Atmos. Chem. Phys. Discuss., 13, 6631–6679, 2013 www.atmos-chem-phys-discuss.net/13/6631/2013/ doi:10.5194/acpd-13-6631-2013 © Author(s) 2013. CC Attribution 3.0 License.



This discussion paper is/has been under review for the journal Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics (ACP). Please refer to the corresponding final paper in ACP if available.

VOC emissions, evolutions and contributions to SOA formation at a receptor site in Eastern China

B. Yuan^{1,*}, W. W. Hu^{1,**}, M. Shao¹, M. Wang¹, W T.. Chen¹, S. H. Lu¹, L. M. Zeng¹, and M. Hu¹

¹State Joint Key Laboratory of Environmental Simulation and Pollution Control, College of Environmental Sciences and Engineering, Peking University, Beijing, 100871, China ^{*}now at: Earth System Research Laboratory, Chemical Sciences Division, NOAA, 325 Broadway, Boulder, Colorado 80305, USA

^{**}now at: Cooperative Institute for Research in Environmental Sciences, University of Colorado, Boulder, CO 80309, USA

Received: 6 December 2012 - Accepted: 5 March 2013 - Published: 13 March 2013

Correspondence to: M. Shao (mshao@pku.edu.cn)

Published by Copernicus Publications on behalf of the European Geosciences Union.





Abstract

Volatile organic compounds (VOCs) were measured by two online instruments (GC-FID/MS and PTR-MS) at a receptor site on Changdao Island (37.99° N, 120.70° E) in eastern China. Reaction with OH radical dominated the chemical loss of most VOC
 species during the Changdao campaign. A photochemical age based parameterization method is used to calculate VOC emission ratios and to quantify the evolution of ambient VOCs. The calculated emission ratios of most hydrocarbons agree well with those obtained from emission inventory, but the emission ratios of oxygenated VOCs (OVOCs) are significantly lower than those from emission inventory. The photochemical age based parameterization method is also used to investigate primary emissions and secondary formation of organic aerosol. The primary emission ratio of OA to CO are determined to be 14.9 µgm⁻³ ppm⁻¹ and SOA are produced at an enhancement ratio of 18.8 µgm⁻³ ppm⁻¹ to CO after 50 h of photochemical processing in the atmosphere. SOA formation is significantly higher than the level determined from VOC oxidation

- under both high-NO_x (2.0 µgm⁻³ ppm⁻¹ CO) and low-NO_x condition (6.5 µgm⁻³ ppm⁻¹ CO). Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) and higher alkanes (> C10) account for as high as 17.4 % of SOA formation, which suggests semi-volatile organic compounds (SVOCs) may be a large contributor to SOA formation during the Changdao campaign. SOA formation potential of primary VOC emissions determined from both field campaigns and emission inventory in China are lower than the measured SOA lev-
- els reported in Beijing and Pearl River Delta (PRD), indicating SOA formation cannot be explained by VOC oxidation in this regions. SOA budget in China is estimated to be 5.0–13.7 Tgyr⁻¹, with a fraction of at least 2.7 Tgyr⁻¹ from anthropogenic emissions, which are much higher than the previous estimates from regional models.





1 Introduction

Volatile organic compounds (VOCs) are key constituents in the atmosphere, as precursors of tropospheric ozone and secondary organic aerosols (SOA). VOCs are oxidized by OH radical, ozone and NO_3 radical as soon as they are emitted from primary sources

into the atmosphere. VOC lifetimes in the atmosphere are controlled by the rate constants of VOCs with these oxidants, which span across several orders of magnitude (Parrish et al., 2007). In most environments, reaction with OH radical is the dominant sink for various VOCs (Warneke et al., 2004). Oxygenated VOCs (OVOCs) can also be formed from the oxidations of other VOC species (de Gouw et al., 2005). Thus, VOC evolution provides a perspective to understand the chemical mechanisms in the atmosphere (Apel et al., 2010).

Although SOA formation in the atmosphere has been of concern since 1980s, recent evidences showed that ambient SOA concentrations are significantly larger than the predicted levels (de Gouw et al., 2005; Heald et al., 2005; Matsui et al., 2009;

- ¹⁵ Volkamer et al., 2006). The reasons for the discrepancies are found in the latest laboratory and field measurements: (1) SOA yields of many VOC species have strong dependence with NO_x level (Ng et al., 2007); (2) small VOC species are also identified as important SOA precursors (Volkamer et al., 2007, 2009); (3) SOA formation from biogenic-originated VOCs could be enhanced by anthropogenic emissions (Gold-
- stein et al., 2009); (4) semi-volatile organic compounds are significant contributors to SOA formation (Robinson et al., 2007). Using these new findings, the gaps between measured and modeled SOA concentrations are significantly reduced in some environments (Bahreini et al., 2009; Dzepina et al., 2009; Capes et al., 2009), but the physical/chemical poperties of SOA (e.g. O:C ratio) are found to be difficult to reproduce.

The importance of SOA in organic aerosol in China was initially explored by OC/EC ratios (organic carbon to element carbon) in various environments (X. Zhang et al., 2008) and chemical mass balance (CMB) models by using organic molecular as tracers



(Zheng et al., 2005). Recently, the results from aerosol mass spectrometer (AMS) showed that SOA accounted for about half of organic aerosols at urban sites (Huang et al., 2010) and even higher at rural sites (Huang et al., 2011). Recently, regional air quality models were used to study SOA formation in China (Fu et al., 2012; Jiang

- et al., 2012; Han et al., 2008). The modeled concentrations and budgets of SOA in these studies have strong dependence on the estimates in VOC emission inventory of China, associated with large uncertainties (Zhang et al., 2009). The uncertainties of emission inventory prevent, at least partially, an accurate judgment on the discrepancies between modeling results and ambient measurements (Jiang et al., 2012).
- ¹⁰ Central Eastern China (CEC) has been identified as a hotspot of air pollution, with high density of population in China (van Donkelaar et al., 2010). Ground-based and satellite measurements show that the levels of air pollutants, such as NO₂ (van der A et al., 2008) and formaldehyde (De Smedt et al., 2010), keep on increasing. The impact of Central Eastern China outflow to other neighboring countries (e.g. Korea and
- Japan) and West Pacific Ocean has been of increasing concern (Kondo et al., 2011). An intensive filed campaign (Campaign of Air Pollution at Typical Coastal Areas In Eastern China, CAPTAIN), aiming at transport and evolution of trace gases and aerosol in the outflow of Central Eastern China, was conducted in 20 March–25 April 2011. VOCs and organic aerosol were simultaneously measured at a rural site using the
- state-of-the-art instruments. In this study, VOC evolution and SOA formation will be investigated by a parameterization method based on photochemical age. The determined VOC emission ratios in the campaign are compared with those obtained in other regions and in emission inventory. SOA formation from VOC oxidation are calculated and compared with the measured SOA. The reasons for discrepancies between meaeveral and extended SOA will be further surfaced.
- ²⁵ sured and calculated SOA will be further explored.





2 Measurements

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A rural receptor site on Changdao Island (Changdao, Fig. 1) was selected for this campaign. Changdao Island lies between Liaoning Peninsula and Jiaodong Peninsula, 20 km off from the coast of mainland. The sampling site (37.99° N, 120.70° E) was on the top of a hill with a height about 30 m. In this study, VOCs were measured by two on-

- line instruments, namely gas chromatography with a mass spectrometer detector and a flame ionization detector (GC-MS/FID) and a proton transfer reaction mass spectrometer (PTR-MS).
- The custom built online GC-MS/FID was a two-channel system and was capable of measuring C2–C10 hydrocarbons and selected C2–C5 carbonyls. This system was described by our previous paper (Yuan et al., 2012) and only small modifications of the system were presented here. Samples are collected into GC-MS/FID for 5 min every 1 h at a flow of 60 mLmin⁻¹. Most of the C2–C5 hydrocarbons were measured by the FID channel and other species were recorded from the MS channel. In the first period (20
- ¹⁵ March–1 April) of the campaign, internal standards were injected to the system after collecting the ambient samples to record the variability of the instrument stability. However, the injection of internal standard brought some interference from the sampling lines or the internal standard canister. Internal standard was abandoned in the second period of the campaign (2–25 April). The signal variations of various VOC species due
- to system instability were corrected by the signal of 1,1,2-trichloro-1,2,2-trifluoroethane (CFC-113). As a result of small emissions, concentrations of CFC-113 are quite stable in a period of 1 month in the atmosphere. Sensitivities of various VOC species were calibrated by two gas standards with 55 and 63 compounds, respectively (Spectra Gases Inc., USA and Apel-Riemer Environmental Inc., USA). The precision of the
- system for hydrocarbons and OVOCs were better than 5 % and 10 %, respectively. The measured uncertainties of different species were calculated to be lower than 15 %. Detection limits for various compounds were in the range of 0.002–0.070 ppb (Yuan et al., 2012).





