

1 **Markedly different impacts of primary emissions and secondary**
2 **aerosol formation on aerosol mixing states revealed by simultaneous**
3 **measurements of CCNC, V/HTDMA, and SP2**

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22

23 **Abstract**

24 This study compares aerosol mixing state parameters obtained via simultaneous measurements using
25 DMA-CCNC, H/V-TDMA, and DMA-SP2, shedding light on the impacts of primary aerosol
26 emissions and secondary aerosol (SA) formation. The analysis reveals significant variations in mixing-
27 state parameters among different techniques, with V-TDMA and DMA-SP2 indicating that nearly non-
28 volatile particles mainly stem from BC-containing aerosols, while a substantial proportion of nearly
29 hydrophobic aerosols originates from fossil fuel combustion and biomass burning emissions.
30 Synthesizing the results, some nearly hydrophobic BC-free particles were found to be CCN-inactive
31 under supersaturated conditions, likely from fossil fuel combustion emissions, while others were CCN-
32 active, linked to biomass burning emissions. Moreover, BC-containing aerosols emitted from fossil
33 fuel combustion exhibit more external mixing with other aerosol components compared to those from
34 biomass burning. Secondary nitrate and organic aerosol formation significantly affect aerosol mixing
35 states, enhancing aerosol hygroscopicity and volatility while reducing heterogeneity among techniques.
36 The study also highlights distinct physical properties of two resolved secondary organic aerosol factors,
37 hinting at formation through different mechanisms. These findings underscore the importance of
38 comparing aerosol mixing states from different techniques as a tool in understanding aerosol physical
39 properties from different sources and their responses to SA formation, as well as aiding in the
40 exploration of SA formation mechanisms.

41 **1 Introduction**

42 The aerosol mixing state is a crucial physicochemical property of aerosol particles (Riemer et al.,
43 2019), exerting a significant impact on their optical properties and cloud condensation nuclei (CCN)
44 activity, thus affecting their impact on the climate and environment (Fierce et al., 2017; Riemer et al.,
45 2019; Stevens et al., 2022). For example, variations in the mixing state of black carbon (BC) particles
46 can significantly alter their absorption and radiative effects (Bond et al., 2013; Lack et al., 2012; Zhao
47 et al., 2019; Moffet et al., 2016; Matsui et al., 2018; Peng et al., 2016). Using simple internal mixing
48 state assumptions for aerosol chemical components to estimate CCN number concentrations can lead
49 to substantial overestimations (up to 30%; Deng et al., 2013; Farmer et al., 2015; Ren et al., 2018;
50 Ching et al., 2017, 2019; Tao et al., 2021). The aerosol mixing state varies widely due to complex
51 emissions and atmospheric transformations, leading to significant uncertainties in estimating the
52 effects of aerosols based on simplified mixing state assumptions (Ervens, 2015; Wang et al., 2022; Fu
53 et al., 2022).

54 The aerosol mixing state describes the mixture of aerosol chemical components within each
55 particle and the distribution of these particles in the aerosol population. This property can be directly
56 measured using single-particle chemical composition techniques (Fierce et al., 2017; Riemer et al.,
57 2019), such as the single-particle soot photometer (SP2), which measures refractory black carbon (rBC)
58 mass concentrations and the mixing state of rBC with other aerosol components, or single-particle
59 chemical composition measurement techniques (e.g., single-particle aerosol mass spectrometer, SP-
60 AMS) that have been developed in recent years (Lee et al., 2019; Riemer et al., 2019 and reference
61 therein). Alternatively, the aerosol mixing state can be inferred from indirect measurements of aerosol
62 properties, such as size-resolved aerosol CCN activity (measured by coupling a differential mobility
63 analyzer (DMA) and a CCN counter (CCNC)), size-resolved aerosol hygroscopicity distributions, or
64 volatility distributions (measured by a Humidified/Volatility Tandem differential mobility analyzer
65 (H/V-TDMA)).

66 However, each technique yields information on aerosol mixing states based on different aerosol
67 microphysical properties, thus obtaining aerosol mixing states that are different but linked to one
68 another. For instance, while both CCN activity and hygroscopic growth measurements are associated
69 with aerosol hygroscopicity, an intercomparison between CCNC and HTDMA measurements has

70 prompted investigations into aerosol hygroscopicity variations under different saturation conditions
71 (Su et al., 2010; Juranyi et al., 2013; Lance et al., 2013; Kawana et al., 2016; Tao et al., 2020; Jiang et
72 al., 2021). Although the SP2 and VTDMA techniques depend on the evaporation of non-refractory
73 compositions, only rBC remains in the SP2 measurements. In contrast, non-refractory composition
74 evaporation depends on the thermodynamic temperature in the VTDMA measurements. Thus,
75 measurements of an SP2 are highly correlated to those of a VTDMA at high temperatures (200 °C–
76 300 °C), with their differences reflecting variations in aerosol density, shape, or volatility (Philippin
77 et al., 2004; Wehner et al., 2009; Adachi et al., 2018, 2019; Wang et al., 2022). HTDMA and VTDMA
78 can be combined to study the influence of the aerosol mixing state on hygroscopicity and volatility
79 (Zhang et al., 2016; Cai et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2017). Strong correlations were found between the
80 hydrophobic and non-volatile particles, suggesting they might have similar chemical compositions
81 (Zhang et al., 2016). In addition, some studies have shown that, except for BC, low-volatility particles
82 correlate well with CCN-inactive particles based on VTDMA and CCNC measurements (Kuwata et
83 al., 2007; Kuwata and Kondo, 2008; Rose et al., 2011; Cheng et al., 2012). Therefore,
84 intercomparisons between mixing state parameters measured by distinct techniques provide a better
85 characterization of the aerosol mixing state and insight into aerosol physiochemical properties.
86 Previous studies have mainly compared two types of aerosol mixing state measurements and lacked a
87 comprehensive comparative analysis among SP2, DMA-CCN, and HV-TDMA measurements,
88 hindering the wide application of derived aerosol mixing states obtained by individual techniques.

89 The mixing state of primary aerosols can vary greatly depending on their type and emission
90 conditions (Cheng et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2022; Ting et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2021)
91 and can be significantly altered during aging processes or secondary formations (Wehner et al., 2009;
92 Cheng et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2022; Tomlin et al., 2021; Lata et al., 2021). Primary aerosol emissions,
93 such as biomass burning, fossil fuel combustion, and cooking, tend to contribute to weak
94 hygroscopicity (Herich et al., 2008, 2009; Wang et al., 2020; Kim et al., 2020) and low-volatility
95 aerosols (Hong et al., 2017; Saha et al., 2018). The formation of secondary aerosols (SAs), including
96 the aging of BC-containing particles and primary organic aerosols, mainly contributes to aerosols with
97 strong CCN activity (Mei et al., 2013; Ma et al., 2016; Tao et al., 2021) and high hygroscopicity (Chen
98 et al., 2018; Kim et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2020). It is important to study the impact of specific primary

99 aerosol emissions and SA formation on aerosol mixing states and the influence of aerosol mixing state
100 parameters derived from different techniques to enhance our understanding of the mixing state of
101 aerosols from different emission sources and improve their characterization in models.

102 The North China Plain (NCP) is among the most polluted regions in China, with various primary
103 emission sources and strong SA formations that play critical roles in air pollution (Xu et al., 2011; Tao
104 et al., 2012; Liu et al., 2015). The complex mixing state of aerosols in the NCP contributes to
105 uncertainties in evaluating their climate and environmental effects (Zhuang et al., 2013; Nordmann et
106 al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2016; Tao et al., 2020; Shi et al., 2022), particularly regarding BC particles
107 (Wu et al., 2017; Liu et al., 2019; Zhao et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2011; Zheng et al., 2019).
108 Meteorological conditions can greatly affect SA formation in the NCP and can be significantly
109 exacerbated during severe pollution events. SA formation under low relative humidity (RH) conditions,
110 mainly through the condensation of gaseous-phase oxidation products, would change to that mainly
111 occurring in the aqueous phase under high RH conditions (Kuang et al., 2020). Because SAs formed
112 through different mechanisms, have different chemical compositions and add mass to different aerosol
113 populations, SA formation under different meteorological conditions can affect the aerosol mixing
114 states differently (Tao et al., 2021). This study obtained the aerosol mixing state through concurrent
115 measurements of the CCN activity, hygroscopicity, volatility, and BC particles at a regional site in the
116 NCP using CCNC, HTDMA, VTDMA, and SP2 instruments. This provides a unique opportunity to
117 perform a comprehensive inter-comparison of the aerosol mixing states among different techniques to
118 gain insight into the impact of primary aerosol emissions and SA formation on the observed aerosol
119 mixing states.

120

121 **2 Materials and methods**

122 **2.1 Campaign information and instruments setup**

123 From the 16th of October to the 16th of November 2021, aerosol mixing states were continuously
124 and concurrently monitored using different techniques at the Gucheng site in Dingxing County, Hebei
125 Province, China, as part of a campaign to investigate AQueous Secondary aerOsol Formation in Fog
126 and Aerosols and their Radiative effects in the NCP (AQ-SOFAR). The observation site, located at
127 39°09'N, 115°44'E, is an Ecological and Agricultural Meteorology Station of the Chinese Academy

128 of Meteorological Sciences, situated between the megacities of Beijing (approximately 100 km away)
129 and Baoding (approximately 40 km away) and surrounded by farmlands and small towns. This site
130 provides a representative view of the background atmospheric pollution conditions in the NCP (Kuang
131 et al., 2020; Li et al., 2021).

132 Different measurement techniques were used to simultaneously obtain the aerosol mixing state
133 through CCN activity, hygroscopicity, volatility, and BC particle observations. In addition to aerosol
134 mixing state measurements, the AQ-SOFAR campaign includes measurements of aerosol number size
135 distribution, chemical composition, aerosol scattering, and absorption properties. Aerosol number size
136 distributions in the diameter range of 13 nm–4 μm were measured by the scanning mobility particle
137 sizer (13–550 nm) and the aerodynamic aerosol classifier (100 nm–4 μm), and they are merged by
138 assuming an aerosol density of 1.6 g/cm^3 . The total BC mass concentrations were determined using an
139 aethalometer (Magee, AE33; Drinovec et al., 2015); more information on the correction of absorption
140 measurements and mass concentration calculations is available in Luo et al. (2022). All aerosol
141 measurement instruments were housed in a temperature-controlled container at 24 $^{\circ}\text{C}$. The inlet was
142 switched among three impactors: TSP (Total Suspended Particles), $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ (Particulate Matter with an
143 aerodynamic diameter of less than 2.5 μm), and PM_1 (Particulate Matter with an aerodynamic diameter
144 of less than 1 μm). Inlet changes among impactors affect dry-state aerosol sampling owing to ambient
145 aerosols are enlarged through aerosol hygroscopic growth or activation. However, the aerosol mixing
146 state and aerosol chemical composition measurements were made on submicron aerosols, and the inlet
147 change almost did not affect those measurements under conditions of RH less than 90%. The sampled
148 aerosol was dried by two parallelly assembled Nafion dryers with a length of 1.2 m. Two Nafion driers
149 used because of the high RH and sample flow rate ($\sim 16 \text{ L}/\text{min}$) during the campaign to ensure drying
150 efficiency. The flow rate is carefully adjusted in the inlet in order to ensure accurate aerosol particle
151 size cutoff. In addition, during autumn and winter in the NCP, ambient air temperature ($<20 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ and
152 sometimes $<0 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$) can be significantly lower than the room temperature ($\sim 24 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$). Therefore, this dryer
153 system can maintain the RH of sampled aerosols to below 20%. Meteorological data such as
154 temperature, pressure, wind speed, wind direction, and RH were obtained from an automatic weather
155 station operated by the station.

