



1 **Source-explicit estimation of brown carbon in the polluted**
2 **atmosphere over North China Plain: implications for**
3 **distribution, absorption and direct radiative effect**
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15 **Abstract.** Brown carbon (BrC) is recognized as a considerable factor changing the atmospheric radiation balance.
16 In addition to the combustion of biomass and biofuel sources, both field observations and laboratory studies
17 suggest that fossil fuels is an important contributor to BrC. This highlights a critical gap in the treatment of BrC
18 in climate models, which typically categorize organic aerosols (OA) from fossil fuels as non-absorbing or
19 simplistically assume that all OA are light-scattering. Here we present a regional simulation of BrC during a highly
20 polluted winter in North China Plain (NCP) by using the WRF-Chem model incorporating currently known BrC
21 sources with explicit absorption properties. The modified model generally performs well in simulating air
22 pollutants and aerosols species against observations. Our simulations show that the average near-surface mass
23 concentration of BrC in the NCP is $4.8 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ and its contribution to the aerosol absorption optical depth at 365
24 nm is 11.2%. A diagnostic adjoint method has been used to quantify the overall direct radiative effect (DRE) of
25 BrC and contributions from various sources. We find that the DRE of BrC is predominantly negative with an
26 average of -0.10 W m^{-2} at the top of the atmosphere (TOA) over the NCP, and consequently decreases the direct
27 radiative cooling effect of OA by 24.0 % with a TOA warming of up to $+0.34 \text{ W m}^{-2}$. Our findings reveal that
28 residential coal combustion is the principal contributor to the DRE of BrC in the NCP, and a noteworthy
29 contribution from secondary BrC.

30 **Key words:** Brown Carbon, emission sources, absorption, direct radiative effect

31



32 **1 Introduction**

33 Brown Carbon (BrC) is a collective component for those colored organic compounds with wavelength
34 dependent light-absorption properties (Mukai and Ambe, 1986; Kirchstetter et al., 2004; Andreae and Gelencsér,
35 2006). BrC has been recognized as an important short-lived climate forcer contributing considerably to climate
36 change by warming of the atmosphere (IPCC, 2013; Feng et al., 2013; Jacobson, 2014; Jo et al., 2016; Brown et
37 al., 2018). The light absorption induced by BrC can be equal to or even higher than that of black carbon (Pokhrel
38 et al., 2017), and substantially influences atmospheric radiative forcing. Recent studies have shown that BrC
39 counts 30%–50% of the total absorption of aerosols in Atlanta USA, Brazil and Hebei China (Hoffer et al., 2006;
40 Yang et al., 2009; Liu et al., 2013). The direct radiation effect (DRE) caused by BrC is greater than $+1 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ in
41 some regions, such as South Asia, Africa and Southeast Asia, much higher than the global average (Park et al.,
42 2010; Feng et al., 2013; Lin et al., 2014; Saleh et al., 2014; Jo et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2018; Yan et al., 2018). As
43 a result, BrC reduces the cooling effect caused by organic aerosols by approximately 16% (Jo et al., 2016).
44 However, the model evaluated DRE associated with BrC is highly uncertain with order of magnitude difference,
45 e.g., the estimated global DRE of BrC is in the range between $+0.03 \text{ W/m}^2$ to $+0.57 \text{ W/m}^2$ (Hammer et al., 2016),
46 which is caused by the limited of BrC mass and absorption properties observations (Tuccella et al., 2020; Saleh,
47 2020).

48 Currently, the sources and chemical composition of BrC is not completely understood yet. Most of
49 observations in the world indicate that biomass burning (BB), bio fuels (BFs) combustion, and ageing of secondary
50 organic aerosol (SOA) are the much of BrC sources (Hecobian et al., 2010; Shapiro et al., 2009; Bond et al., 2013).
51 Only a few climate models have assumed that primary OA from BB and BFs combustion is the main or sole BrC
52 (Feng et al., 2013; Jacobson, 2014; Saleh et al., 2014; Hammer et al., 2016; Brown et al., 2018), and aromatic
53 SOA is added in some recent studies (Jo et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2020). Generally, fossil fuels
54 (FFs) combustion is taken for nonsignificant BrC source. OA from FFs combustion is assumed to be non-
55 absorbing and not accounted for in current climate models. However, a growing number of laboratory and field
56 studies have demonstrated that low-efficiency FFs combustion is proved to be an indispensable source of BrC
57 (Bond, 2001; Saleh, 2020), especially for the areas where coal is the main energy. According to the National
58 Bureau of Statistics of China (<https://data.stats.gov.cn>), coal consumption in 2014 is about 4000 Tg, accounting
59 for 65.8% of the total primary energy of China, ~93 Tg of which is used as fuel of households. The poor burning
60 conditions and limited emission control facilities have caused massive emissions of organic particles (Yan et al.,



