

1 **Seasonal variations of ultrafine and sub-micron aerosols in Taipei,**  
2 **Taiwan: implications for particle formation processes in urban areas**

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12  
13 **Abstract**

14 The aim of this study is to investigate the seasonal variations in the physicochemical  
15 properties of atmospheric ultrafine particles (UFPs,  $d \leq 100\text{nm}$ ) and submicron  
16 particles ( $\text{PM}_{10}$ ,  $d \leq 1\mu\text{m}$ ) in an East-Asian urban area, which are hypothesized to be  
17 affected by the interchange of summer and winter monsoons. An observation  
18 experiment was conducted at the TARO (Taipei Aerosol and Radiation Observatory),  
19 an urban aerosol station in Taipei, Taiwan, from October 2012 to August 2013. The  
20 measurements included the mass concentration and chemical composition of UFPs  
21 and  $\text{PM}_{10}$ , as well as the particle number concentration (PNC) and number size  
22 distribution (PSD) with size range of 4-736 nm. The results indicated that the mass  
23 concentration of  $\text{PM}_{10}$  was elevated during cold seasons with a peak level of  $18.5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$   
24 in spring, whereas the highest UFPs concentration was measured in summertime  
25 with a mean of  $1.64 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ . Moreover, chemical analysis revealed that the UFPs and  
26  $\text{PM}_{10}$  were characterized by distinct composition; UFPs were composed mostly of  
27 organics, whereas ammonium and sulfate were the major constituents in  $\text{PM}_{10}$ . The  
28 seasonal median of total PNCs ranged from  $13.9 \times 10^3 \text{ cm}^{-3}$  in autumn to  $19.4 \times 10^3$   
29  $\text{cm}^{-3}$  in spring. Median concentrations for different size distribution modes peaked in  
30 different seasons. The nucleation mode PNC ( $N_{4-25}$ ) peaked at  $11.6 \times 10^3 \text{ cm}^{-3}$  in  
31 winter, whereas the Aitken mode ( $N_{25-100}$ ) and accumulation mode ( $N_{100-736}$ ) exhibited  
32 summer maxima at  $6.0 \times 10^3$  and  $3.1 \times 10^3 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ , respectively. The change in PSD  
33 during summertime was attributed to the enhancement in the photochemical  
34 production of condensable organic matter that, in turn, contributed to the growth of  
35 aerosol particles in the atmosphere. In addition, clear photochemical production of  
36 particles was observed, mostly in summer season, which were characterized by  
37 averaged particle growth and formation rates of  $4.0 \pm 1.1 \text{ nm h}^{-1}$  and  $1.4 \pm 0.8 \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ,  
38 respectively. The prevalence of new particle formation (NPF) in summer was

39 suggested as a result of seasonally enhanced photochemical oxidation of SO<sub>2</sub> that  
40 contributed to the production of H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>, and low level of PM<sub>10</sub> ( $d \leq 10\mu\text{m}$ ) that served  
41 as the condensation sink. Regarding the sources of aerosol particles, correlation  
42 analysis upon the PNCs against NO<sub>x</sub> revealed that the local vehicular exhaust was the  
43 dominant contributor of the UFPs throughout the year. On the contrary, the Asian  
44 pollution outbreaks had significant influence in the PNC of accumulation mode  
45 particles during the seasons of winter monsoons. The results of this study implied the  
46 significance of secondary organic aerosols in the seasonal variations of UFPs and the  
47 influences of continental pollution outbreaks in the downwind areas of Asian  
48 outflows.

## 49 **1. Introduction**

50 Due to the significant impact of particulate matter on human health and climate  
51 change, it is vital to understand the formation process of atmospheric particles  
52 (Charlson et al., 1992; Donaldson et al., 1998). A number of mechanisms have been  
53 proposed by which atmospheric particles are formed, including binary nucleation,  
54 ternary nucleation and ion-induced nucleation for charged particles, under different  
55 environment conditions (Kulmala 2003; Kulmala et al., 2004, 2012). Numerous  
56 studies have been conducted in different locations to elucidate particle formation  
57 processes under various environmental settings in the free troposphere, boreal forest  
58 and coastal areas, where new particles formation processes are observed frequently  
59 (Kulmala et al., 2004, Holmes 2007). Recently, investigations were also carried out on  
60 new particle formation within urban boundary layer (e.g., Cheung et al., 2013 and  
61 references therein), where particle formation was suggested to be mainly influenced  
62 by the photo-oxidation of SO<sub>2</sub>. Furthermore, formation of particulate matter by  
63 heterogeneous reactions of gases on dust particles was reported recently (Hsu et al.,  
64 2014, Nie et al., 2014). Previous investigations have indicated that the air pollutants,  
65 both in gaseous and particulate form, associated with the continental outflows of air  
66 masses could have affected a wide region in East Asia and caused severe regional air  
67 pollution (e.g., Lin et al., 2004; Wang et al., 2003; Buzorius et al., 2004). However,  
68 the formation processes of ultrafine particles (UFPs,  $d \leq 100\text{nm}$ ) and sub-micron  
69 particles (PM<sub>1</sub>,  $d \leq 1\mu\text{m}$ ) under the influences of continental outflows are not yet well  
70 understood.

71

72 In urban environment, major contributing sources of aerosol particles include  
73 vehicular exhausts (e.g., Pey et al., 2008; Pérez et al., 2010), industrial emissions  
74 (Gao et al., 2009) and new particle formation by photochemical reactions (e.g., Pey et  
75 al., 2009). Approximately 55-69% of the total particle number concentrations (PNCs)  
76 were attributed to secondary aerosols during midday in several European cities  
77 (Reche et al., 2011). In Taipei, Taiwan, a subtropical urban area, Cheung et al. (2013)  
78 observed that there was a ten-fold increase in nucleation mode particle number  
79 concentration (N<sub>9-25</sub>, with size  $9 < d < 25\text{nm}$ ) during new particle formation events  
80 compared to that contributed by the vehicle emission. Besides the local sources, air  
81 quality of East Asian countries is also strongly affected by the transport of air  
82 pollutants from mainland China during periods of winter monsoons (Cheung et al.,  
83 2005; Lin et al., 2004; Matsumoto et al., 2003). Lin et al. (2004) reported that the  
84 mass concentration of particulate matter (PM<sub>10</sub>) due to the long-range transport  
85 associated with winter monsoons was  $85 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ , about 79% higher than that due to  
86 local pollution ( $\sim 47.4 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) in urban Taipei. Chemical composition of fine and

87 coarse particles was measured during a winter monsoon period at Rishiri Island, near  
88 the northern tip of Japan, to study the transport of continental aerosols (Matsumoto et  
89 al., 2003). The results showed that higher levels of particle mass concentrations were  
90 associated with the outbreaks of continental polluted air masses. In addition, Cheung  
91 et al. (2005) found deterioration in visibility around the southern China during  
92 wintertime as indicated by a two-fold increase in aerosol light scattering coefficient  
93 under the influences of winter monsoons. Chen et al. (2013) conducted a  
94 measurement of the particle number concentration at the background station on the  
95 mountain of central Taiwan in summer 2009 and autumn 2010. The result showed that  
96 particle number concentrations were dominated by local sources rather than  
97 long-range transport due to the short lifetime of nano-particles. Most of the previous  
98 studies mentioned above were limited to measurements in terms of PM<sub>10</sub> or PM<sub>2.5</sub> for  
99 a particular period. However, the seasonal variations of particles in either ultrafine or  
100 sub-micron range have not been well illustrated.

101

102 A 1-year aerosol characterization experiment was conducted in the urban area of  
103 Taipei, Taiwan. The aim of this study is to attain a better understanding of the  
104 seasonal variations of ultrafine and sub-micron particles and the factors affecting  
105 particle formation, particularly under the influences of Asian monsoon circulations. In  
106 this study, we analyzed number concentration and size distribution of aerosol particles,  
107 together with the mass concentration and chemical composition of UFPs and PM<sub>1</sub>  
108 measured during four seasonal campaigns (i.e. 24 Oct – 15 Nov 2012, 4 – 24 Jan, 17  
109 Mar – 11 Apr, and 1 – 14 Aug 2013). The results of this study will contribute to the  
110 management strategies of the severe air pollution over the East Asia region.

111

## 112 **2. Methodology**

### 113 **2.1 Observation site and instrumentation**

114 The measurements were conducted at the Taipei Aerosol and Radiation  
115 Observatory (TARO, 25.02 N, 121.53 E), located in the downtown area of Taipei,  
116 Taiwan, during October 2012 to August 2013. The measurements were carried out for  
117 2 – 3 weeks in each season (see **Table 1** for measurement details). The aerosol  
118 observatory locates on the top floor of the Building-B of the Department of  
119 Atmospheric Sciences, National Taiwan University (ASNTU), which is ~20 m above  
120 ground level (Cheung et al., 2013).

121

122 Particle number size distribution (PSD) in the range of 4 – 736 nm was measured  
123 by two scanning mobility particle sizer (SMPS) systems. One was equipped with a  
124 long-differential mobility analyzer (long-DMA, Model: TSI 3081, TSI Inc.) and a

125 condensation particle counter (CPC) (Model: TSI 3022A, TSI Inc.) to measure the  
126 particles from 10 – 736 nm, which was named long-SMPS. Another one was equipped  
127 with a nano-DMA (Model: TSI 3085, TSI Inc.) and an ultrafine water-based CPC  
128 (UWCPC, Model: TSI 3786, TSI Inc.) to measure the particles from 4 – 110 nm,  
129 which was named nano-SMPS. The poly-disperse particles were classified into  
130 selected mono-disperse particles according to their **electrical equivalent mobility** by  
131 the DMAs. The number concentration of the mono-disperse particles was then  
132 counted by the CPCs. Ambient air was drawn into the SMPS systems from outside the  
133 building through a 0.635 cm (inner diameter) conductive tube, and a sampling  
134 duration of 5 min was adopted for each PSD measurement. The SMPS systems' flow  
135 rates were checked weekly during the sampling period and the accuracy of the particle  
136 sizing of the DMAs was checked using polystyrene latex (PSL) spheres before the  
137 campaigns. Operation details are referred to Cheung et al. (2013).

138

139 Size segregated aerosol samples were collected by a pair of Micro-Orifice  
140 Uniform Deposition Impactors (MOUDI, Model: 110, MSP Corp.). Taking the  
141 advantage that the cut diameter of the 9<sup>th</sup> MOUDI impaction stage was exactly 100  
142 nm, the 10<sup>th</sup> impaction stage (cut diameter = 56 nm) of each MOUDI was removed to  
143 allow the after filter function as a collector of UFPs (Marple et al., 1991). The  
144 sampling flow rate of MOUDI sampler was 30 lpm. Besides, a pair of PM<sub>1</sub> samplers,  
145 each consisted of a standard aerosol sampler (PQ-200, BGI Inc.) and a PM<sub>1</sub> sharp cut  
146 cyclone, were deployed to collect PM<sub>1</sub> samples with 16.7 lpm sampling flow rate. For  
147 both UFPs and PM<sub>1</sub> sampling arrangements, one of the paired samplers was equipped  
148 with Teflon filters, whereas another was equipped with quartz fiber filters. The Teflon  
149 filter samples were used for gravimetric measurement. The quartz filter samples were  
150 deployed for analysis of soluble ions (Na<sup>+</sup>, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, K<sup>+</sup>, Ca<sup>2+</sup>, Mg<sup>2+</sup>, Cl<sup>-</sup>, NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>,  
151 SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>) using ion chromatograph (IC), and carbonaceous components (**i.e. organic  
152 carbon, OC and elemental carbon, EC**) in the aerosols using a DRI-2001A  
153 carbonaceous aerosol analyzer with IMPROVE-A protocol (Chow et al., 2007).  
154 Details of the in-lab analysis are as described previously (Salvador and Chou, 2014).  
155 Both the PM<sub>1</sub> and UFPs were collected with double-layered quartz filters (i.e. QBQ  
156 setup) and the artifacts due to adsorption of gaseous components were corrected as  
157 suggested by Subramanian et al. (2004). The sampling duration of each sample set  
158 (for both MOUDI and PQ-200 samplers) was from 14:00 - 12:00 LT (22 hr), and a  
159 total of 69 and 75 sets of UFPs and PM<sub>1</sub> samples were collected during the entire  
160 investigation period (sample sets collected in autumn, winter, spring and summer  
161 were 20, 15, 25, and 9 sets for UFPs, and 21, 16, 25, and 13 sets for PM<sub>1</sub>,  
162 respectively).

163

164 Moreover, to assist the data interpretation, the hourly averaged mass  
165 concentration of PM<sub>10</sub>, the mixing ratio of trace gases (i.e. NO<sub>x</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>3</sub>) and the  
166 meteorology parameters (i.e. wind direction/speed and UVB (wavelength: 280 - 315  
167 nm)) from the Guting air quality station of Taiwan Environmental Protection Agency,  
168 which is about 1 km from the TARO, were analyzed in this study. The details of  
169 instrumentation setup for trace gas measurements are referred to Cheung et al. (2013).

170

## 171 **2.2 Data processing and analysis**

172 The PSD of 4 – 736 nm presented in this study was combined from two sets of  
173 SMPS data, where the nano-SMPS corresponded to the size range of 4 – 50 nm, and  
174 the long-SMPS corresponded to the size > 50 nm. The diffusion loss of the particles  
175 during the sample transport in the tubing was corrected according to the algorithm  
176 proposed by Holman (1972). Particle number concentrations for different size ranges  
177 were then calculated from the SMPS measurements.

