

## **Response to anonymous referee #2**

### **General comments:**

The paper, "A novel method for calculating ambient aerosol liquid water contents based on measurements of a humidified nephelometer system" describes a new technique to measure aerosol liquid water content (LWC). The method described has advantages over traditional methods (ie HTDMA) as it measures LWC of aerosols in real time. In addition, this three wavelength nephelometer system measures the entire size distribution at once without assuming a constant growth factor for the entire distribution, as is the case with previous nephelometer measurements. The LWC of aerosols has important implications for climate forcing and atmospheric chemistry and there is a need for a more accurate measurement to reduce uncertainties.

**Response:** Thanks for your comments.

**Comment:** In general, there are large sections of this paper that should be omitted. The content does not support the conclusions of the paper. More importantly, these sections are sometimes confusing and will only distract the reader. This includes the paragraphs describing the relationship between scattering and aerosol volume, which the authors show to be correlated but not easily parameterized. The next section, which describes using the angstrom exponent and HBF to constrain the ratio between scattering and aerosol volume can also be summarized or omitted. The author's conclusion that large bias' will occur if using the "look up table" (fig 4) isn't necessary for the sake of the

papers conclusions. More emphasis needs to be placed on what was done that produced usable results.

**Responses:** Thanks for your comments. We have revised the manuscript substantially. Now the paper has four sections. Section 1 is the introduction. Section 2 is instruments and datasets. Section 3 is methodology. Section 4 is results and discussions. The proposed method has two steps. The first step is calculating  $V_a$  (dry) based on measurements of the “dry” nephelometer using a machine learning method called random forest model. The second step is calculating  $V_g(\text{RH})$  based on Ångström exponent and  $f(\text{RH})$  measured by the humidified nephelometer system. Therefore, Section 3.1 is the closure calculations between measured and calculated scattering coefficients, because the selection of datasets for training is crucial for machine learning method. In Section 3.2, the calculation of  $V_a(\text{dry})$  using the random forest model is discussed. In Section 3.3, the method of calculating  $V_g(\text{RH})$  based on Ångström exponent and  $f(\text{RH})$  are presented and discussed. In Section 3.4, the formula of calculating ambient ALWC is described. In Section 4.1, the method of predicting  $V_a(\text{dry})$  using the trained random forest model is validated by using measurements of Wangdu campaign. In Section 4.2, the calculated ambient ALWC using the proposed method of connecting  $f(\text{RH})$  to  $V_g(\text{RH})$  is verified with ambient ALWC calculated from ISORROPIA thermodynamic model. In Section 4.3, the volume fractions of water in ambient aerosols are described and discussed. In Section 4.4, the applicability of the proposed method for calculating ALWC is discussed.

**Comment:** Finally, the authors describe the machine learning method, which improves the ability to predict the volume of aerosol in the dry state. During the Wangdu campaign (Fig6), this method is able to reproduce the dry volume very well. My main concern is how applicable this method would be in a different type of environment. How difficult would it be to train the estimator to respond to different data sets and measurement conditions?

**Responses:** Thanks for your comment. Due to the lack of PNSD and nephelometer measurements under different environment conditions, the proposed machine learning method is not validated using measurements from different environment conditions. We cannot be sure if this trained estimator can be applicable under different environment conditions. Thus, we have recommended that the estimator should be trained with regional historical datasets. As what's shown in Fig.5, the training of this random forest model requires only datasets of simultaneously measured PNSD and BC which are already being measured for years in some regions.

**Comment:** The next section describes parametrizing the relationship between  $f(\text{RH})$  and humidified aerosol volume using the "look up table" shown in fig 8. I would recommend referring to both fig 8 and fig 4 as something other than a lookup table, which is not an appropriate description for this plot. This approach, once again seems limited by the specific environment. It would be nice if the authors showed results from a different less-polluted region.

**Response:** Thanks for your comment. Based on your comment, results of Fig.4 are omitted. As to results of Fig.8 (Fig.6 in the revised manuscript), we have validated the

way of connecting  $f(\text{RH})$  to  $V_g(\text{RH})$  by using results in Fig.6 as a look up table with ambient ALWC calculated from ISORROPIA model. And we also have compared results of this method with the results of using the traditional way of calculating  $V_g(\text{RH})$  based on  $f(\text{RH})$  (Guo et al., 2015). The results indicate that the proposed method can improve the calculation of  $V_g(\text{RH})$  based on measured  $f(\text{RH})$ .

**Comment:** The paper has multiple typographical and grammatical errors. Line 365 is a good example of the grammatical/typographical errors that are found throughout. Line 405 references a figure 20a, which doesn't exist. Prior to publication I would recommend careful editing for these errors as well as re-formatting to streamline the paper for only the most pertinent information.

**Response:** Thanks for your comment. We have edited the English with a copy editor and checked typographical and grammatical errors.

## References

Guo, H., Xu, L., Bougiatioti, A., Cerully, K. M., Capps, S. L., Hite Jr, J. R., Carlton, A. G., Lee, S. H., Bergin, M. H., Ng, N. L., Nenes, A., and Weber, R. J.: Fine-particle water and pH in the southeastern United States, *Atmos. Chem. Phys.*, 15, 5211-5228, 10.5194/acp-15-5211-2015, 2015.

### **Response to anonymous referee #3**

#### **General Comments:**

The authors present both empirical and machine-learning methods for determining an aggregate or effective volume and the aerosol water content from the nephelometer Angstrom and backscattering coefficients. The empirical method uses cross correlations between the aerosol scattering coefficient, measured volume, backscatter fraction, and Angstrom exponent to estimate the aerosol volume. The machine learning method uses backscatter and Angstrom exponents to mimic the aerosol scattering to volume ratio. The machine-learning method offers a valuable tool that could be applied to many aspects of atmospheric aerosol and chemical predictions. The paper needs further development. I think it's important to refine the methodology, improve the paper organization, and clarify some of text to make this a stronger paper. The section linking scattering hygroscopic growth to volume hygroscopic growth doesn't follow a valid analysis method. The fRH and gRH data come from different measurement sites. I suggest leaving out the sections on volume hygroscopic growth as well as the discussion on kappa-Kohler. I don't recommend publication until the paper is restructured.

I suggest resubmitting the paper after removal of the sections on hygroscopic growth and water content.

**Responses:** Thanks for your comments and insightful suggestions. Based on your comments, we have refined the methodology and reorganized the paper. As to the section linking scattering hygroscopic growth to volume hygroscopic growth, this

section is an important part of our methodology, and is moved to the methodology section. For the size-resolved  $\kappa$  distributions used for simulating the relationship between scattering hygroscopic growth to volume hygroscopic growth, only the average shape of the size-resolved  $\kappa$  from HaChi is used because that ratios range from 0.05 to 2 with an interval of 0.05 are multiplied with the average size-resolved  $\kappa$  distribution (the black line shown in Fig.7a) to produce a number of size-resolved  $\kappa$  distributions which represent aerosol particles from nearly hydrophobic to highly hygroscopic. Results from other studies have shown similar size dependence of aerosol hygroscopicity (Meng et al., 2014). We also have done the comparison between ambient ALWC (aerosol liquid water content) calculated from measurements of the humidified nephelometer system by using the proposed method and ambient ALWC calculated from ISORROPIA thermodynamic model. A good agreement is achieved between them. But if use the traditional way of connecting  $f(\text{RH})$  (scattering enhancement factor) to  $V_g(\text{RH})$  (volume growth factor), the ambient ALWC tends to be significantly overestimated, especially when RH is higher than 80%. Thus, we think this part provides a new way for connecting  $f(\text{RH})$  to  $V_g(\text{RH})$  which is useful for estimating ambient ALWC based on measurements of the humidified nephelometer system.

**Comment:** The paper needs better organization and clear, step-wise presentation of the methods and results. The methodology is scattered throughout the paper. Description of the results is vague and tends to gloss over important features.

**Response:** Thanks for your comment. We have revised the methodology part

substantially. The method of estimating  $V_a(\text{dry})$  using the machine learning method and the way of connecting  $f(\text{RH})$  to  $V_g(\text{RH})$  are moved to the methodology section.

**Comment:** Please edit the English grammar and word order. Avoid run-on sentences. You have tendency to state conclusions without providing supporting evidence. State the methods used and then the data results. The methods and results are interspersed in the paper, which adds to confusion.

**Response:** Thanks for your comment. We have edited the English by another copy editor. In the revised manuscript, the methods and results are separated. The used datasets are introduced in Sect.2. Calculation method of  $V_a(\text{dry})$  based only on measurements of the nephelometer is described in Sect.3.2. The way of deriving  $V_g(\text{RH})$  based on measurements of the humidified nephelometer system is introduced and discussed in Sect.3.3. The final formula of calculating ambient ALWC is described in Sect.3.4. The verification of the  $V_a(\text{dry})$  predicted by using the machine learning method is described in Sect.4.1. The validation of ambient ALWC calculated from measurements of the humidified nephelometer system is presented in Sect.4.2. And the contribution of ambient ALWC to total ambient aerosol volume is discussed in Sect.4.3.

**Comment:** Introduction 1. Although the methodology is different from other inversion techniques, such as those of Ziegler et al., that calculate an “effective” gRH from fRH, the methodology is similar to that used in Aeronet retrievals of the aerosol effective radius from the AOD, Angstrom exponent and asymmetry parameter. There was a paper

that attempted to calculate fRH or aerosol water using Aeronet data, but it suffered from low signal and spatial resolution. Can the authors describe how their method is similar to or different from the Aeronet retrievals and also speculate if this method could be used with remote sensing AOD measurements? Below is a link that has links to their “spectral deconvolution algorithm”.

[https://aeronet.gsfc.nasa.gov/new\\_web/Documents/Inversion\\_products\\_V2.pdf](https://aeronet.gsfc.nasa.gov/new_web/Documents/Inversion_products_V2.pdf) or Atmos. Meas. Tech., 10, 695-708, 2017, <https://doi.org/10.5194/amt-10-695-2017>.

**Response:** Thanks for your comment. We think our method is different with Aeronet retrievals. Our method is dealing with optical properties of aerosols at one location. Aeronet retrievals are dealing with integral optical properties of aerosols that distributed from the surface to the top of the atmosphere and assumes that aerosols are homogeneously distributed across the vertical layer. However, in real world, microphysical properties of aerosol particles (aerosol size distributions, aerosol hygroscopicity, aerosol mixing state, et al) at different altitudes are different, and relative humidity of the air at different altitudes also differs greatly (Kuang et al., 2016). Our method is based on machine learning which learn from historical datasets, and six parameters are used to constrain variations in PNSD in the machine learning method. The way of connecting  $f(\text{RH})$  to  $V_g(\text{RH})$  is based on simulative experiment which only assumes an average shape of size dependence of aerosol hygroscopicity and the variation of bulk aerosol hygroscopicity is considered. The Aeronet retrievals retrieves the particle number size distribution, complex refractive index and partition of spherical/non- spherical particles which fits the observed data best. We think the method

proposed in this research can not be used with remote sensing AOD measurements, because it is difficult to use several parameters to constrain PNSD and RH variations at different altitudes, too much about aerosol properties and aerosol vertical distribution are unknown.

**Comment:** 2. The introduction needs to state more about the methodology other than saying it's "a novel method". Add a paragraph describing the two techniques. Describe the empirical model use of size-dependent parameters (backscatter and Angstrom) to predict the ratio of scattering/volume. Describe how machine-learning methods, using large data sets, over a long-time period as input, mimic the system behavior via feedback loops to predict an output.

**Response:** Thanks for your comment. The following paragraph is added to the introduction: "In this paper, we propose a novel method to calculate the ALWC based only on measurements of a humidified nephelometer system. The proposed method includes two steps. The first step is calculating  $V_a(\text{dry})$  based on measurements of the "dry" nephelometer using a machine learning method called random forest model. With measurements of PNSD and BC, the six parameters measured by the nephelometer can be simulated using the Mie theory, and the  $V_a(\text{dry})$  can also be calculated based on PNSD. Therefore, the random forest model can be trained with only regional historical datasets of PNSD and BC. The second step is calculating  $V_g(\text{RH})$  based on the Ångström exponent and  $f(\text{RH})$  measured by the humidified nephelometer system. In this step, both the influences of the variations in PNSD and aerosol hygroscopicity are

both taken into account to derive  $V_g(\text{RH})$  from measured  $f(\text{RH})$ . Finally, based on calculated  $V_a(\text{dry})$  and  $V_g(\text{RH})$ , ALWCs at different RH points can be estimated. The used datasets are introduced in Sect.2. Calculation method of  $V_a(\text{dry})$  based only on measurements of the nephelometer, which measures optical properties of aerosols in dry state, is described in Sect.3.2. The way of deriving  $V_g(\text{RH})$  based on measurements of the humidified nephelometer system is introduced and discussed in Sect.3.3. The final formula of calculating ambient ALWC is described in Sect.3.4. The verification of the  $V_a(\text{dry})$  predicted by using the machine learning method is described in Sect.4.1. The validation of ambient ALWC calculated from measurements of the humidified nephelometer system is presented in Sect.4.2. The contribution of ambient ALWC to the total ambient aerosol volume is discussed in Sect.4.3. ”. The random forest model is introduced in the methodology section.

**Comment:** 3. In Section 2.1 Transfer Table S1 to Section 2.1. You can leave the detailed measurement description in the supplement. Give general information on the breakdown of the aerosol composition between organics/sulfate/nitrate/dust at this time of year.

Sections 2.2 to 3.2 need to be reorganized. I suggest segregating Section 2 into Section 2.2 is closure, 2.3 is Mie theory, 2.4 Machine learning method.

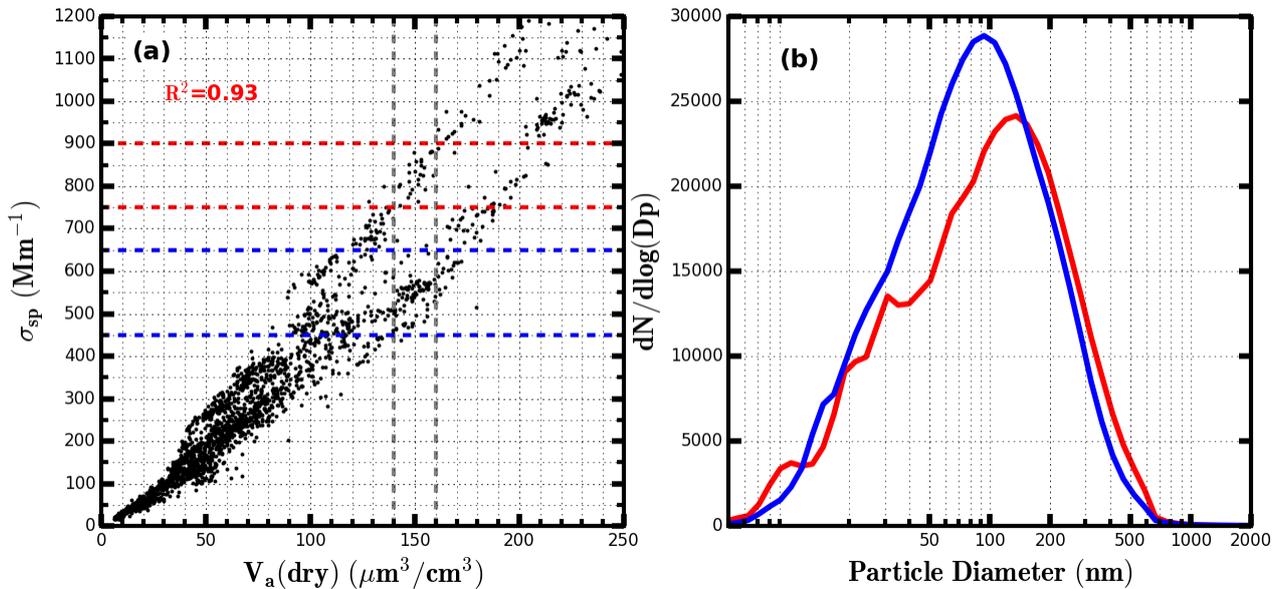
I suggest renaming section 2.2 as “Closure Calculations”. Show the scattering closure between the measured and calculated scattering coefficient. The integrity of the volume and fRH closure depends on the scattering closure. Figure 2 would validate the measurements better if 2a showed the scattering closure and 2b showed the scattering

vs volume.

**Response:** Thanks for your comment. Section 2 is about the instruments and datasets. Table S1 is transferred to this section, more details are listed in this Table. Section 2 and Section 3 are reorganized. The closure results between the measured and calculated scattering coefficient during different campaigns are introduced in Section 2.1. The discussions about theoretical relationships between scattering coefficient and aerosol volume are introduced and discussed in Section 2.2.1. The machine learning method is introduced in Section 2.2.2. The proposed method of connecting  $f(\text{RH})$  to  $V_g(\text{RH})$  is introduced in Section 3.

**Comment:** Figure 2 shows 2 branches or subsets of the data; one above and a 2nd below the fit line. Is this behavior present in the scattering closure? Do these two branches represent 2 different aerosol types or multiple size modes?

**Response:** Thanks for your comment. These two branches exist for datasets of campaign F1 (please refer to Table 2 of the revised manuscript for detailed campaign information). As shown in Fig.1 of the revised manuscript. This behavior does not present in the scattering closure. The relationship between  $V_a(\text{dry})$  and  $\sigma_{sp}$  for measurements of



**Figure 1.** (a) The relationship between  $V_a(\text{dry})$  and  $\sigma_{sp}$  at 550 nm for measurements of campaign F1. (b) The blue one corresponds to average PNSD of data points of lower branch which locate in the range of dashed blue lines in (a), red one corresponds to average PNSD of data points of upper branch which locate in the range of dashed red lines in (a).

campaign F1 is shown in Figure 1a. And the average PNSDs of chosen data points of lower and upper branches are shown in Fig.1b. These results indicate that two branches corresponding two different PNSD shapes, but without multiple size modes.

**Comment:** The application of an average  $R_{vsp}$  to estimate the volume doesn't add to the paper and distracts from the other methods. I suggest removing it from the analysis.

**Response:** Thanks for your comment. This part is removed from the manuscript.

**Comment:** Section 2.3 Mie Move equations 5 and 6 to the start of section 2.3 and explain how you relate scattering to volume and the assumptions in this approach. Move the discussion of Mie theory from section 3.1 to section 2.3. State your adaptation of Mie Theory in a clear, stepwise, logical fashion. Show that going from equations 5 > 7 > 6 assumes that  $Q$  is roughly linear with  $r$  such that  $Q=k*Q(m)$ .

Describe Mie model using simulated data with 4 aerosol types and results in Figure 3.

Describe limitations of assumption that  $Q$  is linearly proportional to  $r$ .

Describe what the dotted red lines represent in the Figure 3 caption.