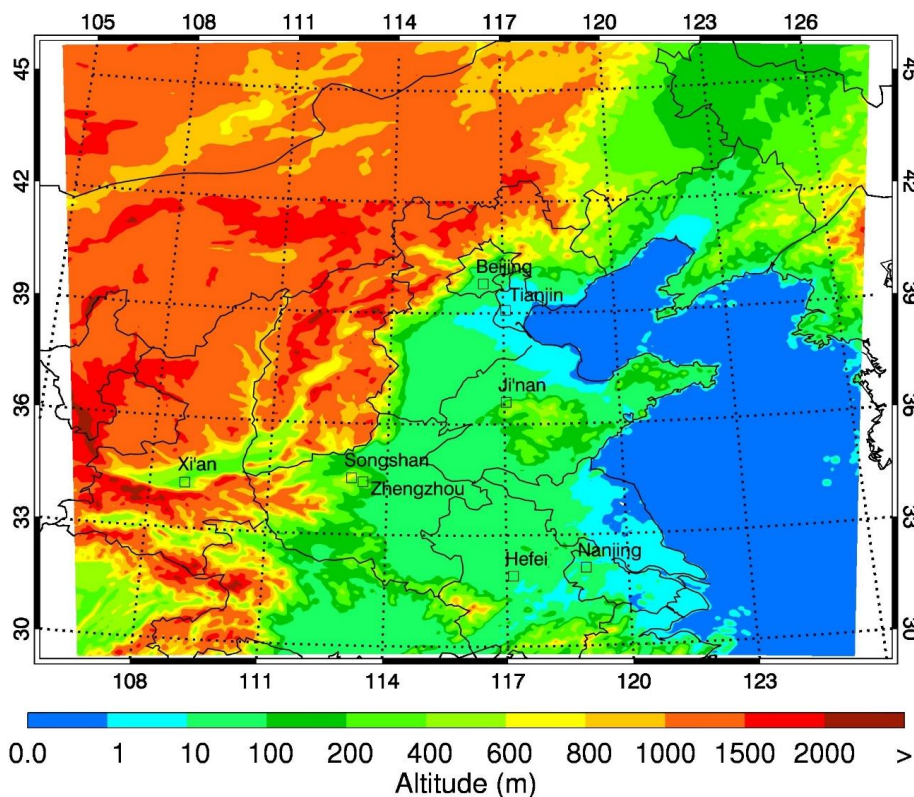
61 2017; Yan et al., 2022). Recent field observations have shown that residential coal combustion (RCC) is an
62 important source of BrC in northern China (Wang et al., 2019; Tian et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2021) and the fossil
63 source contributes much more in northern China than in other parts of the world (Mo et al., 2021), which is not
64 involved in previous climate models. Xie et al. (2019) have concluded that BrC from RCC is the main contributor
65 of the aerosol light absorption during the wintertime in Beijing, with the contribution of 48%-55%. In addition,
66 several studies have indicated that vehicle emissions are also a nonnegligible BrC source (Du et al., 2014; Hu et
67 al., 2017; Xie et al., 2017a; Tang et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2021; Huang et al., 2022).

68 These recent findings indicate a critical gap on the treatment of BrC in climate models. This includes
69 expanding the scope of BrC sources and assigning distinct optical properties for each source and incorporating
70 those that have been underrepresented or overlooked in past assessments into numerical models. In this study, we
71 include the main primary emission sources (RCC, BB, BFs, vehicle emissions) of BrC and secondary BrC in a
72 regional model, the Weather Research and Forecasting model coupled with Chemistry (WRF-Chem). A
73 representative region, North China Plain (NCP), is chosen as the study domain with high anthropogenic
74 carbonaceous aerosols due to the widespread use of coal and biomass burning for heating during winter and the
75 increasing number of motor vehicles. We have performed a month simulation to evaluate the surface distribution,
76 absorption and the DRE of BrC in the NCP, by updating BrC optical properties of different sources. Sensitivity
77 experiments have also been devised to assess the contribution of BrC from major sources.

78 **2 Model and Method**

79 **2.1 WRF-Chem Model and configurations**

80 The WRF-Chem model (Grell et al., 2005; Fast et al., 2006) modified by Li et al., (2010; 2011a; 2011b; 2012)
81 is used to quantitatively estimate the BrC in the NCP. A heavily polluted month from January 1 to 30, 2014 is
82 selected for the simulation period. The anthropogenic emissions are developed by Zhang et al. (2009) and Li et al.
83 (2017), including five sources contributed from agriculture, industry, power generation, residential, and
84 transportation sources. The biogenic emissions are calculated online using the MEGAN (Model of Emissions of
85 Gases and Aerosol from Nature) model developed by Guenther et al. (2006). Additionally, the grid-based RCC,
86 BB and BFs combustion emissions are used to update the BrC sources in this study which will be described later.
87 The model simulation domain is shown in Fig. 1. The detailed model description and configurations can be found
88 in supplementary text S1.1 and Table S1, respectively.



89

90 **Figure 1. WRF-Chem simulation domain with topography. The square denotes the field sites for simulation and**
91 **observation comparison**

92 **2.2 Aerosol radiative module**

93 Goddard shortwave module (Chou and Suarez, 1999) is used to study the DRE of BrC, which takes into
94 account the extinction by water vapor, ozone, oxygen, carbon dioxide, aerosols, Rayleigh scattering, and clouds.
95 The aerosol radiative module has been incorporated into the WRF-Chem model to calculate the aerosol optical
96 depth (AOD), single scattering albedo (SSA), and the asymmetry factor which are used to the Goddard module.
97 Four types of aerosol are classified as (1) internally mixed sulfate, nitrate, ammonium, hydrophilic organics and
98 black carbon (BC), and water; (2) hydrophobic organics; (3) hydrophobic BC; and (4) other unidentified aerosols
99 (generally dust-like aerosols), which are assumed to be mixed externally. The detailed calculation method can be
100 found in Li et al. (2011a) and the supplementary text S1.2. The BrC in the model has an effective density of 1.2 g
101 cm⁻³ for primary BrC and of 1.0 g cm⁻³ for secondary BrC. The imaginary refractive index of BrC is discussed in
102 2.3.2.



103 **2.3 Model modifications**

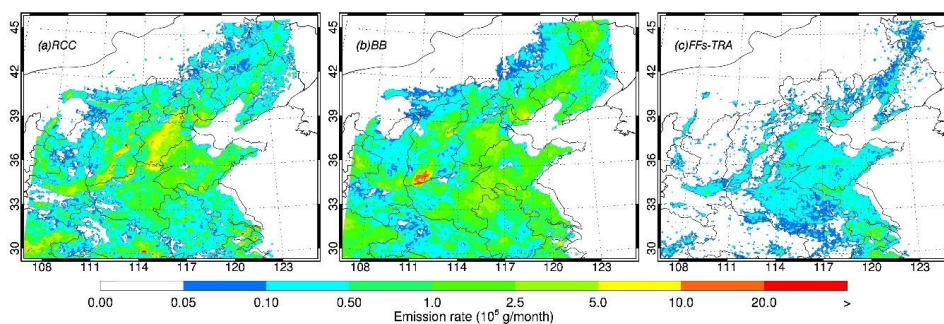
104 **2.3.1 Source separation of BrC**

105 The definition of BrC in the model is dependent on its sources. Due to lack of BrC emission inventories,
106 most of the previous studies either simply use OA from BB as a proxy of BrC or estimate the emission of BrC
107 based on the emission ratio of BrC versus BC (Zhu et al., 2021). According to the characteristics of energy
108 structure in China, assumptions and code modifications of the WRF-Chem model have been made to consider the
109 primary BrC from different sources. These involve three separated primary BrC sources, including BB emissions,
110 fossil fuel emissions from RCC and on-road vehicles (FFs-TRA), and a part of SOA which has light absorption
111 property whereas other types of POA and SOA is assumed to be purely scattering. In this study, BB source
112 corresponds to open fire, household biomass burning and biofuel consumption emissions.

