonium sulfate and WS-HOA are hydrophilic; a slight decrease of the hygroscopicity from 100 to 150 nm D_{rBCc} was also a response of decreased mass contributions of ammonium sulfate and WS-HOA (and increase of hydrophobic HOA-rich contribution). Figures 12a and 12b also provide the fitted exponential functions for the mean κ_{rBCc} and κ_{CT} with D_{rBCc} . The equations are: $\kappa_{rBCc}(x) = 0.29 - 0.14 \times \exp(-0.006 \times x)$ and $\kappa_{\rm CT}(x) = 0.35 - 0.09 \times \exp(-0.003 \times x)$ (x is $D_{\rm rBCc}$, 150<x<1000 nm). Here, 0.29 and 0.35 are the upper limits of κ_{rBCc} and κ_{CT} , higher than those reported in Nanjing (0.28) and 0.30 for κ_{rBCc} and κ_{CT}); yet the increasing rates of κ_{rBCc} and κ_{CT} with D_{rBCc} are 0.14 and 0.09, respectively, which are much lower than those from Nanjing (0.35 and 0.27

for κ_{rBCc} and κ_{CT}) (Wu et al., 2019). Smaller increased contributions of hydrophilic

secondary species from 150 to 1000 nm in Shanghai than those from 100 to 1000 nm in Nanjing are likely the cause of smaller increasing rates of hygroscopicity parameters. In addition, it should be noted that the hygroscopicity is not only determined by the bulk composition, but also affected by the phase state of particles. For instance, a recent study reveals that the hygroscopic growth of phase-separated particles (with ammonium sulfate as cores) can be reduced by the secondary organic shells and is dependent on the thickness of organic coating (Li et al., 2021).

The critical supersaturation (SSc) for a selected dry diameter (D_{rBCc} measured by SP-AMS) of a rBCc particle with a hygroscopicity parameter κ_{rBCc} , can be calculated by the " κ -Kohler theory" equation (Petters and Kreidenweis, 2007). Based on the size-resolved κ_{rBCc} , the CCN activation diameter (D_{50}) of particles at a given critical SSc can be calculated (Wu et al., 2019). Then, by combining the measured rBCc number size distribution and the D_{50} value, activation fraction (f_{AC}) of rBCc number population (i.e., the fraction greater than the D_{50}) can be obtained. Figure 12c shows the SSc as a function of D_{rBCc} for the entire sampling period to obtain the D_{50} at a specific SSc. The D_{50} values of the rBCc particles were determined to be 166 (\pm 16) nm and 110 (\pm 5) nm for SSc of 0.1% and 0.2%, respectively. The two D_{50} values are both smaller than those determined for rBCc particle in Nanjing (Wu et al., 2019), likely owing to the presence of WS-HOA in Shanghai. Figure 12d shows the f_{AC} at SSc of 0.1% (D_{50} of 166 nm) was 16 (\pm 3)%, and the f_{AC} at SSc of 0.2% (D_{50} of 110 nm) was 59 (\pm 4)%.

3.5 A case study influenced by ship emissions

3.5.1 Potential source areas of *r*BCc

To explore the potential geographic origins of *r*BCc at the receptor site, the hybrid single-particle Lagrangian integrated trajectory (HYSPLIT) model (version 4.9) was applied here. The backward trajectories were classified into four air mass clusters (Fig. S12a), including one long-range transport from northern sea (Cluster1), one long-range transport from northeastern sea (Cluster2), a local one from eastern ports (Cluster3), and one from northwestern inland region (Cluster4). The four clusters occupied 23.8%, 37.3%, and 5.0% of the total trajectories, respectively. It is clear that the

