

Dear Editor and Referee#1,

Thank you very much for your further evaluation and helpful comments on our revised manuscript. We have carefully considered the referee#1' comments and revised the manuscript according to the suggestions.

Below are the detailed point-by-point responses to the referee comments. In the revised paper, the red color was marked as the revised places.

We look forward to receiving further evaluation of our work!

Sincerely

Weijun Li on behalf of all the coauthors

Reply to Referee#1:

General Comments:

1. Overall, the revised version well addressed most of the concerns the reviewers have raised. However, there is still one concept confusion to untangle. The issue is about aerosol mixing state. After the reviewer raised some concerns about the authors' statement about mixing state of individual particles, the authors made some clarification about the difference of "mixing states of aerosol population" and "mixing state of individual particle". Please refer to S+P textbook "Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics" Chapter 24.6 (for the 2006 version or 2nd edition) about the official definition of mixing state. It is insisted here that the concept of "individual particle mixing state" should be avoided as much as possible. The reason is that if you describe the chemical composition of one individual particle through one measurement technique, it is already 100% clear about how the particle is "mixed" by its components. The concept of mixing state is created for the convenience of modelling. In real-world, an aerosol population will be in a state between an internal mixture and external mixture, two of the theoretical extremes. In a model, if you designate these two states as 0 and 1, a real-world aerosol mixture will be a value between 0 and 1. That is the beauty of this concept.

The expression of "mixing state of individual particles" can be understood easily. However, it tends to cause confusion with the concept of "mixing state of aerosol population". Therefore, it is suggested that the atmospheric chemistry community should refrain from using the concept of mixing state of individual particles. It's almost certain that one should not describe an individual particle as an externally mixed particle or an internally mixed particle. Because you may be able to define an internally mixed particle as a particle composed of two or more chemical components, but you cannot define an externally mixed particle. If a particle is composed of two or more species, one can express it as homogeneously mixed or not.

To sum up, it is suggested, but per the decision of editor, to replace the expression of "mixing state of individual particles" with other pertinent expressions.

Response: We appreciated the referee's comments. We mostly accept his/her comments here. We deleted the expression of "mixing state of individual particles". We changed words and expressions in the context:

Line 22-23: “study the mixing state of these particles” was replaced by “to study mixing properties of different aerosol components in individual particles”

Line 87-88: “mixing state” was replaced by “mixing properties of different components in individual particles”

Line 205-206: “Based on the composition and mixing state of internally mixed particles” was replaced by “Based on mixing properties of multi-components within individual particles”

Line 210: “Typical TEM images of individual internally mixed cloud RES particles” was replaced by “Typical TEM images showing mixing properties of multi-components within individual cloud RES particles”

Specific Comments:

1. When there are multiple papers in the in-text citations, it is suggested to separate them by a space after the semicolon. It is consistent that all the citations are not separated by space in this manuscript. It’s the best to be consistent with other ACP publications also.

Response: Corrected.

2. Can the authors clarify that Figure 9 is created for this manuscript specifically?

Response: Based on the contents in this study, we properly made Figure 9 to illustrate how aerosol-cloud interactions in the cloud events happened at the mountaintop site over the polluted air.

Technical corrections:

1. Line 122: The company name “Tianld Co. China” doesn’t make sense since “tianld.com” is just a just a website domain name. It is suggested to change it to “Beijing XXBR Technology Co., Ltd” if this is what it meant for.

Response: Changed.

2. Line 195: Change “in our previous study” to “in a separate study”.

Response: Changed.

1 **Cloud scavenging of anthropogenic refractory particles at a mountain site in**
2 **North China**

3
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16 **Abstract.** Aerosol-cloud interactions remain a major source of uncertainty in climate forcing estimate.
17 Few studies have been conducted to characterize the aerosol-cloud interactions in heavily polluted
18 conditions worldwide. In this study, cloud residual (cloud RES) and cloud interstitial (cloud INT)
19 particles were collected during cloud events under different pollution levels from 22 July to 1 August,
20 2014 at Mt. Tai (1532 m above sea level) located in the North China Plain (NCP). Transmission electron
21 microscopy (TEM) was used to investigate morphology, size, and chemical composition of individual
22 cloud RES and INT particles, and to study mixing properties of different aerosol components in
23 individual particles. Our results show that S-rich particles were predominant (78%) during clean periods
24 ($PM_{2.5} < 15 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$), but a large amount of anthropogenic refractory particles (e.g., soot, fly ash, and
25 metal) and their mixtures with S-rich particles (named as S-refractory) were observed during polluted
26 periods. Cloud droplets collected during polluted periods were found to become an extremely
27 complicated mixture by scavenging of abundant refractory particles. We found that 76% of cloud RES
28 were S-refractory particles and that 26% of cloud RES contained two or more types of refractory
29 particles. Soot-containing particles (i.e., S-soot and S-fly ash/metal-soot) were the most abundant (62%)
30 among cloud RES, followed by fly ash/metal-containing particles (i.e., S-fly ash/metal and S-fly
31 ash/metal-soot, 37%). The complicated cloud droplets have not been reported in clean continental or
32 marine air before. Our findings provide an insight into the potential impacts on cloud radiative forcing
33 from black carbon and metal catalyzed reactions of SO_2 in micro-cloud droplets containing soluble
34 metals released from fly ash and metals over polluted air.

35 **1. Introduction**

36 Clouds play a crucial role in various physical and chemical processes occurring in the lower
37 troposphere and hence affect the Earth's radiation budget (Seinfeld et al., 2016; Tilgner et al., 2014).
38 Aerosol particles, including primary and secondary ones generated from natural and anthropogenic
39 sources, either directly alter radiative forcing or act as cloud condensation nuclei (CCN) to indirectly
40 influence it. At present, aerosol-cloud interactions unquestionably affect radiative forcing and global
41 climate (McFiggans et al., 2006; Rosenfeld et al., 2014; Seinfeld and Pandis, 2006). CCN become cloud
42 droplets through the condensation of water vapor when the relative humidity (RH) of an air parcel
43 increases above saturation (Farmer et al., 2015). Size, chemical composition, and mixing state are main
44 factors affecting the ability of a particle to act as CCN (Dusek et al., 2006; Fan et al., 2016; Hudson,
45 2007; Li et al., 2011a; Rosenfeld, 2000). In addition, aerosol particles incorporated into cloud droplets
46 can be easily lifted into the free troposphere during cloud development and further extend their
47 influence on cloud precipitation and regional climate (Fan et al., 2016).

48 Owing to the rapid industrialization and urbanization in Asia, large quantities of aerosol particles
49 from anthropogenic sources are released into the atmosphere, which can dramatically affect the
50 chemical composition of CCN, and furthermore change the properties of clouds such as radiative
51 forcing, lifetime, and precipitation patterns (Drewnick et al., 2007; Ervens, 2015; Li et al., 2011b;
52 Twohy and Anderson, 2008). High concentrations of aerosol particles increase the number of cloud
53 droplets and reduce their size, which further results in the reduction of precipitation efficiency and in
54 extending the lifetime of clouds (Fan et al., 2016; Li et al., 2017a; McFiggans et al., 2006; Qian et al.,
55 2009; Rosenfeld, 2000). Moreover, anthropogenic aerosol particles - especially fly ash, metal, and soot
56 particles - are incorporated into cloud droplets, and be transported long distances to affect ecosystems,
57 human health, and radiative forcing (Li et al., 2013; Rosenfeld et al., 2014). Especially the toxic and
58 bioaccumulative metals can deposit into the ecosystem following fog or precipitation and further cause
59 severe health problems to human beings (Liu et al., 2012). Moreover, transition metals such as iron (Fe)
60 and manganese (Mn) can enhance the in-cloud oxidation of sulfur dioxide to sulfate (Harris et al.,
61 2013).