**Response:** Thanks for your comment. We have moved equations 5 and 6 to the section 3.2. The name of this section is “calculation of  $V_a(\text{dry})$  based on measurements of the “dry” nephelometer”. In Sect.3.2.1, we have described the theoretical relationship between  $V_a(\text{dry})$  and  $\sigma_{sp}$ . In Sect.3.2.2, we have described the machine learning method. The discussion of the Mie theory is also moved to Sect.3.2. Limitations of the assumption that  $Q$  is linearly proportional to  $r$  is discussed in Sect.3.2.1. The dotted red lines in Figure 3 (Figure 2 of the revised manuscript) are described.

**Comment:** Section 2.5 Machine learning

Describing an alternate method of machine learning using size-dependent scattering parameters; Angstrom and backscatter to mimic the measured scattering/volume ratio. Give some background on “machine learning” and the algorithm name. Can you add a simplified algorithm decision tree with basic logic steps or diagram that would help explain the process?

**Response:** Thanks for your comment. The background on machine learning and the algorithm name is described in Sect.3.2.2. A schematic diagram of training the machine learning method is also shown in Figure 5.

**Comment:** Results and Discussion: Section 3.1 Empirical method Refer back to Figure

2 and need for estimating a variable  $k_{scat}$  or  $R$ . Introduce the empirical method of determining  $R$  from HBF and Angstrom exponent. Explain figure 4.

In your description of the results, use and simple and direct language. Leave out extra information on the impact of BC and mixing state on the HBF and Angstrom exponents until the discussion of the data fit lines as these are secondary contributions.

Explain Figure 5a and variance about fit line in relation to HBF. This variance likely stems from the Angstrom exponent and HBF describing a fraction of the PNSD. Show a plot of HBF(450, 550, 700nm) and Angstrom exponents(450/550, 450/700 and 550/700) versus  $r$  for a lognormal size distribution. The plot will show the sensitivities of these parameters to aerosol size.

**Response:** Thanks for your comment. Comments from another reviewer suggest that results of Figure 4 and Figure 5a should be omitted. We agree with reviewer and focus on the machine learning method. HBF(450, 550, 700nm) and Angstrom exponents (450/550, 450/700 and 550/700) as a function of particle diameters are shown in Fig.4 of the revised manuscript. The results shown in Fig.4 indicate that HBFs at three wavelengths and Ångström exponents calculated from  $\sigma_{sp}$  at different wavelengths are sensitive to different diameter ranges of PNSD.

**Comment:** Section 3.2 Machine learning Explain how machine method uses 6 parameters to describe the aerosol volume relative to the scattering. Explain figures 5b and Figure 6 and how machine learning is an improvement over the empirical method.

**Response:** Thanks for your comment. A schematic diagram of training the machine learning method is shown in Figure 5. Why machine learning is an improvement is explained in Sect.3.2.2.

**Comment:** 3.3  $f_{RH}$  and  $V_{rh}$

The method of simulating the  $K_d$  size distribution from variations of the average and then applying this to the measured size distribution to obtain a 4 modeled volume growth values isn't valid. The PNSD shape will change with aerosol type as will the  $K_d$  size distribution. Aerosol size-dependent growth varies with size such that multiplying an entire  $K_d$  distribution by a constant won't reproduce the  $K_d$  distribution of a different aerosol types. In addition the  $K_d$  and  $f_{rh}$  data come from two different measurement sites.

**Response:** Thanks for your comment. Section 3.3 is an important part of our methodology, and is moved to the methodology section of the revised manuscript. For the size-resolved  $\kappa$  distributions used for simulating the relationship between scattering hygroscopic growth to volume hygroscopic growth, only the average shape of the size-resolved  $\kappa$  from HaChi is used because that ratios range from 0.05 to 2 with an interval of 0.05 are multiplied with the average size-resolved  $\kappa$  distribution (the black line shown in Fig.7a) to produce a number of size-resolved  $\kappa$  distributions which represent aerosol particles from nearly hydrophobic to highly hygroscopic. We agree with the reviewer that PNSD shape as well as size-resolved  $\kappa$  distribution will change. However,  $f(RH)$  and  $V_g(RH)$  are integral variables which are sensitive to integral

variables which can represent variations in PNSD and overall aerosol hygroscopicity. This is why we establish a look up table which can take the variations of bulk aerosol hygroscopicity and the Ångström exponent into account. We also have examined how much the variations in shape of size-resolved  $\kappa$  distribution and PNSD will impact on the prediction ability of the established look up table based on measured size-resolved  $\kappa$  distributions. The results are shown in Figure 7b. Moreover, results from other studies have also shown similar size dependence of aerosol hygroscopicity (Meng et al., 2014). We also have done the comparison between ambient ALWC (aerosol liquid water content) calculated from measurements of the humidified nephelometer system by using the proposed method and ambient ALWC calculated from ISORROPIA thermodynamic model. A good agreement is achieved between them. A traditional way of connecting  $f(\text{RH})$  to  $V_g(\text{RH})$  (Guo et al., 2015) is also described and discussed in Sect.4.3. If we use the traditional way of connecting  $f(\text{RH})$  to  $V_g(\text{RH})$ , the ambient ALWC tends to be overestimated significantly, especially when RH is higher than 80%. Thus, we think this part provides a new way of connecting  $f(\text{RH})$  to  $V_g(\text{RH})$  which is useful for estimating ambient ALWC based on measurements of the humidified nephelometer system.

## References

- Guo, H., Xu, L., Bougiatioti, A., Cerully, K. M., Capps, S. L., Hite Jr, J. R., Carlton, A. G., Lee, S. H., Bergin, M. H., Ng, N. L., Nenes, A., and Weber, R. J.: Fine-particle water and pH in the southeastern United States, *Atmos. Chem. Phys.*, 15, 5211-5228, 10.5194/acp-15-5211-2015, 2015.
- Kuang, Y., Zhao, C. S., Tao, J. C., Bian, Y. X., and Ma, N.: Impact of aerosol hygroscopic growth on the direct aerosol radiative effect in summer on North China Plain, *Atmospheric Environment*, 147, 224-233, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2016.10.013>, 2016.

Meng, J. W., Yeung, M. C., Li, Y. J., Lee, B. Y. L., and Chan, C. K.: Size-resolved cloud condensation nuclei (CCN) activity and closure analysis at the HKUST Supersite in Hong Kong, *Atmos. Chem. Phys.*, 14, 10267-10282, 10.5194/acp-14-10267-2014, 2014.

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1 **A novel method for calculating ambient aerosol**  
2 **liquid water contents based on measurements of a**  
3 **humidified nephelometer system**

4 Ye Kuang<sup>1,2</sup>, ChunSheng ~~Zhao~~<sup>1</sup>~~Zhao~~<sup>2</sup>, Gang ~~Zhao~~<sup>1</sup>~~Zhao~~<sup>2</sup>, JiangChuan Tao<sup>1,2</sup>, ~~Wanyun Xu~~<sup>3</sup>,  
5 Nan ~~Ma~~<sup>2</sup>~~Ma~~<sup>1</sup>, YuXuan Bian<sup>3</sup>

6 ~~[1]{Institute for Environmental and Climate Research, Jinan University, Guangzhou 511443,~~  
7 ~~China}~~

8 ~~[2]{Department of Atmospheric and Oceanic Sciences, School of Physics, Peking University,~~  
9 ~~Beijing, China}~~

10 ~~[2]{Institute for Environmental and Climate Research, Jinan University, Guangzhou 511443,~~  
11 ~~China}~~

12 [3]{State Key Laboratory of Severe Weather, Chinese Academy of Meteorological Sciences}

14 Correspondence to: C. S. Zhao ([zcs@pku.edu.cn](mailto:zcs@pku.edu.cn))

15 **Abstract**

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16 Water condensed on ambient aerosol particles plays significant roles in atmospheric  
17 environment, atmospheric chemistry and climate. So far, no instruments ~~are~~ were available for  
18 real-time monitoring of ambient aerosol liquid water contents (ALWC). In this paper, a novel  
19 method is proposed to calculate ambient ALWC based on measurements of a three-wavelength  
20 humidified nephelometer system. ~~A humidified nephelometer system, which~~ measures aerosol  
21 light scattering coefficients and backscattering coefficients at three wavelengths under dry state  
22 and different relative humidity (RH) conditions, ~~and therefore provides~~ providing measurements  
23 of light scattering enhancement factor  $f(\text{RH})$ . The proposed ALWC calculation method ~~of~~  
24 ~~calculating ALWC~~ includes two steps. The first step is ~~estimating the estimation of the dry state~~  
25 total volume concentration of ambient aerosol particles ~~in dry state ( $V_a$ ,  $V_a(\text{dry})$ ),~~ with a machine  
26 learning method called random forest model based on measurements of the “dry” nephelometer.  
27 The estimated  $V_a(\text{dry})$  agrees well with the measured  ~~$V_a(\text{dry})$~~  one. The second step is  
28 ~~estimating the estimation of~~ the volume growth factor  $V_g(\text{RH})$  of ambient aerosol particles due to  
29 water uptake, using  $f(\text{RH})$  and Ångström exponent. The ALWC is calculated from the  
30 estimated  $V_a(\text{dry})$  and  $V_g(\text{RH})$ . ~~Uncertainty analysis~~ To validate the new method, the ambient  
31 ALWC calculated from measurements of the ~~estimated  $V_a(\text{dry})$~~  humidified nephelometer system  
32 during the Gucheng campaign was compared with ambient ALWC calculated from ISORROPIA  
33 thermodynamic model using aerosol chemistry data. A good agreement was achieved, with a  
34 slope and  ~~$V_g(\text{RH})$  is conducted. This research have bridged the gap between  $f(\text{RH})$  intercept of~~  
35 1.14 and  $V_g(\text{RH})$   $-8.6 \mu\text{m}^3/\text{cm}^3$  ( $r^2=0.92$ ), respectively. The advantage of this new method is  
36 that the ambient ALWC can be obtained ~~using only~~ solely based on measurements ~~from~~ of a  
37 three-wavelength humidified nephelometer system. ~~This method will facilitate, facilitating~~ the  
38 real-time monitoring of the ambient ALWC and ~~help for studying roles~~ promoting the study of

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39 aerosol liquid water and its role in atmospheric chemistry, secondary aerosol formation and  
40 climate change.

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## 42 1. Introduction

43 Atmospheric aerosol particles play significant roles in atmospheric environment, climate,  
44 human health and the hydrological cycle, and have received much attention in recent decades.  
45 One of the most important constituents of ambient atmospheric aerosol is liquid water. The  
46 content of condensed water on ambient aerosol particles depends mostly on ~~both~~the aerosol  
47 hygroscopicity and the ambient relative humidity (RH). Results of previous studies demonstrate  
48 that liquid water contributes greatly to the total mass of ambient aerosol particles when the  
49 ambient RH is higher than 60% (Bian et al., 2014). ~~And aerosol~~Aerosol liquid water also has  
50 large impacts on aerosol optical properties and aerosol radiative effects (Tao et al., 2014;Kuang  
51 et al., 2016). ~~Condensed liquid~~Liquid water condensed on aerosol particles can also ~~serve~~serve  
52 as a site for multiphase reactions which perturb local chemistry and ~~also~~ further influence the  
53 aging processes of aerosol particles (Martin, 2000). Recent studies have shown that aerosol  
54 liquid water serves as a reactor, which ~~help for~~can efficiently ~~transforming sulfur~~transform  
55 sulphur dioxide to ~~sulfate~~sulphate during haze events ~~and plays crucial roles in worsening,~~  
56 aggravating atmospheric environment ~~on~~in the North China Plain (NCP) (Wang et al.,  
57 2016;Cheng et al., 2016). Hence, ~~the real-time monitoring of ambient aerosol liquid water~~  
58 ~~content (ALWC) is of crucial importance~~ to gain more ~~insights~~insight into the ~~role~~role of  
59 aerosol liquid water in atmospheric chemistry, aerosol aging processes and aerosol optical

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60 | properties. the real-time monitoring of ambient aerosol liquid water content (ALWC) is of  
61 | crucial importance.

62 | Few techniques are currently available for measuring the ALWC. The humidified tandem  
63 | differential mobility analyser systems (HTDMAs) are useful tools and widely used to measure  
64 | hygroscopic growth factors of ambient aerosol particles (Rader and McMurry, 1986; Wu et al.,  
65 | 2016; Meier et al., 2009). Hygroscopicity parameters retrieved from measurements of HTDMAs  
66 | can be used to calculate ~~volumes~~ the volume of liquid water. Nevertheless, HTDMAs ~~can~~  
67 | ~~not~~ cannot be used to measure the total aerosol water volume, because they are not capable of  
68 | measuring the hygroscopic properties of the entire aerosol ~~size distribution~~ population. With size  
69 | distributions of aerosol particles in their ambient state and dry state, the aerosol water volume  
70 | can ~~debe~~ be estimated. Engelhart et al. (2011) deployed a Dry-Ambient Aerosol Size Spectrometer  
71 | to measure the aerosol liquid water content and volume growth factor of fine particulate matter.  
72 | This system provides only aerosol water content of aerosol particles within certain size range (  
73 | particle diameter less than 500 nm for the setup of Engelhart et al. (2011)). In addition, in  
74 | conjunction with aerosol thermodynamic equilibrium models, ALWC can also be estimated with  
75 | detailed aerosol chemical information. However, simulations of aerosol hygroscopicity and  
76 | phase state by using thermodynamic equilibrium models are still very complicated even under  
77 | the thermodynamic equilibrium hypothesis and these models may cause large bias when used for  
78 | estimating ALWC (Bian et al., 2014).

79 | ~~A~~ The idea of using the humidified nephelometer system, ~~which measures aerosol light~~  
80 | ~~scattering coefficient ( $\sigma_{sp}$ ) under dry and different RH conditions is a relatively early method~~  
81 | ~~proposed~~ for studying the study of aerosol hygroscopicity has already been proposed very early  
82 | on (Covert et al., 1972). ~~It provides information about~~ The instrument measures aerosol light

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83 | scattering coefficient ( $\sigma_{sp}$ ) under dry state and different RH conditions, providing information on  
84 | aerosol light scattering enhancement factor  $f(\text{RH})$ . One advantage of this method is that it has a  
85 | fast response time and ~~this measurements can be made continuously which facilitates the~~  
86 | ~~monitoring of changing ambient conditions. Another advantage of this method is that it provides~~  
87 | ~~information about the overall aerosol hygroscopicity of the entire aerosol size~~  
88 | ~~distribution.~~ continuous measurements can be made, facilitating the monitoring of changes in  
89 | ambient conditions. Another advantage of this method is that it provides information on the  
90 | overall aerosol hygroscopicity of the entire aerosol population (Kuang et al., 2017a). Both  
91 | measured  $\sigma_{sp}$  of aerosol particles in dry state and  $f(\text{RH})$  vary strongly with parameters of  
92 | particle number size distribution (PNSD), making it is difficult to directly link them with ~~volume~~  
93 | ~~of aerosol particles in the~~ dry state aerosol particle volume ( $V_a(\text{dry})$ ) and the volume growth  
94 | factor  $V_g(\text{RH})$  of the entire aerosol population. So far, the ALWC ~~can~~ could not be directly  
95 | estimated ~~with based solely on~~ measurements ~~from only a of the~~ humidified nephelometer  
96 | system. Several studies have shown that ~~if given the~~ PNSDs ~~in at~~ dry state ~~are measured, then,~~ an  
97 | iterative algorithm together with the Mie theory can be used to calculate an overall aerosol  
98 | hygroscopic growth factor  $g(\text{RH})$ - based on measurements of  $f(\text{RH})$  (Zieger et al., 2010; Fierz-  
99 | Schmidhauser et al., 2010). In ~~this~~ such an iterative algorithm, the  $g(\text{RH})$  is assumed to be  
100 | independent of the aerosol diameter. Then ALWC at different RH ~~points~~ levels can be calculated  
101 | based on derived  $g(\text{RH})$  and the measured PNSD. This method not only requires additional  
102 | measurements ~~about PNSD, but also may result in significant deviations of the estimated ALWC~~  
103 | ~~because that  $g(\text{RH})$  should be a function of aerosol diameter rather than a constant value. In this~~  
104 | ~~paper, we proposed of PNSD, but also may result in significant deviations of the estimated~~  
105 | ALWC, because  $g(\text{RH})$  should be a function of aerosol diameter rather than a constant value.

106 Another method, which directly connects  $f(RH)$  to  $V_g(RH)$  ( $V_g(RH) \equiv f(RH)^{1.5}$ ), is also used  
107 for predicting ALWC based on measurements of the humidified nephelometer system and mass  
108 concentrations of dry aerosol particles (Guo et al., 2015). This method assumes that the average  
109 scattering efficiency of aerosol particles at dry state and different RH conditions are the same,  
110 and requires additional measurements of PNSD or mass concentrations of dry aerosol particles  
111 (Guo et al., 2015). However, the scattering efficiency of aerosol particles vary with particle  
112 diameters, which will change under ambient conditions due to aerosol hygroscopic growth.

113 In this paper, we propose a novel method to calculate the ALWC based only on  
114 measurements of a humidified nephelometer system. The proposed method includes two steps.  
115 The first step is calculating  $V_a(\text{dry})$  based on measurements of the “dry” nephelometer using a  
116 machine learning method called random forest model. With measurements of PNSD and BC, the  
117 six parameters measured by the nephelometer can be simulated using the Mie theory, and the  
118  $V_a(\text{dry})$  can also be calculated based on PNSD. Therefore, the random forest model can be  
119 trained with only regional historical datasets of PNSD and BC. The second step is calculating  
120  $V_g(RH)$  based on the Ångström exponent and  $f(RH)$  measured by the humidified nephelometer  
121 system. In this step, both the influences of the variations in PNSD and aerosol hygroscopicity are  
122 both taken into account to derive  $V_g(RH)$  from measured  $f(RH)$ . Finally, based on calculated  
123  $V_a(\text{dry})$  and  $V_g(RH)$ , ALWCs at different RH points can be estimated. The used datasets are  
124 introduced in Sect.2. Calculation method of  $V_a(\text{dry})$  based only on measurements of the  
125 nephelometer, which measures optical properties of aerosols in dry state, is described in Sect.3.2.  
126 The way of deriving  $V_g(RH)$  based on measurements of the humidified nephelometer system is  
127 introduced and discussed in Sect.3.3. The final formula of calculating ambient ALWC is  
128 described in Sect.3.4. The verification of the  $V_a(\text{dry})$  predicted by using the machine learning

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129 method is described in Sect.4.1. The validation of ambient ALWC calculated from  
130 measurements of the humidified nephelometer system is presented in Sect.4.2. The contribution  
131 of ambient ALWC to the total ambient aerosol volume is discussed in Sect.4.3.