178 The 5-min PSD data were synchronized into hourly averages, and fitted by the  
179 DO-FIT model developed by Hussein et al. (2005) according to the multiple  
180 log-normal distribution algorithms. Based on the fitted PSD data, the PNCs were  
181 classified into  $4 \leq d \leq 25$  nm (N<sub>4-25</sub>),  $25 < d \leq 100$  nm (N<sub>25-100</sub>),  $4 \leq d \leq 100$  nm  
182 (N<sub>4-100</sub>),  $100 < d \leq 736$  nm (N<sub>100-736</sub>) and  $4 \leq d \leq 736$  nm (N<sub>4-736</sub>), for nucleation mode,  
183 Aitken mode, ultrafine, accumulation mode and total particles, respectively. Pearson  
184 correlation coefficient,  $r$ , was calculated by *PASW Statistics ver. 18* (SPSS Inc.) to  
185 determine the correlation between the respective parameters.

186

## 187 **2.3 Classification of new particle formation and calculation of the particle growth 188 and formation rates**

189 A NPF event is defined as the increase of the number concentration of nucleation  
190 mode particles, where those particles are growing into Aitken and/or accumulation  
191 mode size range ( $\geq 25$  nm) and last for a few hours until they coagulate on the  
192 pre-existing aerosol and/or other surfaces in the atmosphere. The calculation of  
193 particle growth rate ( $GR$ ) was represented by the rate of geometric median diameter  
194 ( $GMD$ ) changes during the period of nucleation mode particles growing through 25  
195 nm (Cheung et al., 2013). The formation rate ( $J$ ) of nucleation mode particles for each  
196 NPF event was calculated for the particle size ranging from 4-25 nm according to the  
197 method of Dal Maso et al. (2005). The formation rate is defined as the sum of the  
198 apparent formation rate ( $dN_{4-25}/dt$ ) and the coagulation loss rate during the NPF event.  
199 It should be noted that the reported apparent particle formation rate is expected to be  
200 smaller than the actual nucleation rate, since some fraction of formed nuclei are

201 always scavenged by coagulation into larger pre-existing particles before they grow  
202 larger by condensation (Lehtinen et al., 2007). The work done by Kulmala et al. (2012)  
203 was referred for overview of the methodology on the measurement of the nucleation  
204 of atmospheric particles.

205

#### 206 *2.4 Back-trajectory analysis*

207 Backward trajectories were calculated using the HYSPLIT model (Hybrid Single  
208 Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory, Version 4.9) of NOAA (National Oceanic  
209 and Atmospheric Administration) (Draxler, 1999) for TARO during the sampling  
210 period, in order to trace the origins of the air masses. 72-h back trajectories were  
211 calculated twice per day at 00:00LT and 12:00LT with height setting of 200 m above  
212 ground level. It should be noted that the grid resolution of the meteorological data  
213 used for back-trajectories calculation is  $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ , which is not enough to trace the  
214 detailed air mass passage over the scale of the study region and, therefore, the  
215 trajectories only provide an indication of the region from which the air mass was  
216 originated.

217

### 218 *3. Results and discussions*

#### 219 *3.1 Particle number concentration and size distribution in respective seasons*

220 As mentioned above, the air quality of urban Taipei is significantly affected by  
221 both the local vehicular exhausts and long-range transport of pollution, where the later  
222 is dominated by meteorological factors. The information on the meteorological  
223 conditions, particularly the wind patterns, is important to elucidate our results and  
224 thus presented here. The back-trajectories of the air masses for the TARO are  
225 illustrated in **Figure 1 (left panel)**. The results showed that northeasterly winds  
226 prevailed in autumn and winter seasons, passing through the Asian continent before  
227 reaching Taiwan, whereas southerly winds prevailed in summertime. The air masses  
228 observed in spring period were found to be mainly associated with Asian continental  
229 outflows and occasionally with the southerly flows. This observation agreed with the  
230 surface wind direction measured in urban Taipei area (see **Figure 1, right panel**),  
231 where northeasterly winds were dominating during the period from November 2012  
232 to May 2013, and southerly winds were prevailing from May 2013 to August 2013.

233

234 The particle number concentrations in various size ranges during each season are  
235 summarized in **Table 1**. Relatively higher total PNCs ( $N_{4-736}$ ) were observed in spring  
236 and winter with median values of  $19.4 \times 10^3$  and  $17.4 \times 10^3 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ , respectively, followed  
237 by that of summer ( $16.6 \times 10^3 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ ) and autumn ( $13.9 \times 10^3 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ ). This result is  
238 comparable to the previous measurements conducted in urban Taipei where the

239 seasonal means of PNCs ( $10 < d < 560\text{nm}$ ) ranged from  $11.0 \times 10^3$  to  $17.0 \times 10^3 \text{ cm}^{-3}$   
240 (Cheng et al. 2014). **Figure 2** illustrates the number, surface and volume size  
241 distributions of the aerosol particles. The geometric mean diameter (GMD) of each  
242 PSD mode was retrieved from the data of number concentration. The GMDs of the  
243 nucleation, Aitken and accumulation modes were found to be 10.4-12.8 nm, 26.5-38.4  
244 nm, and 91.8-159.0 nm, respectively. **Details of particle number concentration and**  
245 **GMDs of each fitted mode in four seasons were listed in Table S1 of appendix.**

246

247 In addition, the fitted GMDs of surface distribution were found to be 77.4 and  
248 293 nm for autumn, 22.1, 68.9 and 228 nm for winter, 77.4 and 253 nm for spring,  
249 and 12.9 and 268 nm for summer, respectively (not shown in the figures). In winter  
250 and summer seasons, one of the fitted surface GMDs was located at nucleation mode,  
251 showing the significant contribution of nucleation mode particles in these two seasons.  
252 Bimodal volume distribution was obtained for all seasons where the fitted volume  
253 GMDs were 96.3 and 372 nm for autumn, 71.8 and 275 nm for winter, 99.5 and 339  
254 nm for spring, and 99.5 and 237 nm for summer, respectively. The GMD of first  
255 volume mode was relatively stable in each season (i.e. 71.8-99.5 nm), but smaller  
256 GMD (237 nm) for the second volume mode was observed in summer. The results  
257 implied that a higher fraction of particles could have evolved from smaller size range  
258 (i.e. nucleation and Aitken modes) into accumulation mode, which coincided with our  
259 observation that NPF events occurred mostly in summer (see Section 3.4).  
260 Furthermore, this seasonal variability agrees with our previous findings that the  
261 growth rate of newly formed particles was correlated with the photolysis of ozone, an  
262 indicator of photochemical activity (Cheung et al., 2013). The causes responsible for  
263 the observed seasonal variations in PNCs will be detailed in the following sections.  
264 **This was different from that observed in urban Beijing where relatively larger GMD**  
265 **was observed in accumulation mode due to the enhancement of condensation by**  
266 **higher photochemical activities in summer but without significant seasonal variations**  
267 **in Aitken mode distribution (Wu et al., 2008).**

268

269 It was revealed that the nucleation mode particles were predominant in the PNCs  
270 during autumn, winter and spring in the study area, whereas a distinct size distribution  
271 pattern was observed in summertime. In summer, the fraction of nucleation ( $N_{4-25} /$   
272  $N_{4-736}$ ) decreased to 0.44 (see **Table 1**) and the Aitken mode PNCs increased to be  
273 comparable to that of the nucleation mode, whereas the  $N_{4-25} / N_{4-736}$  ratios for other  
274 seasons ranged from 0.56 to 0.77 (see **Table 1**). Observation from another aspect is  
275 that the PNC of nucleation mode ( $N_{4-25}$ ) peaked in winter and reached the minimum in  
276 summer, whereas the PNCs of Aitken mode ( $N_{25-100}$ ) and accumulation mode ( $N_{100-736}$ )



277 reached their maxima in summertime. The changes in the size distribution in summer  
278 season were most likely due to the seasonally enhanced photochemical production of  
279 condensable vapors that, in turn, contributed to the growth of aerosol particles in the  
280 atmosphere.

281

### 282 **3.2 Mass concentration and chemical composition**

283 **Figures 3a** and **3b** illustrate the averaged chemical composition and mass  
284 concentration of UFPs and PM<sub>1</sub>, respectively, for each season. Details of the mass  
285 concentration and chemical composition of UFPs and PM<sub>1</sub> are listed in Table S2 in  
286 the appendix.

287

288 The seasonal means of UFPs ranged from 0.73 to 1.64  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ , with an annual  
289 average of 1.01  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ . The measured UFPs mass concentration of the present study  
290 was comparable to that in urban area of Los Angeles, United States (0.80 – 1.58  $\mu\text{g}$   
291  $\text{m}^{-3}$ , Hughes et al. 1998), and relatively higher than that in urban Helsinki, Finland  
292 (average: 0.49  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ , Pakkanen et al. 2001). For the chemical composition, OC was  
293 found to be the major mass contributor, which accounted for 29.8 % (seasonal means  
294 ranging from 26.9 to 33.4 % for various seasons) of averaged mass concentration of  
295 UFPs. The EC was the second major component with averaged mass contribution of  
296 5.1 % (seasonal means: 2.4–7.6 %), followed by sulfate ( $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ) at 4.3 % (seasonal  
297 means: 3.4-6.4%) and nitrite ( $\text{NO}_2^-$ ) at 2.9% (seasonal means: 0.9-7.3%). In addition,  
298 a large fraction of mass was contributed by the group of “others”, which consisted of  
299 mineral ( $\text{K}^+$ ,  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$  and  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$ ), sea-salt ( $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$ ), and unidentified species.  
300 The results showed that, on average, mineral and sea salt components attributed only  
301 3.5 % (seasonal means: 2.0-6.0 %) to UFPs mass concentration. Thus a substantial  
302 amount of UFPs remained unidentified, which likely included hydrogen and oxygen  
303 associated with OC. The conversion factors used to estimate the average molecular  
304 weight per carbon in particulate organic matter varied depending on the characteristic  
305 of aerosols. A lower factor value, 1.2, was usually suggested for saturated organic  
306 molecules, while a higher value, 1.6, was adopted for water-soluble compounds  
307 consisting of multifunctional oxygenated groups, and even higher factor values were  
308 suggested for aged aerosols which contained higher portion of low and semi-volatile  
309 products of photochemical reactions (Turpin and Lim et al. 2001). The high  
310 un-identified mass fraction implied that the photochemical production of secondary  
311 organic aerosols was a significant process responsible for the elevated UFPs levels  
312 observed in this study.

313

314 As shown in Fig. 3b, average PM<sub>1</sub> was estimated to be 14.7  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  (seasonal

315 means: 11.6-18.5  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) in this study, which is similar to the results of a previous  
316 study in urban Taipei (average: 14.0  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ , Li et al., 2010). The measured  $\text{PM}_{10}$  level  
317 is relatively higher than that of the urban areas of Phoenix, United States (5.9  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ,  
318 Lundgren et al. 1996) and Helsinki, Finland (6.1  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ , Vallius et al. 2000). For  
319 chemical composition, sulfate was the major mass contributor of  $\text{PM}_{10}$  (average: 39.0  
320 %, seasonal means: 33.8 - 46.8 %), followed by ammonium (average: 12.7 %, seasonal  
321 means: 12.0 - 13.2 %) and OC (average: 11.5 %, seasonal means: 9.2 to 14.3  
322 %).

323

324 The results presented above indicated that UFPs exhibited a distinct seasonal  
325 variability and composition from  $\text{PM}_{10}$  in the study area. The highest UFPs  
326 concentration was observed in summer (1.64  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) and the lowest in winter (0.73  
327  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ). This result may be attributed to the stronger photochemical activities in  
328 summer which could have enhanced the formation of secondary organic aerosols.  
329 Consequently, the mass concentration of OC increased from 0.20  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  in winter to  
330 0.47  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  in summertime. It is noteworthy that the mass concentration of sulfate in  
331 UFPs also peaked in summer (64  $\text{ng m}^{-3}$ ), suggesting enhancement in photo-oxidation  
332 of  $\text{SO}_2$ . Cheung et al. (2013) found that photo-oxidation of  $\text{SO}_2$  was the major  
333 mechanism for the formation of new particles in Taipei, Taiwan and the production of  
334 condensable vapors was also dominated by photo-oxidation. The co-variations in  
335 sulfate and OC revealed in this study further suggested that secondary organic  
336 compounds were the major condensable matter contributing to the growth of newly  
337 formed particles.

338

339 While the organics predominated in the mass concentration of UFPs, which  
340 included nucleation mode and Aitken mode particles, the measurements of  $\text{PM}_{10}$  in this  
341 study suggested that sulfate was the major constituent of accumulation mode aerosols.  
342 In contrast to the seasonal variation of UFPs, the mass concentration of  $\text{PM}_{10}$  reached  
343 the maximum at 18.5  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  in spring and exhibited the minimum at 11.6  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  in  
344 summer. The  $\text{PM}_{10}$  differences between spring and summer were mostly due to  
345 declined ambient levels of sulfate, nitrate, and ammonium ions. As a result, the mass  
346 contribution of the three inorganic ions in  $\text{PM}_{10}$  reduced from 55.7 % to 46.2 % and,  
347 on the contrary, the mass fraction of OC increased from 10.2 to 14.3 %. The seasonal  
348 characteristics of  $\text{PM}_{10}$  concentration and composition were attributed mostly to the  
349 changes in the origin areas of background air mass, which shifted from the Asia  
350 Continent to the western Pacific Ocean during summertime (see **Fig. 1**). Our previous  
351 studies reported that the fine particulate matter ( $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ ) transported on the Asian  
352 outflows to northern Taiwan maximized in springtime and were enriched in sulfate,

353 nitrate, and ammonium (Chou et al., 2008; 2010). The seasonal variability of  $PM_{10}$   
354 found in this study was consistent with the previous observations for  $PM_{2.5}$  and  
355 thereby suggested the significance of Asian outflow aerosols to the  $PM_{10}$  budget in the  
356 downwind areas of the Asia Continent.