156 The chemical composition of the submicron aerosols was analyzed using a High-Resolution
157 Time-of-Flight Aerosol Mass Spectrometer (HR-ToF-AMS). The ionization efficiency (IE) was

158 calibrated using 300 nm diameter pure NH_4NO_3 particles, following the standard protocols outlined in
159 Jayne et al. (2000) in the middle of the campaign, with the relative ionization efficiency (RIE) of
160 ammonium determined to be 5.26. The RIE of sulfate was 1.28 using pure $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ particles, and
161 the default RIEs of 1.4 for organic aerosols, 1.1 for nitrates, and 1.3 for chlorides were used as the
162 organic aerosols. The composition-dependent collection efficiency reported by Middlebrook et al.
163 (2012) was used. Elemental ratios were derived using the “Improved-Ambient (I-A)” method as
164 described in Canagaratna et al. (2015), including hydrogen to carbon (H/C), oxygen to carbon (O/C),
165 and organic mass to organic carbon (OM/OC) ratios. Two primary organic aerosol (POA) and two
166 oxygenated organic aerosol (OOA) factors were identified by High-Resolution Positive Matrix
167 Factorization (HR-PMF; Ulbrich et al., 2009; Paatero and Tapper, 1994). This study used the
168 summation of the two OOA factors to represent secondary organic aerosols (SOA). The mass spectra
169 of the organic aerosol (OA) factors and their correlations with external species are shown in Figs. S1
170 and S2. The Biomass Burning Organic Aerosol (BBOA) spectrum was characterized by abundant
171 fragments of m/z 60 (mainly $\text{C}_2\text{H}_4\text{O}_2^+$) and 73 (mainly $\text{C}_3\text{H}_5\text{O}_2^+$), two indicators of biomass burning
172 (Mohr et al., 2009). BBOA correlated well with $\text{C}_2\text{H}_4\text{O}_2^+$ ($R^2=0.91$) and $\text{C}_3\text{H}_5\text{O}_2^+$ ($R^2=0.90$). Consistent
173 with previous studies in Beijing (Xu et al., 2019), the PMF analysis revealed a mixed factor named
174 Fossil Fuel Organic Aerosol (FFOA), which comprises traffic emissions and coal combustion and is
175 characterized by a typical hydrocarbon ion series. FFOA had a relatively high f_{44} (0.083) value, which
176 was likely due to aging during regional transportation, similar to the results observed in the winter of
177 2016 in Beijing (Xu et al., 2019) and coal combustion organic aerosols in Gucheng (Chen et al., 2022).
178 Secondary organic aerosol formation from volatile organic compound precursors could occur in
179 different formation pathways, such as aqueous-phase, heterogeneous, or gas-phase reactions. It might
180 also be oxidized under different conditions, such as oxidation under different nitrogen oxide conditions
181 with different oxidation capacities and oxidants. The two resolved OOA factors displayed different
182 spectral patterns, correlations with tracers, and diurnal variations, suggesting that they resulted from
183 different chemical processes. However, their formation mechanisms remain to be explored in future
184 studies. In general, the OOA factor 1 (OOA1) has higher $\text{CO}_2^+/\text{C}_2\text{H}_3\text{O}^+$ (3.9) and O/C (0.91) ratios
185 than OOA factor 2 (OOA2) with 2.1 and 0.78, respectively.

186 This study did not consider losses in the inlet line and sampling systems for the following
187 reasons: (1) investigated mixing state parameters are represented by number fractions (NFs) of
188 different diameters, which are much less affected by losses in sampling systems compared with
189 absolute number concentrations; and (2) good consistency was achieved between measurements of
190 particle number size distributions (PNSD) and mass concentrations measured by AMS. The average
191 ratio between volume concentration derived from AMS and rBC measurements (densities of
192 compounds are the same as Kuang et al., 2021) and the volume concentration derived from PNSD
193 measurements was 0.79 ($R=0.97$, as shown in Fig. S3), consistent with previous reports as AMS cannot
194 detect aerosol components, such as dust (Kuang et al., 2021).

195 **2.2 Aerosol mixing states measurement techniques**

196 **2.2.1 DMA-CCNC measurements**

197 The CCN activity of the particles under supersaturated conditions was measured using a DMA-
198 CCNC system, which consisted of a differential mobility analyzer (DMA; model 3081, TSI, Inc., MN,
199 USA), condensation particle counter (CPC; model 3756, TSI, Inc., MN, USA), and continuous-flow
200 CCNC (model CCN100, Droplet Measurement Technologies, USA). The system was operated in size-
201 scanning mode and provided the Size-resolved Particle Activation Ratio (SPAR) by combining CPC
202 and CCNC measurements at different particle sizes. To compare the instruments, three
203 supersaturations (SSs) of 0.08%, 0.14%, and 0.22% were applied in a single cycle of approximately
204 15 min. CCN measurements under these three SSs revealed that the CCN activity of aerosols resides
205 in the accumulation mode with an aerosol diameter range of approximately 100–200 nm, which is
206 close to the diameters of the HV-TDMA measurements. Higher SSs would reveal CCN activities of
207 smaller aerosol particles (<100 nm), where the DMA-SP2 measurement is unavailable. The sample
208 and sheath flow rates of DMA were set at 1 and 5 lpm, respectively, resulting in a measured particle
209 diameter range of 9–500 nm, with a running time of 5 min per cycle. Supersaturation in the CCNC
210 was calibrated with monodisperse ammonium sulfate particles (Rose et al., 2008) before and after the
211 campaign. The flow rates were also calibrated before and after the campaign and checked daily to
212 minimize uncertainties in droplet counting and supersaturation formed in the column (Roberts and
213 Nenes, 2005; Lance et al., 2006). SPAR deviations due to multiple-charge particles were corrected

214 using a modified algorithm based on Hagen and Alofs (1983) and Deng et al. (2011). Further details
215 regarding this system can be found in Ma et al. (2016) and Tao et al. (2021).

216 **2.2.2 H/V-TDMA measurements**

217 The mixing state of the aerosols in terms of hygroscopicity and volatility was measured using a
218 Hygroscopicity/Volatility Tandem Differential Mobility Analyzer (H/V-TDMA; Tan et al., 2013). The
219 H/V-TDMA consisted of two DMA (Model 3081 L, TSI Inc.), with the first DMA (DMA1) selecting
220 dried particles without conditioning (RH ~15%) and the second DMA (DMA2) selecting conditioned
221 particles. H/V-TDMA can operate in either H- or V-mode, controlled by a three-way solenoid valve.
222 A Nafion humidifier was used in the H-mode to condition the selected dry particles to 90% RH
223 equilibrium. The number-size distribution of humidified particles (D_p) was measured using DMA2 and
224 CPC (Model 3772, TSI Inc.). The RH-dependent hygroscopic growth factor (GF) at a specific diameter
225 (D_d) was calculated as follows:

$$226 \quad GF = \frac{D_p(RH)}{D_d} \quad (1)$$

227 where $D_p(RH)$ is the size of particles undergoing humidification. Four dry electrical mobility diameters
228 (50, 100, 150, and 200 nm) were measured in this mode. The instrument was regularly calibrated using
229 standard polystyrene latex spheres (PSL) and ammonium sulfate particles.

230 In V-mode, a heated tube evaporated the volatile coatings from the previously selected dry
231 particles. Six temperature settings were used for the heated tube, ranging from 25–200°C. The number-
232 size distributions of the heated particles were measured using DMA2 and CPC. In addition to the four
233 particle sizes measured in the H-mode, three additional particle sizes (250, 300, and 350 nm) were
234 measured in the V-mode (residence time inside the heated tube to be about 1.6 s; Hong et al., 2017).
235 The temperature-dependent shrinkage factor (SF), which is the ratio of heated particle size to dry
236 particle size without heating (D_d), is defined as:

$$237 \quad SF = \frac{D_p(T)}{D_d} \quad (2)$$

238 where $D_p(T)$ denotes the particle diameter during heating. A complete cycle of H-mode
239 measurements under one RH condition and V-mode measurements at six temperatures took
240 approximately 3 h. The Probability Density Function (PDF) of the GF (or SF) was calculated from the

241 measured density function using the inversion algorithm described by Stolzenburg and McMurry
242 (2008).

243 **2.2.3 DMA-SP2 measurements**

244 The size-resolved BC mixing states were measured using an SP2 (Droplet Measurement
245 Technology, Inc., USA) after DMA (Model 3081, TSI, USA). The DMA selected aerosols of various
246 dry particle sizes, which were then introduced into SP2. The DMA-SP2 setup was able to measure the
247 mixing states of aerosols with diameters (detection limit of approximately 80 nm based on the
248 calibration) of 100, 120, 160, 200, 235, 270, 300, 335, 370, 400, 435, 470, 500, 535, 570, 600, 635,
249 670, and 700 nm within 20 min when it was not placed after an denuder-bypass switch system (during
250 the following time periods: the 13th to the 24th of October, 09:00 am of the 5th of November to 09:00
251 am of the 8th of November). However, it only measured mixing states at diameters of 120, 160, 200,
252 250, 300, 400, and 500 nm when it was placed after a thermodenuder-bypass switch system (during
253 the following time periods: 11:00 am of the 24th of October to 08:00 am of the 5th of November, and
254 09:00 am of the 8th of November to 06:00 pm of the 17th of November). Because the HTDMA and
255 VTDMA measurements were conducted solely by a single H/VTDMA system operating in different
256 modes, the time needed for a single particle size measurement of HTDMA and VTDMA was much
257 longer than that of the DMA-SP2 system. Thus, for the same measurement cycle (2h), more particle
258 sizes were selected in the DMA-SP2 system to acquire the BC mass concentration and mixing state at
259 larger diameters than HTDMA and VTDMA.

260 The SP2 chamber had a continuous Nd:YAG laser beam with a wavelength of 1064 nm. The BC-
261 containing particles passing through the laser beam become incandescent by absorbing radiation. The
262 mass concentration of the BC was calculated by measuring the intensity of the emitted incandescent
263 light. The sheath flow/sample flow ratio was maintained at 10 for the DMA to reduce the width of the
264 diameter distribution of the selected monodisperse aerosols. Additionally, the flow rate of the SP2 was
265 changed from 0.1 to 0.12 L/min starting on the 22nd of October (allowed flow rate range of SP2: 0.03–
266 0.18 L/min from the specification). SP2 was calibrated using quadag soot particles, as reported by
267 Gysel et al. (2011). Further details regarding the calibrations are provided in Section 1 of the
268 Supplementary Information.

269 **2.3 Derivations of mixing state parameters**

270 **2.3.1 Fitting SPAR curves measured by the DMA-CCNC system**

271 The SPAR curves were parameterized using a sigmoidal function with three parameters. As
272 shown in Fig. S4, a sigmoidal curve generally characterized the measured SPAR. This
273 parameterization assumes that the aerosol is an external mixture of CCN-active hydrophilic and CCN-
274 inactive hydrophobic particles (Rose et al., 2010). The formula used to parameterize the SPAR ($R_a(D_d)$)
275 for a specific SS is as follows (Rose et al., 2008):

$$276 \quad R_a(D_d) = \frac{\text{MAF}}{2} \left(1 + \operatorname{erf} \left(\frac{D_d - D_a}{\sqrt{2}\pi\sigma} \right) \right) \quad (7)$$

277 where erf denotes the error function. The Maximum Activation Fraction (MAF) is an asymptote of the
278 measured SPAR curve for large particles, as shown in Fig. S4, representing the number fraction of
279 CCNs relative to the total number of particles. D_a is the midpoint activation diameter, is linked to the
280 hygroscopicity of the CCNs, and indicates the diameter where the SPAR equals half of the MAF value.
281 The σ is the standard deviation of the cumulative Gaussian distribution function and characterizes the
282 heterogeneity of CCN hygroscopicity. In Fig. S4, the σ indicates the slope of the steep increase in the
283 SPAR curves when the diameter is close to D_a . Generally, hydrophilic particles larger than D_a can
284 become CCN. Therefore, these three parameters can be used to characterize the hygroscopicity of these
285 hydrophilic particles. This study did not consider the impact of nearly hydrophobic particles on SPAR,
286 as deviations from this parameterization scheme due to this impact were negligible at low SSs, as
287 stated in Tao et al. (2020).

288

289 **2.3.2 Classification of particle type based on hygroscopicity or volatility**

290 In this study, ambient aerosol particles were classified into two groups based on their
291 hygroscopicity (hydrophobic and hydrophilic) and two groups based on their volatility (non-volatile
292 and volatile) based on the measurements from H/V-TDMA (Wehner et al., 2009; Liu et al., 2011;
293 Zhang et al., 2016). Each group can be defined using the critical values of GF or SF as follows:
294 hydrophobic population: $\text{GF} < \text{GF}_C$; hydrophilic population: $\text{GF} \geq \text{GF}_C$; non-volatile population: $\text{SF} \geq \text{SF}_C$;
295 and volatile population: $\text{SF} < \text{SF}_C$.

296 The critical values of GF (GF_C) and SF (SF_C) in H/V-TDMA depend on the particle size and
297 working conditions, such as relative humidity and heating temperature. During this campaign, the SF_C

298 was set to 0.85 for all seven measured particle sizes at a temperature of 200 °C. The GF_C for the four
 299 measured particle sizes of 50, 100, 150, and 200 nm were 1.1, 1.15, 1.175, and 1.2, respectively, and
 300 the corresponding hygroscopicity parameter, κ , was approximately 0.07. These values of GF_C and SF_C
 301 divide the probability density functions (PDFs) of SF and GF into two modes as shown in Figure 2c,
 302 consistent with prior NCP studies (Liu et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2016), and may be different from
 303 those GF_C and SF_C in other studies because of the difference in aerosol micro-physical properties. The
 304 NF for the hydrophilic group (NF_H) and volatile group (NF_V) can be calculated as follows:

$$305 \quad NF_H = \int_{GF_C}^{\infty} GFPDF(GF)dGF \quad (7)$$

$$306 \quad NF_V = \int_0^{SF_C} SFPDF(SF)dSF \quad (8)$$

307 where $GFPDF$ and $SFPDF$ are the PDFs of GF and SF, respectively, derived from H/V-TDMA
 308 measurements.

