

1 **Complex interplay between organic and secondary
2 inorganic aerosols with ambient relative humidity
3 implicates the aerosol liquid water content over India
4 during wintertime**

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16 **Key Points:**

- 17 • Aerosol Liquid Water Content (ALWC) is ubiquitous in atmospheric aerosols in
18 the Indian region during winter.
- 19 • ALWC is enhanced drastically at high aerosol loading at high relative humidity.
- 20 • Reduction of NH₃ and NO_x emissions is re-emphasised for pollution reduction and
21 visibility improvement in the Indo-Gangetic Plain.

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22 **Abstract**

23 Aerosol Liquid Water Content (ALWC), a ubiquitous component of atmospheric aerosols,
 24 contributes to total aerosol mass burden, modulating atmospheric chemistry through aerosol
 25 surface reactions and reducing atmospheric visibility. However, the complex dependency
 26 of ALWC on aerosol chemistry and relative humidity (RH) in the Indian region remains
 27 poorly characterized. Here, we combine available measurements of aerosol chemical com-
 28 position with thermodynamic model ISORROPIA2.1 to reveal a comprehensive picture
 29 of ALWC in fine mode aerosols during the winter season in the Indian region. The fac-
 30 tors modulating ALWC are primarily dependent on the RH, such that the effect of aerosol
 31 dry mass and hygroscopicity are significant at high RH while the effect of hygroscopic-
 32 ity loses its significance as RH is lowered. ALWC, depending upon the particle hygro-
 33 scopicity, displays a sharp non-linear rise beyond a critical value of ambient RH. Fur-
 34 ther analysis coupling WRF-Chem simulation with ISORROPIA2.1 revealed significant
 35 spatial heterogeneity in ALWC over India, strongly associating with regions of high aerosol
 36 loading and RH. The Indo-Gangetic Plain is consequently observed to be a hotspot of
 37 higher ALWC, which explains the prevalent conditions of haze and smog during winter
 38 in the region. Our findings re-emphasize that high aerosol mass resulting from intense
 39 pollution is vital in modulating aerosol-climate interaction under favourable meteoro-
 40 logical conditions. They suggest the need for pollution control strategies to be directed
 41 at the reduction in emissions of specific species like NH_3 and NO_x , which were observed
 42 to contribute to the enhancement of PM and ALWC during wintertime in the region.

43 **Plain Language Summary**

44 Water vapour condenses on particulates in the air (known as atmospheric aerosols)
 45 due to the presence of chemical species with high water affinity. The condensed water,
 46 referred to as Aerosol Liquid Water Content (ALWC), is primarily responsible for weather
 47 conditions of low visibility like haze and smog, which have impacts on human health, and
 48 economy. This study has calculated ALWC using existing measurement data of the chem-
 49 ical composition of fine sized aerosols from literature, for contrasting and diverse envi-
 50 ronments in India. The study has focused on the winter season marked by spike in pol-
 51 lution levels and haze. Relative humidity, total particle concentration, and chemical com-
 52 position were identified to play a significant role in influencing ALWC. The Indo-Gangetic
 53 Plain has been identified to be a hotspot of high ALWC due to high pollution levels and
 54 relative humidity particularly during winter season. The need for reduction of the lev-
 55 els of NH_3 in the atmosphere originating from agricultural waste and NO_3^- originating
 56 from motor emissions are suggested, as the primary focus for the reduction of atmospheric
 57 pollution and ALWC for improving visibility over the region.

58 **1 Introduction**

59 Aerosol Liquid Water Content (ALWC) is a significant component of atmospheric
 60 aerosols that affects their size, lifetime, and chemical properties. The presence of ALWC
 61 is primarily due to the absorption of water vapour by the chemical species that consti-
 62 tute aerosols (Seinfeld & Pandis, 2016). Water uptake occurs drastically when aerosols
 63 are subjected to ambient relative humidity (RH) greater than critical values known as
 64 deliquescence RH (DRH) for single component particles and mutual deliquescence RH
 65 (MDRH) for multicomponent particles (Wexler & Seinfeld, 1991; Zaveri et al., 2005). Upon
 66 reduction of ambient RH below DRH or MDRH, aerosols may not, however, lose the con-
 67 densed water to undergo phase transition into solid state. Experimental studies suggest
 68 a hysteresis phenomenon wherein ALWC is observed to exist even when ambient RH is
 69 much lower than the DRH or MDRH (Tang et al., 1995; Tang & Fung, 1997). Such a
 70 metastable state has been observed in ambient aerosols in various field studies (Rood
 71 et al., 1987, 1989). This observation not only suggests the ubiquity of ALWC, but also

signifies its effect on physical and chemical properties of aerosols for a wide range of RH. High ambient RH facilitates the growth of aerosols by water uptake, leading to enhanced surface area for heterogeneous reactions, higher aqueous phase reaction rates and uptake coefficients of trace acidic gases (Hennigan et al., 2008; Cheng et al., 2016; Faust et al., 2017; Song et al., 2019; Y. Wang et al., 2020; Kommula et al., 2021). Therefore, ALWC serves as a medium for chemical reactions, especially at high RH. The subsequent secondary formation of highly hygroscopic species leads to further water uptake, causing a positive feedback effect on the formation of aerosols (Huang et al., 2014; G. Wang et al., 2016; Cheng et al., 2016; Z. Wu et al., 2018). ALWC may also modulate the aerosol pH and possibly affect atmospheric chemistry under conditions of strong ammonia emissions (Zheng et al., 2020). ALWC substantially modifies the optical properties of aerosols by increasing their extinction coefficient, consequently enhancing the Aerosol Optical Depth (AOD) (Dougle et al., 1996; Sequeira & Lai, 1998). Moreover, high ALWC leads to poor visibility in the form of haze and smog over highly polluted locations (Dall’Osto et al., 2009; Chen et al., 2012; Gunthe et al., 2021). These effects ultimately modify the planetary albedo and radiative forcing, thereby perturbing the Earth’s energy balance (Dougle et al., 1996; Adams et al., 2001; Liao & Seinfeld, 2005).

The water uptake by aerosols mainly depends on the particulate mass burden, aerosol number concentration, size distribution, composition of gas and aerosol phase, RH, and temperature (Petters & Kreidenweis, 2007; Bian et al., 2014; Nguyen et al., 2016; Kuang et al., 2018). The gradient of water activity between aerosol particles and their surroundings is the major driving force for ALWC and hence, ambient RH being a proxy for the activity of water vapour in the atmosphere under sub-saturated conditions is a significant parameter (Seinfeld & Pandis, 2016). Hence, higher the RH level in the atmosphere, greater is the driving force for water uptake by aerosols (P. F. Liu et al., 2011; Bian et al., 2014; Z. Wu et al., 2018; Shen et al., 2019). Aerosol hygroscopicity, a measure of the water affinity of aerosol particles, is primarily a function of chemical composition in the particulate phase. The composition of atmospheric aerosols is, however, complex, ranging from inorganic species of high hygroscopicity to insoluble soot and a myriad of organic products, leading to varying levels of particle hygroscopicity in diverse environments. At high RH and low temperature, secondary formation of aerosols and their growth through heterogeneous gas to particle reactions are favoured, which may considerably alter the particulate chemical composition (Y. Wang et al., 2020; Cheng et al., 2016; Faust et al., 2017; P. F. Liu et al., 2011; Kommula et al., 2021). Chemical composition also varies with the size of aerosols, further adding to the complexity of aerosol hygroscopicity (Deshmukh et al., 2016; Boreddy et al., 2021; S. Kumar et al., 2018).

Real time measurement of ALWC in ambient aerosols has not been feasible yet due to technical limitations (Kuang et al., 2018). Hence, ALWC is generally measured indirectly by experimental techniques which usually involve the measurement of the difference in volume of aerosols at low and high RH. The difference is then used to calculate the aerosol growth factor (GF) (Bian et al., 2014; Fajardo et al., 2016; Kuang et al., 2018; Jin et al., 2020). A more common method is the estimation of ALWC using thermodynamic models, based on the assumption of thermodynamic equilibrium within the particle phase and between the particle and surrounding gaseous phases. Numerous models based on thermodynamic equilibrium have been reported in literature including EQUIL, MARS, AIM, SCAPE, EQUISOLV, ISORROPIA etc. (Bassett & Seinfeld, 1983; P. Saxena et al., 1986; Wexler & Seinfeld, 1991; Kim et al., 1993; Jacobson et al., 1996; Nenes et al., 1998; Wexler & Clegg, 2002), which mostly consider the aerosol chemistry pertaining to the inorganic species only. Nguyen et al. (2016) estimated ALWC using the model ISORROPIA2.1 based on AMS chemical composition measurements from various locations around the world, providing a good overview of the prevalence of ALWC. The study had not, however, examined the diverse and contrasting environments in the Indian region. Model estimates of ALWC have shown appreciable correlation to measured values in numerous closure studies (Bian et al., 2014; Fajardo et al., 2016; Kuang et al., 2018; Shen et al., 2019; Jin et al., 2020). Combining observations from experimen-

127 tal and modelling data, hygroscopicity of individual inorganic and organic compounds
 128 have also been parameterized in various studies (H. J. Liu et al., 2014; Petters & Krei-
 129 denweis, 2007).

130 The Indian region continues to experience severe air pollution, with many of its cities
 131 among the most polluted areas in the world (D. Ghosh & Parida, 2015). Modelling stud-
 132 ies have identified an increasing trend in the aerosol loading across the Indian region with
 133 significant seasonal variability (Krishna Moorthy et al., 2013; Babu et al., 2013). Such
 134 high aerosol loading has been associated with severe health consequences such as respiratory-
 135 cardiovascular diseases and premature mortality (Lelieveld et al., 2015; Conibear et al.,
 136 2018; David et al., 2019; Guttikunda & Goel, 2013; Balakrishnan et al., 2018; Pandey
 137 et al., 2021). Moreover, poor visibility caused by the consequent haze and smog has had
 138 economic implications in the region by disturbing surface-air transport and day to day
 139 activities (Kulkarni et al., 2019). Although numerous studies have measured fine mode
 140 particulate matter and their chemical composition using online and offline techniques
 141 to address their air quality and public health impacts (Rastogi et al., 2016; Deshmukh
 142 et al., 2016; Rengarajan et al., 2011; S. Kumar et al., 2018; A. Kumar & Sarin, 2010; Agar-
 143 wal et al., 2020; Jain et al., 2021; Gani et al., 2019; Thamban et al., 2019; Mukherjee et
 144 al., 2018; Kompalli et al., 2020; Ajith et al., 2022; Gunthe et al., 2021; Kommula et al.,
 145 2021), fewer studies have focused on the analysis of ALWC in this region (Boreddy et
 146 al., 2021; Satsangi et al., 2021; Kommula et al., 2021; Acharja et al., 2022). The win-
 147 ter season, particularly over the continental part of India, is marked by high atmospheric
 148 stability due to weak winds and temperature inversion, leading to poor dispersion of pol-
 149 lutated air masses (Satsangi et al., 2021; Rastogi et al., 2016; M. Saxena et al., 2017; S. Raj
 150 et al., 2021). Studies have observed pronounced diurnal variations of RH and temper-
 151 ature during winter which causes strong radiative thermal inversions resulting in a shal-
 152 low nocturnal planetary boundary layer (PBL) (S. Raj et al., 2021; Arun et al., 2018;
 153 Murthy et al., 2020). The stagnation and accumulation of aerosol emissions complemented
 154 by such favourable meteorological conditions enhance secondary aerosol mass, further
 155 aggravating the aerosol loading (Rastogi et al., 2016; Satsangi et al., 2021). Secondary
 156 aerosol formation results from the oxidation reaction of acidic gases SO_2 , NO_x and HCl
 157 with NH_3 emissions, leading to the nucleation and growth of highly hygroscopic inor-
 158 ganic species and also by nucleation and condensation of organic aerosols from the at-
 159 mospheric oxidation of volatile organic compounds (VOC) (Satsangi et al., 2021; Desh-
 160 mukh et al., 2016; Singh & Kulshrestha, 2012). These atmospheric processes consequen-
 161 tially lead to widespread occurrences of haze and smog, especially in the Indo Gangetic
 162 Plain (IGP) region (Kumari et al., 2021; Satsangi et al., 2021; Gunthe et al., 2021; Ram
 163 & Sarin, 2011).