VOCs were also measured by a commercial PTR-MS (Ionicon Analytik, Innsbruck, Austria). The setup of the instrument was identical to the Beijing measurements in our previous paper (Yuan et al., 2012). Six additional masses were recorded (m/z 54, m/z83, m/z 89, m/z 95, m/z 129 and m/z 135) during the Changdao campaign, resulting in a total of 28 masses during the campaign. Background signals were measured 5 for 15 min every 2.5 h by passing ambient air through a Platinum catalyst converter at 350°C (Shimadzu Inc., Japan). Aromatics, oxygenates, isoprene and acetonitrile were calibrated by a cylinder gas standard from Apel-Riemer Environmental Inc., USA. Formic acid (m/z 47), acetic acid (m/z 61) and monoterpenes (m/z 81 and m/z 137) were calibrated by permeation tubes (Kin-Tek, USA). The interferences of ethyl acetate to acetic acid at m/z 61 were corrected by m/z 89 signals (Fig. S1). M/z 129 was attributed to naphthalene (Bon et al., 2011) and its sensitivity was adapted from calibration factor of C10 aromatics in the channel of m/z 135. Measurement uncertainty of naphthalene is somewhat larger than other species and it is estimated to be within

An Aerodyne high resolution time of flight aerosol mass spectrometer (HR-TOF-

AMS) was also deployed at the site to continuously measure the chemical compositions of submicron aerosols (PM₁), including sulfate, nitrate, chlorine, ammonium and

organic aerosol (OA). Chemical compositions of PM₁ were reported at a time resolu-

tion of 4 min. A detailed description of the AMS system setup and data processing are

Photolysis frequencies were determined from actinic flux spectra recorded by a Multi-Channel Spectrometer (MCS) with photodiode array (PDA) (CarlZeiss MicroImaging

GmbH). CO was measured by a commercial non-dispersive infrared sensor (NDIR)

basing on gas filter correlation method (Thermo Environmental Instruments, TEI Inc.,

Model 48C). NO and NO₂ were measured by a chemiluminescence trace level analyzer (Ecotech Model 9841). Ozone was measured by an UV adsorption ozone analyzer

(TEI, Model 49C). Temperature, relative humidity, wind speed and wind direction were

shown in a separate paper (Hu et al., 2013).

obtained from Bureau of Meteorology of Changdao County.

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15 **50%**.





During the campaign, two biomass burning plumes were identified from acetonitrile concentrations and CO concentration on 31 March and 6 April, respectively. Changdao site was also occasionally influenced by coal burning emissions from nearby small factories. Coal burning plumes were identified from the spikes of naphthalene, benzene and CO concentrations. Measurement data during the periods with influences from biomass burning and coal burning were filtered out from the analysis in this study. The filtered data from various instruments are averaged according to sampling time of GC-MS/FID for the further analysis.

3 Results

10 3.1 VOC concentrations and variation with winds

Measured hydrocarbons and OVOC species and their average concentrations are listed in Table 1 and Table 2, respectively. The total measured concentrations of hydrocarbons and OVOCs during the Changdao campaign were 16.0±9.1 ppb and 12.7±8.1 ppb, respectively. The total concentrations of hydrocarbons are significant
¹⁵ lower than those measured in urban cities (e.g. Beijing) in the Central Eastern China region (Shao et al., 2011). Alkanes (including acetylene with a low reactivity) are the dominant contributors to hydrocarbon concentrations (67.2%). The percentages of alkenes, aromatics in hydrocarbons concentrations are only 18.9%, 13.9%, respectively. The fractions of three main classes in the hydrocarbons are consistent with the results obtained at the suburban and rural sites around Paijing (Wang et al., 2010).

²⁰ results obtained at the suburban and rural sites around Beijing (Wang et al., 2010). The average concentrations of isoprene, MVK and MACR were 0.01 ± 0.01 , 0.02 ± 0.01 and 0.03 ± 0.01 , respectively. It indicates that biogenic emissions were not important at Changdao site during the campaign. The low concentrations of biogenic species are not surprising, since the measurement period was not the growing season of plants.

²⁵ Figure 1 also shows the wind rose plot and the distribution of benzene and CO concentrations at each wind direction. Wind mainly came from two directions during the





campaign: south/southwest and north/northwest. Wind speeds from north were usually higher than 4 m s⁻¹. The strong north wind usually accompanied with low temperature and the invasion of cold front originated from northern China and Mongolia (Fig. S2). During this period, the concentrations of benzene and CO were both low (e.g. 2 April

- ⁵ and 18 April, Fig. S2). The possible reasons are: (1) higher wind speeds facilitate dilution in the atmosphere; (2) lower burden of emissions in northeastern China; (3) longer distance of transport from emission sources to the measurement site. Contrast to north wind, Changdao site received outflow of nearby Shandong province with high-density emissions as south/southwest wind was prevalent. Average concentrations of benzene and CO were 0.6–0.8 ppb and 0.8 ppm during the south wind period. CO and benzene 10
- concentrations were also high from northwest, at which direction Beijing and Tianjin are located.

The relative importance of VOC oxidation pathways 3.2

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ACPD



VOCs are mainly consumed by the reactions with OH radical, ozone and NO₃ radical in the atmosphere (Atkinson and Arey, 2003). VOC loss rate (L_{VOC}) in the atmosphere can be expressed by:

$$L_{\rm VOC} = \sum_{i}^{3} k \times [\rm VOC] \times [\rm Oxidant]$$

[VOC] and [Oxidant] are mixing ratios of VOC species and the oxidants (OH radical, ozone or NO₃ radical), respectively. k is the rate constant of VOC species with the oxidants (see Table S1).

With the exception of ozone, OH radical and NO₃ radical were not measured at Changdao. OH radical concentration (in molecule cm^{-3}) can be estimated from (Ehhalt and Rohrer, 2000):

$$[OH] = 4.1 \times 10^9 \times (J_{O^1D})^{0.83} \times (J_{NO_2})^{0.19} \times \frac{140 \times [NO_2] + 1}{0.41 \times [NO_2]^2 + 1.7 \times [NO_2] + 1}$$

6638

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Here, J_{O^1D} and J_{NO_2} are measured photolysis frequency (s⁻¹) of ozone and NO₂, respectively. [NO₂] is measured NO₂ concentration (ppb). The uncertainty in the calculation of OH concentration is estimated to within 50 % (Zheng et al., 2011). NO₃ concentration could be determined by:

$${}_{5} \quad [NO_{3}] = \frac{P(NO_{3})}{R(NO_{3})} = \frac{k_{NO_{2}+O_{3}}[NO_{2}][O_{3}]}{J_{NO_{3}} + k_{NO+NO_{3}}[NO] + \sum_{i} k_{NO_{3}+VOC_{i}}[VOC]_{i}}$$
(3)

The derivation of this equation is based on the steady state assumption of NO₃ concentration in the atmosphere. $P(NO_3)$ is the production rate of NO₃, mainly from the reaction of NO₂ with O₃. $R(NO_3)$ represents NO₃ reactivity, which is composed by NO₃ photolysis (J_{NO_3}), the reaction of NO₃ with NO ($k_{NO+NO_3}[NO]$) and the reactions of NO₃ with the measured VOC species ($\sum_i k_{NO_3+VOC_i}[VOC]_i$). The involved reactions and related parameters in the calculation of NO₃ concentration could be found in the supporting information. Note that NO₃ loss due to N₂O₅ hydrolysis is not accounted in Eq. (3). Thus, NO₃ concentration calculated from Eq. (3) are upper limits and the calculation of NO₃ contributions to VOC losses is also overestimated. A rough estimation shows that uncertainties of NO₃ concentrations from Eq. (3) are within a factor of 2. Besides the reactions with the three oxidants, OVOC species can also undergo photolysis in the atmosphere. The photolysis frequencies of OVOC species are scaled from

the measured photolysis frequency of NO₂ (J_{NO_2}) and calculated photolysis frequency of NO₂ ($J_{NO_2, calculated}$) and OVOCs ($J_{OVOC, calculated}$) from parameterization equations ²⁰ using the solar zenith angle (SZA) as input information (Eq. 4) (Saunders et al., 2003). The determined formaldehyde photolysis frequencies show good agreements with measured values from the photometer, with a slope of 0.966 and a correlation coefficient (*R*) of 0.998.

$$J_{\text{OVOC}} = J_{\text{NO}_2} \times \frac{J_{\text{NO}_2, \text{ calculated}}}{J_{\text{OVOC}, \text{ calculated}}}$$

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(4)

