

1 **Particle hygroscopicity and its link to chemical composition in the urban**
2 **atmosphere of Beijing, China during summertime**

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10 **Abstract:**

11 Simultaneous measurements of particle number size distribution, particle
12 hygroscopic properties, and size-resolved chemical composition were made during the
13 summer of 2014 in Beijing, China. During the measurement period, the mean
14 hygroscopicity parameters (κ s) of 50, 100, 150, 200, and 250 nm particles were
15 respectively 0.16 ± 0.07 , 0.19 ± 0.06 , 0.22 ± 0.06 , 0.26 ± 0.07 , and 0.28 ± 0.10 , showing an
16 increasing trend with increasing particle size. Such size-dependency of particle
17 hygroscopicity was similar to that of the inorganic mass fraction in PM_{10} . The
18 hydrophilic mode ($HGF > 1.2$) was more prominent in growth factor probability
19 density distributions and its dominance of hydrophilic mode became more
20 pronounced with increasing particle size. When $PM_{2.5}$ mass concentration is greater
21 than $50 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, the fractions of the hydrophilic mode for 150, 250, and 350 nm
22 particles increased towards 1 as $PM_{2.5}$ mass concentration increased. This indicates
23 that aged particles dominated during severe pollution periods in the atmosphere of
24 Beijing. Particle hygroscopic growth can be well predicted using high time-resolution
25 size-resolved chemical composition derived from AMS measurement using the ZSR
26 mixing rule. The organic hygroscopicity parameter (κ_{org}) showed a positive
27 correlation with oxygen to carbon ratio. During the new particle formation event
28 associating with strongly active photochemistry, the hygroscopic growth factor or κ of
29 newly formed particles is greater than for particle with the same sizes during non-NPF
30 periods. A quick transformation from external mixture to internal mixture for
31 pre-existing particles (for example 250 nm particle) was observed. Such

1 transformations may modify the state of mixture of pre-existing particles and thus
2 modify properties such as the light absorption coefficient and cloud condensation
3 nuclei activation.

4 **1 Introduction**

5 Hygroscopic growth of atmospheric particles is one of the important parameters
6 controlling their direct and indirect climate effects (McFiggans et al., 2006; Haywood
7 and Boucher, 2000). Due to water uptake, hydrophilic particles grow significantly in
8 size at high relative humidity (RH), which influences the particle light scattering and
9 extinction coefficients, thereby impairing visibility (Sloane and Wolff, 1985). In
10 addition, the water content of atmospheric aerosol particles can serve as a site for
11 heterogeneous nucleation and reactions that perturb local photochemistry
12 (Kreidenweis and Asa-Awuku, 2014). Therefore, a better understanding of
13 hygroscopic behavior of atmospheric aerosol particle is required to further elucidate
14 the physicochemical processes in the atmosphere.

15 The association of the particle chemical composition with their size-dependent
16 hygroscopic behavior is rather complex. In order to overcome such complexities,
17 Petters and Kreidenweis (2007) proposed a single hygroscopicity parameter
18 (κ), namely κ -Köhler theory. On the basis of the κ -Köhler theory and
19 Zdanovskii-Stokes-Robinson (ZSR) mixing rule (Stokes and Robinson,
20 1966; Zdanovskii, 1948), particle hygroscopic growth of a homogeneous chemical
21 mixture can be predicted, knowing hygroscopic growth factors of pure chemical
22 species. Aerosol mass spectrometers (AMS), which have been increasingly deployed
23 in atmospheric aerosol studies, can provide a high time resolution of the size-resolved
24 chemical composition of non-refractory particle material (DeCarlo et al., 2006).
25 Therefore, coupled measurements of an AMS and a Hygroscopicity Tandem
26 Differential Mobility Analyzer (H-TDMA) are able to capture highly variable changes
27 in chemical particle composition and hygroscopicity in real time. Some studies
28 highlighted the advantage of using size-selected AMS information over size-averaged

1 information from off-line chemical characterization (Medina et al., 2007;Gunthe et al.,
2 2009;Cerully et al., 2011;Wu et al., 2013).

3 Another key product of AMS measurements is the oxidation level and chemical
4 information of organic aerosols. Compared to inorganic species, which exhibit a
5 well-characterized hygroscopic behavior, knowledge on the influence of the water
6 uptake of the organic aerosols remains limited (Kanakidou et al., 2005;Hallquist et al.,
7 2009). The hygroscopicity of organic material varies with its oxidation state (Jimenez
8 et al., 2009), which may be highly variable in the real atmosphere, depending on the
9 history of an air mass. Such variation may present a significant challenge when
10 predicting hygroscopicity assuming a constant hygroscopic growth factor of the
11 organic aerosol fraction at a given relative humidity, as has usually been done in
12 closure studies.

13 Currently, some studies have been performed to investigate the relationship
14 between particle hygroscopicity and chemical composition in both field
15 measurements and laboratory experiments (Massoli et al., 2010;Wong et al.,
16 2011;Lambe et al., 2011;Rickards et al., 2013;Moore et al., 2012b;Suda et al.,
17 2014;Paramonov et al., 2013;Levin et al., 2012;Moore et al., 2012a). These works
18 specially focused on parametrizing the empirical correlations between the atomic
19 Oxygen : Carbon (O:C) ratio and organic hygroscopicity parameter (κ) derived from
20 either hygroscopic growth factor (e.g. Wu et al., 2013;Rickards et al., 2013) or Cloud
21 Condensation Nuclei (CCN) activity (e.g. Mei et al., 2013;Wong et al., 2011;Lambe et
22 al., 2011;Chang et al., 2010). Typically, a linear parametrization of the correlation
23 between κ and O:C was presented. Rickards et al. (2013) recently summarized the
24 literature data and pointed out the systematic variability in parametrizations between
25 organic κ and the O:C ratio determined from the different studies remains large. A
26 recent work done by Suda et al. (2014) tested the influence of the number and location
27 of molecular functional groups on the hygroscopicity of organic aerosols and may
28 improve our understanding the mechanisms of organics hygroscopicity.

29 Over the past several decades, particle hygroscopicity measurements have been
30 carried out world-wide, using the H-TDMA technique. Atmospheric environments, in

1 which those measurements were performed included marine, Antarctic, boreal forest,
2 rural, and urban areas. Swietlicki et al. (2008) and Kreidenweis and Asa-Awu (2014)
3 compiled the existing observations on particle hygroscopic growth in the literature.
4 Throughout these compilations, measurements of particle hygroscopicity have been
5 rarely performed in China, which is experiencing frequently severe haze pollution
6 episodes. These few particle hygroscopicity measurements using the H-TDMA
7 technique were deployed in Yangtze River Delta (Shanghai (Ye et al., 2013) and
8 Hangzhou (Zhang et al., 2011)), Pearl River Delta (Xinken (Cheng et al., 2008) and
9 Hong Kong (Lopez-Yglesias et al., 2014;Yeung et al., 2014)) and North China Plain
10 (Beijing (Massling et al., 2009;Meier et al., 2009), Yufa (Achtert et al., 2009), and
11 Wuqing (Liu et al., 2011)). Unfortunately, most of measurements lack a linkage
12 between particle hygroscopicity and chemical composition with a high time
13 resolution.

14 This study investigated the size-resolved particle hygroscopicity and chemical
15 composition in Beijing, China, during summertime. Our work provided a general
16 overview of particle hygroscopic behavior as well as a comparison of the observed
17 hygroscopic particle growth and simulated one using AMS-based chemical particle
18 composition, emphasizing on the organic mass fraction. Additionally, the evolution of
19 particle hygroscopicity during the new particle formation event was investigated to
20 understand the effects of strong photochemistry-driven atmospheric oxidation
21 processes on particle hygroscopicity and the mixing state.