357

### 358 ***3.3 Seasonal characteristics of photochemical production***

359 In order to study the influences of photochemical production of particles, the  
360 measurements of PNC and PSD were analyzed per daytime (07:00 – 17:00 LT) and  
361 nighttime (17:00 – 07:00 LT), respectively (see **Figure 4**). In urban environment, the  
362 possible sources influencing the PNC and PSD are complicated, which include not  
363 only the direct emission from primary sources but also interaction between the newly  
364 formed particles, pre-existing particles and condensing vapors through the  
365 condensation and coagulation processes. Nevertheless, these processes occurred  
366 throughout the day and will not dominate in the differences between daytime and  
367 nighttime PNCs as observed in this study. It was assumed that photochemical reaction  
368 was the major attributing factor to the observed diurnal differences in PNC. Since the  
369 particles in nighttime were mainly emitted from the vehicular exhausts and the  
370 elevated PNCs in daytime were due to both the primary and secondary sources of the  
371 particles in the study area (Cheung et al., 2013), a larger difference between the PNCs  
372 observed in daytime and nighttime indicated stronger influences of photochemical  
373 production on the PNCs. The most striking seasonal features shown in **Figure 4** is the  
374 large difference between daytime against nighttime PSD in summer as indicated by  
375 the low  $N_{4-736}$  (nighttime)/ $N_{4-736}$  (daytime) ratio, whereas higher ratios were observed  
376 in other seasons. In addition, the diurnal variation of particle size distribution (see  
377 **Figure 5**) provided further information about the variations in PSD. Two nucleation  
378 bursts were distinctly observed in morning and afternoon traffic peak hours in autumn,  
379 winter, and spring, while a typical PSD pattern of nucleation event (increase of  
380 nucleation mode particle concentrations with subsequent growth in particle size) was  
381 dominant in summer. This result is as expected because the photochemical production  
382 of nucleation mode particles is more intense during warm seasons (Cheung et al.,  
383 2011). Moreover, as discussed in previous section, the photochemical reactions could  
384 produce condensable organics that allows the newly formed nucleation mode particles  
385 to grow into the Aitken mode. The relatively small differences between the daytime  
386 and nighttime  $N_{4-736}$  in autumn and winter indicated that the photochemical  
387 contribution in PNCs was declined as compared to that in summertime. Nevertheless,  
388 the contribution of vehicle emission was also significant, especially during colder  
389 seasons and when photochemical reactions were less intense. This will be discussed in  
390 detail in Section 3.5.

### 391 3.4 Factors affecting new particle formation (NPF)

392 As shown in previous study, the NPF events were frequently observed in summer,  
393 which subsequently induced a notable increase in  $N_{4-25}$  in urban Taipei (Cheung et al.  
394 2013). The frequency of NPF events was found to be 10 out of 84 measurement days  
395 and the events were observed in autumn (1 out of 23 days), spring (3 out of 26 days) and  
396 summer (6 out of 14 days) seasons. **Figure 6** (a-d) shows the scatter plots of  $N_{4-25}$   
397 against  $\text{NO}_x$  for daytimes in each season. During the NPF events, a non-linear  
398 relationship between these two parameters was usually observed during the daytime  
399 (Cheung et al. 2013). The results showed that clear NPF events were observed often  
400 in summer and occasionally in spring, but rarely in autumn and winter in the study  
401 area. The averaged particle growth and formation rates were found to be  $4.0 \pm 1.1 \text{ nm}$   
402  $\text{h}^{-1}$  and  $1.4 \pm 0.8 \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ , which were comparable to those measured in other urban  
403 studies in Asian cities such as Hong Kong (average:  $6.7 \text{ nm h}^{-1}$ , Wang et al., 2014)  
404 and Beijing (average:  $5.2 \text{ nm h}^{-1}$ , Wang et al., 2013), and also within the range  
405 observed in other nucleation studies across the globe ( $\sim 1 - 20 \text{ nm h}^{-1}$ , Kulmala et al.,  
406 2004). The particle growth and formation rates of each case are listed in **Table 2**.

407

408 **Table 3** summarizes the averages of  $N_{4-25}$ ,  $\text{PM}_{10}$ ,  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$  proxy (as  
409  $\text{UVB} \cdot \text{SO}_2 / \text{condensation sink}$ ) and wind speed for each season. Petäjä et al. (2009)  
410 calculated the  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$  proxy with a pre-factor value,  $k$ , and use it to estimate the actual  
411 sulfuric acid concentration. The estimation of a site-specific  $k$  value requires an actual  
412 measurement of  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$  which is not available in this study area. The proxy value  
413 calculated in this study was therefore only used as an indicator of particle production  
414 strength contributed by  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$ . The dominating factors associated to the frequent  
415 particle formation in summertime were the low  $\text{PM}_{10}$  concentration ( $35.6 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) and  
416 high  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$  proxy ( $493.1 \text{ ppb W m}^{-2} \text{ s}$ ). The association of sulfuric acid production  
417 and the NPF events agreed with the elevated mass concentration of sulfate in UFPs  
418 during summertime (shown in **Table S2**), as well as the results of previous urban  
419 studies (Woo et al. 2001; Cheung et al. 2013). This strongly suggested that the new  
420 particle formation was mainly driven by the photochemical oxidation of  $\text{SO}_2$  under  
421 low condensation sink conditions (Gao et al., 2009; Nie et al., 2014), where the  $\text{SO}_2$   
422 could be transported from the upwind area on the summer monsoons (see **Figure 1d**).  
423 Contrarily, the absence of particle formation events in wintertime could be attributed  
424 to the declined photochemical production of  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$  as well as suppression of NPF by  
425 particles transported from the Asian continent (Lin et al., 2004). The results of this  
426 work evidenced that low  $\text{PM}_{10}$  concentration and high sulfuric acid production  
427 favored the particle formation process in urban areas. Nevertheless, it should be noted  
428 that condensing vapors other than sulfuric acid, for example VOCs, could also

429 contribute to the observed particle formation, which requires further investigation.

430

431 The scatter plot between UVB\*SO<sub>2</sub> and condensation sink is depicted in **Figure**  
432 **7**. Relatively higher UVB\*SO<sub>2</sub> values were obtained during NPF events. Notably,  
433 there was a group of data with high UVB\*SO<sub>2</sub>/CS but low UVB\*SO<sub>2</sub> where no NPF  
434 event was observed. This implied that there could be a threshold level of UVB\*SO<sub>2</sub>  
435 for NPF in the study region. However, some exceptions existed in the dataset and  
436 suggested that the parameters driving NPF have not been well accounted and need to  
437 be further studied. It was also noticed that an Asian outflow event occurred on 7 April  
438 2013 during which an atypical NPF was observed (labeled as black dot in **Figure 7**).  
439 This could be relevant to the secondary particle formation on dust surface under the  
440 influence of long-range transport of air mass. This will be discussed in further details  
441 in **Section 3.6**.

442

### 443 **3.5 Influences of local emission on PNCs**

444 Vehicle emission is known as the major source of the particulate matter in urban  
445 environment, particularly during the nighttime. In order to investigate the relationship  
446 between the vehicular exhausts and PNCs, the scatter plots of NO<sub>x</sub> (as an indicator of  
447 vehicle emission) against N<sub>4-25</sub>, N<sub>25-100</sub> and N<sub>100-736</sub> during the nighttime were  
448 examined for winter and summer periods (see **Figure 8**). The values of the Pearson  
449 correlation coefficient ( $r$ ) and the slope of linear regression between NO<sub>x</sub> and PNCs  
450 are summarized in **Table 4**.

451

452 The highest  $r$  values were found in both the plots of NO<sub>x</sub> against N<sub>25-100</sub> for  
453 winter ( $r = 0.88$ ) and summer ( $r = 0.87$ ). This result suggested a strong linear  
454 correlation between the vehicle emission and the N<sub>25-100</sub> which coincided with the  
455 results from previous studies (e.g., Morawska et al. 2008). During wintertime,  
456 stronger correlation was found between NO<sub>x</sub> against N<sub>4-25</sub> ( $r = 0.84$ ) and N<sub>25-100</sub> ( $r =$   
457  $0.88$ ) compared to that between NO<sub>x</sub> and N<sub>100-736</sub> ( $r = 0.38$ ). In contrast, high  $r$  values  
458 were obtained between NO<sub>x</sub> and all particle modes in summer ( $r = 0.70 - 0.87$ ). The  
459 robust correlation of NO<sub>x</sub> and N<sub>4-25</sub>, also NO<sub>x</sub> and N<sub>25-100</sub> suggested that local vehicle  
460 emission was the predominant source of UFPs throughout a year. These results  
461 coincided with previous studies on the size distribution of vehicle exhaust particles,  
462 which were found to be 20-130 nm and 20-60 nm, respectively, for diesel and petrol  
463 engine vehicles (Harris and Maricq 2001, Ristovski et al. 2006). However, the PNCs  
464 of accumulation mode particles (N<sub>100-736</sub>) in winter were dominated by  
465 NO<sub>x</sub>-independent sources, which were most likely related to the pollution outbreaks  
466 from the Asian continent. Lin et al. (2004) indicated that the long-range transported  
467 air mass was characterized by high level of PM<sub>10</sub> and low mixing ratio of NO<sub>x</sub> due to

468 its short atmospheric lifetime. Interestingly, a moderate correlation between the PNC  
469 of accumulation mode particles ( $N_{100-736}$ ) and  $\text{NO}_x$  was also observed in summer.  
470 Given that the Asian outflow was ceased in summertime, this correlation evidenced  
471 substantial contribution of local sources, particularly vehicular emissions, to the PNC  
472 of accumulation mode particles in Taipei, Taiwan.

473

474 The slope values can serve as a relative emission factor of particles per  $\text{NO}_x$ ,  
475 which indicates the degree of influence of vehicle emission on the PNCs (Cheung et  
476 al., 2013). The corresponding slope values for  $N_{4-25}$ ,  $N_{25-100}$ , and  $N_{100-736}$ , were found  
477 to be 279, 163, 18  $\text{cm}^{-3} \cdot \text{ppb}^{-1}$  in winter, and 239, 330, 155  $\text{cm}^{-3} \cdot \text{ppb}^{-1}$  in summer.  
478 Larger sum of slope values (724 vs. 460  $\text{cm}^{-3} \cdot \text{ppb}^{-1}$ ) was found in summertime  
479 compared to winter period, evidencing a greater influence of the vehicle emission on  
480 particle number concentration. The seasonal effects on the emission ratio of PNCs and  
481  $\text{NO}_x$  are rather difficult to address due to the complexity of different controlling  
482 factors, such as formation mechanisms and meteorological conditions. For example,  
483 Nam et al. (2010) reported negatively exponential correlation between the  $\text{PM}/\text{NO}_x$   
484 ratio in vehicle emission and ambient temperature, and suggested that the impact of  
485 ambient temperature on particulate matter was larger than that on  $\text{NO}_x$ . Nevertheless,  
486 the observed differences in the PNCs/ $\text{NO}_x$  ratios for winter and summer periods of  
487 this study necessitate further investigations on the formation mechanisms of aerosol  
488 particles in urban areas, in particular the nucleation and the Aitken modes.

489

### 490 **3.6 Influence of long-range transport (LRT)**

491 During the seasons of winter monsoons, i.e. from autumn to spring, the  
492 continental outflows have been frequently observed in urban Taipei, which is  
493 indicated by the stable northeasterly wind and increase of  $\text{O}_3$  level (Lin et al. 2004).  
494 Previous studies of long-range transport (LRT) of air pollutants on air quality of  
495 northern Taiwan showed that an elevated  $\text{PM}_{10}$  was observed under the influence of  
496 continental outflows (Lin et al., 2004, Chou et al., 2004). **Figure 9** depicts an LRT  
497 pollution event observed at the TARO during this study. The wind direction changed  
498 from westerly/northwesterly to northeasterly at 21:00, 24 March which continued  
499 until 06:00, 26 March. During this period, the  $\text{O}_3$  mixing ratio remained at moderate  
500 level (~30-55 ppb) and  $\text{PM}_{10}$  increased from 10.0 to 98.0  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ . It should be noted  
501 that the variations of measured pollutants were not solely influenced by the  
502 long-range transport, but also partly due to the variation of local pollution and  
503 boundary dynamics. In this section, we attempt to analyze the PSD/PNC under the  
504 influences of continental pollution outbreaks. The periods of the respective LRT  
505 events are listed in **Table S3**.

506

507 As shown in **Figure 9**, the diurnal variations of PSD during the LRT event  
508 exhibited two  $N_{4-25}$  peaks associated to the morning and afternoon traffic rush hours,  
509 whereas the PNCs of the Aitken mode particles remained at a low level. The results  
510 suggested that the influences of local vehicle emission on PNCs were still in place,  
511 whereas growth of particles due to secondary production of condensable vapors could  
512 have been suppressed, as NPF was rarely observed during the LRT events. It is  
513 noteworthy that a weak dust transport event was observed on 7 April 2013 where a  
514 nucleation event was observed in the PSD, evidencing that secondary formation of  
515 particles could have had occurred. However, the dominating diameter of particles was  
516  $\sim 40\text{-}50$  nm at the initial stage of the event. The nucleation event initiated since  
517  $\sim 06:00$  LT until  $21:00$  LT, when the northeasterly wind prevailed. The  $PM_{10}$  and  $O_3$   
518 increased from minima of  $44 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  (at  $06:00$  LT) and  $25$  ppb (at  $05:00$  LT) to the  
519 daily maxima of  $92 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  (at  $17:00$  LT) and  $61$  ppb (at  $16:00$  LT). This result showed  
520 that the NPF process could have occurred in the upwind area where newly formed  
521 particles were transported to the study site, or heterogeneously formed particles were  
522 released from the dust surface during the long-range transport of air pollutants (Nie et  
523 al., 2014).