## 132 **2. Materials Instruments and methods datasets**

### 133 **2.1 Datasets**

134 Datasets from six field campaigns ~~are~~were used in this paper. The six campaigns ~~are~~were  
135 conducted at four different measurement sites (Wangdu, Gucheng and Xianghe in Hebei  
136 province and Wuqing in Tianjin) of the North China Plain (NCP), ~~site~~the locations -of these field  
137 ~~campaigns~~campaign sites are ~~shown~~displayed in Fig.S1. Time periods and ~~used~~datasets used  
138 from these ~~field~~field campaigns are listed in Table 1. During these field campaigns, ~~sampl~~ed  
139 aerosol particles ~~have~~with aerodynamic diameters less than 10  $\mu\text{m}$  were sampled (by passing  
140 through an impactor). The PNSDs in dry state, which range from 3nm to 10 $\mu\text{m}$ , were jointly  
141 measured by a Twin Differential Mobility Particle Sizer (TDMPS, Leibniz-Institute for  
142 Tropospheric Research, Germany; Birmili et al. (1999)) or a scanning mobility particle size  
143 spectrometer (SMPS) and an Aerodynamic Particle Sizer (APS, TSI Inc., Model 3321) with a  
144 temporal resolution of 10 minutes. The mass concentrations of black carbon (BC) were measured  
145 using a Multi-Angle Absorption Photometer (MAAP Model 5012, Thermo, Inc., Waltham, MA  
146 USA) with a temporal resolution of 1 minute during field campaigns of F1 to F5, and using an  
147 aethalometer ~~called~~(AE33) (Drinovec et al., 2015) during field campaign F6. The aerosol light  
148 scattering coefficients ( $\sigma_{sp}$ ) at three wavelengths (450 nm, 550 nm, and 700 nm) were measured  
149 using a TSI 3563 nephelometer (Anderson and Ogren, 1998) during field campaigns of F1 to F5,  
150 and using an Aurora 3000 nephelometer (Müller et al., 2011) during field campaign F6.

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151 ~~2.2~~ Datasets about PNSD, BC and  $\sigma_{sp}$  from campaigns F1 to F5 are referred to as D1. Datasets  
152 ~~about~~ PNSD, BC and  $\sigma_{sp}$  from campaigns F2, F4 and F5 are referred to as ~~D2~~D1.  
153 Measurements of PNSD and measurements from the humidified nephelometer system during  
154 campaign F6 (Gucheng campaign) are used to verify the proposed method of calculating the  
155 ambient ALWC. Details about the humidified nephelometer system during Wangdu and  
156 Gucheng campaigns are ~~detailedly~~ introduced in (Kuang et al., 2017b). ~~Mie theory~~

157 ~~The first goal of this research is estimating  $V_a$ (dry) from  $\sigma_{sp}$  detail in (Kuang et al., 2017a).~~  
158 ~~During the Gucheng campaign, an In situ Gas and Aerosol Compositions Monitor (IGAC,~~  
159 ~~Fortelice International Co.,Taiwan) was used for monitoring water-soluble ions ( $\text{Na}^+$ ,  $\text{K}^+$ ,  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ ,~~  
160  ~~$\text{Mg}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{NH}_4^+$ ,  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-$ ,  $\text{Cl}^-$ ) of  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  and their precursor gases:  $\text{NH}_3$ ,  $\text{HCl}$ , and  $\text{HNO}_3$ . The~~  
161 ~~time resolution of IGAC measurements is one hour. Ambient air was drawn into the IGAC~~  
162 ~~system through a stainless steel pipe wrapped with thermal insulation at a flow rate of 16.7~~  
163 ~~L/min. The ambient RH and temperature were observed using an automatic weather station with~~  
164 ~~a time resolution of one minute.~~

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### 165 3. Methodology

#### 166 3.1 Closure calculations

167 ~~To ensure the  $V_a$ (dry) can be integrated from measured PNSD. Thus, datasets of  $\sigma_{sp}$  and~~  
168 ~~PNSD are needed to investigate relationships between  $\sigma_{sp}$  and  $V_a$ (dry). To make sure the data~~  
169 ~~quality of PNSD used datasets are of high quality, a closure study between measured  $\sigma_{sp}$  and~~  
170 ~~PNSD, the closure between measured  $\sigma_{sp}$  and  $\sigma_{sp}$  that calculated based on measured PNSD and~~  
171 BC with Mie theory (Bohren and Huffman, 2008) is first ~~investigated~~performed. Measured  $\sigma_{sp}$

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172 ~~has problems regarding~~ bears uncertainties introduced by angular truncation errors and  
173 ~~nonideality of nonideal~~ light source. ~~In order to make sure the~~ To achieve consistency between  
174 measured and modelled  $\sigma_{sp}$ , modelled  $\sigma_{sp}$  are calculated according to practical angular situations  
175 of the nephelometer (Anderson et al., 1996). ~~Moreover, during processes of~~ During the  $\sigma_{sp}$   
176 modelling  ~~$\sigma_{sp}$  process~~, BC ~~is~~ was considered to be half externally and half coreshell mixed with  
177 other aerosol components, ~~and the~~ The mass size distribution of BC used in Ma et al. (2012),  
178 which was also observed ~~on~~ in the NCP ~~is~~ was used in this research to account for the mass  
179 distributions of BC at different particle sizes. The ~~used~~ applied refractive index and density of BC  
180 ~~are~~ were  $1.80 - 0.54i$  and  $1.5 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$  (Kuang et al., 2015). ~~Used~~ The refractive index of non light-  
181 absorbing aerosol components (other than BC) ~~is~~ was set to  $1.53 - 10^{-7}i$  (Wex et al., 2002).  
182 ~~Calculation details based on~~ For the Mie theory calculation details please refer to Kuang et al.  
183 (2015). ~~Datasets about PNSD and  $\sigma_{sp}$  from D1 are used to perform the closure investigation.~~  
184 ~~Finally, during processes of investigating relationships between  $\sigma_{sp}$  and  $V_a$ (dry), data points in~~  
185 ~~D1 with relative differences between measured  $\sigma_{sp}$  at 550 nm and modelled  $\sigma_{sp}$  at 550 nm~~  
186 ~~greater than 10% are excluded. 10% is chosen because of that measured PNSD has uncertainty of~~  
187 ~~larger than 10% (Wiedensohler et al., 2012), and measured  $\sigma_{sp}$  has uncertainty of about 9%, this~~  
188 ~~threshold can make sure that most used data points are measured when instruments operated~~  
189 ~~well.~~

190 The closure results between modelled  $\sigma_{sp}$  and  $\sigma_{sp}$  measured by TSI 3563 or Aurora 3000  
191 using datasets observed during six field campaigns (Table 2) are depicted in Fig.1. In general, for  
192 all six field campaigns, modelled  $\sigma_{sp}$  values correlate very well with measured  $\sigma_{sp}$  values.  
193 Considering the measured PNSD has an uncertainty of larger than 10% (Wiedensohler et al.,

194 2012), and the measured  $\sigma_{sp}$  has an uncertainty of about 9% (Sherman et al., 2015), modelled  
195  $\sigma_{sp}$  values agree well with measured  $\sigma_{sp}$  values in campaigns F1, F4, F5 and F6, with all points  
196 lying nearby the 1:1 line, and most points falling within the 20% relative difference lines. For  
197 the closure results of field campaign F2, the modelled  $\sigma_{sp}$  values are systematically lower than  
198 measured  $\sigma_{sp}$  values. For the closure results of field campaign F3, most points also lie nearby 1:1  
199 line, but points are relatively more dispersed.

### 200 **3.2 Calculation of $V_a$ (dry) based on measurements of the “dry” nephelometer**

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#### 201 **3.2.1 Theoretical relationship between $V_a$ (dry) and $\sigma_{sp}$**

202 Previous studies demonstrated that the  $\sigma_{sp}$  of aerosol particles is roughly proportional to  
203  $V_a$ (dry) (Pinnick et al., 1980). Here, the quantitative relationship between  $V_a$ (dry) and  $\sigma_{sp}$  is  
204 analyzed.

205 The  $\sigma_{sp}$  and  $V_a$ (dry) can be expressed as the following:

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$$206 \sigma_{sp} = \int \pi r^2 Q_{sca}(m, r) n(r) dr \quad (1)$$

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$$207 V_a(\text{dry}) = \int \frac{4}{3} \pi r^3 n(r) dr \quad (2)$$

208 where  $Q_{sca}(m, r)$  is scattering efficiency for a particle with refractive index  $m$  and particle  
209 radius  $r$ , while  $n(r)$  is the aerosol size distribution. As presented in equation (1) and (2), relating  
210  $V_a$ (dry) with  $\sigma_{sp}$  involves the complex relation between  $Q_{sca}(m, r)$  and particle diameter,  
211 which can be simulated using the Mie theory. According to the aerosol refractive index at visible  
212 spectral range, aerosol chemical components can be classified into two categories: the light  
213 absorbing component and the almost light non-absorbing components (inorganic salts and acids,  
214 and most of the organic compounds). Near the visible spectral range, the light absorbing

215 component can be referred to as BC. BC particles are neither externally nor internally mixed  
216 with other aerosol components. In view of this,  $Q_{sca}$  at 550 nm as a function of particle diameter  
217 for four types of aerosol particles is simulated using Mie theory: almost non-absorbing aerosol  
218 particle, BC particle, BC particle core-shell mixed with non-absorbing components with the  
219 radius of the inner BC core being 50 nm and 70 nm, respectively. Same with those introduced in  
220 Sect.2.2, the refractive indices of BC and light non-absorbing components used here are  $1.80 -$   
221  $0.54i$  and  $1.53 - 10^{-7}i$ , respectively.

222 The simulated results are shown in Fig.2a. Near the visible spectral range, most of the  
223 ambient aerosol components are almost non-absorbing, and their  $Q_{sca}$  varies more like the blue  
224 line shown in Fig.2a. In that case, aerosol particles have diameters less than about 800 nm and  
225  $Q_{sca}$  increases almost monotonously with particle diameter and can be approximately estimated  
226 as a linear function of diameter. Fig.2b shows the simulated size-resolved accumulative  
227 contribution to the scattering coefficient at 550 nm for all PNSDs measured during the Wangdu  
228 campaign. The results indicate that, for continental aerosol particles without influences of dust,  
229 in most cases, all particles with diameter less than about 800 nm contribute more than 80% to the  
230 total  $\sigma_{sp}$ . Therefore, for equation (1), if we express  $Q_{sca}(m, r)$  as  $Q_{sca}(m, r) = k \cdot r$ , then  
231 equation (5) can be expressed as the following:

$$232 \quad \sigma_{sp} = k \cdot \int \pi r^3 n(r) dr \quad (3)$$

233 This explains why  $\sigma_{sp}(550 \text{ nm})$  is roughly proportional to  $V_a(\text{dry})$ . However, the value  $k$  varies  
234 greatly with particle diameter. The ratio  $\sigma_{sp}(550 \text{ nm})/V_a(\text{dry})$  (hereinafter referred to as  $R_{V_{sp}}$ )  
235 is mostly affected by the PNSD, which determines the weight of influence different particle  
236 diameters have on  $R_{V_{sp}}$ . The discrepancy between the blue line and black line shown in Fig.2a

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237 indicates that the fraction of externally mixed BC particles and their sizes has large impact on  
238  $R_{Vsp}$ . The difference between the black line and the red line as well as the difference between the  
239 solid red line and the dashed red line shown in Fig.2a indicate that the way and the amount of BC  
240 mixed with other components also exert significant influences on  $R_{Vsp}$ . In summary, the  
241 variation of  $R_{Vsp}$  is mainly determined by variations in PNSD, mass size distribution and the  
242 mixing state of BC. It is difficult to find a simple function describing the relationship between  
243 measured  $\sigma_{sp}$  and  $V_a$  (dry).

244 Based on PNSD and BC datasets of field campaigns F1 to F6, the relationship between  $\sigma_{sp}$   
245 at 550 nm and  $V_a$  (dry) of  $PM_{10}$  or  $PM_{2.5}$  are simulated using the Mie theory. The results are  
246 shown in Fig.3. The results demonstrate that the  $\sigma_{sp}$  at 550 nm is highly correlated with the  
247  $V_a$  (dry) of  $PM_{10}$  and  $PM_{2.5}$ . The square of the correlation coefficient ( $r^2$ ) between  $\sigma_{sp}$  at 550 nm  
248 and  $V_a$  (dry) of  $PM_{10}$  or  $PM_{2.5}$  are 0.94 and 0.99, respectively. A roughly proportional  
249 relationship exists between  $V_a$  (dry) and  $\sigma_{sp}$  (550 nm), especially for  $V_a$  (dry) of  $PM_{2.5}$ .  
250 However, both  $R_{Vsp}$  of  $PM_{10}$  and  $PM_{2.5}$  vary significantly.  $R_{Vsp}$  of  $PM_{10}$  mainly ranges from 2  
251 to  $6 \text{ cm}^3 / (\mu\text{m}^3 \cdot \text{Mm})$ , with an average of  $4.2 \text{ cm}^3 / (\mu\text{m}^3 \cdot \text{Mm})$ .  $R_{Vsp}$  of  $PM_{2.5}$  mainly ranges  
252 from 3 to  $6.5 \text{ cm}^3 / (\mu\text{m}^3 \cdot \text{Mm})$ , with an average of  $5.1 \text{ cm}^3 / (\mu\text{m}^3 \cdot \text{Mm})$ . Simulated size-  
253 resolved accumulative contributions to  $\sigma_{sp}$  at 550 nm for all PNSDs measured during campaigns  
254 F1 to F6 and corresponding size-resolved accumulative contributions to  $V_a$  (dry) of  $PM_{10}$  are  
255 shown in Fig.S2. The results indicate that particles with diameter larger than  $2.5 \mu\text{m}$  usually  
256 contribute negligibly to  $\sigma_{sp}$  at 550 nm but contribute about 20% of the total  $PM_{10}$  volume.  
257 Hence  $\sigma_{sp}$  at 550 nm is insensitive to changes in particles mass of diameters between 2.5 to 10

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258  $\mu\text{m}$ . This may partially explain why  $V_a$  (dry) of  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  correlates better with  $\sigma_{sp}$  at 550 nm than  
259  $V_a$  (dry) of  $\text{PM}_{10}$ .

### 260 **3.2.2 Machine learning**

261 Based on analyses in Sect.3.2.1,  $R_{V_{sp}}$  varies a lot with PNSD being the most dominant  
262 influencing factor. The “dry” nephelometer provides not only one single  $\sigma_{sp}$  at 550 nm, it  
263 measures six parameters including  $\sigma_{sp}$  and back scattering coefficients ( $\sigma_{bsp}$ ) at three  
264 wavelengths (for TSI 3563: 450 nm, 550 nm, 700 nm). The Ångström exponent calculated from  
265 spectral dependence of  $\sigma_{sp}$  provides information on the mean predominant aerosol size and is  
266 associated mostly with PNSD. The variation of the hemispheric backscattering fraction (HBF),  
267 which is the ratio between  $\sigma_{bsp}$  and  $\sigma_{sp}$ , is also essentially related to the PNSD. HBFs at three  
268 wavelengths (450 nm, 550 nm, 700 nm) and the Ångström exponents calculated from  $\sigma_{sp}$  at  
269 different wavelengths (450-550 nm, 550-700 nm, 450-700 nm) for typical non-absorbing aerosol  
270 particles with their diameters ranging from 100 nm to 3  $\mu\text{m}$  are simulated using the Mie theory.  
271 The results are shown in Fig.4a and Fig.4b. HBF values at three different wavelengths and their  
272 differences are more sensitive to changes in PNSD of particle diameters less than about 400 nm.  
273 Ångström exponents calculated from  $\sigma_{sp}$  at different wavelengths almost decrease  
274 monotonously with particle diameter when particle diameter is less than about 1  $\mu\text{m}$ , however,  
275 they differ distinctly when particle diameter is larger than 300 nm. These results indicate that  
276 HBFs at three wavelengths and Ångström exponents calculated from  $\sigma_{sp}$  at different  
277 wavelengths are sensitive to different diameter ranges of PNSD.

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278 Thus, all six parameters measured by the “dry” nephelometer together can provide valuable  
279 information about variations in  $R_{Vsp}$ . However, no explicit formula exists between these six  
280 parameters and  $V_a$ (dry). How to use these six optical parameters is a problem. Machine learning  
281 methods which can handle many input parameters are capable of learning from historical  
282 datasets and then make predictions, and strict relationships among variables are not required.  
283 Machine learning methods are powerful tools for tackling highly nonlinear problems and are  
284 widely used in different areas. In the light of this, predicting  $V_a$ (dry) based on six optical  
285 parameters measured by the “dry” nephelometer might be accomplished by using a machine  
286 learning method. In this study, random forest is chosen for this purpose.

287 Random forest is a machine learning technique that is widely used for classification and  
288 non-linear regression problems (Breiman, 2001). For non-linear regression cases, random forest  
289 model consists of an ensemble of binary regression decision trees. Each tree has a randomized  
290 training scheme, and an average over the whole ensemble of regression tree predictions is used  
291 for final prediction. In this study, the function RandomForestRegressor from the Python Scikit-  
292 Learn machine learning library (<http://scikit-learn.org/stable/index.html>) is used. This model has  
293 several strengths. First, by averaging over an ensemble of decision trees, there is a significantly  
294 lower risk of overfitting. Second, it involves fewer assumptions about the dependence between  
295 inputs and outputs when compared with traditional parametric regression models. The random  
296 forest model has two parameters: the number of input variables ( $N_{in}$ ) and the number of trees  
297 grown ( $N_{tree}$ ). In this study,  $N_{in}$  and  $N_{tree}$  are six and eight, respectively. The six input  
298 parameters the three scattering coefficients, three backscattering coefficients.

299 The quality of input datasets is critical to the prediction accuracy of the machine learning  
300 method. As discussed in Sect.3.1, modeled  $\sigma_{sp}$  during some field campaigns are not completely  
301 consistent with measured  $\sigma_{sp}$ , large bias might exist between them due to the measurement  
302 uncertainties of PNSD and  $\sigma_{sp}$ . To avoid that the measurements uncertainties are involved in the  
303 training processes of the random forest model. In this study, both the required datasets of six  
304 optical parameters which corresponding to measurements of TSI 3563 and  $V_a$ (dry), for training  
305 the random forest model are calculated or simulated based on measurements of PNSD and BC  
306 from field campaigns F1 to F4 and F6. Datasets of PNSD and six optical parameters measured  
307 by the nephelometer during campaign F5 are used to verify the prediction ability of the trained  
308 random forest model. The performance of this random forest model on predicting both  $V_a$ (dry),  
309 of  $PM_{10}$  and  $PM_{2.5}$  are investigated. A schematic diagram of this method is shown in Fig.5.

