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Optical properties from extinction cross-section of single pollen particles under laboratory-controlled relative humidity

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ABSTRACT: A growing body of research suggests that pollen suspended in the atmosphere have a major environmental and climatic impact. However, our current knowledge of pollen is rather limited with respect to its extinction capacity, its optical properties and how these vary with atmospheric water content. Understanding their water absorption capacity can improve our understanding of their radiative effects and, thus, improve climate models. In this work, an electrodynamic Paul trap was coupled to a cavity ring down spectroscopy (CRDS) to directly measure the ring down time (τ) of four individual types of pollen particles: *Olea*, *Fraxinus*, *Populus* and *Salix* exposed to changing relative humidity (RH). Resonant structures in τ values between ~ 90 -45 % RH indicated that pollen was wettable at high RHs. τ was used to calculate light extinction cross-section (σ_{ext}) at 532 nm as a function of RH. Optical growth factor (f_{RH}) was evaluated as the ratio between $\sigma_{ext}(\sim 80\% RH)$ and $\sigma_{ext}(dry)$. From f_{RH} , the semi-empirical single hygroscopicity parameter (κ_{emp}) was found to be 0.038-0.058 for the four pollen types. Under controllable treatment of the water content and an adequate selection of complex refractive index (m), CRDS- σ_{ext} data was fitted to theoretical σ_{ext} from Mie theory. The reasonable agreement achieved allowed for gaining knowledge about the m and how particle size shrugged during dehydration. As a result, a climate-lowering effect of *Olea* pollen particles, which contain a fraction of scattered aerosol, should be considered in the models.

KEYWORDS: pollen, single aerosol particle, optical properties, hygroscopicity, radiative effects.

SYNOPSIS: This study provides optical properties of pollen (complex refractive index) and their dependence on water content, which has environmental relevance from the point of view of radiative effects.

41 **1. INTRODUCTION**

42 Although primary biological aerosol particles (PBAPs) represent a small fraction of the
 43 total aerosol burden in the atmosphere, their annual emission fluxes are estimated to be
 44 up to 1000 Tg yr⁻¹ and they are thought to have a significant impact on human health and
 45 climate (Stocker et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2021). PBAPs could modify the atmospheric-
 46 surface radiative forcing by interacting with light through scattering and absorption
 47 processes and by acting as cloud condensation nuclei (Pope, 2010; Zhang et al., 2021).
 48 However, their physicochemical properties are among one of the most uncertain
 49 quantities for the aerosol scientific community, which limits our ability to evaluate their
 50 radiative effects (Després et al., 2012; Martin et al., 2010). PBAPs that can be found in
 51 the atmosphere include pollen, bacteria, fungal spores, algae, mosses and ferns, viruses,
 52 and fragments of animals and plants (Deguillaume et al., 2008; Després et al., 2012;
 53 Möhler et al., 2007; Moller et al., 2008).

54 Pollen is one of the most abundant and the largest PBAPs and its emission flux and
 55 atmospheric concentrations are around 47-84 Tg year⁻¹ (Després et al., 2012; Fröhlich-
 56 Nowojsky et al., 2016; Matthias-Maser et al., 2000). A great number of pollen or sub-
 57 pollen particles are present in urban environments mainly in warmer seasons. Because of
 58 climate change, the period of the pollen season should be extended, affecting wider
 59 extended geographical areas (Bielory et al., 2012; Ziska et al., 2011). Much of the work
 60 on pollen has focused on the determination of the hygroscopic kappa parameter (κ). At
 61 undersaturated relative humidity (RH) conditions, κ determines the ability of particles to
 62 absorb water (Petters and Kreidenweis, 2007). Using an electrodynamic balance, Pope
 63 (2010) calculated the mass growth factor (M/M_0), where M and M_0 are the masses of
 64 pollen in a specific RH and in dry conditions, respectively. On this analysis the
 65 hygroscopic response was parameterized using κ –Köhler theory providing values of κ
 66 between 0.05 and 0.1 for four different types of pollen (*Narcissus*, *Betula*, *Salix*, *Juglans*).
 67 Following the same procedure, Griffiths et al. (2012) found that the pollen was
 68 moderately hygroscopic and its surface wettable at high humidities. In addition, there was
 69 no hysteresis observed within the humidograms and due to their large grain size, they
 70 concluded that pollen grains are efficient cloud condensation nuclei (Diehl et al., 2001;
 71 Pope, 2010). The temperature effect (5-37 °C) on pollen hygroscopicity was estimated to
 72 be small for six pollen species with κ values ranging from 0.034-0.061 at 25°C by Tang
 73 et al. (2019). Therefore, the no significant differences found on κ makes it very
 74 challenging to use as a pollen identifier and hence, highly sensitive techniques are
 75 demanded for this aim.

76 From how light interacts through scattering and absorbing processes with matter we can
 77 extract previously unseen information about the particle microphysical state and chemical
 78 composition during changing environmental conditions and how this translates into
 79 aerosol properties. These effects on light are quantified by the scattering cross section
 80 (σ_{scat}) and the absorbing cross section (σ_{abs}) parameters. The real part (n) of the
 81 complex refractive index (m) impacts on scattering radiative processes and the imaginary
 82 part (k) of m is involved in how the light absorbing processes occur being the following
 83 equation:

$$84 \quad m = n + ik \quad (1)$$

85 Experimental light elastic scattering (phase function) is a consolidated approach very
86 widely used as a product to gain information about size distributions, morphologies and
87 n (David et al., 2016; L. Price et al., 2020). To our knowledge, only a few studies provided
88 values of n and k for pollen in real atmospheres. For instance, in the literature we found
89 that n for *Cupressus* pollen was estimated to be in the range 1.3-1.54, while k was close
90 to zero (Ebert et al., 2002; Gómez Martín et al., 2021; Kim et al., 2018). Nevertheless,
91 non-zero values for k , ranging between 0.01-0.2, was found by Hu et al. (2019) using
92 experimental reflectance measurements for twelve biomaterials in the spectral range from
93 0.24 to 14 μm . Methodologies based on interferometry, light scattering or laser-induced
94 fluorescence were developed for pollen classification (Kiselev et al., 2013; Pan et al.,
95 2011). Light scattering techniques provide rapid, non-invasive, and extremely sensitive
96 sampling of small but significant biological changes that cannot be differentiated by any
97 other optical technique (Bickel and Stafford, 1980; Cholleton et al., 2022a; Gómez Martín
98 et al., 2021). Cholleton et al. (2022) established a technique to detect and differentiate
99 among the existing four pollen taxa (*Fraxinus*, *Betula*, *Ambrosia*, *Pinus*) using 10
100 scattering matrix elements. They exhibited clearly different light-scattering
101 characteristics, which allowed differentiation between each pollen type. Nevertheless,
102 these experiments were carried out under dry pollen conditions ($< 10\%$ RH). It would be
103 crucial to extend the analysis to changing environmental conditions.

104 There is much controversy about the geometry of the shape of pollen grains and its effect
105 on light scattering properties. In this sense, remote sensing platforms such as the lidar
106 were used to identify pollen types based mainly on their non-spherical geometry through
107 the particle linear depolarization ratio (δ_L) (Córdoba-Jabonero et al., 2018; Noh et al.,
108 2013a, 2013b; Sassen, 2008; Shang et al., 2020; Sicard et al., 2016). Nevertheless, other
109 studies stated that δ_L calculated from lidar measurements cannot be used to differentiate
110 between particle types, not even regarding size because different aerosol types in the
111 visible spectral range show similar average value of δ_L (180°) (Gómez Martín et al.,
112 2021). These same authors suggested that the light scattering of *Cupressus* pollen can be
113 modelled as if it were near spheroid with a very low aspect ratio.

114 An added difficulty to the above issues is that observations in the environment are
115 complicated by the uncontrollable nature of the atmosphere (Huffman and Santarpia,
116 2017; Santarpia, 2016). The study of aerosols often involves the study of the average
117 behaviour of samples, which makes it difficult to accurately quantify stimulus-response
118 relationships to the extent necessary for rigorous predictive modelling. In this regard,
119 laboratory studies are necessary to understand how microphysical state, chemical
120 composition and transformation timescales are quantified in controlled laboratory
121 measurements (Krieger et al., 2012). Hence, along with the challenge of analysing aerosol
122 samples, there is a strong motivation to develop single-particle monitoring techniques
123 (Fernandez et al., 2019; Hopkins et al., 2004; Pope, 2010; Redding and Pan, 2015a,
124 2015b). One of the main advantages of single-particle analysis is that an individual
125 particle can be confined to a fixed position in space; consequently, it can be indefinitely
126 interrogated by various optical detection techniques, such as light scattering, Raman
127 spectroscopy or fluorescence (O'Connor et al., 2011; Swanson et al., 2023; Walker et al.,
128 2013; Wang et al., 2015, 2019). Working with single particles light elastic scattering
129 builds an interference structure in the far-field between light passing through a particle

130 and that passing close to the edge that can be collected and fitted to Lorenz-Mie theory to
131 estimate its size (Cotterell et al., 2017, 2015; Mason et al., 2015; Valenzuela et al., 2020).
132 A limitation arises with this approach when particle absorbs light, or it is not a perfect
133 sphere because the phase function loses contrast. To overcome this drawback, a window
134 of opportunity opens in the bioaerosol field if extinction cross section (σ_{ext}) data become
135 available, which will contain invaluable information on physicochemical properties,
136 particle geometries and light absorption. Recent advances in the aerosol spectroscopy
137 field allowed for evaluating continuous σ_{ext} measurements after a single inorganic salt
138 experimented efflorescence, coupling a Cavity Ring Down Spectrometer (CRDS) to a
139 linear electrodynamic quadrupole (Valenzuela et al., 2021). By fitting CRDS- σ_{ext} values
140 to theoretical σ_{ext} modelled by spheroid code, an aspect ratio mean value of the irregular
141 crystallised particle was estimated. Based on the latter configuration, Knight et al. (2022)
142 successfully obtained the evolution of k for two-component droplet composed of
143 nigrosine and 1,2,6-hexanetriol. Of significant importance is to find out how n is modified
144 with water content in the particle which will help to one more precise quantification of its
145 radiative effects. Valenzuela et al. (2018) established that for standard uncertainty in n of
146 ± 0.02 the uncertainty in estimating the radiative forcing efficiency (RFE) was $\pm 25\%$ at
147 90% RH for ammonium sulphate (AS) aerosol. Further, focusing on single particles, the
148 accuracy in estimating of n at 532 nm was raised to ± 0.003 which translated to a more
149 precise estimation of the RFE $\pm 5\%$ for the above compound. In short, the electrodynamic
150 trap coupled to CRDS can provide extraordinary details, so far unrevealed, about the
151 properties of pollen that would complement the analysis already performed.

152 In this work we advance a new configuration, coupling a Paul Electrodynamic Trap (PET)
153 with a Cavity Ring Down Spectroscopy CRDS. The novel setup is a versatile working
154 platform, adding enormous flexibility by optically interrogating the same trapped particle
155 over time with excellent stability and reproducibility. This advantage was exploited to
156 direct calculation of σ_{ext} and then optical properties of single pollen particles as well as
157 their radiative effects. The n and k were calculated and their dependence on RH was
158 evaluated. We focus on *Olea*, *Fraxinus*, *Populus* and *Salix* pollen types, all of them from
159 plant species representative of the Mediterranean bioclimatic region.