sampling period was influenced by offshore air masses in most of the time (95%). Cluster3 had the highest mean rBCc concentrations (13.2 ± 10.9 μ g m⁻³) while the mean concentrations of the other three clusters were apparently lower (4.3~5.2 μ g m⁻³). This result is plausible as Cluster3 was the shortest in length therefore was least diluted compared with other three clusters. Average chemical compositions of the rBCc from four clusters (Fig. S12b) showed some differences as well: Cluster1 and Cluster2 had higher MO-OOA $_r$ BC contributions, possibly owing to the interceptions of more aged SOA species during the long-range transports; While Cluster4 had less MO-OOA $_r$ BC but a bit more POA $_r$ BC contributions, likely attributing to more primary species emitted in inland regions (similarly, a higher fraction of nitrate was likely because of enhanced NO2 emissions).

3.5.2 A typical case of rBCc affected by ship emissions

Ship emissions are found to have an important impact on the air quality of Shanghai and the Yangtze River Delta (Zhao et al., 2013;Fan et al., 2016;Liu et al., 2017b;Chen et al., 2019). The ship engines usually burn heavy fuel oil (HFO), and vanadium (V) and nickel (Ni) can be adopted as reliable tracers for the ship-emitted particles (Ault et al., 2009;Moldanová et al., 2009;Ault et al., 2010). The long-term variation of Ni/V ratio in ship-emitted particles in Shanghai has been recently reported (Yu et al., 2021). The main conclusion is that Ni/V ratio was close to 0.4 in 2018, while it became to be greater than 2.0 in 2020. Our measurement was carried out in 2018, and we therefore chose a period from November 3rd to 5th as a typical case affected by ship emissions (SEP period), since the average Ni/V ratio was ~0.50 and high concentrations of both Ni and V were found. Figure S13 shows the concentration-weighted trajectories (CWT) of ship emission tracers (V, Ni), rBC and rBC-rich factor during SEP, displaying that these components were mainly from sea. During SEP, the correlation coefficient (r) between V(Ni) and rBC was 0.69 (0.74), indicating the SEP was indeed impacted by ship emissions.

Figure 13 displays the chemical characteristics of rBCc and $NR-PM_1$ components (especially the OA factors), V and Ni, gaseous pollutants and the meteorological

parameters during SEP. As a comparison, we also selected a period with no ship emissions with the same time span as SEP (from 0:00 on November 10 to 0:00 on November 12, termed as non-SEP), and a similar plot during non-SEP is presented in Fig. S14. During SEP, the wind was mainly from east, and the average wind speed was ~0.5 (± 0.3) m s⁻¹; Wusong, Luojing and Waigaogiao ports located northeast of the sampling site (Fig. S1). Instead, the wind was mainly from north during non-SEP. During SEP, the average mass concentrations of V and Ni were 6.3 (\pm 3.1) ng m⁻³ and 3.2 (\pm 1.4) ng m⁻³, respectively, while those during non-SEP were only 2.9 (\pm 1.4) ng m^{-3} and 2.6 (\pm 1.6) ng m^{-3} . The average mass ratio of V/Ni during SEP was 2.0 in agreement with those reported in ship-influenced PM1 (Mazzei et al., 2008;Mar et al., 2009), and within the range of 1.9 to 3.5 for domestic HFO (Zhao et al., 2013), while the average ratio of V/Ni (1.1 ± 0.8) during non-SEP was outside the range. Moreover, the major air pollutants emitted from ships include nitrogen oxides (NO_x), sulfur oxides (SO₂), carbon monoxide (CO), hydrocarbons and primary/secondary particles (Becagli et al., 2017; Wu et al., 2021). As demonstrated in Fig. 13b and Fig. S14b, SO₂ concentration was overall higher during SEP (10:00-16:00 on November 11 not included); mass loading of NO₂ was higher during the rush hours of non-SEP, but was higher at night (no traffic) during SEP. Mass proportion of sulfate in NR-PM₁ during SEP was also higher than that during non-SEP (22.7 \pm 8.1 % vs. 19.1 \pm 5.3 %), but vice *versa* for nitrate $(17.8 (\pm 9.9)\%$ during SEP vs. $26.2 (\pm 9.1)\%$ during non-SEP). We further investigated the dependences of rBCc and NR-PM₁ species on V during SEP and non-SEP, as shown in Fig. S15. Here we only used V since Ni level might be influenced by other emission sources, such as refining industry (Jang et al., 2007; Kim et al., 2014) in urban Shanghai, and during non-SEP, Ni still presented a good correlation with rBC (r=0.80). During SEP, V concentrations (most of them >4 ng m⁻³) overall positively correlated with both sulfate and nitrate (except for rBCc sulfate) (Fig. S15a). Considering that V concentration was independently measured for all fine particles, a better correlation with total NR-PM₁ sulfate than it with rBCc sulfate is reasonable. Similarly, V-rich particles had positive correlations with traffic-related OA and LO-OOA no matter in rBCc or in total NR-PM₁ (Fig. S15b). Conversely, during