113 Up to now, the study for BrC emissions is limited (Sun et al., 2017; Sun et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2022).
114 Quantifying emission factors of BrC is still challenging due to the need to isolate BrC from other pollutants, and
115 the factors vary greatly depending on the methods and proxies used. There are usually two methods to estimate
116 the emissions of BrC, one is the traditional inventory method, and the other is calculating by using the ratio of
117 BrC to other combustion products like BC. The gap between these two methods, even the same method, could be
118 very wide. Sun et al., (2017; 2021) reported that the BrC from RCC and BB emission is 592 Gg and 712 Gg,
119 respectively in 2013 in China but it likely to be biased low because of the proxy of BrC. Whereas Zhu et al.,
120 (2021) obtained a large RCC emissions (2.42 Tg year⁻¹) by using the emission ratio method. In the present work,
121 we have taken consideration of the observation results that fossil sources significantly contribute to water soluble
122 organic carbon (WSOC), especially in colder seasons, and that both the contribution and light absorption
123 efficiency of WSOC are higher in northern China than in southern China (Feng et al., 2013; Mo et al., 2021).
124 Follow on this study, we use a proportion of OA from different sources to estimate the emission of BrC. RCC is
125 responsible for about 45% of primary BrC emissions which resulting an annual emission of 616 Gg in the NCP.
126 While all the BB emissions of OA are considered to be absorption, contributing approximately 45% to primary
127 BrC emissions which is 664 Gg per year in NCP. The vehicle emissions of BrC is based on the calculations made
128 by Wang et al., (2022), about 84 Gg year⁻¹ in this study. The total yearly BrC primary emissions in the NCP is
129 over 1364 Gg year⁻¹ which is closer to the estimation of traditional inventory method. Figure 2 shows the
130 contributing regions and burdens of the three separated primary sources of BrC. SOA has also shown light
131 absorption in the atmosphere (Lin et al., 2014). According to previous studies, the BrC from SOA is generally



132 produced from oxidation of biogenic and aromatic volatile organic compound (VOC) precursors (Liu et al., 2015;
133 Liu et al., 2016; Xie et al., 2017b). Some models designate the fraction of aromatic SOA to the total as the
134 secondary BrC, such as the study by Wang et al. (2014), which set this proportion at 8%. In this work, a proportion
135 of 10% of the total SOA is included as a part of BrC. Applying the emission fractions above, OA is split into white
136 scattering POA, white scattering SOA and BrC at each time step.



137

138 **Figure 2 Monthly BrC emissions burdens in January 2014 in NCP from FFs-coal, BB and FFs-traffic.**

139 **2.3.2 BrC optical properties**

140 The refractive indices of BrC as a function of wavelength are used for radiative transfer calculations. The
141 complex refractive index ($m = n + ik$) of aerosol components enables practical implementation in the model,
142 where n is the real part primarily associated with the scattering efficiency, and k is the imaginary part primarily
143 associated with the absorption efficiency (Bohren and Huffman, 1998). The real part of BrC refractive index is
144 the same of non-absorbing OA which is fairly constrained with reported values typically ranging from 1.5 to 1.7
145 (Saleh et al., 2014; Browne et al., 2019; Li et al., 2020). In this study, it follows the study by Li et al. (2011a) and
146 Wu et al. (2020). The imaginary part (k) of BrC refractive index exhibits strong wavelength dependence and the
147 values range over several orders of magnitude (Saleh et al., 2018; Sengupta et al., 2018). Limited studies on the
148 optical properties of BrC from fossil fuel combustions are reported at present. The average MAE of RCC at 365nm
149 is ranging from $0.80 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ to $2.47 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ (Yan et al., 2017; Li et al., 2019; Tang et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2020;
150 Ni et al., 2021; Song et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2021). Considering that BrC has a high light absorption efficiency
151 in northern China during cold season (Mo et al., 2021), we choose a field measurement of MAE in the wavelength
152 range between 370 nm and 660 nm, showing that the changes in anthropogenic emissions affect the optical
153 properties of BrC (Zhang et al., 2022). This MAE is higher than that reported by Ni et al., (2021) and Xie et al.,
154 (2017a) to implement the absorption of BrC. The MAE of SOA follows the suggestion made by Ni et al., (2021).



155 The value of k in this work is derived from the measured MAE using the following Eq.(1) (Liu et al., 2013;
 156 Lu et al., 2015) as shown in Table 1:

$$157 \quad k_{BrC,\lambda} = \frac{\rho \times \lambda \times MAE_{\lambda}}{4\pi} \quad (1)$$

158 Where MAE_{λ} ($m^2 g^{-1}$) is the bulk mass absorption efficiency of BrC at the corresponding wavelength λ . ρ (g
 159 cm^{-3}) is the density of organic aerosols, which is assigned as $1.2 g cm^{-3}$ in this study.

160 **Table 1 The refractive index of BrC used in the model**

161

Aerosols	Wavelength (nm)	k	References
BrC-RCC	370	0.1890	Zhang Y. 2022
	470	0.0608	
	520	0.0272	
	590	0.0173	
	660	0.0081	
BrC-BB	370	0.0587	
	470	0.0219	
	520	0.0120	
	590	0.0092	
	660	0.0046	
BrC-FFs-Tra	370	0.0509	
	470	0.0194	
	520	0.0085	
	590	0.0046	
	660	0.0018	
BrC-SOA	365	0.00490	Ni et al., 2021
	500	0.00070	

162

163 2.3.3 Shortwave direct radiative effect calculation and experimental design

164 The shortwave DRE calculations of BrC follow the method reported by Chen et al (2021) as shown in Eq.
 165 (2). The DRE of BrC is calculated by the difference between the net radiant flux with and without BrC, where the
 166 net radiant flux is the difference between the downward (F_d) and upward radiant flux (F_u).

$$167 \quad DRE_{TOA} = (F_{TOA}^a - F_{TOA}^a) - (F_{TOA}^0 - F_{TOA}^0) \quad (2)$$

168 Where DRE_{TOA} represent the shortwave DRE at the top of the atmosphere (TOA). F^a and F^0 is the radiant
 169 flux with and without BrC aerosols, respectively.

