Highly time-resolved chemical characterization of atmospheric submicron particles during 2008 Beijing Olympic Games using an Aerodyne High-Resolution Aerosol Mass Spectrometer

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21 Abstract

As part of Campaigns of Air Quality Research in Beijing and Surrounding Region–2008 (CAREBeijing-2008), an Aerodyne High-Resolution Time-of-Flight Aerosol Mass Spectrometer (HR-ToF-AMS) was deployed in urban Beijing to characterize submicron aerosol particles during the time of 2008 Beijing Olympic

Games and Paralytic Games (July 24 to September 20, 2008). The campaign mean 26 PM₁ mass concentration was $63.1 \pm 39.8 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$; the mean composition consisted of 27 organics (37.9%), sulfate (26.7%), ammonium (15.9%), nitrate (15.8%), black carbon 28 (3.1%), and chloride (0.87%). The average size distributions of the species (except 29 BC) were all dominated by an accumulation mode peaking at about 600 nm in 30 vacuum aerodynamic diameter, and organics was characterized by an additional 31 smaller mode extending below 100 nm. Positive Matrix Factorization (PMF) analysis 32 33 of the high resolution organic mass spectral dataset differentiated the organic aerosol into four components, i.e., hydrocarbon-like (HOA), cooking-related (COA), and two 34 oxygenated organic aerosols (OOA-1 and OOA-2), which on average accounted for 35 18.1, 24.4, 33.7 and 23.7% of the total organic mass, respectively. The HOA was 36 identified to be closely associated with primary combustion sources, while the COA 37 mass spectrum and diurnal pattern showed similar characteristics to that measured for 38 cooking emissions. The OOA components correspond to aged secondary organic 39 aerosol. Although the two OOA components have similar elemental (O/C, H/C) 40 41 compositions, they display differences in mass spectra and time series which appear to correlate with the different source regions sampled during the campaign. Back 42 trajectory clustering analysis indicated that the southerly air flows were associated 43 with the highest PM₁ pollution during the campaign. Aerosol particles in southern 44 45 airmasses were especially rich in inorganic and oxidized organic species. Aerosol particles in northern airmasses contained a large fraction of primary HOA and COA 46 species, probably due to stronger influences from local emissions. The lowest 47 concentration levels for all major species were obtained during the Olympic game 48 days (August 8 to 24, 2008), possibly due to the effects of both strict emission 49 controls and favorable meteorological conditions. 50

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52 **1. Introduction**

53 Due to China's severe levels of air pollution, the air quality during the 2008 Beijing 54 Olympic Games was of global concern. After Beijing's successful application of the

55 host of the 2008 Olympics in 2001, the Beijing government implemented 8 phases of air pollution control measures including improvements in energy structure, reductions 56 in coal burning emissions from power plants, regulations on vehicular emission 57 standards, closing and moving high-emitting factories, and enforcement of 58 59 construction dust control (Beijing Municipal Government, 2008). Meanwhile, the neighboring administrative regions also enacted emission control measures to 60 decrease regional transport of air pollutants to Beijing (Stone, 2008). A series of 61 62 special temporary measures during which around half of the vehicles (~1.5 million) were removed off roads by an odd-even license car ban and some other traffic 63 restriction measures were also executed in Beijing from July 20th to September 20th, 64 2008. It is necessary and important for both scientific understanding and future policy 65 making to evaluate the effectiveness of these drastic control measures on the air 66 quality of Beijing. Several satellite-based studies have recently indicated significant 67 reduction of air pollutants during the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games (Cermak and 68 Knutti, 2009; Mijling et al., 2009; Witte et al., 2009). For example, based on analysis 69 70 of aerosol optical thickness, Cermak and Knutti (2009) suggested that the magnitude of the aerosol load reduction during the Olympic period was at 10~15% compared to 71 that expected for without emission reductions. A modeling study also supported 72 significant pollutant reduction during the Olympic period (Wang et al., 2010). More 73 74 detailed studies, especially analysis of ground-level measurement results with high time resolution, are necessary to interpret in depth variation of surface air quality 75 during the Olympic period. 76

Particulate matter (PM), especially fine particles, is a crucial air pollutant in urban environments throughout the world. PM is of importance not only due to its direct and indirect radiative forcing effects on climate but also due to its significant adverse health effects. Exposure to high concentrations of submicron particles has been found to lead to more hospitalizations and higher mortality rates (Michaels and Kleinman, 2000; Dockery, 2001; Schwartz et al., 2002). Fine PM is a key air pollutant in Beijing causing frequent low visibility days (Zhang et al., 2010). Over the last decade studies 84 of fine PM in Beijing have revealed that its major chemical components include organic matter (OM), sulfate, nitrate and ammonium; the major sources of the 85 ambient PM include vehicular emissions, coal burning, biomass burning, and 86 secondary formation (e.g., He et al., 2001; Huang et al., 2006; Song et al., 2006; 87 88 Streets et al., 2007). Previous fine PM chemical characterizations were largely based on off-line filter sampling which provides data of coarse time resolution (e.g., 24 h) 89 and limited size information. Sun et al. (2010) recently reported highly time- and 90 91 size-resolved fine PM measurement results in Beijing in the summer of 2006 using an Aerodyne quadrupole aerosol mass spectrometer (Q-AMS). Takegawa et al. (2009) 92 also conducted a Q-AMS study on fine PM at a rural site in Beijing (~ 50 km south of 93 PKU) in the summer of 2006. These in-situ high time resolution measurements 94 95 provide more information on the variability in fine PM chemistry and microphysics than was available before. 96