524

525 The averaged PSDs for LRT and non-LRT cases are shown in Figure 10. The  
526 GMDs of the nucleation, Aitken, and accumulation modes in PSD were found to be  
527  $10.4$ ,  $37.2$  and  $158$  nm for LRT and  $11.4$ ,  $30.4$  and  $114$  nm for non-LRT cases,  
528 respectively (see Table S1 for detailed fit results of the PSD for LRT and non-LRT  
529 cases). The PNCs of different modes observed in non-LRT events were  $8.6 \times 10^3 \text{ cm}^{-3}$   
530 (nucleation mode),  $9.3 \times 10^3 \text{ cm}^{-3}$  (Aitken mode) and  $2.6 \times 10^3 \text{ cm}^{-3}$  (accumulation  
531 mode). The PNCs of LRT events were  $9.2 \times 10^3 \text{ cm}^{-3}$  (nucleation mode),  $4.0 \times 10^3 \text{ cm}^{-3}$   
532 (Aitken mode), and  $1.3 \times 10^3 \text{ cm}^{-3}$  (accumulation mode), respectively. The nucleation  
533 mode PNC observed in non-LRT was comparable with that in LRT events, whereas  
534 significant higher PNCs for the Aitken mode and accumulation mode were observed  
535 during non-LRT periods. This was attributed to the lower average wind speed (and  
536 hence poor dispersion) during non-LRT events ( $1.5 \pm 0.8 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ ) than that for LRT  
537 events ( $3.0 \pm 0.8 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ ). In contrast to the increase in  $PM_{10}$  observed usually during  
538 LRT episodes (e.g., Lin et al., 2012), the relatively lower PNCs suggested that the  
539 number concentration of submicron particles, in particular UFPs, was dominated by  
540 local emissions. This agreed with the observation of seasonal UFPs mass  
541 concentration that peaked in summertime when Taiwan was isolated from the  
542 influences of continental air mass.

543

544 **4. Conclusions**

545 The mass concentration and chemical composition of ultrafine particles (UFPs)  
546 and submicron particles (i.e. PM<sub>1</sub>) as well as the particle number concentration (PNC)  
547 and size distributions (PSD) with size ranging from 4 to 736 nm were measured  
548 during four seasonal campaigns in the period from October 2012 to August 2013 at  
549 the TARO, a subtropical urban aerosol station in Taipei, Taiwan. Significant seasonal  
550 variability and chemical composition of UFPs and PM<sub>1</sub> were revealed. The UFPs  
551 were composed mostly of organic matter and reached maxima in summer, whereas the  
552 PM<sub>1</sub> composition was dominated by ammonium and sulfate and exhibited a seasonal  
553 peak in spring.

554

555 It was found that the total PNC was significantly elevated during cold seasons,  
556 which was caused mostly by the high level of nucleation mode particles (N<sub>4-25</sub>). On  
557 the contrary, both the Aitken mode (N<sub>25-100</sub>) and accumulation mode (N<sub>100-736</sub>) PNCs  
558 reached their respective maxima in summertime. Consistent correlation without  
559 significant seasonal variations was found between the UFPs (i.e. nucleation and  
560 Aitken mode particles) and NO<sub>x</sub>, suggesting that local vehicle emission was the major  
561 source of UFPs in the study area throughout a year. The local vehicle emission was  
562 also dominating the accumulation mode PNC in summer, but not in wintertime. The  
563 declined correlation between NO<sub>x</sub> and N<sub>100-736</sub> in winter ( $r = 0.38$ ) was likely due to  
564 the influences of air pollution associated with the Asian outflows.

565

566 The elevated UFPs level in summer was attributed to the increase in the  
567 concentration of Aitken mode particles (N<sub>25-100</sub>). It was revealed from the  
568 measurements of PSD that a large number of nucleation mode particles could have  
569 evolved into the Aitken mode during summertime, which was most likely relevant to  
570 the photochemical production of condensable vapors that, in turn, could have  
571 contributed to the growth of particles in the atmosphere. Moreover, the chemical  
572 measurements suggested that the constituents of the condensed materials in UFPs  
573 were mostly organic matter, implying the significance of secondary organic aerosols  
574 in the ambient UFPs.

575

576 A total of 10 new particle formation (NPF) events occurred out of 84  
577 measurement days in this study, which were observed in autumn (1 out of 23 days),  
578 spring (3 out of 26 days) and summer (6 out of 14 days) seasons. The prevalence of  
579 NPF in summer agreed with the highest H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> proxy and lowest PM<sub>10</sub> observed in  
580 this study, which provided favorable atmospheric conditions for new particle  
581 formation. The averaged particle growth and formation rates for the NPF events were



582 4.0±1.1 nm h<sup>-1</sup> and 1.4±0.8 cm<sup>-3</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>, respectively, which were comparable to those  
583 measured in previous urban studies.

584

585 As exemplifying above, the characteristics of various physicochemical properties  
586 of particles investigated in this study and the occurrence of NPF exhibited a strong  
587 seasonal variability, which was co-influenced by the long-range transported particles  
588 during the seasons of winter monsoons and the strong photochemical activities in  
589 summer. The results of this study are critical for the authorities involved in urban  
590 development and health impact assessment, and the environmental policy makers who  
591 are tackling the severe atmospheric pollution in the East Asia region.

592

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601

602 **Table 1.** Median and **quartile ranges (Q1-Q3)** of the PNCs measured in each season. The size  
603 ranges of the PNCs were represented by the subscripted number. For example,  $N_{4-25}$ ,  
604 represents the number concentrations of the particles from 4 to 25 nm. The fractions of  $N_{4-25}$   
605 and  $N_{4-100}$  to total PNCs were presented in the last two columns.

606

	<i>Measurement periods</i>	$N_{4-736} (10^3 \text{ #/cm}^3)$	$N_{4-25} (10^3 \text{ #/cm}^3)$	$N_{25-100} (10^3 \text{ #/cm}^3)$	$N_{4-100} (10^3 \text{ #/cm}^3)$	$N_{100-736} (10^3 \text{ #/cm}^3)$	$N_{4-25}/N_{4-73}$ 6	$N_{4-100}/N_{4-73}$ 6
<b>Autumn</b>	24 Oct–15 Nov 2012	13.9 (9.9–19.4)	8.6 (5.8–11.8)	3.9 (2.6–5.5)	12.7 (8.7–17.8)	1.3 (0.8–1.9)	0.62	0.90
<b>Winter</b>	4–24 Jan 2013	17.4 (12.7–22.3)	11.6 (8.2–15.1)	4.1 (2.8–5.6)	16.3 (11.6–21.4)	0.9 (0.5–1.5)	0.70	0.94
<b>Spring</b>	17 Mar–11 Apr 2013	19.4 (13.2–26.2)	10.3 (7.2–14.1)	5.8 (4.0–9.4)	17.0 (11.4–23.6)	1.9 (1.4–2.7)	0.56	0.89
<b>Summer</b>	1–14 Aug 2013	16.6 (9.2–26.7)	6.9 (4.5–10.4)	6.0 (2.5–11.3)	13.7 (7.9–21.4)	3.1 (0.5–5.1)	0.44	0.87

607

608 **Table 2.** Time periods defined as the new particle formation events and the particle growth  
 609 and formation rates

<i>Date</i>	<i>Time period (LT)</i>	<i>Growth rate (nm h<sup>-1</sup>)</i>	<i>Formation rate (cm<sup>-3</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>)</i>
9 Nov 2012	07:00-13:00	3.4	1.30
26 Mar 2013	06:00-10:00	3.4	1.91
4 Apr 2013	07:00 – 10:00	3.7	1.13
5 Apr 2013	08:00 – 12:00	5.5	1.10
4 Aug 2013	09:00 – 12:00	3.9	1.84
5 Aug 2013	09:00 – 13:00	4.9	2.44
7 Aug 2013	06:00 – 12:00	3.5	0.84
8 Aug 2013	09:00 – 12:00	5.0	2.76
9 Aug 2013	06:00 – 13:00	1.6	0.39
11 Aug 2013	06:00 – 09:00	4.8	0.58
<b>Average</b>		4.0 (±1.1)	1.4 (±0.8)
<b>(±Standard</b>			
<b>Deviation)</b>			

610

611

612 **Table 3.** Average of  $N_{4-25}$ ,  $PM_{10}$ , UVB,  $SO_2$ , condensation sink (CS),  $H_2SO_4$  proxy and wind  
 613 speed of different seasons. Standard deviation values shown in brackets (Note: the data with  
 614 observation of rainfall was not used in calculation).

<i>Periods</i>	<i><math>N_{4-25}</math></i> ( $10^3 \text{ \#/cm}^3$ )	<i><math>PM_{10}</math></i> ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ )	<i>UVB</i> ( $\text{Wm}^{-2}$ )	<i><math>SO_2</math></i> (ppb)	<i>CS</i> ( $10^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ )	<i><math>H_2SO_4</math> proxy</i> (ppb $\text{Wm}^{-2} \text{ s}$ )	<i>Wind speed</i> ( $\text{ms}^{-1}$ )
<b>Autumn</b>	8.6 ( $\pm 4.5$ )	53.9 ( $\pm 21.4$ )	1.04 ( $\pm 1.75$ )	2.27 ( $\pm 1.44$ )	0.85 ( $\pm 0.52$ )	307.1 ( $\pm 609.1$ )	2.82 ( $\pm 1.04$ )
<b>Winter</b>	11.6 ( $\pm 9.2$ )	48.4 ( $\pm 23.9$ )	0.80 ( $\pm 1.47$ )	2.58 ( $\pm 1.61$ )	0.75 ( $\pm 0.61$ )	240.0 ( $\pm 472.1$ )	2.34 ( $\pm 0.89$ )
<b>Spring</b>	10.2 ( $\pm 9.2$ )	61.1 ( $\pm 27.0$ )	0.99 ( $\pm 1.73$ )	2.76 ( $\pm 1.67$ )	1.35 ( $\pm 0.67$ )	238.4 ( $\pm 533.6$ )	2.17 ( $\pm 1.19$ )
<b>Summer</b>	6.9 ( $\pm 9.1$ )	35.6 ( $\pm 13.7$ )	1.97 ( $\pm 2.95$ )	3.19 ( $\pm 2.55$ )	1.89 ( $\pm 1.51$ )	493.1 ( $\pm 1066$ )	2.35 ( $\pm 1.13$ )

615

616 **Table 4.** Pearson correlation coefficient ( $r$ ) and slope of linear regression of PNCs against  
 617  $\text{NO}_x$  during the nighttime (20:00-04:00 LT) in winter and summer periods.

<i>Periods</i>		$N_{4-25}$	$N_{25-100}$	$N_{100-736}$
Winter	<i>Slope</i>	279	163	18
	$r$	0.84	0.88	0.38
Summer	<i>Slope</i>	239	330	155
	$r$	0.76	0.87	0.70

