

1           Characteristics and sources of submicron aerosols above the urban  
2           canopy (260 m) in Beijing, China during 2014 APEC summit

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## 22    **Abstract**

23    The megacity of Beijing has experienced frequent severe fine particle pollution during  
24    the last decade. Although the sources and formation mechanisms of aerosol particles  
25    have been extensively investigated on the basis of ground measurements, real-time  
26    characterization of aerosol particle composition and sources above the urban canopy  
27    in Beijing is rare. In this study, we conducted real-time measurements of  
28    non-refractory submicron aerosol (NR-PM<sub>1</sub>) composition at 260 m at the Beijing 325  
29    m Meteorological Tower (BMT) from October 10 to November 12, 2014, by using an  
30    aerosol chemical speciation monitor (ACSM) along with synchronous measurements  
31    of size-resolved NR-PM<sub>1</sub> composition at near ground level using a High-Resolution  
32    Time-of-Flight Aerosol Mass Spectrometer (HR-ToF-AMS). The NR-PM<sub>1</sub>  
33    composition above the urban canopy was dominated by organics (46%), followed by  
34    nitrate (27%) and sulfate (13%). The high contribution of nitrate and high NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>/SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>  
35    mass ratios illustrate an important role of nitrate in particulate matter (PM) pollution  
36    during the study period. The organic aerosol (OA) was mainly composed by  
37    secondary OA (SOA), accounting for 61% on an average. Different from that  
38    measured at the ground site, primary OA (POA) correlated moderately with SOA,  
39    likely suggesting a high contribution from regional transport above the urban canopy.  
40    The Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC) summit with strict emission  
41    controls provides a unique opportunity to study the impacts of emission controls on  
42    aerosol chemistry. All aerosol species were shown to have significant decreases of  
43    40–80% during APEC from those measured before APEC, suggesting that emission  
44    controls over regional scales substantially reduced PM levels. However, the bulk  
45    aerosol composition was relatively similar before and during APEC as a result of  
46    synergetic controls of aerosol precursors. In addition to emission controls, the routine  
47    circulations of mountain–valley breezes were also found to play an important role in  
48    alleviating PM levels and achieving the “APEC blue” effect. The evolution of vertical  
49    differences between 260 m and the ground level was also investigated. Our results  
50    show complex vertical differences during the formation and evolution of severe haze  
51    episodes that are closely related to aerosol sources and boundary layer dynamics.

## 1 Introduction

Beijing (39°56'N, 116°20' E), the capital of China, is one of the largest megacities in the world with more than 21 million residents and 5.4 million vehicles in operation by the end of 2013 (Beijing Municipal Bureau of Statistics, 2014). In the west, north, and northeast, the city is surrounded by the Taihang and Yanshan mountains at approximately 1000–1500 m above sea level. The fan-shaped topography in addition to the rapid urbanization has caused frequent severe haze pollution episodes in Beijing. These conditions have received a significant amount of attention from atmospheric scientists, the government, and the general public (Sun et al., 2006; Sun et al., 2012a; Sun et al., 2013c; Guo et al., 2014; Sun et al., 2014). For in-depth elucidation of severe urban haze formation and particulate matter (PM) characteristics, extensive studies have been conducted in Beijing including real-time online measurements and filter sampling with subsequent offline analyses (Sun et al., 2006; Pope III et al., 2009; Zhao et al., 2013). Aerosol Mass Spectrometers (AMS), which are capable of determining size-resolved aerosol compositions with high sensitivity, have been widely deployed in Beijing and other cities in China since 2006 (Huang et al., 2012b; Zhang et al., 2014; Li et al., 2015). Numerous conclusions and findings have been obtained since then, which have greatly improved our understanding of aerosol composition, formation mechanisms, and evolution processes (Sun et al., 2010; Xiao et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2012; Hu et al., 2013; Huang et al., 2013; Guo et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2014; Li et al., 2015). However, most previous AMS studies include short-term measurements, of generally less than two months, because of the high cost and maintenance of the instrument. The recently developed aerodyne aerosol chemical speciation Monitor (ACSM) (Ng et al., 2011) has been used in some studies for examining the chemical composition, sources, and processes of atmospheric aerosols in China. The advantage of the ACSM is its robustness for real-time long-term measurements of aerosol particle composition with little attendance (Ng et al., 2011; Sun et al., 2012a; Sun et al., 2013c; Budisulistiorini et al., 2014; Sun et al., 2014; Jiang et al., 2015; Parworth et al., 2015; Petit et al., 2015). The first ACSM measurements in Beijing highlighted the important role of nitrate in PM pollution in

82 summer, which was mainly attributed to the partitioning of nitric acid into liquid  
83 ammonium nitrate particles (Sun et al., 2012a). The PM pollution characteristics also  
84 dramatically differed between summer and winter. Agricultural burning and  
85 photochemical production play major roles in PM pollution in summer (Li et al.,  
86 2010;Huang et al., 2012a;Sun et al., 2012a;Zhang et al., 2015), whereas coal  
87 combustion is the dominant source of PM in winter (Sun et al., 2013c). A more  
88 detailed analysis of a severe haze pollution episode occurred in January 2013  
89 suggested that stagnant meteorological conditions, source emissions, secondary  
90 production and regional transport are four major factors driving the formation and  
91 evolution of haze pollution in Beijing during winter (Sun et al., 2013c;Guo et al.,  
92 2014;Sun et al., 2014;Zhang et al., 2014).

93 Despite extensive efforts for the characterization of fine particle pollution in  
94 Beijing, most studies are conducted at ground sites, which are subject to significant  
95 influences of local emission sources such as traffic, cooking, and biomass burning. In  
96 comparison, measurements obtained above the urban canopy with much less influence  
97 of local source are more representative for a large scale, which is of great importance  
98 for characterizing regional transport. However, such studies in Beijing are rare due to  
99 the absence of high platforms. The Beijing 325 m Meteorological Tower (BMT) is a  
100 unique platform for measuring aerosol and gaseous species at various heights in  
101 Beijing megacity. Moreover, this platform is beneficial for studying the interactions of  
102 the lower boundary layer (<300 m) and air pollution, particularly during autumn and  
103 winter when the nocturnal planetary boundary height is often below 300 m (Ting et al.,  
104 2008;Zhang et al., 2013). Based on the BMT measurements, Sun et al. (2009;2013a)  
105 reported that the SO<sub>2</sub> concentration reached its maximal value at 50 m during heating  
106 periods, whereas PM<sub>2.5</sub> showed a “higher top and lower bottom” vertical pattern due  
107 to the inversions of temperature (*T*) and relative humidity (RH) during summer hazy  
108 days. Guinot et al. (2006) and Meng et al. (2008) also determined that local  
109 concentration peaks at 50 m to 100 m were likely related to the urban canopy.  
110 However, real-time characterization of aerosol particle composition above the urban  
111 canopy has been performed only once (Sun et al., 2015). The two-week study found

112 substantially different aerosol compositions between ground level and 260 m. In  
113 addition, the compositional differences at the two heights were found to be strongly  
114 associated with source emissions, the vertical mixing mechanism, and  
115 RH/T-dependent secondary production. Because these measurements only lasted two  
116 weeks, the aerosol characteristics and sources above the urban canopy remain poorly  
117 understood.

118 The 2014 Asia–Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC) summit was hosted in  
119 Beijing during November 5–11, 2014, when strict emission control measures were  
120 implemented in Beijing and surrounding regions to ensure the air quality. During  
121 November 3–12, emission controls such as reducing the number of vehicles in  
122 operation by approximately 50%, shutting down factories, stopping construction  
123 activities, and enhancing the cleanliness of urban roads were gradually implemented  
124 (<http://www.bjepb.gov.cn/bjepb/323474/331443/331937/333896/412827/index.html>,  
125 in Chinese). The neighboring provinces such as Hebei, Tianjin, and Shandong  
126 implemented the same emission controls during APEC  
127 (<http://www.bjepb.gov.cn/bjepb/324122/412670/index.html>, in Chinese). As a result,  
128 the PM levels in Beijing during the summit were significantly reduced, leading to  
129 “APEC blue,” a phrase commonly used to refer to the good air quality. However, the  
130 response of aerosol chemistry to emission controls over a regional scale has not been  
131 investigated. Measurements above the urban canopy are ideal for evaluating the roles  
132 of emission controls in reducing PM levels under the condition of minimizing the  
133 influences of local point sources.