164 Thus, measurement of particulate matter and their chemical characterisation needs
 165 to be complemented by an adequate understanding of the characteristics of ALWC at
 166 varied conditions of RH. In this work, a comprehensive analysis is performed to under-
 167 stand the dependence of the water uptake and hygroscopic characteristics of atmospheric
 168 aerosols on their concentration, chemical composition and ambient RH. ALWC is esti-
 169 mated from chemical composition measurements of fine mode aerosols from ten diverse
 170 locations in India using thermodynamic modelling, focusing on the winter season. The
 171 data under consideration is characterised by different measurement techniques, measure-
 172 ment periods and environmental conditions and has been subsequently analysed with the
 173 necessary caution. The analysis is expected to provide a general and broad understand-
 174 ing of the factors governing ALWC over the Indian region, a key knowledge gap that is
 175 being addressed through this study.

176 **2 Methodology**

177 **2.1 Analysis of chemical composition data and other considerations**

178 To derive the distribution of aerosol liquid water content (ALWC) across India during
 179 wintertime, the average chemical composition of ambient aerosols at different locations was documented from various field campaign data reported in literature. Since the
 180 present study focuses only on the fine mode ambient aerosols, the chemical composition
 181 data of PM_{1.0} aerosols measured using spectrometric techniques as well as that of PM_{2.5}
 182 aerosols measured using filter based techniques were collected. The spectrometric meth-
 183 ods used to measure PM_{1.0} include the Aerosol Mass Spectrometer (AMS) and Aerosol
 184 Chemical Speciation Monitor (ACSM). The measured data consists of mass concentra-
 185 tions of inorganic ions - sulphate (SO₄²⁻), nitrate (NO₃⁻), ammonium (NH₄⁺), chloride
 186 (Cl⁻), and organic matter. These instruments do not measure the concentration of re-
 187 fractory chemical species, which are mostly of sea salt or dust origin (Canagaratna et
 188 al., 2007; Nuaaman et al., 2015; Schlag et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2017). The locations
 189 with ACSM/AMS based aerosol chemical composition data considered in this analysis
 190 include New Delhi (Gani et al., 2019), Kanpur (Thamban et al., 2019), Chennai (Kommula
 191 et al., 2021), Mahabaleshwar (Mukherjee et al., 2018), Bhubhaneshwar (Kompalli et al.,
 192 2020), and Thiruvananthapuram (Ajith et al., 2022). These locations not only represent
 193 diverse environmental conditions but also those which are meteorologically distinct even
 194 during the same seasons.

196 The filter based data set comprises of the mass concentration of only inorganic ions-
 197 sulphate (SO₄²⁻), nitrate (NO₃⁻), ammonium (NH₄⁺), chloride (Cl⁻), sodium (Na⁺), cal-
 198 cium (Ca²⁺), magnesium (Mg²⁺) and potassium (K⁺). Organic matter may be estimated
 199 from available filter-based Organic Carbon (OC) measurements. Though, the chemical
 200 composition measurements are generally in terms of ionic concentrations, the chemical
 201 species in the aerosols are generally found to be salt species with associations between
 202 the cations and anions. While the anionic species measured by the filter method may
 203 be associated with any of the cationic species, the anionic species measured by ACSM/AMS
 204 are associated only with NH₄⁺. This is because ACSM and AMS are only sensitive to non
 205 refractory salts like (NH₄)₂SO₄, NH₄NO₃ and NH₄Cl (among inorganic salts), which are
 206 ionisable at 600°C- the temperature of the in-built vaporiser used in the instruments (Canagaratna
 207 et al., 2007; Nuaaman et al., 2015). Ionic balance between cations and anions may be
 208 ideally used to separate the anionic species associated with only NH₄⁺ in the filter data,
 209 so as to ensure compatibility with the ACSM/AMS data set. The ion pairing scheme by
 210 Gysel et al. (2007) is a commonly used method for ion balance but it is limited to only
 211 NH₄⁺, SO₄²⁻ and NO₃⁻ ions. Alastuey et al. (2005)and Mirante et al. (2014) have sug-
 212 gested a comprehensive ion balance methodology incorporating all other major ionic species
 213 also. However, considerable uncertainty is associated with the concentration of certain
 214 ionic species in the present data as the ion balance may not be sufficiently accurate to
 215 be generalised for the diverse environmental conditions under consideration. For exam-
 216 ple, Cl⁻ depletion at marine locations results in uncertainty regarding the sea salt ori-
 217 gin of the measured Cl⁻ (Sarin et al., 2011; Kaushik et al., 2021). In the case of ther-
 218 modynamic models, ion balance performed within the models are based on the assump-
 219 tion that the aerosols are internally mixed (Fountoukis & Nenes, 2007) while in reality,
 220 ambient aerosols may be externally mixed from different sources. Hence, these models
 221 may not accurately predict the cation-anion associations among ions of diverse origins
 222 like sea salt spray, dust re-suspension or emissions from combustion of fuels. For instance,
 223 thermodynamic models have predicted CaSO₄ in the aerosol, based on filter measure-
 224 ments of chemical composition at locations with high concentration of Ca²⁺ (Lin et al.,
 225 2013, 2014; Tao et al., 2014). Prediction of insoluble CaSO₄ may be inconsistent with
 226 the fact that the measured ionic species used as input to the models were water solu-
 227 ble, due to the nature of the filter technique used. Hence, predictions based on filter based

228 data by aerosol chemistry models require caution, especially when the measured aerosols
 229 are known to be externally mixed.

230 Thus, owing to the limitations mentioned above, in this study, only those locations
 231 have been chosen where the cationic composition is NH_4^+ dominant, so that it is conclu-
 232 sive that the measured anions are dominantly associated with NH_4^+ . Based on this as-
 233 sumption, only SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^- , NH_4^+ and Cl^- concentrations were considered from the fil-
 234 ter data set to have the uniform comparison with ACSM/AMS data set. Field studies
 235 have reported the dominance of these ionic species in fine mode aerosols during winter-
 236 time in the Indian region, compared to summer and monsoon (M. Sharma et al., 2007;
 237 Rastogi et al., 2016; Agarwal et al., 2020). These species are mainly dominated by sec-
 238 ondary particle formation from their precursor gases, enabled by high ambient RH, low
 239 temperature and atmospheric stability during wintertime (Singh & Kulshrestha, 2012;
 240 M. Saxena et al., 2017; Ram et al., 2010; Stockwell et al., 2000; Chutia et al., 2019). Stud-
 241 ies have reported NH_4^+ to be the most dominant cation to correlate with the anionic species
 242 during the winter season (Rengarajan et al., 2011; Rastogi et al., 2016; Deshmukh et al.,
 243 2016; Agarwal et al., 2020). Furthermore, the Indian region generally experiences winds
 244 from continental locations during wintertime (Deshmukh et al., 2016; P. Kumar & Ya-
 245 dav, 2016; S. Kumar et al., 2018; Agarwal et al., 2020; A. Kumar et al., 2020; A. Ghosh
 246 et al., 2021; Jain et al., 2021), enriched in precursor gases which are the products of crop
 247 residue burning and industrial emissions (Deshmukh et al., 2016; Rastogi et al., 2016;
 248 Agarwal et al., 2020). Pollutant enriched atmosphere complemented by favourable me-
 249 teorological conditions have been observed to result in high loading of secondary species
 250 in the region during winter (Ojha et al., 2020). These reasons explain the observed dom-
 251 inance of NH_4^+ in the chemical composition and enable us to exclude other cations from
 252 the analysis without significant loss of accuracy of the nominal prediction of ALWC. Coastal
 253 locations with filter data were also excluded, where effects like chloride depletion are promi-
 254 nent. For continental locations which are being considered in this study, winds from the
 255 coasts are dominant only during the monsoon season (P. Kumar & Yadav, 2016; A. Ku-
 256 mar et al., 2020), thus implying minimal influence of sea salt aerosols in these regions
 257 during winter. For a quantitative representation of the assumptions, the dominance of
 258 NH_4^+ was expressed in terms of the fraction of NH_4^+ among cations on equivalent molar
 259 basis, which essentially represents the contribution of NH_4^+ relative to all cations in
 260 neutralising the anions. Only those locations with fraction greater than 0.7 were cho-
 261 sen for the analysis, as shown in Table S1. The molar ratio $\text{NH}_4^+/\text{SO}_4^{2-} \geq 1.5$ has also
 262 been used to infer complete neutralisation of SO_4^{2-} by NH_4^+ as described in various stud-
 263 ies (Agarwal et al., 2020; Satsangi et al., 2021; Pathak et al., 2009) and has been calcu-
 264 lated and tabulated in Table S1 for the data under consideration.

265 Apart from these species, the concentration of potassium (K^+) is also listed from
 266 the filter data for additional analyses. The locations where filter based data are avail-
 267 able include Patiala (Rastogi et al., 2016), Ahmedabad (Rengarajan et al., 2011), Bhopal
 268 (S. Kumar & Raman, 2016; Samiksha et al., 2021) and Amritsar (S. Kumar et al., 2018).
 269 Few locations with data on only inorganic ion concentrations and no OC (organic car-
 270 bon) concentration, such as Mount Abu (A. Kumar & Sarin, 2010), Sikandarpur (Agarwal
 271 et al., 2020) and Patna (A. Kumar et al., 2020) are also included for additional analy-
 272 ses. The collected chemical composition data for the winter months is averaged over the
 273 respective campaign periods and shown in Table S1. Since the ACSM/AMS and filter
 274 based data correspond to different aerosol size ranges ($\text{PM}_{1.0}$ and $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ respectively),
 275 the data sets would be separately analysed without any inter-comparison for the scope
 276 of uniformity.

277 The lack of organics concentration in the filter based data needed to be com-
 278 pensated since organics have a significant influence on the overall hygroscopicity of ambi-
 279 ent aerosols. Organic matter could be significantly composed of water soluble species,
 280 which are generally labelled as water soluble organic carbon (WSOC), formed from ox-

281 idation of VOCs or ageing of primary organic aerosol emissions (Faust et al., 2017). WSOC
 282 ratio has been reported to be high in the IGP region in India (Ram et al., 2010). In fact,
 283 earlier studies have estimated significantly high hygroscopicity for organic matter, which
 284 meant that they could have an enhancing effect on the overall water uptake character-
 285 teristics of ambient aerosols (Cruz & Pandis, 2000; Jin et al., 2020; Fajardo et al., 2016; En-
 286 gelhart et al., 2011). Studies have also shown that water contributed by organic mat-
 287 ter could be significant as an enabler for secondary aerosol formation reactions (Jin et
 288 al., 2020). Thus, in this study, Organic Matter (OM) was estimated for the filter based
 289 locations using the Organic Carbon (OC) data by multiplying a mass conversion factor
 290 to the OC mass concentration as suggested in literature (Patel & Rastogi, 2018; Ras-
 291 togi et al., 2016).

$$\text{Organic Matter} = \text{Mass factor} \times \text{Organic Carbon} \quad (1)$$

292 Mass conversion factor is the ratio of an estimated molecular weight of OM to the
 293 molecular weight of carbon and is determined based on the type of location. A mass con-
 294 version factor of 1.6 and 1.9 is recommended in literature for urban and aged aerosols
 295 respectively (Turpin & Lim, 2001).