170 A adjoint methodology proposed by Zhao et al (2013) and Huang et al (2015) has been used to diagnose the
 171 optical depth and DRE of BrC aerosols. Optical properties and radiative transfer of different sources BrC are



172 calculated multiple times with one or a group of aerosol mass removed or without BrC absorption from each of
173 calculation as the following Eq. (3) and Eq. (4). In addition, the model also takes into account the reduced aerosol
174 masses along with the change in aerosol number concentration and size distribution.

$$175 \text{AOD}_{[\text{species } i]} = \text{AOD}_{[\text{all species}]} - \text{AOD}_{[\text{without species } i/\text{without species } i \text{ absorption}]} \quad (3)$$

$$176 \text{DRE Forcing}_{[\text{species } i]} = \text{DRE Forcing}_{[\text{all species}]} - \text{DRE Forcing}_{[\text{without species } i/\text{without species } i \text{ absorption}]} \quad (4)$$

177 This method is more efficient than the traditional approach of running the model multiple times with the
178 exclusion of a specific aerosol component. It not only saves computational time but also provides a more accurate
179 estimation focused solely on the direct radiative effect of aerosols.

180 **3 Results and Discussions**

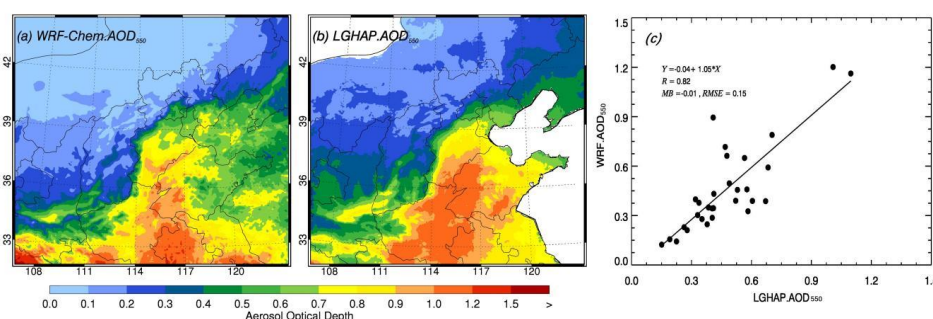
181 **3.1 Model performance**

182 Before evaluating the DRE of BrC further, results from the standard simulation are used to validate the model
183 performance. Using available measurements, we first validate the spatial distribution and temporal variation of
184 air pollutants (PM_{2.5}, O₃, NO₂, SO₂) in the NCP, the temporal variation of downward shortwave flux at the surface
185 (SWDOWN) in Beijing, Tianjin, Zhengzhou, Hefei and Ji'nan, and the temporal variation of aerosol species (OA,
186 elemental carbon, ammonium, sulphate and nitrite) in Beijing, Tianjin and primary OA from BB, RCC, motor
187 vehicles and SOA in Beijing in January, 2014. The detailed data descriptions and quantitative statements of model
188 biases can be found in supplementary text S2.1 and S3. In general, the model reasonably well simulates the air
189 pollutants, SWDOWN, and aerosol species against measurements.

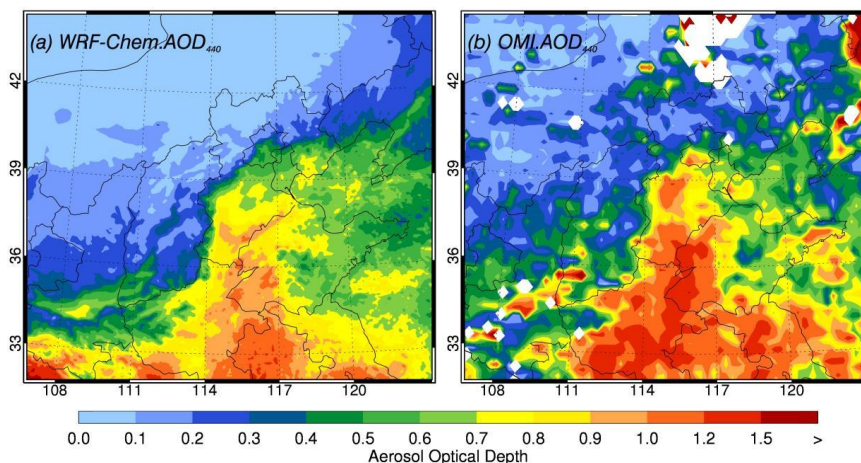
190 The daily AOD at 550 nm (AOD₅₅₀) from the dataset of Long-term Gap-free High-resolution Air Pollutant
191 (LGHAP), derived via tensor-flow-based multimodal data fusion (Bai et al., 2022), is compared with the
192 simulation. Figure 3a and 3b shows the pattern comparison of the monthly simulated and retrieved AOD₅₅₀. The
193 model reasonably reproduces the AOD distribution compared to the retrieval in the NCP, but slightly
194 underestimates the AOD₅₅₀. The monthly simulated and retrieved AOD₅₅₀ is 0.45 and 0.48 on average in the NCP,
195 respectively. Figure 3c shows the scatter plot of the daily simulated and retrieved AOD₅₅₀ averaged in the NCP
196 during the simulation period. The simulated daily average AOD₅₅₀ correlates quite well with the retrieval, with a
197 regression slope of 1.05 and correlation coefficient of 0.82. Generally, the retrieved and simulated AOD increases
198 with deterioration of the particulate pollution. Figure 4 provides the pattern comparison of the simulated and
199 Ozone Monitoring Instrument (OMI) retrieved AOD at 440 nm (AOD₄₄₀) averaged during the simulated episode.



200 The simulated AOD₄₄₀ pattern is generally in agreement with the retrieval, but the underestimation still exists. The
201 average simulated and retrieved AOD₄₄₀ is 0.50 and 0.53 in the NCP, respectively. In brief, the model generally
202 performs well in simulating the AOD distribution, but is subject to underestimating AOD. It worth noting that the
203 simulated AOD is not only dependent on the column aerosol content and composition, also substantially
204 influenced by relative humidity (RH) which determines the aerosol hygroscopic growth. Additionally, the satellite
205 retrieved AOD is subject to contamination by existence of clouds, and considering the high occurrence frequency
206 of clouds during haze days, the retrieved AOD is generally higher than the simulation (Satheesh et al., 2010;
207 Chand et al., 2012).