97 In order to characterize in depth the processes and mechanisms of severe air pollution in Beijing on a regional scale, an international field campaign "Campaigns of Air 98 Quality Research in Beijing and Surrounding Region 2006" (CAREBeijing-2006) 99 100 was conducted in summer 2006. The publications of CAREBeijing-2006 about 101 aerosol studies indicated that aerosol pollution in Beijing was a regional problem on a scale of up to 1000 km (Garland et al., 2009; Jung et al., 2009; Matsui et al., 2009) 102 and high PM periods were usually associated with air masses from the south with high 103 concentrations of sulfate, nitrate, and ammonium (Takegawa et al., 2009; van 104 105 Pinxteren et al., 2009; Yue et al., 2009). However, high time resolution variations of PM were little demonstrated in CAREBeijing-2006. In addition, the complex organic 106 107 aerosol was not classified into different types to explore their corresponding sources and formation mechanisms in CAREBeijing-2006. "Campaigns of Air Quality 108 Research in Beijing and Surrounding Region-2008 (CAREBeijing-2008)" was a 109 follow-up international field campaign of CAREBeijing-2006 led by Peking 110 111 University, which aimed at characterizing the air quality during the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games. As part of CAREBeijing-2008, we deployed a High-Resolution 112

Time-of-Flight Aerosol Mass Spectrometer (HR-ToF-AMS) manufactured by 113 114 Aerodyne Research Inc. (Billerica, MA, USA) in urban Beijing to measure chemical compositions and size distributions of airborne submicron particles with high time 115 resolution. This was the first deployment of an Aerodyne HR-ToF-AMS in China and 116 117 East Asia. Compared to the Q-AMS, the HR-ToF-AMS provides enhanced sensitivity and chemical resolution particularly for particulate organic species (DeCarlo et al., 118 2006; Canagaratna et al., 2007). This paper summarizes and analyzes our primary 119 120 findings in CAREBeijing-2008. A general picture of the fine PM characteristics in Beijing during the unique Olympic period is provided. This paper will provide basic 121 and distinctive information for later studies that aim to comprehensively evaluate the 122 effects of the drastic emission control measures on the air quality in Beijing. 123

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125 2. Experimental methods

126 **2.1 Sampling site description**

HR-ToF-AMS measurement of airborne fine particles was performed continuously 127 between July 24 and September 20, 2008 on the campus of Peking University (PKU) 128 in the northwest of the urban area of Beijing, which is about 750 km². As shown in 129 Fig. S-1, the campus is about 8 km to the west of the Beijing Olympic Park with the 130 National Stadium that was also referred to as the Bird's Nest. An Olympic gymnasium 131 for table tennis was also just inside the campus. The monitoring instruments were 132 deployed inside two rooms on the roof of an academic building that was 15m high. 133 Except a main road about 150 m away to the east, no significant pollution sources 134 exist near the sampling site. Besides the HR-ToF-AMS, the collocated instruments 135 closely relevant to this study included a Multi-Angle Absorption Photometer (MAAP, 136 137 Model 5012, Thermo) for fine particle black carbon (BC) mass measurement and a 138 Twin Differential Mobility Particle Sizer (TDMPS) developed by Institute for Tropospheric Research, Germany, for particle number size distribution measurement 139 140 between 3 and 600 nm.

141 2.2 HR-ToF-AMS measurement and data processing

142 **2.2.1 HR-ToF-AMS**

The instrumental details of the Aerodyne AMS have been presented in many previous 143 publications and reviewed by Canagaratna et al. (2007). The HR-ToF-AMS uses the 144 same aerosol sampling, sizing, vaporization and ionization schemes as those of the 145 Q-AMS (Jayne et al., 2000; Jimenez et al., 2003) and the Compact-ToF-AMS 146 147 (Drewnick et al., 2005). A detailed description of HR-ToF-AMS is given in DeCarlo et al. (2006). The main advantage of the HR-ToF-AMS over previous versions of 148 149 AMS is the much improved ability of identification and separation of isobaric ions 150 (especially for m/z<100) that have the same nominal mass but are slightly different in exact mass due to differences in elemental composition (DeCarlo et al., 2006). As a 151 152 result, the high resolution mass spectral data can provide valuable information on the elemental composition (e.g., C, H, O and N) and thus OM/OC ratio of organic aerosol 153 (Aiken et al., 2007, 2008). 154

It should be noted that all AMS measurements are typically referred to as 155 156 non-refractory PM₁ (NR-PM₁) measurements because: (1) particles with vacuum aerodynamic diameters of 1 µm particles are transmitted through the inlet at an 157 efficiency of ~30-50% depending on exact details of the lens assembly and sampling 158 pressure (Jayne et al., 2000; Liu et al., 2006); (2) only non-refractory species, such as 159 160 ammonium sulfate, ammonium nitrate and OM, can evaporate at the vaporizer temperature (typically 600 °C for ambient measurements) and then be detected 161 (Canagaratna et al., 2007). Although the presence of significant quantities of 162 refractory particles can be detected via comparison between aerosol size distributions 163 and total mass detected, in order to determine the concentrations of refractory species 164 (such as BC and crustal materials) simultaneously, other collocated on-line 165 166 instruments are needed.