Diurnal variations of VOC loss rates due to the reactions with different oxidants are shown in Fig. S3. Reaction with OH radical is the dominant photochemical loss for alkanes and aromatics (e.g. m + p-xylene). Reactions with NO₃ and ozone are insignificant for the loss rates of alkanes and aromatics. Due to ozone can react with alkenes at significant rates, oxidation by ozone also contribute to the loss rates of alkanes. For example, reaction with ozone accounts for 21.2% of the 24-h averaged loss rate of ethene in Changdao. Contrast to anthropogenic hydrocarbons, the oxidation by NO₃ radical is more important for the loss rates of isoprene and monoterpenes. Reaction with NO₃ radical contributes to 25.7% and 63.2% of the 24-h averaged loss rates of

- isoprene and monoterpenes, respectively. For most OVOC species, reaction with OH radical is also the only significant contributor to OVOC loss rates in the Changdao campaign. Comparing to OH oxidation, photolysis is only important to the loss rates of ketones (e.g. acetone and MEK). Photolysis accounts for 44 % of the 24-h averaged loss rate of acetone.
- The total loss rates of anthropogenic and biogenic hydrocarbons are calculated from individual species and the diurnal variations of the total loss rates for the two classes of species are shown in Fig. 2. Oxidation by OH radical accounts for 69.3% of the 24 h averaged total loss rate of anthropogenic hydrocarbons, whereas the contribution from the reactions with NO₃ radical and ozone are 27.3% and 3.3%, respectively. Reaction with NO₃ radical is the dominant contributor to loss rates of biogenic species (59.2%).
- Reaction with OH radical only accounts for 22.0% of the loss rate of biogenic species.

3.3 VOC evolution by using a parameterization method

VOC evolutions in the atmosphere were characterized by a photochemical aged based parameterization method. This method is aimed to focus on VOC evolution of urban
 ²⁵ emissions. The first-order reaction relationship for VOCs reacting with OH radical was used to constrain the measured concentrations of NMHCs and OVOCs. The results from analysis in Sects. 3.1 and 3.2 show that OH radical was the dominant oxidant for the photochemistry of anthropogenic species at Changdao site. This parameterization





method has been applied in northeastern US (de Gouw et al., 2005) and in Beijing (Yuan et al., 2012). The assumptions in the method were fully discussed in the previous papers (de Gouw et al., 2005; Yuan et al., 2012) and generally hold true in the Changdao campaign.

Photochemical age Δt was calculated from the measured concentration ratios of m + p-xylene to ethylbenzene:

$$\Delta t = \frac{1}{[OH](k_{\rm x} - k_{\rm E})} \times \left(\ln \frac{[X]}{[E]} \Big|_{t=0} - \ln \frac{[X]}{[E]} \right)$$
(5)

Here, $\left[\frac{X}{[E]}\right]$ and $\left[\frac{X}{[E]}\right]\Big|_{t=0}^{t=0}$ are the concentration ratios and initial emission ratios of m + p-xylene and ethylbenzene, respectively. k_x and k_E are the OH rate constants of m + p-xylene (18.9 × 10⁻¹² cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹) and ethylbenzene (7.0 × 10⁻¹² cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹). [OH] is the averaged OH radical concentrations (0.72 × 10⁶ molecule cm⁻³) calculated in from the empirical equation (Ehhalt and Rohrer, 2000) (Sect. 3.2). It should be noted that the uncertainty in the calculation of [OH] concentration from Eq. (2) will not affect the following analysis, since the two terms of [OH] and 15 Δt usually show up in pairs in the equations. The initial emission ratio of m + p-xylene to ethylbenzene was calculated from the ratios of the two species with the highest measurement concentrations, as shown in Fig. S4a. The determined initial emission ratio of m + p-xylene to ethylbenzene is 2.2 ppb ppb⁻¹, which is close to the largest concentrations ratios measured in 0–6 a.m. during the Changdao campaign. The initial emission ratio is also comparable to the ratios in various source profiles of China (Liu et al.,

2008) and the studies in Beijing (2.0) (Shao et al., 2011).

5

The concentrations of NMHCs can be described by the following equation (de Gouw et al., 2005):





$[\mathsf{NMHC}] = \mathsf{ER} \times ([\mathsf{CO}] - [\mathsf{CO}]_{\mathsf{bd}}) \times \exp[-(k_{\mathsf{NMHC}} - k_{\mathsf{CO}})[\mathsf{OH}]\Delta t]$

(6)

Here, [NMHC] and [CO] are the concentrations of NMHCs and CO, respectively. $\left[\text{CO}\right]_{\text{ba}}$ is the CO background concentration in the troposphere (0.1 ppm), which is consistent with the intercept in the scatterplot of CO with benzene (0.104 ppm). k_{NMHC} and k_{CO} are the OH rate constant of NMHC and CO (0.24 × 10⁻¹² cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹), respectively. [OH] and Δt are the OH radical concentrations and determined photochemical age. ER is emission ratio of NMHCs to CO. Following the procedures (de

- Gouw et al., 2005) in previous studies, ER and k_{NMHC} are set to unkown in Eq. (6) and their values are obtained from the fits. The determined emission ratios of various NMHC species to CO are tabulated in Table 1. The calculated emission ratios from 10 Eq. (6) could be compared with those from the traditional correlation method without the consideration of chemical losses (Warneke et al., 2007), as shown in Fig. S5. Though emission ratios of inert hydrocarbons agree well between the two methods, but emission ratios of highly reactive species are significantly underestimated by the traditional correlation method (as high as 70%).

5

It is well known that PTR-MS measure the sum concentrations of C8. C9 and C10 aromatics in their specific channels. The measured concentrations of C8, C9 and C10 aromatics are also fitted using Eq. (6), even though Eq. (6) is intended to describe the evolution of a single hydrocarbon. Interestingly, the determined C8 aromatics emission ratio is 2.34 ± 0.13 ppbppm⁻¹, which agrees well with the sum of the emis-20 sion ratios of ethylbenzene, m + p-xylene and o-xylene measured from GC-MS/FID (2.24 ppbppm⁻¹). The good agreement, at least partially, suggest that the sum concentration of several VOC species measured by PTR-MS can also be used to assess the contribution of these compounds to SOA formation in the following discussions, especially the species are not explicitly measured by GC-MS/FID (e.g. C10 aromatics). 25

Concentrations of OVOCs can be separated into primary emissions, secondary formation and background concentrations, as shown in the following equation (de Gouw



et al., 2005):

5

$$[OVOC] = ER_{OVOC} \times ([CO] - 0.1) \times exp(-(k_{OVOC} - k_{CO})[OH]\Delta t)$$

+ $ER_{precursor} \times ([CO] - 0.1) \times \frac{k_{precursor}}{k_{OVOC} - k_{precursor}}$
 $\times \frac{exp(-k_{precursor}[OH]\Delta t) - exp(-k_{OVOC}[OH]\Delta t)}{exp(-k_{CO}[OH]\Delta t)} + [bg]$

Here, [OVOC] and [CO] are concentrations of OVOCs and CO. *k*_{OVOC}, *k*_{CO} and *k*_{precursor} are the OH rate constants of OVOC, CO and OVOC precursors, respectively. ER_{OVOC} and ER_{precursor} are emission ratios of OVOC and OVOC precursor to CO, respectively. The contributions of biogenic emissions to OVOCs were neglected in this study, since the concentrations of isoprene, MVK and MACR were quite low during the campaign (< 0.1 ppb). Unrealistic results were obtained from the fits if biogenic sources were included in the Eq. (7). The parameters of ER_{OVOC}, ER_{precursor}, *k*_{precursor} and [bg] in Eq. (7) are unknown and they are determined from least squares fits. Table 2 tabulates the parameters that describing OVOC concentrations in the Changdao cam¹⁵ paign. Table 3 shows the correlation coefficients between calculated and measured OVOC concentrations. Correlation coefficients of various OVOCs are in the range of 0.70–0.88.

The source apportionment results of OVOCs are also shown in Table 3. Previous studies proposed that the different times of photochemical aging in the atmosphere ²⁰ should be considered when OVOC allocation results are compared in different campaigns. The average OH exposure at Changdao are 6.1 ± 2.7 molecule cm⁻³ s⁻¹, suggesting that air masses are more aged than those at the urban site in Beijing (Yuan et al., 2012), but less processed than those in NEAQS 2002 study (de Gouw et al., 2005). The ratio of anthropogenic secondary fraction to primary fraction in acetaldehyde concentrations in the campaigns of Beijing, Changdao and northeastern US are 0.6, 1.8 and 5.7, respectively. We can observe that aged air mass corresponds with



(7)

higher ratio of secondary fraction to primary fraction. It is consistent with expected behavior of a highly reactive aldehyde in the atmosphere: primary emissions are quickly depleted by photochemistry and secondary formation starts to dominate the concentration.