22 **2 Measurements**

23 **2.1 The Sampling site**

24 The sampling site is on the campus of Peking University, located in northwest
25 Beijing. The laboratory was equipped with a suit of aerosol instruments sites on the
26 roof of a building (30 m above the ground). The relative humidity (RH) of the
27 sampled air was kept to below 30% using a silica gel dryer and a Nafion dryer in

1 series. The particle number size distribution, particle hygroscopicity, and aerosol mass
2 spectrometric measurements were concurrently made. Particle number size
3 distributions from 3 to 800 nm were measured by TSI-SMPS
4 (Long-DMA3081+CPC3775 and Nano-DMA3085+UCPC3776). The multiple charge
5 correction and particle loss correction were carried out. Other core instruments will be
6 briefly described below.

7 **2.2 Particle hygroscopicity measurements**

8 The H-TDMA used in this study has been described in detail in previous
9 publications (Wu et al., 2011; Massling et al., 2003), and complied to the instrumental
10 standards and quality assurance prescribed in Massling et al. (2011). The H-TDMA
11 consists of three main parts: (1) A Differential Mobility Analyzer (DMA1) that selects
12 quasi-monodisperse particles, and a Condensation Particle Counter (CPC1) that
13 measures the particle number concentration leaving the DMA1 at the selected particle
14 size; (2) An aerosol humidifier conditioning the particles selected by DMA1 to a
15 defined relative humidity (RH); (3) The second DMA (DMA2) coupled with another
16 condensation particle counter (CPC2) to measure the number size distributions of the
17 humidified particles. The second DMA and the aerosol humidification were placed in
18 a temperature-controlled box. Hygroscopicity scans with 100 nm ammonium sulfate
19 particles were performed every 3 hours to analyze the stability of the relative
20 humidity of 90% in the second DMA. Hygroscopicity scan with a deviation of more
21 than 3% in relative humidity to the set-point of 90% was not considered for further
22 analysis.

23 The hygroscopic growth factor (*HGF*) is defined as the ratio of the particle
24 mobility diameter, $Dp(RH)$, at a given RH to the dry diameter, Dp_{dry} :

$$25 \text{ HGF}(RH) = \frac{Dp(RH)}{Dp_{dry}} \quad [1]$$

26 The TDMA_{inv} method developed by Gysel et al. (2009) was used to invert the
27 H-TDMA data. Dry scans (under RH<10%) were used to calibrate a possible offset
28 between DMA1 and DMA2 and define the width of the H-TDMA's transfer function

1 (Gysel et al., 2009).

2 Based on the ZSR method , the *HGF* of a mixture can be estimated from the
3 *HGF_i* of the pure components and their respective volume fractions, ε_i (Malm and
4 Kreidenweis, 1997):

$$5 \quad HGF_{mixed} = (\sum_i \varepsilon_i HGF_i^3)^{1/3} \quad [2]$$

6 Here, we assumed that two components including soluble and insoluble fractions
7 consist of aerosols (also refer to Ehn et al., 2007; Swietlicki et al., 1999). The soluble
8 fraction was assumed to be ammonium sulfate. Then, the water-soluble volume
9 fraction ($\varepsilon_{soluble}$) can be calculated by:

$$10 \quad \varepsilon_{soluble} = \frac{HGF_{measured}^3 - 1}{HGF_{(NH_4)_2SO_4}^3 - 1} \quad [3]$$

11 where $HGF_{measured}$ is the HGF of the particles measured by H-TDMA, and
12 $HGF_{(NH_4)_2SO_4}$ is the HGF of pure $(NH_4)_2SO_4$ particles with the same size. When
13 calculating $HGF_{(NH_4)_2SO_4}$ in different diameters, the parameterizations for $(NH_4)_2SO_4$
14 water activity developed by Potukuchi and Wexler (1995) and the density reported by
15 Tang and Munkelwitz (1994) were used. The Kelvin term was considered in the
16 calculation. In this study, the hygroscopic growth factors of 50, 100, 150, 250, and
17 350 nm particles were measured at RH=90%.

18 **2.3 Particle chemical composition**

19 The Aerodyne HR-ToF-AMS (here simply referred to as AMS) (DeCarlo et al.,
20 2006) was operated with a time resolution of 5 minutes. Due to the 600°C surface
21 temperature of the vaporizer, the AMS can only analyze the non-refractory chemical
22 composition of the particles. Elemental carbon, crustal material, and sea-salt cannot
23 be detected. Therefore, based on the transmission efficiency of the aerodynamic
24 lenses and the detected compounds, the AMS can provide the size-resolved chemical
25 composition of the submicrometer non-refractory aerosol particle fraction (NR-PM₁)
26 (Canagaratna et al., 2007). Applying the method developed by Canagaratna et al.
27 (2015) the high resolution organic particle mass spectra were used to determine the
28 elemental composition and the Oxygen to Carbon atomic ratio (O:C). The vacuum

1 aerodynamic diameter for AMS measurements was converted to the particle mobility
2 diameter by division of AMS vacuum aerodynamic diameter by the estimated particle
3 density (1500 kg/m³). Here, the particle density is estimated by dividing the
4 AMS-measured PM₁ and black carbon mass concentrations by the SMPS-derived
5 particle volume concentration. Hereafter, the mobility diameter (assuming spherical
6 particles) was used for AMS data below.

7 AMS-positive matrix factor (PMF) analysis was performed to identify different
8 organic aerosols (OA) factors on the basis of the high resolution mass spectra of
9 organics (Ulbrich et al., 2009). Four OA components were resolved by PMF,
10 including low-volatility oxygenated organic aerosol (LV-OOA), semi-volatile
11 oxygenated OA (SV-OOA), hydrocarbon-like OA (HOA) and cooking OA (COA).
12 LV-OOA and SV-OOA typically represented aged SOA and freshly formed SOA,
13 respectively (Ulbrich et al., 2009). HOA and COA were both anthropogenic primary
14 organic aerosol (POA) components (Lanz et al., 2007).

15 Black carbon (BC) mass concentration in µg/m³ is derived from Photoacoustic
16 Extinctionmeter (PAX) measurements (DMT Company) (Arnott et al., 1999) equipped
17 with PM₁ cut-off inlet. In this study, PAX measurements were performed at
18 wavelength 532 nm.

19 **2.4 Meteorological parameters**

20 Additionally, a weather station (Met One Instruments Inc.) provided the
21 meteorological parameters. The wind speed, wind direction, ambient temperature, and
22 relative humidity (RH) were detected.

23 Air mass backward trajectories arriving at the sampling site were calculated
24 using the NOAA “HYSPLIT-4” (Hybrid Single-Particle Lagrangian Integrated
25 Trajectory) model (Draxler and Hess, 1998). The 48 h trajectories terminated on a
26 height of 200 m above the ground at 00:00, 06:00, 12:00 and 18:00 local time
27 (UTC+08). In total, 100 air mass backward trajectories were grouped by assigning to
28 five clusters using a k-means clustering algorithm. The number of clusters was

1 identified according to the changes of total spatial variance (TSV) (cf. HYSPLIT4
2 user's guide). Five was chosen as the final number of clusters considering optimum
3 separation of trajectories (larger number of clusters) and simplicity of display (lower
4 number of cluster).

5 **3 Theory**

6 **3.1 Hygroscopicity parameter**

7 The hygroscopicity parameter, κ , can be calculated from the hygroscopic growth
8 factor (HGF) measured by H-TDMA (Petters and Kreidenweis, 2007):

$$9 \quad \kappa_{HTDMA} = (HGF^3 - 1) \left(\frac{\exp\left(\frac{A}{D_{Pdry} \cdot HGF}\right) - 1}{RH} \right) \quad [4]$$

$$10 \quad A = \frac{4\sigma_{s/a}M_w}{RT\rho_w} \quad [5]$$

11 Where D_{Pdry} and HGF are the initial dry particle diameter and the hygroscopic growth
12 factor at 90% RH measured by H-TDMA, respectively. $\sigma_{s/a}$ is the droplet surface
13 tension (assumed to be that of pure water, $\sigma_{s/a} = 0.0728 \text{ N m}^{-2}$), M_w the molecular
14 weight of water, ρ_w the density of liquid water, R the universal gas constant, and T the
15 absolute temperature.