134 In this study, we conduct real-time measurements of non-refractory submicron  
135 aerosol (NR-PM<sub>1</sub>) composition including organics (Org), sulfate (SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>), nitrate  
136 (NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>), ammonium (NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>), and chloride (Cl<sup>-</sup>) at 260 m at the BMT before and during  
137 APEC, October 10–November 2 and November 3–12, 2014, respectively, by using an  
138 ACSM. The aerosol composition, diurnal variation, and sources above the urban  
139 canopy are investigated in detail. The responses of aerosol composition, particle  
140 acidity, and sources of organic aerosol (OA) to emission controls are elucidated by  
141 comparing the changes before and during APEC, and the roles of meteorological

142 conditions in PM reduction during APEC are discussed. In addition, the vertical  
143 differences of aerosol composition and its interactions with boundary layer dynamics  
144 are also examined.

## 145 **2 Experimental methods**

### 146 **2.1 Sampling site and measurements**

147 All of the measurements in this study were conducted at the same site as that  
148 reported by Sun et al. (2013c), which is an urban site at the Institute of Atmospheric  
149 Physics, Chinese Academy of Sciences, between North 3<sup>rd</sup> and 4<sup>th</sup> Ring Road from  
150 October 10 to 12 November, 2014. The ACSM and gas measurement instruments  
151 were mounted inside a container at 260 m on the BMT. The ACSM sampling setup  
152 used in this study is similar to that described by Sun et al. (2012a). Briefly, aerosol  
153 particles were first sampled into the container with a PM<sub>2.5</sub> cyclone to remove coarse  
154 particles larger than 2.5  $\mu\text{m}$ . After passing through a diffusion silica-gel dryer, aerosol  
155 particles were sampled into the ACSM at a flow rate of  $\sim 0.1$  L/min. The ACSM was  
156 operated by alternating ambient air and filtered air with a mass spectrometer at a  
157 scanning rate of 500 ms  $\text{amu}^{-1}$  from  $m/z$  10 to 150. The data were saved every two  
158 cycles, leading to a time resolution of approximately 5 min. The detailed principles of  
159 the ACSM can be found elsewhere (Ng et al., 2011; Sun et al., 2012a). An Aerodyne  
160 High-Resolution Time-of-Flight AMS (HR-ToF-AMS) was simultaneously deployed  
161 near the ground level at the same location to measure the size-resolved NR-PM<sub>1</sub>  
162 aerosol composition. Details of the sampling and operation procedures of the  
163 HR-ToF-AMS was given in Xu et al. (2015).

164 Meteorological variables including wind speed (WS), wind direction (WD), RH,  
165 and  $T$  at 15 heights of 8, 15, 32, 47, 65, 100, 120, 140, 160, 180, 200, 280, and 320 m  
166 were obtained from the BMT. In addition, a Doppler wind lidar (Windcube 200,  
167 Leosphere, Orsay, France) was deployed at the same location to obtain the wind  
168 profiles from 100 m to 5000 m with a spatial resolution of 50 m and a time resolution  
169 of 10 min. All of the data in this study are reported in Beijing Standard Time (BST),  
170 which equals Coordinated Universal Time (UTC) plus 8 h.

### 171 **2.2 Data analysis**

172 The ACSM data were analyzed for the mass concentration and chemical  
 173 composition of NR-PM<sub>1</sub> species including organics, sulfate, nitrate, ammonium, and  
 174 chloride by using ACSM standard data analysis software (v. 1.5.3.0). Detailed  
 175 analytical procedures have been reported by Ng et.al (2011) and Sun et.al (2012a).  
 176 Similar to that in previous studies in Beijing (Sun et al., 2011; Sun et al., 2012a; Sun et  
 177 al., 2013c; Sun et al., 2014), an empirical and constant collection efficiency (CE) of  
 178 0.5 was applied during the entire campaign to compensate for the particle loss due  
 179 mainly to particle bounce at the vaporizer (Matthew et al., 2008). The CE of 0.5 is  
 180 rationale for this study because aerosol particles were dried, and the mass fraction of  
 181 ammonium nitrate was overall below the threshold value (40%) that affects CE  
 182 (Middlebrook et al., 2012). The average ratio of measured NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> (NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup><sub>meas</sub>) versus  
 183 predicted NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> (NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup><sub>pred</sub>) was 0.56, suggesting that the aerosol particles were acidic.  
 184 Although the particle acidity would have a slightly higher CE than 0.5 (~0.59) if the  
 185 equation  $CE_{dry} = \max(0.45, 1.0 - 0.73 \times (NH_4^+_{meas}/NH_4^+_{pred}))$  recommended by  
 186 Middlebrook et al. (2012) were used, no effect on CE is present if using the  
 187 parameterization reported by Quinn et al. (2006). For consistency with our previous  
 188 studies and with the HR-ToF-AMS measurements at the ground site, we maintained  
 189 CE = 0.5 in this study. The default relative ionization efficiency (RIE) values, 1.4 for  
 190 organics, 1.1 for nitrate, 1.2 for sulfate, and 1.3 for chloride except ammonium (6.5)  
 191 which was determined from pure ammonium nitrate particles. Note that the ACSM  
 192 measurements were compared with those of HR-AMS at the same location before the  
 193 campaign. All submicron aerosol species measured by the ACSM were highly  
 194 correlated with those by the HR-AMS ( $r^2 > 0.97$ ). Although the total NR-PM<sub>1</sub> mass  
 195 measured by the ACSM agreed well with that by HR-AMS ( $r^2 = 0.99$ , slope = 0.99),  
 196 the regression slopes of ACSM against HR-AMS varied from 0.61–1.24 for different  
 197 aerosol species. Because ACSM was found to have a larger uncertainty in  
 198 quantification of submicron aerosol species, particularly in determination of relative  
 199 ionization efficiency, the mass concentrations of aerosol species measured by the  
 200 ACSM at 260 m were further corrected using the regression slopes of  
 201 ACSM/HR-AMS obtained from the inter-comparison study.

Positive matrix factorization (PMF) with the PMF2.exe algorithm (Paatero and Tapper, 1994) was performed on the ACSM OA mass spectra to resolve potential OA components with different sources and processes. Only  $m/z$ 's < 125 was included in the PMF analysis due to the large interferences of naphthalene signals on several larger  $m/z$ 's (e.g.,  $m/z$  127–129) (Sun et al., 2012a; Sun et al., 2013c; Sun et al., 2014). The PMF results were then evaluated by using an Igor Pro-based PMF Evaluation Tool (PET, v 2.06) (Ulbrich et al., 2009) with following procedures detailed by Zhang et al. (2011). After careful evaluation of the mass spectra and time series of OA factors, a two-factor solution, i.e., an oxygenated OA (OOA) and a hydrocarbon-like OA (HOA) with  $f_{\text{peak}} = 0.4$ , was chosen. A more detailed PMF diagnostics is presented in Figs. S1, S2 and Table S1. While the 3-factor solution resolved an unrealistic factor with unexpectedly high  $m/z$  12 and  $m/z$  15, the 2-factor solution at  $f_{\text{peak}} = 0$  showed much higher  $m/z$  44 in HOA spectrum, which is generally a characteristics of OOA (Fig. S3).

## 2.3 Air mass trajectory analyses

The three-day (72 h) back trajectories were calculated every hour at 500 m height using the Hybrid Single-Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory (HYSPPLIT, NOAA) 4.9 model (Draxler and Hess, 1997; Li et al., 2015). The trajectories were then grouped into four clusters before and during APEC using the algorithm of cluster analysis. The clustering of trajectories is based on the total spatial variance (TSV) method (Draxler et al., 2012). This method minimizes the inter-cluster differences among trajectories while maximizing the intra-cluster differences, which has been widely used in previous studies (Sun et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2014; Li et al., 2015).