62 Recently, many studies have been performed worldwide to investigate aerosol-cloud interactions
63 and the composition of cloud droplets. Schroder et al. (2015) investigated the activation of refractory

64 black carbon particles in stratocumulus clouds at a marine boundary layer site using a counterflow
65 virtual impactor and single particle soot photometer. Ueda et al. (2014) reported the effects of in-cloud
66 processes on the compositional changes of sea salt particles by collecting individual aerosol particles in
67 and below clouds, respectively. Pierce et al. (2015) calculated size distribution changes and radiative
68 forcing effects due to the scavenging of interstitial particles by cloud droplets in a clean remote region.
69 Roth et al. (2016) analyzed the composition and mixing state of cloud residues and out-of-cloud aerosol
70 particles by single particle aerosol mass spectrometry on a mountain site and found that soot particles
71 internally mixed with sulfate and nitrate were the dominant ones in cloud residues. All of the above
72 studies were carried out in the clean atmosphere; they could not observe the clear interactions between
73 abundant anthropogenic particles and cloud droplets. However, the latest satellite observations indicated
74 that large amounts of anthropogenic fine particles assembled in cloud base and might modify cloud
75 properties in heavily polluted air influenced by industrial and urban emissions (Eck et al., 2018). Field
76 observations are needed to confirm it and understand the interactions of aerosol-cloud over polluted
77 areas, especially in North and South Asia.

78 Mt. Tai, the highest mountain in the NCP, is surrounded by several medium-sized industrial cities.
79 The altitude of Mt. Tai is close to the top of the planetary boundary layer (PBL) above the NCP.
80 Therefore, Mt. Tai is an ideal site to study the effects of regional transport and local emissions of
81 anthropogenic aerosols on cloud properties. Numerous studies have been conducted on Mt. Tai, but
82 virtually all the researchers mainly focus on the variation of chemical composition and size distribution
83 of aerosol particles (Zhang et al., 2014) and chemical composition of cloud water (Li et al., 2017a;
84 Wang et al., 2011). Because of the limitation of sampling and analyzing techniques, these studies did
85 not consider the aerosol-cloud interactions at the top of Mt. Tai in North China.

86 Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) has become a powerful technique to characterize the
87 **particle morphology, size, and composition and mixing properties of different components in** individual
88 particles in recent years (Li et al., 2016a; Ueda et al., 2014). Many studies used single particle aerosol
89 mass spectrometry (SPAMS) to characterize the composition of residual particles of individual cloud
90 droplets (Lin et al., 2017; Pratt et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2017). Compared to the SPAMS, TEM can
91 directly observe the morphology and **different components** of individual cloud droplet residual (cloud
92 RES) and interstitial particles (cloud INT) (Kojima et al., 2004; Li et al., 2011a; Twohy and Anderson,
93 2008; Ueda et al., 2014). Therefore, TEM technique can not only be used to identify cloud RES and

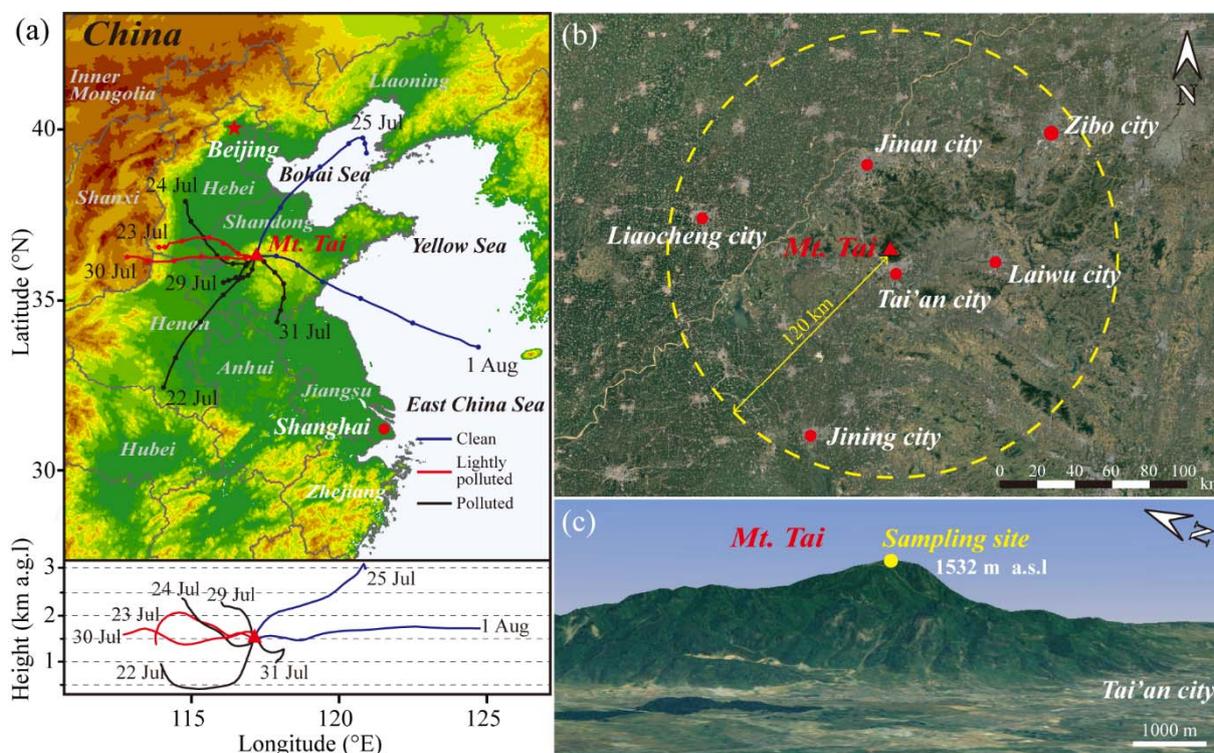
94 cloud INT collected in a same cloud event but also reveal interactions between aerosol-clouds based on
95 **the different components within** individual particles. In this study, we collected individual particles
96 during cloud events at the summit of Mt. Tai and applied TEM to obtain and compare the morphology,
97 size, and composition of cloud RES and cloud INT. This is helpful to understand the influence of
98 anthropogenic sources on cloud properties above the heavily polluted region.

99 **2. Experimental methods**

100 **2.1 Sampling sites**

101 Field observations were carried out at Mt. Tai (36.251°N, 117.101°E; 1532 m above sea level (a.s.l))
102 from 22 July to 1 August 2014. Mt. Tai is the highest mountain in the central NCP and is surrounded by
103 several medium-sized industrial cities (Fig. 1). A number of large coal-fired power plants, oil refinery
104 plants, steel plants, and cement plants are located in these industrial cities (Jinan, Zibo, Laiwu,
105 Liaocheng, Jining, Tai'an etc.) within a radius of 120 km around Mt. Tai (Fig. 1b). Jinan city is the
106 capital of Shandong Province and is situated 60 km north of Mt. Tai. Tai'an city is located at the
107 southern foot of Mt. Tai. Therefore, the local and regional emissions may have a large contribution to
108 the air quality at the summit of Mt. Tai. Mt. Tai's altitude is close to the top of planetary boundary layer
109 over the NCP, and local cloud events frequently occur at its summit, especially in summer.