5 3.4 Comparison of VOC emission ratios with other regions and emission inventory

Emission ratios of VOCs to CO represent emission characteristics of VOCs in a specific region. Figure 3 compares the emission ratios determined in Changdao campaign with the results in four different mega-cities, namely Beijing (Yuan et al., 2012), northeastern US (Warneke et al., 2007), Mexico City (Bon et al., 2011) and Tokyo (Shirai et al., 2007). In the four datasets, emission ratios in Beijing and northeastern US are determined using the photochemical age based parameterization method, whereas linear regression method was used in the datasets of Mexico City and Tokyo. Previous studies have shown that the relative emission patterns of hydrocarbons are similar in the four mega-cities through evaluating the ratios of hydrocarbons pairs with similar lifetimes in the atmosphere (Parrish et al., 2009).

As shown in Fig. 3, emission ratios of alkanes and alkenes at Changdao are compared well with those in Beijing, whereas emission ratios of aromatics are significantly higher in Beijing. Difference of aromatics may be due to the higher emissions from

- solvent use in the summer season during the Beijing campaign. In contrast to Beijing, emission ratios of alkenes and aromatics are similar between Changdao and north-eastern US, but emission ratios of alkanes are larger in northeastern US. The results are consistent with the findings from the comparisons between Beijing and northeastern US (Yuan et al., 2012). Though comparable emission ratios for some hydrocarbons
- ²⁵ between Mexico City and Changdao are obtained, emission ratios for most hydrocarbons are larger in Mexico City, which may be attributable to the combined effects of LPG emissions, industrial emissions and combustion efficiencies of vehicle fleet (Bon et al., 2011; Apel et al., 2010). Higher emission ratios of toluene, C3–C4 alkanes are





observed in Tokyo than those in Changdao, mainly due to the emissions from solvent use and LPG use (Parrish et al., 2009; Shirai et al., 2007), respectively.

Figure 4 shows emission ratios of acetaldehyde, propanal, acetone and MEK versus CO in Changdao campaign along with the results in other studies. Emission ratios from

- ⁵ tunnel experiments (Ban-Weiss et al., 2008; Kristensson et al., 2004) are also shown in the shaded grey areas of the graphs. The two studies are selected for comparison, since they reported emission factors of both carbonyls and CO. Emission ratios of the four OVOC species obtained in Changdao generally fall in the ranges of reported values from the several field campaigns in Beijing, northeastern US and Mexico City.
- However, some large discrepancies can be observed among the different campaigns. Emission ratio of propanal in Changdao and Beijing are lower than those in US by a factor of 5–10. The large difference for propanal is unknown. It may be due to different emission sources of this species or controlling technologies in the sources between China and US. Another possible reason for this is the large uncertainties in determining
- emission ratios of OVOCs (Warneke et al., 2007). Even though there are some discrepancies among the field campaigns in different regions, emission ratios of OVOCs from field campaigns are significantly larger than those in vehicle emissions, as illustrated in Fig. 4. It indicates that other non-vehicle sources may be important contributors to OVOC emissions. These sources may include painting application and cleaning prod-
- ²⁰ ucts (Langford et al., 2010; Velasco et al., 2005). Limited information about emissions of OVOCs is available for these non-vehicle sources (Niedojadlo et al., 2007).

Besides, emission ratios from field campaigns could also be compared with the values in emission inventory, which is an independent method to evaluate the accuracies of VOC emission inventories. Figure 5 demonstrates the correlations of VOC emission

ratios to CO determined in Changdao with those in the latest VOC emission inventory for the surrounding provinces (Beijing, Hebei, Liaoning and Shandong) (Zhang et al., 2009). The selected emission inventory established for INTEX-B is the most widely used inventory for China (Zhang et al., 2009). Emissions of CO in this inventory have been examined by top-down approaches and good agreements were obtained (Zhang





et al., 2009). Emission ratios of most hydrocarbons in Changdao campaign compared well with those in the emission inventory. In view of large uncertainties in the compilation of the emission inventory, the results are unexpected. The good agreements of individual VOC emission inventory may be attributed to the application of local es-

- tablished VOC source profiles (Liu et al., 2008) in VOC speciation of Zhang's inventory. However, the emissions of some hydrocarbons are obviously overestimated (e.g. ethene and trans/cis-2-pentene and 2,2,4-trimethylpentane) or underestimated (e.g. cyclopentane, 2-methylhexane and naphthalene) in the emission inventory. In contrast to hydrocarbons, emissions of OVOC emissions are significantly underestimated in the
- emission inventory. The failure characterization of OVOC emissions in the inventory have also been inferred from field measurements in the northeastern US (Warneke et al., 2007) and flux measurements in cities of UK (Manchester and London) (Langford et al., 2009, 2010). The possible reason is the dominance of poor-known diffusion sources in the primary emissions of OVOCs, as discussed above.

15 3.5 Parameterization of organic aerosol (OA) concentrations

The measured concentrations of organic aerosol (OA) are also separated into primary emissions, secondary formation and background concentrations (de Gouw et al., 2005, 2008):

$$[OA] = ER_{OA} \times ([CO] - 0.1) \times \frac{\exp(L_{OA}\Delta t)}{\exp(-k_{CO}[OH]\Delta t)} + ER_{\text{precursor}} \times Y_{OA}$$

$$\times ([CO] - 0.1) \times \frac{P_{OA}}{L_{OA} - P_{OA}} \times \frac{\exp(-P_{OA}\Delta t) - \exp(-L_{OA}\Delta t)}{\exp(-k_{CO}[OH]\Delta t)} + [bg]$$
(8)

²⁰ In this equation, ER_{OA} and ER_{precursor} are emission ratios of OA and OA precursors to CO. L_{OA} and P_{OA} are the loss and formation rates of OA. Y_{OA} is the yield of SOA precursor to form OA. The other parameters are the same as those in the equation of OVOCs. The unknown parameters are ER_{OA}, ER_{precursor} × Y_{OA} , L_{OA} , P_{OA} and [bg]. Due



to the coupling between the linear term and exponent terms in the equation, the initial fits are rather unstable. To overcome this problem, a number of L_{OA} values are set and fits are repeated for each L_{OA} value. After holding L_{OA} value, the fits are similar to the calculation of OVOCs. L_{OA} values (unit is h⁻¹) tried in this study were derived from the possible lifetime of OA (τ_{OA} , unit is day) in the atmosphere from this equation:

$$L_{\text{OA}} = \frac{1}{\tau_{\text{OA}} \times 24}$$

5

The lifetime of OA is affected by many factors, including size distribution, solubility of OA and also the mixing states of OA with other components (Millet et al., 2004). The determined OA lifetimes in the atmosphere are in the range of 3–10 days (Millet et al., 2004; Koch, 2001). Thus, OA lifetimes are changed from 1 day to 10 days at a step of half day, and the corresponding L_{OA} values were calculated. As OA lifetimes varied from 3 to 10 days, corresponding to L_{OA} values from 0.042 h⁻¹ to 0.017 h⁻¹, the fitted results of the parameters are quite stable (Fig. S6). The values of ER_{OA} fluctuated from 14.3 μ gm⁻³ ppm⁻¹ to 15.1 μ gm⁻³ ppm⁻¹ and the background concentrations are in the range of 4.25–4.28 μ gm⁻³. The allocated fractions of OA concentrations to the three parts also changed little as varying L_{OA} values (Fig. S7).

To represent the average results, we choose the fitted results associated with an OA lifetime of 6 days (L_{OA} value is 0.00694 h⁻¹). The determined ER_{OA} is 14.9 µgm⁻³ ppm⁻¹, which is well in the range of POA/CO emission ratios reported in the literatures (de Gouw and Jimenez, 2009) and it is quite close to the values obtained in Tokyo (Takegawa et al., 2006). The background concentration of OA is determined to 4.26 µgm⁻³. The time series of measured and calculated OA concentrations using the fitted results are shown in Fig. 6. Correlation coefficient (*R*) between measured and calculated OA concentrations is 0.794, which means that about 64 % of OA concentration variability is described by Eq. (8). The fractions from primary emission and secondary

formation are 38 % and 29 %, respectively. OA/CO ratio increase to 29.6 μ gm⁻³ ppm⁻¹ after 50 h of photochemical processing, with an enhancement of 18.8 μ gm⁻³ ppm⁻¹



(9)



from secondary formation. Note that OA/CO from primary emissions has decreased to $10.8 \,\mu g m^{-3} p p m^{-1}$ after 50 h processing, due to the consideration of OA lifetime (6 days).