## 3 Results and discussion

### 3.1 General description

#### 3.1.1 Submicron aerosol and meteorology

The NR-PM<sub>1</sub> mass concentration varied significantly from 0.7 to 254  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ , with an average of 53.5  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ . As indicated in Fig. 1, the variations of NR-PM<sub>1</sub> were strongly associated with WD and WS. The formation of severe haze episodes was generally initiated by a WD change from northerly to southerly and a decrease of WS



232 to less than  $5 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  below 1 km. The southern air flow and low WS were then  
 233 dominant most of the time during the evolution of haze episode; subsequently, the air  
 234 masses changed from the south to the north/northwest, leading to a rapid decrease of  
 235 PM level in a few hours. Haze episodes with such life cycle driven by meteorological  
 236 conditions have also been observed many times in Beijing (Jia et al., 2008; Sun et al.,  
 237 2013c; Guo et al., 2014; Sun et al., 2014). Note that a mountain–valley breeze lasting  
 238 approximately half a day was frequently observed throughout the study, which  
 239 reduced the daytime PM levels to a certain degree. As shown in Fig. 1, most of the  
 240 cleaning processes were similar, all driven by the switch of air masses from  
 241 south/southwest to north/northwest associated with high WS across the entire vertical  
 242 layer ( $>5 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ ). However, the cleaning process occurring on October 20–21 was  
 243 different. As the WD changed from the south to the northwest/northeast, the NR-PM<sub>1</sub>  
 244 concentration remained high. This phenomenon can be explained by the low WS ( $<4$   
 245  $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ) below 500 m and the high RH (Figs. 2, S4). The NR-PM<sub>1</sub> began to decrease at  
 246 ~20:00 as WD shifted to the south associated with a decrease in RH. This result  
 247 indicates that a cleaner and dryer air mass was located to the south of Beijing during  
 248 this stage. Such a cleaning process by southern air flow is not common and is  
 249 generally weaker than that by northern/northwestern flow. This observation is  
 250 supported by the higher NR-PM<sub>1</sub> concentration of  $\sim 20 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  on October 21 than  
 251 during other cleaning periods at  $\sim <5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ . The average mass concentration of  
 252 NR-PM<sub>1</sub> during APEC was  $24.1 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ , which is significantly lower than the  $65.1 \mu\text{g}$   
 253  $\text{m}^{-3}$  recorded before APEC, indicating a large reduction of PM during APEC. In  
 254 addition, the southern air mass occurred less frequently and had a shorter duration  
 255 during APEC. These results manifest that meteorology in addition to emission  
 256 controls might have played an important role in reducing PM levels during APEC.

257 The NR-PM<sub>1</sub> species showed similar and dramatic variations to the total NR-PM<sub>1</sub>  
 258 mass (Fig. 2). In particular, three haze episodes before APEC (Ep1, Ep2, and Ep3 in  
 259 Fig. 2d) and two episodes during the summit (APEC1 and APEC2 in Fig. 2d) were  
 260 observed in this study. The three episodes before APEC were all characterized by high  
 261 RH at 48–70% and low WS at  $2.3\text{--}3.4 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ , elucidating the important roles of

262 stagnant meteorological conditions in severe haze formation. In comparison, the RH  
263 in the two episodes during APEC was lower at 34–38%, and the WS was comparably  
264 higher at 3.1–3.8 m s<sup>-1</sup> (Table 1). These results suggest that the meteorological  
265 conditions during APEC appeared to be more favorable for dispersion of pollutants.  
266 Indeed, clear accumulation processes of aerosol species were observed for three  
267 episodes before APEC, yet they were much weaker during the summit. However, the  
268 two episodes during APEC showed obvious temperature inversions, which inhibited  
269 the vertical convection of pollutants. The meteorological conditions during haze  
270 episodes differed substantially from those during clean periods, which were  
271 characterized by high WS at >5 m s<sup>-1</sup> and low RH at <20%.

272 The NR-PM<sub>1</sub> was dominated by organics, accounting for on average 46% of the  
273 total mass, followed by nitrate at 27%, sulfate at 13%, ammonium at 9%, and chloride  
274 at 5%. The nitrate contribution ranged from 27% to 28% during the three episodes  
275 before APEC and from 29% to 31% in the two episodes during APEC, which is  
276 significantly higher than the sulfate contribution of 10–15% and 8–11%, respectively  
277 (Fig. 6). Although the dominance of organics in PM<sub>1</sub> was consistent with that in  
278 previous studies in Beijing (Sun et al., 2012a; Sun et al., 2013c; Guo et al., 2014; Sun et  
279 al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2014), the nitrate contribution in this study was approximately  
280 twice that of sulfate and significantly higher than previously reported values of 16%  
281 in 2011 (Sun et al., 2013c) and 13–14% in 2013 (Sun et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2014).  
282 The mass ratio of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>/SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> can be used to indicate the relative importance of  
283 mobile and stationary sources (Arimoto et al., 1996). Therefore, higher NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>/SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> in  
284 this study likely indicates the predominance of mobile source rather than stationary  
285 source. Because the continuous increase of NO<sub>x</sub> emissions associated with a decrease  
286 in SO<sub>2</sub> (Wang et al., 2013), nitrate is expected to play a more important role in PM  
287 pollution in the future. Our results highlight that NO<sub>x</sub> emission control should be a  
288 priority in mitigating air pollution, particularly in non-heating seasons with low SO<sub>2</sub>  
289 precursors.

290 Figure 3 further shows the time series of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>/SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> mass ratio and sulfur  
291 oxidation ratio (SOR) calculated as the molar fraction of sulfate in total sulfur (i.e.,

sulfate and SO<sub>2</sub>) (Sun et al., 2014). The NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>/SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> was ubiquitously greater than 1 during five haze episodes, indicating the importance of nitrate in the formation of severe haze pollution. Interestingly, we observed a rapid increase in NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>/SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> during the formation stage of a pollution episode followed by a decrease in NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>/SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> during the subsequent evolution stage. The variations of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>/SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> illustrate that two different formation mechanisms might drive the formation and evolution of haze episodes. During the early stage of haze formation, the RH was relatively low and the formation rate of sulfate was correspondingly low, which is supported by the low SOR values. Consequently, the nitrate formation played a dominant role during this stage. The SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> concentration remained consistently low when the nitrate began to increase (Fig. 2d). As the RH continued to increase, the SOR showed a corresponding increase indicating that more SO<sub>2</sub> was oxidized to form sulfate, most likely via aqueous-phase processing (Zhang and Tie, 2011; Sun et al., 2013b). The SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> concentration then showed a substantial increase, and the NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>/SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> ratio decreased as a result. For example, during Ep2, the hourly NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>/SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> increased from ~1.1 to 4.0 during the formation stage and then decreased to ~1.8 during the evolution stage. These results indicate that SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> played an enhanced role in PM pollution during the evolution stage of haze episodes with high RH. Moreover, the NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>/SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> ratios during clean periods (~0.3) were much lower than those during haze episodes. One explanation is that the nitrate in clean air masses from north/northwest is significantly lower than that of sulfate.

### 3.1.2 Sources and composition of OA

Two OA factors, HOA and OOA, were identified in this study. The HOA spectrum was similar to those determined at other urban sites (Huang et al., 2012a; Sun et al., 2012a; Sun et al., 2012b), which is characterized by prominent hydrocarbon ion peaks of *m/z* 27, 29, 41, 43, 55, 57 (Fig. 4a). The HOA spectrum showed a higher *m/z* 55/57 ratio compared with that of exhaust aerosols from diesel trucks and gasoline vehicles (Mohr et al., 2009), yet it had characteristics similar to those resolved in urban Beijing (Sun et al., 2010; Sun et al., 2012a). The high *m/z* 55/57 ratio and the two visible peaks at meal times in diurnal variations (Fig. 4b)

322 indicate the impact of local cooking activities (Sun et al., 2011; Sun et al., 2012a; Sun  
323 et al., 2013c). However, the two HOA peaks were much smaller than those observed  
324 at the ground site (Xu et al., 2015), indicating a significantly smaller impact of local  
325 cooking emissions on OA at 260 m. Moreover, the HOA spectrum showed a  
326 considerable  $m/z$  60 peak, a marker  $m/z$  for biomass burning (Aiken et al.,  
327 2009; Huang et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2015). The fraction of  $m/z$  60 was 0.9%, which  
328 is much higher than ~0.3% in the absence of biomass burning. All these results  
329 suggest that HOA was a primary OA factor combined with traffic, cooking, and  
330 biomass burning emissions. Limited by the ACSM spectra and PMF analysis, we were  
331 not able to separate the different primary OA factors in this study. HOA correlated  
332 well with chloride ( $r^2 = 0.61$ ) and moderately well with secondary inorganic species  
333 ( $r^2 = 0.42\text{--}0.65$ ), indicating that a major fraction of HOA shared similar sources to  
334 secondary species at 260 m, which was likely from regional transport. HOA on  
335 average contributed 39% of total organics, which is less than the 57% observed at the  
336 ground site during the same study period (Xu et al., 2015). This result indicates a  
337 smaller impact of primary sources above the urban canopy. The diurnal cycle of HOA  
338 was relatively flat with two visible peaks occurring at noon and night. The HOA  
339 contribution to OA was relatively constant throughout the day, ranging from 36% to  
340 43%. This result further supports the theory that HOA above the urban canopy was  
341 dominantly from regional transport and was well mixed with regional secondary OA  
342 (SOA). Indeed, the correlation of HOA with OOA in this study was quite high ( $r^2 =$   
343 0.76), supporting that HOA and OOA might have some common sources (e.g.,  
344 regional transport) at 260 m.