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### 310 3.3 Connecting $f$ (RH) to $V_g$ (RH)

#### 311 2.33.3.1 $\kappa$ -Köhler theory (Wiedensohler et al., 2012)

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312 ~~To simulate the relationships between  $f$ (RH) and  $V_g$ (RH),~~  $\kappa$ -Köhler theory is used to  
313 describe the hygroscopic growth of aerosol particles with different sizes, and the formula  
314 expression of  $\kappa$ -Köhler theory can be written as follows (Petters and Kreidenweis, 2007):

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$$315 \quad RH = \frac{D^3 - D_d^3}{D^3 - D_d^3(1 - \kappa)} \cdot \exp\left(\frac{4\sigma_{s/a} \cdot M_{water}}{R \cdot T \cdot D_p \cdot g \cdot \rho_w}\right) \quad (14)$$

316 where  $D$  is the diameter of the droplet,  $D_d$  is the dry diameter,  $\sigma_{s/a}$  is the surface tension of  
317 solution/air interface,  $T$  is the temperature,  $M_{water}$  is the molecular weight of water,  $R$  is the  
318 universal gas constant,  $\rho_w$  is the density of water, and  $\kappa$  is the hygroscopicity parameter. By

319 combining the Mie theory and the  $\kappa$ -Köhler theory, both  $f(\text{RH})$  and  $Vg(\text{RH})$  can be simulated.  
320 In the processes of calculations for modelling  $f(\text{RH})$  and  $Vg(\text{RH})$ , the treatment of BC is same  
321 with those introduced in Sect.2.2. As aerosol particle grow due to aerosol water uptake, the  
322 refractive index will change. In the Mie calculation, impacts of aerosol liquid water on the  
323 refractive index are considered on the basis of volume mixing rule. The used refractive index of  
324 liquid water is  $1.33 - 10^{-7}i$  (Seinfeld and Pandis, 2006).

### 325 2.43.3.2 Parameterization ~~schemes~~ schemes for $f(\text{RH})$ and $Vg(\text{RH})$

326 The  $f(\text{RH})$  is defined as  $f(\text{RH}) = \sigma_{sp}(\text{RH}, 550 \text{ nm}) / \sigma_{sp}(\text{dry}, 550 \text{ nm})$  where  
327  $\sigma_{sp}(\text{RH}, 550 \text{ nm})$  and  $\sigma_{sp}(\text{dry}, 550 \text{ nm})$  represents  $\sigma_{sp}$  at wavelength 550 nm under certain  
328 RH and dry conditions. ~~Additionally~~ Additionally,  $Vg(\text{RH})$  is defined as  $Vg(\text{RH}) = V_a(\text{RH}) /$   
329  $V_a(\text{dry})$ , where  $V_a(\text{RH})$  represents total volume of aerosol particles under certain RH conditions.

330 A physically based single-parameter representation is proposed by Brock et al. (2016) to  
331 describe  $f(\text{RH})$ . The parameterization scheme is written as:

$$332 \quad f(\text{RH}) = 1 + \kappa_{sca} \frac{\text{RH}}{100 - \text{RH}} \quad (25)$$

333 where  $\kappa_{sca}$  is the parameter which fits  $f(\text{RH})$  best. Here, a brief introduction is given about the  
334 physical understanding of this parameterization scheme. For aerosol particles whose diameters  
335 larger than 100 nm, regardless of the kelvin effect, the hygroscopic growth factor for a aerosol  
336 particle can be approximately expressed as ~~the following~~  $g(\text{RH}) \cong (1 + \kappa \frac{\text{RH}}{100 - \text{RH}})^{1/3}$  (Brock et  
337 al., 2016):  ~~$g(\text{RH}) \cong (1 + \kappa \frac{\text{RH}}{100 - \text{RH}})^{1/3}$~~ . Enhancement factor in volume can be expressed as the  
338 cube of  $g(\text{RH})$ . Of particular note is that aerosol particles larger than 100 nm contribute the most

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339 to  $\sigma_{sp}$  and  $V_a(\text{dry})$ , which means that if  $\kappa$  values of aerosol particles of different sizes are the  
340 same, then  $Vg(\text{RH})$  can be approximately expressed as  $Vg(\text{RH}) = 1 + \kappa \frac{\text{RH}}{100 - \text{RH}}$ . In addition,  $\sigma_{sp}$   
341 is usually proportional to  $V_a(\text{dry})$  which indicates that the relative change in  $\sigma_{sp}$  due to aerosol  
342 water uptake is roughly proportional to relative change in aerosol volume. Therefore,  $f(\text{RH})$   
343 might also be well described by using the formula form of equation (25). Previous studies have  
344 shown that this parameterization scheme can describe  $f(\text{RH})$  well (Brock et al., 2016; Kuang et  
345 al., 2017a, 2017b).

346 During processes of measuring  $f(\text{RH})$ , the sample RH in the “dry” nephelometer ( $\text{RH}_0$ ) is  
347 not zero. According to equation (25), the measured  $f(\text{RH})_{\text{measure}} = \frac{f(\text{RH})}{f(\text{RH}_0)}$  should be fitted  
348 using the following formula:

$$349 \quad f(\text{RH})_{\text{measure}} = (1 + \kappa_{sca} \frac{\text{RH}}{100 - \text{RH}}) / (1 + \kappa_{sca} \frac{\text{RH}_0}{100 - \text{RH}_0}) \quad (36)$$

350 Based on this equation,  $\kappa_{sca}$  can be calculated from measured  $f(\text{RH})$  directly.

351 —The typical value of  $\text{RH}_0$  measured in the “dry” nephelometer during Wangdu campaign is  
352 about 20%. The importance of the  $\text{RH}_0$  correction changes under different aerosol hygroscopicity  
353 and  $\text{RH}_0$  conditions. The parameter  $\kappa_{sca}$  is fitted with and without consideration of  $\text{RH}_0$  for  
354  $f(\text{RH})$  measurements during Wangdu campaign, and the results are shown in Fig. 4S3. The  
355 results demonstrate that, overall, the  $\kappa_{sca}$  will be underestimated if the influence of  $\text{RH}_0$  is not  
356 considered, and the larger the  $\kappa_{sca}$  the more that the  $\kappa_{sca}$  will be underestimated.

357 In addition, based on discussions about the physical understanding of equation (25), the  
358  $Vg(\text{RH})$  should be well described by the following equation:

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$$Vg(RH) = 1 + \kappa_{Vf} \frac{RH}{100-RH} \quad (47)$$

where  $\kappa_{Vf}$  is the parameter which fits  $Vg(RH)$  best.

### 3. Results and discussions

#### 3.1 Estimation of $V_a(\text{dry})$ from measurements of the “dry” nephelometer

The first step of the proposed method is estimating  $V_a(\text{dry})$  from measurements of the “dry” nephelometer. The investigation about the relationship between  $V_a(\text{dry})$  and parameters measured by the “dry” nephelometer is required. Results of previous studies demonstrated that  $\sigma_{sp}$  of aerosol particles is roughly proportional to  $V_a(\text{dry})$  (Pinnick et al., 1980). To confirm this conclusion, datasets of concurrently measured  $\sigma_{sp}$  (not corrected for angular truncation error) and PNSD of aerosol particles in dry state from D1 are used to investigate the relationships between measured  $\sigma_{sp}$  and  $V_a(\text{dry})$ . The measured  $V_a(\text{dry})$  is integrated from simultaneously measured PNSD. To gain a first glimpse about the roughly proportional relationship between  $\sigma_{sp}$  and  $V_a(\text{dry})$ . All valid data points of measured  $\sigma_{sp}$  at 550 nm and  $V_a(\text{dry})$  are plotted against each other and presented in Fig. 2a. The results demonstrate that the  $\sigma_{sp}$  is highly correlated with  $V_a(\text{dry})$ , and the square of correlation coefficient between them is 0.92. The roughly proportional relationship exists between  $V_a(\text{dry})$  and  $\sigma_{sp}(550\text{ nm})$ . However, the ratio  $\sigma_{sp}(550\text{ nm})/V_a(\text{dry})$  (hereinafter referred to as  $R_{V_{sp}}$ ) varies significantly. The  $R_{V_{sp}}$  for points in Fig. 2a range 1.54 to 6.9  $\text{cm}^2/(\mu\text{m}^2 \cdot \text{Mm})$ , and the average  $R_{V_{sp}}$  is 4.35  $\text{cm}^2/(\mu\text{m}^2 \cdot \text{Mm})$ . If this average  $R_{V_{sp}}$  is used for estimations of  $V_a(\text{dry})$  based on measured  $\sigma_{sp}(550\text{ nm})$ , large bias may occur. Datasets of PNSD and  $\sigma_{sp}$  measured by the “dry” nephelometer during Wangdu campaign are used for investigating the performance of using the average  $R_{V_{sp}}$  in Fig. 2a for

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380 estimating  $V_a(\text{dry})$ , and the results are shown in Fig.2b. The x-axis represents measured  $V_a(\text{dry})$   
381 which is integrated from measured PNSD. The y-axis represents estimated  $V_a(\text{dry})$  with an  
382 average  $R_{Vsp}$ . The results demonstrate that although a good correlation exists between estimated  
383  $V_a(\text{dry})$  and measured  $V_a(\text{dry})$  (square of correlation coefficient between them is 0.83), large  
384 errors might occur, about 30% of data points have relative differences larger than 30%. More  
385 sophisticated method which can partially account for the variation of  $R_{Vsp}$  is needed for  
386 estimating  $V_a(\text{dry})$  based on measurements of the “dry” nephelometer.

387 For developing a method which can partially consider the variation of  $R_{Vsp}$ , factors which  
388 determine the variation in  $R_{Vsp}$  should be aware of. Here, the quantitative relationship between  
389  $V_a(\text{dry})$  and  $\sigma_{sp}$  is analyzed. The  $\sigma_{sp}$  and  $V_a(\text{dry})$  can be expressed as the following:

$$390 \sigma_{sp} = \int \pi r^2 Q_{sca}(m, r) n(r) dr \quad (5)$$

$$391 V_a(\text{dry}) = \int \frac{4}{3} \pi r^3 n(r) dr \quad (6)$$

392 where  $Q_{sca}(m, r)$  is scattering efficiency for a particle with refractive index  $m$  and particle  
393 radius  $r$ ,  $n(r)$  is the aerosol size distribution. As presented in equation (5) and (6), relating  
394  $V_a(\text{dry})$  with  $\sigma_{sp}$  involves complex relation between  $Q_{sca}(m, r)$  and particle diameter, and this  
395 relationship can be simulated using Mie theory. In consideration of aerosol refractive index at  
396 visible spectral range, aerosol chemical components can be classified into two categories: the  
397 light absorbing component and the almost light non-absorbing components (inorganic salts and  
398 acids, and most of the organic compounds). Near the visible spectral range, the light absorbing  
399 component can be referred to as BC. BC particles are either externally or internally mixed with  
400 other aerosol components. In view of this,  $Q_{sca}$  at 550 nm as a function of particle diameter for  
401 four types of aerosol particles is simulated using Mie theory: almost non-absorbing aerosol

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~~particle, BC particle, BC particle core shell mixed with non-absorbing components and the~~  
~~radius of inner BC core are 25 nm and 100 nm, respectively. Same with those introduced in~~  
~~Sect.2.2, used refractive indices of BC and light non-absorbing components are 1.80 — 0.54i and~~  
~~1.53 — 10<sup>-7</sup>i, respectively. The simulated results are shown in Fig.3a. Near the visible spectral~~  
~~range, most of ambient aerosol particles are almost non-absorbing, and their  $Q_{scat}$  varies more~~  
~~like the blue line shown in Fig.3a. In the case of the blue line, aerosol particles with diameter less~~  
~~than about 800 nm, their  $Q_{scat}$  increases almost monotonously with the particle diameter and can~~  
~~be approximately as a linear function to some extent. Fig.3b shows the simulated size resolved~~  
~~accumulative contribution to scattering coefficient at 550 nm for all PNSDs measured during~~  
~~Wangdu campaign. The results indicate that for continental aerosol particles without influences~~  
~~of dust, in most cases, all particles with diameter less than about 800 nm contribute more than 80%~~  
~~to total  $\sigma_{sp}$ . Therefore, for equation (5), If we express  $Q_{scat}(m, r)$  as  $Q_{scat}(m, r) = k \cdot r$ , then~~  
~~equation (5) can be expressed as the following:~~

~~$$\sigma_{sp} = k \int \pi r^2 n(r) dr \quad (7)$$~~

~~This explains why  $\sigma_{sp}(550 \text{ nm})$  is roughly proportional to  $V_{sp}(\text{dry})$ . However, the value k varies~~  
~~a lot for different particle diameters, which lead to the  $R_{v,sp}$  affected greatly by the PNSD which~~  
~~determines weights of influences of aerosol particles with different diameters on  $R_{v,sp}$ . The~~  
~~difference between the blue line and black line shown in Fig.3a indicates that fraction of~~  
~~externally mixed BC particles in all particles and their sizes will impact on  $R_{v,sp}$  largely. The~~  
~~difference between the black line and the red line as well as the difference between the solid red~~  
~~line and the dashed red line shown in Fig.3a indicate that how BC mixed with and how much BC~~  
~~core shell mixed with other components also exert significant influences on  $R_{v,sp}$ . In summary,~~

424 the variation of  $R_{\text{vpp}}$  is mainly determined by variations in PNSD, mass size distribution and  
425 mixing state of BC. It is difficult to find a simple functional relationship between measured  $\sigma_{\text{sp}}$   
426 and  $V_{\text{a}}(\text{dry})$ .

427 The “dry” nephelometer provides not only one single  $\sigma_{\text{sp}}$  at 550 nm, it measures six  
428 parameters including  $\sigma_{\text{sp}}$  and back scattering coefficients ( $\sigma_{\text{bsp}}$ ) at three wavelengths. The  
429 Ångström exponent calculated from spectral dependence of  $\sigma_{\text{sp}}$  provide information on mean  
430 predominant aerosol size and is associated mostly with PNSD. However, the mass size  
431 distribution and mixing state of BC also impact on Ångström exponent. The variation of the  
432 hemispheric backscattering fraction (HBF) which is the ratio between  $\sigma_{\text{bsp}}$  and  $\sigma_{\text{sp}}$ , is essentially  
433 related with mass size distribution and mixing state of BC if the PNSD is fixed (Ma et al., 2012).  
434 If the PNSD and mass size distribution of BC are fixed, higher HBF at 550 nm means that BC  
435 particles are more internally (core-shell) mixed with other aerosol components (Ma et al., 2012).  
436 Hence, variations in both Ångström exponent and HBF are associated with PNSD, mass size  
437 distribution and mixing state of BC. As a result, the Ångström exponent and HBF together  
438 might constrain the variation of  $R_{\text{vpp}}$  better. In keeping with this philosophy,  $R_{\text{vpp}}$  shown in  
439 Fig.2a are spread into a two-dimensional gridded plot as shown in Fig.4a. Ångström exponent  
440 values are calculated based on concurrently measured  $\sigma_{\text{sp}}$  at 450 nm and 550 nm from TSI 3563  
441 nephelometer. In Fig.4a, two regions are distinctly differed. In general, when HBF at 550 nm is  
442 larger than 0.14 and Ångström exponent is larger than 1, the  $R_{\text{vpp}}$  tends to be much smaller.  
443 This can be qualitatively understood. For the case of the blue line shown in Fig.3a, if particle  
444 diameter is smaller than about 750 nm, overall, the k value is larger if the particle diameter is  
445 larger. Smaller Ångström exponent and HBF at 550 nm together correspond to relatively larger

446 particle diameter and therefore larger  $R_{V_{550}}$ . However, more details about the average variation  
447 pattern of  $R_{V_{550}}$  with changes of HBF at 550 nm and Ångström exponent are difficult to be  
448 disentangled, due to that influences of PNSD, mass size distribution and mixing state of BC on  
449  $R_{V_{550}}$  are highly nonlinear. The percentile value of standard deviation of  $R_{V_{550}}$  values within each  
450 grid of Fig.4a divided by their average is shown in Fig.4b. If HBF at 550 nm is less than 0.13, in  
451 most cases, percentile values shown in Fig.4b are less than 7%, which means that in this region  
452  $R_{V_{550}}$  varies little within each grid. However, if HBF at 550 nm is larger than 0.14, in most cases,  
453 percentile values shown in Fig.4b are near or even larger than 20%, which means that in this  
454 region even HBF and Ångström exponent are fixed,  $R_{V_{550}}$  still varies a lot. These results imply  
455 that if using results shown in Fig.4a as a look up table for estimating  $R_{V_{550}}$ , large bias may occur  
456 when HBF at 550 nm is larger than 0.14.

457 — Datasets of  $\sigma_{sp}$  and  $\sigma_{b,sp}$  measured by the “dry” nephelometer and concurrently measured  
458 PNSD during Wangdu campaign are used for verifying the performance of using results shown  
459 in Fig.4a as a look up for estimating  $R_{V_{550}}$  and further estimating  $V_a$ (dry), and results are shown  
460 in Fig.5a. Compared with the results shown in Fig.2b, the look up table method has improved the  
461 estimation of  $V_a$ (dry) markedly (square of correlation coefficient between measured and  
462 estimated  $V_a$ (dry) increased from 0.83 to 0.9). It is noticeable that for points with HBF at 550  
463 nm larger than about 0.13,  $V_a$ (dry) are systematically underestimated. This result is consistent  
464 with the previous analysis that if using results shown in Fig.4a as a look up table for estimating  
465  $R_{V_{550}}$ , large bias may occur when HBF at 550 nm is larger than 0.14.

466 — Six parameters are measured by the “dry” nephelometer, however, only three parameters  
467 including  $\sigma_{sp}$  at 450 nm and 550 nm, and  $\sigma_{b,sp}$  at 550 nm are used if using the look up table

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468 shown in Fig.4a for estimating  $V_a(\text{dry})$ . It can be seen from the results shown in Fig.4b, when  
469 the HBF at 550 nm is larger than 0.14, variations in  $R_{V_{sp}}$  are poorly constrained. Based on the  
470 improvement achieved by using a look up table, we speculate that if all six parameters measured  
471 by the “dry” nephelometer are used together, then HBF at three wavelengths and Ångström  
472 exponent calculated both from  $\sigma_{sp}$  at 450 nm and 550 nm and  $\sigma_{sp}$  at 550 nm and 700 nm  
473 together can constrain variation in  $R_{V_{sp}}$  better. Machine learning methods which can handle  
474 many input parameters are capable of learning from historical datasets and then make predictions  
475 are powerful tools for tackling highly nonlinear problems. In the light of this, the idea came out  
476 ~~that predicting  $V_a(\text{dry})$  based on six optical parameters measured by the “dry” nephelometer~~  
477 ~~might be accomplished by using a machine learning method. In this paper, we choose the~~  
478 ~~machine learning function RidgeCV (ridge regression) from the linear model of module Scikit-~~  
479 ~~learn of computer language Python (Pedregosa et al., 2011) for training the historical datasets of~~  
480 ~~concurrently measured  $V_a(\text{dry})$  and six raw parameters measured by the “dry” nephelometer~~  
481 ~~from several field campaigns (Corresponding to data points shown in Fig.2a). Measurements~~  
482 ~~during Wangdu campaign again are used for evaluating this machine learning method and the~~  
483 ~~results are shown in Fig.5b. Compared with results shown in Fig.5a, the estimation of  $V_a(\text{dry})$  is~~  
484 ~~further improved, not only reflected in the increase of square of correlation coefficient, but also~~  
485 ~~reflected in the change of the slope. And almost all points with HBF at 550 nm larger than 0.13~~  
486 ~~distributed within or near the 20% relative difference line. For the machine learning method, the~~  
487 ~~square of correlation coefficient between measured and estimated  $V_a(\text{dry})$  is 0.93, with 75% and~~  
488 ~~43% points have absolute relative differences less than 20% and 10%, respectively. And the~~  
489 ~~standard deviations of absolute and relative differences between measured and estimated  $V_a(\text{dry})$~~   
490 ~~are  $8.4 \mu\text{m}^3/\text{cm}^3$  and 10%, respectively.~~

491 Measured PNSDs and values of  $\sigma_{sp}$  at 550 nm during Wangdu campaign are shown in  
492 Fig.6a and Fig.6b, respectively. The results show that new particle formation phenomena are  
493 frequently observed during Wangdu campaign. In addition, both time series of estimated values  
494 of  $V_a(\text{dry})$  using the machine learning method and time series of  $V_a(\text{dry})$  which are integrated  
495 from measured PNSDs are shown in Fig.6c. The results demonstrate that overall, under different  
496 pollution levels and during periods with and without new particle formation phenomena,  
497 predicted  $V_a(\text{dry})$  agrees well with measured  $V_a(\text{dry})$ . If a reasonable aerosol density is  
498 assumed, measurements from a three-wavelength nephelometer can also be used to estimate total  
499 mass concentrations of ambient aerosol particles in dry state.