3.6 Contributions of VOC oxidations to SOA formation

⁵ Based on the evolution parameterization relationship of VOCs/CO ratio with photochemical age, the ratio of consumed concentration to CO (NMHC_{*i*, consumed} in μgm⁻³ppm⁻¹ CO) could be determined by this equation:

 $\mathsf{NMHC}_{i,\mathsf{consumed}} = \mathsf{ER}_i \times (1 - \exp(-k_{i,\mathsf{OH}}[\mathsf{OH}]\Delta t))$

Here, ER_i is the emission ratios of NMHCs versus CO expressed in the unit of $\mu gm^{-3} ppm^{-1}$. Emission ratios in mass unit are calculated from the emission ratios in volume unit in the Sect. 3.2. The ER_i values in the mass unit for selected hydrocarbons are tabulated in Table 4. $k_{i,OH}$ is OH rate constant of hydrocarbons determined from the fit of NMHCs. Thus, SOA produced from VOC oxidation (SOA_{cal}) can be calculated by this equation:

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$$SOA_{cal} = \sum_{i} NMHC_{i, consumed} \times Y_i$$
 (11)

Here, Y_i is the SOA yield of various hydrocarbons determined from chamber studies. Note that the unit of SOA_{cal} is μ gm⁻³ppm⁻¹ CO, meaning SOA formation from VOC oxidations at 1 ppm CO emissions.

SOA yields of VOCs have been expressed using an empirical relationship based on gas-particle partitioning of two semi-volatile products (Odum et al., 1996):

$$Y = M_0 \sum_{i}^{2} \frac{\alpha_i K_{\text{om},i}}{1 + M_0 K_{\text{om},i}} = M_0 \sum_{i}^{2} \frac{\alpha_i}{M_0 + c_i^*}$$



(10)

(12)

 M_0 is the mass of organic aerosol. α_i and c_i^* are the fitted results for the two products relationship from chamber studies. c_i^* is the effective saturation concentration of the oxidation products and α_i is the mass stoichiometric coefficients of the product *i*, respectively. SOA yield of VOCs can be affected by ambient temperature, due to tem-⁵ perature dependence of c_i^* . This temperature dependence of SOA yield is accounted by the Clausius–Clapeyron equation (Dzepina et al., 2009).

Literature studies show that SOA yields of hydrocarbons heavily depend on NO_x levels, mainly due to the competition reactions of RO₂ radical with NO and HO₂ radical (Ng et al., 2007). SOA yields of most aromatics under low-NO_x condition are significantly higher than those under high-NO_x condition (Ng et al., 2007). The branching ratios of RO₂ radicals reactions with NO and HO₂ radicals were used to account for the NO_x dependence of SOA formation (Bahreini et al., 2009; Henze et al., 2008). Preliminary results from a box model show that RO₂ radical are dominantly consumed by NO, due to the large concentration of NO in the campaign. In this study, we sepa-

- rately calculated SOA formed from VOC oxidation under low-NO_x and high-NO_x conditions and the results represent the higher and lower limits of SOA formation from VOC oxidations. Anthropogenic VOC species that can contribute SOA formation in this study are aromatics, > C8 alkanes and cycloalkanes, as tabulated in Table 4. Chamber studies showed that SOA yields of aromatics under high-NO_x condition can be
- ²⁰ described by the two-product relationship, whereas SOA yields under low-NO_x condition are constant numbers, independent on organic aerosol mass and temperature (Ng et al., 2007). Due to the lack of parameters in two-product relationship and NO_x dependence information for alkanes and cycloalkanes in the literature, SOA yields of these compounds under both high-NO_x and low-NO_x condition are directly adapted from Lim
- and Ziemann (2009). SOA yields of VOC species without reported information in the literatures are derived from species with similar molecular structures or carbon number (see details in Table 4).

Thus, mass and temperature dependences of SOA yields are only considered for aromatics under high-NO_x condition. The average OA concentration during the





Changdao campaign was $14.5\pm8.8 \,\mu\text{gm}^{-3}$ and more than 99.8 % of OA concentrations were less than 50 μgm^{-3} (Fig. S8). The average temperature during the campaign was $9.9\pm3.8\,^{\circ}\text{C}$, with a maximum and minimum of $1.1\,^{\circ}\text{C}$ and $21.7\,^{\circ}\text{C}$, respectively. Since SOA yield has a positive dependence with organic aerosol mass and a negative dependence with temperature, four different scenarios were set to calculate SOA yields of aromatics under high-NO_x condition. The four scenarios are $M_0 = 15 \,\mu\text{gm}^{-3}$ and $T = 10\,^{\circ}\text{C}$, $M_0 = 50 \,\mu\text{gm}^{-3}$ and $T = 0\,^{\circ}\text{C}$, $M_0 = 15 \,\mu\text{gm}^{-3}$ and $T = 0\,^{\circ}\text{C}$, $M_0 = 50 \,\mu\text{gm}^{-3}$ and $T = 10\,^{\circ}\text{C}$, as shown in Table S2. The first scenario, calculated from averaged values, will be used for the comparison with low-NO_x condition in the following discussion. The calculated SOA yields for selected aromatic species under high-NO_x condition are also tabulated in Table S2.

The sixth and seventh columns of Table 4 show the SOA formed from each VOC species after 50 h transport under low-NO_x and high-NO_x conditions, respectively. Aromatics are the dominant contributors to the SOA formation in the measured VOC species. Aromatics account for 97.5% and 91.9% of the total SOA formation from measured VOCs under low-NO_x and high-NO_x conditions, respectively. The main SOA precursors are benzene, toluene, m + p-xylene, o-xylene, ethylbenzene and naphthalene. Figure 7 shows the correlation of SOA calculated from VOC oxidations and SOA determined from AMS measurements under both high-NO_x and low-NO_x conditions.

²⁰ SOA formation determined from VOC oxidation after 50 h are $2.0 \,\mu\text{gm}^{-3} \text{ppm}^{-1}$ and $6.5 \,\mu\text{gm}^{-3} \text{ppm}^{-1}$ under high-NO_x and low-NO_x condition, respectively. It is obvious that SOA formed in the atmosphere cannot be fully explained by VOC oxidation. The explained percentages of SOA from VOC oxidation was in the range of 34.6–50.9% under low-NO_x condition. The explained percentages were even lower in all of the four scenarios under high-NO_x condition. VOC oxidation can explain 10.6–13.9% of SOA formation, if aromatic yields are calculated from the average OA concentration (15 μgm^{-3}) and temperature (10 °C) under high-NO_x condition. Appling higher OA concentration (50 μgm^{-3}) and lower temperature (0 °C) as inputs of SOA yields elevate the explained percentages of SOA to 16.9–21.5%.





4 Discussions

4.1 Possible reasons for the discrepancies of measured and calculated SOA

The above results show that VOC oxidation cannot explain SOA formation during the Changdao campaign. As far as we know, our study is the first one to explore the contri-⁵ bution of VOC oxidation to SOA formation based on ambient measurements in China. Our results are consistent with previous studies in other parts of the world (de Gouw et al., 2008; Heald et al., 2005; Matsui et al., 2009; Volkamer et al., 2006). The possible reasons for the large discrepancies between predicted SOA and measured SOA could be:

- 1. In the above calculation, the contributions from biogenic VOCs to SOA are ne-10 glected. As shown in Sect. 3.1, the concentration of biogenic species, including isoprene, MVK, MACR and monoterpenes, were low during the Changdao campaign. The average concentrations of isoprene, MVK and MACR were 7 ppt. 18 ppt and 35 ppt, respectively. Using the method shown in Capes et al. (2009), SOA from biogenic VOCs would be less than $0.1 \,\mu g m^{-3}$, which was a minor con-15 tributor to the SOA measured from AMS (average 4.2 μ g m⁻³). A previous WRF-Chem study showed that SOA formation from biogenic VOCs was only 10-20 % of that from anthropogenic VOCs in winter and spring of Shandong Province (Jiang et al., 2012), where the sampling site was located. Even though SOA formation from biogenic VOCs can be enhanced by anthropogenic emissions (Goldstein 20 et al., 2009), biogenic emissions should not be a significant contributor to SOA formation at Changdao.
 - 2. The uptake of glyoxal and methyl glyoxal by aqueous aerosol may be a significant source of SOA in the atmosphere (Fu et al., 2008). Previous study showed that glyoxal can contribute at least 15% of SOA formation in Mexico City (Volkamer et al., 2007), but glyoxal only accounted for negligible SOA formation in Los Angeles (0–4%) (Washenfelder et al., 2011). Since glyoxal was not measured at





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Changdao, the determination of SOA from glyoxal is not possible in this paper. Glyoxal could be a significant source of SOA formation during the Changdao, but it should not be enough to explain the large discrepancies between measured SOA and calculated SOA.