309 **2.3.3 Classification of particle type based on DMA-SP2 measurements**

310 BC-containing particles can be categorized into two groups based on coating thickness: bare
 311 BC/thinly coated BC particles and thickly coated BC particles. For the measurement of coated BC
 312 particles at SP2, the incandescence signal is generally detected later than the scattering signals and the
 313 time difference between the occurrence of the peaks of the incandescence and scattering signals is
 314 defined as the lag time (Moteki & Kondo, 2007; Sedlacek et al., 2012; Subramanian et al., 2010). The
 315 coating thickness of BC-containing particles in the SP2 measurement can be indicated by the lag time
 316 (Moteki and Kondo, 2007; Schwarz et al., 2006; Sedlacek et al., 2012; Subramanian et al., 2010;
 317 Metcalf et al., 2012), which has exhibited a clear two-mode distribution in previous studies (Zhang et
 318 al., 2018; Zhao et al., 2021). A critical lag time threshold can be used to differentiate between the
 319 different types of BC-containing particles and calculate the NF of bare and coated BC particles in the
 320 total identified particles. In this study, a two-mode distribution of the lag time (Δt) was observed, and
 321 a critical value of 0.8 μs was used to classify the BC-containing particles into thinly coated (or bare)
 322 BC ($\Delta t < 0.8 \mu s$) and thickly coated BC ($\Delta t \geq 0.8 \mu s$). The definitions of all abbreviations are listed in
 323 Table 1.

324 **3 Results and discussions**

325 **3.1 Campaign overview**

326 The time series of the meteorological parameters, aerosol mixing state measurements using
327 different techniques, and mass concentrations of the aerosol chemical components are shown in Fig.
328 1. In detail, the measurements of aerosol mixing states include SPAR at an SS of 0.08% by DMA-
329 CCNC, GF-PDF (PDF of GF) at 200 nm by HTDMA, SF-PDF (PDF of SF) at 200 nm and 200 °C by
330 VTDMA, and lag time PDF of 200 nm BC-containing particles by DMA-SP2. The SIA, SOA, POA,
331 and BC mass concentrations are shown in Fig. 1 (b). Three periods with significantly different aerosol
332 pollution conditions were identified during the campaign. As shown in Fig. 1(b), before the 23rd of
333 October (moderately polluted period), the accumulation of aerosols led to SIA mass concentrations
334 $<20 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. In contrast, the highest mass concentrations of SOA, POA, and BC all reached $10 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$.
335 The mass concentrations of different aerosol components increased significantly from the 23rd of
336 October to the 6th of November (heavily polluted period with an average non-refractory PM_{10} mass
337 concentration of $49.5 \pm 22.5 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) and decreased to much lower levels after the 6th of November
338 (clean period with a non-refractory PM_{10} mass concentration of $5.1 \pm 3.3 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$). Two particle groups
339 were identified concerning the CCN activity, hygroscopicity, volatility, and coating thickness, as
340 demonstrated by the SPAR, GF-PDF, SF-PDF, and lag-time PDF of BC-containing particles.
341 Significant variations in the aerosol mixing states were also observed during the three periods with
342 different pollution conditions, as demonstrated by the variations in SF-PDF measured by VTDMA.
343 For example, the SF of the non-volatile particle group decreased during the heavily polluted period.
344 Aerosol mixing states may have changed because of various transformations in existing aerosol
345 particles and distinct secondary formation processes under different pollution conditions (Kuang et al.,
346 2020; Tao et al., 2021; Shi et al., 2022; Yang et al., 2022). Diurnal variations in the mass concentrations
347 of different aerosol chemical components and mixing states can be observed in the variations in the
348 SPAR measurements, as previously observed in this region (Liu et al., 2011; Ma et al., 2012; Kuang
349 et al., 2015; Tao et al., 2020).

350 Fig. 2 shows the campaign-averaged SPAR at the three SSs, PDF of the lag time of BC-containing
351 particles, GFPDF, and SFPDF at 200 °C for different particle sizes. The sigmoidal SPAR curves were
352 characterized by a rapid increase, followed by a gradual increase to unit 1, similar to the measured

353 SPAR curves previously observed in this region (Deng et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2014; Ma et al., 2016;
354 Tao et al., 2018). At lower SSs, the particle size required for CCN activation was larger; thus, rapid
355 increases in the SPAR curves occurred at larger particle sizes as expected. In addition, the maximum
356 AR of the SPAR curves decreases as fewer particles are CCN-active under low SSs. For the three
357 measured SSs, the particle sizes where SPAR equals approximately 0.5 are approximately 90, 120,
358 and 180 nm for the three SSs of 0.08%, 0.14%, and 0.22%, respectively, consistent with the average
359 D_a (see Eq. 7) values of the campaign. The NF of CCN-active particles in large-diameter ranges (which
360 varies with SS and, for example, is greater than 200 nm for 0.08%) can be indicated by the gradual
361 increase in the SPAR curves and quantified by the fitting parameter, MAF (see Eq. 7). The PDFs of
362 the lag time, GF, and SF were all characterized by a bimodal distribution, which indicates two particle
363 groups of BC-containing particles with different coating thicknesses, hygroscopicity, and volatility.
364 The variations in the aerosol mixing states were further analyzed based on the measured mixing state
365 parameters.

366 **3.2 Intercomparisons among aerosol mixing state parameters derived using four techniques**

367 The size-dependent characteristics of the aerosol mixing state parameters derived from the
368 measurements of the four techniques and the MFs of different aerosol chemical components during
369 the three pollution periods are shown in Fig. 3. In general, the size-dependent characteristics of MAF,
370 NF_H , NF_V , and NF_{noBC} were similar, suggesting that they were likely dominated by the same particle
371 group, namely BC-free particles. This particle group had the highest number fraction (>0.7) during the
372 heavily polluted period and the lowest number fraction (down to 0.5) during the clean period, with the
373 fraction decreasing with increasing particle size. This suggests that primary emissions tend to have
374 higher number fractions of BC-containing particles in larger diameter ranges; for example, the number
375 fraction of BC-containing particles increases from ~ 0.1 to ~ 0.4 as the particle size increases from 200
376 to 500 nm during the clean period. Because the bulk aerosol MF is mostly contributed by particles >300
377 nm, there may have been more hydrophilic, volatile, CCN-active, and BC-free particles with larger
378 sizes (>300 nm) during the heavily polluted period owing to strong SA formation in larger diameter
379 ranges (Kuang et al., 2020), resulting in a higher NF of these particles compared to the clean period.
380 As for R_{exBC} , which is defined as the number concentration ratio of externally mixed BC particles in
381 total BC-containing particles, the small size dependence of R_{exBC} during the moderately polluted period

382 might have been associated with stronger primary emissions, while the decrease in R_{exBC} with
383 increasing particle diameter in the polluted period confirmed that SA formation is more efficient for
384 particles with larger diameters.

385 As for the difference among the aerosol mixing state parameters, NF_V and NF_{noBC} agreed with
386 each other with a <0.1 difference, and both were higher than NF_H by at least $0.1 NF_H$ in the moderately
387 polluted period. Compared with NF_{noBC} , NF_V was higher during the heavily polluted period, when the
388 nitrate mass fraction was the highest ($\sim 30\%$). The SOA mass fraction was the lowest ($\sim 7\%$) among all
389 three periods, suggesting that some BC-containing particles in this period were also identified as
390 volatile, consistent with the fact that the formation of semi-volatile nitrate in BC-containing particles
391 increases their volatility. However, during the clean period, NF_V was even lower than NF_{noBC} ,
392 suggesting that some BC-free particles were characterized as low volatile and non-negligible number
393 fractions of BC-free particles dominated these less volatile aerosol components, which were likely less
394 volatile organic aerosols (not likely contributed by BC-containing particles with a BC smaller than the
395 SP2 detection limit, because this type of volatile BC-containing particles has an SF lower than 0.4
396 ($=80 \text{ nm}/200 \text{ nm}$), which is substantially lower than the threshold SF of 0.85 for NF_V calculation). In
397 addition, the MAF values generally agreed with the NF_H during the clean period. However, they were
398 larger than the NF_H during the moderately and heavily polluted periods (by ~ 0.2) when the POA/SOA
399 mass fractions were higher ($\sim 40\%$ vs. $\sim 35\%$). POA generally has a lower hygroscopicity than SOA.
400 The critical κ of hydrophilic mode aerosols was 0.07, suggesting that a higher number fraction of
401 aerosols had κ below 0.07 (i.e., hydrophobic mode aerosols in this study) during the moderately
402 polluted period. However, under supersaturated conditions, they demonstrate enhanced hygroscopicity
403 by becoming CCN-active. NF_H was consistently lower than NF_V and NF_{noBC} (the average difference
404 between NF_H and NF_{noBC} was approximately 0.2). As mentioned above, NF_H was also lower than MAF
405 during moderately polluted periods, and there may be a significant number fraction of volatile BC-free
406 particles with hygroscopicity lower than the critical κ value of 0.07; however, they were still CCN-
407 active and therefore not fully hydrophobic.

408 The diurnal variations in MAF, NF_H , NF_V , and NF_{noBC} , along with the MFs of the aerosol
409 chemical components during the three periods, are shown in Fig. 4. Except for a particle size of 50 nm,
410 the diurnal variations in these four mixing state parameters were generally similar for all measured

411 sizes. The different diurnal variations at a particle size of 50 nm may be due to the different effects of
412 emissions and aging processes on the different aerosol modes, as particles <100 nm mainly reside in
413 the Aitken mode, which is where particles >100 nm mainly reside in the accumulation mode (Wang et
414 al., 2022). For particles >100 nm (Fig. 4 and S5), there was a maximum in the afternoon for MAF,
415 NF_H , NF_V , and NF_{noBC} , indicating a peak during this time due to an increase in SA compositions, such
416 as nitrate and SOA, and a decrease in POA and BC. Diurnal variations in the aerosol mixing state
417 parameters and chemical compositions were more pronounced during the moderately polluted period.
418 During heavily polluted periods, the diurnal variation was least pronounced for NF_V and most
419 pronounced for NF_H . In the clean-air period, there was another maximum at midnight for MAF and
420 NF_{noBC} , which may be attributed to the diurnal variations in SA compositions, such as sulfate and SOA,
421 and the decrease in BC and FFOA. The average-size dependence of the aerosol mixing state parameters
422 over different time ranges during a heavily polluted period is shown in Fig. S6. It can be seen that the
423 differences among the four parameters were the least from 12:00 to 18:00, with the most SOA and the
424 least POA. This is consistent with the results shown in Fig. 3, where the difference between the MAF
425 and NF_H decreased when the POA mass fractions were the smallest. R_{exBC} tended to be lower during
426 the daytime, and its diurnal variation was more significant for larger particle sizes. In general, the
427 diurnal variations for R_{exBC} were opposite to those of NF_{noBC} and agreed better with those of the
428 primary aerosol MFs. This is because BC particles originate from primary emissions and are mainly
429 mixed externally. After aging in the atmosphere, BC particles can be coated by SAs, resulting in more
430 coated BC particles and fewer externally mixed BC particles. As SAs tend to form on larger particles,
431 the diurnal variations in SA formation may significantly affect the R_{exBC} of larger particle sizes.

432 As summarized in Table. S1, the comparison among MAF, NF_H , NF_V , and NF_{noBC} was conducted
433 based on their correlations with different particle sizes. Note that the MAF at SSs of 0.08%, 0.14%,
434 and 0.22% were used for comparison at 200, 150, and 100 nm particle sizes. This is because the
435 diameter range of rapid increases in the SPAR curves is determined by aerosol hygroscopicity in this
436 particle size range. The midpoints of the rapidly increasing diameter ranges of the SPAR curves at SSs
437 of 0.08%, 0.14%, and 0.22% were approximately 180 nm, 120 nm, and 90 nm, respectively (as shown
438 in Fig. 2). In general, there were moderate correlations ($r \sim -0.5$) between MAF, NF_H , and NF_V ,
439 suggesting that a similar particle group contributed to the dominance of CCN-active, hygroscopic, and

440 volatile aerosols (Zhang et al., 2016). The agreement between MAF and N_{F_V} was slightly higher than
441 that between MAF and N_{F_H} or between N_{F_H} and N_{F_V} . In detail, compared to the other two, the
442 agreement between MAF and N_{F_V} has a similar correlation coefficients ($r \sim 0.65$) and a smaller
443 systematic differences (slope and intercept were much closer to 1 and 0, respectively). This is
444 consistent with the previous finding that a substantial number fraction of volatile but less hygroscopic
445 aerosols are CCN-active. For smaller particle sizes, the correlation became weaker ($r \sim 0.4$), whereas
446 the degree of reduction was the lowest for the correlation between MAF and N_{F_V} ($r \sim 0.53$).