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non-SEP, particles with low-V content (most of them <4 ng m⁻³) had no clear links with sulfate, nitrate, POA and SOA species (even anti-correlations for V>2.5 ng m⁻³) (Figs. S15c and S15d; a detailed comparison of the correlation coefficients of V with OA factors of *r*BCc and NR-PM₁ organics are provided in Table S2). The results above demonstrate that during SEP, chemical properties of the particles (both fresh and aged ones) were clearly linked with ship influences.

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Previous studies (Ault et al., 2009; Ault et al., 2010; Liu et al., 2017b) have shown that the fresh ship-emitted V-rich particles are typically accompanied by high sulfate contribution, while those aged V-containing ship particles are on the other hand with relatively high nitrate contribution. In order to further probe chemical characteristics and evolution processes of particles influenced by ship emissions, we divided SEP into three episodes (i.e., EP1-EP3) (marked in Fig. 13). During EP1, rBC content was highest (Fig. 13i) and coating was thinnest (Fig. S16i) indicating the particles were relatively fresh, nevertheless the SOA contents were not low (Figs. 13h and 13j), OSc was moderate (Fig. S16j), sulfate portions in NR-PM₁ and rBCc were both the highest (26.5%), and nitrate portion was the lowest (9.8%) among three episodes (Figs. 13g and 13i). Such composition is not common in other cases, demonstrating it was a specific period impacted by fresh ship emissions. EP2 had the highest mass loadings of V, gas pollutants as well as the lowest PBL height (~200 meters) (Fig. S16). Mass contributions of nitrate increased and sulfate decreased, and rBC content decreased from those during EP1, signifying that the particle population likely contained some aged ship-emitted particles. Surely, particle composition during EP2 was also influenced by the formation mechanisms of secondary species: EP2 was mostly during nighttime, therefore photochemical formation of sulfate and SOA were weak (as shown in Figs. 13g and 13j, sulfate contribution was only 15.1%, and SOA contribution was only 33.7%), while nitrate formation was enhanced due to the nocturnal process. During EP3, rBC was the lowest, sulfate and V were moderate, nitrate and SOA were highest in both rBCc and $NR-PM_1$, OS_C and R_{BC} were highest in rBCc among the three episodes (Figs. 13i-j and Figs. S16i-k), therefore it was also a period with influence from aged ship-emitted particles; the difference from EP2 is that photochemically formed sulfate and SOA were still significant as EP3 was in the later afternoon and early evening, though heterogeneously formed nitrate played a non-negligible role too (see the increase of RH, increase of nitrate and decrease of O₃ concentrations from the beginning of EP3 in Fig. 13).