160 2. EXPERIMENTAL SETUP

161

162 2.1 Paul Electrodynamic Trap

163 A Paul Electrodynamic Trap (PET) is located inside a custom-made chamber under
164 atmospheric pressure and room temperature, with all measurements performed around
165 295 K (Figure 1). This platform is formed by two conical electrodes separated by 1.5 mm
166 that are enclosed by grounded cylindrical shields, which have a diameter of 2 and 3 cm
167 of length. An AC voltage signal is applied to the cones; the typical operation amplitude
168 range of the AC field is between 1 kVpp and 2 kVpp at a frequency ranging from 1 to 2
169 kHz. Establishing the above values, the PET is capable of trapping particles ranging
170 between 700 nm up to a few micrometres in radius. A CMOS camera (Thorlabs,
171 DCC1546M) coupled to a 20 \times long working distance lens (Mitutoyo) with a numerical
172 aperture (NA) of 0.42, oriented at 90 $^\circ$ to the optical cavity, is used to control the particle
173 position from a phase function image at 473 nm wavelength. The principle of operation
174 of the Paul electrodynamic trap is explained in detail by Valenzuela et al. (2020).

175 2.2 Relative humidity control

176 RH is one the most important atmospheric parameters, which plays a key role in aerosol
 177 physical conditions. A RH is achieved in a nitrogen flow by mixing wet and dry gas in
 178 controlled ratios. A nitrogen cylinder is regulated to a pressure of 3 bar and used at this
 179 inlet pressure to supply two mass flow controllers (MFC) in parallel (MKS GE50A, rated
 180 for 500 sccm N₂) both powered by a MKS power supply (MKS-946-EU-FCFCNA-NA).
 181 The RH inside the trapping cell is monitored using a capacitance probe (Honeywell).

182 2.3 Cavity ring down spectroscopy: ring down time and optical properties

183 Here, a Cavity Ring Down Spectrometer (CRDS) is employed to calculate σ_{ext} of single
 184 particles by mean of careful manipulation of the PET with a continuous single-mode laser
 185 (Laser Quantum Torus) at 532 nm wavelength (Figure 1). σ_{ext} is calculated from
 186 equation:

$$187 \sigma_{ext} = \frac{\pi w_0^2 L}{2c} \left(\frac{1}{\tau} - \frac{1}{\tau_0} \right) \quad (2)$$

188 where τ_0 and τ are the ring-down times with empty cavity and when it contains particle,
 189 respectively, w_0 is the estimated beam waist, L is the length of the cavity and c is the
 190 speed of light. More details about cavity ring down time methodology can be found in
 191 Supporting Information.

192 The variation in r and n was determined by fitting the complete measured $\sigma_{ext,1Hz}$ data
 193 set to theoretical σ_{ext} calculated using the Mie theory in a self-consistent step. For all
 194 hygroscopic response measurements reported in this study, the n varied with the particle
 195 size. Therefore, we parameterised n in terms of particle radius using the expression:

$$196 n = n_0 + \frac{n_1}{r^3} + \frac{n_2}{r^6} \quad (3)$$

197 in which r was the particle radius, n_1 and n_2 were fitting parameters, and n_0 (1.335) was
 198 the real refractive index of pure water at 532 nm wavelength. This procedure was
 199 previously tested to obtain the n of NaCl as a function of RH (Figure S1, Supporting
 200 Information).

201 The best fit was calculated using the reduced cumulative fractional difference
 202 (CFD_R)(Zarzana et al., 2012):

$$203 CFD_R = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{|\sigma_{ext,Mie} - \sigma_{ext,1Hz}|}{\sigma_{ext,1Hz}} \quad (4)$$

204 where $\sigma_{ext,Mie}$ was the theoretical extinction cross section and N was the number of
 205 different particle radius used. The CFD_R was calculated for a wide range of n and r values,
 206 and the value of n and r that gave the lowest CFD_R were taken to be these for the pollen
 207 as function of RH. A fixed non-zero value for k provided a lowest CFD_R for each pollen
 208 type.

209 To determine the hygroscopic behaviour of pollen a semi-empirical relationship for κ was
 210 proposed by Dawson et al. for evaluating different water-soluble sugars from cavity ring
 211 down data (Dawson et al., 2020):

$$212 \quad \kappa_{empirical} = (f_{RH}(\sim 80\%RH, dry))^{\frac{3 \times 0.28}{0.86}} - 1 \left(\frac{1 - RH/100}{RH/100} \right) \quad (5)$$

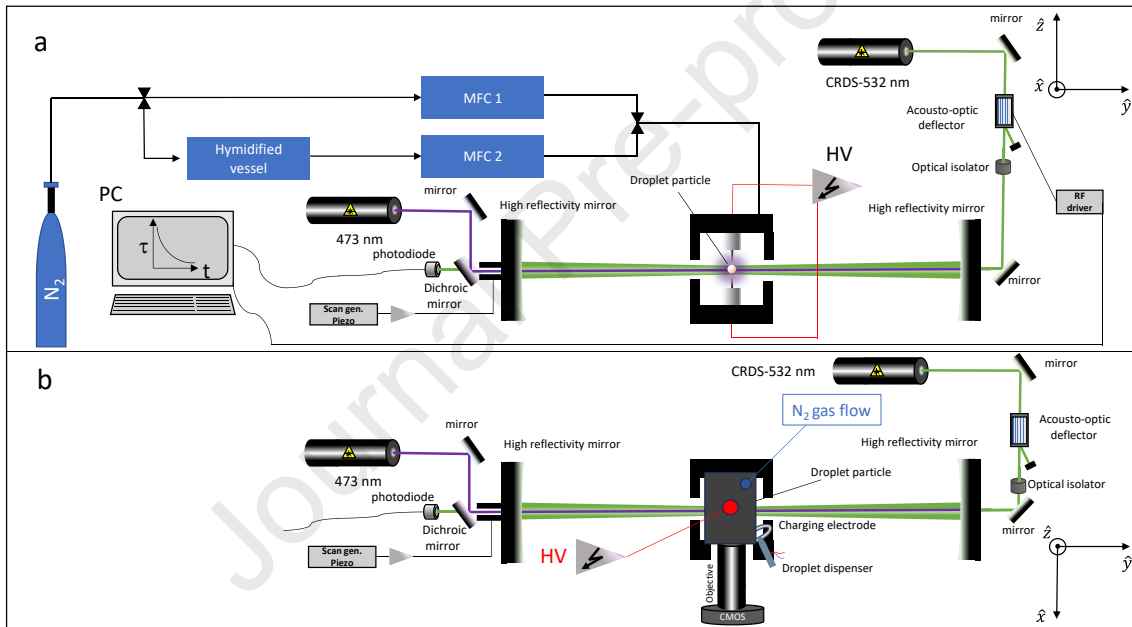
213 where the optical growth factor (f_{RH}) was calculated in this study by dividing the $\sigma_{ext,w}$
 214 of the humidified particle by the $\sigma_{ext,d}$ of the dry particle:

$$215 \quad f_{RH}(w, d) = \frac{\sigma_{ext,w}}{\sigma_{ext,d}} \quad (6)$$

216 where w was the RH of the humidified particle and d was the RH of the dry particle. We
 217 assumed that semi-empirical relationship was applicable to our study. We considered the
 218 value of the humidified $\sigma_{ext,w}$ at around 80% RH and the value of $\sigma_{ext,d}$ as dry RH %
 219 when the pollen particle no longer loses water according to our analysis.

220 Detailed explanations of the operation of the Paul electrodynamic trap coupled to the
 221 cavity ring down spectroscopy setup are given by Valenzuela et al. (2024).

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224 **Figure 1.** a) Scheme of cavity ring down spectroscopy setup, relative humidity system and the Paul
 225 Electrodynamic Trap (PET) seen from front and b) seen from top.

226 2.4 Harvesting and laboratory preparation of pollen samples

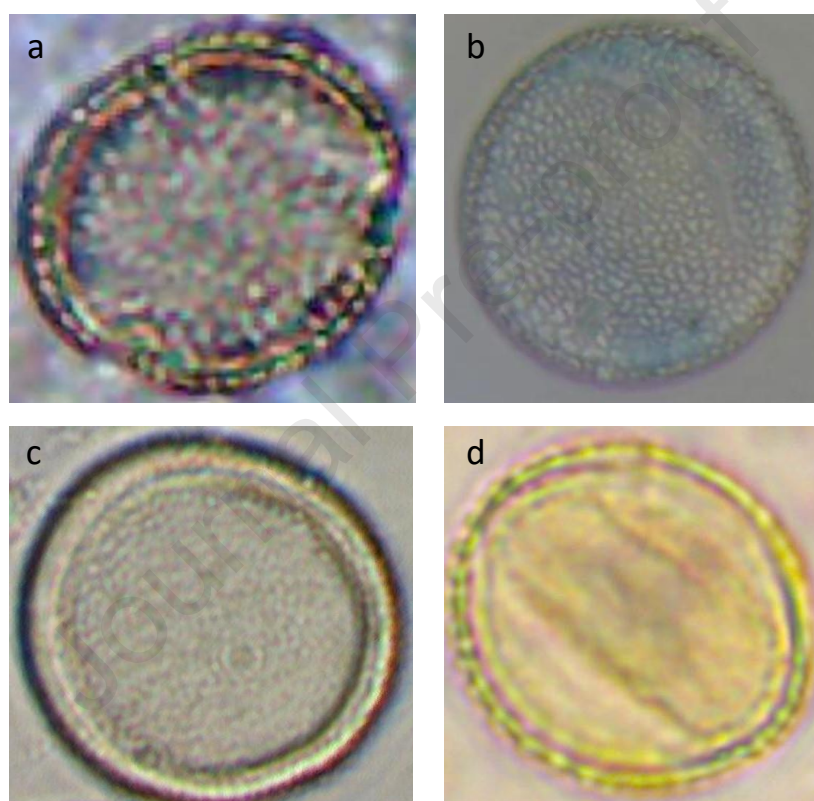
227 For the measurements we used four different pollen samples: *Olea*, *Fraxinus*, *Populus*,
 228 and *Salix*. Optical microscope images about four single pollen particle types are showed
 229 in Figure 2. Then, flowers of *Olea* and *Fraxinus* and catkins from *Salix* and *Populus* were
 230 collected in the period immediately to anthesis, that is, prior to the opening of the anthers.
 231 Afterwards, the flowers were dried at room temperature (approximately 20°C) for 48
 232 hours and sieved to facilitate the extraction of pollen and eliminate possible plant remains.
 233 The amount of pollen obtained was approximately 2 g per species, that was stored in
 234 microtubes in a refrigerator at 4°C to avoid the oxidation and degradation process
 235 (Ramírez-Aliaga et al., 2022). The preparation of the pollen washing water was performed
 236 as follow: first, we suspended 1 g of pollen in 20 ml of deionized water. After shaking

237 the suspension, it was placed in a glass bottle in the refrigerator overnight. The next day,
 238 the suspension was shaken again before being delivery in the PET chamber.

239 The experimental process was composed of following steps: (1) desired RH conditions
 240 were established inside the PET chamber, (2) a droplet dispenser (Microfab, 20(MJ-ABP-
 241 01)) was used to delivery droplets inside the PET chamber and (3) RH was steady gone
 242 down with a controlled gas flow ratio between two mass flow controllers. We routinely
 243 measured deliquescence relative humidities (DRHs) of NaCl and (NH₄)₂SO₄ to inspect
 244 the RH accuracy of the humidity sensor, and the difference between measured and
 245 theoretical DRHs did not exceed 1%.

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247



248

249 **Figure 2.** Optical microscope images of a) *Olea*, b) *Fraxinus*, c) *Populus* and d) *Salix* (Images from P.
 250 Cariñanos).

251 **3. Results and discussion**

252 **3.1 Cavity ring down time data and hygroscopic behaviour**

253 Single aqueous aerosol containing one of the pollen particles were trapped at high RH
 254 (~80-90%). A droplet dispenser was used to deliver particle causing that RH is unsteady.
 255 It was necessary to wait about five minutes before proceeding with data collection where,
 256 once the RH was stabilized, it was progressively reduced at a rate of 1% per minute until
 257 the measured τ showed constant values even though the RH continued to decrease. Repeat
 258 measurements were performed for each pollen type: *Olea* (4), *Fraxinus* (2), *Populus* (2)
 259 and *Salix* (2).