447 **3.3 Impacts of primary aerosol emissions on aerosol mixing states and parameter** 448 **intercomparisons**

449 Fig. 5 presents the correlation between each aerosol mixing state parameter at 200 nm and the
450 MF of each primary organic aerosol composition during the three periods. The four mixing state
451 parameters (MAF, N_{F_H} , N_{F_V} , and $N_{F_{noBC}}$) were negatively correlated with MF_{FFOA} and MF_{BBOA} .
452 However, the anticorrelation with MF_{FFOA} (-0.45~-0.74) was much stronger than MF_{BBOA} (-0.10~-
453 0.45). Biomass-burning emissions and fossil fuel emissions are the two major sources of BC in the
454 NCP (Yang et al., 2022), and $N_{F_{noBC}}$ was negatively correlated with MF_{FFOA} ($r = -0.49$) and weakly
455 correlated ($r = -0.18$) with MF_{BBOA} , suggesting that fossil fuel emissions were likely the dominant
456 source of BC during this field campaign. The negative correlation between MAF and MF_{FFOA} was
457 weaker than that of $N_{F_{noBC}}$ with MF_{FFOA} (-0.62 vs. -0.49). In particular, at the same MF_{FFOA} , the MAF
458 was lower than $N_{F_{noBC}}$, demonstrating that some BC-free particles were CCN-inactive and were likely
459 mainly composed of organic aerosols from fossil fuel combustion emissions. The negative correlation
460 between N_{F_V} and MF_{FFOA} was slightly weaker than between $N_{F_{noBC}}$ and MF_{FFOA} (-0.56 vs. -0.49). At
461 the same MF_{FFOA} , $N_{F_{noBC}}$ was close to N_{F_V} , and considering that BC-containing particles were
462 dominated by thinly coated BC most of the time (Fig. 5), this demonstrates that the non-volatile
463 population identified by V-TDMA was mainly contributed by BC-containing particles. N_{F_H} had the
464 lowest negative correlation with MF_{FFOA} ($r = -0.74$), demonstrating significant contributions from fossil
465 fuel emissions to nearly hydrophobic aerosol populations. At the same MF_{FFOA} , for example, when
466 conditions of $MF_{FFOA} > 0.1$ were met, $N_{F_H} (< 0.7)$ demonstrated a noticeable decrease compared to
467 $N_{F_{noBC}} (> 0.7)$, and N_{F_H} showed a negative correlation with both MF_{BBOA} and MF_{FFOA} , suggesting that
468 a substantial portion of nearly hydrophobic particles originated from FFOA- or BBOA-dominant rather

469 than BC-containing particles. Additionally, markedly different correlations were observed between
470 MAF and MF_{FFOA} ($r=-0.62$), and between MAF and MF_{BBOA} ($r=-0.2$), implying that nearly
471 hydrophobic but CCN-active aerosols likely originated from biomass burning. The correlations
472 between the ratio of thinly coated BC in the total BC-containing particles (R_{exBC}) and the MFs of
473 BBOA and FFOA are shown in Fig. 6. Weak correlations ($r<0.3$) between R_{exBC} and MF_{BBOA} and
474 MF_{FFOA} were observed. However, R_{exBC} tended to increase with MF_{FFOA} , suggesting that BC-
475 containing particles emitted from fossil fuel combustion tended to be more externally mixed with other
476 aerosol components than those emitted from biomass burning, which is consistent with the results of
477 previous studies (Schwarz et al., 2008; Laborde et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2020). These
478 results demonstrate remarkably different mixing states and the physical and chemical properties of
479 fossil fuel combustion and biomass-burning aerosols.

480 The impact of primary emissions on the differences among the four aerosol mixing state
481 parameters at a particle size of 200 nm was analyzed and is shown in Fig. 7. The difference between
482 NF_{noBC} and NF_H ($NF_{noBC}-NF_H$) was significantly positively correlated with MF_{FFOA} and MF_{BBOA}
483 ($r>0.5$), suggesting that a substantial proportion of POA resided in BC-free particles and was volatile,
484 but contributed substantially to nearly hydrophobic aerosols; as did the differences between NF_V and
485 NF_H (NF_V-NF_H). The MFs of BBOA and FFOA were poorly correlated with the differences between
486 the MAF and NF_V ($MAF-NF_V$), MAF and NF_{noBC} ($MAF-NF_{noBC}$), and NF_V and NF_{noBC} (NF_V-NF_{noBC})
487 (Fig. S7). The difference between MAF and NF_H was positively correlated with MF_{BBOA} , further
488 suggesting that BBOA contributed to nearly hydrophobic aerosols under subsaturated conditions;
489 however, their hygroscopicity was enhanced, and they became CCN-active under supersaturated
490 conditions. The enhanced hygroscopicity of BBOA under supersaturated conditions may be attributed
491 to: (1) surface tension lowered by surface-active organic solutes (Hodas et al., 2016; Ruehl et al., 2016);
492 (2) liquid–liquid phase separation (Ovadnevaite et al., 2017; Liu et al., 2018); (3) dissolution of
493 sparingly soluble compounds at higher saturated conditions (Wex et al., 2009; Dusek et al., 2011); (4)
494 highly viscous organic aerosol which takes up water by surface water adsorption under sub-saturated
495 conditions and by absorption of water under super-saturated conditions (Pajunoja et al., 2015). The
496 correlations between the mixing-state parameters and primary aerosol composition during the
497 campaign and different pollution periods are summarized in Fig. S7.

498 In general, both field and laboratory studies have shown that primary organic aerosols from the
499 combustion of biomass and fossil fuels are less hygroscopic. In laboratory experiment, it is found
500 that organic aerosols produced by fossil fuels have very low hygroscopicity, significantly less than
501 0.1 (Vu et al., 2015, 2017; Fofie et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2018; Mukherjee et al., 2021).
502 Observations have also found that the organic aerosols associated with fossil fuel combustion have
503 low hygroscopicity, which may be due to the low soluble components in FFOA (Qiu et al., 2019; Li
504 et al., 2021). The aerosol composition produced by biomass burning is complex, with a large number
505 of organic aerosols (BBOA) and inorganic components being produced at the initial stage, making
506 important contributions to CCN (Spracklen et al., 2011; Bougiatioti et al., 2016; Pöhlker et al.,
507 2018). These primary organic aerosols (i.e. BBOA) is generally semi-volatile (May et al. 2013) and
508 less hygroscopic (Engelhart et al., 2012; Hennigan et al., 2012), which has a negative contribution to
509 overall hygroscopicity (Bougiatioti et al., 2016; Kuang et al., 2020b, 2021, Cai et al., 2022), resulting
510 in weaker overall aerosol hygroscopicity in the initial stage of the biomass burning (Engelhart et al.,
511 2012, Hennigan et al., 2012, Pöhlker et al., 2018). However, laboratory experiments found that
512 BBOA may contain organic substances with different hygroscopicity under different saturation ratios
513 (Malek et al., 2022), lead to increased hygroscopicity and enhanced CCN activity of BBOA under
514 supersaturation conditions (Hersey et al., 2013). Our results generally agree with previous studies
515 and provide evidences of the enhanced CCN activity of BBOA under supersaturation conditions in
516 field campaigns. Furthermore, the different impacts of aerosols emitted from biomass burning and
517 fossil fuel combustion on CCN is directly observed in this campaign used newly developed advanced
518 aerosol-cloud sampling system, which show that biomass burning aerosols are efficient CCN even
519 under low supersaturations ($<0.05\%$), however, aerosols from fossil fuel combustions can only
520 activate at higher supersaturations ($\sim>0.14\%$). These results suggest simultaneous measurements of
521 aerosol GF distributions, SPAR curves and BC mixing states and their comparisons could shed novel
522 insights into different synergistic hygroscopic, volatile and activation properties of aerosols from
523 different sources in the atmosphere.

524 **3.4 Impacts of SA formation on aerosol mixing states and parameter intercomparisons**

525 The correlations between the aerosol mixing state parameters at 200 nm and the MF of each SA
526 component are presented in Fig. 8 for three periods, and the entire campaign is presented. The analysis

527 is conducted at only 200 nm, where all four aerosol mixing state parameters were measured to compare
528 the four aerosol mixing state parameters and their relationships with aerosol chemical components
529 simultaneously. Generally, MAF, NF_H , NF_V , and NF_{noBC} exhibited strong positive correlations with
530 MF_{NH_4} ($r>0.5$). This is likely because ammonium was mainly formed through neutralizing sulfuric and
531 nitric acids with ammonia; therefore, variations in ammonium better represent overall secondary
532 inorganic aerosol formation. As shown in Fig. 3, the secondary inorganic aerosol components
533 dominated SA (the mass ratio between SIA and SA is approximately 70%), indicating that SA
534 formation was primarily composed of secondary inorganic aerosol formation, which explains the
535 weaker correlation with SOA ($r\sim 0.3$), as shown in Fig. 8.

536 During the clean-air period, when the MFs of SOA and sulfate were both above 15%, all four
537 parameters had a strong positive correlation with MF_{SO_4} and MF_{SOA} ($r>0.5$), suggesting that when a
538 clean background air mass with higher mass fractions of sulfate and SOA prevailed, the local primary
539 emissions that contributed substantially to BC-containing and less hygroscopic POA aerosols became
540 less significant. The positive correlations between the MAF and SA components have been extensively
541 discussed by Tao et al. (2021), who found that SA formation enhances the hygroscopicity of nearly
542 hydrophobic aerosols, thereby increasing CCN activity. This also explains the strong correlation
543 between the NF_H or MAF and ammonium formation. The strong positive correlations between NF_V
544 and SA formation ($r\sim 0.6$) are consistent with the fact that nitrate dominates SA formation during this
545 campaign and is semi-volatile. For the first time, strong positive correlations between NF_{noBC} and SA
546 formation were observed ($r=0.6$). NF_{noBC} depends primarily on the relative variation between BC-
547 containing and BC-free particles. The increase in NF_{noBC} at 200 nm as a function of the SA MF
548 suggests that SAs migrated to a higher mass fraction of BC-free particles smaller than 200 nm to
549 particle size of 200 nm, suggesting that SAs tended to form more quickly on BC-free particles than on
550 BC-containing particles with BC higher than SP2 detection limit. Recent studies reported that catalyst
551 or photochemical reactions on BC particles can contribute the formation of secondary aerosols (Zhang
552 et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2021). Our results may indicate SA formation on BC particles might not be
553 a significant pathway that contribute substantially to haze formation, and the underlying mechanisms
554 need to be further resolved.

555 The effects of SA formation on the differences between the four aerosol mixing state parameters
556 were studied and are illustrated in Fig. 9. The two OOA factors (OOA1 and OOA2) were formed
557 through different chemical pathways. The difference between NF_{noBC} and NF_H ($NF_{noBC}-NF_H$) showed
558 a strong negative correlation with MF_{NH_4} and MF_{NO_3} (mainly -0.6), as did the differences between NF_V
559 and NF_H (NF_V-NF_H). Ammonium nitrate is a pure-scattering semi-volatile compound with strong
560 hygroscopicity, the increase of its mass fraction can enhance both aerosol volatility and hygroscopicity,
561 therefore resulting in a smaller difference between NF_{noBC} , NF_H , and NF_V .

562 Furthermore, the difference between NF_V and NF_H showed a positive correlation with MF_{OOA2}
563 and a negative correlation with MF_{OOA1} , indicating different volatility and hygroscopicity of the two
564 SOA factors. The differences between NF_V and NF_H concerning the MF of OOA1 and OOA2 are
565 shown in Fig. 9(e) and (f), respectively. As previously noted, NF_V was generally higher than NF_H , and
566 the difference between the two decreased with increasing MF_{OOA1} , which was generally smaller than
567 0.3. This suggests that the formation of OOA1 enhances the hygroscopicity of volatile particles, which
568 aligns with the highest oxidation state of OOA1 (higher O/C but lower H/C compared to OOA2) and
569 has a significant and overall positive impact on aerosol hygroscopicity (Cerully et al., 2015; Thalman
570 et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2023). A positive correlation was observed between NF_V and MF_{OOA2}
571 ($r \sim 0.25$).