16 For a given internal mixture, κ can also be predicted by a simple mixing rule on
17 the basis of chemical volume fractions ε_i (Petters and Kreidenweis, 2007):

$$18 \quad \kappa_{chem} = \sum_i \varepsilon_i \kappa_i \quad [6]$$

19 Here, κ_i and ε_i are the hygroscopicity parameters and volume fraction for the
20 individual (dry) component in the mixture with i the number of components in the
21 mixture. We derived ε_i from the particle chemical composition measured by AMS and
22 PAX. The detailed description of how to calculate volume fraction is given in section
23 3.2. In the following discussions, κ_{HTDMA} and κ_{chem} denote respectively the values
24 derived from H-TDMA and predicted using the ZSR mixing rule.

1 3.2 Hygroscopicity-chemical composition closure

2 The AMS provided the particle mass size distribution of sulfate (SO_4^{2-}), nitrate
3 (NO_3^-), and ammonium (NH_4^+) ions as well that of organic compounds. We used a
4 simplified ion pairing scheme as presented in Gysel et al. (2007) to convert the ion
5 mass concentrations to the mass concentrations of their corresponding inorganic salts
6 as listed in Table 1. Unlike inorganic salts, the hygroscopicity of organic aerosols is
7 not well-recognized. In the literature, there were different approaches in representing
8 κ_{org} in the closure studies. Typically, κ_{org} is assumed as a constant value. Chang et al.,
9 (2010) represented κ_{org} by using the factors from the PMF analysis to group organics
10 measured by AMS into two components: a non-hygroscopic, unoxygenated
11 component consisting of the hydrocarbon-like organic aerosol (HOA) factor and a
12 hygroscopic component, consisting of the oxygenated factors LV-OOA, SV-OOA, and
13 biomass burning organic aerosol (BBOA). In our study, organic materials derived
14 from AMS measurements were grouped into two components including secondary
15 organic aerosols (SOA) and primary organic aerosols (POA) based on AMS-PMF
16 analysis. SOA, including LV-OOA and SV-OOA factors, is a more oxygenated
17 organic aerosol, thereby more hygroscopic and has a κ_{SOA} of 0.1, which was
18 calculated from the hygroscopic growth factor of organics at RH=90% as given in
19 Gysel et al. (2007) using Eq. (4) in section 3.1. By taking $\kappa_{\text{SOA}}=0.1$, the best fit
20 between κ_{HTDMA} and κ_{chem} was obtained in this study. One should note that kappa of
21 SOA may varied with its oxidation state (Jimenez et al., 2009). The usage of a
22 constant kappa value may introduce uncertainty in the closure of particle
23 hygroscopicity and chemical composition. POA is the unoxygenated component
24 consisting of the HOA and COA factors and is treated as hydrophobic material with
25 $\kappa_{\text{POA}}=0$. Then, κ_{org} can be calculated as:

$$26 \quad k_{\text{org}} = f_{\text{POA}} * k_{\text{POA}} + f_{\text{SOA}} * k_{\text{SOA}} \quad [7]$$

27 Here, κ_{org} is overall κ for organic aerosols. f_{POA} and f_{SOA} are volume fraction of
28 POA and SOA in total organic aerosols measured by AMS. One should note that Sun
29 et al. (2012b) found that the contributions of POA and SOA to OA showed a

1 size-dependency. The relative contribution of POA to OA significantly increased with
2 decreasing particle sizes. In this study, the closure studies were performed for
3 particles with the mobility diameters of 150, 250, and 350 nm (larger than 200 nm in
4 vacuum aerodynamic diameter). Using the relative contribution of POA to OA in PM₁
5 tended to overestimate percentage of POA for the size range focused in this study,
6 thus underestimate the κ . In our case, the POA/OA and SOA/OA were respectively
7 0.39 and 0.61. According to equation [7], the κ_{org} can be calculated as 0.06 assuming
8 $\kappa_{\text{SOA}}=0.1$. On the basis of Sun et al.'s study, the POA/OAs for 150, 250, and 350 nm
9 particles were 0.30, 0.23, and 0.19, respectively. Using these ratios and equation [7],
10 the calculated κ_{orgs} were 0.07, 0.08, and 0.08, respectively, which were slightly higher
11 than the one ($\kappa_{\text{org}}=0.06$) in our case. This minor difference can be negligible.

12 The volume fraction of each species was calculated from the particle mass
13 concentration divided by its density as given in Table 1. The densities for inorganic
14 salts were well defined. By summarizing the articles published (Park et al.,
15 2004;McMurry et al., 2002;Kondo et al., 2011;Kiselev et al., 2010), 1700 kg/m³ was
16 selected as BC density. The hygroscopicity parameter κ of the hydrophobic black
17 carbon was considered to be zero. The density of organic particle mass fraction
18 including both SOA and POA was taken to be 1400 kg/m³ (Gysel et al., 2007;Alfarra
19 et al., 2006;Dinar et al., 2006). The κ_{HTDMA} values for the individual compounds listed
20 in the Table 1 were calculated from the hygroscopic growth factor at 90% RH as
21 given in Gysel et al. (2007) using equation [4] in the section 3.1.

22 **4 Results and discussion**

23 **4.1 Meteorological condition during the sampling period**

24 Fig. 1 showed the mean air mass backward trajectories for five clusters arriving at
25 the sampling site from May 31 to June 24, 2014. The mean backward trajectories in
26 five cluster showed the significant differences in direction and length. The air masses
27 from the east (45%) and the south (26%) were the dominate trajectories. The

1 short-length air mass backward trajectories in cluster 1 and 2 indicated that air parcels
2 moved slowly and spent much more time over the industrialized regions south and
3 east of Beijing. As a result, the southerly and easterly air masses may be heavily
4 polluted once they arrived at Beijing (Wehner et al., 2008). Cluster 3 spent much more
5 time over the sea and may be associated with humid air masses. Northerly (8%) and
6 north-westerly (10%) air masses, as represented by clusters 4–5, typically lead to the
7 advection of dry and continental air into the Beijing area.

8 Fig. 2 displays the time series of wind speed, wind direction, ambient temperature,
9 and RH during the sampling period. There was a clear diurnal cycle for all
10 meteorological parameters. During nighttime, the wind speed was usually very low
11 (around 1 m/s) and started to increase around noon on each day. The nighttime static
12 wind may lead to very poor dilution with clean air and dispersion of pollutants and
13 result in the local emissions were trapped in the urban atmosphere. The ambient
14 temperature usually was above 30 °C during daytime and around 20 °C during
15 nighttime. The average temperature and RH were respectively 24 ± 7 °C and $45\pm 20\%$.
16 It rained several times during the measuring period, as indicated in the Fig. 2 (a). The
17 heaviest wet deposition occurred on 17, June. The wet deposition obviously removed
18 the atmospheric particles, as can be seen from the particle number size distribution
19 shown in Fig. 3 (a).

20 In summer, the new particle formation and traffic emissions are the major sources
21 of ultrafine particles in the atmosphere of Beijing (Wu et al., 2008; Wu et al., 2007). In
22 addition, air masses across the industrialized regions in the south and east typically
23 bring the high concentrations of accumulation mode particles to urban areas of
24 Beijing (Wehner et al., 2008).