345       The mass spectrum of OOA resembles that identified in 2012 in summer in  
346 Beijing (Sun et al., 2012a) in addition to those resolved at other urban sites (Ulbrich et  
347 al., 2009), which is characterized by a prominent  $m/z$  44 peak (mainly  $\text{CO}_2^+$ ). OOA  
348 dominated the OA composition throughout the day, ranging from 57% to 64%. The  
349 average OOA contribution to OA was 61%, which is close to those previously  
350 reported in Beijing (Huang et al., 2010; Sun et al., 2012a; Sun et al., 2013c). The  
351 diurnal cycle of OOA was relatively flat, yet a gradual increase during the day was

also observed despite the rising planetary boundary layer, suggesting daytime photochemical processing. OOA is often considered as a good surrogate of SOA (Zhang et al., 2005; Jimenez et al., 2009; Ng et al., 2011). In this study, OOA tracked well with secondary inorganic species such as  $\text{NO}_3^-$ ,  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  ( $r^2 = 0.72\text{--}0.90$ ), which is consistent with previous conclusions that OOA is a secondary species in nature (Zhang et al., 2005; Sun et al., 2012a).

## 3.2 Response of aerosol chemistry to emission controls

### 3.2.1 Aerosol composition

Figure 5 shows the variations of aerosol composition as a function of NR-PM<sub>1</sub> mass loading before and during APEC. The organics contribution showed a notable decrease from 62% to 32% as the NR-PM<sub>1</sub> mass concentration increased from  $<10\text{ }\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  to  $>200\text{ }\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  before APEC. In contrast, the sulfate contribution showed a corresponding increase from 8% to 22%. Except for low values at NR-PM<sub>1</sub>  $<10\text{ }\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ , nitrate and ammonium constituted relatively constant fractions of NR-PM<sub>1</sub> across different NR-PM<sub>1</sub> loadings and varied at 21–31% and 8–12%, respectively. These results highlighted the enhanced roles of secondary inorganic species in severe PM pollution before APEC. This observation is further supported by a comparison of average chemical composition between three pollution episodes and a clean event (Fig. 6). The secondary inorganic aerosol ( $\text{SIA} = \text{SO}_4^{2-} + \text{NO}_3^- + \text{NH}_4^+$ ) on average contributed 46–51% of the total NR-PM<sub>1</sub> mass during the three episodes before APEC, which is significantly higher than the 40% reported during the clean event (Fig. 6). The NR-PM<sub>1</sub> mass loading-dependent aerosol composition showed a different behavior during APEC. As shown in Fig. 5b, all aerosol species had relatively constant contributions to NR-PM<sub>1</sub> at  $10\text{--}100\text{ }\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ . The contribution of organics ranged from 43% to 58%, which is overall higher than those before APEC. This result indicates an enhanced role of organics during APEC, particularly during severe PM pollution periods. Similarly, nitrate contributed the largest fraction of NR-PM<sub>1</sub>, varying from 23% to 32%. Figure 5 also shows a very broad range of NR-PM<sub>1</sub> mass concentration with the maximum concentration over  $200\text{ }\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  before APEC. In contrast, the range of NR-PM<sub>1</sub> was much narrower during APEC, suggesting a

significantly lower amount of severe haze pollution during APEC. Indeed, 93% of the time during APEC, the NR-PM<sub>1</sub> level was lower than 60  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ , whereas 49% of the time before APEC exceeded such a concentration level. These results indicate that the air pollution was substantially more severe before APEC. The average mass concentration of NR-PM<sub>1</sub> was 24.1  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  during APEC, which is 63% lower than the 65.1  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  recorded before APEC (Fig. 6). This result demonstrates a significant reduction of PM during APEC due to emission controls and better weather conditions including higher WS and lower RH. However, the bulk NR-PM<sub>1</sub> composition was rather similar before and during APEC, both of which were dominated by organics, 46% versus 47%, followed by nitrate at 27% versus 29% and sulfate at 14% versus 10% (Fig. 6). The lower sulfate contribution during APEC might be due to the lower RH associated with lower liquid water content, leading to less production of sulfate. These results highlight that the emission controls during APEC did not significantly affect the regional aerosol bulk composition, although the mass concentrations of precursors and aerosol species were reduced substantially. One possible explanation is the synergetic control of various precursors such as SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>x</sub>, and volatile organic compounds (VOCs) over a regional scale during APEC. Our results clearly imply that synergetic controls of the emissions of precursors over a regional scale are efficient for mitigating air pollution in North China.

### 3.2.2 Diurnal variations

The diurnal variations of meteorological variables, NR-PM<sub>1</sub> species, and OA components before and during APEC are presented in Fig. 7. The diurnal cycles of meteorological conditions were overall similar before and during APEC except for lower temperatures and RH during APEC. The WS during APEC was consistently higher than that before APEC, particularly in the morning (04:00–12:00) and evening (18:00–22:00). Although the WD during APEC was dominantly from the northwest at night and shifted to the south during the day, it was mainly from the south before APEC (Fig. 2c).

The total NR-PM<sub>1</sub> showed pronounced diurnal variation with two peaks in early afternoon (12:00–14:00) and late evening (20:00–22:00) that were dominantly

412 influenced by organics. By checking the diurnal cycles of the OA factors, we  
413 concluded that the two peaks occurring at meal times are mainly attributed to primary  
414 emissions such as cooking-related activities and traffic emissions (Allan et al.,  
415 2010;Sun et al., 2011;Sun et al., 2012a). Compared with the diurnal cycles of OA  
416 previously observed at the ground site in Beijing (Sun et al., 2012a), the two peaks of  
417 organics were considerably smaller. This result indicates that local source emissions  
418 can be vertically mixed above the urban canopy but at substantially reduced  
419 concentrations. Our results also demonstrate that sampling above the urban canopy is  
420 less influenced by local source emissions and can be more representative over a  
421 regional scale.

422 SIA and OOA showed similar diurnal patterns before and during APEC, all of  
423 which were characterized by gradual increases during the day. These results indicate  
424 that their diurnal cycles were driven by similar formation mechanisms before and  
425 during APEC such as photochemical processing and daytime vertical mixing. Higher  
426 concentrations of secondary species were also observed at night, which might have  
427 been associated with a shallower boundary layer height (Sun et al., 2012a). It should  
428 be noted that all secondary species showed relatively constant background  
429 concentrations, indicating that a major fraction was likely from regional transport. SIA  
430 and OOA during APEC showed substantial reductions (45–74%) throughout the day  
431 compared with those before APEC, indicating that regional emission controls played a  
432 significant role in reducing secondary species during APEC, although the lower RH  
433 and higher WS were also important. Moreover, a higher reduction percentage was  
434 observed between 04:00 and 12:00, when higher mountain–valley breezes occurring  
435 routinely during APEC cleaned the air pollutants more efficiently.

436 The diurnal cycles of chloride showed some differences before and during APEC.  
437 Although it was relatively flat during APEC, chloride showed a clear decrease in the  
438 afternoon before APEC, likely due to the evaporative loss and dilution effects  
439 associated with higher  $T$  and the elevated boundary layer (Sun et al., 2012a). The  
440 diurnal cycle of HOA showed overall lower concentration during the day except for a  
441 pronounced noon peak before and during APEC. Considering that the peak time

corresponds to lunch time, we concluded that it was attributed mainly to local cooking sources. In addition, a more significant reduction in evening peak of HOA was observed during APEC. One explanation is that controls of heavy-duty vehicles (HDV) and heavy-duty diesel trucks (HDDT) decreased the HOA emissions at night during APEC.