618

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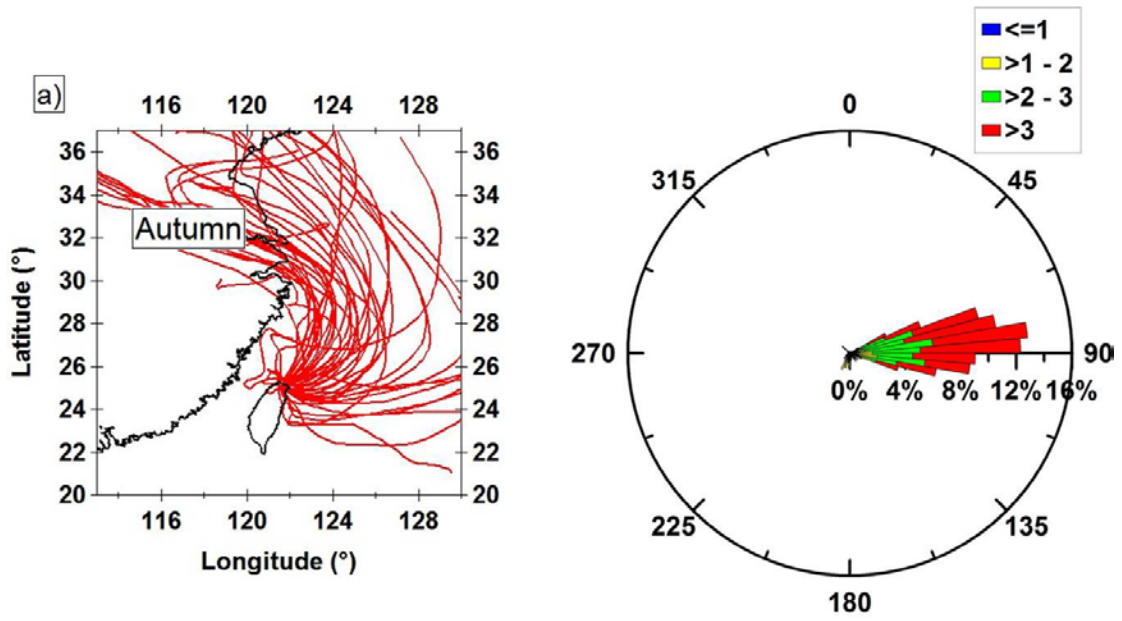
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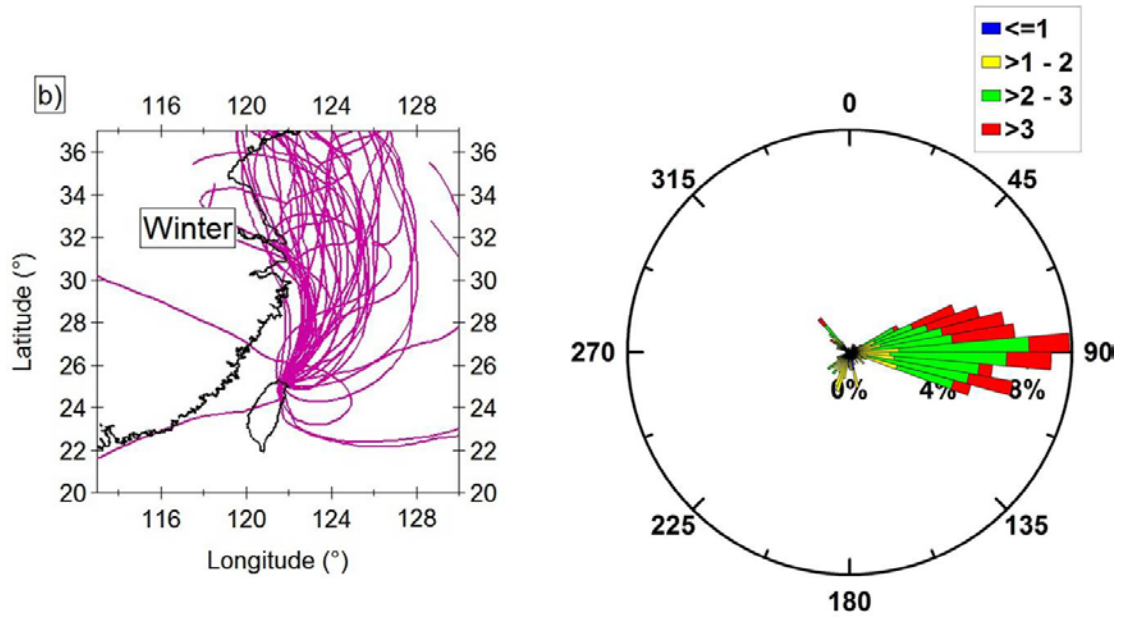
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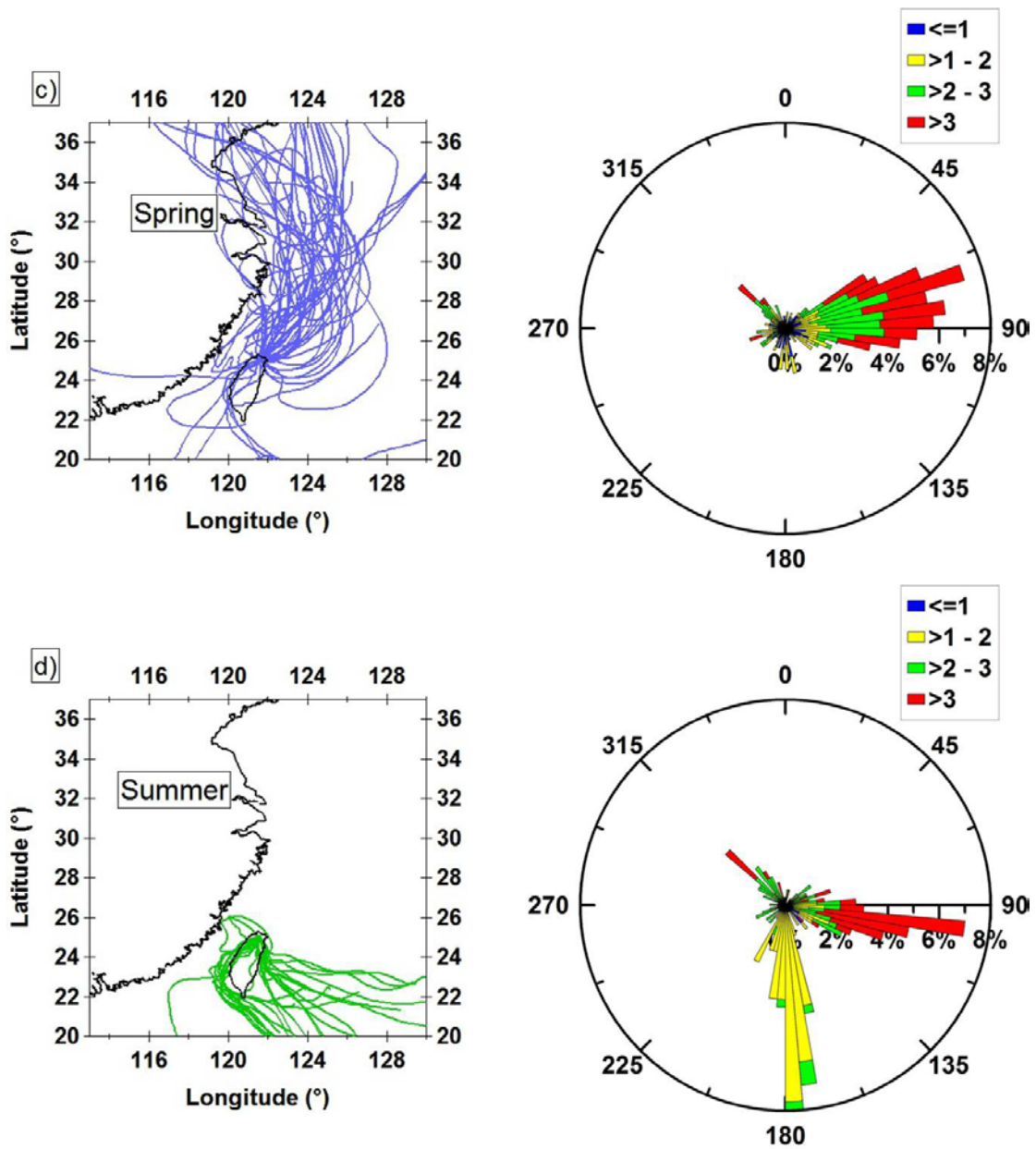
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809 **Figure 1.** Back-trajectories calculated for TARO for the measurement periods (left panel) and

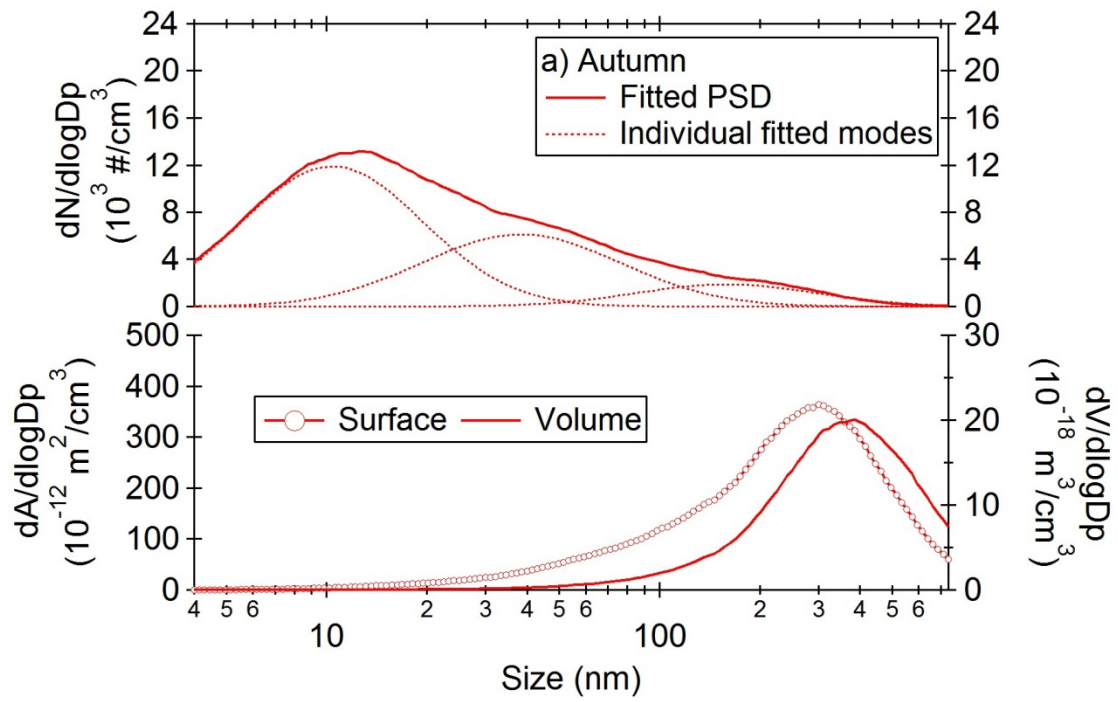
810 surface wind rose plots (right panel) in (a) autumn, (b) winter, (c) spring and (d) summer. The

811 color codes of wind rose plots represent the wind speed: blue < 1 ms<sup>-1</sup>; yellow 1-2 ms<sup>-1</sup>; green

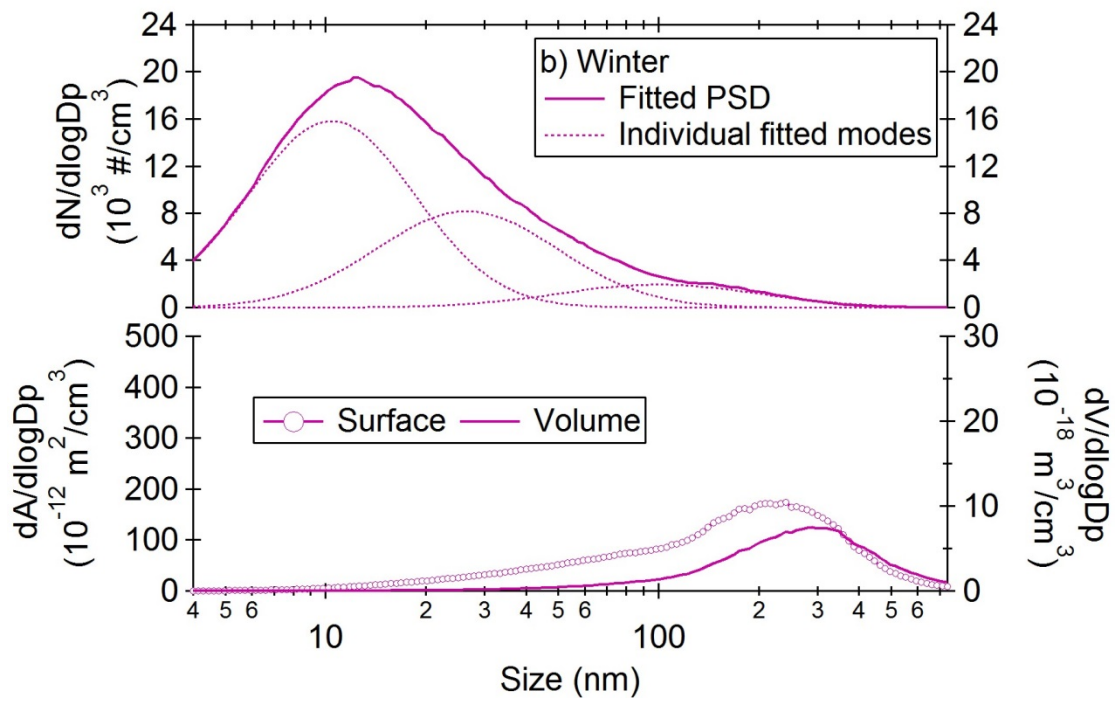
812 2-3 ms<sup>-1</sup>; and red > 3 ms<sup>-1</sup>.

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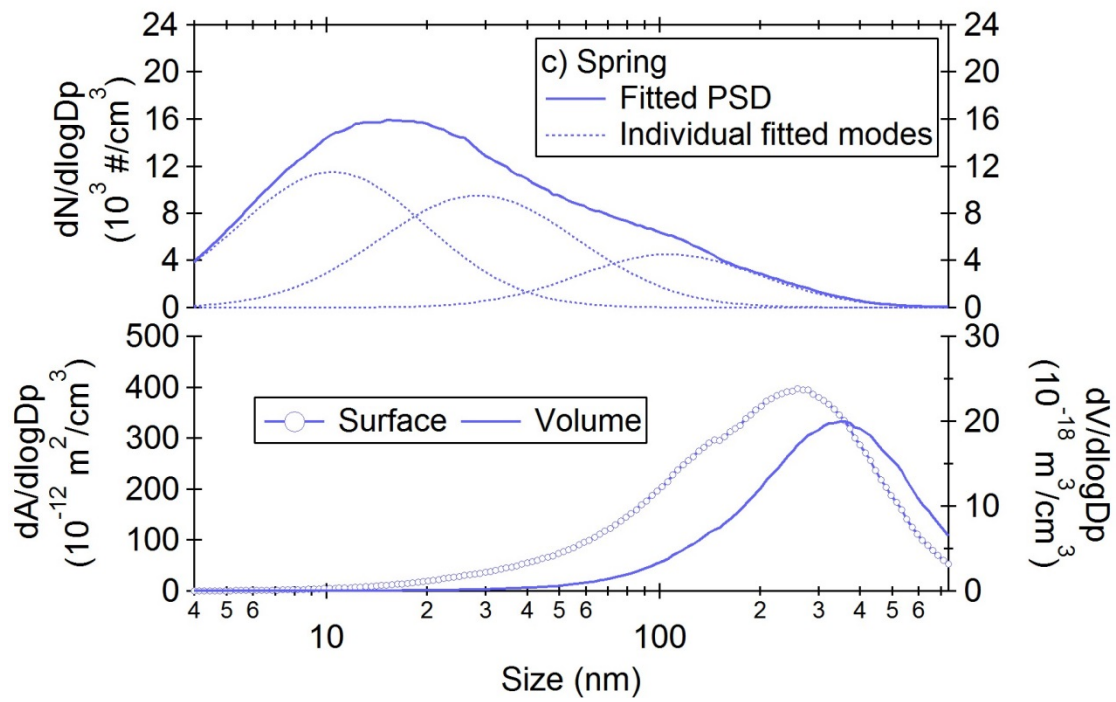