260 The procedure followed to collect data under RH changes for the four types of pollen was
 261 equivalent. We focus in τ measurements and hygroscopic response for one single *Olea*
 262 pollen particle to explain the process. The *Olea* pollen was initially captured at an RH of
 263 around 90% (Figure 3a) and the change in τ was monitored over a time scale of ~ 6300 s
 264 as the RH is allowed to reduce (Figure 3b).

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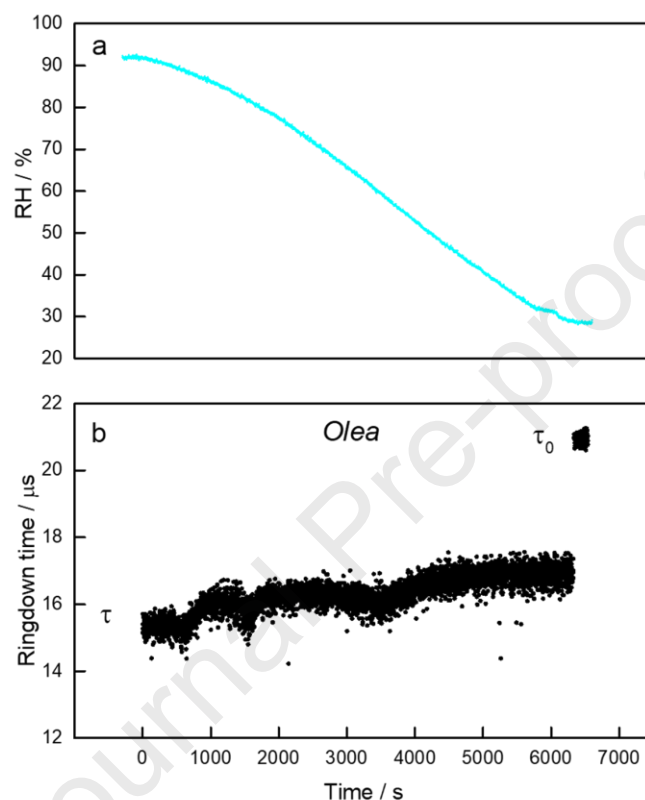
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281 **Figure 3.** a) Decrease of RH and b) evolution of τ during the evaporation of an *Olea* pollen particle.

283 The first change we observed was a moderate increase in τ , which can only be explained
 284 by the fact that during the dehydration process, the particle lost water and reduced its size.
 285 In addition, this increase in τ was accompanied by fluctuations with different resonance
 286 peaks related to the fact that during the evaporation process the particle reached specific
 287 sizes for which it behaves as an optical cavity resonant with the laser wavelength. This
 288 trend in τ occurred until the RH was reduced to $\sim 45\%$. From this point on, τ remains
 289 constant, indicating that the particle no longer lost water and is assumed to be dry. An
 290 envelope of measured τ values resulting from the Brownian motion of the particle passing
 291 through different phases of the standing wave, corresponding to the boundaries of the
 292 envelope to the particle centred at a node or at an antinode. Furthermore, since there was
 293 no loss of contrast in the experimental phase function image (Figure 4) at 473 nm
 294 wavelength after RH $\sim 45\%$, this can be interpreted to mean that the particle continued to
 295 show a spherical shape. This hypothesis is also supported by the behaviour of τ , since it
 296 did not show an abrupt change that would lead one to suspect an irregular shape of the

297 particle. Therefore, we can hypothesize that Mie theory is a good approximation to fit our
 298 experimental data contrary to the results reported in previous studies where a non-
 299 spherical assumption is considered.

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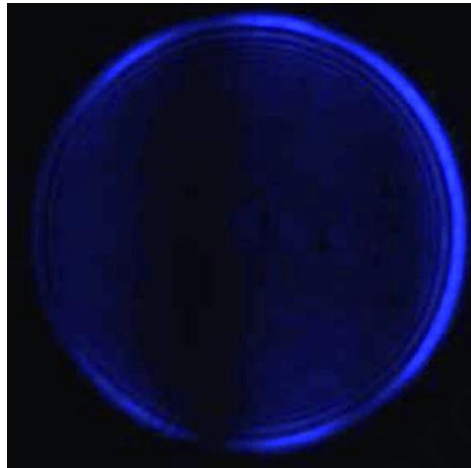
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310 **Figure 4.** Phase function image of a single *Olea* particle at 473 nm wavelength and 40% RH (Image from
 311 A. Valenzuela).