4. Conclusions and implications

We conducted a field measurement during November of 2018 in urban Shanghai, China, focusing on the elucidation of physical and chemical properties of the ambient particles containing rBC cores (rBCc) by using a laser-only SP-AMS together with a HR-AMS. The campaign-average rBCc was 4.6 (\pm 4.4) μ g m⁻³, occupying \sim 19.1 (\pm 4.9) % mass of the total NR-PM₁. The average mass ratio of coating to rBC cores (RBC) was \sim 5.0 (\pm 1.7), indicating an overall thick coating, compared with the rBCc near combustion source. Sulfate was found to preferentially condense on non-rBC particles thus led to a low fraction of rBCc sulfate to that in NR-PM₁ (7.4% \pm 2.2 %), while distribution of nitrate between rBCc and non-rBC particles showed no obvious difference. PMF analysis on rBCc and NR-PM₁ OA reveals that cooking-related organics were externally mixed with rBC, and a small portion of organics from biomass burning was only present in rBCc; the traffic-related OA species, however, was in a large part internally mixed with rBC.

A regression algorithm was applied to deconvolute the size distributions of individual *r*BCc OA factors, and results show that small *r*BCc particles were predominantly generated from traffic, and such particles could grow bigger because of condensation of secondary inorganic and organic components, resulting in thick coating. Investigation on diurnal patterns of the *r*BCc species reveals that sulfate and two SOA factors (LO-OOA_{rBC} and MO-OOA_{rBC}) were generated mainly through daytime photochemical oxidation; nitrate, on the other hand, was governed mainly by the nocturnal N₂O₅ hydrolysis. Partial SOA was found to be produced from in-situ photochemical conversion from traffic-related POA. An average coating time (ACT) was proposed to roughly estimate the timescales for the secondary species to coat on *r*BC, and the ACT of sulfate, LO-OOA_{rBC}, MO-OOA_{rBC} and nitrate were approximately

7, 5, 7 and 19 hours, respectively.

Moreover, the size-resolved hygroscopicity parameters of rBCc particles (κ_{r} BCc) and the coating material (κ_{CT}) were obtained based on the elucidated composition of rBCc particles. The fitted equations are: κ_{r} BCc(x)= 0.29–0.14 × exp(-0.006 × x) and $\kappa_{CT}(x)$ = 0.35 – 0.09 × exp (-0.003 × x) (x is D_{r} BCc, 150<x<1000 nm). The minimums of both κ_{r} BCc and κ_{CT} were at ~150 nm due to the abundances of hydrophobic rBC cores and traffic-related HOA at this size. Under critical supersaturations (SS_{C}) of 0.1% and 0.2%, the D_{S0} values were estimated to be 166 (± 16) and 110 (± 5) nm, and the activated number fractions of rBCc particles were 16 (± 3)% and 59 (± 4)%, respectively. Finally, a typical case with influence from ship emissions was investigated. During this period, the rBCc particles were enriched in V (6.3 ± 3.1 ng m⁻³), with a V/Ni ratio of 2.0 (± 0.6), and various secondary formation processes affect the ship-emitted particles at different times of the day.

In summary, the findings from this comprehensive study on rBCc provide rich information regarding the various primary sources and secondary formation pathways of species coated on rBC, as well as the features of distributions of those species between rBC and non-rBC particles. In particular, different types of rBCc particles from diesel and gasoline vehicle emissions were resolved and elucidation of their properties are useful to their future effective control. Understanding of the formation processes and coating timescales of secondary components is helpful to understand the impact of ambient BC particles too. At last, the parameterized relationship of hygroscopicity with size distribution is useful for modelling the climate effect of rBC (alternation of cloud properties).

Data availability. The data in this study are available from the authors upon request (caxinra@163.com).