572 In contrast, the correlation between NF_H and MF_{OOA2} was weak (R was close to 0), implying that
573 OOA2 might be semi-volatile but only weakly hygroscopic, which could contribute to NF_V being
574 higher than NF_H as OOA1 increases. The difference between NF_{noBC} and NF_V ($NF_{noBC}-NF_V$) was
575 negatively correlated with MF_{NO_3} , which is consistent with the semi-volatile nature of nitrate. The
576 negative correlation between $NF_{noBC}-NF_V$ and MF_{OOA2} indicates that the difference is smaller when
577 there is more OOA2, implying that OOA2 is also a semi-volatile compound and is likely formed
578 mainly on BC-free particles (particles with BC mass lower than detection limit are not excluded). The
579 correlations between the differences between NF_V-MAF and $NF_{noBC}-MAF$ and the MF of each SA
580 composition were very weak. The impacts of SA formation on BC mixing states are shown in Fig. S8.
581 In general, the NF of thinly coated BC has a negative correlation with SIA and a weak association with
582 SOA, suggesting that SIA formation mainly enhances the thickness of the BC coating. The correlations
583 between the mixing state parameters and SA composition during the campaign and different pollution

584 periods are summarized in Fig. S9. Our results on OOA agree with previous studies, that OOA are
585 reported to be volatile (Kim et al., 2020; Cai et al., 2022) but can have a positive or negative impact
586 on hygroscopicity depending on its oxidation level (Kim et al., 2020; Kuang et al., 2021; Cai et al.,
587 2022).

588 In addition to changes in the MFs of SA compositions, the accumulation of SA pollution may
589 provide insights into the impact of SA formation on aerosol mixing states. As shown in Fig. 10(a),
590 during the heavily polluted periods, there were two distinct pollution accumulation processes from the
591 23rd to the 27th of October and from the 28th to the 31st of October, respectively. During the pollution
592 accumulation process, the mass concentration of SAs increased by approximately three-fold, indicating
593 the rapid formation of secondary compositions and a significant increase in non-refractory PM₁ (NR-
594 PM₁) mass concentration. Fig. 10(b) and (c) illustrate that this increase in SAs significantly enlarged
595 the value of aerosol mixing state parameters, including MAF, NF_V, NF_H, and NF_{noBC}, which increased
596 from approximately 0.5 to 0.8 with evident diurnal variations. This highlights the impact of SA
597 formation on the aerosol mixing states and the importance of studying the pollution accumulation
598 processes of SAs. The enhancements in the different aerosol mixing state parameters during the
599 pollution accumulation process were not uniform. MAF and NF_H initially exhibited lower values than
600 NF_V and NF_{noBC}; however, their later enhancement was stronger than that of NF_{noBC}. Fig. 10(d) and (e)
601 show the difference between NF_{noBC} and NF_V at 200 and 300 nm as a function of SA mass
602 concentrations during these two pollution periods, which clearly shows how, during SA formation,
603 NF_V became higher than NF_{noBC} while NF_V remained close to the NF of thickly coated BC-containing
604 particles (NF_{CBC}) plus NF_{noBC} (NF_{CBC}+NF_{CBC}). These results suggest that SA formation increases the
605 volatility of BC-free and BC-containing particles, leading to an increased NF_V compared with NF_{noBC}.
606 Almost all BC-free particles and some BC-containing particles become volatile during the
607 accumulation of pollution.

608

609 **4. Conclusions**

610 The aerosol mixing state is one of the most important physicochemical properties of aerosol
611 particles and significantly affects their optical properties and the CCN activity of aerosol particles. The
612 aerosol mixing states vary significantly with complex aerosol emissions and atmospheric

613 transformations. In this study, aerosol mixing states derived from CCN activity, hygroscopicity,
614 volatility, and BC particle observations, along with their relationship to primary aerosol emissions and
615 SA formation, were systematically analyzed based on simultaneous measurements of CCNC,
616 H/VTDMA, and SP2. Statistical analysis demonstrated that the NFs of CCN-active, hygroscopic, and
617 volatile particles were generally positively correlated and mainly contributed by BC-free particles.
618 Therefore, four mixing state parameters were all negatively correlated to either the MFs of BBOA or
619 FFOA because fossil fuel combustion and biomass burning were the two major sources of BC-
620 containing particles during this field campaign. However, the differences between these mixing state
621 parameters varied significantly under different conditions, have shed new insights into aerosol physical
622 and chemical properties and even secondary aerosol formation mechanisms.

623 Fossil fuel combustion and biomass burning emissions represent two major primary sources of
624 global aerosol burden and are dominant primary aerosol sources in this campaign. It is known that the
625 chemical compositions of both these primary sources are dominated by organics and BC. However,
626 the intercomparison results among instruments revealed significant differences in the physical and
627 chemical properties of aerosols emitted from these two sources. The combination of HTDMA, DMA-
628 SP2, as well as aerosol source apportionment confirmed that substantial portions of BC-free aerosols
629 from both biomass burning and fossil fuel combustion are nearly hydrophobic under sub-saturated
630 conditions. Additionally, BC from fossil fuel combustion tends to be more externally mixed with other
631 aerosol compositions than those from biomass burning. However, additional insights from DMA-CCN
632 measurements revealed that substantial portions of BC-free aerosols, nearly hydrophobic from biomass
633 burning, could serve as CCN, while a substantial portion of those from fossil fuel combustion could
634 not. Previous studies have confirmed the hygroscopicity difference of aerosols from biomass burning
635 under sub- and supersaturated conditions in laboratory settings; however, such differences have rarely
636 been confirmed in field measurements. Moreover, comparisons between sub- and supersaturated
637 conditions for aerosols from fossil fuel combustion have been rarely undertaken, even in laboratory
638 studies. This finding is quite important because the ability of primary organic aerosols from biomass
639 burning and fossil fuel combustion is often treated as the same in models (Liu et al., 2021; Pöhlker et
640 al., 2023).

641 Secondary aerosol formation substantially alters aerosol mixing state. The different variations in
642 mixing state parameters can also help reveal mechanisms of secondary aerosol formation. For example,
643 the two resolved SOA factors exhibited different impacts on the differences between N_{F_V} and N_{F_H}
644 ($N_{F_V} - N_{F_H}$), and their correlations with N_{F_V} and N_{F_H} revealed that OOA_1 was more hygroscopic but
645 less volatile, suggesting distinct formation mechanisms for these two OOA factors. Further analysis
646 might help link SOA formation mechanisms to aerosol physical properties, which is important for
647 connecting aerosol chemistry to aerosol climate effects determined by aerosol physicochemical
648 properties. Additionally, variations in size-resolved $N_{F_{noBC}}$ revealed that secondary organic and
649 inorganic aerosol formations led to the migration of BC-free particles towards larger diameters more
650 quickly than that of BC-containing particles. This phenomenon is more likely to occur when aqueous
651 pathways dominate secondary aerosol formation because BC-containing particles generally exhibit
652 weak hygroscopicity and do not favor aqueous processes.

653 The findings of this study highlight the markedly different effects of primary emissions and SA
654 formation on aerosol mixing states and suggest that comparisons of aerosol mixing states obtained
655 using various techniques are useful for gaining insights into the hygroscopicity, volatility, and CCN
656 activity of different aerosols. Recommendations are listed for future studies based on the findings of
657 this study: (1) When exploring the impact of aerosol emissions and secondary aerosol formations on
658 aerosol hygroscopic under sub- and supersaturated conditions, we recommend employing
659 simultaneous DMA-SP2 measurements to better represent BC characteristics; (2) Simultaneous DMA-
660 CCNC, V-HTDMA, and DMA-SP2 measurements could enhance studies on secondary aerosol
661 formation mechanisms. Conversely, if formation mechanisms and pathways are clear, these
662 measurements could elucidate how secondary aerosol formation impacts aerosol physical properties
663 from different aspects. (3) To be cautious in the application of aerosol mixing state parameters from
664 HV-TDMA to conduct aerosol optical property investigations because the suitability of HV-TDMA-
665 derived mixing state parameters for representing BC mixing states is largely dependent on the
666 composition and mass of the secondary aerosols, and DMA-SP2 measurements are recommended for
667 this purpose.

668

669 **Data availability.** The data used in this study are available from the corresponding author upon request
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671 **Competing interests.** The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

672

673 **Author Contributions.**

674 YK and WY planned this campaign and YK designed the aerosol experiments and conceived this
675 research together with JC, and JC wrote the manuscript. JC performed measurements of CCNC, BL
676 performed measurements of SP2 and analyzed SP2 datasets with the help of GZ, WQ and YL
677 performed AMS measurements, LL performed HV-TDMA measurements and conducted post-data
678 processing as well as some of data analysis. BX, HX, MMZ, HZ and SR participated this campaign
679 and helped instruments maintenance. GZ provided full support for the campaign. All authors
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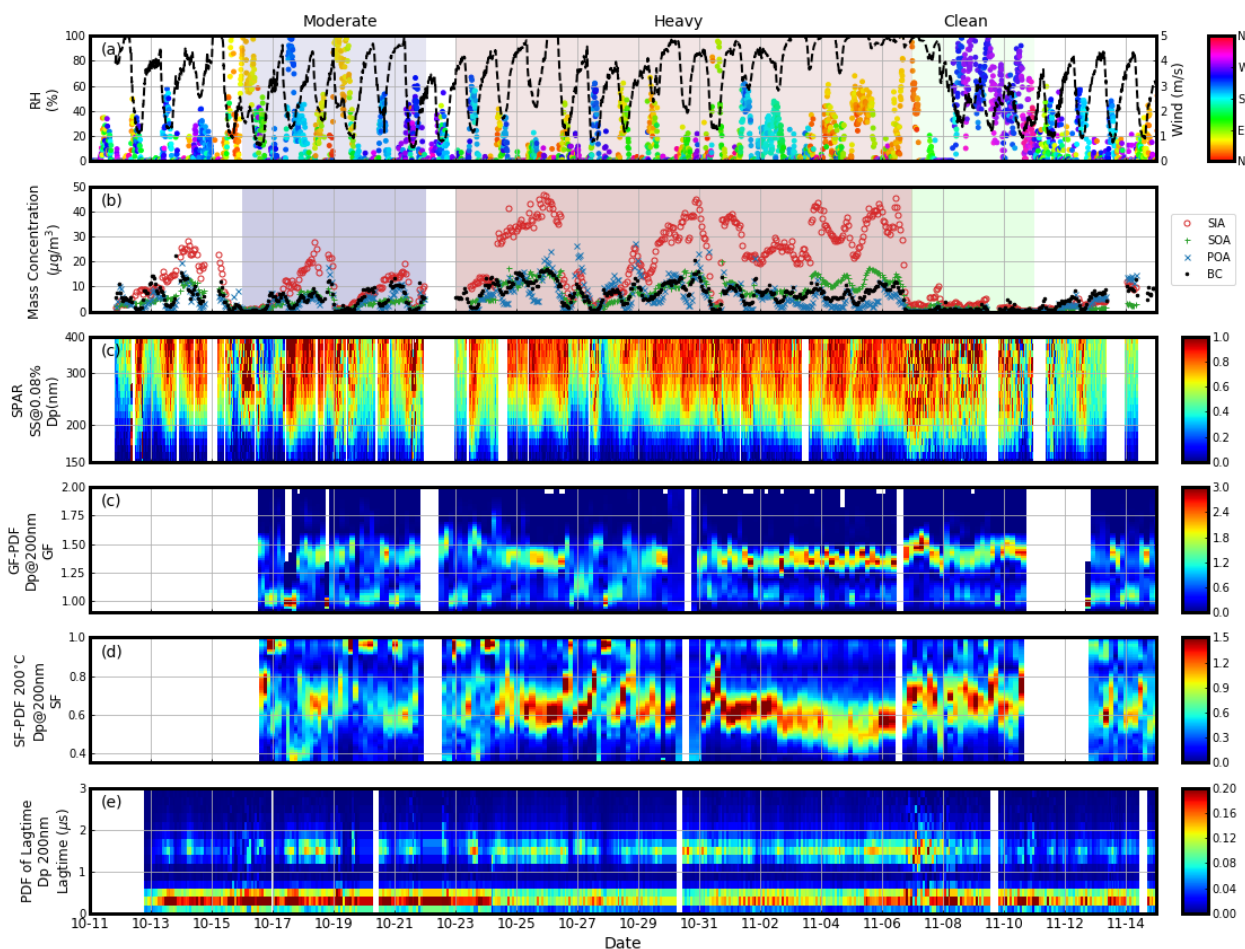
Table 1. Definition and description of abbreviations.