167 2.2.2 HR-ToF-AMS operation

A PM_{2.5} cyclone inlet was supported on the roof of the sampling room to remove 168 169 coarse particles and introduce air stream into the room through a copper tube with a flow rate of 10 L min⁻¹. The HR-ToF-AMS sampled isokinetically from the center of 170 the copper tube at a flow rate of 80 cc min⁻¹. During the campaign, the HR-ToF-AMS 171 operated in a cycle of 5 modes every 10 minutes, including: 2 min V-mode to obtain 172 the mass concentrations of the non-refractory species; 2 min W-mode to obtain high 173 resolution mass spectral data; 4 min separate PToF (particle time-of-flight) mode to 174 175 determine size distributions of species under the V-mode; and 2 min Soft-EI mode 176 using a lower EI voltage (~13 eV). The PToF mode was not run under the W-mode because of poor signal-to-noise. The Soft-EI mode data are not included in this paper. 177

The HR-ToF-AMS was calibrated for inlet flow, ionization efficiency (IE), and 178 179 particle sizing at the beginning, the middle and the end of the campaign following the standard protocols (Jayne et al., 2000; Jimenez et al., 2003; Drewnick et al., 2005). 180 The calibration of IE used size-selected pure ammonium nitrate particles and the 181 particle size calibration was conducted using mono-disperse polystyrene latex spheres 182 (PSL, density=1.05 g cm⁻³) (Duke Scientific, Palo Alto, California, USA) with 183 nominal diameters of 100-700 nm. The HR-ToF-AMS detection limits of different 184 185 species were determined by filtered particle-free ambient air and defined as three times the standard deviations of the corresponding species signals (Zhang et al., 186 2005b; DeCarlo et al., 2006; Sun et al., 2009). The detection limits (for 2 min V-mode 187 averaging) of sulfate, nitrate, ammonium, chloride, and organics during the campaign 188 were calculated to be 0.008, 0.004, 0.026, 0.004, and 0.033 μ g m⁻³, respectively. The 189 data obtained between 10 am August 6 and 4 pm August 10 was eliminated from the 190 data analysis due to problems with water vapor condensation inside the sampling 191 tubing. 192

193 2.2.3 HR-ToF-AMS data processing

194 The HR-ToF-AMS provided data with two different resolutions (V-Mode and

195 W-Mode). The lower resolution V-mode data is used to generate unit mass resolution mass spectra from which mass concentrations and size distributions of species are 196 determined. The high mass resolution W mode is used to separate ion fragments that 197 have the same nominal m/z but differing elemental compositions. The W-mode data is 198 199 used to determine the elemental composition information presented in this paper. The details of general HR-ToF-AMS data analysis are available in DeCarlo et al. (2006) 200 and Aiken et al. (2007). Standard ToF-AMS data analysis software packages 201 202 (SQUIRREL version 1.49 and PIKA version 1.08) downloaded from the 203 **ToF-AMS-Resources** webpage (http://cires.colorado.edu/jimenez-group/ToFAMSResources) were used to generate 204 unit and high resolution mass spectra from the V-mode and W-mode data respectively. 205 206 For mass concentration calculations, a particle collection efficiency (CE) factor of 0.5 was used to account for the less than unit detection of particles sampled into the AMS. 207 Many previous field studies have shown that CE values ~0.5 produce mass 208 concentrations that compare well with collocated measurements (Canagaratna et al., 209 210 2007). The relative ionization efficiency (RIE) values used in this study were 1.2 for sulfate, 1.1 for nitrate, 1.3 for chloride and 1.4 for organics (Jimenez et al., 2003). A 211 RIE value of 4.0-4.7 was used for ammonium based on the measurement of pure 212

213 NH₄NO₃ particles.

Compared with unit mass resolution (UMR) spectra, HR mass spectra can provide 214 better separation of different organic components in PMF analysis (Docherty et al., 215 216 2008; Aiken et al., 2009, DeCarlo et al., 2010). Thus, positive matrix factorization (PMF) (Paatero and Tapper, 1994) analysis was conducted on the high resolution (HR) 217 mass spectra (m/z 12-150) measured with HR-ToF-AMS. In this analysis the 218 219 observed data is represented as a bilinear factor model $x_{ij} = \sum_p g_{ip} f_{pj} + e_{ij}$ where x_{ij} are 220 the measured values of *j* species in *i* samples. This model is solved with a least squares fitting process to obtain P factors comprised of constant source profiles $(f_i,$ 221 mass spectra for AMS data) and varying contributions over the time period of the 222 dataset (g_i , time series). The fitting process minimizes Q, which is the summed 223

squares of the ratios between the fit residuals and the error estimates of each data point. The residual at each point is e_{ij} .

The PMF evaluation tool developed by Ulbrich et al. (2009) was used for the analysis. 226 The data and noise matrices input into the PMF analysis were generated with the 227 default fragmentation waves in PIKA version 1.08. The noise values at each data 228 point were calculated as the sum of electronic and Poisson ion-counting errors for the 229 relevant high resolution ion fragment (Allan et al., 2003, Ulbrich et al., 2009). Noise 230 values of CO_2^+ -related ions at m/z 16, 17, 18, 28, and 44 were artificially increased 231 232 (downweighted) according to the procedure discussed by Ulbrich et al. (2009). Ions 233 were also classified and downweighted according to their signal to noise (SNR) ratios 234 as discussed by Ulbrich et al. (2009). Weak ions (0.2<SNR<2) were downweighted by a factor of 3 while bad ions (SNR<0.2) were removed from the analysis (Paatero 235 236 and Hopke (2003). The average noise value observed for ions during low signal time periods was used as the minimum error value for the error matrix. Elemental analysis 237 of the organic components identified by PMF was carried out with the methods 238 239 described previously (Aiken et al., 2007, 2008).