110 As shown in Fig. 1c, individual particle samples were collected at a sampling site near the summit
111 of Mt. Tai. The sampling site was usually covered by clouds when cloud events occurred during the
112 sampling periods. The 24-h air mass backward trajectories arriving at Mt. Tai at 1500 m above ground
113 level (a.g.l) (Fig. 1a) were calculated using the Hybrid Single-Particles Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory
114 (HYSPLIT) model available at the NOAA Air Resources Laboratory's web server (Draxler and Rolph,
115 2003).



116

117 **Figure 1.** (a) Location of Mt. Tai in the North China Plain and the 24-h air mass backward trajectories
 118 arriving at Mt. Tai at 1500 m a.g.l during the sampling period. (b) The medium-sized industrial cities
 119 distributed within a radius of 120 km around Mt. Tai. (c) The expanded topographic view of Mt. Tai and
 120 the sampling site near the summit of Mt. Tai.

121 2.2 Individual particle collections

122 Individual aerosol particles were collected onto carbon films supported by TEM copper grids
 123 (carbon type-B, 300-mesh copper, Beijing XXBR Technology Co., Ltd, China) using a single-stage
 124 cascade impactor with a 0.5 mm diameter jet nozzle at a flow rate of 1.0 L min⁻¹. The aerodynamic
 125 diameter of particles collected with a 50% efficiency (cutoff diameter, d_{50}) by this individual sampler is
 126 0.24 μm if particle density is 2 g cm⁻³. More detailed information about the setup of a modified sampler
 127 can be found in Li et al. (2011a). When cloud events occurred at the summit of Mt. Tai, individual
 128 particle samples were collected during the cloud events except one cloud event in the late midnight of
 129 26 July (Fig. 3). The sample information in the present study is listed in Table 1.

130 During the sampling period, meteorological data at the summit of Mt. Tai including pressure (P),
 131 relative humidity (RH), temperature (T), wind speed (WS), and wind direction (WD) were measured
 132 and recorded every 5 min by a pocket weather meter (Kestrel 4500, Nielsen-Kellermann Inc., USA).
 133 PM_{2.5} concentrations on Mt. Tai were monitored on-line by a beta attenuation and optical analyzer

134 (model 5030 SHARP monitor, Thermo Scientific, USA).

135 **Table 1.** Information on individual particle samples collected on Mt. Tai.

Sample ID	Sampling time (local time)	PM _{2.5} ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$)	T ($^{\circ}\text{C}$)	RH (%)	P (hPa)	WS (m s^{-1})
1	22 Jul. 2014 16:04	51.6	22.8	100	849.1	0.9
2	23 Jul. 2014 08:00	24.2	20.4	100	849.4	2.5
3	24 Jul. 2014 07:43	74.3	19.2	100	848.0	0
4	25 Jul. 2014 17:00	11.8	13.9	100	838.0	5.5
5	29 Jul. 2014 16:18	72.9	20.8	95.7	848.0	1.1
6	30 Jul. 2014 19:24	24.2	17.5	100	844.2	0.8
7	31 Jul. 2014 17:30	56.4	18.1	100	849.0	0.9
8	01 Aug. 2014 17:56	14.7	18.8	100	849.1	1.8

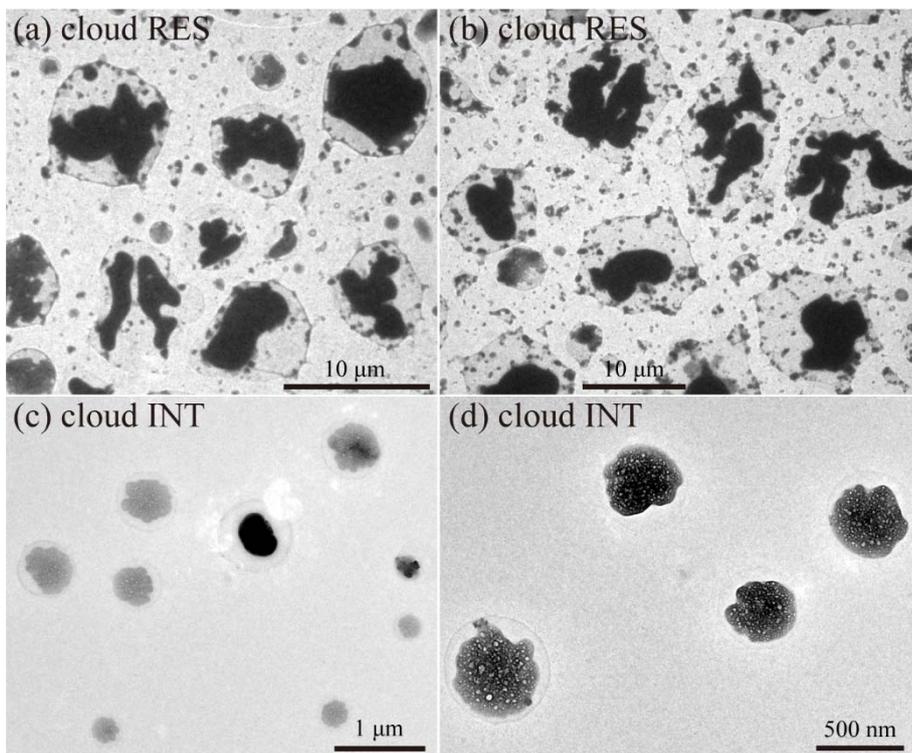
136 2.3 TEM analysis

137 Individual aerosol particles collected on TEM grids were analyzed by a transmission electron
138 microscope (TEM, JEM-2100, JEOL Ltd., Japan) at a 200 kV accelerating voltage. TEM is equipped
139 with an energy-dispersive X-ray spectrometer (EDS, INCA X-Max^N 80T, Oxford Instruments, UK).
140 EDS semi-quantitatively detects the elemental composition of individual particles with atomic number
141 greater than six ($Z > 6$). However, Cu peaks in the EDS spectra were not considered because of the
142 interference from the copper substrate of TEM grids. We acquired morphology and composition of
143 individual particles through the combination of TEM and EDS (TEM/EDS).

144 The distribution of aerosol particles on TEM grids was not uniform, with particle size decreasing
145 from the center to the edge of the TEM grids. Cloud droplets with larger size normally impacted on the
146 center and interstitial particles mostly distributed on the peripheral areas of TEM grids (Li et al., 2011a).
147 Moreover, cloud RES had large rims compared with cloud INT, suggesting that cloud RES were
148 droplets before being captured (Zhang et al., 2006). According to the distribution and morphology of
149 individual particles on the substrate, we can distinguish between cloud RES and cloud INT particles.
150 Figure 2 generally displays typical TEM images of cloud RES and cloud INT particles. Generally, a
151 number of previous studies using the cascade impactor have successfully captured individual interstitial
152 particles and cloud droplets on the substrate during cloud events (Kojima et al., 2004; Li et al., 2011a;

153 Ueda et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2006).

154 To obtain the size of cloud RES and cloud INT particles, we measured the area and equivalent
155 circle diameter (ECD) of these analyzed particles by iTEM software (Olympus soft imaging solutions
156 GmbH, Germany). It should be noted that we measured ECD of the core of individual cloud RES
157 excluding the water rim because water rim only contains trace organics (Li et al., 2011a). The ECD can
158 be further converted to equivalent spherical diameter (ESD) according to the AFM analysis (refer to the
159 Supplement Fig. S1).