296 2.2 Thermodynamic modelling of ALWC

297 The ALWC prediction for all locations was determined using the thermodynamic
 298 model ISORROPIA2.1 based on the average aerosol chemical composition, RH, and tem-
 299 perature. The model considers only inorganic species (SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^- , NH_4^+ , Cl^- , Na^+ , Ca^{2+} ,
 300 Mg^{2+} and K^+) in its calculations and does not account for presence of any organic mat-
 301 ter (Fountoukis & Nenes, 2007) in the aerosols. ISORROPIA2.1 exhibits rapid and ro-
 302 bust convergence, with excellent performance with regard to computational speed, which
 303 makes it extremely suitable for incorporation into large-scale atmospheric transport and
 304 air quality models (Fountoukis & Nenes, 2007). Closure studies show that ALWC pre-
 305 dictions made by ISORROPIA have agreed with growth factor based measurements for
 306 $\text{RH} > 60\%$ (Bian et al., 2014; Tan et al., 2017; Jin et al., 2020). Reported discrepancies
 307 were assumed to occur due to various reasons including the difficulty to model highly
 308 non ideal behaviour of concentrated aqueous phase of the aerosol at low RH (Wexler &
 309 Clegg, 2002) and lower number of species under consideration in the model, which could
 310 lead to errors in the estimated MDRH points (Bian et al., 2014).

311 Since the measured data consists of only particle phase concentrations and no gaseous
 312 phase concentrations, the analysis was performed in the reverse mode of ISORROPIA.
 313 The reverse mode assumes the total particle phase concentration as the basis for the model
 314 to predict the equilibrium gaseous phase concentrations based on gas-particle partition-
 315 ing and distribution of chemical species in the solid and liquid phases within the par-
 316 ticle. Calculations were performed in the metastable mode of ISORROPIA2.1. Obser-
 317 vations on the phase state of ambient atmospheric aerosols have indicated the dominance
 318 of the metastable state, wherein the aerosols are expected to coexist in liquid state be-
 319 low their mutual deliquescence point (Rood et al., 1989; Tang et al., 1995; Tang & Fung,
 320 1997). Aerosols have been observed to display hysteresis with respect to their phase state,
 321 in which water uptake occurs at DRH/MDRH and the transition back to a dry state oc-
 322 curs at a significantly lower critical RH known as the Efflorescence Relative Humidity
 323 (ERH) (Rood et al., 1987). Thus, observations of metastable state may be explained by
 324 the strong diurnal cycling of RH in the atmosphere (Shrestha et al., 2013).

325 ISORROPIA does not consider the aerosol curvature effects described by the Kelvin
 326 effect to be significant in its calculations (Nenes et al., 1998). The ambient vapour pres-
 327 sure of water is also considered to be unaffected by water uptake by the aerosols and hence,
 328 the water activity in any phase, under the assumptions of phase equilibrium between all
 329 three phases, is assumed to be the RH of ambient air, expressed on a scale ranging from
 330 0.0 to 1.0.

$$(a_w) = RH \quad (2)$$

331 ISORROPIA calculates ALWC using the Zdanovskii Stokes Robinson (ZSR) cor-
 332 relation (Stokes & Robinson, 1966),

$$W = \Sigma \frac{M_i}{m_{oi}(a_w)} \quad (3)$$

333 where W is the mass concentration of the water taken up by the aerosol (kg m^{-3}
 334 air), M_i is the molar concentration of the i^{th} electrolyte (mol m^{-3} air), and $m_{oi}(a)$ is the
 335 molality of an aqueous binary solution of the i^{th} electrolyte with the same activity a_w
 336 as in the multicomponent solution. The ZSR rule describes the water uptake of inter-
 337 nally mixed particles as the sum of the water uptake by the constituent chemical com-
 338 pounds.

339 The nature of organic species is generally complex that they may contribute pos-
 340 itively or negatively to the aerosol hygroscopicity based on its chemical composition (P. Sax-
 341 ena et al., 1995; Cruz & Pandis, 2000). Despite this uncertainty, the contribution of or-
 342 ganics to the ALWC was estimated by applying the κ -Kohler theory (Petters & Krei-
 343 denweis, 2007) with the ZSR mixing rule,

$$V_{w,org} = V_{d,org} \kappa_{org} \frac{a_w}{1 - a_w} \quad (4)$$

344 where $V_{w,org}$ is the ALWC corresponding to the organics, $V_{d,org}$ is the volume of
 345 the organics and κ_{org} is the hygroscopicity parameter corresponding to the organics and
 346 a_w is the water activity, which is assumed to be equal to the RH. $V_{d,org}$ is calculated by
 347 dividing the organic mass concentration by an assumed organic density of 1.4 g/cm^3 (Turpin
 348 & Lim, 2001; Jin et al., 2020). As discussed earlier, organic matter may have significant
 349 hygroscopicity as in the case of WSOC, for which κ was observed to be as high as 0.3
 350 in several studies (Lambe et al., 2011; Massoli et al., 2010). Since WSOC has not been
 351 quantified for all locations under consideration in the respective measurement data, a
 352 nominal value of κ_{org} was assumed as recommended from literature, based on the type
 353 of location. κ_{org} was assumed to be 0.08 and 0.13 for urban and rural locations, respec-
 354 tively (Nguyen et al., 2016). The $V_{w,org}$ thus calculated was added to the ALWC pre-
 355 dicted by ISORROPIA for the inorganics to obtain the total volume of ALWC, V_w .

356 2.3 Estimation of inorganic electrolytes

357 The ALWC predicted by the ZSR correlation (Equation 3) is based on the assump-
 358 tion that the total water content is the sum of contribution of various individual chem-
 359 ical compounds formed by the ionic species present in the aerosol, which has been val-
 360 idated by previous studies (Petters et al., 2009; Z. J. Wu et al., 2013). It is interesting
 361 to note that the correlation neglects any interactions occurring between these chemical
 362 compounds within the bulk of the aerosol particle (Moore & Raymond, 2008).

363 In order to analyse the inorganic compounds contributing to the predicted ALWC,
 364 the ion balance performed by ISORROPIA2.1 was determined by running the model in
 365 dry mode (Almeida et al., 2019; Tao et al., 2021). ISORROPIA2.1 predicts the salt species
 366 based on the relative concentration of NH_4^+ , Na^+ and crustal ion concentrations, par-
 367 meterised as sulphate, sodium and crustal ratios (Fountoukis & Nenes, 2007). The mass
 368 concentration of salt species obtained from the model were used to calculate their indi-
 369 vidual contribution to ALWC using the ZSR correlation. The water uptake of a partic-
 370 ular salt is the ratio of its molar concentration and binary molality as shown in Equa-
 371 tion 3. The binary molalities of individual salts were determined using parametric data
 372 for the correlation between binary molality and activity obtained from literature (Fountoukis
 373 & Nenes, 2007; Pilinis & Seinfeld, 1987). The water uptake per unit mass of individual
 374 salt species were also calculated for a range of RH.

375 **2.4 Estimation of hygroscopicity parameter κ**

376 The hygroscopicity parameter κ is a single parameter representation for the par-
 377 ticle hygroscopicity, which is defined through its effect on the water activity of the so-
 378 lution within the particle (Petters & Kreidenweis, 2007).

$$\kappa = \frac{V_w}{V_d} \frac{1 - a_w}{a_w} \quad (5)$$

379 V_w is the total ALWC volume in the aerosols (the sum of the volume based inor-
 380 ganic water content predicted by ISORROPIA2.1 and the estimated volume based or-
 381 ganic water content), V_d is the total dry volume of species (the sum of volumes of the
 382 organic and inorganic species), and a_w is the water activity assumed to be equal to the
 383 RH values for the ambient condition. The dry volume of the inorganic mass was calcu-
 384 lated by dividing the average inorganic mass concentration by an average value of in-
 385 organic density 1.6 g/cm³ (Lide, 2009) and the total volume of water contributed by in-
 386 organics was calculated by dividing the mass concentration of ALWC predicted from the
 387 model (considering only inorganics) by the density of water, 1 g/cm³.

388 The reverse mode calculation in ISORROPIA 2.1 is based on the assumption of
 389 a fixed chemical composition of the aerosol phase, irrespective of the RH. However, in
 390 the ambient, partitioning of chemical species between the gaseous and aerosol phases is
 391 enhanced with increase in RH, leading to aerosol growth and secondary aerosol forma-
 392 tion (Gunthe et al., 2021; M. Saxena et al., 2017). Gas to particle partitioning would alter
 393 the chemical composition of the aerosol phase depending on the RH, and this indicates
 394 a strong dependence of particle phase chemical composition on RH. Gas to par-
 395 ticle partitioning is modelled in the forward mode of ISORROPIA2.1, where the total
 396 species concentration consisting of both gaseous and aerosol phase is provided as input
 397 to the model and the species are partitioned between both the phases based on the RH
 398 and temperature. This calculation is not feasible in the present study due to lack of gas
 399 phase measurements and hence, the reverse mode is used. Since the particle phase chem-
 400 ical composition is assumed to be constant across all RH in reverse mode, κ , which is
 401 a function of chemical composition, could be calculated as a characteristic parameter for
 402 a given location. κ is thus estimated using Equation 5, by a fit between the V_w/V_d ra-
 403 tio and a_w , for a range of RH. The κ associated with the inorganics was also fitted sep-
 404 arately, using only the inorganic dry mass and corresponding ALWC predicted by the
 405 model.

406 **2.5 Estimation of ALWC combining WRF-Chem simulation with ISOR-**
 407 **ROPIA2.1**

408 Weather Research Forecasting (WRF) model coupled with Chemistry (WRF-Chem)
 409 was used to simulate the chemical composition of NH₄⁺, SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻, and organics over
 410 the Indian region. Important details about the WRF-Chem version, domain, resolution,
 411 boundary conditions, meteorological and chemical fields, and emission inventory used
 412 for the WRF-Chem simulations are discussed elsewhere (Chutia et al., 2019). Briefly,
 413 the WRF-Chem simulations were carried out using the 3.9.1.1. version of the model with
 414 high spatial resolution of 12 km x 12 km for January 2011, using updated anthropogenic
 415 emission inventory Emissions Database for Global Atmospheric Research- Hemispheric
 416 Transport of Air Pollution (EDGAR - HTAP). The model output has been rigorously
 417 validated against the comprehensive gas phase observational data set of volatile organic
 418 compounds (VOC) over the Indian region for the month of January 2011. Model results
 419 over parts of India, particularly over the hot spots of anthropogenic emission, appeared
 420 to have reproduced the observational data with good qualitative and quantitative agree-
 421 ment (Chutia et al., 2019). We used the simulated NH₄⁺, SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻, organic mass con-
 422 centrations and RH over the Indian region (Figure S6), which was further coupled with
 423 ISORROPIA2.1 to derive the ALWC over the Indian region, with the same resolution

424 as that of the mass concentration of inorganic and organic compounds as that of WRF-
 425 Chem output.