The PMF analysis was performed for 1 to 8 factors, but as shown in Table 1 and 240 discussed below the four factor FPEAK=0 solution was found to provide the most 241 242 reasonable solution. A summary of diagnostics and results from the different factor solutions is shown in Table 1. The Q/Qexpected values shown in the table represent the 243 ratios between the actual sum of the squares of the scaled residuals (Q) obtained from 244 the PMF least square fit and the ideal Q (Qexpected) obtained if the fit residuals at each 245 246 point were equal to the noise specified for each datapoint. As shown in Table 1, PMF solutions with factor numbers greater than 4 provided no new distinct factors and 247 instead displayed splitting behavior of the existing factors. Thus the four factor 248 solution was chosen as the optimal solution. The fact that the Q/Qexp values are 249 250 greater than the ideal value of 1 may be indicative of the fact that that the input noise 251 values underestimate the true noise since they do not include errors associated with the high resolution peak fitting process. It is useful to note, however, that in this case, 252

artificially changing noise values to obtain Q/Qexp values around 1 does not result in 253 any significant changes in factor time trends and mass spectra obtained from the PMF 254 analysis. The sensitivity of the four factor solution to rotation was explored by 255 varying the FPEAK parameter from -3 to 3. The Q/Q_{exp} and the factors obtained for 256 the different FPEAKs, particularly in the -1 to 1 range are nearly identical to each 257 other. The sensitivity of the four factor solution to starting values of the fitted 258 parameters was also explored for a range of 25 seed parameter values. Two distinct 259 260 groups of solutions with slightly different Q/Qexp values were observed. The factors and mass apportionment of the HOA and COA components are very similar between 261 the two groups of solutions. Between the two different groups of solutions, the total 262 OOA mass remains the same, but the average OOA-1 and OOA-2 mass fractions 263 differ by less than 5%. Based on all of these tests the four factor, FPEAK=0, seed=0 264 solution was chosen as the optimal solution for this analysis. 265

266 3. Results and discussion

3.1 PM₁ chemical compositions and size distributions

Fig. 1 shows time-resolved variation of sulfate, nitrate, chloride, ammonium and 268 organic mass concentrations measured with the HR-ToF-AMS (abbreviated as AMS 269 hereafter) and the BC mass concentration from the aethalometer measurement from 270 July 24 to September 20, 2008. The corresponding time series of the meteorological 271 parameters at the sampling site are shown in Fig. S-2. A very broad range of PM₁ 272 mass concentrations between 2.47 and 356 μ g m⁻³ was observed; the mean mass 273 concentration was $63.1 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$. The variation of the particle volume concentration 274 measured by the collocated TDMPS is also plotted in Fig. 1a for comparison. The 275 particle volume concentration is calculated from the directly-measured particle 276 number size distribution between 3 and 600 nm in mobility diameter by assuming 277 spherical particles. It is seen that the two measurements trace each other very closely, 278 with a linear correlation coefficient (R^2) of 0.84. 279

Figs. 1b and 1c show the time series of species mass concentrations and their percent

contributions of the total mass, respectively. All the species varied very largely like 281 the total mass. OM, for example, sometimes reached as high as over 50 μ g m⁻³ and as 282 low as less than 1 μ g m⁻³. As shown in Fig. 1d, on average OM was the most 283 abundant PM₁ species accounting for 37.9% of the total mass, followed by sulfate 284 (26.7%), ammonium (15.9%), nitrate (15.8%), black carbon (3.1%) and chloride 285 (0.87%). The statistical values of the PM₁ species concentrations during the campaign 286 are summarized in Table S-1. During the campaign, the measured NH₄⁺ matched well 287 the NH_4^+ needed to fully neutralize sulfate, nitrate, and chloride (i.e., 288 $2SO_4^2 + NO_3^2 + CI^2$, with a linear correlation coefficient of $R^2 = 0.95$ and a slope of 1.05. 289 Zhang et al. (2007) have summarized previous AMS results from 37 field campaigns 290 in the anthropogenically-influenced Northern Hemisphere mid-latitudes. The average 291 NR-PM₁ mass concentration (61 μ g m⁻³, without BC) in this Olympic campaign is 292 much higher than those observed in developed countries (below 20 μ g m⁻³), but lower 293 than that measured in urban Beijing in 2006 summer (71 μ g m⁻³) by Sun et al. (2010). 294

As the ambient PM₁ mass loading during the campaign varied largely, it is interesting 295 to examine the relative contributions of different species at different total mass 296 297 concentrations. Fig. 1e shows that different species exhibit different trends as the total mass concentrations increased. The percent contributions of OM showed a notable 298 decreasing trend from 46% at 0–10 μ g m⁻³ to 30% at >220 μ g m⁻³ and those of BC 299 also showed a clear decreasing trend. Reversely, the percent contributions of nitrate 300 showed a notable increasing trend as function of PM₁ mass loading, varying from 301 8.3% at 0–10 μ g m⁻³ to 24% at >220 μ g m⁻³. At all mass loading levels, sulfate 302 constituted a relatively stable faction of $\sim 27\%$. It is also inferred from Fig. 1e that 303 304 during severe PM₁ pollution periods, the contributions of inorganic aerosol (mainly (NH₄)₂SO₄+NH₄NO₃) largely exceeded those of carbonaceous aerosol (OM+BC). 305