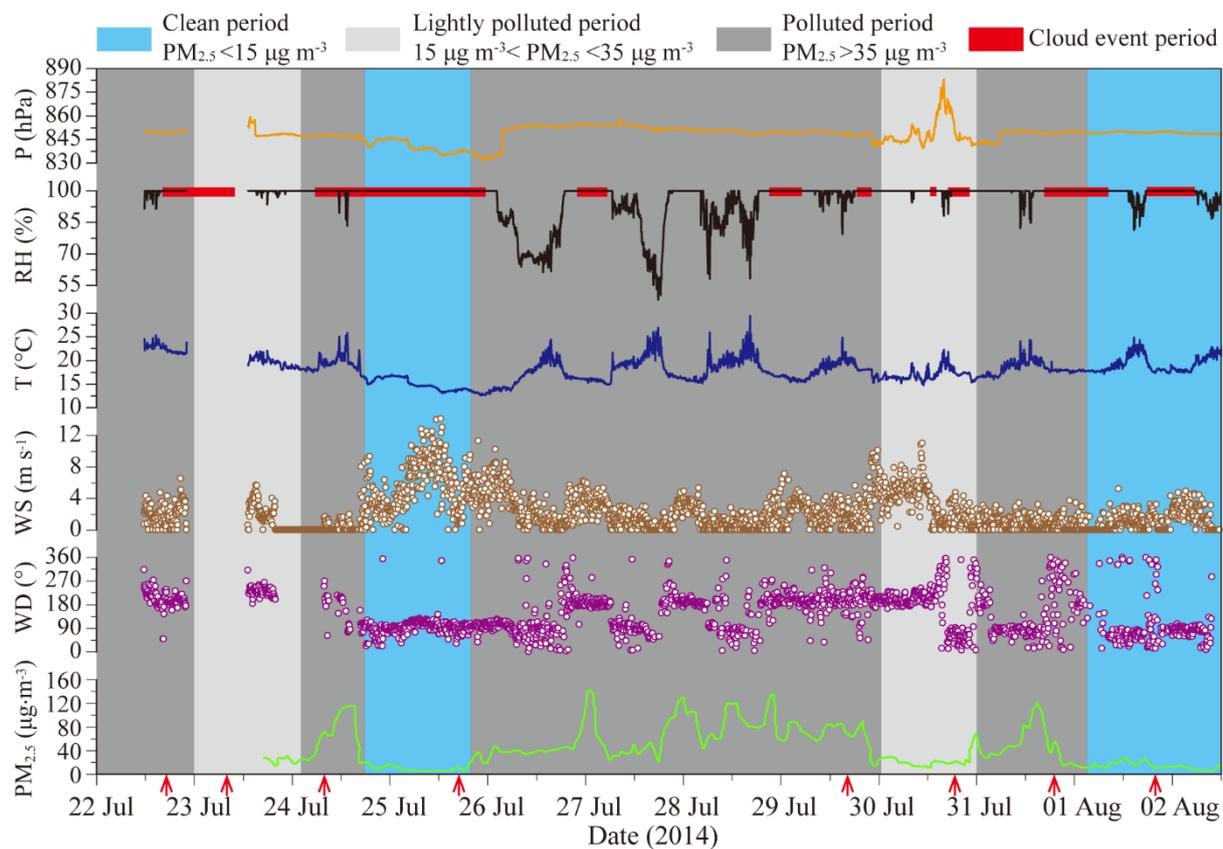
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161 **Figure 2.** Low magnification TEM images of cloud RES (a-b) and cloud INT (c-d) particles collected
162 on Mt. Tai.

163 **3. Results**

164 **3.1 Meteorological conditions and backward trajectories**

165 Temporal variations of pressure (P), relative humidity (RH), temperature (T), wind speed (WS),
166 wind direction (WD), and PM_{2.5} concentration were measured on Mt. Tai from 22 July to 2 August 2014
167 (Fig. 3). During the sampling period, the temperature ranged from 12.6 to 29.4 °C, and the RH varied
168 between 48.2% and 100%. Each day during the sampling period, the RH reached 100% as temperatures
169 decreased from the late afternoon into the evening (Fig. 3). We noticed that PM_{2.5} concentrations on the
170 mountaintop were closely related to wind direction and speed during the regional transport of hazes.
171 Based on backward trajectories of air masses and PM_{2.5} concentrations, the whole sampling period can
172 be divided into three categories: *clean period* (PM_{2.5} < 15 µg m⁻³), the prevailing winds were from the
173 northeast to east and air masses were from higher altitudes above the marine areas which lead to the
174 lowest PM_{2.5} concentration; *lightly polluted period* (15 µg m⁻³ < PM_{2.5} < 35 µg m⁻³), the prevailing
175 winds were from the west, and air masses originating from higher altitudes above continental areas
176 brought regional pollutants to the summit of Mt. Tai; *polluted period* (PM_{2.5} > 35 µg m⁻³), air masses
177 originating from northwest, southwest, or south went through Tai'an city. Back trajectories as shown in
178 Fig. 1a during polluted days suggest that air pollutants from industrialized cities might be lifted along
179 the southern slope up to Mt. Tai's summit.



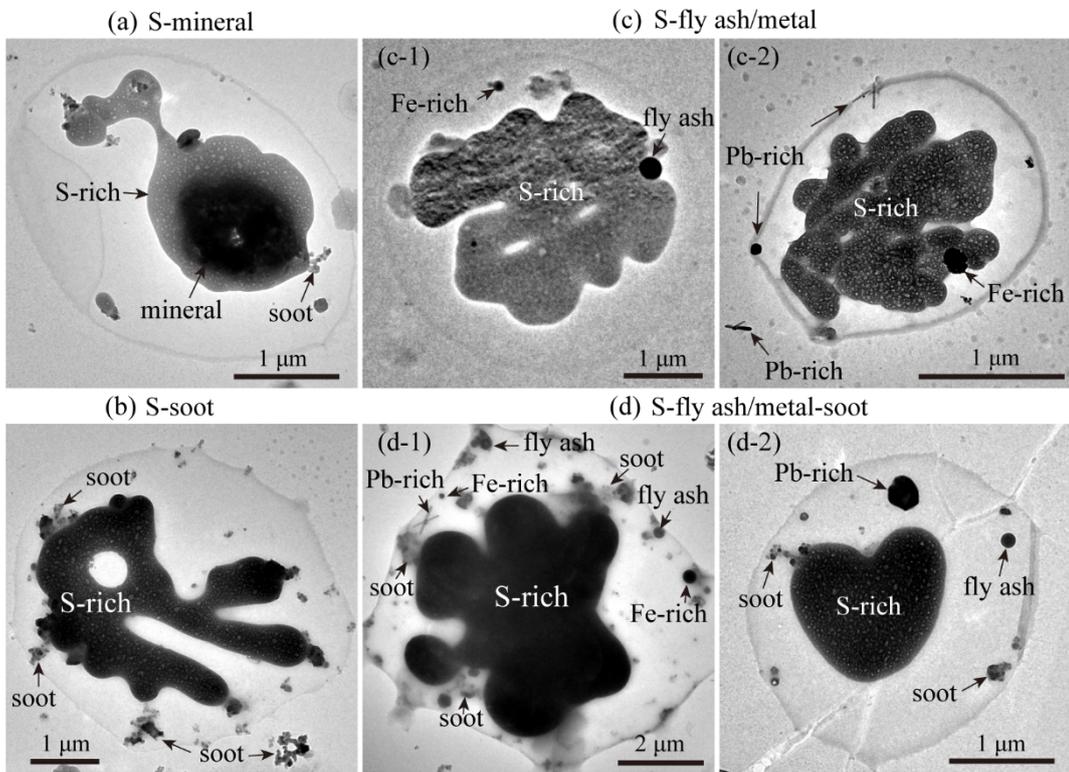
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181 **Figure 3.** Temporal variations of pressure (P), relative humidity (RH), temperature (T), wind speed
 182 (WS), and wind direction (WD) measured on Mt. Tai from 22 July to 2 August 2014. The red arrows
 183 indicate collection times of individual particle samples during the cloud events.