25 **4.2 Overview of particle hygroscopic growth and the mixing state**

26 Fig. 3 provides an overview of the particle number size distribution (a),
27 hygroscopicity parameters (κ) (b), and chemical composition of PM_{10} (c) during the
28 entire field campaign. The trajectory clusters were marked as black circles in the Fig.

1 3 (a). As shown in the Fig. 3 (a), new particle formation (NPF) events were observed
2 frequently. During the sampling period, the inorganic species and SOA were
3 dominated in NR-PM₁ when air masses came from south and east of Beijing
4 (trajectory cluster 1 and 2 as indicated by black circles in Fig.3 (a)). SOA was usually
5 dominated in the organic compounds during the sampling period. Differently, the
6 POA was a major fraction on June 7, 8, and 9, on which the BC mass fraction
7 increased too. During this time period, the northerly air masses (trajectory cluster 5
8 marked in Fig. 3 (a)) arriving at the measurement site may be influenced by the wheat
9 straw burning, which usually takes place from late May to early June over North
10 China Plain. Several previous studies showed that wheat straw burning significantly
11 contributes to degradation of air quality in Beijing during the harvest season in the
12 summer (Li et al., 2008;Zheng et al., 2005).

13 Fig. 3 (b) displays the time series of hygroscopicity parameters for 50 nm ($\kappa_{50\text{nm}}$)
14 and 250 nm ($\kappa_{250\text{nm}}$) particles. Both $\kappa_{50\text{nm}}$ and $\kappa_{250\text{nm}}$ had an obvious temporal
15 variability. Their variations were similar to that of inorganic mass fraction in PM₁
16 displayed in Fig. 3 (c). An in-depth analysis of the relationship between particle
17 hygroscopicity and chemical composition will be given in section 4.3. Fig. 4 gives an
18 overview of growth factor probability density distributions (GF-PDF) for 50 and 250
19 nm particles during the entire field campaign. The GF-PDFs of both 50 and 250 nm
20 showed two distinct modes, which are identified as hydrophobic mode (GF<1.2) and
21 hydrophilic mode (GF>1.2). This implied that the particles were usually externally
22 mixed. The hydrophilic mode of 250 nm particles is more prominent most of the time.
23 Differently, the hydrophobic mode was dominated in 50 nm particles. As marked in
24 the Fig. 4 (a) by the square with dashed line, the hydrophobic mode disappeared
25 occasionally, indicating that the vast majority of particles in this size range can be
26 fully hygroscopic. This phenomenon took place during the NPF events. A case study
27 of particle hygroscopic behavior during the NPF event will be given in section 4.4.

28 Fig. 5 (left) shows the size-dependent particle hygroscopicity parameters and
29 inorganic mass fraction of NR-PM₁ derived from averaging over the entire measuring
30 period. The particle hygroscopicity increased with increasing particle size, displaying

1 the same size-dependency with the mass fraction of inorganic composition in
2 NR-PM₁. This is because inorganics including ammonium sulfate and ammonium
3 nitrate are major water-soluble chemical compounds in the atmospheric particles.
4 Compared to inorganic components, the hygroscopicity parameter of organic aerosols
5 are typically lower than 0.1 (Varutbangkul et al., 2006; Virkkula et al., 1999). The
6 similar size-dependency of particle hygroscopicity was observed in various
7 environments. For examples, Levin et al. (2012;2014) and Paramonov et al. (2013)
8 reported that particle hygroscopicity increased with particle size at a forested site in
9 Colorado and a boreal environment of southern Finland at the SMEAR station,
10 respectively. Jurányi et al (2013) observed that particle hygroscopic growth increased
11 with increasing dry diameter in the urban areas of Paris. Swietlicki et al. (2008)
12 compiled worldwide H-TDMA data and found that the particle hygroscopicity showed
13 a pronounced size-dependency, with hygroscopicity increasing with particle diameter.

14 Fig. 5 (right) shows the size-dependency of the fraction of the hydrophilic mode.
15 It can be seen that the hydrophilic mode was more prominent, no matter what particle
16 size was considered. With increasing particle size, the dominance of hydrophilic mode
17 became more pronounced. Above 150 nm, the number fraction of hydrophilic mode
18 was around 0.8, and its size-dependency was insignificant. Below 150 nm, the number
19 fraction of hydrophilic mode increases significantly with increasing particle size. The
20 median number fraction of hydrophilic mode for 50 nm particles was 0.6, which was
21 smaller than those of larger particles. Fors et al. (2011) also reported that smaller
22 particles had a higher fraction of less hygroscopic particles in southern Sweden.
23 Larger particles (here, above 150 nm) constituting a larger fraction of the hydrophilic
24 mode can be explained as such: In the urban area, traffic emissions are major sources
25 for particles below 100 nm. Typically, freshly emitted particles, such as soot, are
26 initially hydrophobic and externally mixed. In contrast, larger particles have
27 undergone atmospheric aging processes during transport (such as coagulation,
28 condensation, chemical reaction) (Pöschl, 2005) for a longer time. These aging
29 processes enhance the particle's water solubility (Pöschl, 2005; Jimenez et al., 2009)
30 and result in more internally mixed particles.

1 Over the entire study, the mean κ s of 50, 100, 150, 250, and 350 nm particles were
2 0.16 ± 0.07 , 0.19 ± 0.06 , 0.22 ± 0.06 , 0.26 ± 0.07 , and 0.28 ± 0.10 , respectively. These
3 values were similar to the hygroscopicity parameter $\kappa = 0.12\text{--}0.27$ (measured at
4 $\text{RH}=90\%$) for 35–265 nm determined in the urban atmosphere of Paris (Jurányi et al.,
5 2013). Yeung et al. (2014) observed that hygroscopicity κ s of particles with sizes of
6 75, 100, 150, and 200 nm were respectively 0.28, 0.29, 0.26, and 0.27 when Hong
7 Kong experienced a continental airstream. In their study, the particle hygroscopicity
8 showed no obvious size-dependency and was higher than our observation in Beijing.
9 In contrast, κ s measured were relatively low at a forested site in Colorado ($\kappa =$
10 0.16 ± 0.08 detected by CCNc), a boreal forest in Finland ($\kappa = 0.18$ at $\text{RH}=90\%$) (Sihto
11 et al., 2011), and a tropical forest site in the Amazon ($\kappa = 0.16\pm 0.06$ detected by
12 CCNc) (Gunthe et al., 2009). At these forested locations, organic species were
13 predominance in particles. Differently, in the atmosphere of Beijing, the inorganic
14 fraction was relatively dominated, as shown in the Fig.3 (c).

15 The haze issue caused by high aerosol loadings over the northern plain of China is
16 a major concern, for both air quality and climate effects. Here, the $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ mass
17 concentration which measured by TEOM[®] Monitor (Series 1400ab), a key factor
18 characterizing air pollution, vs. the fraction of the hydrophilic mode is plotted (Fig. 6)
19 to analyze the relationship between the particle mixing state and air pollution. There
20 was no obvious dependency between the $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ mass concentration and the number
21 fraction of hydrophilic mode for 50 nm particles, which can be expected due to the
22 low mass fraction of ultrafine particles. This was however also true for 150, 250, and
23 350 nm particles, if $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ mass concentration is lower than $50 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. The reason for
24 this is that the particle mass concentration is dominated by local sources and less by
25 secondary aerosol particles formed during long-range transport. Conversely, when
26 $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ mass concentration was larger than $50 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, the fraction of the hydrophilic
27 mode was larger than 0.7. With the increasing $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ mass concentration, the fraction
28 rose towards to 1, indicating that the aged aerosols were dominant. This means that
29 secondary aerosol particles were dominant during severe particulate pollution
30 episodes, occurring frequently in Beijing. Our results were consistent to recent

1 scientific findings (Guo et al., 2014;Huang et al., 2014), which pointed out that the
2 haze pollution events were mainly attributable to secondary aerosol formation.