3. Both laboratory and model evidence showed that semi-volatile organic com-5 pounds (SVOCs) are important precursors of SOA in the atmosphere (Robinson et al., 2007; Dzepina et al., 2009). Field measurements confirmed that C14-C16 SVOCs are important SOA precursors in the plumes of oil spill (de Gouw et al., 2011). VOC species measured by online GC-MS/FID and PTR-MS in this study range from 1 to 10 carbon atoms, which is only a subset of organic compounds 10 existing in the atmosphere (Goldstein and Galbally, 2007). Recently, SOA yields of some SVOCs, especially higher alkanes (more than 10 carbon atoms, e.g. > C10) (Lim and Ziemann, 2005, 2009; Presto et al., 2010) and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) (Chan et al., 2009; Shakya and Griffin, 2010) are simulated in the chamber studies. Measurements of SVOCs, difficult in the ambient atmo-15 sphere, have been a major hurdle in the studies of SOA formation from SVOCs. Limited ambient data of gaseous SVOC concentrations are reported in the literatures. The contributions of SOA formation from some SVOC species are further explored in the Sect. 4.2.

20 4.2 Contributions of SOA from PAHs and higher alkanes (> C10)

Emission factors of SVOCs from important sources could be used to evaluate the roles of SVOCs in SOA formation (Chan et al., 2009). This method is followed to calculate the contribution of PAHs and higher n-alkanes to SOA formation at Changdao.

Coal burning, biomass burning, coke industry and vehicle emissions are the main
 sources of PAHs emissions in China (Xu et al., 2005). No related information about the sources of higher n-alkanes in China is reported in the literature. Considering the availability of emission factors of gaseous PAHs and higher n-alkanes, emissions from





diesel vehicle, coal burning and biomass burning are considered in this study. Emission factors of PAHs and higher n-alkanes for diesel vehicle emissions are from Schauer et al. (1999). Emission factors of PAHs in emissions of coal burning (Table S3) are derived from Shen et al. (2010) and emission factors for biomass burning (Table S4) 5 are from Y. Zhang et al. (2008) and Shen et al. (2011), which are both conducted

in China. The emissions of higher n-alkanes are not reported from coal burning and biomass burning in the literatures.

SOA formed from SVOCs after they are emitted from a specific source can be described by (Chan et al., 2009):

 $\Delta M_{0,i} = [HC_i] \times (1 - \exp(-k_{OH,i}[OH]\Delta t)) \times Y_i$

Here, ΔM_{0i} is the SOA formed from SVOC species *i*. [HC_i] is the emission factor of species *i* from the specific source. The unit of [HC_i] varies among different sources. $[HC_i]$ has a unit of μgm^{-3} in diesel vehicle emissions, whereas $[HC_i]$ has units of mqkq⁻¹ fuel (e.g. coal or crop straw) in coal burning and biomass burning emissions.

- [OH] is the average OH concentration and the value $(0.723 \times 10^6 \text{ molecule cm}^{-3})$ cal-15 culated in Sect. 3.2 is used for the calculation. Δt is the reaction time. To facilitate the comparison with SOA from measured VOCs, the reaction time is set to 50 h in this study. Y_i is SOA yield of species i and the values are adapted from the previous study (Chan et al., 2009).
- SOA formation under the condition of Changdao could be scaled from the deter-20 mined SOA from naphthalene (SOA_{Nap}) and the calculated ΔM_0 for species *i* (ΔM_0 , *i*) and ΔM_0 for naphthalene ($\Delta M_{0,\text{Nap}}$). The equation is shown as:

$$SOA_i = \frac{\Delta M_{0,i}}{\Delta M_{0,Nap}} \times SOA_{Nap}$$

Figure 8 compares the calculated SOA contributions from PAHs and higher nalkanes with those from measured VOCs under both high-NO_x ($M_0 = 15 \,\mu g \,m^{-3}$ and



ACPD



 $T = 10 \,^{\circ}\text{C}$) and low-NO_x conditions. Note that naphthalene is not included in the category of PAHs in Fig. 8, since naphthalene is regarded as a measured VOC species in this study. SOA formation from PAHs oxidations under high-NO_x condition calculated using emissions of diesel vehicle, coal burning and biomass burning are $1.8 \,\mu\text{gm}^{-3} \,\text{ppm}^{-1}$ CO, $1.4 \,\mu\text{gm}^{-3} \,\text{ppm}^{-1}$ CO and $0.1 \,\mu\text{gm}^{-3} \,\text{ppm}^{-1}$ CO, respectively. SOA from higher n-alkanes oxidation are only calculated from diesel vehicle emissions under high-NO_x condition and it is $1.5 \,\mu\text{gm}^{-3} \,\text{ppm}^{-1}$ CO. Recall that VOC oxidations contribute $2.0 \,\mu\text{gm}^{-3} \,\text{ppm}^{-1}$ CO to SOA formation under high-NO_x condition. PAHs and higher n-alkanes totally account for up to $17.4 \,\%$ of the measured SOA formation is even higher using low-NO_x yields. SOA formation from PAHs calculated using emissions of diesel vehicle under low-NO_x condition is $3.0 \,\mu\text{gm}^{-3} \,\text{ppm}^{-1}$ CO (16.1 % of the measured SOA).

The results show that PAHs and higher alkanes contributed significantly to SOA for-¹⁵ mation at Changdao. However, our study only evaluates two types of SVOCs (PAHs and higher n-alkanes). Other SVOC species, such as long-chain branched alkanes, C9–C20 substituted cyclohexanes, C10–C14 aldehydes and C7–C18 alkanoic acids, were also abundant in emissions of sources and ambient air (Schauer et al., 1999; Williams et al., 2010). These compounds could also be important SOA precursors in the atmosphere. It suggests that SVOC contributions to SOA formation may be even

the atmosphere. It suggests that SVOC contributions to SOA formation may be even larger.

4.3 Implications of SOA formation in China

VOC emission ratios to CO determined in Changdao are also compared with the results from an urban site in Beijing and also the values in emission inventories (see Sect. 3.4).

Here, SOA formation potential of VOC emissions, which is emission ratios of VOCs to CO times SOA yields, is introduced in this study. SOA formation potential represents the maximum SOA formation from VOC oxidations under the condition that primary



emissions maintain CO concentrations at 1 ppm in the atmosphere. SOA formation potential has a unit of $\mu g m^{-3} p p m^{-1}$.

Figure 9a compares SOA formation potential of VOC emissions in the emission inventory of each province of China and the results from field campaigns of Changdao and Beijing. SOA formation potential in Changdao and Beijing campaign are 9.3 μgm⁻³ ppm⁻¹ and 25.7 μgm⁻³ ppm⁻¹, respectively. The differences between the two campaigns are mainly due to the discrepancies in emission ratios of aromatics. Calculations based on six selected aromatic species (values are shown in Table S5) indicate that SOA formation potential of VOC emissions in Pearl River Delta (PRD) is
close to the value in Beijing (25.7 μgm⁻³ ppm⁻¹) (Fig. 9b).

SOA formation potentials of VOC emissions in emission inventories of different provinces are in the range of 7.2–30.6 μ gm⁻³ ppm⁻¹. The highest SOA formation potential is obtained in Hong Kong. Aromatics are the dominant contributors to SOA formation potential in the data from both emission inventories and field campaigns. It is interesting to note that SOA formation potentials show clearly positive correlation with gross domestic product (GDP) per capita in each province (Fig. 9c), indicating SOA formation is increasing as the development of economy in China.

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Ambient OA/CO data in China is limited in the literature. OA/CO ratio increased by $18.8 \,\mu g m^{-3} p p m^{-1}$ after 50 h of photochemical processing based on the results of

- ²⁰ Changdao campaign. SOA formation in Changdao is somewhat lower than the results in other regions (de Gouw and Jimenez, 2009), maybe due to the lower intensity of photochemical oxidation in April. A study in southern China showed that OA/CO ratio increased from 15.3 µgm⁻³ ppm⁻¹ at 7 a.m. to 110.9 µgm⁻³ ppm⁻¹ at 3 p.m. at a rural site (Backgarden, BG) in PRD, translating to SOA formation of 95.6 µgm⁻³ ppm⁻¹
- ²⁵ CO (Hu et al., 2012). Measurements from AMS data at an urban site in summer of Beijing showed that the average SOA/CO ratio at 2 p.m. was 35.2 µgm⁻³ ppm⁻¹ and about 10% of SOA/CO ratios were larger than 40 µgm⁻³ ppm⁻¹ (W. W. Hu, personal communication, 2012). The results showed that SOA formation at BG site and at the urban site in Beijing were also significantly higher than SOA formation potentials of





VOC emissions determined from both VOC ambient measurements and emission inventory. It indicates that VOC oxidations cannot explain SOA formation in Beijing and PRD either, two mega-cities in China.