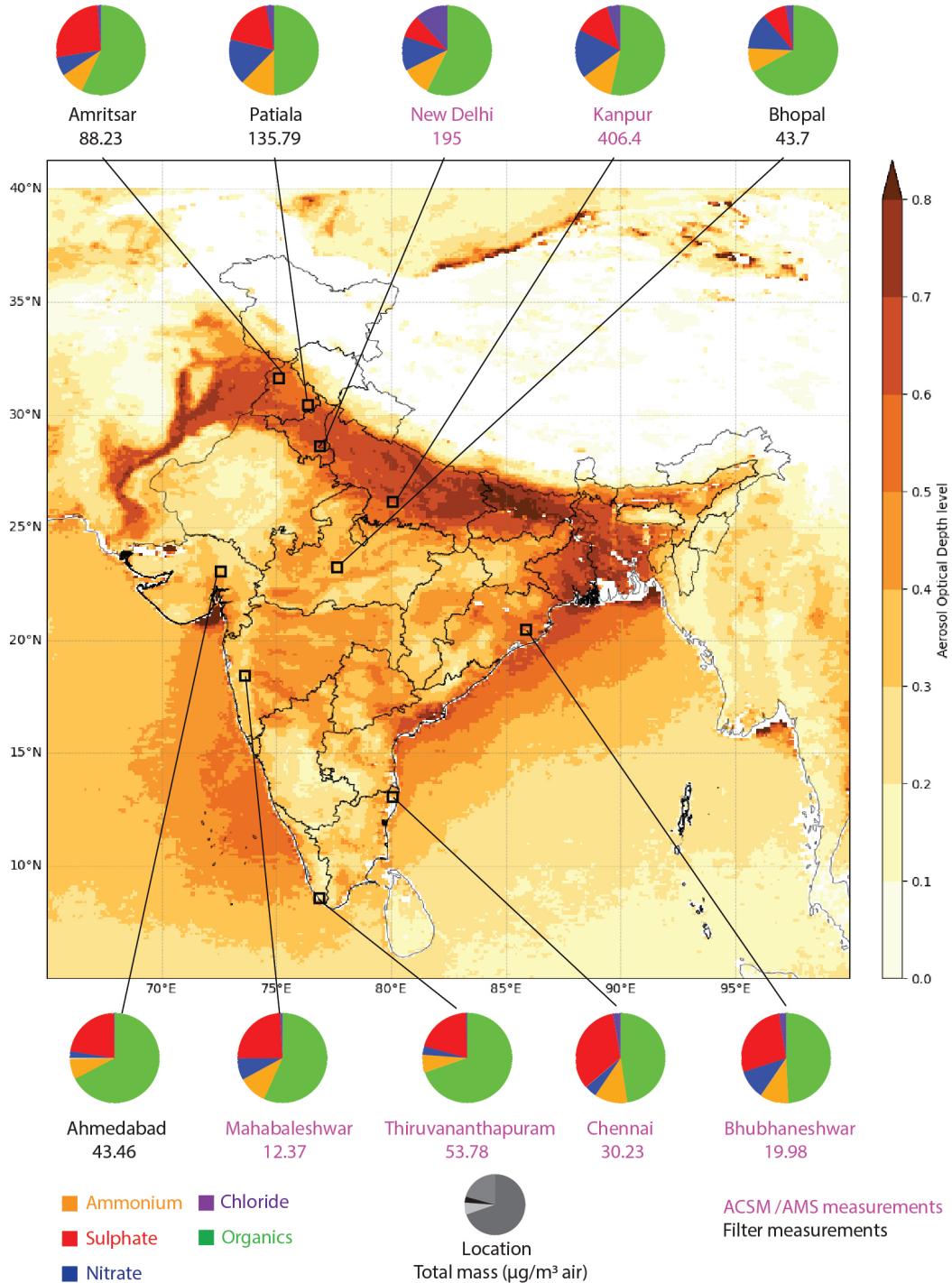


Figure 1. Average chemical composition of fine aerosols at locations over India during winter based on ACSM/AMS (violet text) or filter-based (black text) measurements. The pie charts represent the average fraction of different chemical species in the aerosols, at various measurement locations indicated by the solid lines and square markers on the map. The basemap depicts annual mean (year 2017) of AOD derived using Level 2 data from MODIS.

426 **3 Results and discussion**

427 **3.1 Overview of ALWC over the Indian region**

428 Figure 1 shows the spatial distribution of the annual mean of Aerosol Optical Depth
 429 (AOD) over the Indian region for the year 2017 using data from Moderate Resolution
 430 Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS), as a nominal representation of the spatial distri-
 431 bution of the aerosol loading over the Indian region. The Indo-Gangetic Plain (IGP),
 432 spread from the state of Punjab in the west to West Bengal in the east, is a hot spot of
 433 aerosol emissions, as evident from the figure. The AOD levels in the region are consis-
 434 tently greater than 0.5, with hotspots at some locations with AOD >0.8. The high aerosol
 435 loading in the IGP is attributed to dust transport, agricultural residue burning, solid biomass
 436 burning for domestic cooking and heating, persistent waste burning, and fossil fuel com-
 437 bustion from thermal power plants and vehicles (Ojha et al., 2020; Jat & Gurjar, 2021).
 438 Modelling studies have further reported the widespread enhancement of fine particulate
 439 matter across IGP especially during wintertime (Ojha et al., 2020). The average dry mass
 440 composition consisting of the measured secondary species (inorganic and organic) is marked
 441 in the figure as pie charts, using the data summarised in Table S2 for the correspond-
 442 ing locations on the map. The species composition was averaged over the measurement
 443 periods corresponding to the field studies carried out at respective locations, where the
 444 composition of PM_{1.0} was measured by online real-time Aerosol Mass Spectrometer(AMS)/
 445 Aerosol Chemical Speciation Monitor (ACSM) (locations marked in violet text) and that
 446 of PM_{2.5} derived from filter based measurements (locations marked in black text). The
 447 pie charts evidently show chemical heterogeneity across the diverse environmental con-
 448 ditions for each locations under consideration. The total dry aerosol mass of PM_{1.0} and
 449 PM_{2.5}, determined as the sum of the mass concentrations of all measured species is also
 450 marked for the corresponding to the locations. For PM_{1.0}, the total dry aerosol mass ranged
 451 from the lowest value of 12.37 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ at Mahabaleshwar- a pristine high-latitude loca-
 452 tion in the Western Ghats, to the highest value of 406.4 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ at Kanpur- a hot spot
 453 of anthropogenic emissions in the IGP. The same for PM_{2.5} ranged from 43.46 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$
 454 at Ahmedabad, to the highest value of 135.79 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ at Patiala, which is also located
 455 in the IGP. The PM_{1.0} concentration in coastal locations is an order of magnitude lower
 456 than that at the continental locations, which may be due to dispersion of polluted air
 457 masses in the plain and favourable landscape, by air masses with higher wind speeds and
 458 of marine origin.

459 The observed chemical heterogeneity needs to be discussed in terms of the varia-
 460 tion of the percentage of ionic species across diverse environmental conditions. The per-
 461 centage of SO₄²⁻ in the dry mass ranges from 8.21% in New Delhi to 33.41% in Chen-
 462 nai in PM_{1.0}, and and from 8.46% in Amritsar to 26.35% in Bhopal in PM_{2.5}. SO₄²⁻ is
 463 generally formed through different mechanisms of oxidation from the precursor SO₂ gas
 464 (A. Kumar & Sarin, 2010; Rengarajan et al., 2011; Deshmukh et al., 2016; Agarwal et
 465 al., 2020), which is predominantly emitted by combustion of coal used in thermal power
 466 plants (Rastogi et al., 2016; S. Kumar et al., 2018). The percentage of NO₃⁻ in the dry
 467 mass ranges from 3.14% in Thiruvananthapuram to 17.52% in Kanpur in PM_{1.0}, and from
 468 2.76% in Ahmedabad to 16.45% in Patiala in PM_{2.5}. NO₃⁻ is formed through gas to par-
 469 ticle conversion of precursor NO_x gases(Rengarajan et al., 2011; Deshmukh et al., 2016),
 470 prominently emitted by fossil fuel combustion by automobiles (Rengarajan et al., 2011;
 471 Deshmukh et al., 2016; Agarwal et al., 2020). The percentage of Cl⁻ in the dry mass ranges
 472 from 0.45% in Thiruvananthapuram to 11.8% in New Delhi in PM_{1.0}, and and from 0.18%
 473 in Ahmedabad to 2.87% in Patiala in PM_{2.5}. Continental Cl⁻ is dominantly due to an-
 474 thropogenic emissions from biomass burning, open waste burning (mainly of plastics like
 475 PVC), and brick kilns, either as primary emission as particulates or secondary emission
 476 in the form of HCl vapour.(Engling et al., 2009; S. Kumar et al., 2015; P. Kumar & Ya-
 477 dav, 2016; Cao et al., 2016; Gunthe et al., 2021). Though Cl⁻ is naturally released as
 478 sea salt formed by wave crashing in the oceans, sea salt Cl⁻ is not expected in the PM_{2.5}

479 data under consideration since the quantified Cl^- is of continental nature. Nor is it ex-
 480 pected in the $\text{PM}_{1.0}$ data under consideration in which the quantified Cl^- is of non re-
 481 fractory nature. The percentage of NH_4^+ in the dry mass ranges from 6.42% in Thiru-
 482 vananthapuram to 11.9% in Chennai in $\text{PM}_{1.0}$, and and from 7.36% in Ahmedabad to
 483 12.19% in Patiala in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$. NH_4^+ is mainly formed through gas to particle conversion
 484 of NH_3 gas through its reaction with acid precursors like H_2SO_4 , HNO_3 and HCl to form
 485 NH_4^+ salts of SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^- and Cl^- (Finlayson-Pitts & Pitts, 2000; Singh & Kulshrestha,
 486 2012; Deshmukh et al., 2016; S. K. Sharma et al., 2020). Thus, NH_3 is an important pre-
 487 cursor for SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^- and Cl^- formation in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ and hence acts as an important driver
 488 for the formation of secondary inorganic aerosols in the fine mode (M. Sharma et al., 2007).
 489 NH_3 is mainly emitted from decomposition of animal waste, fertilizer use (in the form
 490 of NH_3 or urea), conversion of NO_x to elemental nitrogen in catalytic converters installed
 491 in vehicles and biomass burning (M. Sharma et al., 2007; A. Kumar & Sarin, 2010; Aneja
 492 et al., 2012; Singh & Kulshrestha, 2012; Yadav & Kumar, 2014). Organic matter is ob-
 493 served to contribute a significant fraction of the total aerosol mass burden over all lo-
 494 cations, ranging from 47.64% in Chennai to 69.73% in Thiruvananthapuram in $\text{PM}_{1.0}$,
 495 and and from 50.17% in Patiala to 67.37% in Ahmedabad in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ (estimated from OC
 496 measurements). Organic matter is emitted from biomass and fossil fuel burning promi-
 497 nently. Biomass burning accounts for 70% of the total carbonaceous aerosol emissions
 498 in India, as noted in emission inventory models (Örjan Gustafsson et al., 2009). Further
 499 photochemical oxidation reactions and condensation of organic vapors may lead to for-
 500 mation of WSOC (Faust et al., 2017). Organic matter contributes more than 50% of the
 501 total aerosol mass burden at almost all locations under consideration. Thus, it is expected
 502 to play an important role in determining the water uptake characteristics at various lo-
 503 cations, subject to the assumption of limited hygroscopicity of organics ($\kappa=0.08$ or 0.13)
 504 (Nguyen et al., 2016).