Abbreviation	Full name and/or Definition
	Biomass Burning Organic Aerosol
BBOA	Characterized by obvious m/z 60 (mainly C ₂ H ₄ O ₂ ⁺) and 73 (mainly C ₃ H ₅ O ₂ ⁺), which are two indicators of biomass burning
	Midpoint activation diameter
D_a	Linked to the hygroscopicity of CCNs
	Particle diameter under dry conditions without humidification or heating
D_d	
	Particle diameter after humidification or heating
D_p	
	Growth factor
GF	The ratio between particles with and without humidification and is linked to aerosol hygroscopicity
κ	Hygroscopicity parameter
MF	Mass Fraction
	Maximum Activation Fraction
MAF	An asymptote of the measured SPAR curve at large particle sizes and represents the number fraction of CCNs to total particles
NF _H	Number Fraction of Hydrophilic aerosol whose hygroscopicity parameter is $> \sim 0.07$ at particle size of 50, 100, 150 and 200 nm
NF _V	Number Fraction of Volatile aerosol whose Shrinkage Factor at 200 °C is < 0.85 at particle size of 50, 100, 150 and 200 nm
NF _{noBC}	Number Fraction of black carbon (BC)-free particles at particle size of 200, 250, 300 and 370 nm
NF _{CBC}	Number Fraction of thickly coated BC particles at particle size of 200, 250, 300 and 370 nm
NF _A -NF _B (NF _{noBC} -NF _H , NF _V -NF _H , NF _{noBC} -NF _V , NF _V -MAF,	The difference between the number fraction of A and B at particle size of 200 nm

NF _{noBC} -MAF)	
OOA1 and OOA2	Two OOA factors resolved from the PMF analysis
PDF	Probability Distribution Function
PM _{2.5}	Particulate Matter with an aerodynamic diameter <2.5 μm
PM ₁	Particulate Matter with an aerodynamic diameter <1 μm
POA	Primary Organic Aerosol Summation of BBOA and FFOA
R _{exBC}	The number concentration ratio of externally mixed BC particles in total BC-containing particles Externally mixed BC particles are defined as identified bare/thinly coated BC-containing particles at particle size of 200, 250, 300 and 370 nm
SA	Secondary Aerosols, including nitrate, sulfate, ammonium and the two OOA factors
SF	Shrinkage Factor The ratio between particles with and without heating and is linked to aerosol volatility
SIA	Secondary Inorganic Aerosols, including nitrate, sulfate, and ammonium
SOA	Secondary Organic Aerosols, including the two OOA factors
SPAR	Size-resolved Particle Activation Ratio Size-dependent CCN activity under a specific SS

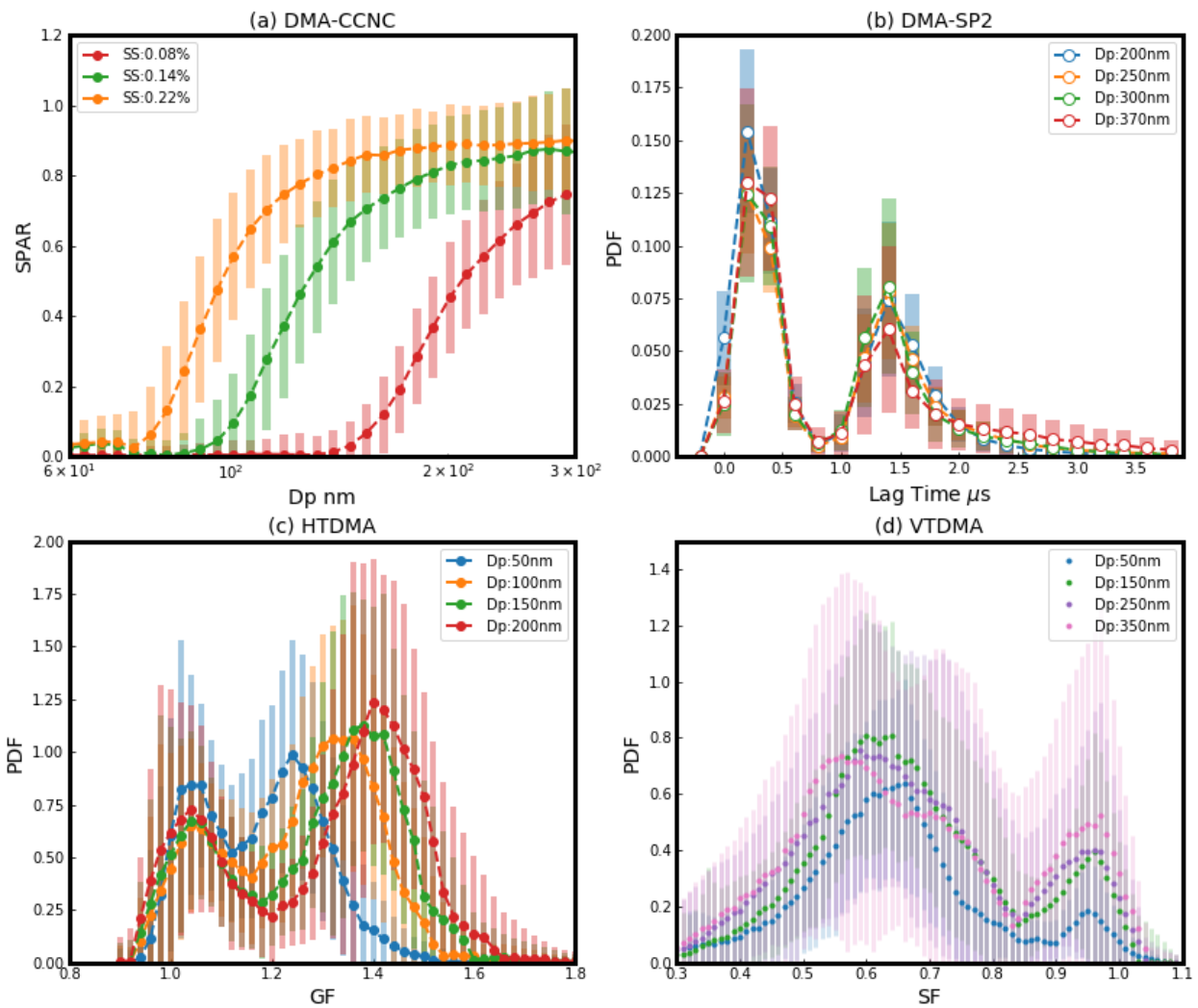
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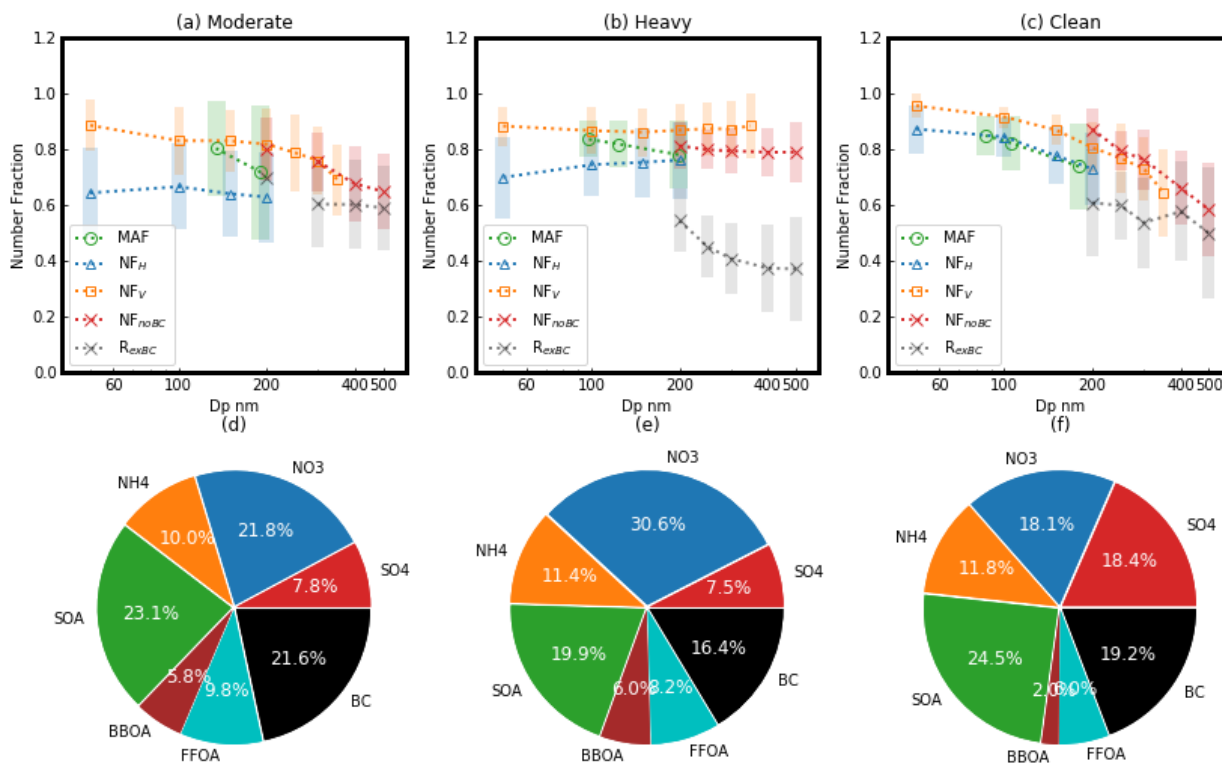
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1175 **Figure 1.** Overview of the measurements during the campaign: **(a)** meteorological parameters: wind speed (dots) and
 1176 relative humidity (RH) (black line), with colors of dots representing wind direction; **(b)** mass concentrations of
 1177 aerosol chemical components: secondary inorganic aerosols (SIA, red circle), secondary organic aerosols (SOA,
 1178 green plus), primary organic aerosols (POA, blue x) and black carbon (BC, black dots); **(c)** Size-resolved Particle
 1179 Activation Ratio (SPAR) under supersaturation (SS) of 0.08% observed by the DMA-CCNC, with warmer colors
 1180 corresponding to higher values; **(d)** Probability Density Function (PDF) of growth factor (GF-PDF) at 200 nm
 1181 observed by the HTDMA; **(e)** PDF of shrinkage factor (SF-PDF) at 200 nm and 200 °C observed by the VTDMA;
 1182 **(f)** PDF of lag time at 200 nm observed by the DMA-SP2. The blue, red, and green shaded periods represent the three
 1183 periods with moderate pollution, heavy pollution, and clean conditions, respectively.