Since the contribution of biogenic emissions to SOA formation was low during the

- ⁵ Changdao campaign, SOA formation of anthropogenic emissions in China can be estimated from SOA/CO enhancement ratio (18.8 µgm⁻³ ppm⁻¹) after 50 h oxidation, combined with the CO emissions in China (167 Tgyr⁻¹) (Zhang et al., 2009). The estimated SOA budget from anthropogenic emissions is 2.7 Tgyr⁻¹. The value should be a lower limit, since significant fractions of VOCs are not consumed after 50 h oxidation during
- ¹⁰ Changdao campaign (Table 4). If measurement results in Beijing (35.2 μgm⁻³ ppm⁻¹) and PRD (95.6 μgm⁻³ ppm⁻¹) are used as the OA yields, SOA budgets are calculated to be 5.0 Tgyr⁻¹ and 13.7 Tgyr⁻¹, respectively. The two estimates include both anthropogenic and biogenic contributions. Two regional modeling studies estimated SOA budget in China to 3.05 Tgyr⁻¹ (Jiang et al., 2012) and 2.8 Tgyr⁻¹ (using the in-
- ¹⁵ formation of OC primary emissions, average contribution of SOC to OC and assuming a SOA/SOC ratio of 2.0) (Fu et al., 2012), with 1.1 Tgyr⁻¹ and 0.48 Tgyr⁻¹ from anthropogenic emissions in the two studies, respectively. Comparison between our estimates based on ambient measurements and those in modeling results indicates that SOA formation may be also underestimated in the models at least by a factor of 2. The un-
- ²⁰ derestimated SOA are also found or mentioned in the two regional modeling studies (Fu et al., 2012; Jiang et al., 2012).

5 Conclusions

VOCs were measured by a GC-MS/FID and a PTR-MS at a receptor site in Bohai Sea in eastern of China. VOC concentrations showed clearly dependence with wind directions, with high concentrations from south/southwest and low concentration from north/northeast. The dependence was consistent with the location of Changdao site

and the source strengths in the surrounding regions.





Chemical losses of various VOC species in the atmosphere were dominated by reactions with OH radical during the Changdao campaign. A parameterization method based on photochemical age is used to characterize the evolutions of hydrocarbons and OVOCs. Comparisons of emission ratios of VOCs with those in other regions and

in emission inventory showed that hydrocarbon emissions are well estimated in emission inventory, but OVOC emissions are significantly underestimated in emission inventory. The underestimate of OVOC emissions are possibly due to the poor knowledge on emission patterns of non-vehicles sources to OVOCs.

The parameterization method is also used to resolve the evolution of OA in the atmosphere. SOA formation relative to CO is $18.8 \,\mu g \,m^{-3} \, p p m^{-1}$ after 50 h oxidation. SOA formation is also determined from VOC evolution equations at high-NO_x and low-NO_x conditions. VOC oxidation can only explain 34.6–50.9% of SOA formation under low-NO_x condition, whereas less than 13.6% of SOA formation is explainable using high-NO_x parameters. These numbers indicate that SOA formation is significantly larger than expected during Changdao campaign. Using the data in emission inventory and lit-

- erature values, it is shown that SOA formation in Beijing and PRD is also notably larger than SOA formation potential of VOC emissions. SVOCs could account for a large fraction of the unexplained SOA formation during the Changdao campaign. PAHs and higher alkanes (> C10) contributed to as large as 17.4 % of SOA formation at Chang dao condition. Our findings emphasize the importance of SVOCs measurement in the
- atmosphere.

Supplementary material related to this article is available online at: http://www.atmos-chem-phys-discuss.net/13/6631/2013/ acpd-13-6631-2013-supplement.pdf.

Acknowledgements. This work was supported by the China Ministry of Environmental Protection's Special Funds for Scientific Research on Public Welfare (201009002) and Natural Science Foundation for Outstanding Young Scholars (Grant No. 41125018).





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Table 1. Mixing ratios and derived emission ratios of various NMHCs to CO in 2–25 April 2011 at Changdao.

Species*	Mixing ratios, ppb	Emission ratios, ppb/ppm CO	Species*	Mixing ratios, ppb	Emission ratios, ppb/ppm CO
Ethane	4.00 ± 2.05	7.73 ± 0.64	Benzene	0.99 ± 0.63	2.31 ± 0.08
Ethene	1.79 ± 1.46	5.28 ± 0.19	2,2,4-TMpentane	0.00 ± 0.00	0.00 ± 0.00
Propane	1.78 ± 1.45	4.54 ± 0.46	n-heptane	0.07 ± 0.06	0.23 ± 0.02
Propene	0.30 ± 0.28	1.35 ± 0.08	Methylcyclohexane	0.05 ± 0.06	0.20 ± 0.02
i-butane	0.51 ± 0.43	1.22 ± 0.10	2,3,4-TMpentane	0.00 ± 0.00	0.01 ± 0.00
n-butane	0.86 ± 0.92	2.50 ± 0.29	2-methylheptane	0.02 ± 0.02	0.06 ± 0.00
Acetylene	1.85 ± 1.28	4.56 ± 0.20	3-methylheptane	0.01 ± 0.01	0.03 ± 0.00
t-2-butene	0.03 ± 0.03	0.05 ± 0.01	Toluene	0.59 ± 0.48	1.85 ± 0.10
1-butene	0.14 ± 0.14	0.39 ± 0.03	n-Octane	0.04 ± 0.03	0.11 ± 0.01
i-butene	0.74 ± 0.19	1.00 ± 0.10	Ethylbenzene	0.16 ± 0.13	0.56 ± 0.03
c-2-butene	0.03 ± 0.02	0.07 ± 0.01	m + p-xylene	0.19 ± 0.21	1.31 ± 0.07
i-pentane	0.52 ± 0.43	1.45 ± 0.11	n-Nonane	0.02 ± 0.01	0.07 ± 0.00
n-pentane	0.36 ± 0.34	0.99 ± 0.09	o-xylene	0.07 ± 0.06	0.37 ± 0.02
1,3-butadiene	0.02 ± 0.02	0.10 ± 0.01	Styrene	0.02 ± 0.03	0.07 ± 0.01
1-pentene	0.01 ± 0.01	0.05 ± 0.00	i-propylbenzene	0.01 ± 0.00	0.01 ± 0.00
trans-2-pentene	0.00 ± 0.00	0.00 ± 0.00	n-propylbenzene	0.01 ± 0.01	0.03 ± 0.00
Isoprene	0.01 ± 0.01	0.02 ± 0.00	m-ethyltoluene	0.02 ± 0.02	0.08 ± 0.01
cis-2-pentene	0.00 ± 0.00	0.00 ± 0.00	p-ethyltoluene	0.01 ± 0.01	0.04 ± 0.00
2,2-dimethylbutane	0.01 ± 0.01	0.02 ± 0.00	n-decane	0.02 ± 0.01	0.06 ± 0.00
2,3-dimethylbutane	0.03 ± 0.04	0.06 ± 0.01	1,3,5-TMB	0.01 ± 0.01	0.04 ± 0.00
2-methylpentane	0.14 ± 0.11	0.39 ± 0.03	o-ethyltoluene	0.01 ± 0.01	0.04 ± 0.00
Cyclopentane	0.04 ± 0.04	0.12 ± 0.01	1,2,4-TMB	0.03 ± 0.02	0.13 ± 0.01
3-methylpentane	0.09 ± 0.08	0.29 ± 0.02	1,2,3-TMB	0.01 ± 0.01	0.05 ± 0.00
1-hexene	0.04 ± 0.03	0.09 ± 0.01	Acetonitrile (m42)	0.21 ± 0.12	0.50 ± 0.02
n-hexane	0.17 ± 0.16	0.53 ± 0.04	Benzene (m79)	0.55 ± 0.36	1.45 ± 0.05
2,4-DMpentane	0.02 ± 0.01	0.04 ± 0.00	Toluene (m93)	0.57 ± 0.51	2.05 ± 0.12
Methylcyclopentane	0.08 ± 0.08	0.29 ± 0.02	Styrene (m105)	0.05 ± 0.04	0.08 ± 0.01
2-methylhexane	0.03 ± 0.03	0.10 ± 0.01	C8 Aromatics (m107)	0.42 ± 0.39	2.34 ± 0.13
Cyclohexane	0.06 ± 0.08	0.19 ± 0.02	C9 Aromatics (m121)	0.14 ± 0.10	0.50 ± 0.03
2,3-dimethylpentane	0.02 ± 0.02	0.06 ± 0.01	Naphthalene (m129)	0.09 ± 0.08	0.34 ± 0.02
3-methylhexane	0.05 ± 0.03	0.14 ± 0.01	C10 Aromatics (m135)	0.07 ± 0.06	0.30 ± 0.02

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* DM, TM and TMB indicate dimethyl-, trimethyl- and trimethylbenzene.

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 Table 2. The parameters describing OVOC concentrations at Changdao.