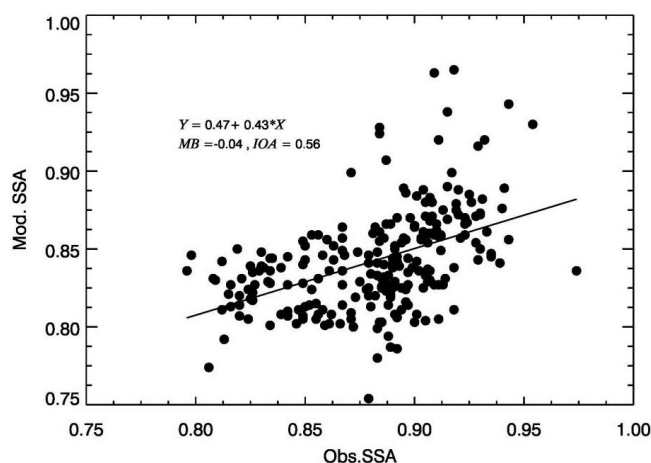
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209 **Figure 3 (a) monthly simulated AOD₅₅₀ of WRF-Chem, (b) monthly retrieved AOD₅₅₀ of reanalysis dataset LGHAP,**
210 **and (c) scatter plot of the daily simulated and retrieved AOD₅₅₀ averaged in the NCP from 01 January to 30 January**
211 **2014**



212
213 **Figure 4 (a) monthly simulated AOD₄₄₀ of WRF-Chem, (b) monthly retrieved AOD₄₄₀ of OMI in the NCP from 01**
214 **January to 30 January 2014**



215 SSA determines the strength of aerosols in absorbing solar radiation. Figure 5 shows the comparisons of
216 simulated versus observed SSA at 440 nm (SSA_{440}) at Sun-sky radiometer Observation NETWORK (SONET) sites
217 including Beijing, Songshan, Xi'an, Hefei, Nanjing in January 2014. Due to the influence of clouds, the
218 observational data from SONET are not continuous, consequently, a total of 237 valid data points are available
219 for comparison. The model tends to underestimate SSA_{440} with a MB of -0.04. The relationship indicates that the
220 model might predict more absorbing aerosols or underestimate RH. Meanwhile, the uncertainties of the simulated
221 SSA can be caused by other factors, such as mixing state of aerosols, particle shape, wavelength, and mass ratio
222 of non-black carbon to BC (Liu et al., 2017). Jeong et al. (2020) have proposed that the density of BC is an
223 important factor for the SSA estimation, and dust size distribution reduces SSA_{440} .



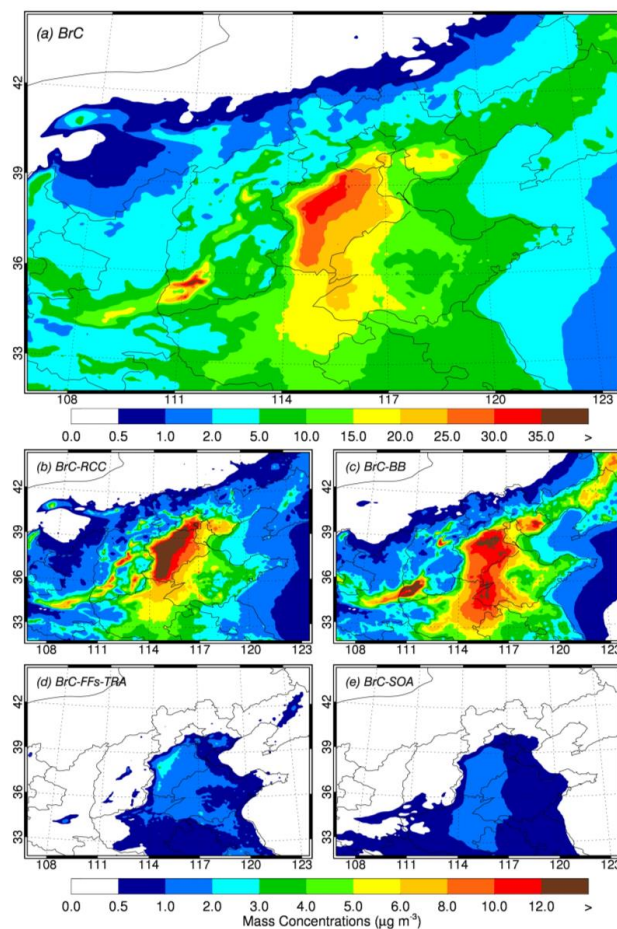
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225 **Figure 5. Scatter plot and liner fitting of column integrated SSA at 440 nm**

226 **3.2 Surface mass concentrations of BrC in NCP**

227 The simulated distribution of average near-surface BrC concentrations and each source contribution in
228 January 2014 is shown in Fig. 6a. In January, the monthly mean concentrations of BrC in the NCP vary from 0.05
229 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ to 40.8 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, with an average of 4.8 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. The spatial distribution of near-surface BrC concentrations
230 is similar to that of $PM_{2.5}$ in the NCP, with the highest concentration areas located in Hebei Province with an
231 average concentration of 13.5 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. The simulated BrC concentrations are higher than those reported by Zhu et
232 al. (2021) in 2018, which is perhaps caused by the more severe particulate pollution in January 2014.