505 Figure S1 shows the minimum, average and maximum RH at various Indian loca-
 506 tions during wintertime. The dots represent the average RH while the whiskers repre-
 507 sent the maximum and minimum RH for the corresponding locations. It is observed that
 508 the minimum, average, and maximum RH for the entire Indian region are on an aver-
 509 age, around 35%, 70% and 95% respectively. Thus, ALWC was calculated for all the lo-
 510 cations at these 3 values of RH using ISORROPIA2.1. An overview of the distribution
 511 of ALWC calculated at the average RH of 70% is given in Figure 2. The wet mass com-
 512 position of aerosols, which includes the calculated ALWC is represented as pie charts,
 513 and they are labelled corresponding to the locations marked on the map. The fraction
 514 of ALWC in the aerosol wet mass is highlighted (coloured light blue) on the pie charts
 515 and its mass concentration (in $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ air) is also marked. The reported ALWC comprises
 516 of contributions by both organic and inorganic components of aerosols. The hygroscop-
 517 icity parameter κ determined through fit, is displayed for every location (value enclosed
 518 within brackets) and the values have been summarised in Table S3. It is evident that
 519 ALWC is an important contributor to the total aerosol mass burden at all locations, ir-
 520 respective of varying chemical composition, absolute PM mass and κ as evident from Fig-
 521 ure 2. Thus, the ubiquity of ALWC in aerosols over the Indian region is reaffirmed. ALWC
 522 is observed to contribute around 25-35% of the total aerosol mass burden at the aver-
 523 age RH of 70%. κ varies from 0.17 in Thiruvananthapuram to 0.28 at New Delhi and
 524 Kanpur in $\text{PM}_{1.0}$ dataset and 0.18 at Ahmedabad to 0.28 at Patiala in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ data set.

525 3.2 Factors affecting ALWC over the Indian region

526 The variation of ALWC requires to be analysed with respect to the three factors
 527 governing it- RH, absolute dry mass concentration, and chemical composition. To fur-
 528 ther investigate the variation in the fraction of ALWC in the aerosol mass burden, the
 529 fractional wet aerosol composition at (a) 35%, (b) 70% and (c) 95% RH has been cal-
 530 culated and displayed in Figure 3. The fraction of total ALWC (which includes contri-
 531 bution by both organic and inorganic matter and coloured blue), is compared across the

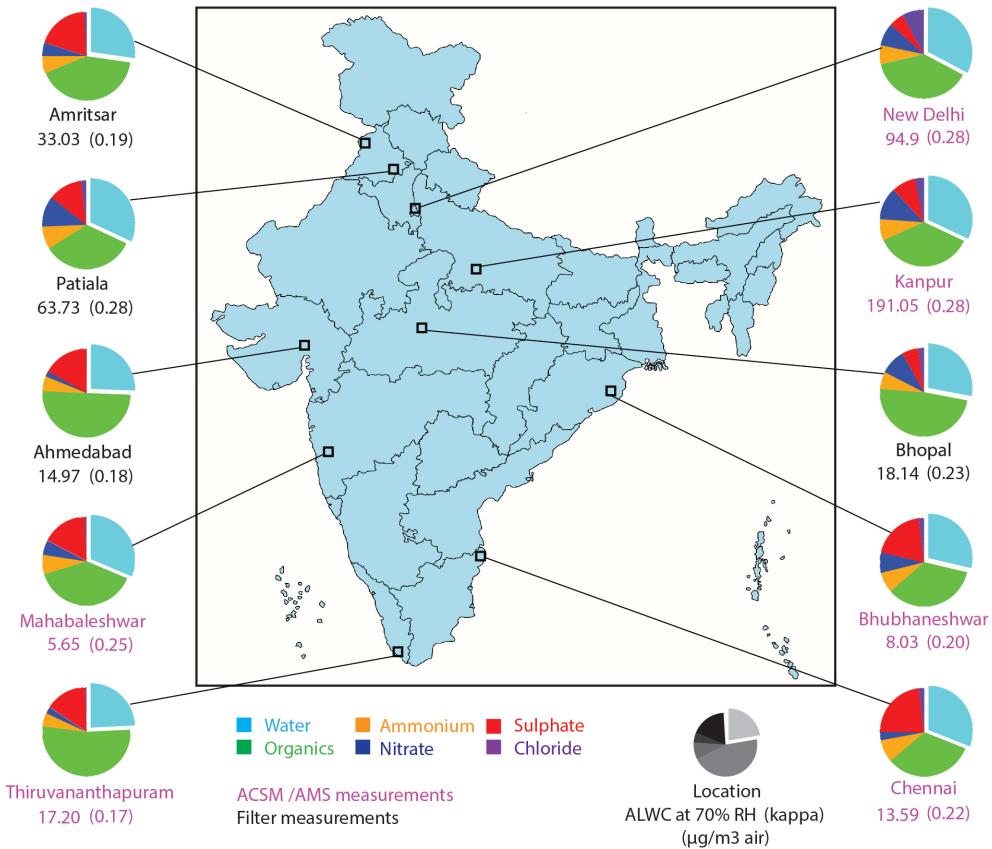


Figure 2. Fraction of ALWC modelled at the average RH of 70% during winter at various locations over India is shown as pie charts with the aerosol chemical composition. Solid lines and square markers denote the locations where measurements were done either ACSM/AMS (violet text) or filter based methods (black text). The absolute mass of calculated ALWC ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) and the hygroscopicity parameter kappa (in parenthesis) fitted for respective locations are marked beneath the respective pie charts.

532 diverse environmental conditions as shown in Fig. 3 for three different ambient RH lev-
 533 els separately. The percentage of ALWC is lowest at Thiruvananthapuram (8%, 24%,
 534 68% corresponding to 35%, 70%, 95% RH) and highest at Chennai (13% corresponding
 535 to 35% RH), New Delhi (33%, 78% corresponding to 70%, 95% RH) in the PM_{1.0} data
 536 set. For the PM_{2.5} data set, the percentage of ALWC is lowest at Bhopal (8% correspond-
 537 ing to 35% RH), Ahmedabad (26%, 69% corresponding to 70%, 95% RH) and highest
 538 at Patiala (11%, 32%, 78% corresponding to 35%, 70%, 95% RH). The average percent-
 539 age of ALWC is 11% for PM_{1.0}, 9% for PM_{2.5} at 35% RH, 30% for PM_{1.0}, 28% for PM_{2.5}
 540 at 70% RH and 74% for PM_{1.0}, 73% for PM_{2.5} at 95% RH. The average percentage of
 541 ALWC is thus comparable for PM_{1.0} and PM_{2.5}. The change in the ALWC percentage
 542 may be noted to be more pronounced from 70% to 95% RH compared to 35% to 70%
 543 RH. At 35% RH, the percentage of the total aerosol mass burden occupied by ALWC
 544 is minimal. Up to the average ambient RH level of 70% RH, the percentage of ALWC
 545 has increased steadily with RH, while a sharp increase occurs at 95% RH. At this RH,
 546 the ALWC appears to dominate the total aerosol mass burden significantly that at least
 547 70% of the total mass is occupied by ALWC. Therefore, high RH drives ALWC to dom-
 548 inate the total mass, irrespective of the aerosol chemical composition. This observation
 549 is consistent with previous studies, which also observed that under high RH con-

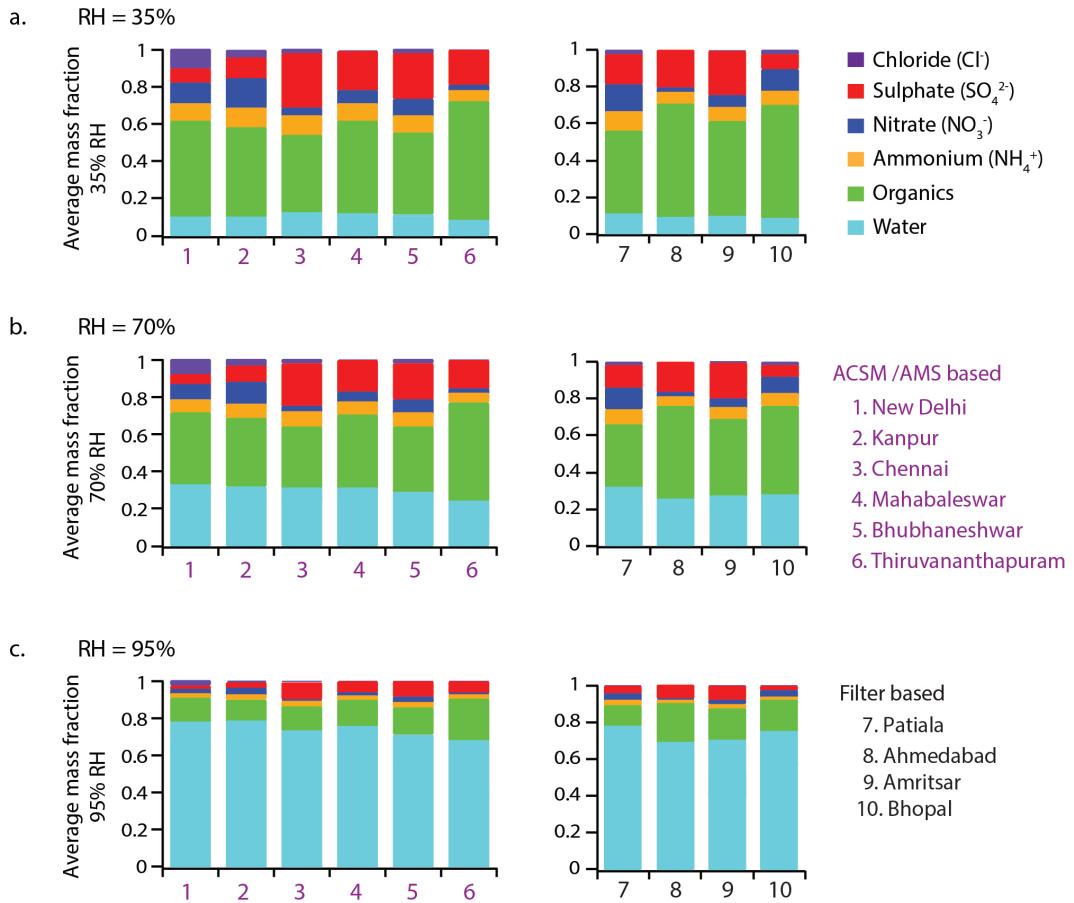


Figure 3. Comparison of the mass fraction of ALWC and chemical species in aerosols at relative humidity (a) 35%, (b) 70% and (c) 95%, (representing minimum, average and maximum RH during wintertime) between various locations over India indicated by the number on x-axis. ACSM/AMS based locations are indicated by violet text and filter based locations are indicated by black text.

ditions, ALWC is the highest contributor to the overall aerosol mass burden (Bian et al., 2014; Nguyen et al., 2016; Shen et al., 2019; Jin et al., 2020).