Supplement. The supplement related to this article is available online at: XXX

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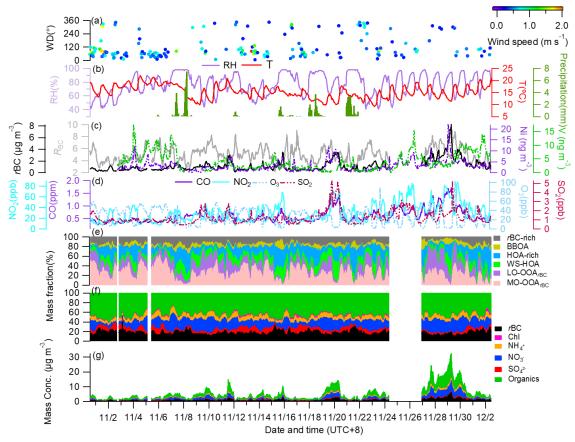


Figure 1. Time series of (a) wind direction (WD) colored by wind speed (WS), (b) air temperature (T), relative humidity (RH) and precipitation, (c) mass concentrations of rBC, Ni, V, and R_{BC} (mass ratio of all coating species to rBC), (d) mass concentrations of gas pollutants of CO, NO₂, O₃ and SO₂, (e) mass fractions (%) of different OA factors to the total rBCc OA, (f) mass fractions (%) of different components to the total rBCc mass, and (g) mass concentrations of stacked rBCc components.

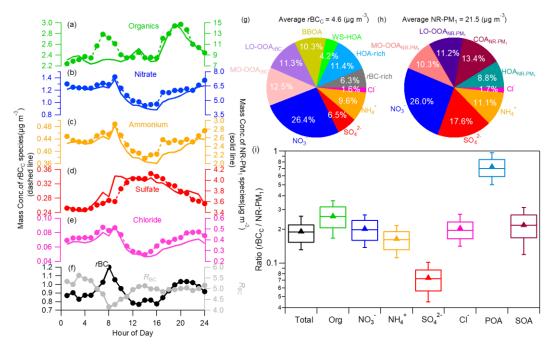


Figure 2. Diurnal cycles of mass concentrations of (a–e) *r*BCc and NR-PM₁ species (organics, nitrate, ammonium, sulfate, and chloride), and (f) *r*BC and *R*_{BC}. Campaignaverage chemical composition of *r*BCc (g) and NR-PM₁ (h). (i) Mass ratios of species in *r*BCc to those in NR-PM₁ (the whiskers above and below the boxes mark the 90% and 10% percentiles, respectively; the upper and lower edge of the boxes represent the 75% and 25% percentiles, respectively; and the lines and triangles inside the boxes denote the median and mean values, respectively; SOA represents ([LO-OOA_{*r*BC}] + [MO-OOA_{*r*BC}])/([LO-OOA_{NR-PM1}] + [LV-OOA_{NR-PM1}]), and POA represents ([*r*BC-rich + HOA-rich + BBOA + WS-HOA])/HOA_{NR-PM1}).

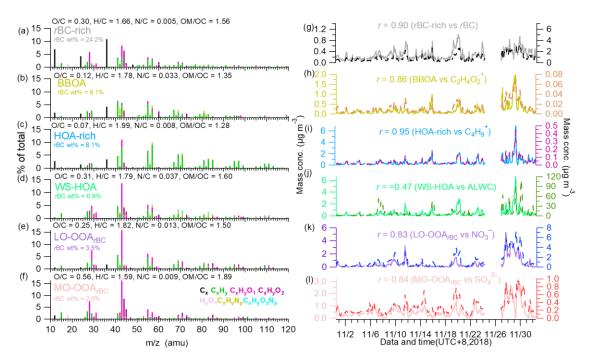


Figure 3. High resolution mass spectra of (a) *r*BC-rich, (b) BBOA, (c) HOA-rich, (d) WS-HOA, (e) LO-OOA_{rBC}, and (f) MO-OOA_{rBC}. (g-l) Time series of corresponding factors, their tracers (*r*BC, C₂H₄O₂⁺, C₄H₉⁺, ALWC, nitrate and sulfate) as well as the correlation coefficients (ALWC refers to aerosol liquid water content, which was estimated by using the model II of extended aerosol inorganic model (E-AIM II)(Clegg et al., 1998); calculation details and results at different RH values are described in the caption and shown in Fig. S6)