3 **4.3 Closure between particle hygroscopicity and chemical components**

4 The AMS-derived particle mass concentrations for different chemical compounds
5 were used to perform a closure study. The particle mass concentrations for individual
6 species were integrated over the size interval of $D_{\text{Pdry}} \pm 50$ nm. Here, D_{Pdry} is the dry
7 particle diameter selected by H-TDMA. Considering the limited signal statistics in
8 this narrow size range, AMS data were used to carry out the closure only if the sum of
9 sulfate, nitrate, ammonium, and organics mass concentrations derived from
10 integrating size range of $D_{\text{Pdry}} \pm 50$ nm was greater than $1 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$.

11 The BC particle mass concentration within the size range of $D_{\text{Pdry}} \pm 50$ nm was
12 estimated as follows: First, the ratio ($R_{\text{BC}/\text{PM1}}$) of BC particle mass concentration
13 (derived from PAX) to bulk particle mass concentration (derived from AMS
14 measurement) was calculated, assuming this ratio was independent on the particle size.
15 Afterwards, the BC particle mass concentration in a certain size range, e.g., 150 ± 50
16 nm was estimated by multiplying the mass concentration derived from integrating
17 particle size range of 150 ± 50 nm (AMS data) and $R_{\text{BC}/\text{PM1}}$. One should note that this
18 assumption may give an uncertainty in the closure, because the BC mass
19 concentration has a dependency with particle size (Huang et al., 2006). Sun et al.
20 (2012a) reported that the average mass size distribution of BC had one mode peaking
21 at a volume-equivalent diameter of 207 nm. The sizes of 150, 250, 350 nm covered
22 the peak of BC mass size distribution. As a result, the BC mass concentration for
23 particles in diameter of 150, 250, and 350 nm should be higher than that estimated
24 with the assumption of uniformly distributed BC across the whole particle size range.

25 The SOA and POA mass fractions within the size range of $D_{\text{Pdry}} \pm 50$ nm were
26 estimated using a similar method as the calculation of BC mass concentration given
27 above. The POA (MF_{POA}) and SOA (MF_{SOA}) mass fractions in total organic aerosols
28 in NR-PM1 are calculated on a basis of the AMS-PMF analysis results. Assuming

1 MF_{POA} and MF_{SOA} were independent of the particle diameter, the POA or SOA mass
2 concentration in the size range $D_{\text{p,dry}} \pm 50$ nm can be calculated by multiplying the
3 organic mass concentration derived from integrating particle size range of 150 ± 50 nm
4 (AMS data) and MF_{POA} or MF_{SOA} . Fig. 7 shows the scattering plots of κ_{chem} calculated
5 from the size-resolved chemical composition against κ_{HTDMA} . The fitted slopes for
6 150, 250, and 350 nm particles were 1.02, 0.99, and 0.97, respectively, which is close
7 to unit. The root mean square errors (RMSE) of these linear fits were 0.04. This
8 indicates that the measured κ can be well predicted on a basis of AMS data and the
9 ZSR mixing rule. While, one should note that the assumption of BC mass size
10 distribution and κ_{org} value in the closure as well as the measurement uncertainties for
11 both H-TDMA and AMS could introduce the biases in the closure. This may lead to a
12 scatter of data point around the fitting line.

13 Assuming the inorganic fraction was fully explained by the ZSR mixing rule, κ_{org}
14 can be calculated by subtracting κ of inorganic fraction and BC from κ_{HTDMA} .
15 Here, κ_{org} for 150 nm particles was calculated because it provided a better closure
16 result and higher organic fraction in contrast to other particle sizes. Duplissy et al.
17 (2011) pointed out that the uncertainty in the estimation of κ_{org} decreases with
18 increasing organic fraction, thereby, only data featuring organic fractions larger than
19 50% were used in this calculation. In addition, the evaporation of NH_4NO_3 could
20 occur in the DMAs and the humidification section. This leads to a positive prediction
21 bias because the volatile NH_4NO_3 , which is fully detected by AMS, can evaporate in
22 the H-TDMA system (Gysel et al., 2007). Here, only data with NH_4NO_3 volume
23 fraction below 20% were considered in order to reduce the evaporation artifact of
24 NH_4NO_3 . Restricting data to times when ammonium nitrate is below 20% and
25 organics were greater than 50% may lead to a bias in data points between daytime and
26 nighttime. The statistics showed that nighttime data points (204 data points) were
27 more than those during daytime (160 data points). This is because that the organic
28 mass fraction during nighttime was higher than that during daytime. This bias could
29 make the fit between κ_{org} and O:C ratio more representative for nighttime situation
30 than daytime.

1 Fig. 8 shows κ_{org} as a function of O:C ratio. From the degree of scatter point of
2 view, κ_{org} was not correlated to the O:C ratio. Several previous studies reported the
3 similar plots of κ_{org} values as a function of O:C ratios (Chang et al., 2010;Bhattu and
4 Tripathi, 2015;Rickards et al., 2013). In order to derive an empirical relationship
5 between κ_{org} and O:C ratios, κ_{org} values were usually binned by O:C in increments of
6 0.1. As displayed in Fig. 8, a linear fitting function
7 ($\kappa_{\text{org}}=(0.08\pm 0.02)*\text{O:C}+(0.02\pm 0.01)$) was obtained. Some empirical functions
8 reported by other previous studies were also shown in Fig.8. In these previous studies
9 (Wu et al., 2013;Jimenez et al., 2009;Rickards et al., 2013;Duplissy et al., 2011), the
10 κ_{org} were derived from the measurements performed in the sub-saturation regime. In
11 Massoli et al.' study (2010) (not shown in the Fig. 8 due to the linear fitting using
12 HGF, not κ_{org}), they reported a linear relationship ($\text{HGF}_{90\%} = (0.58\pm 0.15)*\text{O:C} + (0.85$
13 $\pm 0.08)$) between $\text{HGF}_{90\%}$ and O:C for the laboratory-generated SOA particles. Both
14 results displayed in Fig. 8 and Massoli's study showed a positive correlation between
15 κ_{org} and O:C. Such positive correlation was also reported by those studies based on
16 CCNc measurements, for examples, Chang et al. (2010) and Mei et al. (2013). We
17 note that the slopes of the linear fitting varied with different studies, indicating there
18 was no a simple parametrization to describe the relationship between organic
19 hygroscopicity and its oxidation state though the various atmospheric environments.
20 Recently, Richards et al. (2013) had undertaken an extensive review of κ values
21 published in the literature and showed that κ_{org} vs. O:C plot has a large degree of
22 scatter. This indicates that other factors, such as phase state (Pajunoja et al., 2015) and
23 molecular structures (Suda et al., 2014) of organic aerosols (OA) other than oxidation
24 state may also play a role in the determination of the OA hygroscopicity.

25 **4.4 Case study: particle hygroscopicity during a NPF event**

26 As shown in Fig. 3 (a), the NPF events frequently took place during the sampling
27 period. In order to understand the effects of NPF on particle hygroscopic behavior,
28 this section will exemplify the evolution of particle hygroscopicity during a NPF

1 event. As an example, Fig. 9 displays the time series of particle number size
2 distribution, GF-PDFs and water soluble fraction of 50 and 250 nm particles, and
3 chemical composition of PM₁ during a NPF event occurred on 5th June, 2014. Here,
4 the particles with 50 nm in diameter represented the newly formed particles, and
5 particles with 250 nm in diameter represented the pre-existing particles.