Though considerable uniformity has been observed in the fraction of ALWC in the total aerosol mass burden at a particular RH, the absolute ALWC is also strongly influenced by mass concentration and chemical composition. Figure 4 compares the water uptake characteristics between 35%, 70% and 95% RH at different locations. Figure 4a compares the calculated absolute ALWC at the three RH at every location. The total ALWC is highest at Kanpur (45.44, 191.05 and 1447.50 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ air at 35%, 70% and 95% RH respectively) and lowest at Mahabaleshwar (1.68, 5.65 and 37.84 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ air at 35%, 70% and 95% RH respectively) among the PM_{1.0} data set. Among the PM_{2.5} data set, it is highest at Patiala (16.43, 63.73 and 470.81 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ air at 35%, 70% and 95% RH respectively) and the lowest ALWC at Bhopal (4.28 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ air at 35%) and Ahmedabad (14.97, 97.28 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ air at 70% and 95% RH respectively). ALWC is thus observed to follow the same trend as that of the dry aerosol mass in terms of the locations, as discussed from Figure 1. Hence, the absolute value of ALWC is strongly dependent on the total mass concentration of aerosols. The ALWC contributed by inorganics is highest at Kanpur (38.76, 162.09 and 1211.68 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ air at 35%, 70% and 95% RH respectively)

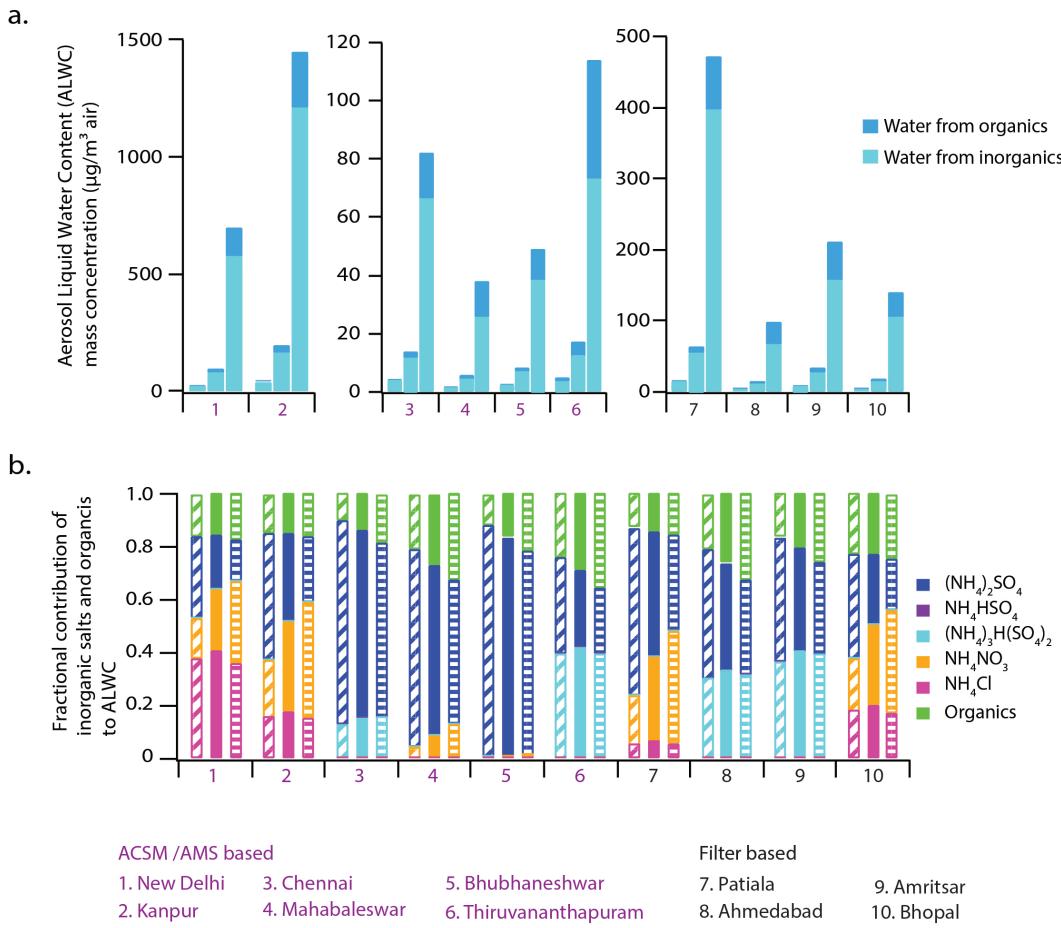


Figure 4. Comparison of water uptake characteristics at 35%, 70% and 95% RH (minimum, average and maximum RH during wintertime) are shown as respective bars for each selected location over India indicated by the number on x-axis. (a) ALWC contributed by organic and inorganic ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ air) are marked in dark blue and light blue respectively on each bar (b) Fractional contribution to ALWC by inorganic salts and organic matter. ACSM/AMS based locations are indicated by violet text and filter based locations are indicated by black text.

and lowest at Mahabaleshwar (1.33, 4.13 and $25.45 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ air at 35%, 70% and 95% RH respectively) among PM_{1.0} data set. Among the PM_{2.5} data set, it is highest at Patiala (14.33, 54.64 and $396.85 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ air at 35%, 70% and 95% RH respectively) and lowest at Bhopal ($3.25 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ air at 35%) and Ahmedabad (11.07 and $5.49 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ air at 70% and 95% RH respectively). The ALWC contributed by the organic matter is highest at Kanpur (6.68, 28.96 and $235.82 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ air at 35%, 70% and 95% RH respectively) and lowest at Bhubhaneshwar (0.3, 1.31 and $10.66 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ air at 35%, 70% and 95% RH respectively) among PM_{1.0} data set. Among the PM_{2.5} data set, it is highest at Patiala (2.1, 9.08 and $73.97 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ air at 35%, 70% and 95% RH respectively) and lowest at Ahmedabad (0.9, 3.9 and $31.79 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ air at 35%, 70% and 95% RH respectively).

These results show that a strong non-linear rise is observed in the ALWC, in either case of organic or inorganic contribution. ALWC is observed to rise slowly from 35% to 70% RH, and a sharp rise is observed from 70% to 95% RH, which resulted in a jump by an order of magnitude in absolute ALWC. Thus, the water uptake by aerosols is strongly dependent on ambient RH, recording a slower rise at lower RH, which shifts to a steeper

rise at higher RH. This observation is consistent with the non linear trend in the variation of water uptake per unit mass of individual inorganic species and organic matter with RH across the 35%-95% RH range, as shown in Figure S2a. The data for the water uptake per unit mass of inorganic salt species was obtained from ISORROPIA2.1 while that of organic matter was calculated separately using Equation 5 of the κ - Kohler theory, assuming an average value of $\kappa_{org}=0.1$. Hence, the observed non linearity in the variation of the total ALWC for a location with RH, may also be represented by Equation 5. The plot between the ratio of the volume of water V_w and the volume of dry mass V_d ratio with a_w (or RH) is observed to give a near perfect fit with a single parameter κ , with correlation of fit, $R^2 > 0.99$ in all cases. The results of the fit are summarised in Table S3. κ characterises the particle hygroscopicity, in Equation 5, which relates water uptake, dry aerosol mass and RH. κ has been determined for the total chemical composition (inorganic+organic matter), as well as just the inorganic matter separately to obtain κ_{total} and κ_{inorg} , respectively. κ_{org} has also been tabulated for all locations assuming limited hygroscopicity ($\kappa_{org} = 0.08$ or 0.13 for urban and rural locations respectively) as discussed in the methodology.

Figure S3 shows the variation of water uptake per unit dry mass with RH for κ ranging from 0.1 to 0.6 in increments of 0.05, using Equation 4 of the κ -Kohler theory. The water uptake per unit dry mass (M_w/M_d) corresponds to V_w/V_d in Equation 4 and the water activity corresponding to RH was varied from 0.35 to 0.95. The non linear trend described earlier is clearly evident from the figure, but the steepness of rise depends on the κ . It can be observed that at lower RH, M_w/M_d is comparable for all κ , while at higher RH, M_w/M_d varies drastically for different κ . Hence, high κ may not enhance ALWC significantly at low RH as observed in previous studies (Tan et al., 2017). At lower RH range, the absolute dry mass would primarily determine the absolute ALWC. The critical value of RH as discussed in Jin et al. (2020), beyond which non linear rise occurs may be observed to be dependent on κ . Equation 4 may also be expressed as-

$$ALWC = M_d \cdot \kappa \cdot f(RH) \quad (6)$$

Equation 6 shows that at a particular RH level, ALWC would depend on the dry mass concentration and particle hygroscopicity. In this study, we observe that the range of predicted κ is confined to a relatively narrow range of 0.17 to 0.28, which would be significant only at higher RH as observed from Figure S3. Hence, it may be assumed that absolute dry mass concentration plays a dominant role in determining ALWC compared to the particle hygroscopicity, which is more significant at higher RH. In the ambient, high ALWC at higher RH conditions serves as a reactor for gas to particle reactions, leading to favourable conditions of secondary aerosol formation and growth, provided there is sufficiently high concentration of gaseous precursors available in the atmosphere (Cheng et al., 2016; G. Wang et al., 2016; Huang et al., 2014; Z. Wu et al., 2018). This leads to enhanced mass of the aerosol phase with enhanced hygroscopicity due to uptake of secondary inorganic species, which further enhances ALWC. This indicates that in the ambient atmosphere, non linearity in the variation of ALWC with respect to RH would be even steeper, with a strong dependence of the particle hygroscopicity on RH. Due to lack of gaseous measurement data, we are restricted to the reverse mode of ISORROPIA2.1 for ALWC calculations, assuming fixed composition of the particle phase with respect to RH. Hence κ , a parameter for particle phase chemical composition, does not consequently vary with RH in this study, enabling us to parameterise a single value of κ for a particular location irrespective of RH. Though this assumption doesn't represent the ambient, it should be noted that the chemical composition data used for the analysis consists of chemical concentration data averaged over a considerable period of time, which would experience varying RH. Hence, the chemical composition data is expected to be reasonably averaged that it would give a reasonable estimate of κ for a location. The calculations, especially at higher RH may provide a reasonable lower bound estimate for

633 ALWC. κ predicted by this method also acts as a simple parameter for a location, fa-
 634 cilitating the prediction of water uptake of aerosols for the location at any RH. The method-
 635 ology followed here allows for a robust derivation of water uptake characteristics of aerosols
 636 using traditional measurements of aerosol chemical composition, which could be used to
 637 model aerosol hygroscopicity in aerosol chemistry, transport and climate models with sim-
 638 ple formulation.