### 3.2.3 Meteorological effects

Meteorological parameters contribute the largest uncertainties in evaluating the effects of emission controls on PM reduction. Here we compared the variations of aerosol species as a function of RH and WS before and during APEC. At low RH levels ( $<40\%$ ), all aerosol species appeared to increase linearly as a function of RH in both periods at similar rates of increase. Moreover, the mass concentrations of aerosol species were slightly lower during APEC than those before the summit, indicating small reductions in aerosol species during APEC. By checking the air mass trajectories (Fig. S5), we determined that the low RH periods were mainly associated with the air masses from the north/northwest where fewer emission controls were implemented during APEC. This finding explains the small reductions in aerosol species ( $\sim 22\%$ ) during APEC under the same RH conditions. However, the variations in aerosol species showed substantially different behaviors as a function of RH at high RH levels ( $>40\%$ ) before and during APEC. Whereas most aerosol species continued to linearly increase as function of RH before APEC, they remained relatively constant and even showed decreases during APEC. As a result, significant reductions in aerosol species at high RH levels were observed during APEC. The air masses during high RH periods were found to be dominantly from the south/southeast where strict emission controls were implemented such as Hebei, Tianjin, and Shandong provinces. These results clearly indicate that emission controls played a major role in PM reduction during APEC and that the control effects tended to be more efficient under higher RH periods. The primary HOA and chloride showed decreases when the RH was  $>60\%$ , indicating that humidity has a significantly lower impact on primary aerosols than secondary components at high RH levels.

The mass concentrations of aerosol species showed a strong dependence on WS



before and during APEC. For example, the total NR-PM<sub>1</sub> mass was decreased by ~80% from ~100 µg m<sup>-3</sup> to < 20 µg m<sup>-3</sup> as WS increased to 7 m s<sup>-1</sup> before APEC. These results indicate that wind is efficient in cleaning air pollutants in Beijing, which is consistent with previous conclusions (Han et al., 2009; Sun et al., 2013c). In comparison, the decreasing rates of aerosol species as a function of WS were lower during APEC. As a result, aerosol species showed the largest concentration differences before and during APEC in periods with low WS. As indicated by the wind increase plots in Fig. 9, low and high WS were mainly associated with southern/southeastern and northern/northwestern winds, respectively. These results further indicate that larger reductions of aerosol species occurred in Beijing when air masses were from the south.

#### 3.2.4 Back trajectory analysis

Figure 10 presents the average chemical composition of NR-PM<sub>1</sub>, corresponding to four clusters before and during APEC, determined from the cluster analysis of back trajectories (Draxler and Hess, 1997). The air masses before APEC were predominantly from the south/southeast at 54% of the time (C1 in Fig. 10a), and the aerosol loading was the highest (96.7 µg m<sup>-3</sup>) among the clusters. Comparatively, the northwesterly clusters (C3 and C4 in Fig. 10a) presented significantly lower aerosol loadings at 8.3 µg m<sup>-3</sup> and 3.5 µg m<sup>-3</sup>, respectively, with fewer frequencies of 14% and 11%, respectively. Such large differences in aerosol loadings between the northerly and southerly air masses are consistent with the spatial distributions of anthropogenic emissions such as SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>x</sub>, and BC (Zhang et al., 2007b; Lu et al., 2011). Although the areas to the north/northwest of Beijing are relatively clean with low emissions of anthropogenic primary pollutants, the south/southeast regions are characterized by substantially higher emissions. In addition, 21% of the air masses originated from the west and showed moderately high NR-PM<sub>1</sub> mass at 55.4 µg m<sup>-3</sup>. It should be noted that the air masses from the south were often stagnant, as indicated by their shorter trajectories, which played an important role in facilitating the accumulation of pollutants. The aerosol composition varied significantly among four clusters, reflecting the variety in chemical characteristics of aerosol particles from

different source regions. The aerosol particle composition from the southeastern and western clusters (C1 and C2) were dominated by nitrate at 27% and 30% and OOA at 26% and 32%, respectively, with considerable contribution from sulfate at 14% and 10%, respectively. These results elucidate the dominant roles of nitrate and OOA in severe PM pollution before APEC, which differs significantly from previous studies reporting that sulfate was generally more prevalent than nitrate (Huang et al., 2014; Sun et al., 2014). These results also highlight a very different pollution characteristic during the late fall season from that in winter. In comparison, the nitrate contributions were significantly lower, at 17% and 8%, in the two northwestern clusters (C3 and C4) associated with an enhanced contribution of sulfate at 19% and 21%, respectively. Moreover, the cleanest cluster (C4) showed a dominant contribution of organics at 64%, indicating the important role of organics during clean periods (Sun et al., 2010; Sun et al., 2013c).

The air masses during APEC showed changes, particularly the increases in frequency of two northwestern clusters (C1 and C4), which was 40% of the time compared with 25% before APEC (Fig. 10b). These two clusters showed similar bulk aerosol compositions to those before APEC yet with reductions of the total NR-PM<sub>1</sub> mass loading at nearly 40–50%. The air masses during APEC were dominated by cluster 3 (C3 in Fig. 10b). Although C3 originated from the north of Beijing, it circulated around the south of Beijing including Baoding, a polluted city in Hebei province, before arriving at the sampling site. As a result, C3 presented the highest aerosol mass loading, at 44.0  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ , composed primarily of nitrate and OOA at 30% and 29%, respectively. Moreover, cluster 2 (C2 in Fig. 10b), originating from the northwest, showed a similar aerosol composition yet had an ~50% decrease in total mass compared to C3. One explanation is that air masses in C2 passed through the western Beijing, where is relatively cleaner than the southeastern regions. As shown in Fig. 10, similar clusters before and during APEC showed ubiquitous reductions in NR-PM<sub>1</sub> mass during APEC, indicating that emission controls played an important role in PM reduction. Moreover, the decreases in frequency of southern/southeastern air masses during APEC also helped to alleviate the PM level for the entire period,

thus achieving the “APEC blue” effect. Emission controls in surrounding regions south of Beijing should be taken as a priority for mitigation of air pollution in Beijing.

### 3.3 Vertical differences: insights into emission controls and boundary layer dynamics

Figure 11 shows a comparison of the time series of NR-PM<sub>1</sub> species between 260 m and the ground level for the entire study. All submicron species showed overall similar variations at the two different heights, indicating their relatively similar sources and evolution processes. However, large vertical differences in aerosol composition were also frequently observed, illustrating complex vertical gradients of aerosol species caused by multiple factors such as local emissions, regional transport, and boundary layer dynamics. The average compositional differences before and during APEC are shown in Fig. 12. Although the concentration difference in NR-PM<sub>1</sub> was close before and during APEC at 12.1  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  and 14.1  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ , respectively, the composition differed significantly. SIA dominated the compositional difference before APEC, together accounting for 95% of the total NR-PM<sub>1</sub> mass. In comparison, organics and chloride showed minor vertical differences (<5%). These results indicate different sources and formation mechanisms between SIA and organic aerosol. During APEC, the compositional difference was dominated by organics, accounting for 68% on average, and the contributions of SIA were largely reduced at 25%. These results suggest that emission controls over regional scales affect the composition differences between ground level and the urban canopy. As discussed in section 3.2 and by Xu et al. (2015), secondary species including SIA and SOA showed significant reductions at both ground level and 260 m during APEC as a result of emission controls. Although primary OA showed similar reductions as those of SOA above the urban canopy, the changes remained small near the ground level. Thus, the largest organic difference during APEC was mainly caused by local primary source emissions.

The vertical differences in aerosol composition also varied largely among different haze episodes. As indicated in Fig. 11 and Table 1, Ep3 presented the smallest vertical differences for all aerosol species, indicating a well-mixed layer below 260 m. The WS was consistently low at <2.5  $\text{m s}^{-1}$  across the different heights,

562 and the WD was predominantly from the south during Ep3. Moreover, the vertical  
563 profiles of extinction showed an evident reduction in pollution from ~2 km to the  
564 ground on October 28, leading to the formation of Ep3 (Fig. S6). Such boundary layer  
565 dynamics would produce a well-mixed layer in the lower atmosphere, leading to  
566 minor chemical differences between the ground level and 260 m.