Species	Mixing ratios (ppb)	ER _{OVOC} (ppb ppm	ER _{precursor}	k _{оvос} (10 ⁻¹² с	k _{precursor} m ³ molec ^{−1} s ^{−1})	Background (ppt)
Acetaldehyde	0.63 ± 0.44	1.20 ± 0.84	8.33	15	3.49	47 ± 25
Propanal	0.27 ± 0.13	0.25 ± 0.05	1.98	20	6.22	109 ± 6
n-Butanal	0.11 ± 0.04	0.13 ± 0.02	5.72	24	0.53	57 ± 3
n-Pentanal	0.04 ± 0.02	0.04 ± 0.01	0.73	28	1.85	27 ± 1
Acrolein	0.09 ± 0.06	0.15 ± 0.03	0.31	18.3	22.16	23 ± 3
Acetone	1.85 ± 0.92	1.57 ± 0.37	4.65	0.17	5.75	780 ± 56
MEK	0.35 ± 0.22	0.47 ± 0.08	2.73	1.22	1.78	90 ± 14
2-pentanone	0.02 ± 0.02	0.02 ± 0.01	0.29	4.4	2.37	5 ± 1
3-pentanone	0.03 ± 0.02	0.01 ± 0.01	1.52	2	0.39	12 ± 1
Methanol	5.67 ± 4.80	16.0 ± 0.67	0*	0.94	0*	156 ± 290
Formic acid	2.28 ± 1.02	1.06 ± 0.44	5.44	0.4	7.58	1219 ± 65
Acetic acid	0.77 ± 0.76	1.27 ± 0.32	2.64	0.8	7.54	0 ± 0

* The values are obtained to be negative. The parameter was set to zero and fit was repeated.

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Table 3. Correlation coefficients (R) between calculated and measured OVOC concentrations and the contributions of various sources to OVOC concentrations.

Species	R	Primary emission, %	Secondary formation, %	Background, %
Acetaldehyde	0.88	33.1	59.4	7.5
Propanal	0.83	12.8	46.4	40.7
n-Butanal	0.78	13.9	32.6	53.5
n-Pentanal	0.70	8.6	20.4	61.0
Acrolein	0.80	24.9	49.3	25.9
Acetone	0.80	32.0	27.0	41.0
MEK	0.80	46.9	28.2	24.9
2-pentanone	0.81	23.7	53.5	22.8
3-pentanone	0.74	15.0	43.0	42.0
Methanol	0.79	97.4	0	2.6
Formic acid	0.78	17.2	31.3	51.5
Acetic acid	0.74	57.3	42.7	0

Table 4. Emission ratios of various VOC species, the percentages of reacted VOCs after 50 h photochemical reactions, SOA yields and the SOA masses formed after 50 h reactions.

Species ^a	ERs,	Reacted	Yi	elds	SOA f	ormed,	Notes
	0 1	percent at		h	µgm °p	pm 'CO	
	µg m ⁻ ° ppm ⁻ ' CO	50 h, %	Low-NO _x	High-NO _x ^D	Low-NO _x	High-NO _x	
n-heptane	1.02	47.7	0.009	0.009	0.004	0.004	Lim and Ziemann (2009)
n-octane	0.56	52.5	0.041	0.041	0.012	0.011	Lim and Ziemann (2009)
n-nonane	0.42	59.8	0.08	0.08	0.020	0.020	Lim and Ziemann (2009)
n-decane	0.40	57.3	0.146	0.146	0.034	0.033	Lim and Ziemann (2009)
2,4-DMpentane	0.19	10.8	0.009	0.009	0.002	0.0002	n-heptane value
2-methylhexane	0.43	38.4	0.009	0.009	0.001	0.001	n-heptane value
2,3-DMpentane	0.27	40.5	0.009	0.009	0.001	0.001	n-heptane value
3-methylhexane	0.63	29.1	0.009	0.009	0.002	0.001	n-heptane value
2,2,4-TMpentane	0.02	32.9	0.041	0.041	0.0003	0.0003	n-octane value
2,3,4-TMpentane	0.04	54.8	0.041	0.041	0.001	0.001	n-octane value
2-methylheptane	0.33	52.7	0.041	0.041	0.007	0.007	n-octane value
3-methylheptane	0.16	53.3	0.041	0.041	0.003	0.003	n-octane value
Cyclopentane	0.39	28.6	0.040	0.04	0.004	0.004	cyclohexane value
Methylcyclopentane	1.10	58.8	0.040	0.04	0.026	0.025	cyclohexane value
Cyclohexane	0.70	30.4	0.040	0.04	0.008	0.008	Lim and Ziemann (2009)
Methylcyclohexane	0.85	67.0	0.121	0.121	0.069	0.069	cycloheptane value
Benzene	8.04	11.6	0.37	0.263	0.347	0.247	Ng et al. (2007)
Toluene	7.60	39.2	0.30	0.12	0.894	0.359	Ng et al. (2007)
Ethylbenzene	2.66	56.1	0.36	0.072	0.536	0.107	m-xylene value
m + p-xylene	6.18	92.0	0.36	0.072	2.049	0.41	Ng et al. (2007)
o-xylene	1.75	85.9	0.36	0.072	0.542	0.108	m-xylene value
Styrene	0.34	68.3	0.36	0.072	0.084	0.016	m-xylene value
i-propylbenzene	0.06	55.9	0.36	0.072	0.013	0.003	m-xylene value
n-propylbenzene	0.17	51.4	0.36	0.072	0.032	0.006	m-xylene value
m-ethyltoluene	0.44	75.4	0.36	0.072	0.118	0.023	m-xylene value
p-ethyltoluene	0.24	68.7	0.36	0.072	0.056	0.011	m-xylene value
1,3,5-TMB	0.24	78.2	0.36	0.072	0.067	0.013	m-xylene value
o-ethyltoluene	0.21	58.2	0.36	0.072	0.044	0.008	m-xylene value
1,2,4-TMB	0.71	80.7	0.36	0.072	0.208	0.041	m-xylene value
1,2,3-TMB	0.24	75.2	0.36	0.072	0.066	0.013	m-xylene value
C10 aromatics	1.81	72.6	0.36	0.072	0.472	0.094	m-xylene value
Naphthalene	1.94	56.0	0.73	0.308	0.794	0.335	Chan et al. (2009)

^a DM, TM and TMB indicate dimethyl-, trimethyl- and trimethylbenzene. ^b Calculated from $M_0 = 15 \,\mu \text{gm}^{-3}$ and $T = 10 \,^{\circ}\text{C}$.











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Fig. 2. Diurnal variations of loss rates of anthropogenic **(A)** and biogenic **(B)** VOCs from reactions with OH radical, NO_3 radical and ozone. The fractions in 24-h averaged loss rates of anthropogenic **(C)** and biogenic **(D)** VOCs consumed by the three different oxidants.







Fig. 3. Comparison of emission ratios of NMHCs to CO determined at Changdao with those obtained in Beijing (Yuan et al., 2012), northeastern US (Warneke et al., 2007), Mexico City (Bon et al., 2011) and Tokyo (Shirai et al., 2007).





Fig. 4. Comparison of emission ratios of selected OVOC species in Changdao and those reported in Beijing (Yuan et al., 2012), northeastern US in 2002 and 2004 (Warneke et al., 2007) and Mexico City (Bon et al., 2011). Emission ratios determined from tunnel experiments, including gasoline and diesel vehicle emissions in California (Ban-Weiss et al., 2008) and the results from a tunnel in Sweden (Kristensson et al., 2004), are shown in the shaded grey areas of the graph.



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Fig. 5. Comparisons of emission ratios of VOCs to CO determined in the Changdao campaign with those in emission inventory of the four surrounding provinces (Beijing, Hebei, Shandong and Liaoning) (Zhang et al., 2009).











Fig. 7. Correlation of SOA calculated from VOC oxidations and SOA determined from AMS measurements under high-NO_x (left) and low-NO_x conditions (right).





Fig. 8. Comparisons of SOA formation from VOC oxidation, and from PAHs and higher nalkanes using emission factors of various sources after 50 h oxidations under both high-NO_v (A) and low-NO, (B) conditions. Error bars in the PAHs contributions of coal burning and biomass burning represent the highest and lowest calculated values from different types of coals or crop straws.



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Fig. 9. (A) SOA formation potentials of VOC emissions calculated from initial emission ratios of VOCs to CO in emission inventory of each province and from the results of field measurements (shaded areas) at an urban site in Beijing (Yuan et al., 2012) and during the Changdao campaign. **(B)** Comparison of SOA formation potentials of six aromatics at two sites in PRD (Guangzhou and Panyu) with those in Beijing and Changdao. **(C)** Scatterplots of SOA formation potential of VOC emissions in each province with gross domestic product (GDP) per capita in each province.