639 While ALWC has been observed to be highly dependent on RH, it is also interest-
 640 ing to observe how different chemical species contribute to ALWC at different RH. Fig-
 641 ure 4b shows the fractional contribution of organic matter and inorganic salt species to
 642 the ALWC across the three RH under consideration. ISORROPIA2.1 was used to pre-
 643 dict the combinations of ionic species that make up the salts. In the $\text{NH}_4^+ \text{-SO}_4^{2-} \text{-NO}_3^- \text{-Cl}^-$
 644 system, ISORROPIA2.1 predicts 3 regimes of salt species based on the ratio of the
 645 molar concentrations of NH_4^+ and SO_4^{2-} , quantified as the sulphate ratio (R_{SO_4}). The
 646 regimes are briefly described in Table S4. From Figure 4b, the data set under analysis
 647 appears to fall under only two regimes (ii) and (iii). New Delhi, Kanpur, Mahabalesh-
 648 war, and Bhubhaneshwar among the $\text{PM}_{1.0}$ data set and Patiala and Amritsar among
 649 the $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ data set fall under the ammonium rich regime. In this regime, ISORROPIA2.1
 650 neutralises NH_4^+ with the anions in the order- SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^- and then Cl^- . Aerosols at
 651 these locations are observed to be rich in NH_4^+ , that they could neutralise SO_4^{2-} com-
 652 pletely as $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$, and then the excess NH_4^+ could neutralise NO_3^- and Cl^- where-
 653 present. The model has predicted NH_4NO_3 at all locations in this regime, imply-
 654 ing the presence of excess and enough NH_4^+ for NO_3^- neutralisation. However, only at
 655 New Delhi and Kanpur in the $\text{PM}_{1.0}$ has the model predicted NH_4Cl formation. Chen-
 656 nai and Thiruvananthapuram among $\text{PM}_{1.0}$ data set, and Ahmedabad and Bhopal among
 657 the $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ data set fall under the sulphate rich regime, where NH_4^+ is insufficient to neu-
 658 tralise SO_4^{2-} - that $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$, NH_4HSO_4 and the double salt of sulphate and bisulphate
 659 $(\text{NH}_4)_3\text{H}(\text{SO}_4)_2$ are expected to form. However, in the present analysis, NH_4HSO_4 out
 660 of the three salts have not been predicted at any of the locations. Across all locations
 661 in the Indian region and at all RH, the contribution of organic matter to ALWC is much
 662 lower than that by inorganic matter. The assumption of limited hygroscopicity for or-
 663 ganic matter could also be the reasons for the low contribution to ALWC despite organics
 664 being the species with the highest mass fraction in the dry chemical composition. Data
 665 on WSOC concentration, which is available in the present data set, may be used for a
 666 better estimation of the water uptake, assuming higher hygroscopicity for secondary or-
 667 ganics in future studies. Among the inorganic salt species, $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ remains the most
 668 prevalent contributor to ALWC across all locations in the Indian region. It is interest-
 669 ing to note that the fractional contribution of each species can be observed to vary with
 670 RH. The variation in the fractional contribution by organic matter and NH_4Cl with RH
 671 in regime (iii) locations does not show a stable trend. However, the fractional contribu-
 672 tion of $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ clearly decreases with RH while that of NH_4NO_3 increases. This may
 673 be explained from Figure S2b where the water uptake by unit mass of individual species
 674 has been represented on a logarithmic scale for better visualisation. It is evident that
 675 $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ has higher water uptake than NH_4NO_3 at lower RH, which reverses after around
 676 80% RH. A similar comparison between regime (ii) salts $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$, NH_4HSO_4 and $(\text{NH}_4)_3\text{H}(\text{SO}_4)_2$
 677 in Figure S2b shows that the water uptake by $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4 > \text{NH}_4\text{HSO}_4 > (\text{NH}_4)_3\text{H}(\text{SO}_4)_2$
 678 at 35% RH and it changes to $\text{NH}_4\text{HSO}_4 > (\text{NH}_4)_3\text{H}(\text{SO}_4)_2 \approx (\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$. These ob-
 679 servations indicate the RH dependence of water uptake by individual salts. Further in-
 680 vestigation of particle hygroscopicity is done in the subsequent section.

681 Since the present discussion focuses on ALWC corresponding to secondary inor-
 682 ganic species whose precursors are mainly from anthropogenic emissions, it is also nec-
 683 essary to observe the effect of K^+ ions released by bio mass burning activities on the ALWC.
 684 K^+ has been reported to be one of the dominantly emitted species during bio mass burn-
 685 ing (Engling et al., 2009; Cao et al., 2016). Figure S4 compares the ALWC from inor-
 686 ganic species and the individual contribution by various inorganic species, in scenarios

where (i) K^+ ions were not considered in the analysis and (ii) K^+ ions were incorporated, at the average RH of 70%. Inorganic chemical composition data from three other locations—Mount Abu, Sikandarpur, and Patna, which satisfied the criteria of ammonium rich locations were also included in the comparison (the data could not be included in the main analysis due to lack of organic carbon measurements). Figure S4a compares the absolute inorganic ALWC in both the scenarios. The results indicate a negligible enhancement of ALWC with addition of K^+ at all locations. Figure S4b compares the contribution of inorganic salt species in both the scenarios. The only K^+ salt predicted is K_2SO_4 and it has a minimal contribution to the ALWC at all locations. However, the prediction of K_2SO_4 is questionable, since the major K^+ salt released from bio mass burning is reported to be KCl (Cao et al., 2016). KCl may undergo reactions with atmospheric H_2SO_4 and HNO_3 to form K_2SO_4 and KNO_3 respectively, the process being generally considered as the ageing of KCl evolved from bio mass burning emissions (Li et al., 2003). Moreover, ISORROPIA2.1 considers K^+ to be of crustal origin and also assumes internal mixing of all species (Fountoukis & Nenes, 2007). These observations suggest that K^+ of fresh bio mass burning may not be accurately modelled by the internally mixed assumption of ISORROPIA2.1. Since, the chemical composition data indicates low concentration of K^+ in the aerosols and the results show insignificant effect on the ALWC prediction, K^+ may be excluded from the analysis. Figure S2a shows the water uptake characteristics of the salts of K^+ . KCl is observed to have comparable hygroscopicity as NH_4Cl and K_2SO_4 and KNO_3 have very low hygroscopicity compared to other salt species. Since KCl is observed to have significant hygroscopicity, ALWC may be influenced by these species in regions of intense biomass burning, and the further analysis in this direction is beyond the scope of this study due to aforesaid reasons. We, however, intend to pursue this in followup studies.

3.3 Analysis of hygroscopicity

Figure 5 gives a comprehensive analysis of the hygroscopicity of aerosols under diverse environmental conditions considered in this study and the relative contribution of inorganic and organic matter. Figure 5a shows the line plot of the variation of the κ_{inorg} (marked pink) and κ_{total} (marked violet) across all the locations. As discussed earlier and as evident from Figure 2, the highest κ_{total} was observed to be 0.28 at New Delhi and Kanpur and the lowest to be 0.17 at Thiruvananthapuram among $PM_{1.0}$ based locations, while the highest κ_{total} for $PM_{2.5}$ based locations was observed to be 0.28 at Patiala and the lowest to be 0.18 at Ahmedabad. The highest κ_{inorg} was observed to be 0.59 at New Delhi and the lowest to be 0.33 at Bhubhaneshwar among $PM_{1.0}$ based locations. For $PM_{2.5}$ based locations, the highest κ_{inorg} was observed to be 0.58 at Bhopal and the lowest to be 0.36 at Amritsar.

As expected, κ_{total} is lower than the inorganic kappa at all locations due to the effect of the organic matter, which was assumed to have limited solubility in this study. The extent of lowering seemed to vary non uniformly and hence the contribution of organic matter to κ_{total} needs to be elucidated. Equation 5, may be redefined for multi-component mixtures using the κ mixing rule-

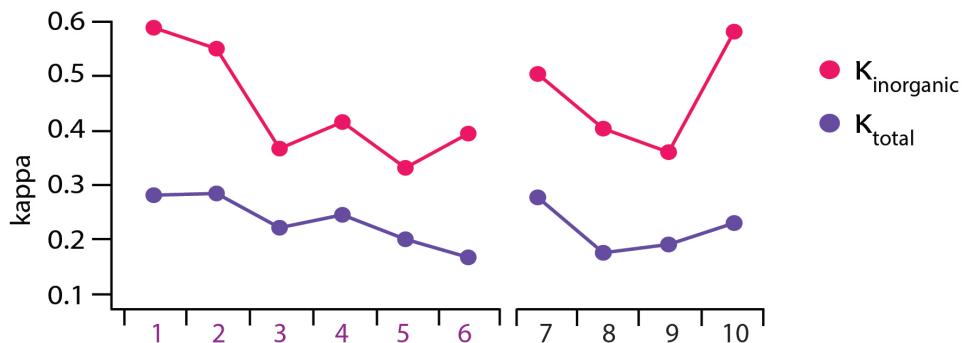
$$\kappa_{total} = \sum_i \kappa_i \epsilon_i \quad (7)$$

where κ_i and ϵ_i are the hygroscopicity parameter and volume fraction of the individual component i in the mixture. This mixing rule may be represented in terms of organic and inorganic fractions as-

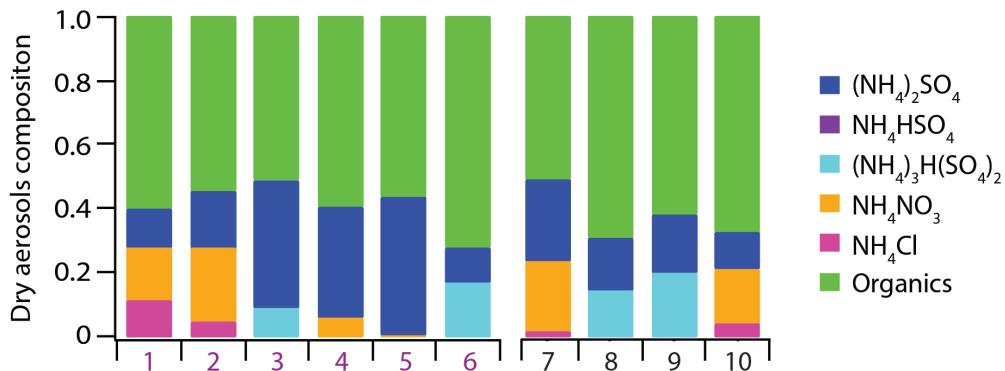
$$\kappa_{total} = \kappa_{inorg} \cdot (1 - f_{org}) + \kappa_{org} \cdot f_{org} \quad (8)$$

Equation 8 parameterises the hygroscopicity of inorganic and organic species (κ_{inorg} and κ_{org} respectively) separately and relates them to κ_{total} . f_{org} and f_{inorg} represent vol-

a.



b.



ACSM /AMS based

1. New Delhi 3. Chennai
2. Kanpur 4. Mahabaleswar

Filter based

5. Bhubhaneshwar 7. Patiala
6. Thiruvananthapuram 8. Ahmedabad 9. Amritsar
10. Bhopal

Figure 5. Comparison of hygroscopicity and chemical composition of aerosols across locations indicated by numbers on the x-axis. (a) Variation of inorganic hygroscopicity ($\kappa_{\text{inorganic}}$) and total hygroscopicity (κ_{total}) across locations (b) The fractional chemical composition of the dry aerosols, in terms of salt species. ACSM/AMS based locations are indicated by violet text and filter based locations are indicated by black text.

umetric fraction of organic and inorganic matter respectively. Considering that chemical compositions are generally expressed in terms of mass, it is more convenient to express the mixing rule in terms of mass fractions. Such a mixing rule had been earlier suggested by (Gunthe et al., 2009), where the assumption of mass fraction was made as a first order approximation. The relative error caused by the assumption of mass fraction was examined by comparing κ_{total} with κ_{mix} calculated using the mass fraction based mixing rule. Figure S5 shows that κ_{total} and κ_{mix} follow the 1:1 line with a correlation of fit of $R^2=0.85$ (considering only the 10 data points available). Hence, the assumption of mass fraction is not expected to cause significant error in the estimation of κ_{total} . The mixing rule was thus modified to the following form, representing the lowering of κ_{inorg} to κ_{total} as-

$$\kappa_{\text{inorg}} - \kappa_{\text{total}} = f_{\text{org}} \cdot (\kappa_{\text{inorg}} - \kappa_{\text{org}}) \quad (9)$$

Thus, the lowering of κ_{inorg} to κ_{total} due to the effect of organic matter, is a function of the fraction of organic matter f_{org} as well as the difference between κ_{inorg} and κ_{total} .

The organic fraction ranges between 50%-70% of the total aerosol mass and the relative difference between κ_{inorg} and κ_{org} changes considerably across locations too and hence, a combination of both factors determine the final κ_{total} . Figure 5b represents the dry chemical composition of the aerosols, where the inorganic species are in terms of the salt species. Observing κ_{inorg} from Figure 5a and the chemical composition in Figure 5b simultaneously, aerosols in regime (iii) are observed to have a slightly higher hygroscopicity compared to those in regime (ii). From Figure S2b, NH_4Cl appears to be the most hygroscopic salt among salts of NH_4^+ across the range. As earlier observed, NH_4NO_3 takes up more water compared to salts of NH_4^+ and SO_4^{2-} at higher RH, while at lower RH, the trend is reversed. Thus, NH_4Cl and NH_4NO_3 are responsible for the enhanced κ_{inorg} in regime (iii) relative to regime (ii). Earlier studies have reported higher κ for NH_4Cl and NH_4NO_3 (Petters & Kreidenweis, 2007; Jin et al., 2020; H. J. Liu et al., 2014), thus corroborating our observation. However, salts of NH_4^+ and SO_4^{2-} remain the most prevalent species in aerosols across the Indian region over the entire range of environmental conditions investigated here.