500 ~~Machine learning methods do not explicitly express relationships between many variables,~~  
501 ~~however, they learn and implicitly construct complex relationships among variables from~~  
502 ~~historical datasets. Many different and comprehensive machine learning methods are developed~~  
503 ~~for diverse applications, and can be directly used as a tool for solving a lot of nonlinear problems~~  
504 ~~which may not be mathematically well understood. We suggest that using machine learning~~  
505 ~~method for estimating  $V_a(\text{dry})$  based on measurements of the “dry” nephelometer. The way of~~  
506 ~~estimating  $V_a(\text{dry})$  with machine learning method might be applicable for different regions~~  
507 ~~around the world if used estimators are trained with corresponding regional historical datasets.~~

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### 508 ~~3.21.1.1 Bridge the gap between $f(\text{RH})$ and $V_g(\text{RH})$~~

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509 ~~The approximate proportional relationship between  $\sigma_{sp}$  and  $V_a(\text{dry})$  introduced in Sect.3.1 is~~  
510 ~~only applicable for aerosol particles of constant refractive index, which is not the case for aerosol~~  
511 ~~particles growing by addition of water with increasing RH (Hegg et al., 1993). As aerosol~~  
512 ~~particles grow under conditions of increasing RH, the aerosol scattering efficiency change~~

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513 nonlinearly and can even decrease. It is difficult to use the same method as introduced in Sect.3.1  
514 to estimate the total aerosol volume of aerosol particles in ambient RH conditions. If  $Vg(RH)$  can  
515 be directly estimated from measured  $f(RH)$ , then the ALWC can be estimated. Relating  $f(RH)$   
516 to  $Vg(RH)$  involves complicated variations of aerosol scattering efficiency as a function of  
517 growing particle diameter due to aerosol water uptake, and this relationship can be described  
518 using Mie theory and  $\kappa$ -Köhler theory. As discussed in Sect.2.4,  $f(RH)$  and  $Vg(RH)$  can be  
519 described by the formula form of equation (2) and (4). To consolidate this conclusion, a  
520 simulative experiment is conducted. In the simulative experiment, average PNSD in dry state and  
521 mass concentration of BC during the Haze in China (HaChi) campaign (Kuang et al., 2015) are  
522 used. During HaChi campaign, size-resolved  $\kappa$  distributions are derived from measured size-  
523 segregated chemical compositions (Liu et al., 2014) and their average is used in this experiment  
524 to account the size dependence of aerosol hygroscopicity. Modelled results of  $f(RH)$  and  
525  $Vg(RH)$  are shown in Fig.7. Results demonstrate that modelled  $f(RH)$  and  $Vg(RH)$  can be well  
526 parameterized using the formula form of equation (25) and (47). Fitted values of  $\kappa_{sca}$  and  $\kappa_{vf}$   
527 are 0.227 and 0.285, respectively. This result indicates that if linkage between  $\kappa_{sca}$  and  $\kappa_{vf}$  is  
528 established, measurements of  $f(RH)$  can be directly related to  $Vg(RH)$ .

### 529 3.3.3 Bridge the gap between $f(RH)$ and $Vg(RH)$

530 Many factors have significant influences on the relationships between  $f(RH)$  and  $Vg(RH)$ ,  
531 such as PNSD, BC mixing state and the size-resolved aerosol hygroscopicity. To gain insights  
532 into the relationships between  $\kappa_{sca}$  and  $\kappa_{vf}$ , a simulative experiment using Mie theory and  $\kappa$ -  
533 Köhler theory is designed. In this experiment, all PNSDs at dry state along with mass  
534 concentrations of BC from D2D1 are used, characteristics of these PNSDs can be found in

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535 ~~Kuang et al. (2017a)~~Kuang et al. (2017b). As to size-resolved aerosol hygroscopicity, a number  
536 of size-resolved  $\kappa$  distributions were derived from measured size-segregated chemical  
537 compositions during HaChi campaign (Liu et al., 2014). ~~Their results demonstrate that overall,~~  
538 ~~size-resolved  $\kappa$  distributions have three modes: highly hygroscopic mode with diameters of~~  
539 ~~aerosol particles ranging from 150 nm to 1  $\mu$ m, less hygroscopic mode with diameters of aerosol~~  
540 ~~particles less than 150 nm and nearly hydrophobic mode with diameters of aerosol particles~~  
541 ~~larger than 1  $\mu$ m.~~TheResults from other researches also show similar size dependence of aerosol  
542 hygroscopicity (Meng et al., 2014). In view of this, the shape of the average size-resolved  $\kappa$   
543 distribution during HaChi campaign (black line shown in Fig. 9a7a) is used in the designed  
544 experiment. Other than the shape of size-resolved  $\kappa$  distribution, the overall aerosol  
545 hygroscopicity which determines the magnitude of  $f(\text{RH})$  also have large impacts on the  
546 relationship between  $\kappa_{sca}$  and  $\kappa_{vf}$ . In view of this, ratios range from 0.05 to 2 with an interval of  
547 0.05 are multiplied with the ~~aforementioned~~ average size-resolved  $\kappa$  distribution (the black line  
548 shown in Fig. 9a7a) to produce a number of size-resolved  $\kappa$  distributions which represent aerosol  
549 particles from nearly hydrophobic to highly hygroscopic. During simulating processes, each  
550 PNSD is modelled with all produced size-resolved  $\kappa$  distributions. In the following, the ratio  
551  $\kappa_{vf}/\kappa_{sca}$  termed as  $R_{vf}$  is used to indicate the relationship between  $\kappa_{sca}$  and  $\kappa_{vf}$ .

552 In consideration of that values of Ångström exponent contain information about PNSD  
553 ~~(Kuang et al., 2017a)~~(Kuang et al., 2017b) and values of  $\kappa_{sca}$  represent overall hygroscopicity of  
554 ambient aerosol particles, and both the two parameters can be directly calculated from  
555 measurements of a three-wavelength humidified nephelometer system ~~(Kuang et al.,~~  
556 ~~2017a)~~(Kuang et al., 2017b). Simulated  $R_{vf}$  values are spread into a two-dimensional gridded  
557 plot. The first dimension is Ångström exponent with an interval of 0.02 and the second

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558 dimension is  $\kappa_{sca}$  with an interval of 0.01. Average  $R_{Vf}$  value within each grid is represented by  
559 color and shown in Fig. [8a6a](#). Values of Ångström exponent corresponding to used PNSDs are  
560 calculated from simultaneously measured  $\sigma_{sp}$  values at 450 nm and 550 nm from TSI 3563  
561 nephelometer. Results shown in Fig. [8a6a](#) exhibit that both PNSD and overall aerosol  
562 ~~hygroscopicity~~ hygroscopicity have significant influences on  $R_{Vf}$ . Simulated values of  $R_{Vf}$  range  
563 from 0.8 to 1.7 with an average of 1.2. Overall,  $R_{Vf}$  value is lower when value of Ångström  
564 exponent is larger. With respect to influences of  $\kappa_{sca}$  on  $R_{Vf}$ , if Ångström exponent is larger  
565 than about 1.1,  $\kappa_{sca}$  have small influences on  $R_{Vf}$  while its influence is remarkable when  
566 Ångström exponent is lower than 1.1. In addition, the percentile value of standard deviation of  
567  $R_{Vf}$  values within each grid divided by its average is shown in Fig. [8b6b](#). In most cases, these  
568 percentile values are less than 10% (about 90%) which demonstrates that  $R_{Vf}$  varies little within  
569 each grid shown in Fig. [8a6a](#). This implies that results of Fig. [8a6a](#) can serve as a look up table to  
570 estimate  $R_{Vf}$  and thereby  $\kappa_{Vf}$  values can be directly predicted from measurements of a three-  
571 wavelength humidified nephelometer system.

572 For the look up table shown in Fig. [8a6a](#), a fixed size-resolved  $\kappa$  distribution is used, which  
573 might not be able to capture variations of  $R_{Vf}$  induced by different types of size-resolved  $\kappa$   
574 distributions under different PNSD conditions. A simulative experiment is conducted to  
575 investigate the performance of this look up table. In this experiment, the following datasets are  
576 used: PNSDs and mass concentrations of BC from [B2D1](#) (the number of used PNSD is 11996),  
577 and size-resolved  $\kappa$  distributions from HaChi campaign (Liu et al., 2014) which are presented in  
578 Fig. [9a7a](#) (the number is 23). Results shown in Fig. [9a7a](#) imply that the shape of size-resolved  $\kappa$   
579 distribution has no apparent correlation with pollution degrees and varies a lot. During the

580 simulating processes, for each PNSD, it is used to simulate  $R_{Vf}$  values corresponding to all used  
 581 size-resolved  $\kappa$  distributions, therefore, 275908  $R_{Vf}$  values are modelled. Also, modelled values  
 582 of  $\kappa_{sca}$  and corresponding values of modelled Ångström exponent are together used to estimate  
 583  $R_{Vf}$  values using the look up table shown in Fig. 8a7a. Results of relative differences between  
 584 estimated and modelled  $R_{Vf}$  values under different pollution conditions are shown in Fig. 9b7b.  
 585 Overall, 88% of points have absolute relative differences less than 15%, and 68% of points have  
 586 absolute relative differences less than 10%. This look up table performs better when the air is  
 587 relatively polluted.

### 588 3.3.3.4 Estimation Calculation of the ambient ALWC

589 According to the equation  $V_g(RH) = 1 + \kappa_{Vf} \frac{RH}{100 - RH}$ , During the Wangdu campaign, there  
 590 are ten days volume concentrations of aerosol liquid water (ALWC) at different RH points can be  
 591 expressed as:

$$592 \quad ALWC = V_a(\text{dry}) \times (V_g(RH) - 1) = V_a(\text{dry}) \cdot \kappa_{sca} \cdot R_{Vf} \cdot \frac{RH}{100 - RH} \quad (7)$$

593 According to discussions of Sect.3.2,  $V_a(\text{dry})$  can be predicted based only on measurements  
 594 from the “dry” nephelometer by using a random forest model. The training of the random forest  
 595 model requires only regional historical datasets of simultaneously measured PNSD and BC. The  
 596  $\kappa_{sca}$  is directly fitted from  $f(RH)$  measurements. The  $R_{Vf}$  can be estimated using the look up  
 597 table introduced in Sect.3.3. Thus, based only on measurements from a three-wavelength  
 598 humidified nephelometer system are available. Values of  $\kappa_{sca}$  are first fitted from observed  
 599  $f(RH)$  curves and then linearly interpolated to times, ALWCs of ambient aerosol particles at

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600 different RH points can be estimated. If both measurements from the humidified nephelometer  
601 system and ambient RH are available, ambient ALWC can be calculated.

## 602 **4. Results and discussions**

### 603 **4.1 Validation of the random forest model for predicting $V_a$ (dry) based on measurements** 604 **of the “dry” nephelometer**

605 The machine learning method, random forest model, is proposed to predict  $V_a$ (dry) based  
606 only on  $\sigma_{sp}$  and  $\sigma_{bsp}$  RH points (one  $f$ (RH) curve lasts about 45 minutes, the time resolution of  
607 at three wavelengths measured by the “dry” nephelometer. Datasets of PNSD and BC from field  
608 campaigns F1 to F4 and F6 are used ambient RH is five minutes), and the to train the random  
609 forest model. Datasets of PNSD and optical parameters measured by the “dry” nephelometer  
610 from field campaign F5 are used to verify the trained random forest model. The schematic  
611 diagram of this method is shown in Fig.5. The comparison results between calculated and  
612 predicted  $V_a$ (dry) of  $PM_{10}$  and  $PM_{2.5}$  are shown in Fig.8. The square of correlation coefficient  
613 between predicted and calculated  $V_a$ (dry) of  $PM_{10}$  is 0.96. And almost all points lie between or  
614 near 20% relative difference lines. The square of correlation coefficient between predicted and  
615 calculated  $V_a$ (dry) of  $PM_{2.5}$  is 0.997. And almost all points lie between or near 10% relative  
616 difference lines. The standard deviations of relative differences between predicted and calculated  
617  $V_a$ (dry) of  $PM_{10}$  and  $PM_{2.5}$  are 10% and 4% , respectively. These results indicate that  $V_a$ (dry) of  
618  $PM_{2.5}$  can be well predicted by using the machine learning method. While  $V_a$ (dry) of  $PM_{10}$   
619 predicted by using the machine learning method has a relatively larger bias.

620 Machine learning methods do not explicitly express relationships between many variables,  
621 however, they learn and implicitly construct complex relationships among variables from

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622 historical datasets. Many different and comprehensive machine learning methods are developed  
623 for diverse applications, and can be directly used as a tool for solving a lot of nonlinear problems  
624 which may not be mathematically well understood. We suggest that using machine learning  
625 method for estimating  $V_a$  (dry) based on measurements of the “dry” nephelometer. The way of  
626 estimating  $V_a$  (dry) with machine learning method might be applicable for different regions  
627 around the world if used estimators are trained with corresponding regional historical datasets.

628 **4.2 20a. The RH range of one Comparison between ambient ALWC calculated from**  
629 **ISORROPIA and measurements of the humidified nephelometer system.**

630 So far, widely used tools for prediction of ambient ALWC are thermodynamic models.  
631 ISORROPIA-II thermodynamic model (<http://isorrophia.eas.gatech.edu>) is a famous one, and is  
632 widely used in researches for predicting pH and ALWC of ambient aerosol particles (Guo et al.,  
633 2015; Cheng et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2017). Water soluble ions and gaseous precursors are required  
634 as inputs of thermodynamic model. During Gucheng campaign, measurements from both the  
635 humidified nephelometer system and IGAC are available. Thus, the ambient ALWC can be  
636 calculated through two independent methods: thermodynamic model based on IGAC  
637 measurements and the method proposed in Sect.3.4 which is based on measurements of the  
638 humidified nephelometer system. In this study, the forward mode in ISORROPIA-II is used, and  
639 water-soluble ions in PM<sub>2.5</sub> and gaseous precursors (NH<sub>3</sub>, HNO<sub>3</sub>, HCl) measured by the IGAC  
640 instrument along with simultaneously measured RH and T are used as inputs. The aerosol water  
641 associated with organic matter are not considered in the method of ISORROPIA model, due to  
642 the lack of measurements of organic aerosol mass. However, results from previous studies  
643 indicate that organic matter induced particle water only account for about 5% of total ALWC

644 (Liu et al., 2017). For the ALWC calculated from the humidified nephelometer system. The  
645 needed  $V_d$  (dry) of  $PM_{2.5}$  in equation (7) is calculated from simultaneously measured PNSD.

646 The comparison results between ambient ALWC calculated from these two independent  
647 methods are shown in Fig.9a. The square of correlation coefficient between them is 0.92, most of  
648 the points lie within or nearby 30% relative difference lines. The slope is 1.14, and the intercept  
649 is  $-8.6 \mu m^3 / cm^3$ . When ambient RH is higher than 80%, the ambient ALWCs calculated from  
650 measurements of the humidified nephelometer system are relatively higher than those calculated  
651 based on ISORROPIA-II. When ambient RH is lower than 60%, the ambient ALWCs calculated  
652 from measurements of the humidified nephelometer system are relatively lower than those  
653 calculated based on ISORROPIA-II. Overall, a good agreement is achieved between ambient  
654 ALWC calculated from measurements of the humidified nephelometer system and ISORROPIA  
655 thermodynamic model.

656 Guo et al. (2015) conducted the comparison between ambient ALWC calculated from  
657 ISORROPIA model and ambient ALWC calculated from measurements of the humidified  
658 nephelometer system by assuming  $V_g(RH) \equiv f(RH)^{1.5}$ . Thus, the comparison results between  
659 ambient ALWC calculated based on ISORROPIA and ambient ALWC calculated by assuming  
660  $V_g(RH) \equiv f(RH)$ -cycle is about 50% to 90%. The estimated values of  $\kappa_{dry}$  using results shown in  
661 Fig.20a as a look up table is  $^{-1.5}$  are also shown in Fig.9b. The square of correlation coefficient  
662 between them is also 0.92. However, the slope and intercept are 1.7 and  $-21 \mu m^3 / cm^3$   
663 respectively. 20a. When the ambient RH is higher than about 80%, calculated ambient ALWC  
664 will be significantly overestimated if assumes that  $V_g(RH) \equiv f(RH)^{1.5}$ . This method assumes that  
665 average scattering efficiency of aerosol particles at dry state and different RH conditions are the

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666 same. When ambient RH is high, the particle diameters changes a lot. As the results shown in  
667 Fig.S5, for non-absorbing particle, when diameter of aerosol particle in dry state is less than 500  
668 nm, the aerosol scattering efficiency increase almost monotonously with increasing RH  
669 especially when RH is higher than 80%. Therefore, it is not suitable to assume that average  
670 scattering efficiency of aerosol particles at dry state and different RH conditions are the same.

#### 671 **4.3 Volume fractions of ALWC in total ambient aerosol volume**

672 During ~~this observation period~~ Wangdu campaign,  $\kappa_{sca}$  ranges from 0.05 to 0.3 with an  
673 average of 0.19. Estimated values of  $R_{Vf}$  ranges from 0.86 to 1.47, with an average of 1.15.  
674 Estimated values of  $\kappa_{Vf}$  ranges from 0.05 to 0.35, with an average of 0.22. ~~Time series of~~  
675 ~~ambient RH is shown in Fig.20b, and RH points with RH larger than 95% are excluded because~~  
676 ~~the measurements of ambient RH at this range is highly uncertain. With estimated values of  $\kappa_{Vf}$~~   
677 ~~and measured ambient RH,  $V_g(RH)$  of aerosol particles in ambient RH states can be estimated.~~  
678 ~~Then, with measured  $V_a(dry)$  (shown in Fig.20c) which is integrated from measured PNSD,~~  
679 ~~water volumes of ambient aerosol particles are estimated and shown in Fig.20c. During this~~  
680 ~~observation period, estimated water volume of ambient aerosol particles mainly range from 1 to~~  
681  ~~$300 \mu m^3/cm^3$ , with an average of  $42 \mu m^3/cm^3$ .The calculated volume fractions of water in~~  
682 ~~total volume of ambient aerosols during Wangdu campaign are shown in Fig.10a. The results~~  
683 ~~indicate that during Wangdu campaign, when ambient RH is higher than 70%, the  $\kappa_{Vf}$  values are~~  
684 ~~relatively higher. The volume fractions of water is always higher than 50% when ambient RH is~~  
685 ~~higher than 80%.~~

#### 686 **3.4 Uncertainty analysis**

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687 During Gucheng campaign,  $\kappa_{sca}$  ranges from 0.008 to 0.22 with an average of 0.1,  $\kappa_{vf}$   
688 ranges from 0.01 to 0.21 with an average of 0.12. The aerosol hygroscopicity during Gucheng  
689 campaign is much lower than aerosol hygroscopicity during Wangdu campaign. During Gucheng  
690 campaign, the maximum volume fraction of water in ambient aerosol is 42% when ambient RH  
691 is at 80%. Averagely speaking, when ambient RH is higher than 90%, the volume fraction of  
692 water in ambient aerosols reaches higher than 50%.