6 The NPF event started at around 10:30 am and ended at 5:30 am the next day.
7 After the starting of new particle formation, the number fraction of the hydrophilic
8 mode for 50 nm particles increased from 0.5 to around 1, showing the conversion of
9 externally to more internally mixed particles, as marked by the black dashed lines in
10 Fig. 9 (b). Around 8:30 pm, the fraction of the hydrophilic mode particles dropped to
11 0.6, and the hydrophobic mode appeared again. This is attributed to the intensive
12 traffic emissions at the time of rush hour, which can clearly be seen from the particle
13 number size distribution. During nighttime, the growth factor of hydrophilic mode
14 particles decreased. This can be explained by sulfuric acid condensation playing a
15 minor role in particle growth during nighttime. Simultaneously, ambient temperature
16 decreased from 27 to 20 °C. Lower temperature facilitated the condensation of
17 semi-volatile organic vapors onto the newly formed particles. The chemical
18 composition of PM₁ also (Fig. 9 (d)) showed that the inorganic species and SOA were
19 dominated before 8:30 pm, while mass fraction of organic compounds, especially
20 POA increased significantly afterwards.

21 Clearly, an obvious enhancement in the water soluble fraction of 50 nm particles
22 took place after the NPF event started. Similar phenomenon was also observed by
23 Shantz et al. (2012), which showed that the 36 nm particles became increasingly CCN
24 active within 1-4 h after the nucleation during the NPF events. They hypothesized that
25 the condensation of sulphate on these small particles enhanced their CCN activity.
26 The water soluble fraction accounted for 42% in 50 nm newly formed particles. The
27 water soluble fraction was most likely ammonium sulfate formed from neutralization
28 reaction between ammonia and sulfuric acid. In contrast, the newly formed particles
29 consisted a minor fraction of water soluble fraction (16%) in Hyytiälä, Finland (Ehn
30 et al., 2007). Other observations in the clean atmospheric environments (relative to

1 Beijing), such as a forested site in Colorado (Levin et al., 2012), Mace Head, Ireland
2 (Väkevä et al., 2002), Melpitz, Germany (Wu et al., 2015) also showed that low water
3 soluble compounds, most likely secondary organic species mainly contributed to new
4 particle growth. Differently, in urban Atlanta (Sakurai et al., 2005), the water soluble
5 fraction was dominated in the newly formed particles, which was similar to our
6 observation in this study.

7 As shown in Figure 9 (c), the fraction of the hydrophilic mode of 250 nm particles
8 increased significantly and approached 1 after the NPF event started. This can be
9 explained as such: during the particle formation, a large amount of condensable
10 vapors, such as sulfuric acid and secondary organic species produced because of the
11 strongly active photochemistry. These condensable vapors can condense onto the
12 pre-existing particle and result in the transformation of external mixture to internal
13 mixture. Such transformation may alter the atmospheric behaviors of pre-existing
14 particles, such as optical property and cloud condensation nuclei activation during the
15 new particle formation events.

16 **5 Conclusions**

17 Particle number size distribution, particle hygroscopicity, and size-resolved
18 chemical composition were measured concurrently during summertime 2014 in
19 Beijing, China. The particle hygroscopicity showed a pronounced size-dependency. It
20 increased with increasing particle size. During the measurement period, the mean κ s
21 of 50, 100, 150, 200, and 250 nm particles are 0.16 ± 0.07 , 0.19 ± 0.06 , 0.22 ± 0.06 ,
22 0.26 ± 0.07 , and 0.28 ± 0.10 , respectively. The size-dependency behavior of particle
23 hygroscopicity was similar to that of inorganic compounds in PM_{10} . The hydrophilic
24 mode ($HGF > 1.2$) was more prominent, no matter what particle size was considered.
25 With increasing particle size, the dominance of hydrophilic mode became more
26 pronounced. When $PM_{2.5}$ mass concentration was below $50 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, no dependency
27 between $PM_{2.5}$ mass concentration and the number fraction of hydrophilic mode was
28 found. Above $50 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, the number fraction of hydrophilic mode for 150, 250, 350

1 nm particles increased and rose towards to 1 with the increasing PM_{2.5} mass
2 concentration. This means that aged particles was dominated the particle mass
3 concentration, especially during severe particulate pollution events in Beijing. Based
4 on the size-resolved AMS data, the particle hygroscopic growth can be well predicted
5 using the ZSR method. The organic hygroscopicity parameter showed a positive
6 correlation with O:C ratio.

7 Frequent new particle formation events took place during the measuring period.
8 The hygroscopic growth factor or κ of newly formed particles was greater than the
9 hygroscopic growth factor of particles with the same sizes during non-NPF periods.
10 During the new particle formation, fast transformations of external mixture to internal
11 mixture for existing particles (for example 250 nm particle) have been observed. This
12 was a strong indication that secondary aerosol material such as organics and sulfates
13 were produced due to the strongly active photochemistry during NPF events, and
14 subsequently condensed onto the particles. Such transformation may modify the
15 atmospheric behaviors of pre-existing particles, such as optical property and cloud
16 condensation nuclei activation.

17

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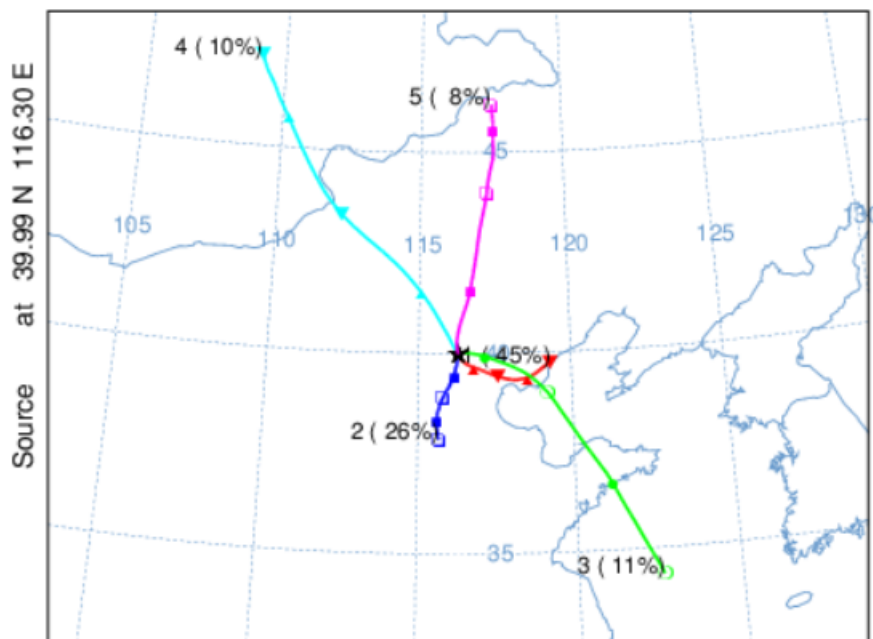
5 **Table and figures**