184 3.2 **Mixing properties of anthropogenic refractory particles**

185 Based on the elemental composition and morphology of individual particles, six basic types of
186 individual particles were classified: S-rich (Fig. S2a), soot (Fig. S2b), organic matter (OM, Fig. S2c),
187 mineral (Fig. S2d), and fly ash/metal (Figs. S2e-h). The classification criteria of different particle types
188 and their sources have been described in a separate study (Li et al., 2016a). S-rich particles representing
189 secondary inorganic particles (e.g., SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^- , and NH_4^+) are transformed from gaseous SO_2 , NO_x ,
190 and NH_3 . OM can be divided into primary organic matter (POM) and secondary organic matter (SOM).
191 POM is directly emitted from coal or biomass burning and normally has spherical or irregular shapes
192 (Liu et al., 2017), whereas SOM is produced from the chemical oxidation of volatile organic compounds
193 (VOCs) and exhibits OM-coating on S-rich particles (Li et al., 2016b). Fly ash (e.g., Si, Al, and O) and
194 metal particles (e.g., Fe, Mn, Zn, and Pb) normally are emitted from coal-fired power plants and heavy
195 industrial activities, such as production activities in steel mills and smelters. Soot particles are generated
196 from incomplete combustion processes of biomass burning and fossil fuels in both industrial activities
197 and vehicular emissions. In much of the climate-change and environmental literature, “soot” and “black
198 carbon” are commonly used interchangeably, and “black carbon” is the most commonly used term in
199 the climate-science community (Andreae and Gelencsér, 2006; Buseck et al., 2014). In the following
200 sections, we use the term “soot” for the classification of particle types and the term “black carbon” for
201 the discussion of the climate issues. Mineral particles come from construction activities, resuspended
202 road dust, and natural soil. Among these types of particles, soot, POM, fly ash, mineral, and metal
203 particles were refractory under electron beams and were thus termed as refractory particles (Ebert et al.,
204 2016).

205 Based on **mixing properties of multi-components within individual particles** (Figs. 4 and 5), these
206 particles can be further classified into four categories: S-mineral (Figs. 4a and 5a), S-soot (Figs. 4b and
207 5b), S-fly ash/metal (Figs. 4c and 5c), S-fly ash/metal-soot (Figs. 4d and 5d). Here, these four types of
208 particles with refractory inclusions are generally defined as “S-refractory” particles.



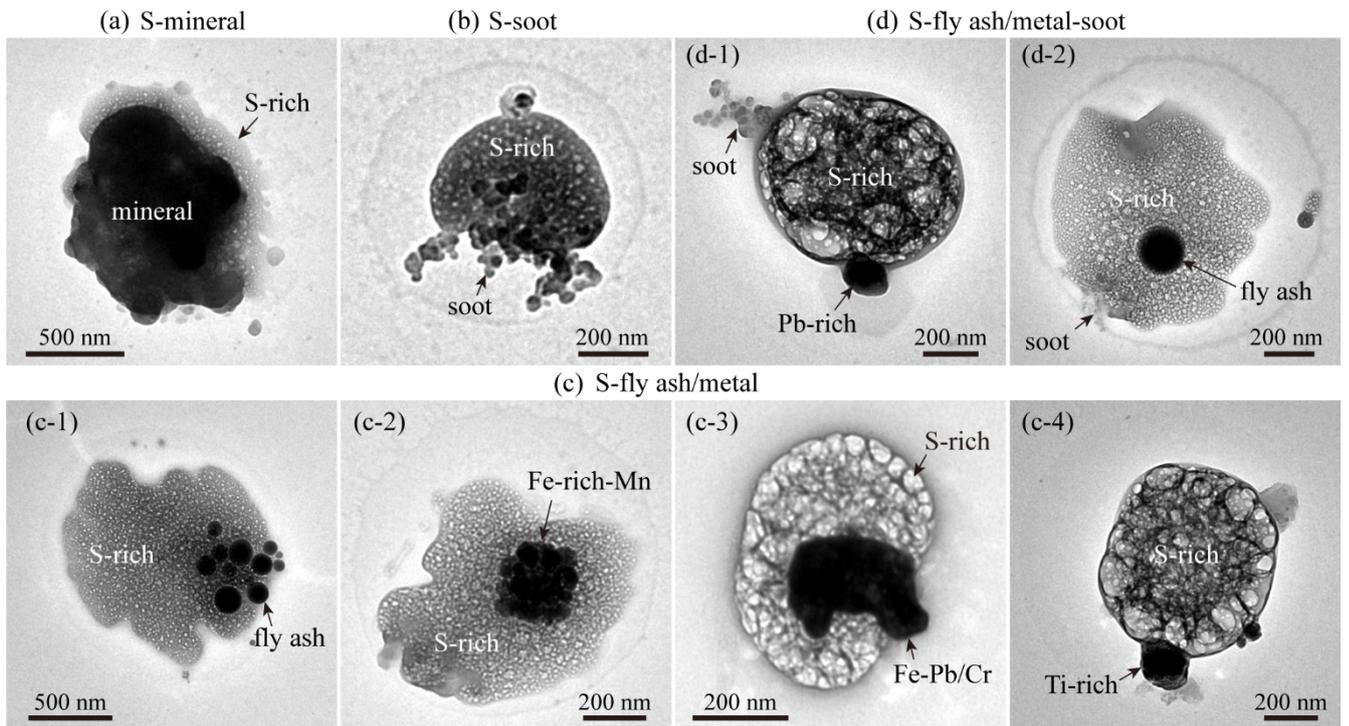
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Figure 4. Typical TEM images showing mixing properties of multi-components within individual cloud RES particles: (a) a mixture of S-rich and mineral; (b) a mixture of S-rich and soot; (c) a mixture of S-rich and fly ash/metal; (d) a mixture of S-rich, soot, and fly ash/metal.