567       Comparatively, the vertical evolution of Ep2 differed significantly (Fig. 13a). The  
568 mass concentrations of all aerosol species between the ground level and 260 m were  
569 similar during the formation stage of Ep2, from October 23 to 9:00 October 24.  
570 However, although aerosol species near the ground level showed large increases after  
571 9:00 on October 24, they remained relatively constant at 260 m, leading to the largest  
572 vertical concentration gradients among five episodes. The average NR-PM<sub>1</sub> at 260 m  
573 was 143.4  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ , which is 38% lower than that at the ground site. By checking the  
574 vertical profiles of meteorological variables, we observed a clear temperature  
575 inversion between 120 m and 160 m that formed during 0:00–9:00 on October 24.  
576 Such a temperature inversion formed a stable layer below ~200 m and inhibited the  
577 vertical mixing of air pollutants between the ground and 260 m. In addition, the  
578 stagnant meteorological conditions as indicated by low WS and high RH further  
579 facilitated the accumulation of ground pollution. It should be noted that the  
580 aqueous-phase processing, most likely fog processing under the high RH conditions  
581 (often > 90%) during this stage, also played an important role in the increase of SIA,  
582 particularly sulfate. This finding is also supported by the significant increase of SOR  
583 during this stage (Fig. 3).

584       The evolution of the severe Ep2 was terminated at approximately 0:00 on October  
585 26 when the WD changed from south to northwest. Although the mass concentrations  
586 of aerosol species at 260 m began to show rapid decreases at that time, the  
587 concentration at the ground site decreased significantly after 4 hours. The different  
588 cleaning processes between 260 m and the ground level are closely linked to the  
589 vertical profiles of meteorological variables. As indicated in Fig. 13a, a strong  
590 temperature inversion below 320 m was observed during the cleaning period, which  
591 resulted in a significantly higher WS and lower RH at 260 m than those at ground

level. Indeed, both WS and RH showed clear shears during the cleaning period, suggesting a gradual interaction between the northern air mass and boundary pollution from top to bottom. Such an interacting mechanism resulted in a time lag of approximately 4 h in cleaning the pollutants at ground level over that at 260 m. Similar interactions between boundary layer dynamics and aerosol pollution were also observed on November 1, 5, and 11.

The evolution of vertical differences during APEC differed from those in three episodes before APEC. As shown in Fig. 13b, frequent mountain–valley breezes were observed during November 8–11 (APEC2). The northwest mountain–valley breeze began routinely at approximately midnight and dissipated at approximately noon. The NR-PM<sub>1</sub> aerosol species showed direct responses to the mountain–valley breeze, which was characterized by similar routine diurnal cycles. All aerosol species began to decrease at midnight because the cleaning effects of mountain–valley breeze reached minimum concentrations at noon, then increased continuously when the WD changed to south. The mountain–valley breeze also caused a unique diurnal cycle of vertical differences. As shown in Fig. 13b, aerosol species were well mixed within the lower boundary layer between 12:00 and 16:00, and the concentrations between 260 m and the ground level were similar. However, the differences in concentration began to increase when the boundary layer height decreased after sunset at ~18:00, and the differences were maximum at midnight when the NR-PM<sub>1</sub> mass approached 100  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ . A detailed check of the evolution of aerosol species showed that such vertical differences in NR-PM<sub>1</sub> were caused mainly by organics from local primary sources (Xu et al., 2015; Fig. 11). These results indicate that local source emissions played a more important role in PM pollution near ground level during APEC. The concentration differences in NR-PM<sub>1</sub> began to decrease with the occurrence of the mountain–valley breeze and reached a minimum at noon. Our results revealed the important role of mountain–valley breeze in affecting the boundary layer structure and reducing the daytime PM levels during APEC. It was estimated that the mountain–valley breeze caused a reduction in NR-PM<sub>1</sub> concentration of approximately 50  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  at the ground site during the day on November 10–11 (Fig.

13b). Therefore, our results illustrated that the achievement of “APEC blue” was also due partly to meteorological effects, particularly the mountain–valley breeze, in addition to emission controls.

#### 4 Conclusions

We have presented a detailed characterization of aerosol particle composition and sources above the urban canopy in Beijing from October 10 to November 12, 2014. This study is unique because it examines strict emission controls implemented during the 2014 APEC summit and synchronous real-time measurements of aerosol particle composition at 260 m and that near the ground level obtained by two aerosol mass spectrometers. The NR-PM<sub>1</sub> composition above the urban canopy was dominated by organics at 46%, followed by nitrate at 27% and sulfate at 13%. The high contribution of nitrate and high NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>/SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> mass ratios illustrate the important role of nitrate in PM pollution during the study period. This result has significant implications that NO<sub>x</sub> emission controls should be prioritized for the mitigation of air pollution in Beijing, particularly in non-heating seasons with low SO<sub>2</sub> precursors. The OA above the urban canopy was dominated by OOA at 61% and included HOA at 39%. Different from that at the ground site, HOA correlated moderately with OOA above the urban canopy, indicating similar sources likely through regional transport.

With the implementation of emission controls, the mass concentrations of aerosol species were shown to have decreased significantly by 40–80% during APEC, whereas the bulk aerosol composition was relatively similar before and during APEC. Organics were dominant before and during the summit, at 46% versus 47%, respectively, followed by nitrate at 27% versus 29% and sulfate at 14% versus 10%, respectively. Our results suggest that synergetic controls of various precursors such as SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>x</sub>, and VOCs over a regional scale would not significantly affect regional aerosol bulk composition, although the mass concentrations would be reduced substantially. By linking aerosol compositions and sources to meteorological conditions, we determined that meteorological parameters, particularly mountain–valley breezes, played an important role in suppressing PM growth and hence reducing PM levels during APEC. Our results elucidated that the good air

652 quality in Beijing during APEC was the combined result of emission controls and  
653 meteorological effects, with the former playing the dominant role. We further  
654 investigated the vertical evolution of aerosol particle composition by comparing the  
655 aerosol chemistry between the ground level and 260 m. We observed very complex  
656 vertical differences during the formation and evolution of severe haze episodes that  
657 were closely related to aerosol sources (local versus regional) and boundary layer  
658 dynamics. Although a stable  $T$  inversion layer between 120 m and 160 m associated  
659 with stagnant meteorology caused higher concentrations of aerosol species at the  
660 ground site, the interaction of boundary layer dynamics and aerosol chemistry during  
661 the cleaning processes resulted in a lag time of approximately 4 h in cleaning  
662 pollutants near the ground level over those occurring above the urban canopy.

663

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889 **Table 1.** Summary of average meteorological variables for different periods and the  
890 mass differences of aerosol species between ground site and 260 m (= ground – 260  
891 m).

	Before APEC				During APEC		
	Entire	Ep1	Ep2	Ep3	Entire	APEC1	APEC2
<i>Meteorological Variables</i>							
RH (%)	47.1	48.4	69.7	56.7	29.8	34.2	38.5
$T$ (°C)	13.3	16.7	12.5	10.9	9.0	11.5	8.1
WS ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ )	4.0	3.4	2.3	2.3	4.9	3.8	3.1
<i>Mass Differences (<math>\mu\text{g m}^{-3}</math>)</i>							
Org	0.7	0.3	4.5	-5.2	9.6	14.6	13.6
$\text{SO}_4^{2-}$	3.4	3.0	8.8	1.3	1.3	1.6	1.9
$\text{NO}_3^-$	4.3	4.5	10.9	0.8	0.7	1.0	1.0
$\text{NH}_4^+$	3.9	4.2	9.0	2.3	1.6	2.9	2.3
$\text{Cl}^-$	-0.1	0.0	-0.4	-0.2	1.0	1.7	1.5
NR-PM <sub>1</sub>	12.1	12.0	32.8	-1.1	14.1	21.8	20.2

892

**Figure captions:**

**Figure 1.** Evolution of vertical profiles of (a) wind speed (WS) and (b) wind direction (WD) from the measurements of the Doppler wind lidar. The time series of NR-PM<sub>1</sub> (=Org + SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> + NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> + NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> + Cl<sup>-</sup>) is shown as the black line in (a). The shaded area refers to the APEC period (same for following figures).

**Figure 2.** Time series of (a) *T*, (b) RH, (c) WS and WD, (d) NR-PM<sub>1</sub> species (Org, SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, and Cl<sup>-</sup>), and (f) mass fraction of each species in NR-PM<sub>1</sub>. Two clean periods and five haze episodes are marked in Fig. 2d for further discussions. The meteorological parameters in this figure were all from the tower measurements.

**Figure 3.** Time series of (a) sulfur oxidation ratio (SOR), (b) ratio of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>/SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>, and (c) NR-PM<sub>1</sub>. The SOR and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>/SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> were color coded by RH.

**Figure 4.** (a) Mass spectra of HOA and OOA, (b) diurnal variations of the mass concentration and mass fraction of HOA and OOA, (c) time series of HOA, OOA, and inorganic species (SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, Cl<sup>-</sup>). The correlations of HOA and OOA with inorganic species are also shown in the figure.