233



234

235 **Figure 6. Simulated mean surface concentrations of BrC (a) and each anthropogenic source of RCC (b), of BB (c), of**
236 **FFs-TRA (d) and secondary BrC (e) in January, 2014 in NCP**

237

Figure 6b-e present the average near-surface BrC concentrations from different anthropogenic sources and secondary formation in January, 2014 in the NCP. The BrC in the NCP predominantly originates from RCC and BB, with an average contribution of 2.3 and 2.9 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ and a maximum of 28.2 and 31.3 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, respectively. A relatively small proportion of BrC is contributed by FFs-TRA and secondary transformations with an average concentration of 0.5 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ and 0.4 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, respectively. The BrC from RCC accounts for 46.3% of total BrC concentrations in the NCP, which is highest in Beijing, Hebei, and Tianjin, reaching 63.2%, 48.5% and 47.7% respectively. The BrC from BB counts 41.9% of total BrC concentrations, with the contribution of about 40% in most provinces of the NCP but only 28.9% in Beijing. This result shows that the RCC is one of the major sources

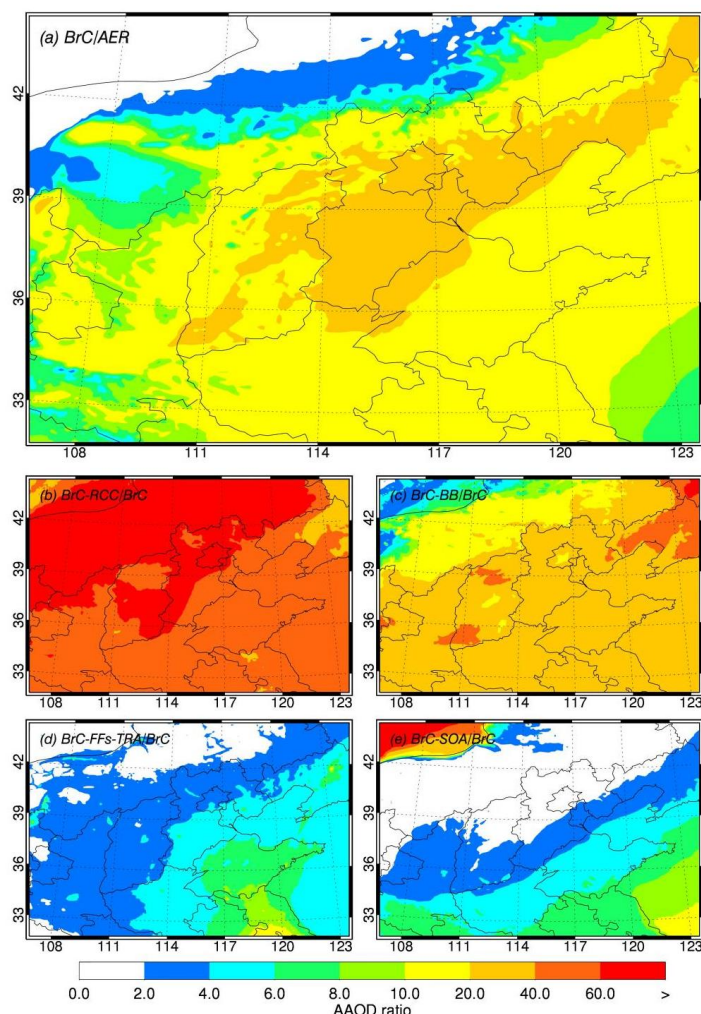


245 of BrC in NCP due to the wide use of coal for heating and cooking in winter with the low combustion efficiency
246 and fewer emission control. The BrC emitted by RCC is mainly concentrated in the Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei region,
247 while the BrC emitted by BB is distributed in the whole NCP. The Fen-Wei plain exhibits notably high
248 contributions from BB, which is consistent with the emission distribution and with previous studies (Cao and Cui,
249 2021; Zhang et al., 2021). The Fen-Wei Plain is one of the most densely populated and heavily polluted areas in
250 northern China where biomass is usually used for heating during winter. Although the BrC concentration from
251 FFs-TRA is generally higher in Hebei Province than that in other regions, the highest BrC contribution from FFs-
252 TRA is in Jiangsu Province, reaching up to 16.9%, with an average of 6.1%.

253 **3.3 BrC absorption in the NCP**

254 BrC absorbs visible to near-ultraviolet light with its absorption capabilities extending prominently at shorter
255 wavelengths. Therefore, we calculate the AAOD (aerosol absorption optical depth) to evaluate the absorption
256 contribution of BrC versus bulk aerosols, each anthropogenic source and SOA versus BrC at 365 nm (Fig. 7), by
257 differentiating the AAOD between with and without the contribution of BrC model runs. The average contribution
258 of BrC to the total AAOD of aerosols at 365 nm is 11.2% and the maximum is 33.6% in the NCP in January 2014.
259 Compared with the global mean ratio of BrC to BC which is 1.24, the near-surface ratio of that in the NCP is
260 relatively low, with an average of 0.85 because of high concentrations of BC in this area. It is also much lower
261 than that in South America and Africa where BB is generally heavy. On the other hand, although the absorption
262 of BrC in the ultraviolet band is comparable to that of BC, but imaginary index of BrC (about 0.1) is still much
263 lower than that of BC (about 0.76). As a result, the light absorption contribution of BrC at 365 nm is not significant
264 during the study period.

265 Furthermore, the light absorption properties of BrC during the winter season are predominantly attributed to
266 RCC, followed by BB, SOA, and FFs-TRA in the NCP. The average contribution of RCC and BB to the AAOD
267 of BrC is 55.3% and 26.4%, respectively. Although the concentration of BrC from RCC is comparable to that
268 from BB, the much higher light-absorbing property of the BrC from RCC makes it a dominant contributor to the
269 overall light absorption caused by BrC. The concentration of secondary BrC is lowest compared to that from
270 primary sources, but contributes considerably to BrC AAOD with an average up to 10.6%, which could be
271 explained by its low density and mixing state. The AAOD contribution of BrC from vehicle sources is the lowest,
272 about 3.8% on average, but its contribution in Shanghai and southern Jiangsu ranges from 5% to 10%, higher than
273 in other regions, which is consistent with its surface mass concentration distribution.