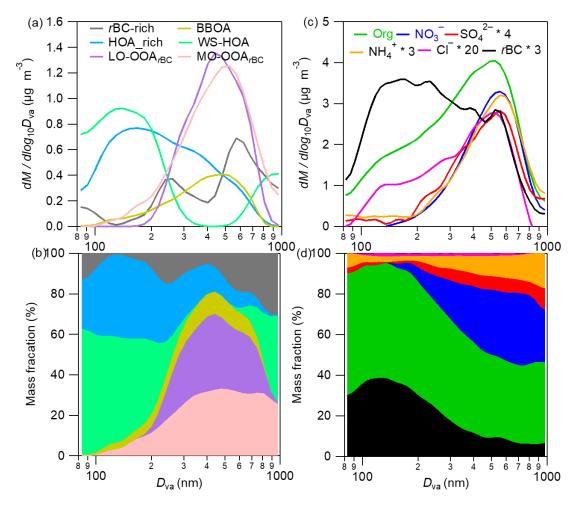


Figure 4. Campaign-average size distributions of six rBCc OA factors (a) and individual rBCc components (b), and corresponding mass contributions of the six factors to the total rBCc OA (c), and the major components to the total rBCc (d) at different sizes (80-1000 nm).

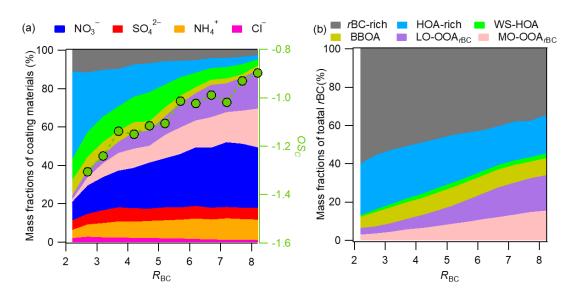


Figure 5. (a) Variations of mass fractions of the major rBCc components against RBC. (b) Variations of mass contributions of individual rBCc OA factors to rBC against RBC.

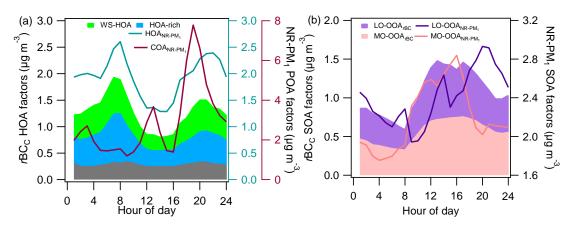


Figure 6. Comparisons of the diurnal patterns of different POA factors (b) and SOA factors (c) of rBCc and $NR-PM_1$.

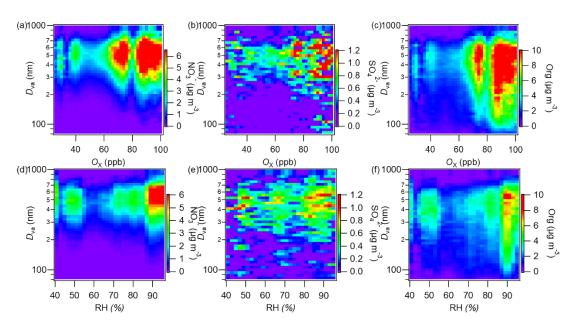


Figure 7. Image plots of size distributions of rBCc nitrate, sulfate, organics as a function of (a-c) Ox and (d-f) RH, respectively (color represents its concentration).