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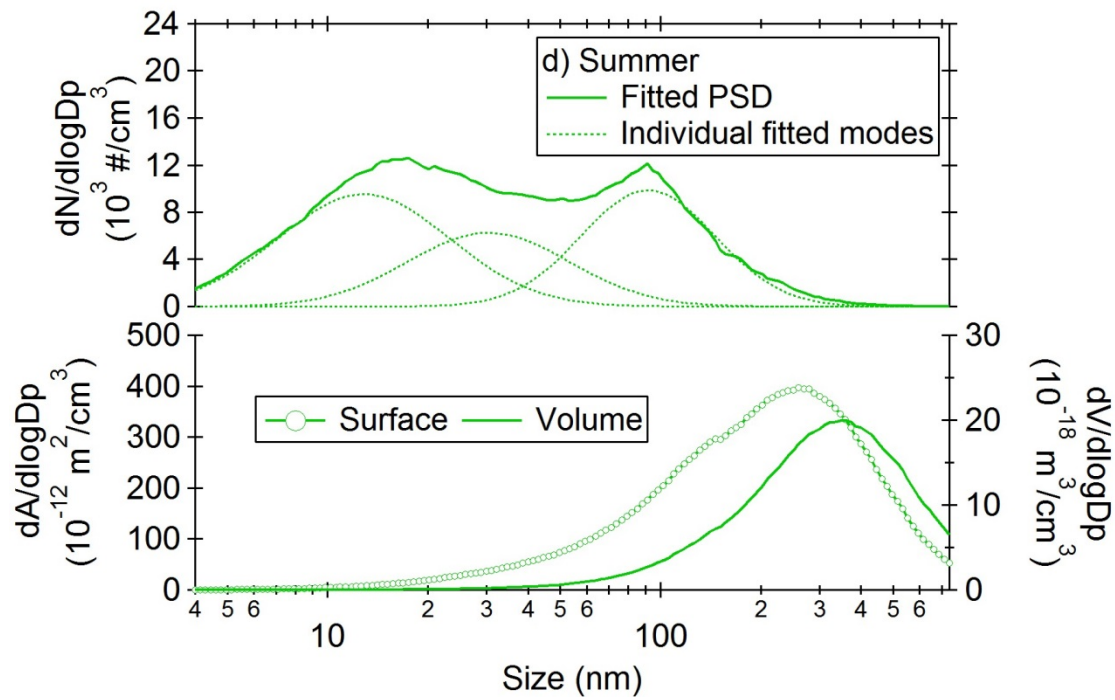


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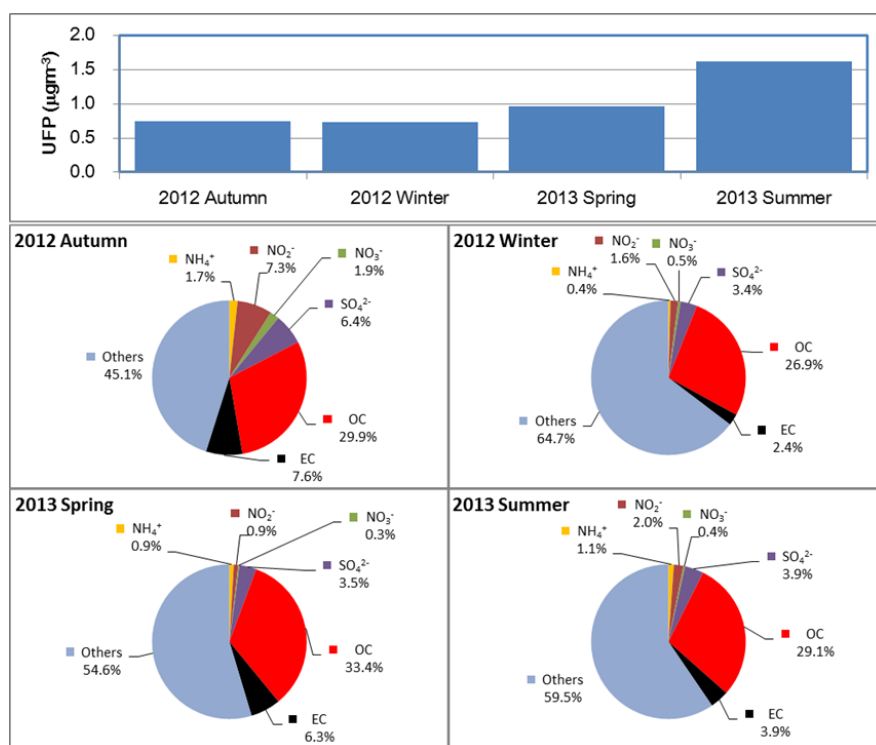
821 **Figure 2.** Size distribution of particle number (upper panel), surface and volume (lower panel)

822 concentrations measured in (a) autumn, (b) winter, (c) spring and (d) summer (by curve

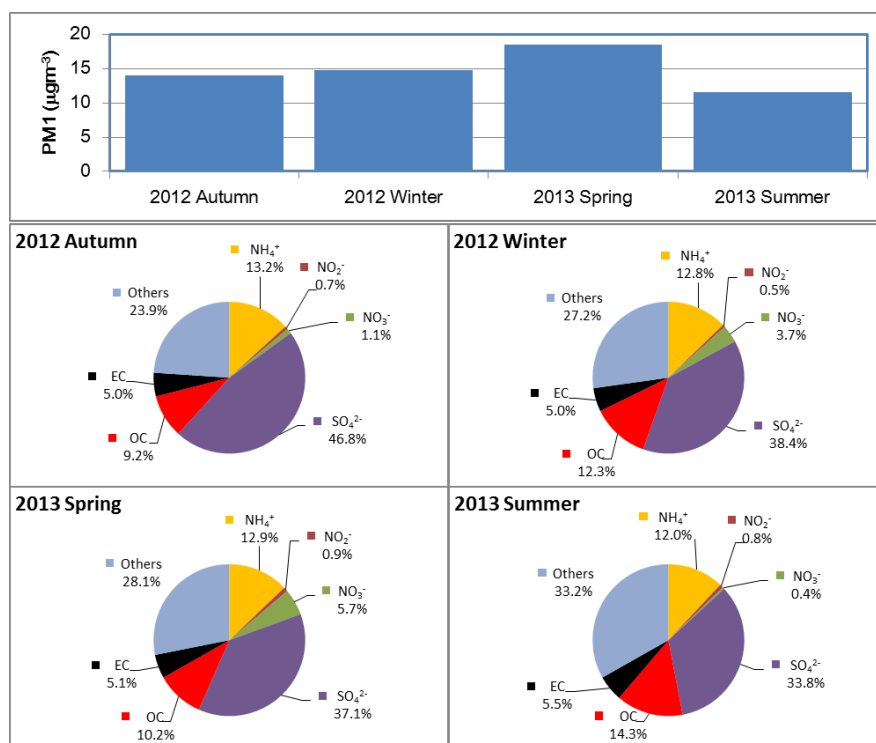
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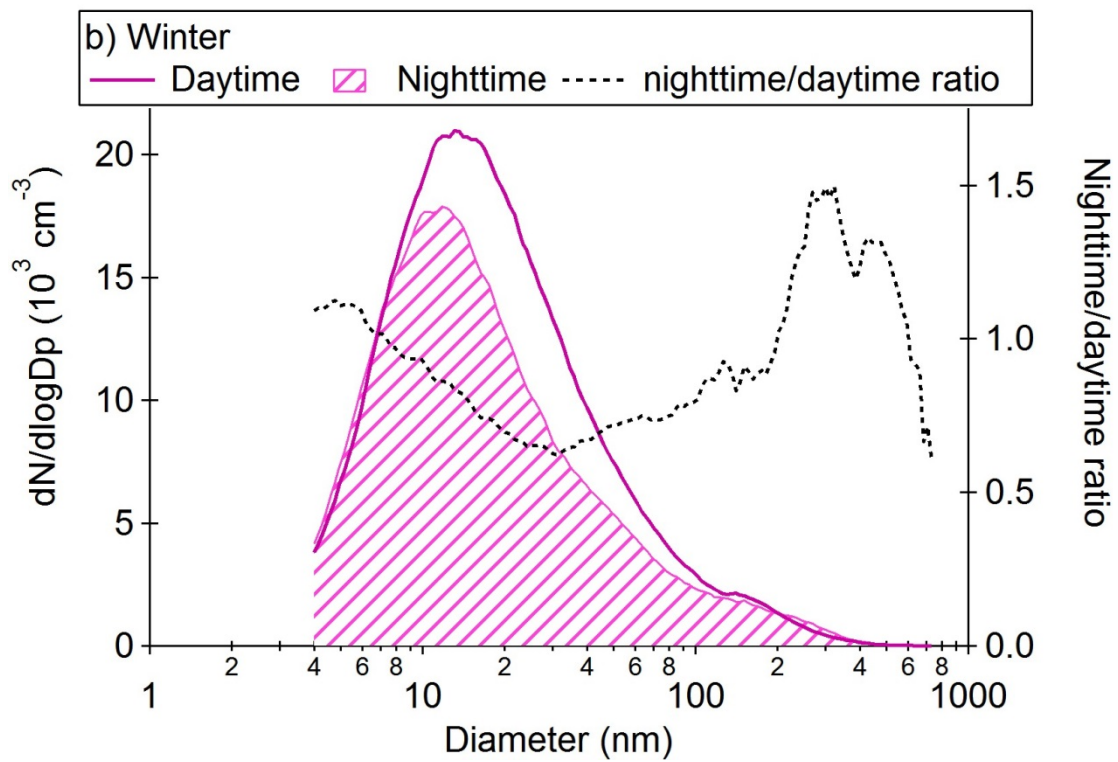
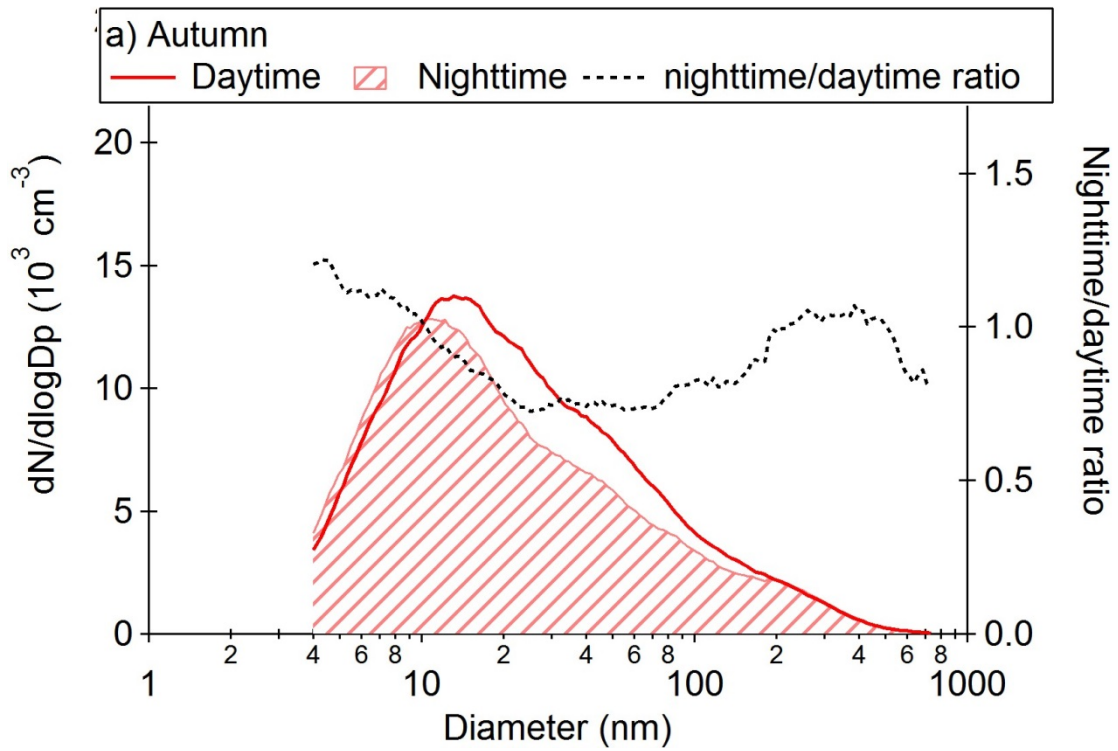