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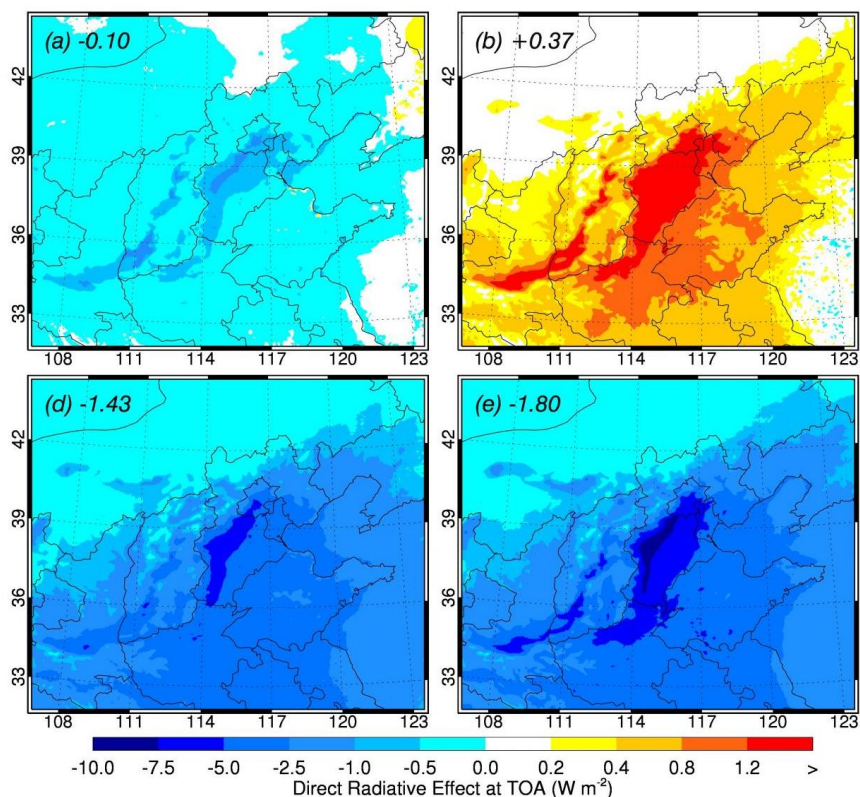
275 **Figure 7** The simulated monthly BrC AAOD versus aerosol at 365nm and each anthropogenic source of RCC, BB, FFs-
276 **TRA** and secondary BrC AAOD versus BrC in NCP

277 **3.4 Direct radiative effect of BrC**

278 Figure. 8a shows the distribution of the average DRE_{TOA} caused by BrC at the top of the atmosphere during
279 the episode. The DRE_{TOA} in the NCP is -0.10 W m^{-2} on average, with a maximum of $+0.45 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ and a minimum
280 of -2.45 W m^{-2} . Compared to the average DRE_{TOA} of BC $+3.9 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ and a maximum of $+21.6 \text{ W m}^{-2}$, the average
281 DRE_{TOA} of BrC in the NCP is close to zero. However, in terms of the spatial distribution, the DRE_{TOA} of total BrC
282 in the NCP is predominantly negative, especially in those areas with high BrC concentrations including BTH area



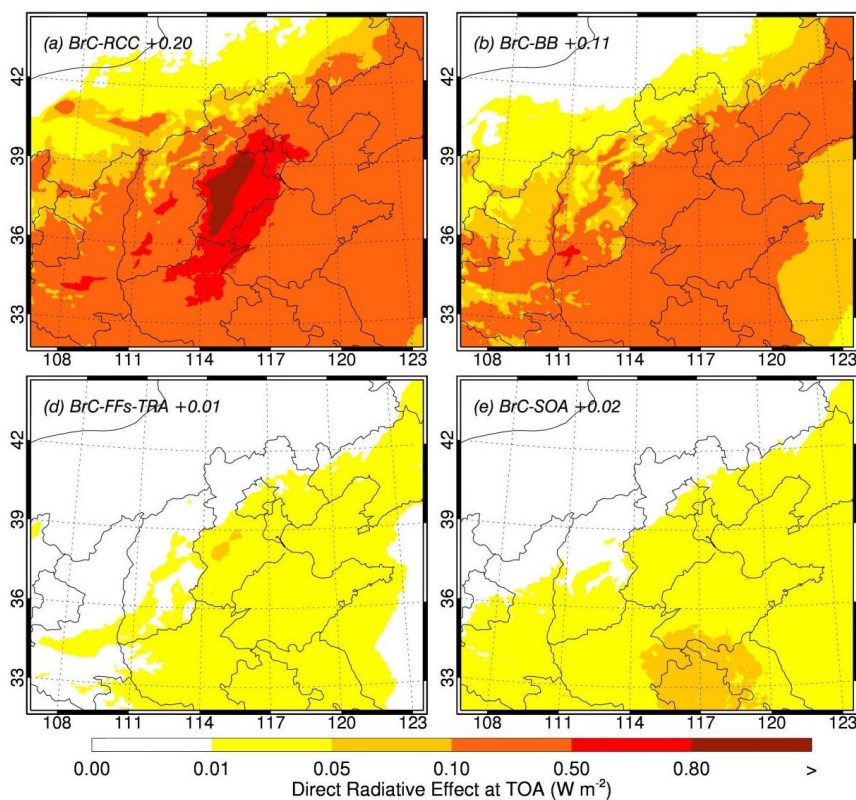
283 and Fen-wei Plain. The largest negative DRE_{TOA} is in Shanxi province with the highest BrC concentration
284 produced by BB. The results indicate that the overall scattering effect of BrC is greater than its absorption effect,
285 so the BrC populations have a net cooling effect. As we know, the solar irradiance in the UV band contributes
286 only 10% for the total solar irradiation. The imaginary refractive indices of BrC are much lower than those of
287 strongly absorbing BC, especially in the visible band. On the other hand, although these reasons lead to a small
288 heating effect by BrC, the increased DRE_{TOA} induced by BrC which is usually considered as its scattering effect
289 is up to an average of $+0.37 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ and a maximum of $+2.45 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ as shown in Fig. 8b. The DRE_{TOA} of OA
290 without BrC is -1.80 W m^{-2} over the NCP (Fig. 8d), and is increased to -1.43 W m^{-2} (Fig. 8c) after considering
291 BrC. Consequently, the cooling effect of OA is reduced by BrC with an average of 24.0%. So far, almost all
292 estimates of the radiation effects of BrC have been based on a global basis. The study of Wang et al. (2014) have
293 shown that the global DRE_{TOA} of BrC is -0.02 W m^{-2} , resulting a DRE_{TOA} increasing of $+0.07 \text{ W m}^{-2}$. Brown et al.
294 (2018) have also reported a global annual increased DRE_{TOA} of $+0.13 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ with the maximum forcing ($\sim +1.75$
295 W m^{-2}) occurs off the west coast of southern Africa. All these estimates only considered BB, biofuels or SOA.
296 This result indicate that the significance of BrC becomes apparent in the estimates for those study typically based
297 on the assumption that OA primarily scatters sun light. The absorption effect of BrC should be considered in
298 climate models to accurately assess the aerosol impact on atmospheric heating and climate change.
299