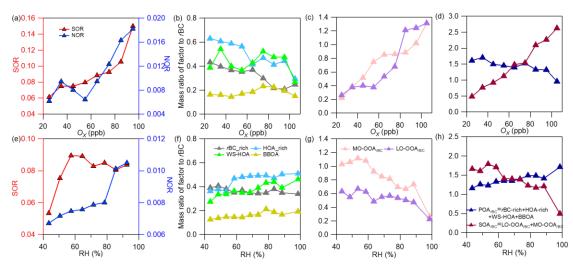


Figure 8. Variations of nitrogen oxidation ratio (NOR) and sulfur oxidation ratio, mass ratios of different POA factors, SOA factors and total POA and SOA to rBC against O_X (a-d) and RH (e-h) (NOR=nNO $_3^-/(n$ NO $_3^-+n$ NO $_2^++n$ NO) and SOR=nSO $_4^{2-}/(n$ SO $_4^{2-}+n$ SO $_2$), where nNO $_3^-$, nSO $_4^{2-}$, nNO $_2$, nNO and nSO $_2$ are the molar concentrations of particle-phase sulfate, nitrate, gaseous NO $_2$, NO and SO $_2$, respectively).

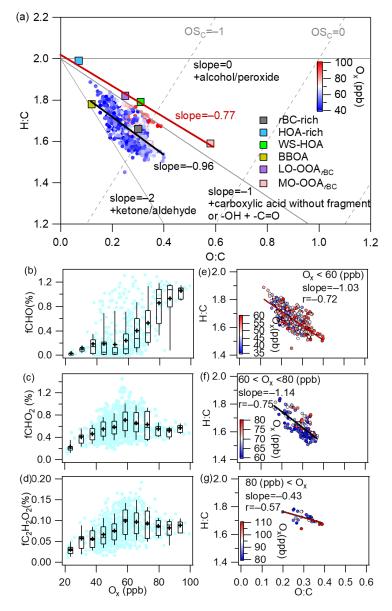


Figure 9. (a) Van Krevelen diagram of H/C versus O/C ratios for all *r*BCc OA and the six factors colored by Ox concentrations (the black line represents the linearly fitted line of all OA data, and the red line is the fitted line of the four OA factors). (b-d) Mass fractions of selected oxygenated ion fragments as a function of Ox (meanings of the boxes are the same as those described in Fig. 2). (e-g) Scatter plots of H/C versus O/C ratios under different Ox levels (data are colored by Ox concentrations).

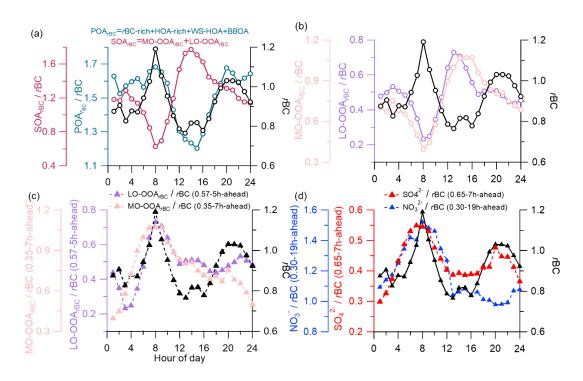


Figure 10. Campaign-average diurnal patterns of (a) rBC, POA_{rBC}/rBC and SOA_{rBC}/rBC , and (b) rBC, $MO-OOA_{rBC}/rBC$ and $LO-OOA_{rBC}/rBC$. Adjusted diurnal patterns by the average coating time (ACT) for (c) $LO-OOA_{rBC}/rBC$, $MO-OOA_{rBC}/rBC$, and (d) SO_4^{2-}/rBC , NO_3^{-}/rBC .