6

7 Table 1: Gravimetric densities (ρ) and hygroscopicity parameters (κ) used in this
8 study.

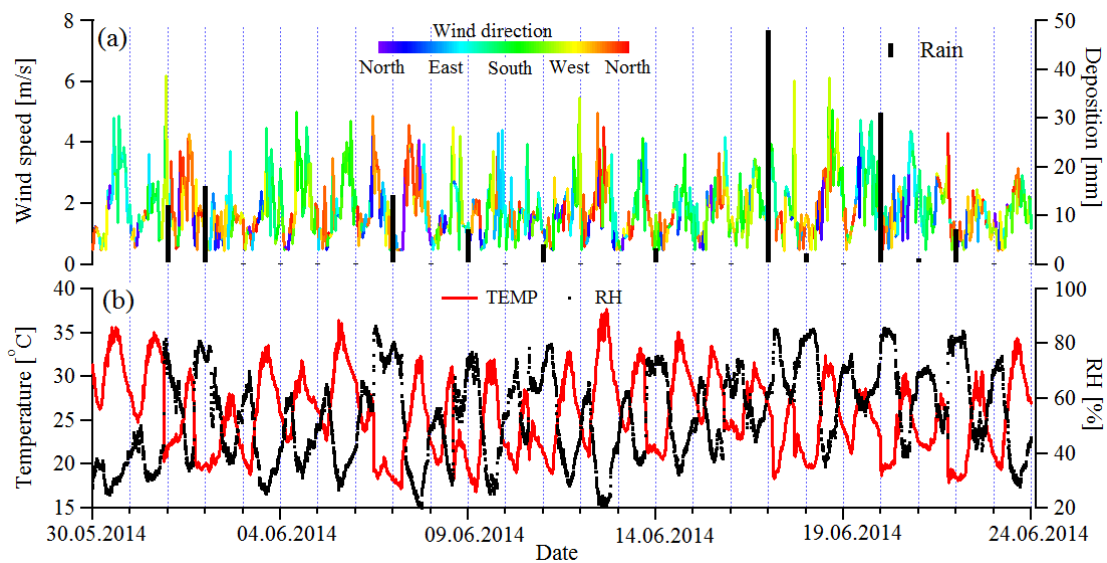
Species	NH_4NO_3	NH_4HSO_4	$(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$	SOA	POA	BC
[kg/m^3]	1720	1780	1769	1400	1400	1700
κ	0.58	0.56	0.48	0.1	0	0

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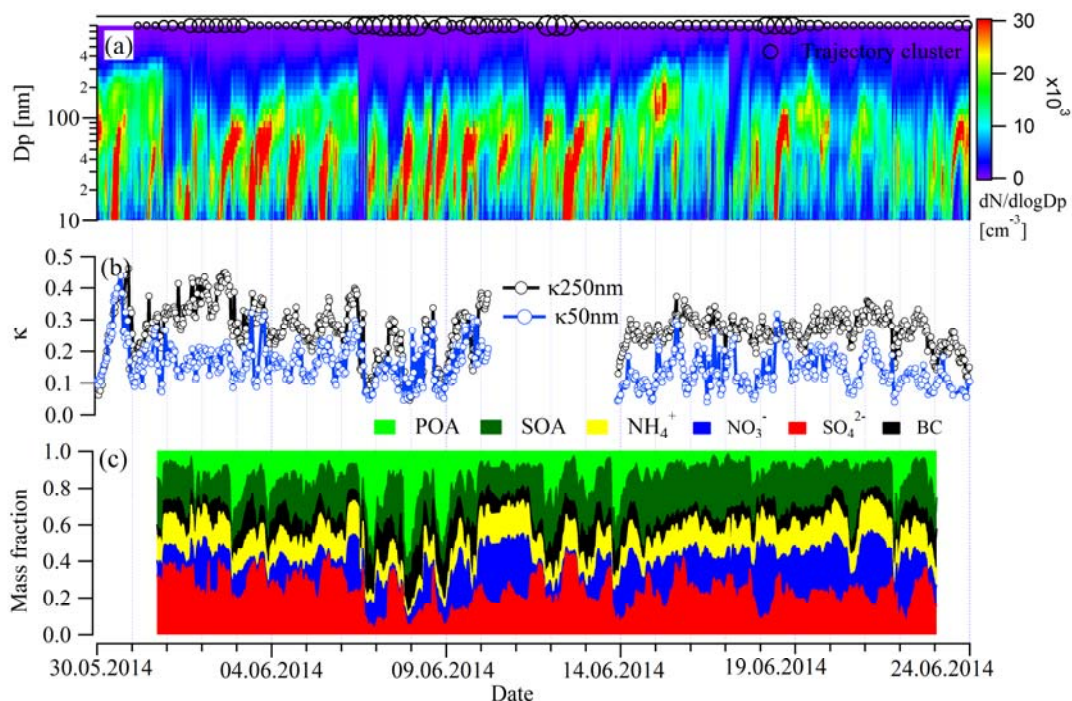
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Figure 1: Mean air mass backward trajectories for five clusters arriving at the sampling site.



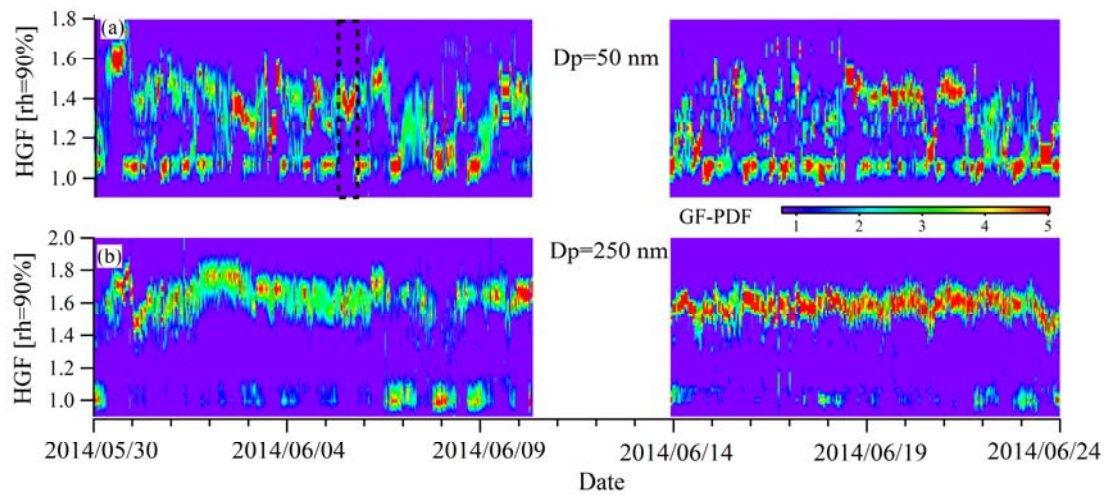
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Figure 2: The time series of wind speed, wind direction, wet deposition (a) and temperature and RH (b) during the sampling period.



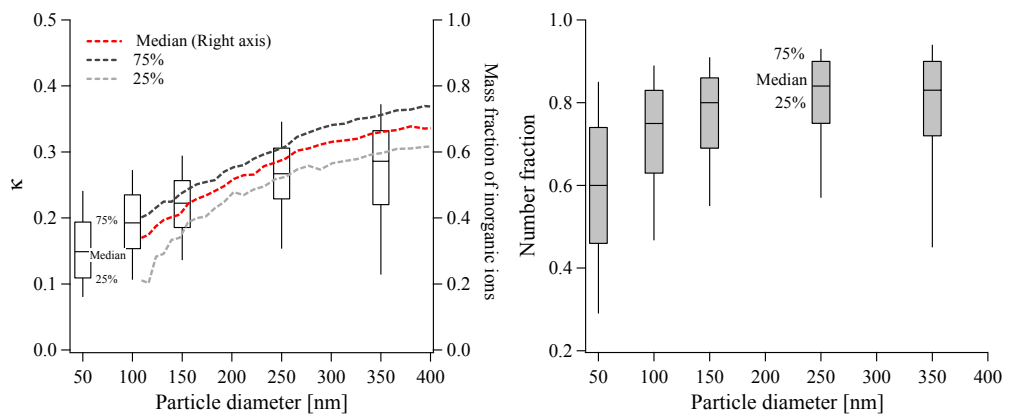
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Figure 3: Time series of particle number size distribution (a), hygroscopicity parameters (κ) (b), and chemical composition of PM1 (c) during the measuring period. The black circles in the upper panel (a) indicate the trajectory clusters. The smallest circle means cluster 1, and the biggest one is cluster 5.