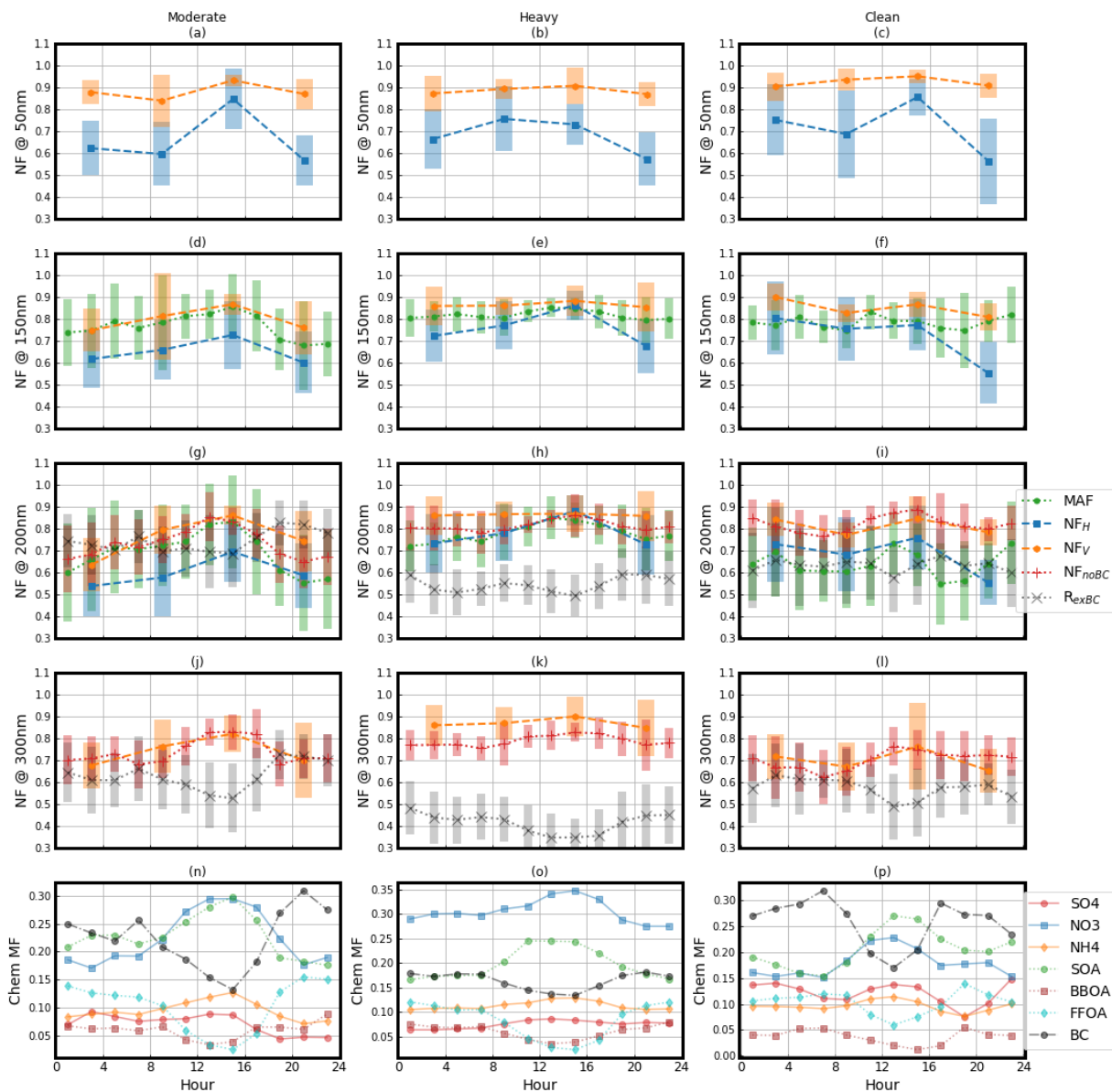
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1185 **Figure 2.** The campaign average of **(a)** Size-resolved Particle Activation Ratio (SPAR) curves measured by DMA-
 1186 CCNC at the three supersaturations (SSs, represented by different colors and markers), **(b)** Probability Density
 1187 Function (PDF) of lag time measured by DMA-SP2 at four particle sizes (represented by different colors and markers),
 1188 **(c)** PDF of growth factor (GF) measured by HTDMA at four particle sizes (represented by different colors and
 1189 markers), **(d)** PDF of shrinkage factor (SF) measured by VTDMA under the temperature of 200 °C at five particle
 1190 sizes (represented by different colors and markers). The shaded areas indicate the standard deviations.



1191

1192 **Figure 3.** (a–c) Size dependence of MAF (green circle), NF_H (blue triangle), NF_V (yellow square), NF_{noBC} (red x),
 1193 and R_{exBC} (black x) during the three periods. **MAF**: Maximum Activation Fraction, an asymptote of the measured
 1194 Size-resolved Particle Activation Ratio (SPAR) curve at large particle. **NF_H** : Number Fraction of Hydrophilic aerosol
 1195 whose hygroscopicity parameter is higher than ~ 0.07 . **NF_V** : Number Fraction of Volatile aerosol whose Shrink Factor
 1196 at $200\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ is lower than 0.85. **NF_{noBC}** : Number Fraction of black carbon (BC)-free particles. **R_{exBC}** : Number fraction
 1197 of externally mixed BC particles in total BC-containing particles. (d–f) Corresponding mass fractions (MFs) of
 1198 aerosol chemical components (identified by colors) during the three periods, including secondary organic aerosols
 1199 (SOA), biomass burning organic aerosol (BBOA), fossil fuel organic aerosols (FFOA), and inorganic ions including
 1200 sulfate (SO₄), nitrate (NO₃), and ammonium (NH₄).

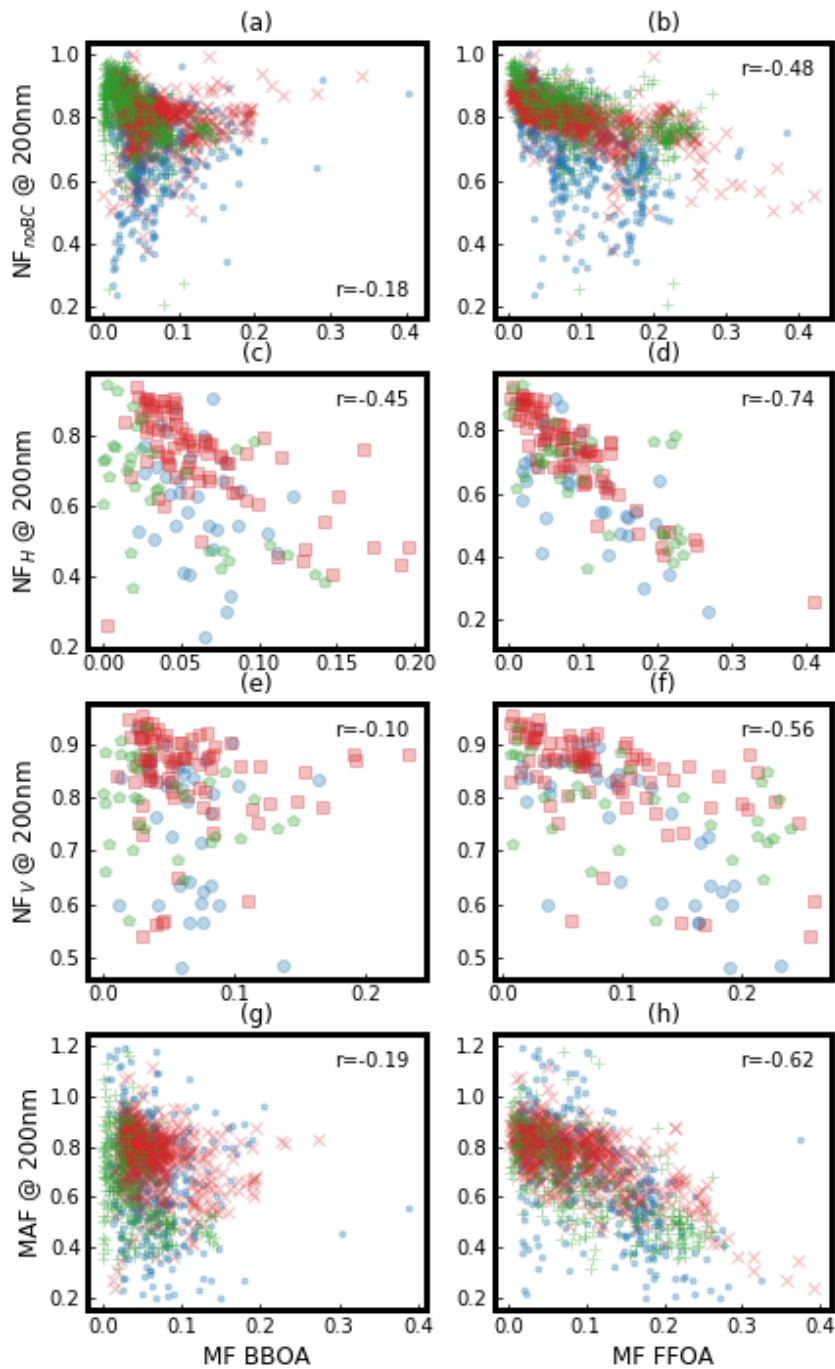


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1202 **Figure 4. (a-l)** Diurnal variations of aerosol mixing state parameters (identified by color and marker) at different
 1203 particle sizes (50, 150, 200, and 300 nm) during the three periods. The shaded areas indicate the standard deviations.

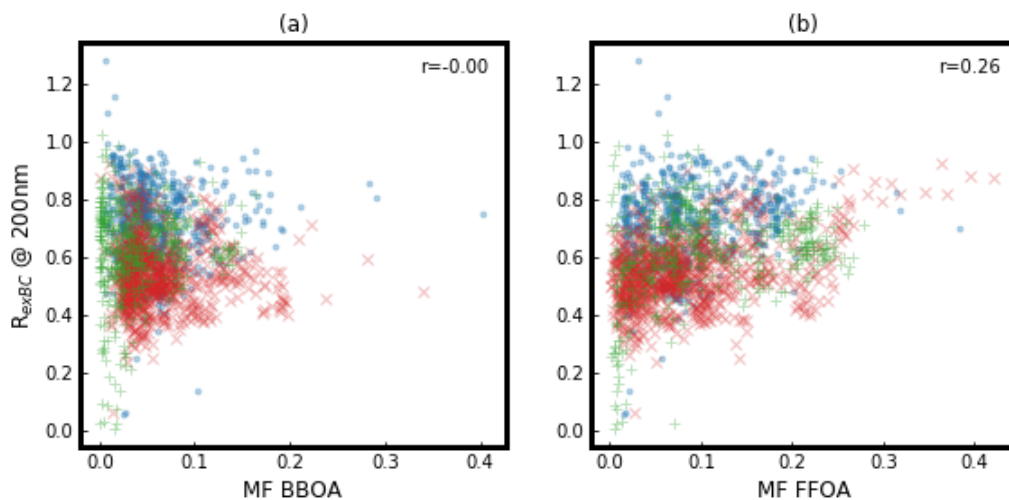
1204 **(m-o)** Diurnal variations of mass fractions (MFs) of aerosol chemical components, including secondary organic
 1205 aerosols (SOA), biomass burning organic aerosol (BBOA), fossil fuel organic aerosols (FFOA), and inorganic ions
 1206 including sulfate (SO₄), nitrate (NO₃), and ammonium (NH₄) (identified by color and marker) during the three periods.

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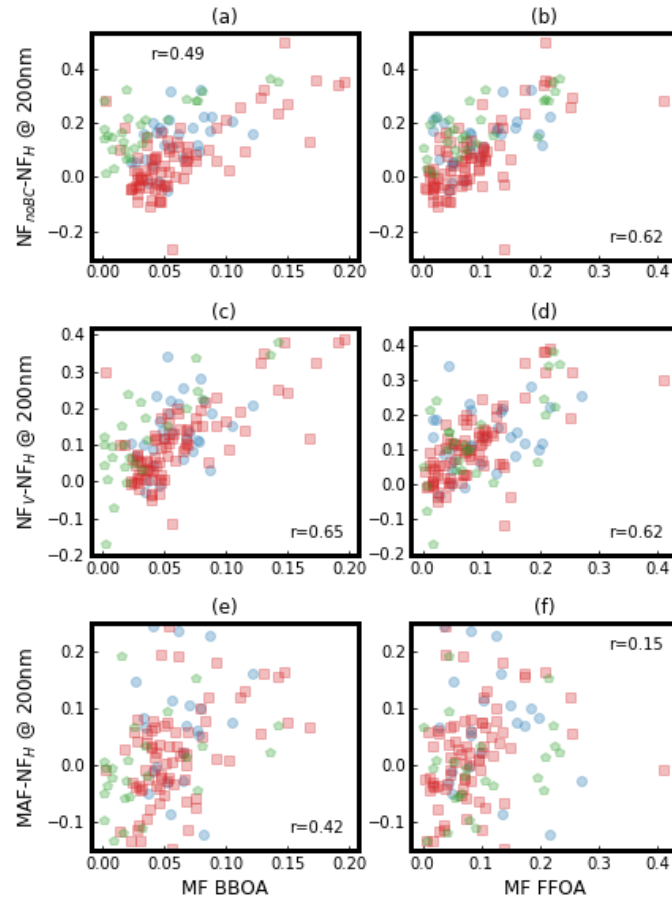
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1209 **Figure 5.** The correlations between aerosol mixing state parameters and mass fractions (MFs) of biomass burning
 1210 organic aerosol (BBOA) and fossil fuel organic aerosols (FFOA) during different periods (moderately polluted period:
 1211 blue dot or circle; heavily polluted period: red x or square; clean period: green plus or pentagon), with r representing
 1212 the correlation coefficient.