300

301 **Figure 8, The DRE_{TOA} of BrC (a) and the DRE_{TOA} increase of OA owing to the absorption of BrC (b). The DRE_{TOA} of**
302 **total OA with absorbing BrC (c) and DRE_{TOA} of total OA with BrC is assumed to be scattering (d). The averages of**
303 **DRE are shown in the upper left of each panel.**

304 Figure 9a-d shows the estimated DRE_{TOA} of BrC from RCC, BB, FFs-TRA and secondary BrC in the NCP
305 during the episode. Similar to the contribution of BrC sources to the AAOD at 365 nm, the most important source
306 contributing to DRE_{TOA} of BrC is RCC (+0.20 $W m^{-2}$), followed by BB (+0.11 $W m^{-2}$), secondary BrC (+0.02 W
307 m^{-2}), and FFs-TRA (+0.01 $W m^{-2}$) in the NCP, as shown in Fig. 9. However, the DRE_{TOA} of BrC from various
308 sources exhibits distinct spatial distribution characteristics in the NCP. The highest DRE_{TOA} of BrC from fossil
309 sources, which include RCC and FFs-TRA, are predominantly appeared concentrated in Hebei. The highest
310 positive DRE_{TOA} of BrC from BB is found in Fen-Wei Plain. Meanwhile, the secondary BrC contributes most to
311 the DRE_{TOA} in the south part of the NCP. This pattern is likely caused by the high RH levels in the region, which
312 facilitates the internal mixing of secondary BrC with other water-soluble aerosols and aerosol liquid water to
313 enhance its absorption properties.
314



315

316 **Figure 9. The estimation DRE_{TOA} of each anthropogenic source (a)RCC, (b)BB, (c) FFs-TRA and (d) secondary BrC**
317 **in NCP in January, 2014**

318 **4 Conclusions**

319 A source-explicit BrC simulation in January 2014 in the NCP is conducted by using the WRF-Chem model.
320 We define the BrC based on varying proportions of RCC, BB, FFs-TRA and SOA sources, assigning each a distinct
321 imaginary refractive index to represent their differing light absorption characteristics. Model simulations are
322 evaluated with various data sets. Besides the well reproduction of temporal and spatial variation of aerosol
323 components and SWDOWN in the model, AOD and SSA are used to evaluate the aerosol optical properties.

324 Near-surface mass concentrations of simulated BrC in the NCP range from 0.05 to 40.8 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ with an
325 average of 4.8 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, which is mainly contributed by RCC and BB, especially evident in the BTH region and
326 Fen-Wei Plain. Estimation of the BrC contribution to AAOD shows that the BrC accounts for an average of 11.2%
327 and up to 33.6% of the total aerosol absorption at 365 nm. The largest contributor to the absorption of BrC is the



328 BrC from RCC, reaching 55.3%. BrC generally has a net cooling effect in the NCP if we consider both the
329 absorption and scattering properties, with its DRE_{TOA} of around -0.10 W m^{-2} on average and in the range between
330 -2.45 W m^{-2} and $+0.45 \text{ W m}^{-2}$. However, BrC increases the DRE_{TOA} of OA by 24.0% with an average of $+0.37 \text{ W}$
331 m^{-2} and up to $+2.45 \text{ W m}^{-2}$. The average increased DRE_{TOA} of BrC from RCC, BB, secondary formation, and FFs-
332 TRA is $+0.20 \text{ W m}^{-2}$, $+0.11 \text{ W m}^{-2}$, $+0.02 \text{ W m}^{-2}$, $+0.01 \text{ W m}^{-2}$, respectively. The study indicates that although the
333 level of secondary BrC is lower than that of BrC from FFs-TRA, it causes more absorption and larger radiative
334 effects. The pronounced radiative effect of secondary BrC may be not only attributed to their internal mixing with
335 other water-soluble aerosols and aerosol liquid water, but also associated with the relatively low density adopted
336 in the simulation. Although we conducted simulations with low secondary BrC, the impact of secondary BrC on
337 radiative processes should not be overlooked. More field observation and model experiments should be carried
338 out in the future for better understanding of its role in atmospheric radiation balance.

339 The simulation of BrC in climate models is fraught with uncertainties due to its diverse sources which result
340 in a wide range of optical properties. The absorption characteristics of BrC can change significantly as it undergoes
341 atmospheric aging, impacting its radiative forcing estimates. Additionally, interactions of BrC with other
342 atmospheric particles and its effects on cloud microphysics and albedo introduce further complexities in modeling
343 its climate impact. These uncertainties necessitate enhanced observational data and better integration of BrC
344 properties in climate models to improve the accuracy of climate predictions and assessments. Although the
345 simulations have been evaluated with extensive aerosol mass and optical measurements, more field measurements
346 and lab experiments are needed, especially for the inventory development of BrC, the vertical profiles from
347 aircrafts, and physicochemical properties which would be useful for further evaluating and improving model
348 performance.

349 **Author contributions**

350 Guohui Li and Xuexi Tie designed the study. Jiamao Zhou and Guohui Li wrote the paper. Jiamao Zhou,
351 Jiarui Wu, Xi Li, Ruonan Wang performed the model simulations. Xiaoli Su and Jiang Qian collected the satellite
352 and ground-based observation data. Ting Zhang, Wenting Dai and Junji Cao performed the field observation and
353 laboratory analyze. All authors reviewed and commented on the paper.



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357 **Data availability**

358 The Chinese Ecosystem Research Network (CERN) provided the radiation observation data. The AOD₅₅₀
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360 provided by OMI Science Team (<https://www.earthdata.nasa.gov/learn/find-data/near-real-time/omi>). The SSA
361 data is supported by Sun-sky Radiometer Observation NETwork (<http://www.sonet.ac.cn>) and the historic profiles
362 of the observed ambient air pollutants provided by Ministry of Ecology and Environment of China
363 (<https://www.aqistudy.cn/>).

364 **Competing interests**

365 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

366



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