Fig. 1f presents the average species size distributions determined by AMS during the campaign. Generally, all the species showed an apparent accumulation mode peaking at a large size of ~600 nm, which is indicative of aged regional aerosol (Allan et al., 2003; Alfarra et al., 2004; Zhang et al., 2005c). The signal at vacuum aerodynamic 310 diameters greater than 1000 nm likely reflects the reduced but non-zero transmission of the lens at these sizes as well tailing due to delayed single particle vaporization 311 events (Cross et al., 2009). The very similar size distribution patterns of sulfate, 312 nitrate and ammonium suggest they were likely internally mixed and came from 313 314 similar gas-to-particle processes. The size distribution of OM was much broader at smaller sizes, and the contribution of OM to the total mass was more and more 315 important with the size decreasing, as shown in Fig. 1g. In the ultrafine mode (<100 316 317 nm), OM contributed as high as 86% of the total mass. The prominence of OM at smaller sizes is reasonable considering the fresh emission of carbonaceous particles 318 from vehicles in urban environment, which typically has a mass weighted size 319 distribution peaking at a vacuum aerodynamic diameter of ~100 nm (Canagaratna, et 320 321 al., 2004). The enrichment of OM at smaller sizes was also observed in other urban AMS measurements (e.g., Allan et al., 2003; Alfarra et al., 2004; Zhang et al., 2005c; 322 Aiken et al., 2009). 323

324 **3.2 Diurnal variation of PM₁ species**

Fig. 2 presents the diurnal variation patterns of different PM₁ species in the form of 325 box plot. The diurnal trends of aerosol species are complex outcomes of several 326 327 factors including: (1) more favorable dispersion conditions in the daytime like higher planetary boundary layer (PBL) and wind speeds; (2) more active photochemical 328 production of secondary species in the daytime; (3) gas-particle partitioning of 329 semi-volatile species as a function of ambient temperature and relative humidity; and 330 (4) daily regular local primary emissions like rush hour traffic and cooking. Due to 331 the combined influences of these factors, different species presented different diurnal 332 trends in this campaign. On average, sulfate and ammonium presented a relatively 333 stable concentration level within the 24 hours, except for a slight continuous increase 334 335 in the afternoon. The lowest concentrations of nitrate were observed in the afternoon, 336 suggesting that the amount of its secondary production could not overwhelm its evaporation into gaseous HNO₃ and the dilution by the higher PBL in the afternoon. 337 Particulate nitrate has been observed to form photochemically after sunrise and 338

partially evaporates in the afternoon (Zhang et al., 2005b; Salcedo et al., 2006; 339 340 Hennigan et al., 2008; Zheng et al., 2008). Chloride, in the form of semi-volatile NH₄Cl, shows a trend that is inversely correlated with ambient temperature, which 341 typically reached the highest at $2 \sim 3$ pm and the lowest at $5 \sim 7$ am during the campaign. 342 343 Organic matter has both large primary and secondary sources, and is also influenced by its semi-volatile components. The observed diurnal variation of OM was 344 characterized by a big peak in the evening and another small peak at noon. 345 346 Identification and description of the time trends of different organic components will 347 be discussed in the next section.

348 BC, a tracer species for combustion sources, showed the highest values in the late evening and the lowest values in the afternoon, which is generally similar to the 349 observations of elemental carbon diurnal patterns in Beijing in summer 2006 (Han et 350 al., 2009; Lin et al., 2009). The lower concentrations in the afternoon are a result of 351 352 the high daytime PBL as well as reduced heavy duty diesel truck emissions during the day. Due to Beijing traffic regulations heavy duty diesel truck traffic is several times 353 higher at night than during the day; Han et al. (2009) have linked this increase in 354 nighttime heavy duty diesel traffic to late evening peaks in BC concentrations. During 355 356 the Olympic period, higher emissions of heavy duty vehicles during nighttime were also observed (Beijing Municipal Government, 2008). A clear morning BC peak was 357 also observed in this campaign and could be mainly attributed to the morning rush 358 hour traffic including the passenger flow before the games. It should be noted that the 359 360 diurnal variation of BC mass concentrations during this Olympic campaign (late evening highest/afternoon lowest=1.8) was much smaller than that observed in 361 summer 2006 (late evening highest/afternoon lowest>4), implying a notable traffic 362 control effect of the odd-even license car ban and other traffic restriction measures 363 364 during the Olympic period.

365 3.3 Differentiation of organic components by PMF

366 PMF analysis of the high resolution mass spectra of organics measured throughout the

campaign identified four organic components including a hydrocarbon-like (HOA), a 367 cooking-related (COA), and two oxygenated (OOA-1 and OOA-2) organic aerosol 368 components. The components were examined for their MS signatures, and then for 369 their correlation with tracers, diurnal variations and other characteristics (Zhang et al., 370 2005c; Ulbrich et al., 2009). Fig. 3 shows the MS profiles of the four components, and 371 Figs. 4a–4d show their time series during the campaign. On average, the HOA, COA, 372 OOA-1 and OOA-2 accounted for 18.1, 24.4, 33.7 and 23.7% of the total organic 373 374 mass, respectively, as shown in Fig. 4e.

375 The HOA and COA components, which had low O/C ratios of 0.17 and 0.11 were primarily dominated the ion series of $C_nH_{2n+1}^+$ and $C_nH_{2n-1}^+$, which are characteristics 376 of organic aerosol MS from primary emission sources (Canagaratna et al., 2004; Mohr 377 et al., 2009) respectively. The HOA concentrations correlated well with those of BC 378 $(R^2=0.45)$ and their diurnal patterns were quite similar (Fig. 4f and Fig. 2), indicating 379 380 the HOA was also from combustion processes. The HOA component has been extensively identified in previous factor analyses of AMS ambient aerosol datasets 381 and mainly attributed to primary combustion sources (Zhang et al., 2007; Lanz et al., 382 383 2007; Ulbrich et al., 2009). The O/C ratio (=0.17) of the HOA identified here is 384 significantly higher than 0.03–0.04 measured for direct emissions from diesel and gasoline vehicles (Mohr et al., 2009). However, a similar elevated O/C ratio of 0.18 385 was also observed for the HOA component extracted by PMF analysis of an urban 386 AMS dataset from Mexico City (Aiken et al., 2009). It is useful to note that biomass 387 burning, a known primary source with a relatively higher O/C ratio (0.3–0.4), seemed 388 not to have contributed significantly because there was negligible m/z 60, a tracer ion 389 390 for biomass burning-emitted aerosols, in the HOA MS (Alfarra et al., 2007; Aiken et 391 al., 2009).