**Figure 5.** Submicron aerosol composition as a function of NR-PM<sub>1</sub> mass loadings (a) before APEC and (b) during APEC. The solid line shows the probability of NR-PM<sub>1</sub> mass.

**Figure 6.** Average chemical composition of NR-PM<sub>1</sub> before and during APEC, and also that of five haze episodes and two clean events marked in Fig. 2.

**Figure 7.** Diurnal variations of meteorological variables (*T*, RH, WS, and WD), NR-PM<sub>1</sub> species, and OA factors before and during APEC. The change rates during APEC (= (Before APEC – APEC)/ Before APEC × 100) are also marked as light gray in the figure.

**Figure 8.** Variations of NR-PM<sub>1</sub> species and OA factors as a function of (a) RH and (b) WS before and during APEC. The RH and WS were from the tower measurements at 280 m.

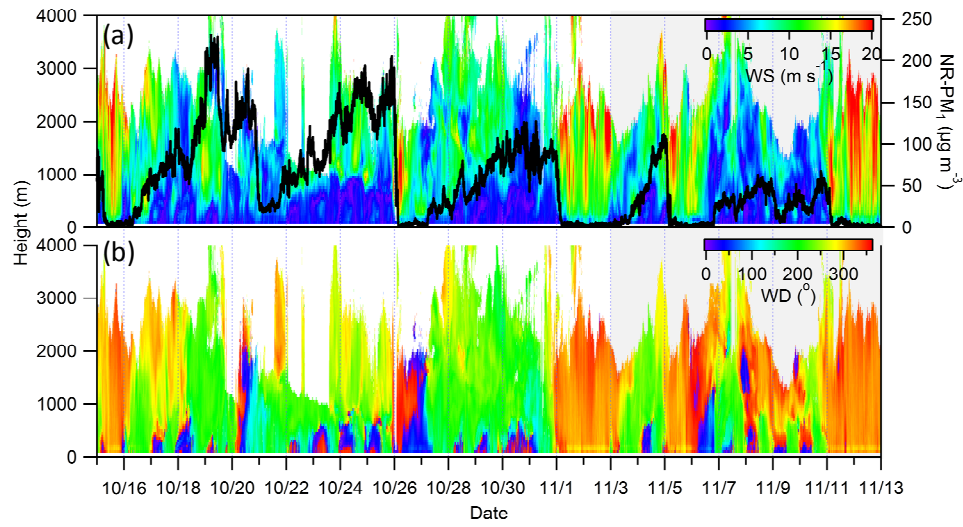
**Figure 9.** Wind rose plots (a) before APEC and (b) during APEC.

**Figure 10.** The average NR-PM<sub>1</sub> composition for each cluster (a) before and (b) during APEC. The numbers on the pie charts refer to the average total NR-PM<sub>1</sub> mass for each cluster. In addition, the number of trajectories and its percentage to the total trajectories are also shown in the legends.

**Figure 11.** Comparisons of time series of total NR-PM<sub>1</sub> mass and NR-PM<sub>1</sub> species between 260 m and ground level.

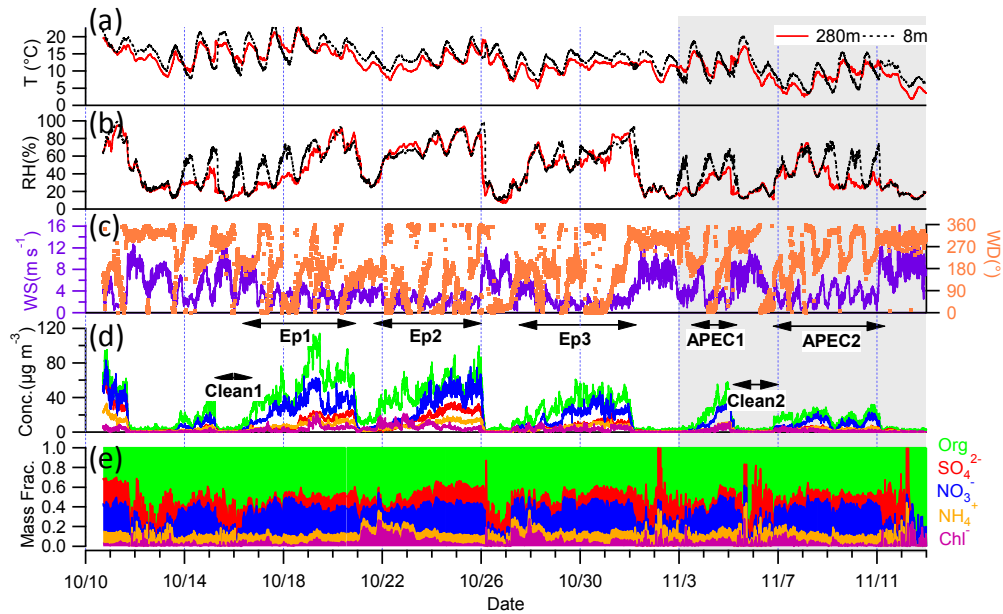
**Figure 12.** Average chemical composition of the difference between ground level and 260 m (a) before APEC and (b) during APEC. The “1%” in the box indicates lower concentration of chloride at ground site than 260 m.

**Figure 13.** Evolution of vertical profiles of meteorological variables (WD, WS, RH, and *T*), and NR-PM<sub>1</sub> concentration at 260 m and ground site during two pollution episodes (a) Ep2 and (b) APEC2. The vertical profiles of wind speed and wind direction were from the measurements of the Doppler wind lidar, and those of RH and *T* were from the tower measurements. The white areas in the figure indicate that the data were not available.



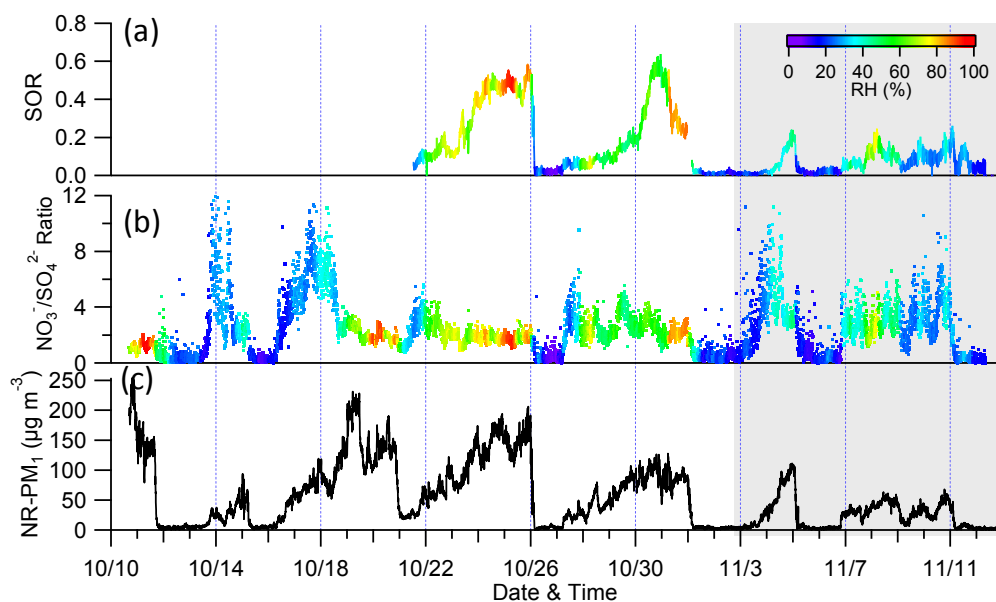
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938 **Figure 1.** Evolution of vertical profiles of (a) wind speed (WS) and (b) wind direction  
 939 (WD) from the measurements of the Doppler wind lidar. The time series of NR-PM<sub>1</sub>  
 940 ( $= \text{Org} + \text{SO}_4^{2-} + \text{NO}_3^- + \text{NH}_4^+ + \text{Cl}^-$ ) is shown as the black line in (a). The shaded  
 941 area refers to the Asia–Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC) summit period, which  
 942 is the same in the following figures.