3.4 Spatial variation in ALWC

Figure 6 shows the ALWC over Indian region as calculated by ISORROPIA2.1 using the concentration of chemical species- NH_4^+ , SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^- and organic matter from WRF-Chem simulations. The spatial variation of the mass concentration of these chemical species over the Indian region is shown in Figure S6. Since Cl^- has been observed to be significant in ALWC calculations in the preceding section, lack of Cl^- concentration data from WRF-Chem may have implications on the predicted ALWC at some locations. Figure 6a shows the distribution of ALWC over the Indian region based on the spatial variation of relative humidity estimated for January 2011 by WRF-Chem simulations. West and east IGP appear to be the hotspot of ALWC, across a significant area. Scattered peaks in ALWC appear along the southern and eastern coastal areas, as well as the North east. Parts of West, Central and South West India display low ALWC concentration. Figure 6b, 6c, 6d represent the distribution of ALWC over the region, calculated at the three RH under consideration- 35%, 70% and 95%. The distribution of ALWC is similar across the three RH, with high ALWC in the IGP, south India and parts of the Western coast and low ALWC at Jammu and Kashmir and parts of North East India at the upper heights of the Himalayas. ALWC has been plotted for these plots on the same colour scale ranging between 0.1 to 700 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ air.

In adherence to previous discussions, regarding the major factors affecting ALWC, the spatial variation plots of ALWC need to be discussed with reference to aerosol dry mass and RH. Figure S7 shows the spatial variation of (a) relative humidity and (b) the total aerosol dry mass calculated as the sum of the mass concentration of all species displayed in Figure S6. High relative humidity is observed in the IGP, eastern and southern coastal areas, Jammu and Kashmir and over North East India. The aerosol dry mass, however, peaks in West and East IGP compared to the rest of the Indian region. This observation coincides with the trend of absolute ALWC, and hence, it may be inferred that absolute aerosol dry mass is the primary driver of high ALWC, supported by conditions of high RH. The spatial variation of chemical species in Figure S6 suggests that west and east IGP are hotspots of NH_4^+ and NO_3^- . As discussed earlier, NH_3 is a driver for secondary particle formation from precursor acidic gases like SO_2 , NO_x and HCl . Thus, high NH_3 emissions in the IGP possibly lead to aggravated secondary particle formation under high RH (Figure S7a) conditions, which are particularly persistent during the winter season. The impact of secondary particle formation manifests as high PM loading (Figure S7b), which further results in the high ALWC observed in these regions (Figure 6).

Analysis of the spatial distribution of prospective salt species formed from the WRF based ionic species concentration has been performed using the dry mode of ISORROPIA2.1

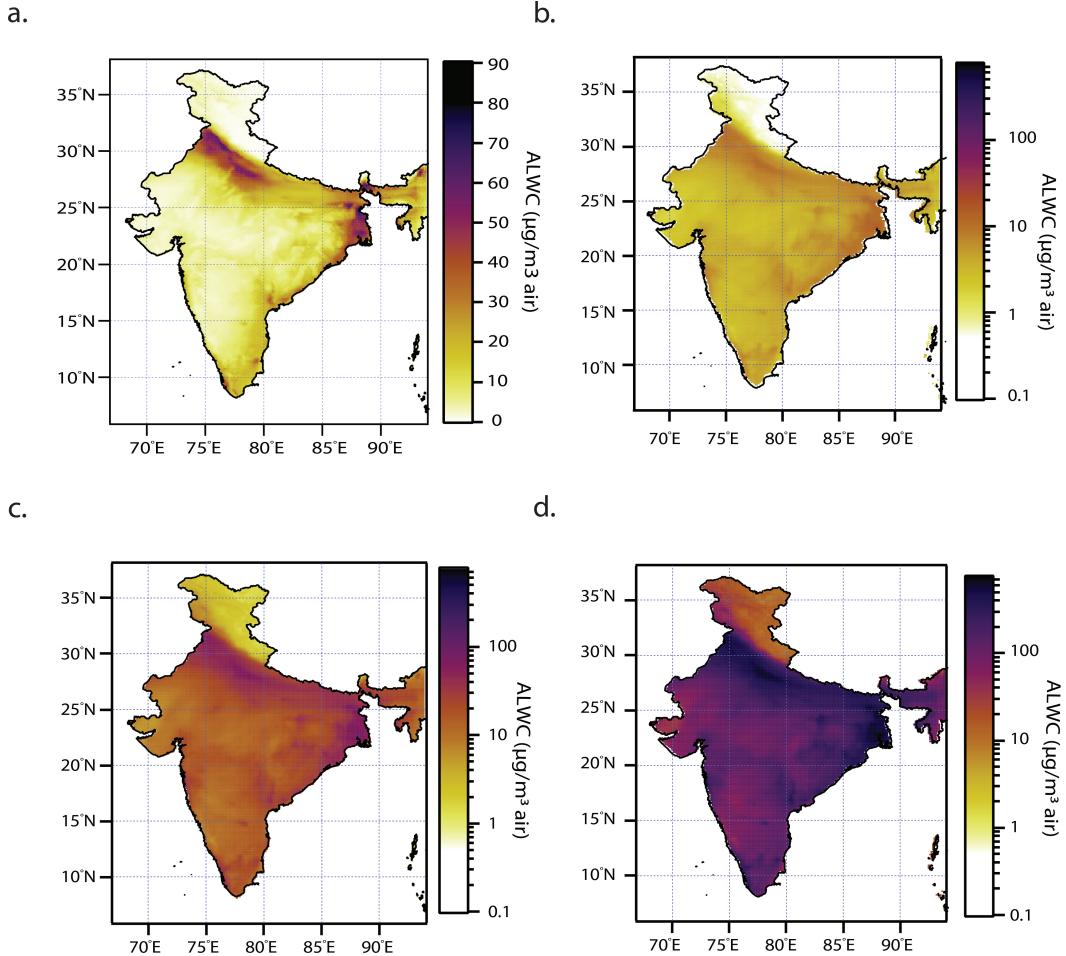


Figure 6. Spatial variation of ALWC ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ air) over India for January, modelled by ISOR-ROPIA2.1 using chemical concentration data of NH_4^+ , SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^- and organic matter from WRF CHEM model at (a) region specific RH modelled by WRF CHEM (b) fixed RH of 35%, (c) 70% and (d) 95% RH (representing the minimum, average and maximum RH respectively during winter).

(as discussed earlier) and the results are shown in Figure S8. The model predicts SO_4^{2-} to be high at higher concentrations over the Central- Eastern India, South India, and coastal Indian region (Figure S4), which is consistent with previous studies (Mallik et al., 2019). Hence, $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ is observed to be the dominant salt species over these regions as expected (Figure S8b), and may be responsible for the scattered peaks of ALWC observed in the region. The IGP is observed to be a hotspot of NH_4NO_3 (Figure S8a) as expected from the high concentration of NH_4^+ and NO_3^- in the region (Figure S7). NH_4NO_3 is stable only at low temperature and high RH (Adams et al., 1999; Deshmukh et al., 2016) and may be expected to be a dominant salt species in the aerosols as predicted.

The region experiences severe haze and smog during winter, which may hence be attributed to high PM loading over this region, with conditions further aggravated by high RH, which lead to enhancement of secondary aerosol formation and high ALWC. The observations in this study suggest that high NH_3 concentration in the region is a primary driver for the pollution load leading to harsh weather conditions. Furthermore, high NO_x emissions supplementing NH_3 provide a additional resource for the formation of the secondary inorganic aerosols, especially at high RH where NH_4NO_3 has been observed to have enhanced water uptake. This study also re-emphasises the importance of improvised pollution control strategies targeting emissions of specific chemical species- NH_3 and NO_x for improvement of ambient air quality in the Indian region.

4 Conclusions

A comprehensive analysis was performed to elucidate the role of aerosol mass concentration, composition and ambient relative humidity on the water uptake characteristics of fine mode aerosols (comprising SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^- , Cl^- , NH_4^+ and organic matter) over the Indian region during wintertime. ALWC was derived for $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ at six locations and $\text{PM}_{1.0}$ at four locations using the thermodynamic model ISOROPPIA2.1 at 35%, 70% and 95% RH, representing the minimum, average, and maximum RH during wintertime in the region. The presented analyses is strongly in line with previous literature indicating the ubiquitous nature of ALWC such that it constitutes a significant fraction of the total aerosol mass burden at the average ambient RH. It was observed that ALWC emerges as the most dominant component of atmospheric aerosols at very high RH, where its mass could be 2-3 times that of the dry aerosol mass. The absolute value of ALWC is strongly dependent on the absolute dry mass concentration, implying that high ALWC is primarily due to heavy pollution load, further enhanced by high ambient RH. Strong non-linear dependence of ALWC on RH is observed, which increases slowly at lower RH, and evolves to a sharp rise beyond the critical RH, as discussed in Jin et al. (2020). The critical RH was observed to depend on the particle hygroscopicity modelled as κ . The non-linear rise may be further enhanced at locations where secondary aerosol formation at conditions at high RH may result in enhanced particle hygroscopicity due to formation of hygroscopic secondary inorganic species. However, at low RH, ALWC was observed to be dependent on the absolute dry mass and not the particle hygroscopicity.

The key inorganic salt species predicted at the locations include $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$, NH_4HSO_4 and $(\text{NH}_4)_3\text{H}(\text{SO}_4)_2$ at sulphate rich locations and $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$, NH_4NO_3 and NH_4Cl at ammonium rich locations. NH_4NO_3 and NH_4Cl are formed at those locations with excess NH_4^+ after neutralising SO_4^{2-} , and are observed to raise the κ of aerosols substantially, compared to the salts of NH_4^+ and SO_4^{2-} . Organic matter, subject to the assumption of limited hygroscopicity, was observed to have a low contribution to the ALWC. High mass fraction of organic matter reduced the overall κ_{total} significantly at some locations. The spatial distribution of ALWC was calculated using the chemical composition of SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^- , NH_4^+ , organic matter and RH derived from WRF-Chem simulations. High PM loading, complemented by high RH was observed to drastically enhance the ALWC in the Indo-Gangetic Plain (IGP) region, which seems to explain the occurrence of haze and smog over the region. The distribution of ALWC across the Indian region at fixed RH revealed similar trends in variation at all three RH levels. Further, analysis of the occurrence of various salt species revealed that NH_4NO_3 is the primary cause of high ALWC over the IGP, while $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ dominated the peninsular region. The IGP region may benefit from the reduction of NH_4^+ and NO_3^- over SO_4^{2-} , due to observed higher hygroscopicity and abundance of NH_4NO_3 over other salts. The methods and assumptions used in this study may be utilised for a general analysis of the hygroscopic characteristics of aerosols for the given environmental conditions, using simple measurements of respective chemical composition. We further argue that analysis of ALWC under contrasting environments and covering distinct seasons is necessary alongside long-

860 term measurements of the aerosol chemical composition to better understand regional
 861 aerosol atmospheric chemistry and to mitigate extreme weather and climatic events re-
 862 lated to ALWC.

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