The COA MS extracted in this study has very similar O/C ratio (= 0.11) to those measured for chicken and hamburger cooking (0.11–0.14). The MS of the COA is characterized by most prominent ions of m/z 41 (mainly $C_3H_5^+$) and m/z 55 (mainly $C_4H_7^+$), which indicates large presence of unsaturated organic compounds (e.g., 396 unsaturated fatty acids) and is well consistent with the MS characteristics measured 397 for primary Chinese cooking emissions (He et al., 2010). For more details about the comparison between the MS of the COA and primary Chinese cooking emissions, 398 399 please refer to another our recent publication (He et al., 2010). A clear and unique diurnal pattern of COA provides another piece of strong evidence for it being 400 cooking-related: it presented a small peak at noon and a large peak in the evening, 401 according with the lunch and dinner times of the local residents. The COA did not 402 significantly correlate with BC ($R^2=0.10$), consistent with previous measurements that 403 carbonaceous aerosols emitted from Chinese cooking are almost purely organic (He et 404 al., 2004; Zhao et al., 2007). Due to the unique Chinese cooking habits and culture, 405 cooking emissions have been regarded as one of the major organic aerosol sources in 406 407 Chinese unban environments (He et al., 2004; Zhao et al., 2007). Therefore, it was a consequential result to identify a notable cooking-related organic aerosol component 408 409 in this study. Mohr et al. (2009) pointed out that motor vehicles, plastic burning and meat cooking are very likely to be retrieved as a single component in PMF analysis of 410 411 AMS data due to the similarity of their UMR spectra, but utilization of HR-ToF-AMS may allow better separation of meat cooking from the other primary sources due to 412 the larger differences in HR spectra. Our PMF results are consistent with this 413 hypothesis. 414

The MS of the two OOA components were both characterized by prominent $C_xH_yO_z$ 415 fragments, especially CO_2^+ (m/z 44), suggesting large presence of oxidized organic 416 compounds. OOAs have been extensively identified in previous AMS studies and 417 418 shown to be a good surrogate of SOA (Zhang et al., 2005c; Zhang et al., 2007; Jimenez et al., 2009; Ng et al., 2010; Sun et al., 2010). Two types of OOAs with 419 different O/C ratios and volatilities have been observed in many ambient datasets: the 420 OOA with higher O/C, which is more oxidized and aged, is referred to as 421 low-volatility OOA (LV-OOA); the OOA with lower O/C, which is less oxidized and 422 fresher, is referred to as semi-volatile OOA (Jimenez et al., 2009; Ng et al., 2010). 423 OOA time trends typically correlate well with those of inorganic secondary species 424

with SV-OOA correlating best with semi-volatile aerosol nitrate and LV-OOA correlating better with the less volatile sulfate (Docherty et al., 2008; Huffman et al., 2009; Jimenez et al., 2009; Ng et al., 2010). Ng et al. (2010) recently summarized the O/C ratio ranges of OOAs based on global AMS measurements and indicated a wide range of O/C for both LV-OOA (0.73 ± 0.14) and SV-OOA (0.35 ± 0.14) components, reflecting the fact that there is a continuum of OOA properties in ambient aerosol.

While the OOA components extracted during this campaign have different mass 431 spectra, they have similar O/C ratios of 0.48 (OOA-1) and 0.47 (OOA-2), which lie in 432 433 the SV-OOA to LV-OOA overlap region observed for northern hemispheric O/Cs 434 (Jimenez et al., 2009; Ng et al., 2010). Moreover, both OOAs correlate best with aerosol nitrate and have poorer correlations with aerosol sulfate (Fig. S-3). This 435 indicates that the mass spectral and temporal differences in the OOA observed in this 436 437 campaign are not a result of large differences in O/C and/or volatility. The two types of OOAs observed in this campaign appear to correlate instead with meteorological 438 changes at the site and most likely correspond to differing background OOA 439 compositions from different source regions. As shown in Fig. 5 in section 3.4, the 440 441 OOA-2/OOA-1 ratio was more dominant in air masses from the south (0.77~0.94) than in air masses from the north $(0.39 \sim 0.75)$. Thus, in this paper we refer to the two 442 types of OOA as OOA-1 and OOA-2 instead of LV-OOA and SV-OOA respectively. 443 In general, OOA-2 correlated better with sulfate and nitrate than OOA-1, indicating 444 that the source regions of OOA-2 were more similar to those of SO₂ and NO_x 445 446 emissions, consistent with the back trajectory analysis in section 3.4. When considering OOA-1 and OOA-2 together, the sum of them showed high correlation 447 with the sum of sulfate and nitrate ($R^2=0.68$, in Fig. S-3), but no correlation with the 448 sum of HOA and COA (R^2 =0.04, in Fig. S-3), confirming their secondary nature and 449 representativeness of SOA. Similarly, in a Q-AMS study conducted in urban Beijing 450 in summer 2006, Sun et al. (2010) also observed tight correlations (R^2 =0.69) between 451 total OOA and total secondary inorganic species $(SO_4^{2-}+NO_3^{-})$. The average 452 $(OOA-1+OOA-2)/(SO_4^{2}+NO_3)$ ratios are almost the same (≈ 0.42) between the two 453

studies too. However, tighter correlations between OOA-1 and sulfate and between
OOA-2 and nitrate were observed in summer 2006 (Sun et al., 2010).