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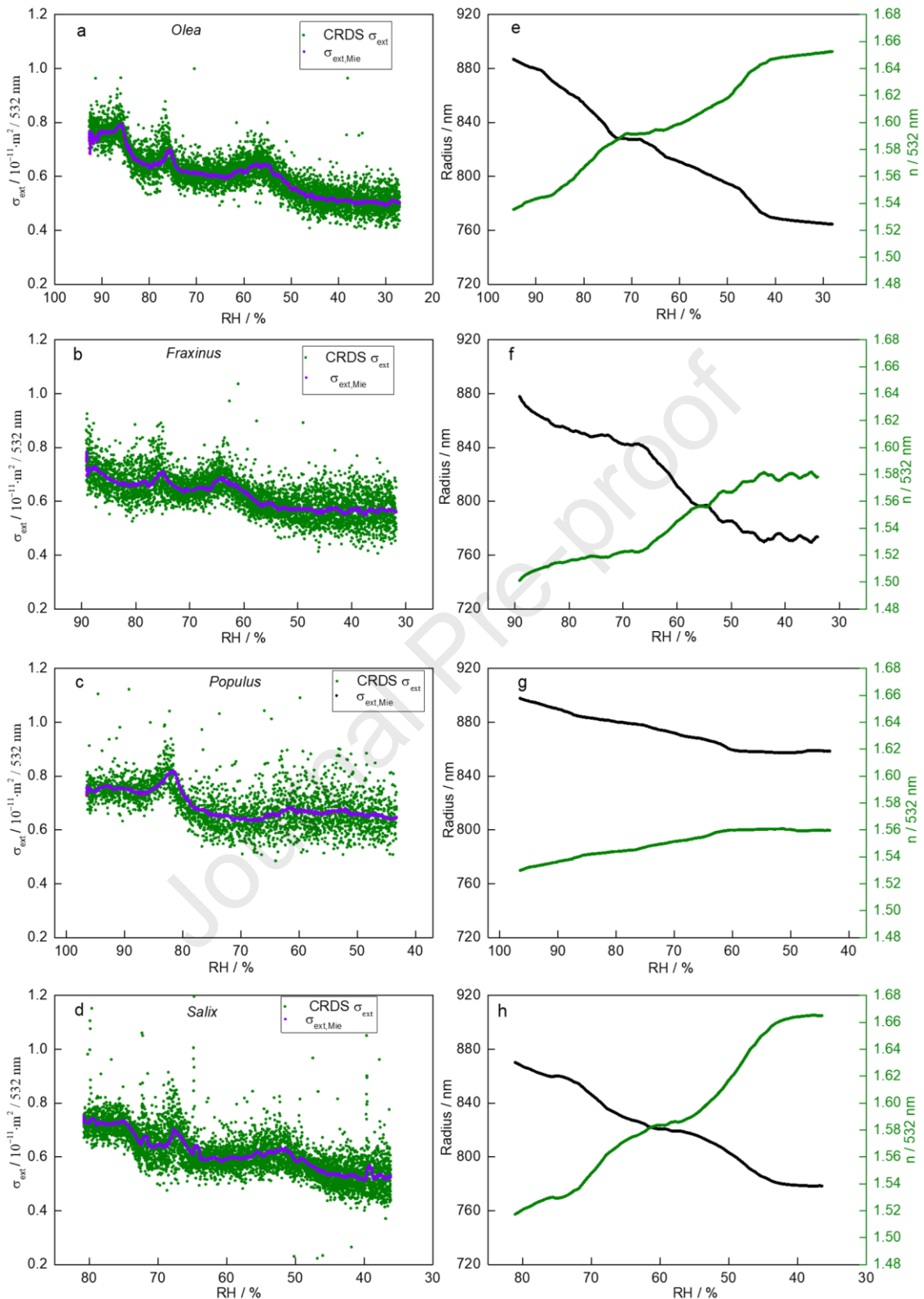
313 **3.2 Light extinction cross sections and optical properties of pollen particles**

314 The measured σ_{ext} were compared to Mie σ_{ext} theoretical calculations using the
 315 procedure described in Sect. 2.3. Figures 5a, b, c, and d show example σ_{ext} data sets
 316 measured and the best-fit $\sigma_{ext,Mie}$ envelopes for four single pollen particle types. The σ_{ext}
 317 data sets have between 1-3 resonance features depending on the pollen type even though
 318 the particles evaporated over very similar radius and RH ranges, likely owing to different
 319 hygroscopic behaviour. Overall, the trend of σ_{ext} is explained, in addition to the shrinking
 320 in size, also by the change on refractive index of the particles. As RH is decreased, σ_{ext}
 321 is expected to decrease because the geometric cross section of particle becomes smaller.
 322 The extinction capacity decreased between ~ 20 and 28 % for *Olea* and *Salix* pollens,
 323 respectively, when RH decreased from 80% to 45% (Figures 5a and d). The hygroscopic
 324 behaviour could play a significant role from point of view of radiative effects. In the case
 325 of *Fraxinus* and *Populus* pollens, the extinction capacities decreased between 14 and 8
 326 %, respectively (Figures 5b and c). We take advantage of the occurrence of resonant peaks
 327 for comparing with Mie theory and gain knowledge in optical properties.

328 Figures 5 e-h show n and r values as a function of the RH for individual pollen particles.
 329 As the RH was reduced, r decreased due to water loss and n increased because the solute
 330 became more concentrated within the aqueous droplets. The n for *Olea* and *Salix* pollens
 331 showed similar values in each RH interval, with the difference between the values for
 332 each pollen being less than the standard deviation within each pollen type. In the case of
 333 *Olea* pollen, the r is reduced ~ 120 nm and n ranges from 1.54 to 1.65 (Figure 5e). Since
 334 we assumed that the k of water was zero, we fixed a k value during the fitting process of

335 n and r for the whole range of RH. We tested for a set of different k values finding the
336 lowest CFD for a k value of 0.00109 for *Olea* pollen. We conclude that *Olea* pollen was
337 not very absorbing of light at 532 nm wavelength. The n for *Populus* pollen showed less
338 variability with RH with values ranging from 1.53 to 1.56, which is indicative of its low
339 hygroscopicity (Figure 5 g). *Fraxinus* pollen showed the lowest k value among the four
340 pollen types with a value of 0.0007. Given the complexity of working with pollen grains
341 no information about n and k values and their dependence with RH are reported in the
342 literature. In general, the m values we have reported have lighter absorption and moderate
343 scattering components than other aerosol types, e.g., mineral dust.

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344 **Figure 5.** a, b, c, and d) Measured σ_{ext} (green dots) and fitted σ_{ext} (purple dots) as function of RH and e,
 345 f, g, and h) calculated n and r values as function of RH for *Olea*, *Fraxinus*, *Populus* and *Salix* pollen
 346 respectively.

347

348 Table 1 reports the calculated n values as function of the RH for each pollen species. For
 349 each type, we performed between 2 and 4 individual experiments and the n was fit
 350 separately for each experiment. The number of individual particles to average n are
 351 included. The reported values and errors are the averages and standard deviations from
 352 the individual fits for each pollen types. All CFD values were less than 0.003, which
 353 indicates that the fitted n and r values agree with measured data to within 0.3%.