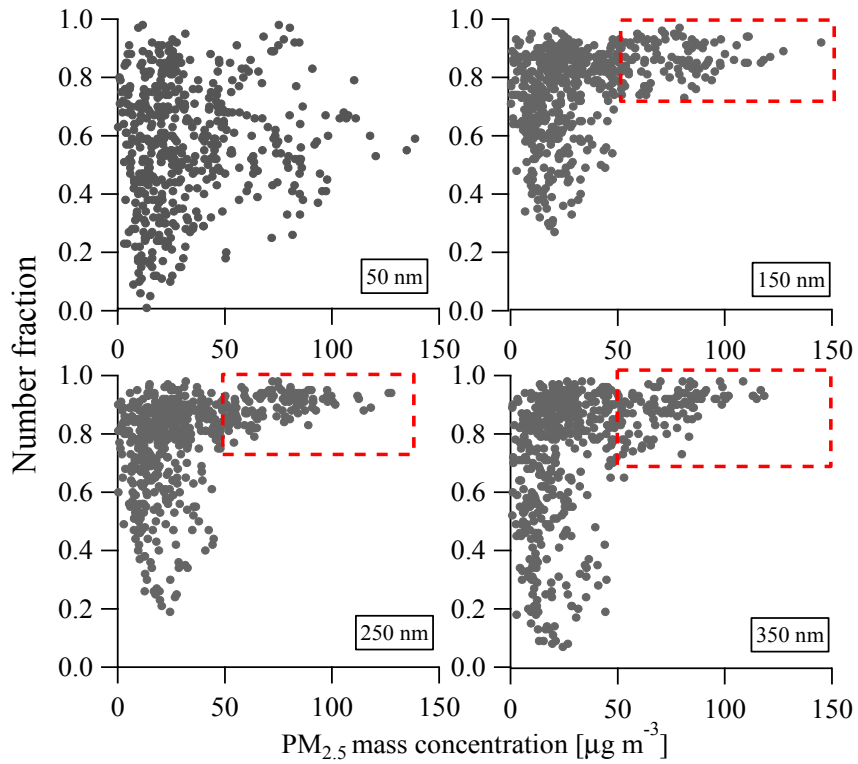
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Figure 4: The time series of the GF-PDFs for 50 and 250 nm particles.



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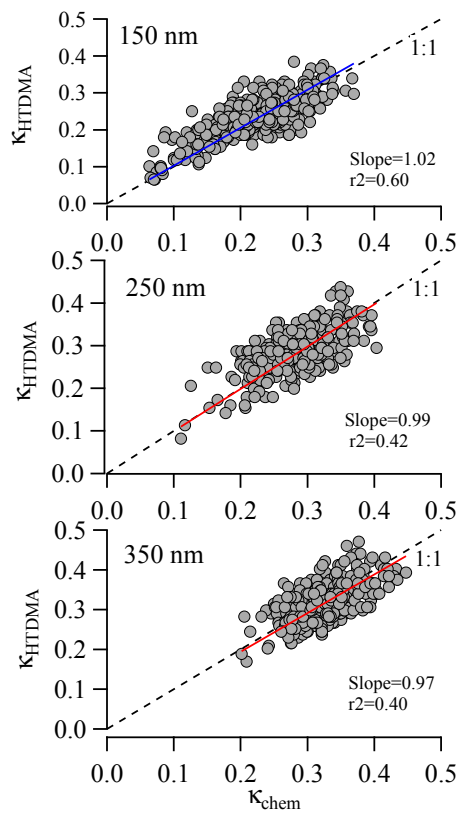
Figure 5: Size-resolved particle hygroscopicity and inorganic mass fraction (left) in NR-PM1 and Size-dependent number fraction of hydrophilic mode (right).



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Figure 6: Number fraction of hydrophilic mode vs $PM_{2.5}$ mass concentration

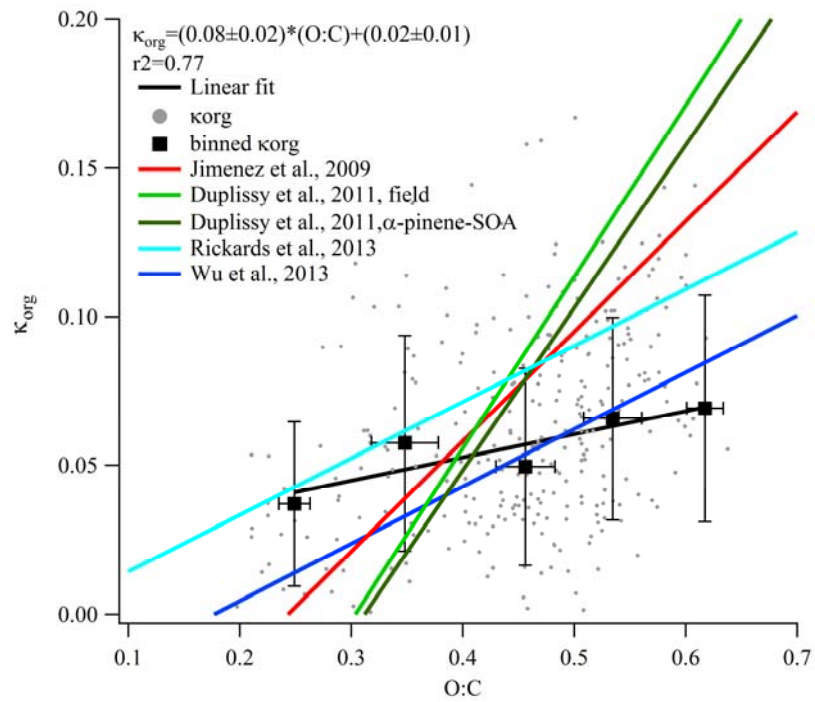


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Figure 7: κ_{HTDMA} vs. κ_{chem} using size-resolved chemical composition data. All the root mean square errors (RMSE) of the linear fits were 0.04.



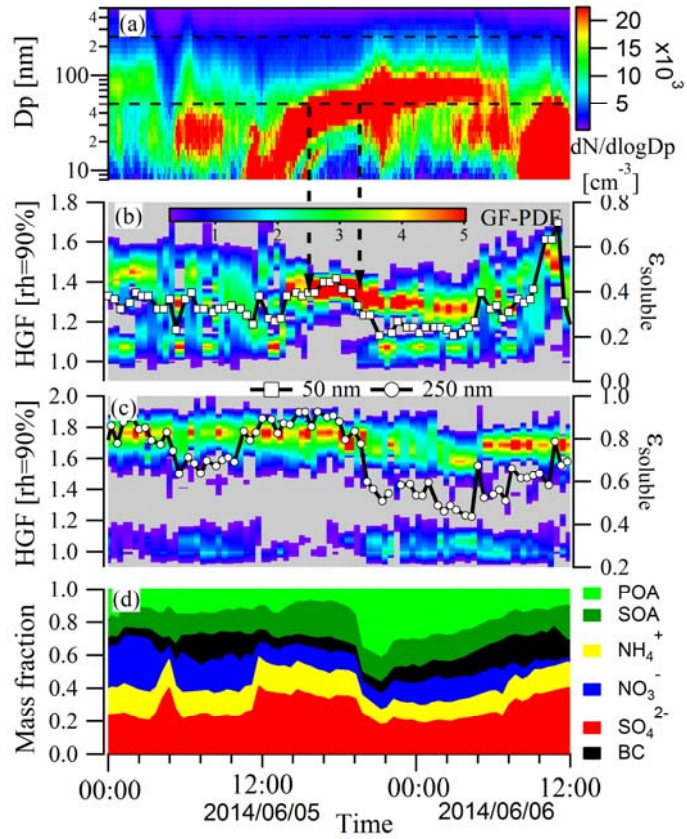
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2 Figure 8: The relationship between organic hygroscopicity parameter (κ_{org}) and
 3 oxygen to carbon ratio (O: C).

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Figure 9: The variation in particle number size distribution (a), GF-PDF (b, c), water soluble volume fraction (b, c), and chemical composition of PM₁ (d) during a NPF event.