#### 693 4.4 Discussions about the applicability of the proposed method

694 ~~According to the equation  $V_g(RH) = 1 + \frac{\kappa_{vf} RH}{100 - RH}$ , the estimated volume of aerosol~~  
695 ~~liquid water ( $V_{water}$ ) can be expressed as:  $V_{water} = V_a(\text{dry}) \cdot \kappa_{sca} \cdot R_{vf} \cdot \frac{RH}{100 - RH}$ . Neglecting~~  
696 ~~measurement uncertainty of ambient RH, uncertainties contribute to  $V_{water}$  include uncertainty~~  
697 ~~of  $V_a(\text{dry})$ , uncertainties of  $\kappa_{sca}$  and  $R_{vf}$ .~~

698 ~~— Results introduced in Sect.3.1 suggest that using the machine learning method to predict~~  
699  ~~$V_a(\text{dry})$  from measurements of a three-wavelength nephelometer is feasible but non-negligible~~  
700 ~~bias still exists between measured and estimated  $V_a(\text{dry})$ . The standard deviation of relative~~  
701 ~~differences between measured and estimated  $V_a(\text{dry})$  is 15%. If using triple the standard~~  
702 ~~deviation (99% of points locate within this range) as the uncertainty of this method, the~~  
703 ~~uncertainty is 45%. Here, sources of this large bias is discussed. The  $V_a(\text{dry})$  is determined from~~  
704 ~~PNSD which is high-dimensional. Six parameters provided by the “dry” nephelometer cannot~~  
705 ~~accurately constrain  $R_{exp}$  in the machine learning method. This should be the largest uncertainty~~  
706 ~~source. In addition, used datasets for training the estimator carried some uncertainties which~~  
707 ~~should also influence the performance of the estimator. Using a Monte Carlo method based on~~

708 uncertainties of measured PNSD (see Table 3 of Ma et al. (2014) for the uncertainty parameters  
709 of PNSD),  $V_{\alpha}$  (dry) integrated from measured PNSD have uncertainty of about 5%. The TSI  
710 3563 nephelometer also carry some uncertainties, it is about 9% (Heintzenberg et al.,  
711 2006; Sherman et al., 2015). Their uncertainties will propagate in the processes of training and  
712 verifying the estimator. If the datasets for training the estimator are more comprehensive (like a  
713 year of observation in several sites), the uncertainty of this machine learning method might be  
714 smaller.

715 ~~The  $\kappa_{sea}$  is directly fitted from  $f(\text{RH})$  measurements.~~ Results of Titos et al. (2016)  
716 demonstrate that, for moderately hygroscopic aerosols (e.g.,  $f(\text{RH} = 80\%)$  less than 2.2),  
717  $f(\text{RH})$  errors are around 15%. Since most values of  $f(\text{RH} = 80\%)$  observed on continental  
718 regions are less than 2.2 (Zhang et al., 2015; Titos et al., 2016), 15% is used as the uncertainty of  
719  $f(\text{RH})$  as well as  $\kappa_{sea}$ .

720 As to uncertainty of estimated  $R_{VF}$ . Many factors exert influences on  $R_{VF}$ , such as PNSD,  
721 mixing state of BC and size-resolved  $\kappa$  distribution. If using the 99% line (triple the standard  
722 deviation) shown in Fig.9b as uncertainties of  $R_{VF}$  from influences of size-resolved  $\kappa$  distribution  
723 and PNSD, then this aspect of uncertainties of  $R_{VF}$  under different pollution conditions range  
724 from 17% to 49%. Additionally, the mixing state of BC can also impact on  $R_{VF}$ . In this study, the  
725 BC is assumed to be half externally and half coreshell mixed with other aerosol components. A  
726 simple simulative test is performed to investigate the influence of BC mixing state on  $R_{VF}$ . In  
727 this test, we simulated  $R_{VF}$  values for three kinds of BC mixing states: external; half external and  
728 half coreshell; core shell, and the average PNSD and mass concentration of BC during Wangdu  
729 campaign are used. Simulated  $R_{VF}$  values for these three mixing state are 1.13, 1.18 and 1.25;

730 respectively. Thus, we consider 6% as the uncertainty of  $R_{VF}$  caused by the variation of BC  
731 mixing state. The synthesized uncertainties of estimated  $R_{VF}$  under different pollution levels are  
732 presented in Fig.21, which have considered the variations of BC mixing state and size-resolved  $\kappa$   
733 distribution and PNSD. Uncertainties of estimated  $R_{VF}$  by using the look-up table shown in  
734 Fig.8a range from 18% to 49.4%.

735 —With estimated uncertainties of  $V_a(\text{dry})$ ,  $\kappa_{sea}$  and  $R_{VF}$ , the uncertainties of estimated  $V_{water}$   
736 under different pollution levels can be estimated. In the processes of estimating  $V_{water}$ , two  
737 methods can be used to estimate  $V_a(\text{dry})$ . The first method is estimating  $V_a(\text{dry})$  from  
738 measurements of the three-wavelength “dry” nephelometer (Method 1). However, if PNSD is  
739 available,  $V_a(\text{dry})$  can be directly integrated from measured PNSD (Method 2). The calculated  
740 uncertainties of  $V_{water}$  under different pollution levels with  $V_a(\text{dry})$  estimated from these two  
741 methods are presented in Fig.21. For Method 1, uncertainties of estimated  $V_{water}$  range from  
742 24% to 52%, with an average of 31%. For Method 2, uncertainties of estimated  $V_{water}$  range  
743 from 51% to 68%, with an average of 55%. Compared to clean conditions, the uncertainty of  
744 estimated  $V_{water}$  is smaller when the air is highly polluted. We recommend that if measured  
745 PNSD is available,  $V_a(\text{dry})$  should be calculated from measured PNSD, otherwise,  $V_a(\text{dry})$  can  
746 be estimated from measurements of the “dry” nephelometer.

747 The method proposed in this research is based on datasets of PNSD,  $\sigma_{sp}$  and size-resolved  $\kappa$   
748 distribution which are measured on the NCP without influences of dust and sea salt. Cautions  
749 should be exercised if using the proposed method to estimate the ALWC when the air mass is  
750 influenced by sea salt or dust. The way of estimating  $V_a(\text{dry})$  with machine learning method  
751 might be applicable for different regions around the world. However, the used estimator/predictor

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752 | from machine learning should be trained with corresponding regional historical datasets [and](#)  
753 | [PNSD and BC](#). The way of connecting  $f(\text{RH})$  to  $V_g(\text{RH})$  might also be applicable for other  
754 | continental regions. Still, we suggest that the used look up table is simulated from regional  
755 | historical datasets.

756 | Note that the humidified nephelometer usually operates with RH less than 95%. Aerosol  
757 | water, however, increase dramatically with increasing RH when RH is greater than 95%. Such  
758 | high RH conditions can occur during the haze events. This may ~~limits~~[limit](#) the usage of the  
759 | proposed method when ambient RH is extremely high. As discussed in Sect. [2-43.3](#), the proposed  
760 | way of connecting  $f(\text{RH})$  and  $V_g(\text{RH})$  is based on the  $\kappa$ -Köhler theory. If  $\kappa$  does not change  
761 | with RH, the proposed method should be applicable when RH is higher than 95%, even the  
762 | measurements of humidified nephelometer system are conducted when RH is less than 95%.  
763 | Many studies have done researches about the change of  $\kappa$  with the changing RH (Rastak et al.,  
764 | 2017; Renbaum-Wolff et al., 2016), their results demonstrate that the  $\kappa$  changes with increasing  
765 | RH. However, few studies have investigated the variation of  $\kappa$  of ambient aerosol particles with  
766 | changing RH when RH is less than 100%. Liu et al. (2011) have measured  $\kappa$  of ambient aerosol  
767 | particles at different RHs (90%, 95%, 98.5%) on the NCP. Their results demonstrated that  $\kappa$  at  
768 | different RHs differ little for ambient aerosol particles with different diameters. Results of [Kuang](#)  
769 | ~~et al. (2017b)~~[Kuang et al. \(2017a\)](#) indicated that  $\kappa$  values retrieved from  $f(\text{RH})$  measurements  
770 | agree well with  $\kappa$  values at RH of 98% of aerosol particles with diameter of 250 nm. In this  
771 | respect, the proposed method might be applicable even when ambient RH is extremely high for  
772 | ambient aerosol particles on the NCP. Moreover, for calculating the ambient ALWC, the  
773 | measured ambient RH is required. ~~However, if~~[if](#) the ambient RH is higher than 95%, the

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774 measured ambient RH with current techniques is highly uncertain. Given this, cautions should be  
775 exercised if the ambient ALWC is calculated when the ambient RH is higher than 95%.

776

777 ~~4. conclusions~~

778 5. Conclusions

779 In this paper, a novel method is proposed to calculate ALWC based on measurements of a  
780 three-wavelength humidified nephelometer system. Two critical relationships are required in this  
781 method. One is the relationship between  $V_a(\text{dry})$  and measurements of the “dry” nephelometer.  
782 Another one is the relationship between  $V_g(\text{RH})$  and  $f(\text{RH})$ . The ALWC can be calculated from  
783 the estimated  $V_a(\text{dry})$  and  $V_g(\text{RH})$ .

784 Previous studies have shown that an approximate proportional relationship exists between  
785  $V_a(\text{dry})$  and corresponding  $\sigma_{sp}$ , especially for fine particles (particle diameter less than 1  $\mu\text{m}$ ).  
786 However, PNSD and other factors still have significant influences on this proportional  
787 relationship. It is difficult to directly estimate  $V_a(\text{dry})$  from measured  $\sigma_{sp}$ . In this paper, ~~an~~  
788 ~~estimator~~ a random forest predictor from machine learning procedure is used to estimate  $V_a(\text{dry})$   
789 based on measurements of a three-wavelength nephelometer. This ~~estimator~~ random forest  
790 predictor is trained ~~with~~ based on historical datasets of PNSD and  ~~$\sigma_{sp}$~~  BC from several field  
791 campaigns conducted on the NCP. This method is then validated using measurements from  
792 Wangdu campaign. The square of correlation coefficient between measured and estimated  
793  $V_a(\text{dry})$  ~~is 0.93~~ of  $\text{PM}_{10}$  and  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  are 0.96 and 0.997, respectively.

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794 The relationship between  $V_g(\text{RH})$  and  $f(\text{RH})$  is ~~then~~-investigated in Sect.3 by conducting a  
795 simulative experiment. It is found that the complicated relationship between  $V_g(\text{RH})$  and  $f(\text{RH})$   
796 can be disentangled by using a look up table, and parameters required in the look up table can be  
797 directly calculated from measurements of a three-wavelength humidified nephelometer system.  
798 Given that the  $V_a(\text{dry})$  can be estimated from a three-wavelength “dry” nephelometer, the  
799 ambient ALWC can be estimated from measurements of a three-wavelength humidified  
800 nephelometer system in conjunction with measured ambient RH. ~~During Wangdu campaign,~~  
801 ~~calculated water volumes of ambient aerosol particles range from 1 to  $300 \mu\text{m}^3/\text{cm}^3$ , with an~~  
802 ~~average of  $42 \mu\text{m}^3/\text{cm}^3$ .~~ We have conducted the comparison between ambient ALWC  
803 calculated from ISORROPIA and ambient ALWC calculated from measurements of the  
804 humidified nephelometer system. The square of correlation coefficient between them is 0.92, and  
805 most of the points lie within or nearby 30% relative difference lines. The slope and intercept are  
806 1.14 and  $-8.6 \mu\text{m}^3/\text{cm}^3$ , respectively. Overall, a good agreement is achieved between ambient  
807 ALWC calculated from measurements of the humidified nephelometer system and ISORROPIA  
808 thermodynamic model.

809 Results introduced in this research have bridged the gap between  $f(\text{RH})$  and  $V_g(\text{RH})$ . The  
810 advantage of using measurements of a humidified nephelometer system to estimate ALWC is  
811 that this technique has a fast response time and can provide continuous measurements of the  
812 changing ambient conditions. The new method proposed in this research will facilitate the real-  
813 time monitoring of the ambient ALWC and further our understanding of roles of ALWC in  
814 atmospheric chemistry, secondary aerosol formation and climate change.

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990 Table 1 Abbreviations

RH	relative humidity
<u>PM<sub>2.5</sub></u>	<u>particulate matter with aerodynamic diameter of less than 2.5 <math>\mu\text{m}</math></u>
<u>PM<sub>10</sub></u>	<u>particulate matter with aerodynamic diameter of less than 10 <math>\mu\text{m}</math></u>
$f(\text{RH})$	aerosol light scattering enhancement factor at 550 nm
ALWC	aerosol liquid water content: <u>volume concentrations of water in ambient aerosols</u>
$V_a(\text{dry})$	total volume of ambient aerosol particles in dry state
$V_g(\text{RH})$	aerosol volume enhancement factor due to water uptake
NCP	North China Plain
HTDMA	humidified tandem differential mobility analyser system
PNSD	particle number size distribution
BC	black carbon
$g(\text{RH})$	hygroscopic growth factor
APS	Aerodynamic Particle Sizer
SMPS	scanning mobility particle size spectrometer
$\sigma_{sp}$	aerosol light scattering coefficient
$\sigma_{bsp}$	aerosol back scattering coefficient
$\sigma_{ext}$	aerosol extinction coefficient
$R_{Vsp}$	$\sigma_{sp}(550\text{ nm})/V_a(\text{dry})$
F1 to <del>F5</del> <u>F6</u>	referred as to five field campaigns listed in Table <del>S12</del> <u>PNSD, BC and nephelometer measurements from field campaigns F1 to F4</u>
D1	PNSD, BC and nephelometer measurements from F2, F4 and F5
<del>D2</del>	

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994 Table 2. Locations, time periods and used datasets of fivesix field campaigns

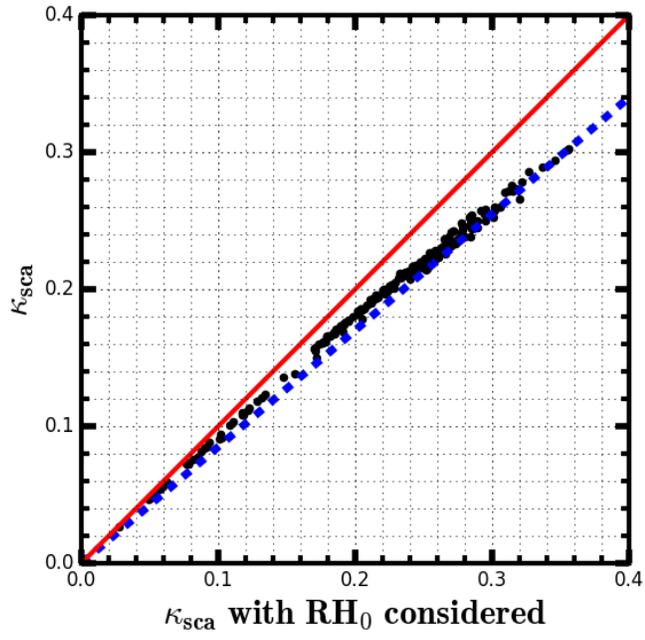
Location	Wuqing	Wuqing	Xianghe	Xianghe	Wangdu	Gucheng
Time period	7 march to 4 April, 2009	12 July to 14 August, 2009	22 July to 30 August, 2012	9 July to 8 August, 2013	4 June to 14 July, 2014	15 October to 25 November, 2016
PNSD	TSMPS+APS	TSMPS+APS	SMPS+APS	TSMPS+APS	TSMPS+APS	SMPS+APS
BC	MAAP	MAAP	MAAP	MAAP	MAAP	AE33

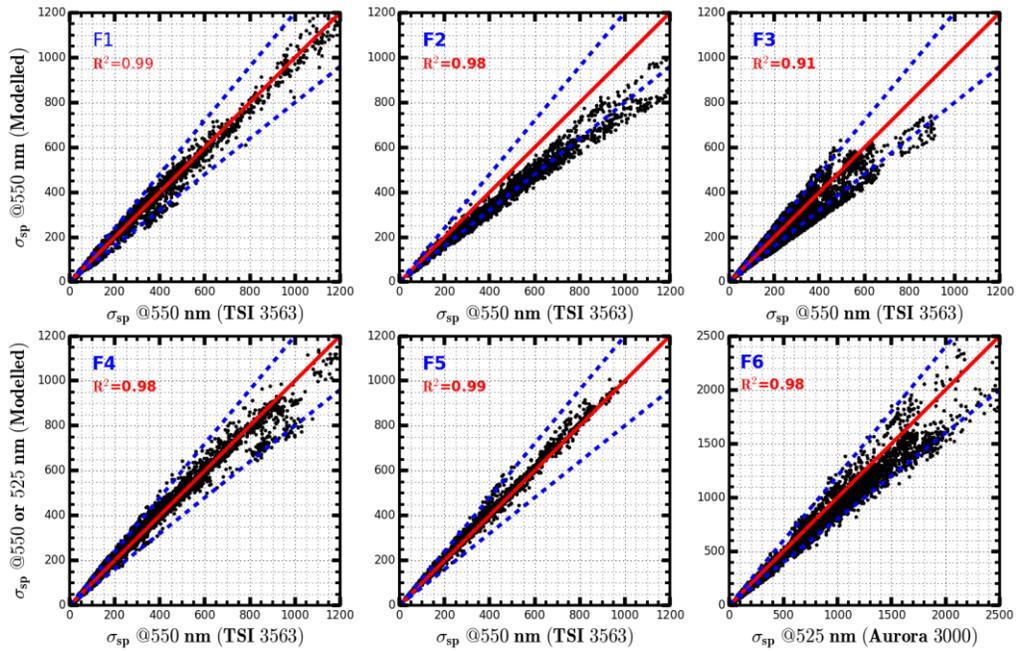
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$\sigma_{sp}$	TSI 3563	Aurora 3000				
$f(RH)$					Humidified nephelometer system	Humidified nephelometer system
<u>Water soluble ions</u>						<u>IGAC</u>
Campaign Name	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6

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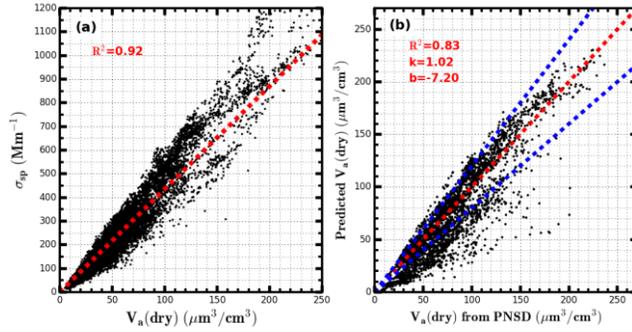
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**Figure 1.** X-axis Comparisons between measured and y-axis represent  $\kappa_{sca}$  are fitted with and without consideration of  $RH_0$  in the “dry” nephelometer, calculated  $\sigma_{sp}$ , solid red line is 1:1 line, the references lines. Dashed blue dashed line is the 15% relative difference line.