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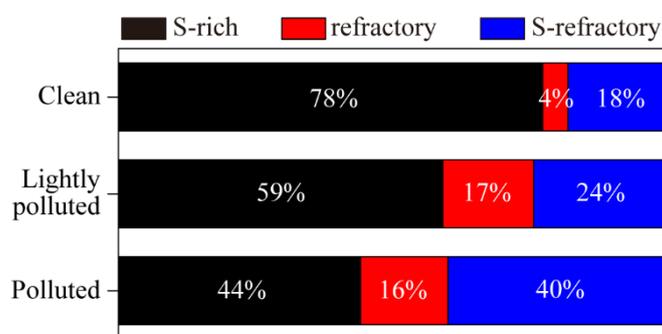
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Figure 5. Typical TEM images showing mixing properties of multi-components within individual cloud INT particles: (a) a mixture of S-rich and mineral; (b) a mixture of S-rich and soot; (c) a mixture of S-rich and fly ash/metal; (d) a mixture of S-rich, soot and fly ash/metal.

217

218 Figure 6 shows number fractions of S-rich, refractory, and S-refractory particles in clean, lightly
219 polluted, and polluted periods on Mt. Tai. In clean periods, S-rich particles had the highest proportion
220 (78%), followed by a 22% contribution of the refractory and S-refractory particles. This may be
221 attributed to the clean air masses that originated from the clean marine area and arrived at the summit of
222 Mt. Tai through high-altitude transport (above 1500 m) (Fig. 1). Because the air masses did not contact
223 the ground surface, the local anthropogenic pollutants (e.g., soot, fly ash, and metal) could not be lifted
224 to the summit of Mt. Tai. Hence, secondary particles like S-rich were dominant in the clean period. In
225 the lightly polluted and polluted periods, the fraction of S-rich particles decreased to 59% and 44%,
226 respectively; meanwhile, the fractions of refractory and S-refractory increased up to 41% and 56%,
227 respectively (Fig. 6). The backward trajectories suggest that these air masses went through the most
228 heavily polluted areas before they arrived at the mountaintop (Fig. 1). Air masses on two polluted days
229 (e.g., 22 and 31 July) were lifted from ground level to the atmospheric boundary layer. Our study shows
230 that number fractions of refractory and S-refractory particles significantly increased from clean to
231 polluted periods (Fig. 6). This result shows that large amounts of primary refractory particles from
232 ground-level anthropogenic sources were lifted into the upper air and were further internally mixed with
233 S-rich particles.

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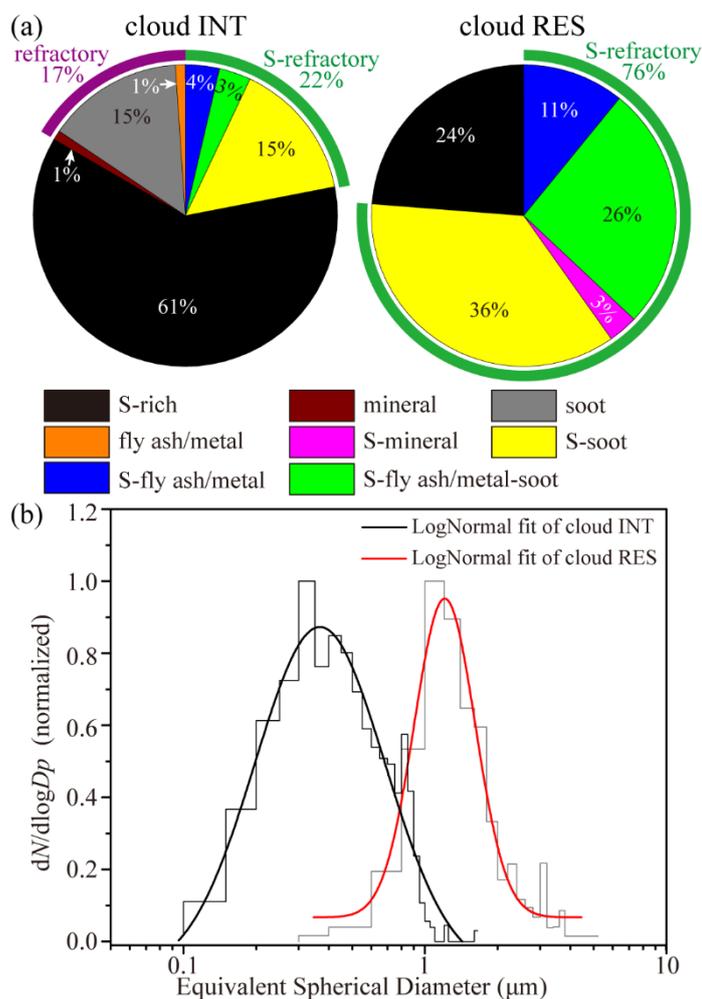
235 **Figure 6.** Number fractions of S-rich, refractory, and S-refractory particles at different pollution levels.

236 3.3 Comparisons of cloud RES and INT particles

237 During the sampling period, a fog monitor was used to measure the size of cloud droplets during
238 cloud events (Li et al., 2017a). This study reveals that in the cloud events all the cloud droplets
239 displayed particle size larger than 2 μm in which size range the interstitial particles were absent. Based
240 on their different size, we can know that these cloud droplets and interstitial particles impacted on
241 different positions on the substrate. Although cloud droplets and interstitial particles became dry after
242 the collection, they can still be identified based on the distribution and morphology of individual
243 particles in TEM images (Kojima et al., 2004; Li et al., 2011a; Ueda et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2006).
244 Cloud RES display larger size and large rims around their CCN (Figs. 2 and 4) which has not been
245 observed in non-cloud events. In contrast, cloud INT impacted on the position away from the center of
246 sampling spot and their morphology looks like individual particles collected in non-cloud events.
247 According to the rule, we can identify cloud RES and cloud INT in the samples collected during the
248 cloud events.

249 Figure 7a shows that 100% of cloud RES and 83% of cloud INT contained S-rich species (i.e.,
250 S-rich and S-refractory). In other words, none of cloud RES were soot, fly ash/metal, and mineral
251 particles but 17% of cloud INT were. Soot particles mainly distributed in the finer size bins (< 600 nm)
252 of cloud INT (Fig. S3a). Interestingly, we found that 76% of cloud RES were a mixture of sulfates and
253 refractory particles, which is 3.5 times of 22% in cloud INT (Fig. 7a). Furthermore, 26% of cloud RES
254 had two or more types of inclusions (i.e., S-fly ash/metal-soot in Figs. 4d and 5d) but only 3% of cloud
255 INT did. Therefore, we can conclude that cloud RES are extremely complex mixtures formed when
256 cloud droplets act like a collector to scavenge these refractory particles.

257 The size-resolved number fractions of different particle types in cloud RES and cloud INT indicate
258 that S-rich particles were predominant from 60 nm to 1.2 μm in cloud INT (Fig. S3a), and S-refractory
259 particles (indicated by the red box) dominated from 400 nm to 5.5 μm in cloud RES (Fig. S3b). Figure
260 7b shows that the median diameters of cloud RES and cloud INT were 1.19 μm and 422 nm,
261 respectively. The size of cloud RES was much larger than that of cloud INT, suggesting that size is an
262 important factor affecting the CCN ability (Dusek et al., 2006).



263
 264 **Figure 7.** Number fractions of different particle types in cloud RES and INT particles (a) and size
 265 distributions of cloud RES and cloud INT particles (b). The measured particle sizes exclude the effects
 266 of water rims in TEM images. In total, 292 cloud RES and 1161 cloud INT particles were analyzed.