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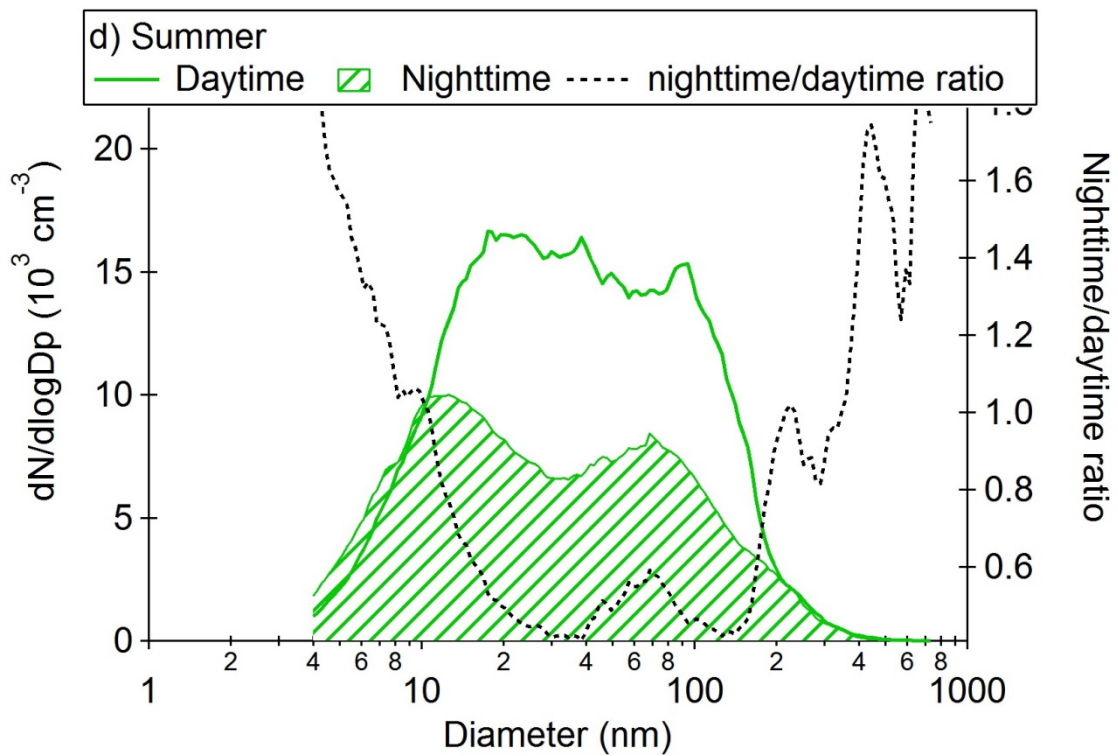
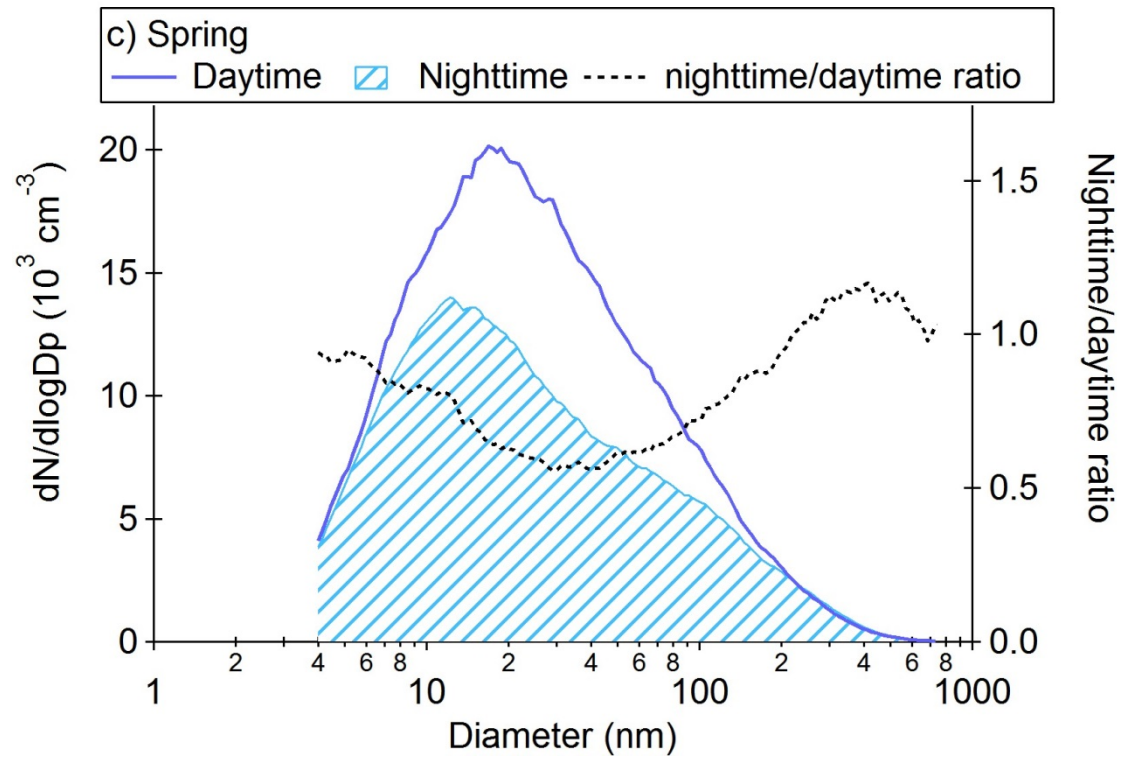
830 **Figure 3.** Seasonal average concentration and composition of (a) ultra-fine (UFPs) and (b)  
831 sub-micron (PM<sub>1</sub>) particles observed at the TARO in Taipei, Taiwan from autumn 2012 to  
832 summer 2013.

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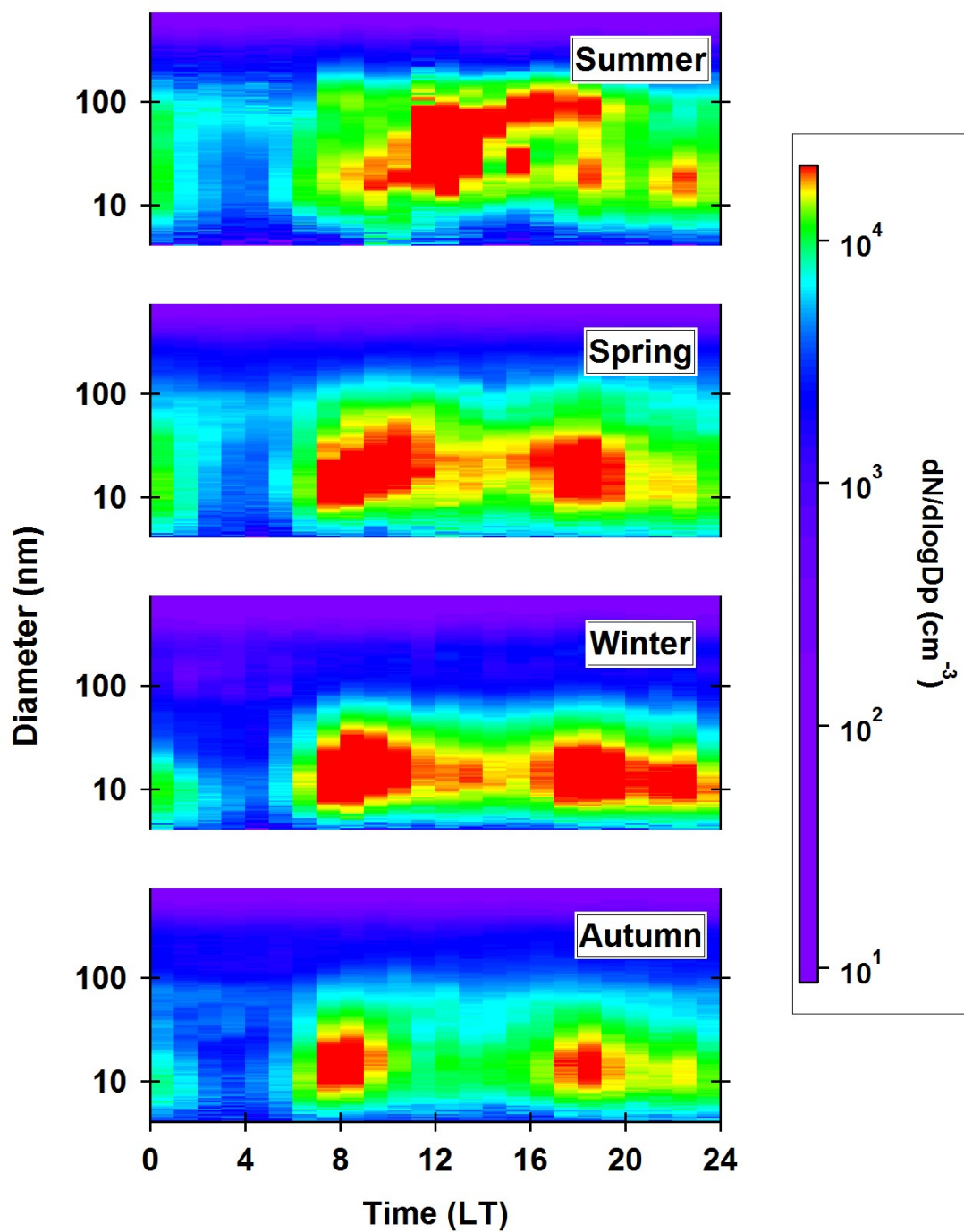
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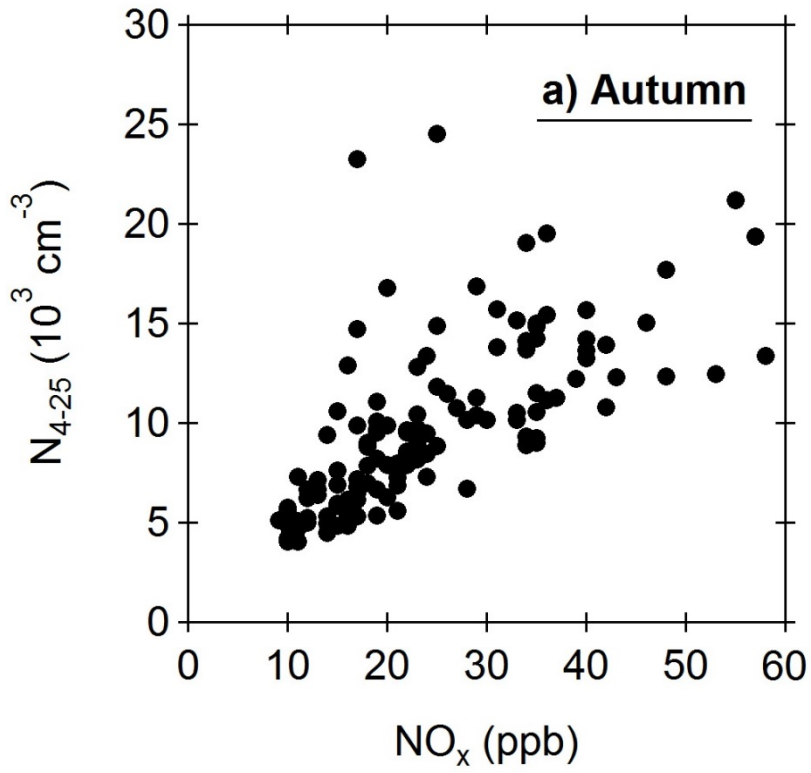
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**Figure 4.** Median PSDs measured during the daytime (07:00 – 17:00 LT) and nighttime (17:00 – 07:00) in (a) autumn, (b) winter, (c) spring and (d) summer.

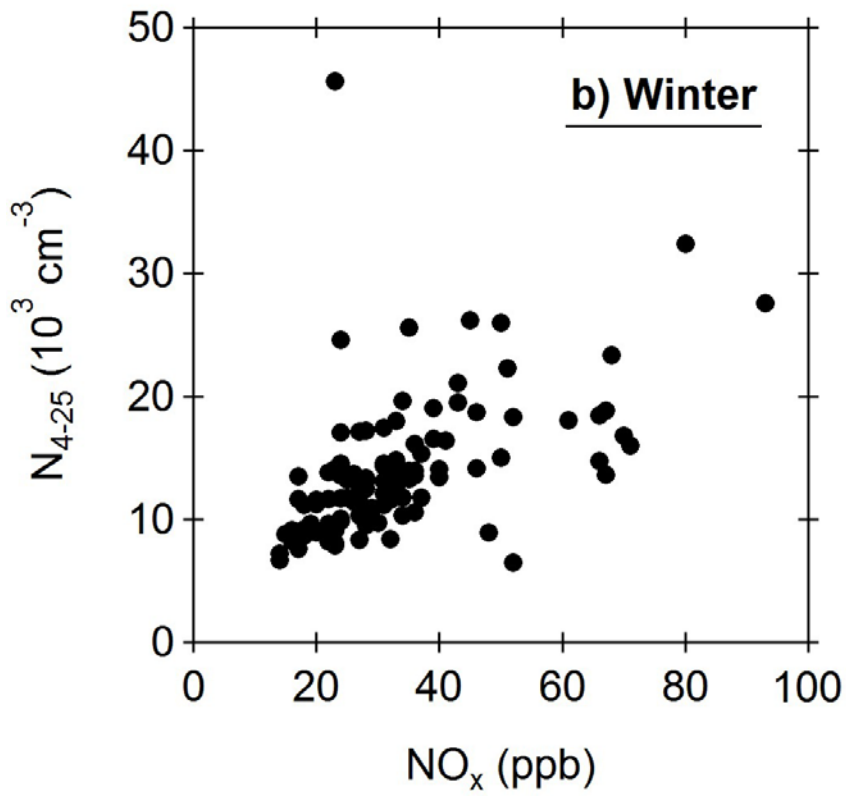


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**Figure 5.** Diurnal variation of particle number size distribution in each season. From lower panel to top panel: autumn, winter, spring and summer.

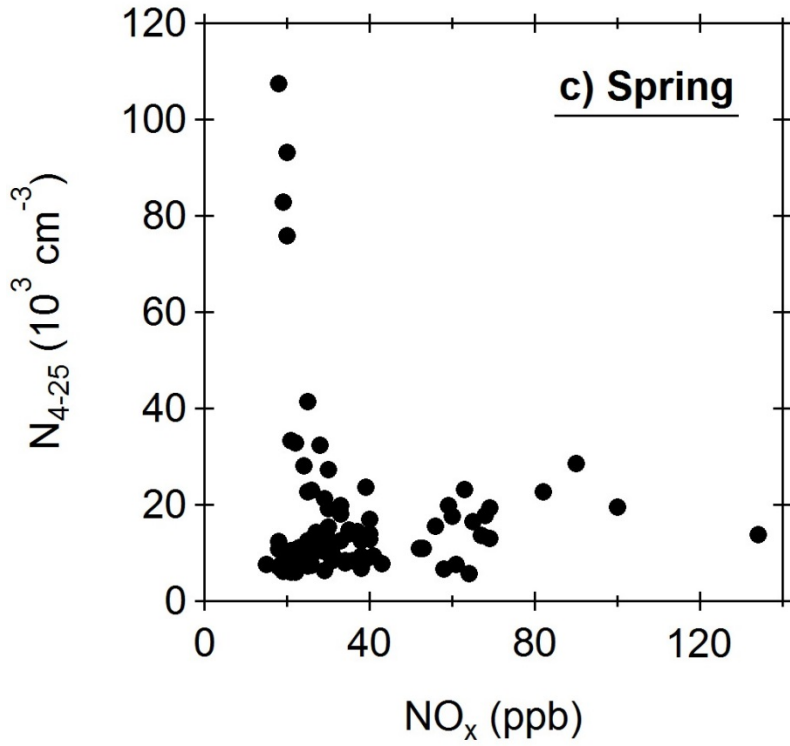


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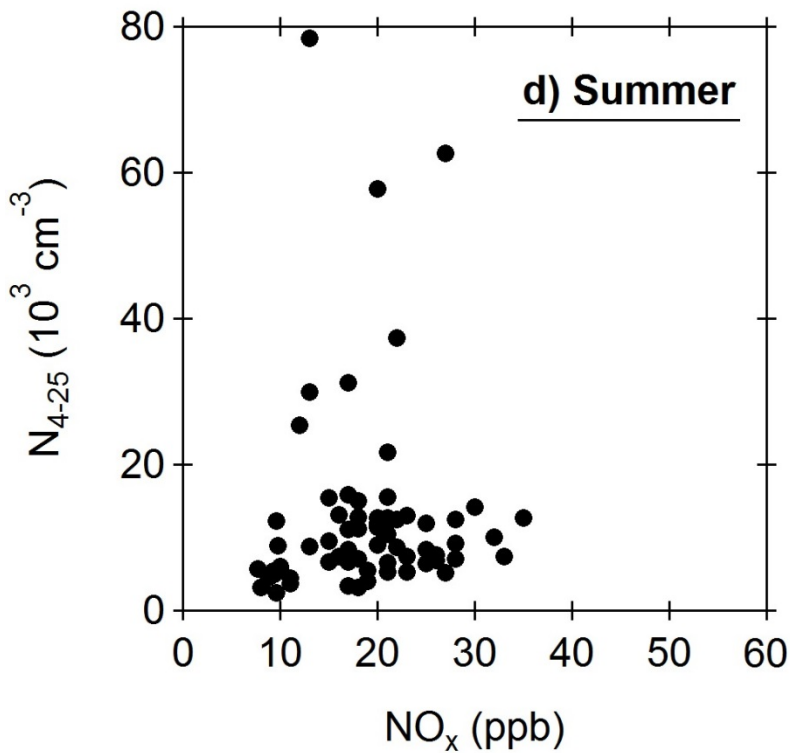