RH%	<i>Olea</i> (4) ⁺	<i>Fraxinus</i> (2) ⁺	<i>Populus</i> (2) ⁺	<i>Salix</i> (2) ⁺
	$k \pm \Delta k$			
	0.0012 ± 0.0001	0.0007 ± 0.0001	0.0009 ± 0.0001	0.0010 ± 0.0001
	$n \pm \Delta n$			
90	1.545 ± 0.010	1.503 ± 0.012	1.537 ± 0.011	--
80	1.570 ± 0.013	1.516 ± 0.013	1.549 ± 0.032	1.520 ± 0.011
70	1.581 ± 0.017	1.522 ± 0.011	1.552 ± 0.012	1.547 ± 0.022
60	1.589 ± 0.021	1.545 ± 0.023	1.559 ± 0.021	1.584 ± 0.014
50	1.602 ± 0.018	1.567 ± 0.021	1.561 ± 0.015	1.616 ± 0.019
40	1.621 ± 0.021	1.578 ± 0.018	1.563 ± 0.014	1.664 ± 0.024

354 ⁺Note: In parenthesis the number of particles used for averaging.

355 **Table 1.** n and k values as function of RH retrieved in this study. The reported values and errors are the
 356 averages and standard deviations from the individual fits for each pollen types. All values are for $\lambda = 532$
 357 nm.

358 To verify the goodness of our system to determine the hygroscopic behaviour of pollen,
 359 we evaluated $f_{RH}(\sim 80\%RH, dry)$ of ammonium sulphate at 80% RH from CRDS data
 360 at 532 nm wavelength for dry particle of $\sim 0.9 \mu\text{m}$ in radius. The result provided a value
 361 for $f_{RH}(\sim 80\%RH, dry)$ and κ_{emp} of 1.83 ± 0.21 and 0.34 ± 0.06 , respectively, that
 362 shows good agreement when compared to Mie theory and besides these are consistent
 363 with data provided in the literature (Garland et al., 2007).

364 Mean f_{RH} value was determined for each of the pollen types from measured σ_{ext} values.
 365 Our study found that maximum $f_{RH}(\sim 80\%RH, dry)$ mean value was for *Salix* with 1.39
 366 ± 0.11 for dry radius particle of $\sim 0.77 \mu\text{m}$ being the minimum for *Fraxinus* with a mean
 367 value of 1.15 ± 0.03 for dry radius particle of $\sim 0.81 \mu\text{m}$. The f_{RH} decreased with
 368 increasing dry particle size. It is because extinction cross sections increase nonlinearly
 369 with particle radius, with a more pronounced increase at the smaller sizes. The conversion
 370 of f_{RH} to κ_{emp} allows a direct comparison between different pollen species. For CRDS
 371 derived κ_{emp} values, the error in individual experiment comes from uncertainties in RH
 372 measurements and in the fact that we work with σ_{ext} measurements of a standing wave
 373 which has a width in its values due to the interaction of the particle with the extremes of
 374 the wave, node, and antinode and with intermediate values. The mean values of κ_{emp}
 375 ranged between maximum values of 0.058 ± 0.012 and 0.057 ± 0.007 for *Salix* and

376 *Olea*, respectively, and minimum values of 0.038 ± 0.005 and 0.039 ± 0.006 for *Fraxinus*
 377 and *Populus*, respectively. The range of values found for κ_{emp} lie within the range of
 378 values provided by other authors for pollen species (Pope, 2010; Tang et al., 2019).

379 4. Atmospheric Implications

380 **Radiative forcing efficiency.** The imaginary refractive index (k) is a unitless value
 381 related to the light absorption capacity of the particle. In our analysis this quantity is not
 382 very large for all pollen species, but it is non-zero; therefore, pollen particles scatter and
 383 absorb light. We evaluated how this affects the radiative forcing with respect to a pure
 384 scattering particle such as ammonium sulphate (AS). Noll&Khalili (1988) have shown that
 385 sulphates and nitrates, among other elements, adhere to the surface of some pollen. A
 386 refined treatment for n as a function of RH was given by Valenzuela et al. (2018). To our
 387 knowledge, scarce studies have evaluated the radiative effects of pollen and even less
 388 considering its dependence on RH. Since the range of n for each pollen type is from 1.505
 389 for *Fraxinus* at 40%RH to 1.66 for *Salix* at 90%RH, we have chosen *Olea* pollen as
 390 representative of the other pollen types because we do not expect the radiation effects to
 391 vary too much since n does not vary too much between the different pollen types.

392 For aerosol consisting of an internal mixture of 20% AS and 80% pollen by volume (like
 393 that used in Prisle et al. (2019)), the complex refractive index (m) was calculated
 394 following the procedure given by Robinson et al. (2013):

$$395 \quad m_{Olea,AS,w} = \frac{V_{AS}m_{AS} + V_{Olea}m_{Olea}}{V_{AS} + V_{Olea}} \quad (7)$$

396 where w refers to water, $m_{Olea,AS,w}$ was the complex refractive index of the internal
 397 mixture with *Olea*, AS and water, $m_{Olea,w}$ was the complex refractive index of *Olea* and
 398 water and $m_{AS,w}$ was the complex refractive index of AS and water. These values are
 399 listed in Table 2. The procedure for calculating m and parameterizing the radius is
 400 explained in Supplementary Material. We considered in our study that *Olea* pollen grains
 401 were spherical applying Mie theory. All calculations were performed at 532 nm because
 402 optical properties were retrieved on this wavelength and besides it is representative of the
 403 solar visible spectrum. From our analysis we assumed an effective dry radius for *Olea* of
 404 $0.77 \mu\text{m}$. The input parameters used to supply the Mie code were m , k and the size
 405 parameter (x) calculated for spherical particles as:

$$406 \quad x = \frac{2 \cdot \pi \cdot r}{\lambda} \quad (8)$$

407 where r is the particle radius at the specific RH and λ is 532 nm wavelength.