267 **4. Discussion**

268 TEM observations in this study reveal that cloud RES contained large amounts of
 269 refractory-containing particles primarily emitted from various anthropogenic sources in the heavily
 270 polluted NCP. As much as 76% of cloud RES were identified as S-refractory particles (Fig. 7a). We
 271 found that soot-containing particles (i.e., S-soot and S-fly ash/metal-soot) were the most abundant (62%)
 272 among the cloud RES, followed by the relatively abundant fly ash/metal-containing particles (i.e., S-fly
 273 ash/metal and S-fly ash/metal-soot, 37%) compared with 18% and 7% in the cloud INT, respectively
 274 (Fig. 7a). Although these refractory particles such as soot with hydrophobic properties could not be
 275 CCN directly, they can be easily accumulated by the existing cloud droplets as inclusions (Zuberi et al.,
 276 2005). In the heavily polluted NCP, large amounts of soot and fly ash/metal particles are released from
 277 anthropogenic sources (e.g., industrial activities and vehicular exhaust). During cloud events, abundant

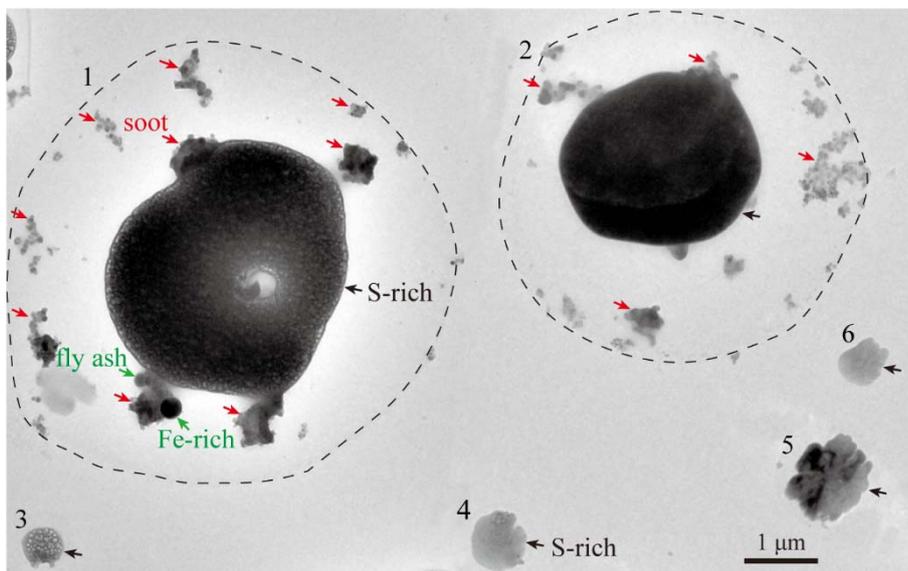
278 refractory particles can be efficiently entrained into existing liquid cloud droplets by wet scavenging. Li
279 et al. (2011a) reported that particle number decreased dramatically during cloud formation at Mt. Tai
280 with a scavenging ratio of 0.54, which demonstrated that aerosol particles could efficiently be
281 incorporated into cloud droplets. Physical coagulation of interstitial particles with cloud droplets is an
282 important process in developing clouds, which can lead to the reduction of cloud INT number and a size
283 increase of cloud RES after the clouds dry (Pierce et al., 2015). As we know so far, the extremely
284 complicated mixture of secondary and primary particles observed in the present study has seldom been
285 found in cloud droplets in clean air over developed countries (Hao et al., 2013; Kojima et al., 2004;
286 Schneider et al., 2017; Ueda et al., 2014), remote areas (Hiranuma et al., 2013), and ocean (Hopkins et
287 al., 2008; Twohy and Anderson, 2008; Zhang et al., 2006). For example, Zhang et al. (2006) reported
288 that S-rich particles were predominant in the cloud RES with a small number fraction of sea salt
289 particles over the Sea of Japan and soot or fly ash/metal particles were not observed. The present study
290 reveals that individual cloud droplets are a far more complicated system in polluted air in North China
291 than in the pristine continental and clean ocean air of the world.

292 The cloud properties such as albedo and lifetimes could be largely modified by the aerosol-cloud
293 interactions, especially in heavily polluted regions (Wang et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2013). The model
294 simulation revealed that black carbon aerosols had a noticeable impact (up to nearly 20%) on cloud
295 droplet number concentration in polluted black carbon source regions (Cherian et al., 2017). Especially,
296 abundant black carbon particles incorporated into cloud droplets could lead to a decrease in cloud
297 albedo by absorbing radiation and an increase of temperature in troposphere, then accelerate the
298 evaporation of the cloud droplets (Ackerman et al., 2000; Adachi et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2013; Zuberi
299 et al., 2005). In the past few decades, precipitation was significantly reduced over east-central China
300 due to the large amounts of anthropogenic aerosols (Qian et al., 2009; Zhao et al., 2006). Because an
301 excess of aerosols in clouds could reduce precipitation, the non-precipitating clouds in the NCP tend to
302 evaporate back to aerosol particles by solar radiation. It is highly probable that abundant black carbon
303 particles presenting in the cloud droplets in the heavily polluted NCP in this study (e.g., particle 1 and 2
304 in Fig. 8) significantly affected the cloud properties and regional climate.

305 Fly ash and metal particles are a typical “fingerprint” pointing to the coal-fired power plants and
306 boilers in factories and heavy industries (e.g., steel plant and smelting factory) (Chen et al., 2012; Li et
307 al., 2016a; Moffet et al., 2008). Indeed, the most intense emissions from various industries in the world

308 occur in Hebei and Shandong provinces in the NCP (Qi et al., 2017). It is well known that these
309 industrial activities continuously release anthropogenic pollutants via high stacks into the upper air. Liu
310 et al. (2012) reported that the concentration of Zn reached $249.1 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ in the cloud/fog water samples
311 at Mt. Tai, followed by Al ($157.3 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$), Fe ($105.8 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$), Pb ($46.2 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$), and Mn ($42.8 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$),
312 which were extremely higher than those values reported at Mt. Schmücke in Germany (Fomba et al.,
313 2015). Combining these results with our present study, we infer that fine primary particles emitted from
314 these industrial activities might spread and be lifted to the upper air more easily than at ground level.
315 These metal particles, especially Pb and Zn of nanometer size, can harm ecosystems and human health
316 (Roberts et al., 2004). The fly ash and metal particles incorporated into cloud droplets (e.g., particle 1 in
317 Fig. 8) could go through the atmospheric acid Fe dissolution processes during long-range transport
318 reported by Li et al. (2017b). If they were further transported to remote oceanic regions, soluble Fe
319 species in the aerosol particles can fertilize plankton on the surface of ocean (Ito and Shi, 2016; Li et al.,
320 2017b). Therefore, these anthropogenic fly ash/metal particles in polluted air contaminate cloud droplets
321 and further amplify potential impacts of fine metal particles on the biogeochemical cycle in the
322 troposphere.