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1008 **Figure 2.** (a) Scatter plot of all valid data points of  $V_a(\text{dry})$  and  $\sigma_{sp}$  at 550 nm from D1, dashed red line is the  
 1010 line whose slope is equal to the average ratio  $\sigma_{sp}(550\text{ nm})/V_a(\text{dry})(R_{V_{sp}})$ . (b) The comparison between  
 1011  $V_a(\text{dry})$  estimated from a fixed average  $R_{V_{sp}}$  of (a) and measured  $V_a(\text{dry})$ . In figure (a), the dashed red line is  
 1012 the line whose slope is the average ratio  $R_{V_{sp}}$ . In figure (b), red line is the 1:1 line, two dashed blue line are  
 1013 lines with relative difference of 20%.  $R^2$  is the square of correlation coefficient,  $k$  is the  
 1014 slope,  $b$  is the intercept between measured and modelled  $\sigma_{sp}$ . Blue texts at the upper left corners are  
 1015 corresponding field campaigns as listed in Table 2.

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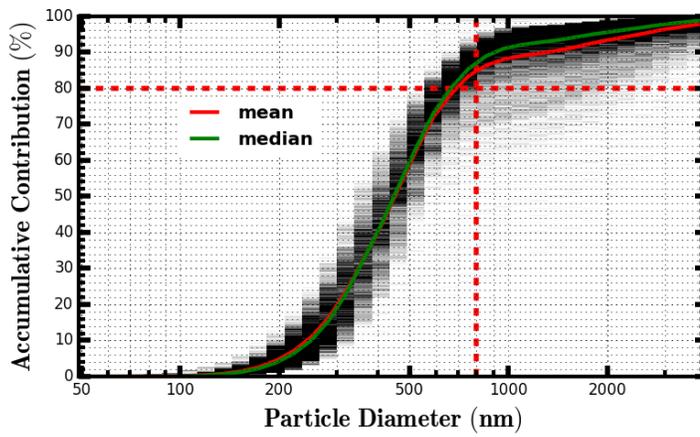
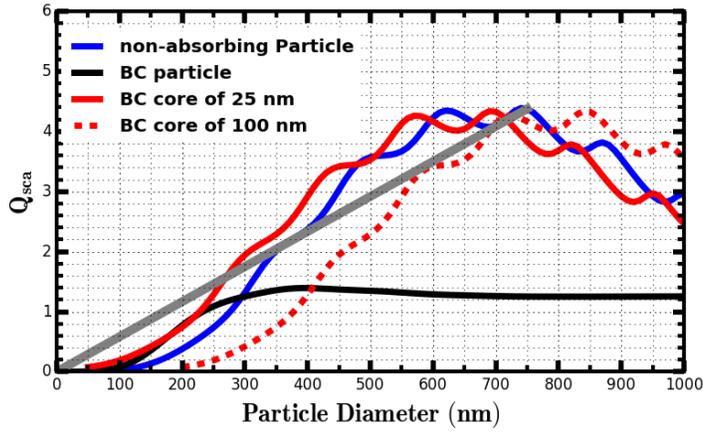
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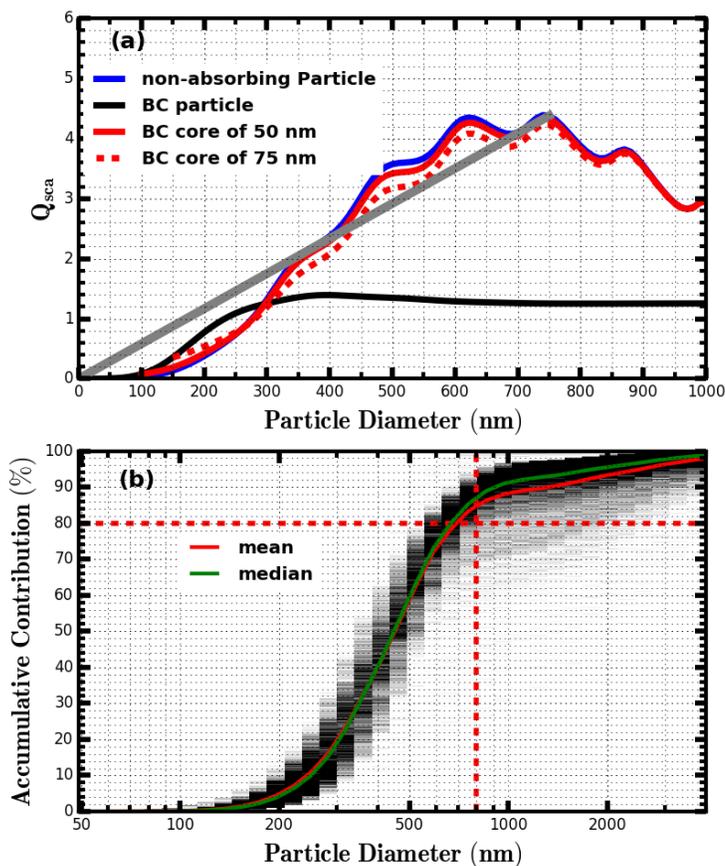
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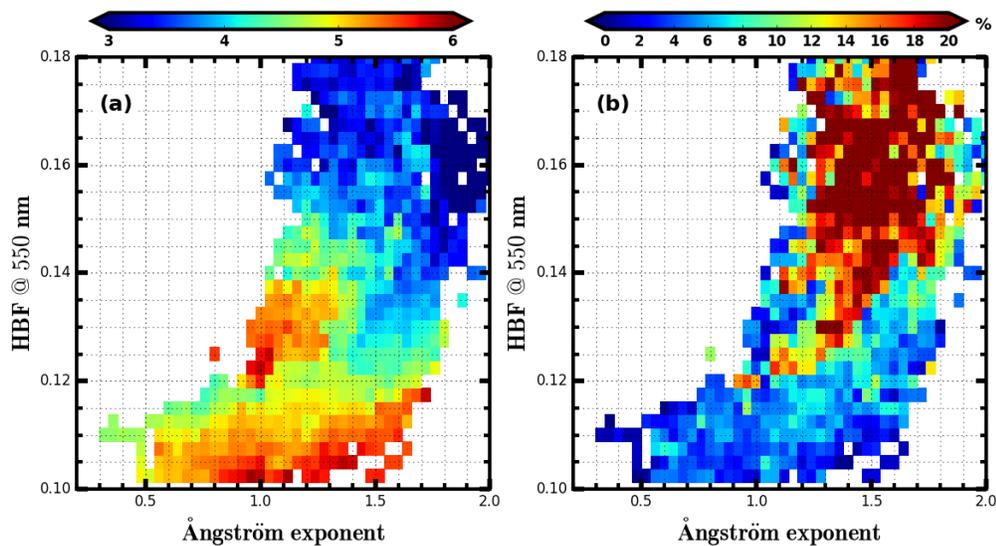
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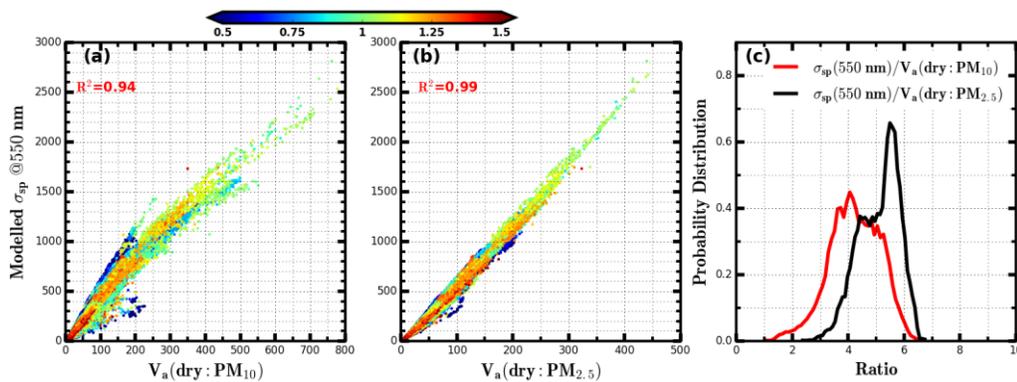
**Figure 32.** (a)  $Q_{sca}$  at 550 nm as a function of particle diameter for four types of aerosol particles, the almost non-absorbing aerosol particle, BC particle, BC particle core-shell mixed with non-absorbing components and the radius of inner BC core are 50 nm and 70 nm. The gray line corresponds to the fitted linear line for the case of non-absorbing particle when particle diameter is less than 750 nm. (b) Simulated size-resolved accumulative contribution to scattering coefficient  $\sigma_{sp}$  at 550 nm for all PNSDs measured during Wangdu campaign, the color scales (from light gray to black) represent occurrences. The dashed dotted lines in (b) represents the position of 800 nm and 80% contribution, respectively.

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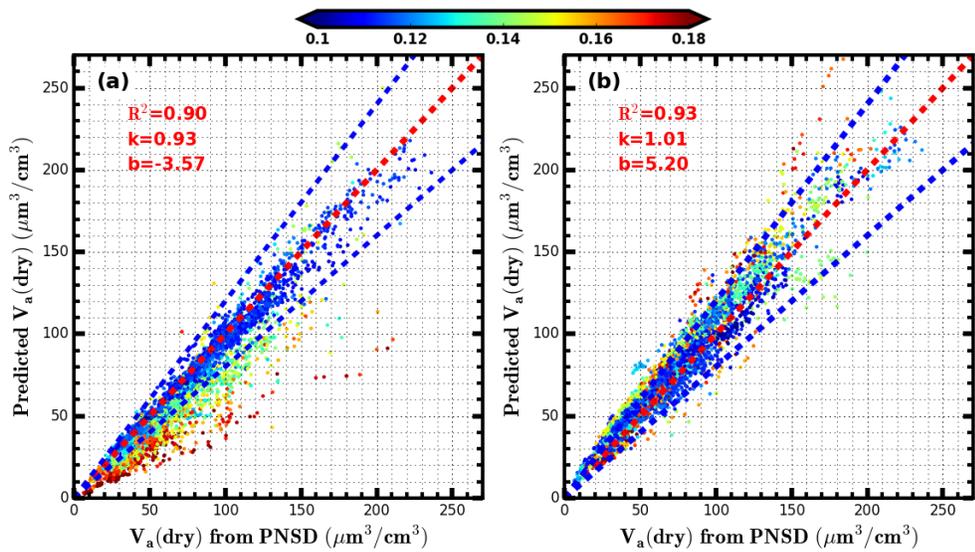


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1038 **Figure 43.** (a) Colors represent  $R_{rsp}$  values and the color bar is shown on the top of this figure, x-axis  
1039 represents Ångström exponent and y-axis represents HBF at 550 nm. (b) Meanings of x-axis and y-axis are  
1040 same with them in (a), however, color represents the percentile value of the standard deviation of  $R_{rsp}$  values  
1041 within each grid divided by their average.  
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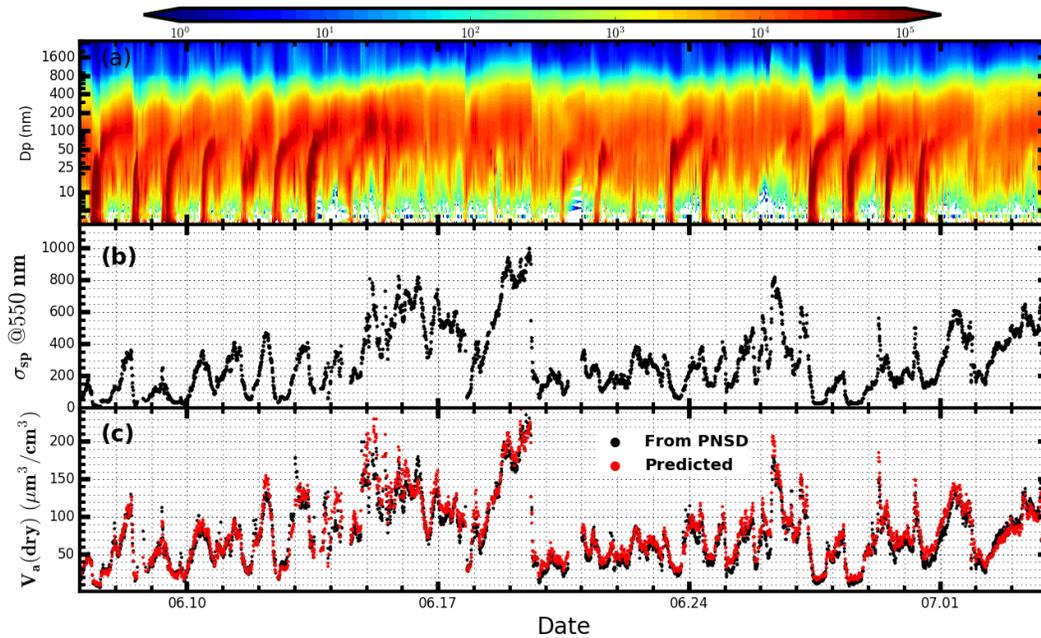
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**Figure 5.** Comparisons between predicted and measured): Modelled  $\sigma_{sp}$  at 550 nm based on PNSD and BC versus  $V_a$ (dry), the red dashed line is the 1:1 line, two blue dashed line shown in (a) and (b) are lines with relative difference of 20% of  $PM_{10}$  or  $PM_{2.5}$  calculated from measured PNSD. PNSD and BC datasets from six field campaigns listed in Table 2 are used. The unit of  $V_a$ (dry) is  $\mu m^3 / cm^3$ , the unit of  $\sigma_{sp}$  is  $Mm^{-1}$ . Colors of scattered points in (a) and (b) represent corresponding values of HBF Ångström exponent.  $R^2$  is the square of correlation coefficient. (c) The probability distribution of the modelled ratio between  $\sigma_{sp}$  at 550 nm, and the color bar is shown on the top. (a)  $V_a$ (dry) in the y axis is predicted by using results shown in Fig.4a as a look up table. (b)  $V_a$ (dry) in the y axis is predicted by using the machine learning method.

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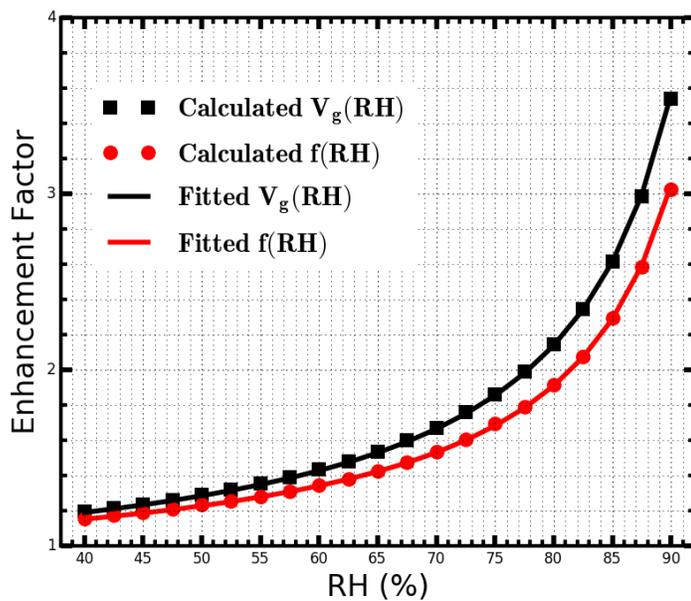
Figure 6. Measurements of PNSD and  $\sigma_{sp}$  during Wangdu campaign; (a) Time series of PNSD in dry state, colors represent  $dN/d\log(Dp)(cm^{-3})$ ; (b) Time series of measured  $\sigma_{sp}$  at 550 nm; (c)  $V_a$ (dry) integrated from measured PNSD and  $V_a$ (dry) predicted by using the machine learning method  $PM_{10}$  or  $PM_{2.5}$ .