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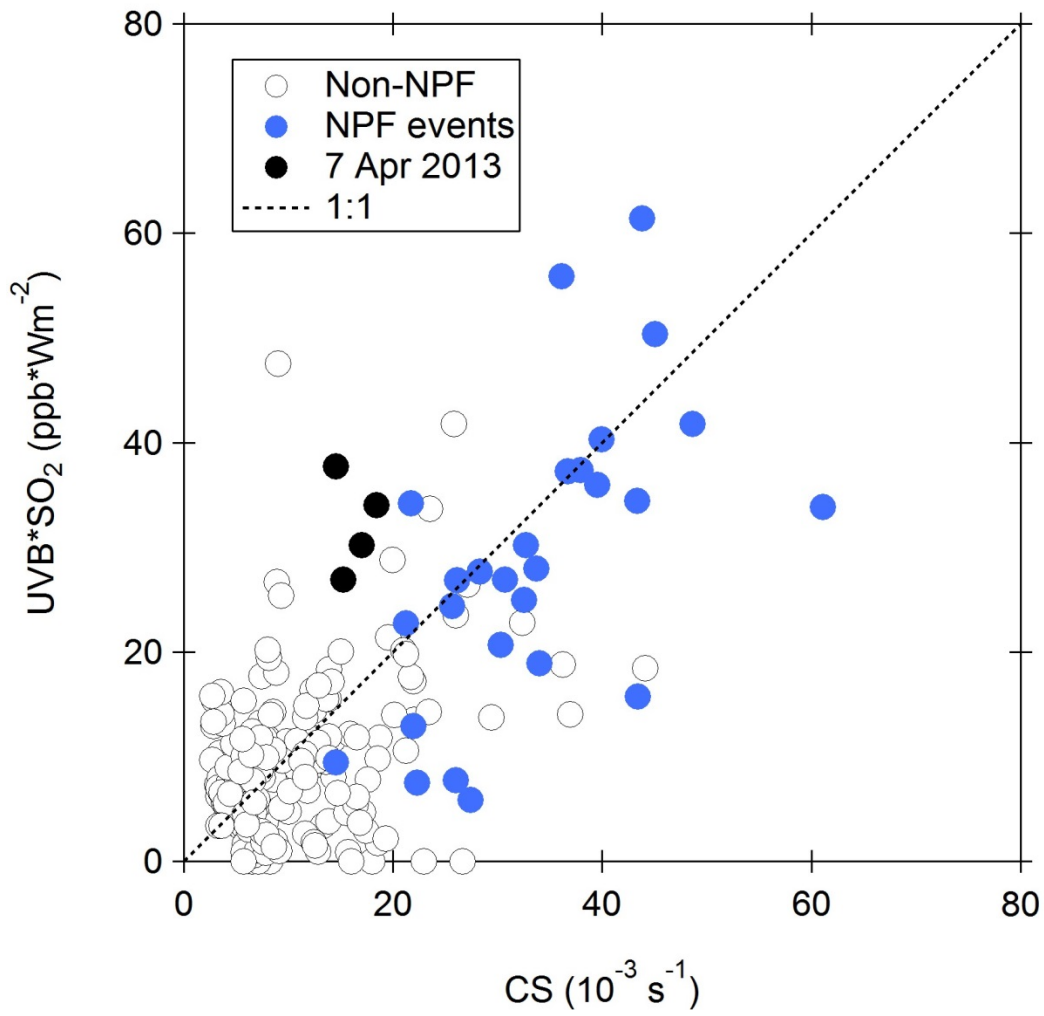


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962 **Figure 6.** Scatter plots between hourly  $N_{4-25}$  and  $NO_x$  observed in (a) Autumn, (b) Winter, (c)  
 963 Spring and (d) Summer at TARO site during the period of 07:00 – 17:00 LT.

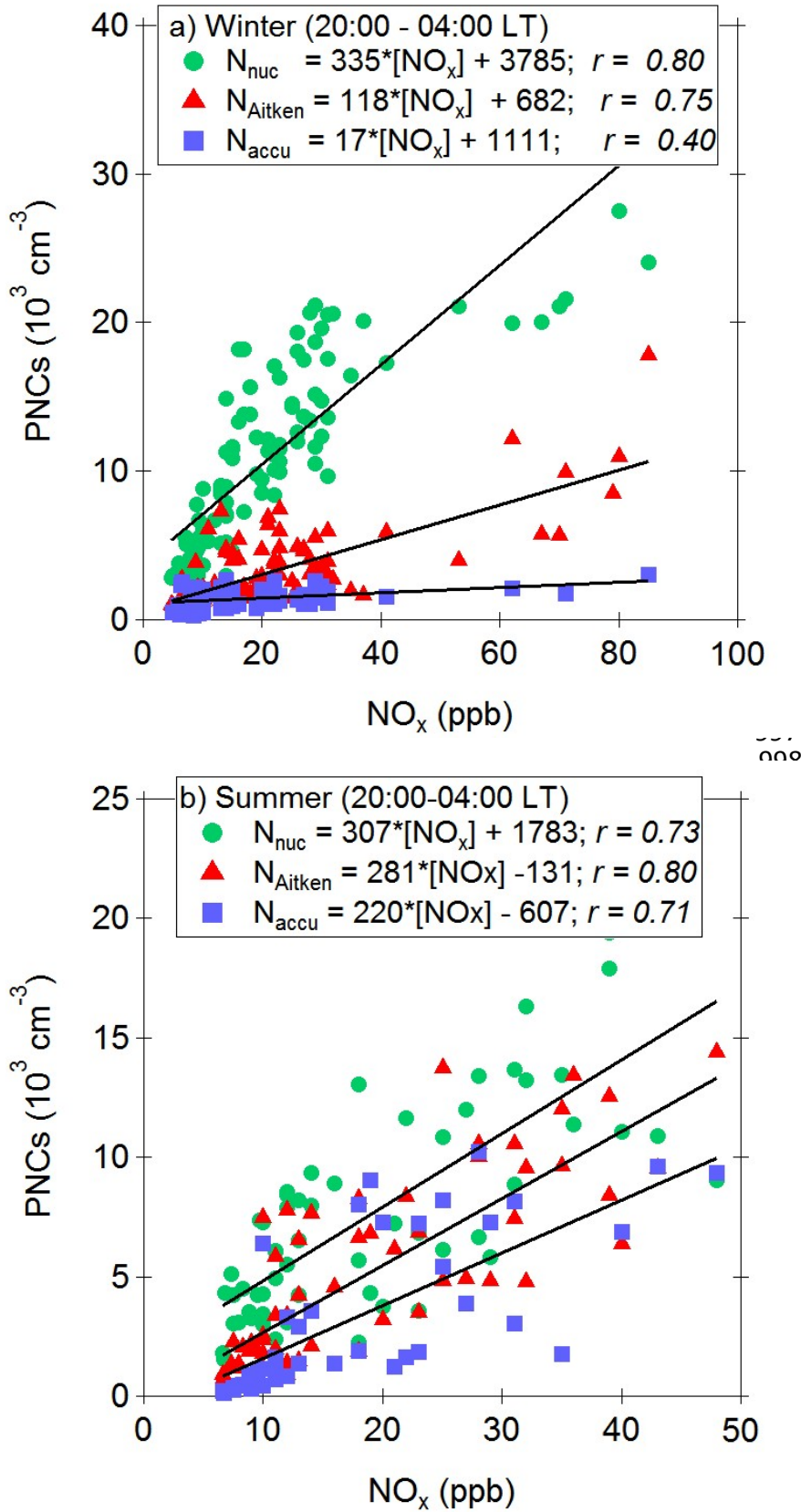
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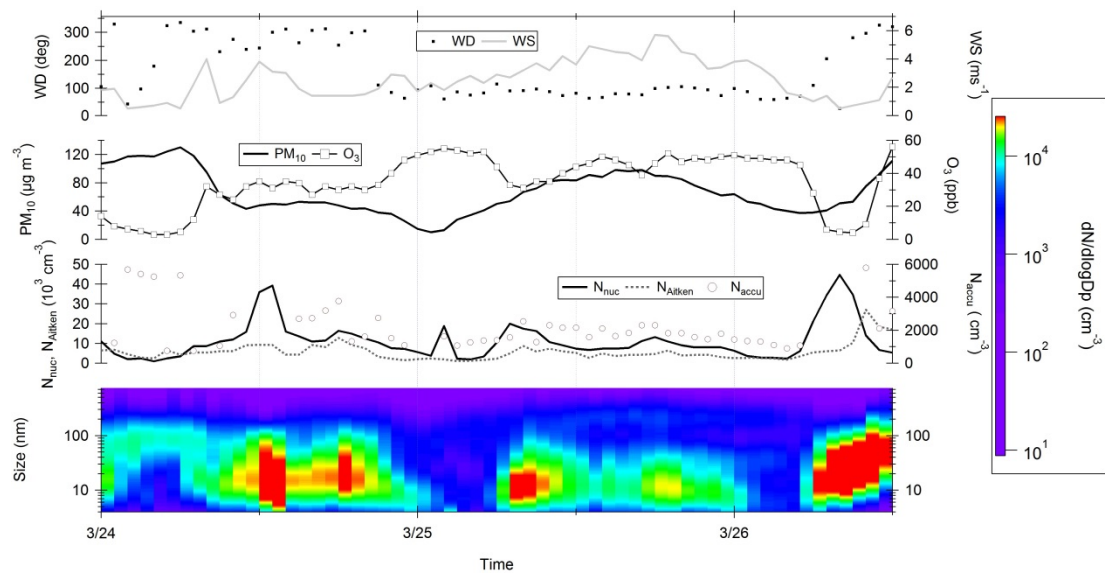
**Figure 7.** Scatter plot of hourly averaged  $UVB * SO_2$  versus condensation sink at noontime (10:00 – 14:00 LT).



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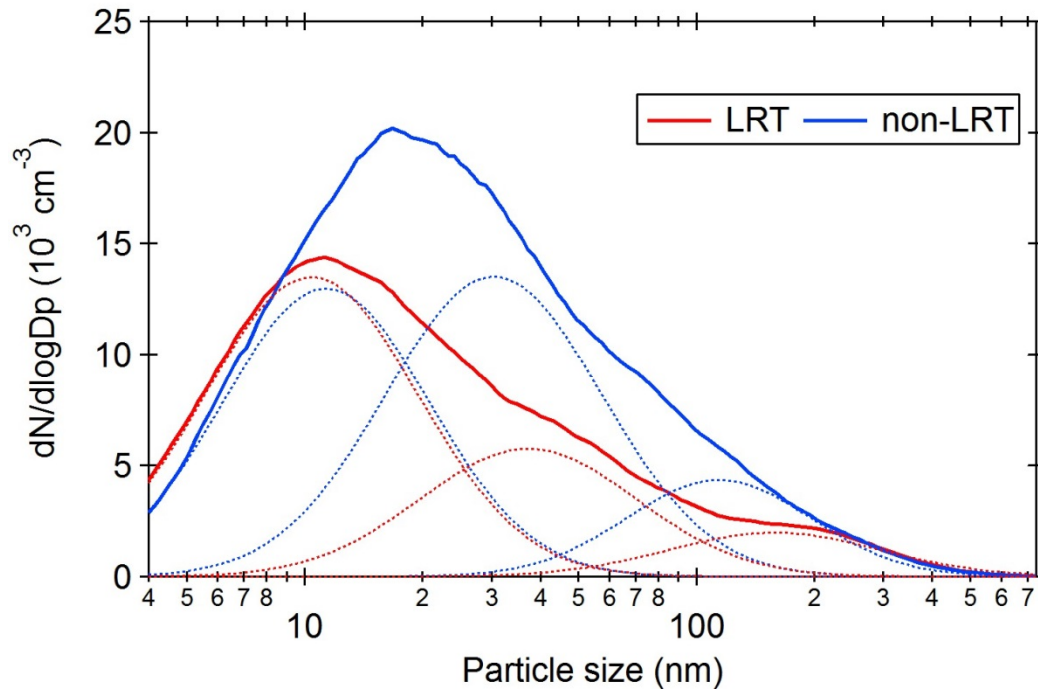
**Figure 8.** Scatter plots for hourly averaged PNCs vs.  $NO_x$  measured during the time period of 20:00 – 04:00 (LT) in (a) winter and (b) summer, with classification of various particle size ranges.

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**Figure 9.** Time series of PSD, the  $N_{4-25}$ ,  $N_{25-100}$ ,  $N_{100-736}$ ,  $PM_{10}$ , ozone ( $O_3$ ) and wind direction/speed measured from 24 - 26 March 2013 (from bottom to top).



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**Figure 10.** Averaged PSDs for LRT and non-LRT episodes measured during the seasons of winter monsoons. Dashed lines illustrate the PSD of each individual mode.