408 In our study, the following aerosol radiative properties were calculated: the extinction
 409 efficiency (Q_{ext}), single scattering albedo ($\bar{\omega}$), asymmetry parameter (g) and
 410 backscattering fraction (β) including dependence on particle size, composition, RH and
 411 wavelength. These optical parameters were necessary to estimate the RFE at the top of
 412 the atmosphere caused by a thin aerosol layer in the lower troposphere from the equation
 413 proposed by Haywood and Shine (1995). Some previous publications have reported the
 414 use of this treatment to study the RFE (Dinar et al., 2008; Erlick et al., 2011; Haywood
 415 and Boucher, 2000; Randles et al., 2004; Valenzuela et al., 2018; Zarzana et al., 2014).

416 Our calculations of RFE are derived using the same equations and base-level assumptions
417 as those by Erlick et al. (2011).

$$418 \quad RFE = \frac{\Delta F}{AOD} = SD(1-A_{cld})T_{atm}^2(1-R_{sfc})^2 \left[2R_{sfc} \frac{1-\bar{\omega}}{(1-R_{sfc})^2} - \beta\bar{\omega} \right] \quad (9)$$

419 where ΔF is the radiative forcing, AOD is the aerosol optical depth, S is the solar constant
420 (set to 1370 W m^{-2}). For the rest of the parameters, we assumed the standard condition of
421 a continental area. D is the fractional day length (set to 0.5), A_{cld} is the fractional cloud
422 cover (set to 0.61), T_{atm} is the solar atmospheric transmittance (set to 0.76), and R_{sfc} is
423 the surface albedo (set to 0.15). β is a function of hemispheric backscatter fraction b ,
424 defined as the ratio of backscattering efficiency to total scattering efficiency and $\bar{\omega}$ is the
425 single scattering albedo caused by a uniform and optically thin aerosol layer. The
426 parameter β was calculated from the Henyey–Greenstein phase function:

$$427 \quad \beta = 0.082 + 1.85 \cdot b - 2.97 \cdot b^2 \quad (10)$$

428 whereas b was derived from g through the equation (Wiscombe and Grams, 1976):

$$429 \quad b = \frac{1-g^2}{2g} \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{1+g^2}} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+g}} \right) \quad (11)$$

430 The results of the RFE calculations are shown in Table 2.

431

432

$RH\%$	$m_{AS,w}^a$	$m_{Olea,w}^b$	$m_{Olea,AS,w}^b$	$\bar{\omega}_{Olea,w}^b$	$\bar{\omega}_{Olea,AS,w}^b$	$g_{AS,w}^a$	$g_{Olea,w}^b$	$g_{Olea,AS,w}^b$	$RFE_{AS,w}/$ WAOD $^{-1}\text{m}^{-2a}$	$RFE_{Olea,w}/$ WAOD $^{-1}\text{m}^{-2b}$	$RFE_{Olea,AS,w}/$ WAOD $^{-1}\text{m}^{-2b}$
90	1.366+i0	1.545+i0.0012	1.449+i0.0012	0.97	0.97	0.81	0.75	0.73	-18.36	-20.00	-21.07
80	1.392+i0	1.570+i0.0012	1.493+i0.0012	0.97	0.97	0.81	0.76	0.67	-18.22	-19.81	-24.02
70	1.413+i0	1.581+i0.0012	1.520+i0.0012	0.98	0.97	0.74	0.77	0.71	-22.12	-19.43	-22.48
60	1.430+i0	1.589+i0.0012	1.538+i0.0012	0.98	0.97	0.71	0.78	0.74	-23.89	-18.69	-20.77
50	1.443+i0	1.602+i0.0012	1.557+i0.0012	0.98	0.97	0.72	0.78	0.75	-23.37	-18.80	-20.38
40	1.452+i0	1.621+i0.0012	1.577+i0.0012	0.98	0.97	0.65	0.77	0.73	-27.32	-19.14	-21.35

433 ^a Note: these values are given by Valenzuela et al. (2018).

434 ^b This study.

435 **Table 2.** m , $\bar{\omega}$, g and RFE at 532 nm wavelength for AS, *Olea* and AS+*Olea* as function of RH calculated
436 with conventional volume mixing rule for m of the mixture. We have omitted $\bar{\omega}$ for AS in table because it
437 is equal to unit.

438

439 It is interesting to note that *Olea* pollen alone produces a lower cooling effect, practically
440 independent of RH, compared to the radiative effects produced by AS alone. The
441 difference is maximum for a relative humidity above 70% and extreme for a relative
442 humidity of 90%, with a difference in RFE of around $8 \text{ WAOD}^{-1}\text{m}^{-2}$ in absolute value.
443 For the mixture of AS and *Olea* pollen, there is a maximum cooling effect at 80% RH,

444 which is probably due to the lower value of the asymmetry parameter. Although *Olea*
445 pollen contributes to the mixture with AS with a non-zero k , the weight of n becomes
446 more important to the extent that it produces a greater cooling effect than *Olea* pollen
447 alone. Therefore, the presence of *Olea* grains in the atmosphere may have an important
448 thermoregulatory function.

449 If all pollen particles examined in this study cause a radiative effect like *Olea*, then there
450 will be a population of bioaerosol particles that will decrease the cooling effect of pollen
451 on radiative forcing efficiency. Better characterization of the n and k of ambient pollen
452 is required to model its effects more accurately on climate, but even with k being non-
453 zero it may affect climate differently than might be expected.

454

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483 **Notes**

484 The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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498

499

500 **Supporting Information**

501 Additional information about cavity ring down time spectroscopy setup and the procedure
502 to compare extinction cross section data from CRDS to data modelled with Mie theory;
503 verification of our methodology by obtaining the optical properties of sodium chloride as
504 a function of relative humidity.

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Cavity ring down time measurements were measured for single pollen particles for the first time.

The dependency on relative humidity was calculated for extinction cross sections.

Refractive index was retrieved from the fit with Mie theory

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