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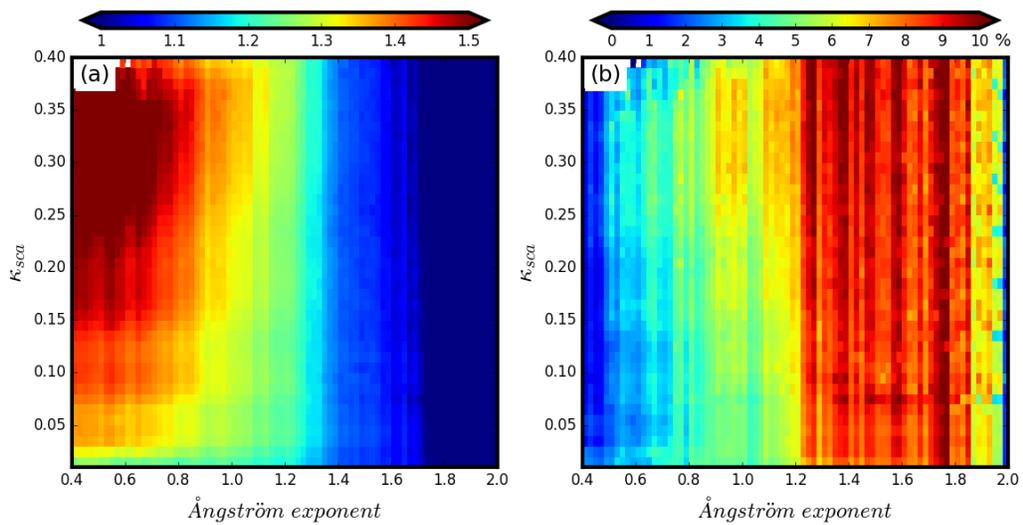
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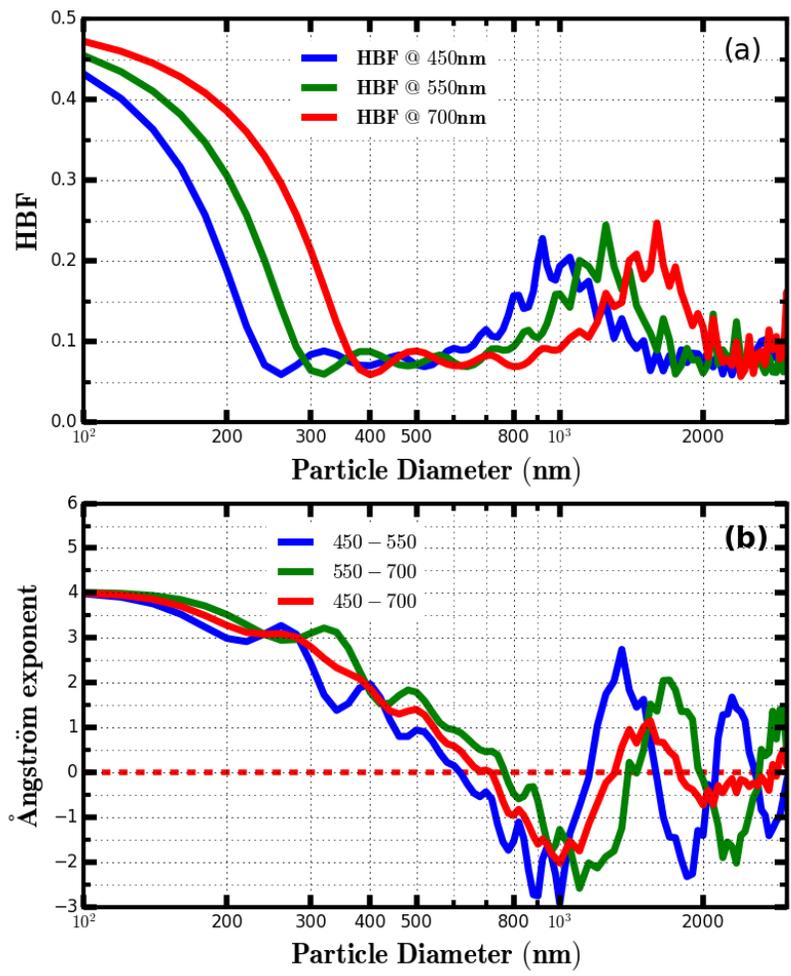
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 1066 **Figure 7.** Modelled  $f$ (RH) and  $V_g$ (RH) (scatter points) and fitted  $f$ (RH) and  $V_g$ (RH) (solid lines) using  
 1067 formula form of equation (2).  
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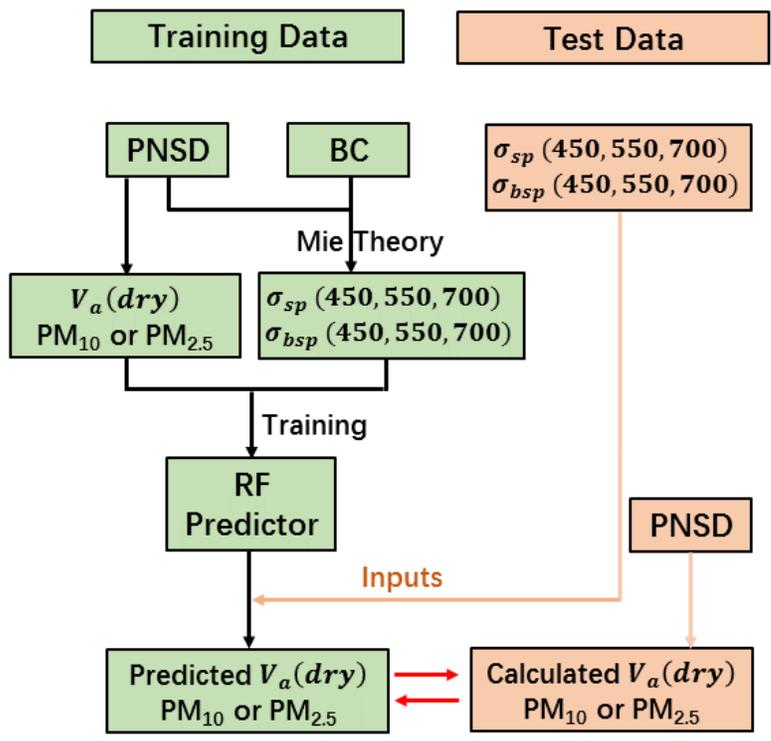




**Figure 8**

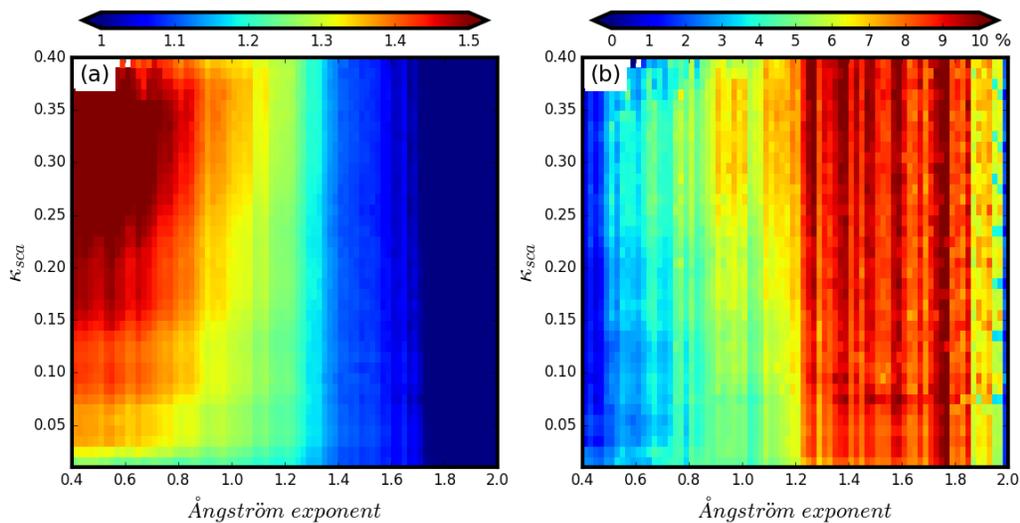
**Figure 4.** (a) Simulated HBF at three wavelengths as a function particle diameter. (b) Simulated Ångström exponent values as a function a particle diameter.

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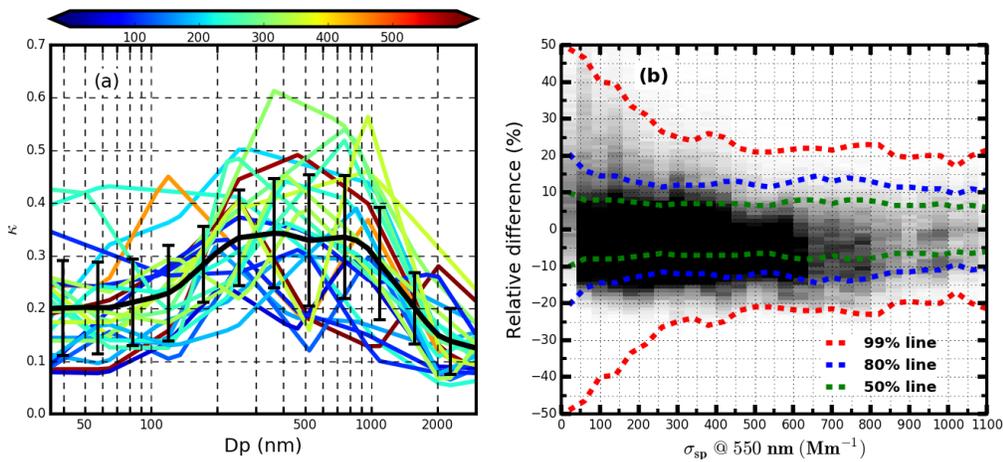


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**Figure 5.** Schematic diagram of training the random forest (RF) model and verifying the performance of trained RF predictor. The trained datasets of PNSD and BC are from field campaigns F1 to F4 and F6, the test datasets of PNSD and optical parameters are from campaign F5.  $\sigma_{bsp}$  is the back scattering coefficient.



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 1093 **Figure 6.** (a) Colors represent  $R_{Vf}$  values and the colorbar is shown on the top of this figure, x-axis represents  
 1094 Ångström exponent and y-axis represents  $\kappa_{sca}$ . (b) Meanings of x-axis and y-axis are same with them in (a),  
 1095 however, color represents the percentile value of the standard deviation of  $R_{Vf}$  values within each grid divided  
 1096 by their average.  
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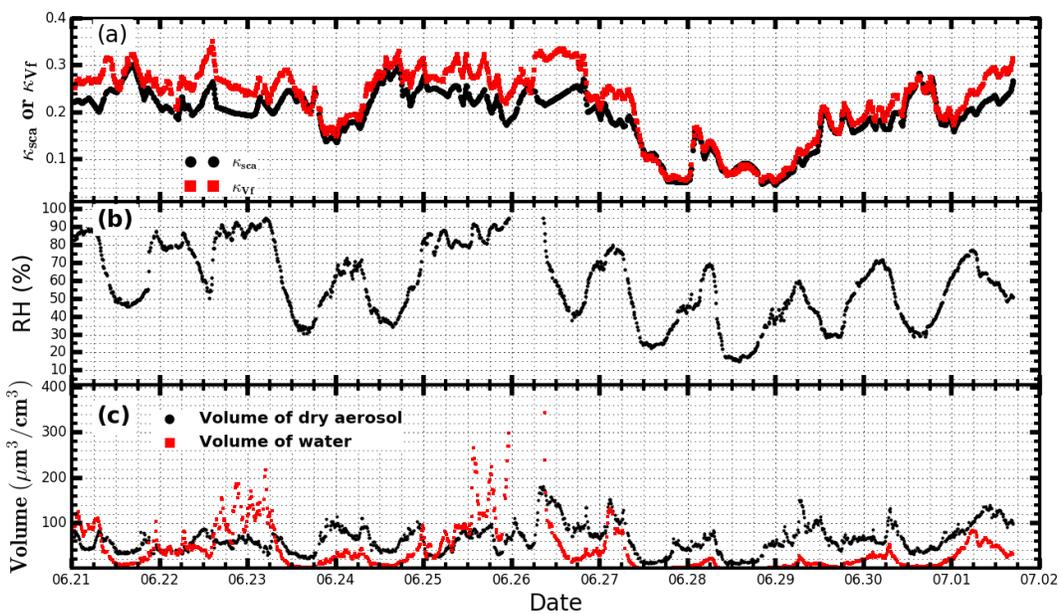


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 1099 **Figure 97.** (a) All size-resolved  $\kappa$  distributions which are derived from measured size-segregated chemical  
 1100 compositions during HaChi campaign, colors represent corresponding values of average  $\sigma_{sp}$  at 550 nm  
 1101 ( $Mm^{-1}$ ), black solid line is the average size-resolved  $\kappa$  distribution and error bars are standard deviations ; (b)

1102 The gray colors represent the distribution of relative differences between modelled and estimated  $R_{Vf}$  values,  
 1103 darker grids have higher frequency, dashed lines with the same color mean that corresponding percentile of  
 1104 points locate between the two lines.

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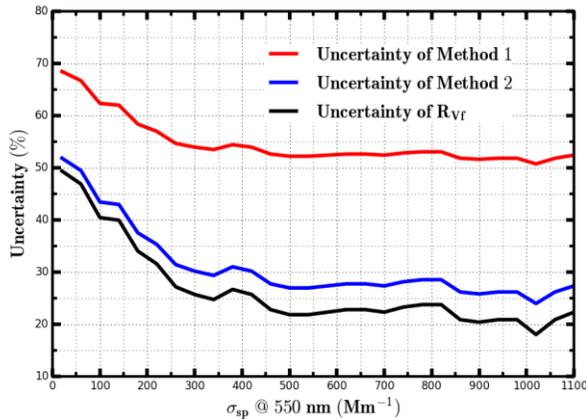
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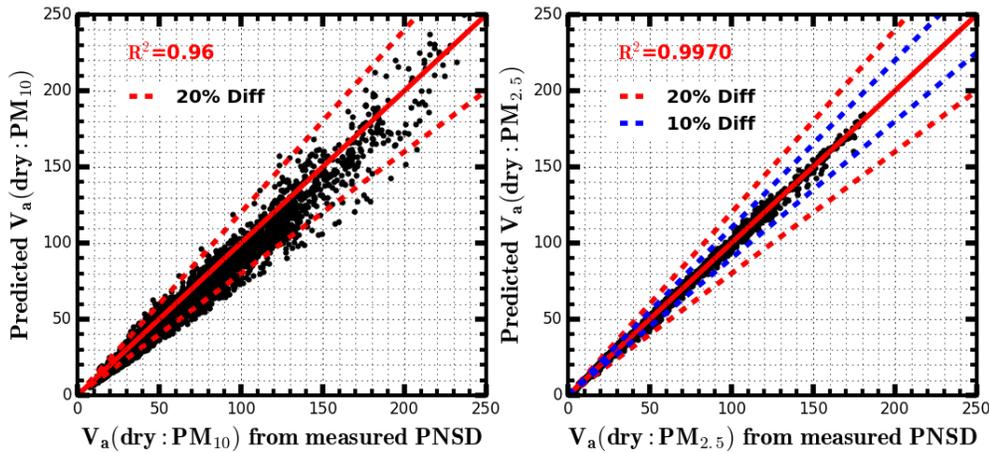
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1108 **Figure 10.** (a) Time series of values of  $\kappa_{sca}$  fitted from observed  $f(RH)$  curves and predicted values of  $\kappa_{Vf}$  by  
 1109 using results shown in Fig.8a as a look up table; (b) Measured ambient RH; (c) Time series of  $V_a$  (dry)  
 1110 ( $\mu m^3/cm^3$ ) which is integrated from measured PNSD and volume of aerosol liquid water estimated from  
 1111 combination of  $\kappa_{Vf}$  and ambient RH.

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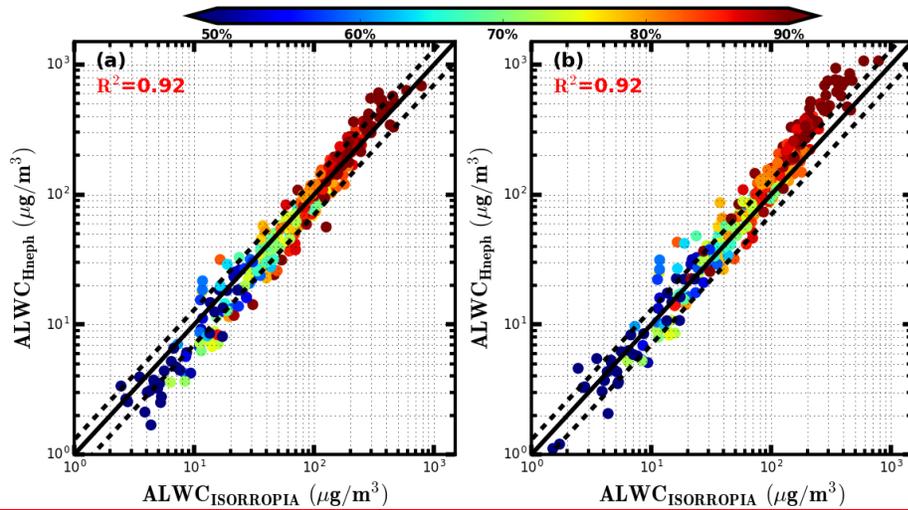


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 1114 **Figure 11.** Black line corresponds to uncertainty of predicted  $R_{Vr}$  by using results shown in Fig.5a as the look  
 1115 up table. Blue and red lines represent uncertainties of volumes of aerosol liquid water which are estimated  
 1116 from the following two methods: Method 1 corresponds to  $V_a$ (dry) is estimated from the machine learning  
 1117 method, Method 2 corresponds to  $V_a$ (dry) is integrated from the concurrently measured PNSD.  
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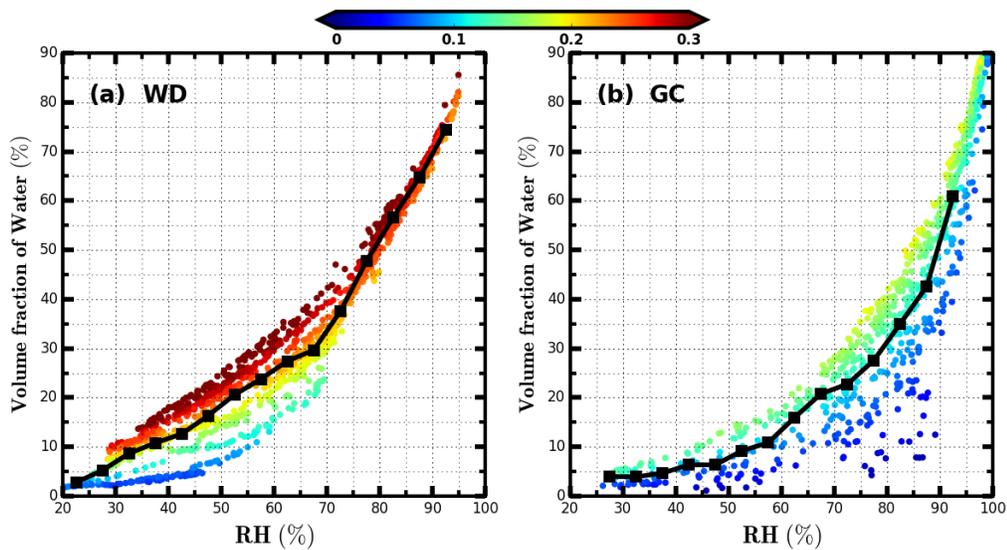
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 1120 **Figure 8.** The comparison between  $V_a$ (dry) of  $PM_{10}$  or  $PM_{2.5}$  calculated from measured PNSD and  $V_a$ (dry)  
 1121 of  $PM_{10}$  or  $PM_{2.5}$  which are predicted based on six optical parameters measured by the "dry"  
 1122 nephelometer by using the random forest model. The unit of  $V_a$ (dry) is  $\mu m^3/cm^3$ .  $R^2$  is the square of  
 1123 correlation coefficient. Solid red line is the 1:1 line. dashed red lines and dashed blue lines represent 20% and  
 1124 10% relative difference lines.  
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**Figure 9.** The comparison between ALWC calculated from ISORROPIA thermodynamic model [ $ALWC_{ISORROPIA}$ ] and ALWC calculated from measurements of the humidified nephelometer system [ $ALWC_{Hneph}$ ]. The black solid line is the 1:1 line, the two dashed black lines are 30% relative difference lines.  $R^2$  is the square of correlation coefficient. Colors of scatter points represent ambient RH. (a)  $ALWC_{Hneph}$  is calculated using the method proposed in this research. (b)  $ALWC_{Hneph}$  is calculated by assuming  $Vg(RH) \equiv f(RH)^{1.5}$  (Guo et al., 2015).



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1144 **Figure 10.** Volume fractions of water in total volume of ambient aerosols during Wangdu (WD) and Gucheng  
 1145 (GC) campaigns. X-axis represents measured ambient RH. Y-axis represents volume fractions of water. Colors  
 1146 of scatter points represent corresponding  $\kappa_{vf}$ . Black solid lines in (a) and (b) show the average volume  
 1147 fractions of water under different ambient RH conditions.  
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