456 **3.4 Back trajectory clustering analysis**

To explore the influence of regional transport on PM₁ loading and composition during 457 458 the Olympic campaign, back trajectory (BT) analysis was performed using the 459 HYbrid Single Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory (HYSPLIT4) model developed by NOAA/ARL (Draxler and Rolph, 2003). Firstly, 48-h back trajectories 460 staring at 500 m above ground level in Beijing (39.99°, 116.31°) were calculated 461 every 6 h (at 0, 6, 12 and 18 o'clock, local time) during the entire campaign; the 462 463 trajectories were then clustered according to their similarity in spatial distribution using the HYSPLIT4 software. The clustering principles and processes are described 464 465 in the user's guide of the software (Draxler et al., 2009). Five-cluster solution was adopted because of its small total spatial variance, and the mean BT of each cluster 466 was exhibited in Fig. 5. The southerly BT group, cluster S, was found to be the most 467 frequent one, accounting for 45.7% of all BTs, which is an expected result of the 468 typical summer meteorology in Beijing. Clusters SE, NE, NWN, and NWW 469 accounted for 20.1, 12.3, 11.9 and 10.0% of all BTs, respectively. 470

As a second step, the PM₁ chemical compositions corresponding to the BTs in each 471 cluster were averaged, which is also exhibited in Fig. 5. Clusters S represents the most 472 polluted air mass origin with a mean PM₁ mass concentration of 80.1 μ g m⁻³ followed 473 by clusters SE (72.8 μ g m⁻³), NWW (48.2 μ g m⁻³), NWN (44.2 μ g m⁻³) and NE (37.0 474 $\mu g m^{-3}$) in sequence. This finding is generally consistent with some previous studies 475 that also revealed severe aerosol pollution in southerly air flow in summer Beijing 476 (Streets et al., 2007; Jia et al., 2008; Zhao et al., 2009; Sun et al., 2010). Emission 477 inventory and satellite studies also pointed out high emissions to the south of Beijing 478 but much less emissions to the north (Cao et al., 2006; Guo et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 479 2009). Sun et al. (2010) performed similar back trajectory analysis for their Q-AMS 480 481 measurement results in Beijing in summer 2006 and observed a mean NR-PM₁ mass

482 concentration of 114 μ g m⁻³ for the southerly BTs. In comparison, the NR-PM₁ 483 pollution level (78.5 μ g m⁻³, without BC) associated with the southerly BTs in the 484 Olympic campaign was largely decreased by 31%, suggesting possible pollution 485 control effects during the Olympic period. However, this difference could also be 486 influenced to some extent by the agreement of the different AMS instruments used.

487 Different PM₁ species showed different BT-dependence characteristics and can be roughly classified into two types: BC, HOA, COA and OOA-1 accounted for larger 488 fractions of the observed aerosol mass in northerly air masses; in contrast, sulfate, 489 490 nitrate, chloride, ammonium and OOA-2 accounted for more of the mass in the high 491 concentration air masses associated with clusters S and SE. This suggests that the high concentration PM₁ associated with southerly air masses are dominated by secondary 492 regional aerosol constituents while the northerly air masses have a larger contribution 493 from local, primary aerosol emissions. Similar conclusions were made based on a 494 495 Q-AMS study in Beijing in summer 2006 (Sun et al., 2010). However, the statistical significance of this BT analysis here may be significantly higher due to the much 496 longer measurement period. 497

498 **3.5** Comparison of PM₁ characteristics in different periods

499 To examine in more detail the PM₁ pollution during the Olympic game days, the entire campaign was divided into three periods including before the Olympics (BO, 500 501 July 23–August 7), during the Olympics (DO, August 8–24) and after the Olympics (AO, August 25–September 20). The average PM₁ compositions in the three periods 502 are compared in Fig. 6. The mean PM_1 mass concentration in DO was 47.0 μg m⁻³, 503 much lower than in BO (87.5 μ g m⁻³) and AO (66.8 μ g m⁻³). All the PM₁ components 504 except COA, OOA-1 and OOA-2 had the lowest concentration levels in DO among 505 the three periods, as shown in Fig. 6. The large bulk decease of PM₁ loading in DO 506 may have both meteorological and emission control influence. Firstly, although the 507 entire campaign was within the officially announced emission control period (July 508 509 20-September 20), the control measures were inferred to be executed more strictly in 510 DO. Secondly, the meteorology of the DO period was characterized by a lower 511 fraction of cluster S (the one associated with highest PM_1 loading; Fig. 5) and a higher 512 fraction of cluster NWN (a cleaner one; Fig. 5), as compared in section 3.4. To 513 quantify the relative importance of the responsible factors leading to the lower PM_1 514 loading in DO, detailed modeling work is needed, which is beyond the scope of this 515 study.