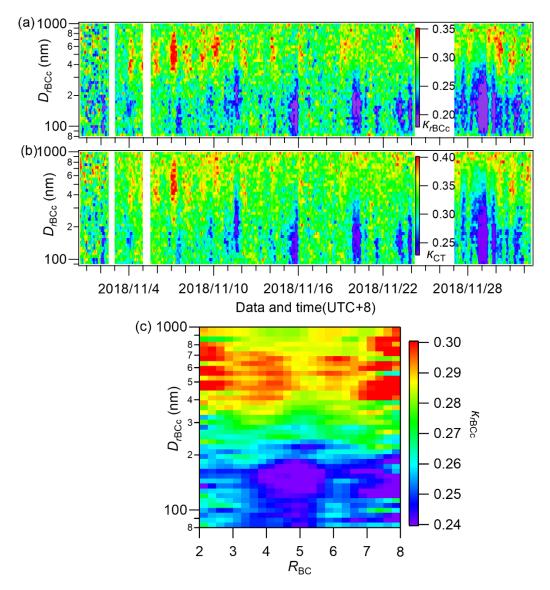


Figure 11. Image plots of size-resolved hygroscopicity parameters of (a) rBCc (κ_{r} BCc), (b) its coating materials (κ_{CT}) during the whole campaign, and (c) the campaign-average size-resolved κ_{r} BCc at different RBC.

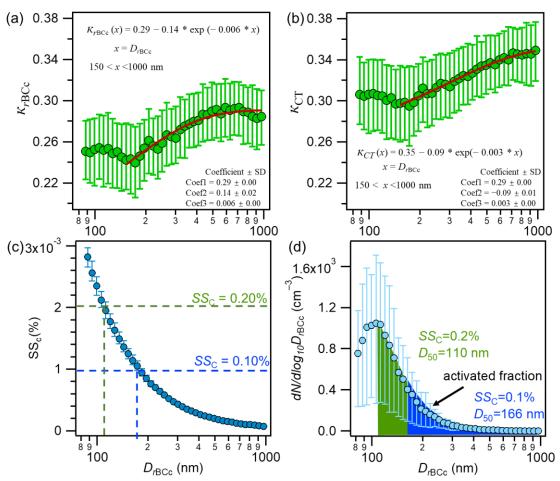


Figure 12. Campaign-average size-resolved hygroscopic parameters for rBCc (κ_{r} BCc) and (a) for its coatings (κ_{CT}) (b) (the red lines are exponential fits of the data of 150-1000 nm). (c) Campaign-average size-resolved critical supersaturation (SS_{C}), and (d) the predicted activated fraction of rBCc number concentration based on D_{50} at SS_{C} of 0.1% (166 nm) and 0.2% (110 nm) (the solid circles are mean values, the upper and lower lines are the 75th and 25th percentiles, respectively).

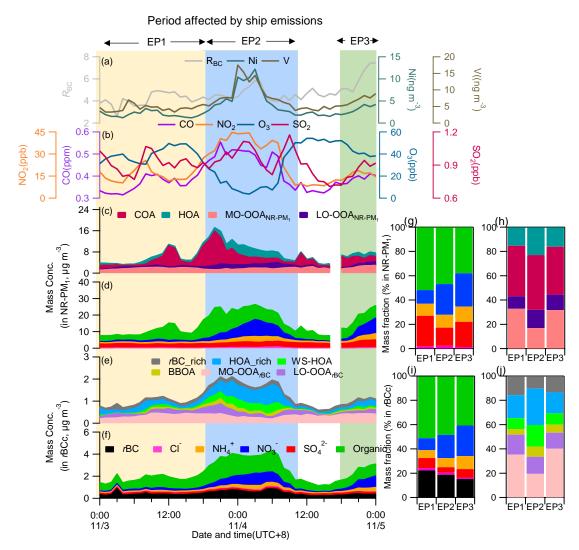


Figure 13. Time series of (a) mass concentrations of particle-phase Ni and V, and $R_{\rm BC}$, (b) mass concentrations of CO, NO₂, O₃, SO₂, stacked concentrations of (c) NR-PM₁ OA factors, (d) NR-PM₁ species, (e) rBCc OA factors, and (f) rBCc components during the ship emission period (SEP). Mass contributions of (g) different components to NR-PM₁, (h) different OA factors to total NR-PM₁ OA, (i) different components to rBCc, and (j) different OA factors to total rBCc OA for the three episodes (EP1, EP2 and EP3).