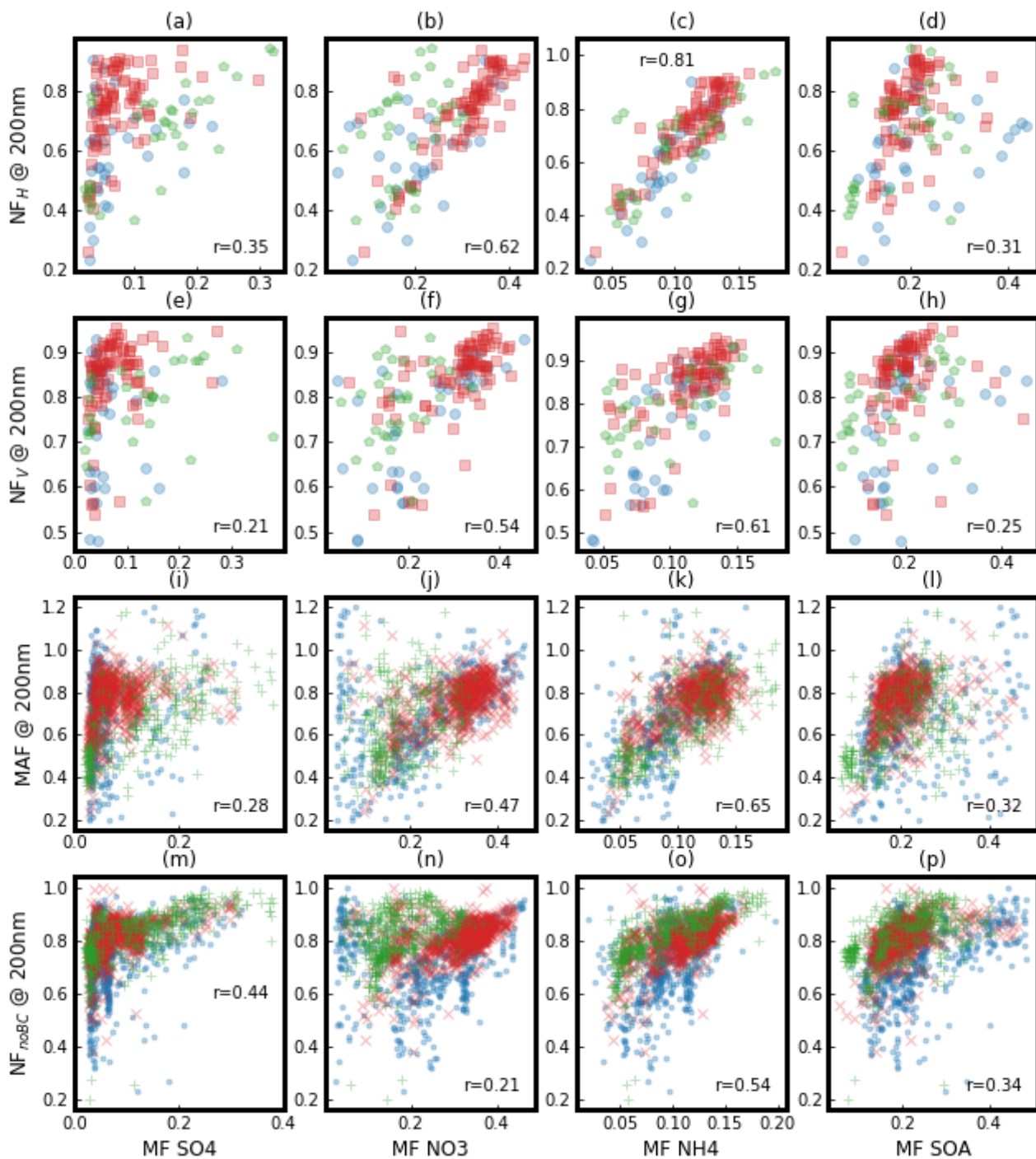
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1214 **Figure 6.** The correlations between the ratio of externally mixed black carbon (BC) in total BC particles (R_{exBC}) and
 1215 mass fractions (MFs) of biomass-burning organic aerosol (**BBOA**) and fossil fuel organic aerosols (**FFOA**) during
 1216 different periods (moderately polluted period: blue dot; heavily polluted period: red x; clean period: green plus), with
 1217 r representing correlation coefficient.



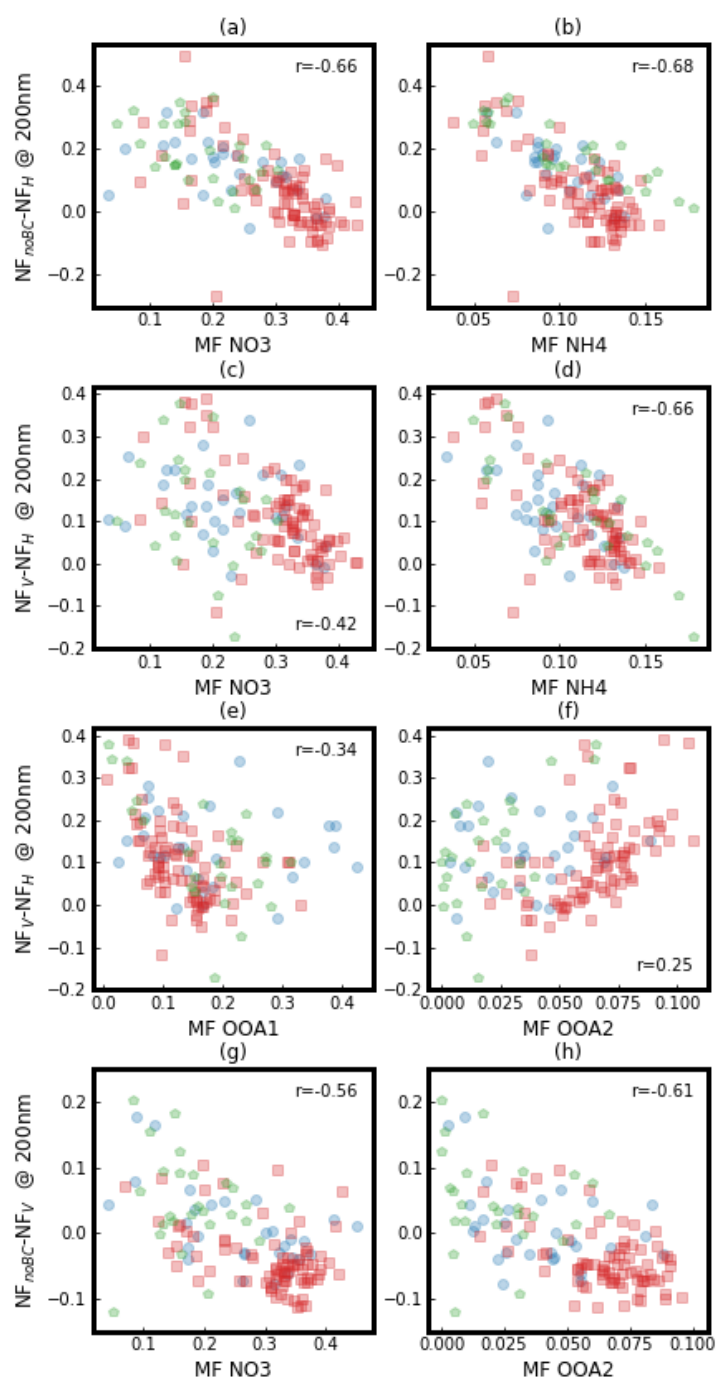
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1219 **Figure 7.** The correlations between the difference among the four aerosol mixing state parameters at particle size 200
 1220 nm and mass fractions (MFs) of biomass burning organic aerosol (**BBOA**) and fossil fuel organic aerosols (**FFOA**)
 1221 during different periods (moderately polluted period: blue circle; heavily polluted period: red square; clean period:
 1222 green pentagon), with r representing correlation coefficient.



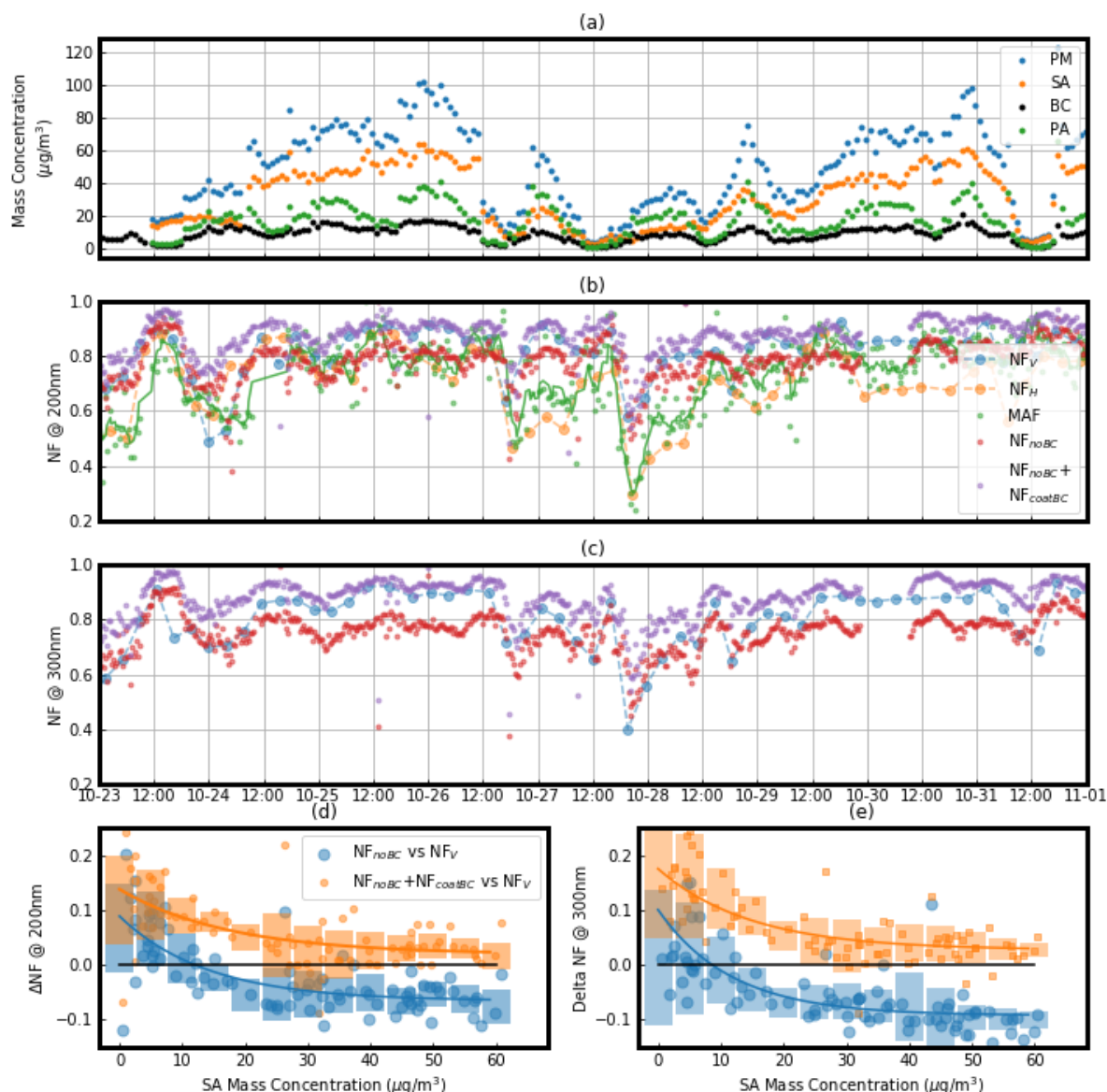
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1224 **Figure 8.** The correlation between the four aerosol mixing state parameters and mass fraction (MF) of secondary
 1225 aerosol (SA) components during different periods (moderately polluted period: blue dot or circle; heavily polluted
 1226 period: red x or square; clean period: green plus or pentagon), with r representing correlation coefficient. SA
 1227 components include secondary organic aerosols (SOA), sulfate (SO₄), nitrate (NO₃), and ammonium (NH₄)



1228

1229 **Figure 9.** The correlation between the difference among the four aerosol mixing state parameters and mass fraction
 1230 (MF) of secondary aerosol (SA) chemical components during different periods. OOA1 and OOA2 are two secondary
 1231 organic aerosol (SOA) factors resolved from aerosol mass spectrometer (AMS) measurements using the Positive
 1232 Matrix Factorization (PMF) technique. Moderately polluted period: blue circle; heavily polluted period: red square;
 1233 clean period: green pentagon.



1234

1235 **Figure 10.** Variations of different aerosol mixing state parameters during the pollution accumulation process. **(a)** The
 1236 time series of mass concentrations of non-refractory PM_{10} (NR- PM_{10}), secondary aerosols (SAs) (including inorganic
 1237 ions and secondary organic aerosols (SOA)), primary organic aerosols (POA) and black carbon (BC) (identified by
 1238 colors and markers). **(b and c)** The variations of different aerosol mixing state parameters (identified by colors and
 1239 markers) at particle size 200 nm **(b)** and 300 nm **(c)**. **(d and e)** The variations of the difference between NF_V and
 1240 NF_{noBC} ($\text{NF}_V - \text{NF}_{noBC}$, blue large circle) and the difference between NF_V and $\text{NF}_{noBC} + \text{NF}_{coatedBC}$ ($\text{NF}_V - (\text{NF}_{noBC} + \text{NF}_{coatedBC})$,
 1241 yellow small circle) with the mass concentration of SA at particle size 200 nm **(d)** and 300 nm **(e)** $\text{NF}_{coatedBC}$: Number
 1242 Fraction of thickly coated black carbon (BC) particles.

1243