COA showed the highest concentrations in AO. Due to Olympic security, the actual 516 population of Beijing was largely decreased in BO and DO and this may have led to 517 518 less daily food consumption/cooking in the immediate Beijing area. Lower cooking 519 activities in the DO period could also be assumed judging from occupancies in common restaurants during that time. After the closing ceremony of the Olympics, 520 however, the floating population such as migrant workers began to return to Beijing 521 and cooking emissions went back to normal. Although the total OOA presented a 522 523 pattern with the lowest concentrations in DO, it was a combined result of the different trends of OOA-1 and OOA-2: OOA-1 showed an increasing trend from BO, DO to 524 AO, while OOA-2 showed the highest concentrations in BO and much lower 525 concentrations in DO and AO. 526

527

528 4. Conclusions

As part of the CAREBeijing-2008 campaign, a HR-ToF-AMS was deployed in urban 529 Beijing to characterize submicron particles during the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games 530 (July 24 to September 20, 2008). PM₁ mass concentrations, measured with 10 min 531 time resolution, varied largely between 2.47 and 356 μ g m⁻³ during the campaign, 532 with an average of 63.1 μ g m⁻³. Organic species were the most abundant PM₁ 533 components accounting for 37.9% of the total mass. The other PM₁ components 534 include sulfate (26.7%), ammonium (15.9%), nitrate (15.8%), black carbon (3.1%) 535 536 and chloride (0.87%) in sequence. The percent contribution of nitrate and ammonium increased significantly with total PM₁ loading. The percent contribution of organics, 537 on the other hand, decreases with total PM₁ loading. The average size distributions of 538

the species (excluding BC) were all dominated by an accumulation mode peaking at 539 ~ 600 nm in D_{va}, and moreover, organics was characterized by an additional smaller 540 mode extending below 100 nm due to combustion sources. Positive Matrix 541 Factorization (PMF) analysis of the high resolution organic mass spectral dataset 542 identified four organic components (HOA, COA, OOA-1 and OOA-2), which on 543 average accounted for 18.1, 24.4, 33.7 and 23.7% of the total organic mass, 544 respectively. The HOA was identified to be closely associated with primary 545 546 combustion sources as in previous studies. The COA mass spectrum and diurnal pattern showed similar characteristics to that measured for cooking emissions. The 547 elemental compositions of the OOA-1 and OOA-2 are similar and these two types of 548 OOA appear to reflect the different source regions sampled throughout the campaign. 549 550 Air masses from the south contained aerosol with a dominant fraction of secondary inorganic and organic material. Aerosol observed in air masses from the north was 551 dominated by organic material and most of the organic mass was accounted for by 552 primary HOA and COA sources. The PM₁ mass concentrations of all species 553 554 decreased during the Olympic game days (August 8 to 24, 2008), likely due to both strict emission controls and favorable meteorological conditions. 555

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Table 1. Description of PMF Solutions obtained for this dataset.

# Factors	FPEAK	Seed	Q/Q _{expected}	Solution Description	
1	0	0	8.4	Too few factors. Large residuals at key m/z's and time periods.	
2	0	0	6	Too Few factors. Large Residuals at key m/z's and time periods.	
3	0	0	5.3	Too few factors (OOA-, HOA-, and COA- like). Factor time trends, diurnal cycles, and spectra appear mixed with each other.	
4	0	0	4.887	Optimum number of Factors (OOA-1, OOA-2, HOA, COA). Distinctive diurnal cycles for Factors and MS that compare well with database MS.	
5 to 8	0	0	4.7-4.3	Splitting, particularly in the OOA factors. When factors split unrealistic zeros are observed in factor time series. MS with single m/z peaks are also observed. Some of the split factors have time series and MS that appear mixed.	
4	3 to -3	0	4.92-4.9	In FPEAK range -1<0<1, Factor MS and Time series are nearly identical. For larger FPEAK range, unreasonable zeros observed in time series and mass spectra.	
4	0	0 to 250 in steps of 10	Two sets: 4.887 and 4.898	COA and HOA factors trends and MS are nearly identical for both sets. OOA1/OOA2 ratio varies by 5% between the two sets.	



Fig. 1. Chemical compositions and size distributions of PM_1 during the campaign: time series of (a) the PM_1 mass concentrations by AMS species+BC and TDMPS; (b) the AMS species and BC; (c) the percent chemical composition; (d) the average chemical composition; (e) the variation of the percent composition with the PM_1 mass concentration; (f) the average size distributions of AMS species; (g) the variation of the percent composition with size.



Fig. 2. Diurnal variation box plots of PM₁ species. The upper and lower boundaries of
boxes indicate the 75th and 25th percentiles; the line within the box marks the median;
the whiskers above and below boxes indicate the 90th and 10th percentiles; and cross
symbols represent the means.



Fig. 3. The MS profiles of the four OA components of this study identified by PMF.



Fig. 4. Time series of (a-d) the OA components and other relevant species, (e) the

average OA component contributions, and (f) the diurnal variations.



Fig. 5. The back trajectory clusters associated the corresponding average PM₁
compositions during the campaign. The inserted bar graph shows the directional
variation of BTs before the Olympics (BO, July 23–August 7), during the Olympics
(DO, August 8–24) and after the Olympics (AO, August 25–September 20).



- Fig. 6. The comparison of PM_1 compositions before the Olympics (BO, July
- 795 23–August 7), during the Olympics (DO, August 8–24) and after the Olympics (AO,
- August 25–September 20).
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	Mean	1σ	Median	Minimum	Maximum		
	PM ₁ species						
Sulfate	16.8	13.5	13.1	0.04	92.4		
Ammonium	10.0	7.8	8.2	0.29	62.6		
Nitrate	10.0	9.6	7.4	0.01	84.8		
Chloride	0.55	0.73	0.30	<d.l.< th=""><th>13.1</th></d.l.<>	13.1		
Organics	23.9	15.4	21.1	0.16	171		
BC	1.9	1.1	1.78	0.02	7.1		
PM ₁	63.1	39.7	56.5	2.47	356		

Table S-1. Summarization of PM_1 species concentrations during the campaign.



Fig. S-1. The location of the sampling site in Beijing. The background map wasdownloaded from www.ebeijing.gov.cn.



Fig. S-2. Time series of the meteorological parameters at the sampling site.





Fig. S-3. Scatter plots of the correlation among major PM₁ species.