323 Some studies suggested that the aqueous oxidation of SO_2 to sulfate by H_2O_2 and O_3 in cloud
324 droplets was dominant at Mt. Tai (Shen et al., 2012). However, cloud water collected on Mt. Tai
325 contained high concentrations of soluble Fe, Mn, Zn, and Pb (Liu et al., 2012). These soluble metals in
326 cloud droplets are released from aqueous reactions between metal particles and acidic sulfates in cloud
327 droplets (Li et al., 2017b). Harris et al. (2013) estimated that the oxidation of SO_2 in cloud droplets
328 catalyzed by natural transition metal ions (TMIs) in mineral dust was dominant at Mt. Schmücke in
329 Germany. For this study, how the soluble anthropogenic TMIs drive sulfate formation through TMI
330 catalysis in micro-cloud droplets is still unresolved in polluted air. We propose that anthropogenic TMI
331 catalysis contributing to sulfate production should be further studied in cloud droplets in the polluted
332 NCP.



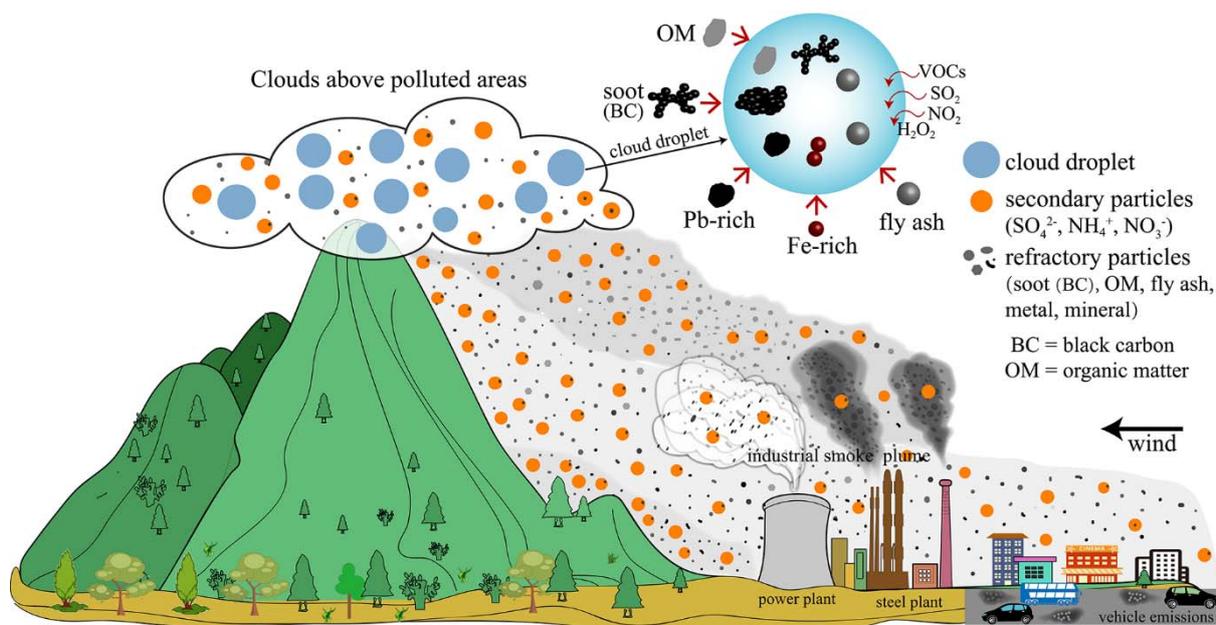
333

334 **Figure 8.** TEM image of cloud RES and INT particles collected during the cloud event occurred on the
 335 polluted day of 31 July. Particle 1 and 2 are cloud RES and particle 3, 4, 5, and 6 are cloud INT. The
 336 dashed lines indicate the water rims that were left after the cloud droplets impacting on the substrate
 337 become dry.

338

339 The non-precipitating cloud processes over the polluted air of NCP quickly change the composition
 340 of aerosol particles and cloud droplets in the upper air, potentially causing various effects such as
 341 human health, regional climate, and biogeochemical cycle at the larger regional scale. To better
 342 illustrate the aerosol-cloud interactions in this study, we made the conceptual model of Fig. 9. The tall
 343 stacks of plants can emit smoke plumes that contain fine refractory particles and gaseous pollutants to
 344 the upper air. A portion of particles in urban areas can also be lifted to the mountaintop by prevailing
 345 valley winds. Once the clouds form on a mountaintop (or later are transported in other directions), these
 346 cloud droplets act as collectors to scavenge the refractory particles. These refractory particles as
 347 inclusions might complicate the cloud chemistry in micro-cloud droplets. Gaseous pollutants such as
 348 SO₂, NO_x, and VOCs may have enhanced aqueous oxidation potential in the complex cloud droplets.
 349 Our study is designed to better understand the aerosol-cloud interactions on the mountaintop in polluted
 350 industrial and urban areas. Recently, a study showed that the major aerosol pollution events with very
 351 high fine mode AOD (>1.0 in mid-visible) in the China-Korea-Japan region are often observed to be
 352 associated with significant cloud cover (Eck et al., 2018). Therefore, we expect that large amounts of
 353 fine refractory particles from polluted areas scavenging in clouds have important impacts not only at

354 local but also in large regional scale.



355

356 **Figure 9.** A conceptual model illustrating mechanisms of aerosol-cloud interactions on mountaintop
357 influenced by anthropogenic pollutants from heavy industrial and urban emissions.

358 5. Conclusions

359 Individual aerosol particles were collected during cloud events on Mt. Tai from 22 July to 1 August,
360 2014. Cloud RES and INT particles were separated by their distribution on TEM grids and their
361 composition was identified by TEM/EDS. Individual particles were classified into S-rich, refractory (i.e.,
362 mineral, soot, fly ash/metal) and S-refractory (i.e., S-mineral, S-soot, S-fly ash/metal, and S-fly
363 ash/metal-soot). According to air mass backward trajectories and $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations on Mt. Tai, the
364 entire sampling period was divided into three classes: a clean period ($PM_{2.5} < 15 \mu g m^{-3}$), a lightly
365 polluted period ($15 \mu g m^{-3} < PM_{2.5} < 35 \mu g m^{-3}$), and a polluted period ($PM_{2.5} > 35 \mu g m^{-3}$). In the
366 clean period, individual particles were dominated by S-rich particles (78%), whereas the fraction of
367 refractory particles and S-refractory particles increased significantly and dominated during the polluted
368 periods. This suggested that anthropogenic pollutants from tall stacks of coal-fired power plants and
369 heavy industries and vehicular exhaust in cities could be lifted to the summit of Mt. Tai under the
370 prevailing southerly winds in summer.

371 TEM observations showed that 76% of cloud RES were S-refractory particles contaminated by
372 anthropogenic refractory particles, compared with only 22% of cloud INT. Cloud RES displayed a
373 larger size than cloud INT, which indicates that particle size decidedly affects CCN ability. Our study

374 reveals that large amounts of anthropogenic refractory particles were incorporated into cloud droplets
375 through in-cloud processes. Especially important is that abundant black carbon particles in cloud
376 droplets could alter radiative forcing of clouds and accelerate the evaporation of cloud droplets. The
377 high concentrations of transition metal ions might favor the aqueous-phase oxidation of SO₂ by O₂ in
378 cloud droplets under the heavily polluted conditions in the NCP. Fly ash/metal-containing cloud
379 droplets could be transported long distance and harm ecosystems and human health through wet
380 deposition. We propose a conceptual model to show the aerosol-cloud interactions on mountaintops
381 influenced by heavily polluted air.

382

383 **Data availability.** All data presented in this paper are available upon request. Please contact the
384 corresponding author (liweijun_atmos@gmail.com).

385

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

387

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