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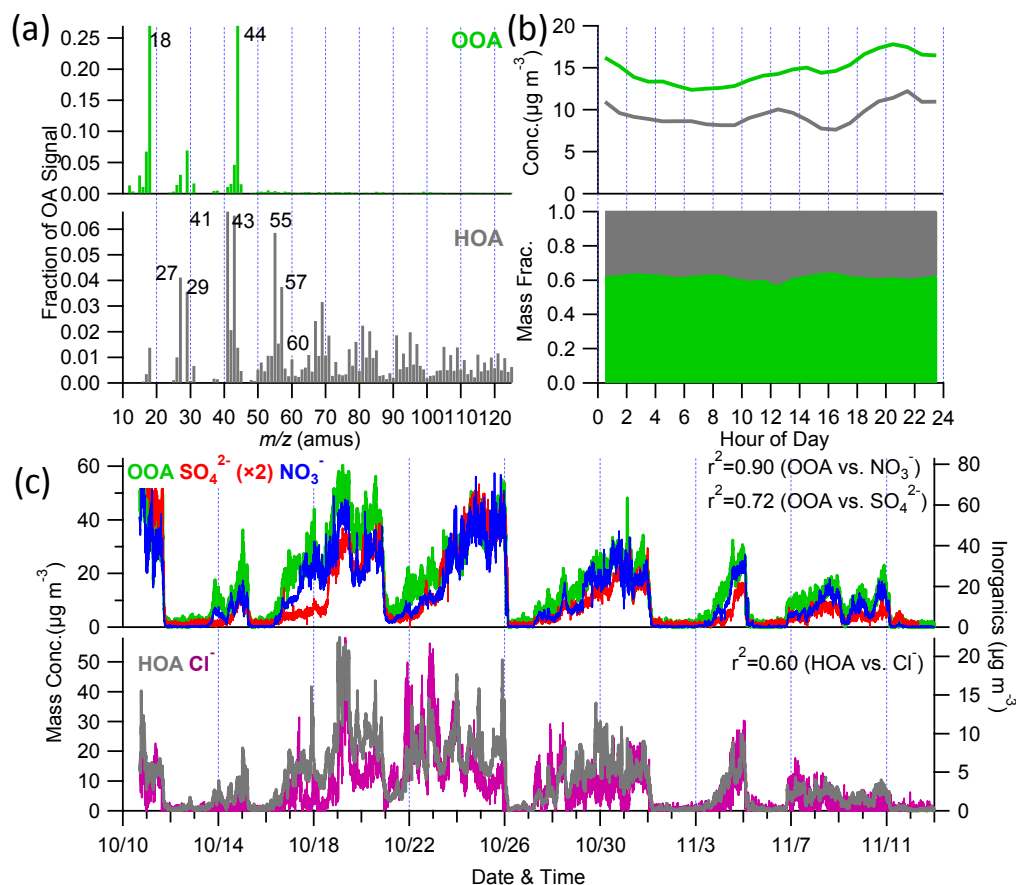
944 **Figure 2.** Time series of (a) temperature ( $T$ ), (b) relative humidity (RH), (c) wind  
 945 speed (WS) and wind direction (WD), (d) non-refractory submicron aerosol (NR-PM<sub>1</sub>)  
 946 species (Org,  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-$ ,  $\text{NH}_4^+$ , and  $\text{Cl}^-$ ), and (f) mass fraction of each species in  
 947 NR-PM<sub>1</sub>. Two clean periods and five haze episodes are marked in Fig. 2d for further  
 948 discussion. The meteorological parameters in this figure were all from the tower  
 949 measurements.



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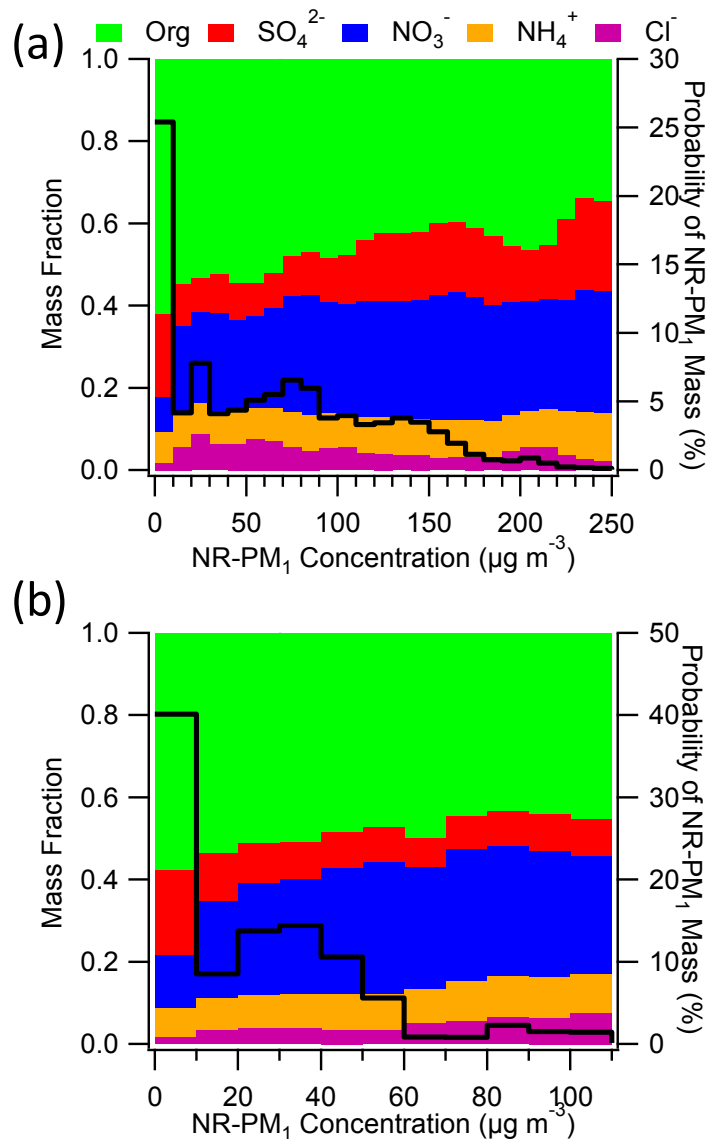
951 **Figure 3.** Time series of (a) sulfur oxidation ratio (SOR), (b) the ratio of  $\text{NO}_3^-/\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ,  
 952 and (c) non-refractory submicron aerosol (NR-PM<sub>1</sub>). The SOR and  $\text{NO}_3^-/\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  are  
 953 color coded by relative humidity (RH).





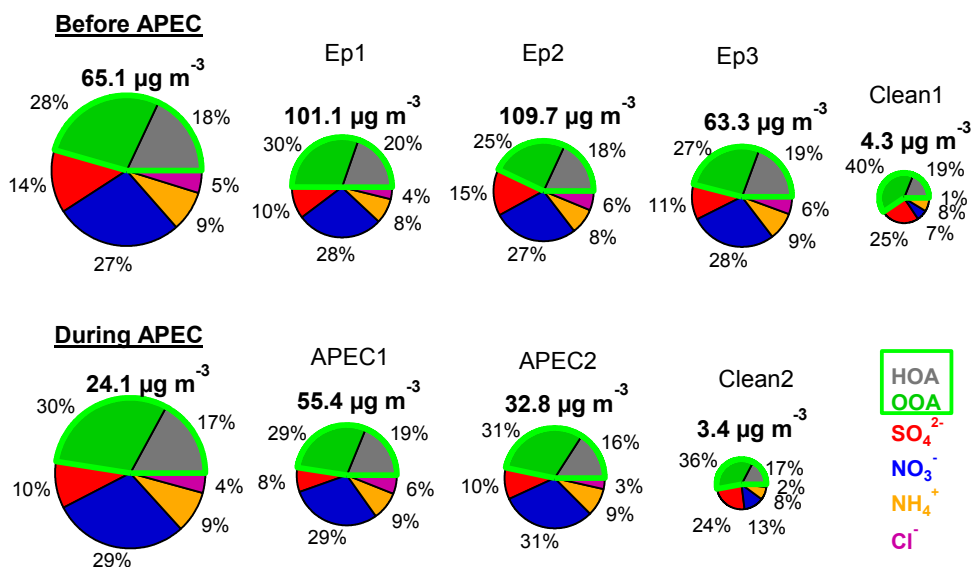
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955 **Figure 4.** (a) Mass spectra of hydrocarbon-like organic aerosol (HOA) and  
 956 oxygenated organic aerosol (OOA); (b) diurnal variations of the mass concentration  
 957 and mass fraction of HOA and OOA; and (c) time series of HOA, OOA, and  
 958 inorganic species ( $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-$ ,  $\text{Cl}^-$ ). The correlations of HOA and OOA with  
 959 inorganic species are also shown in the figure.

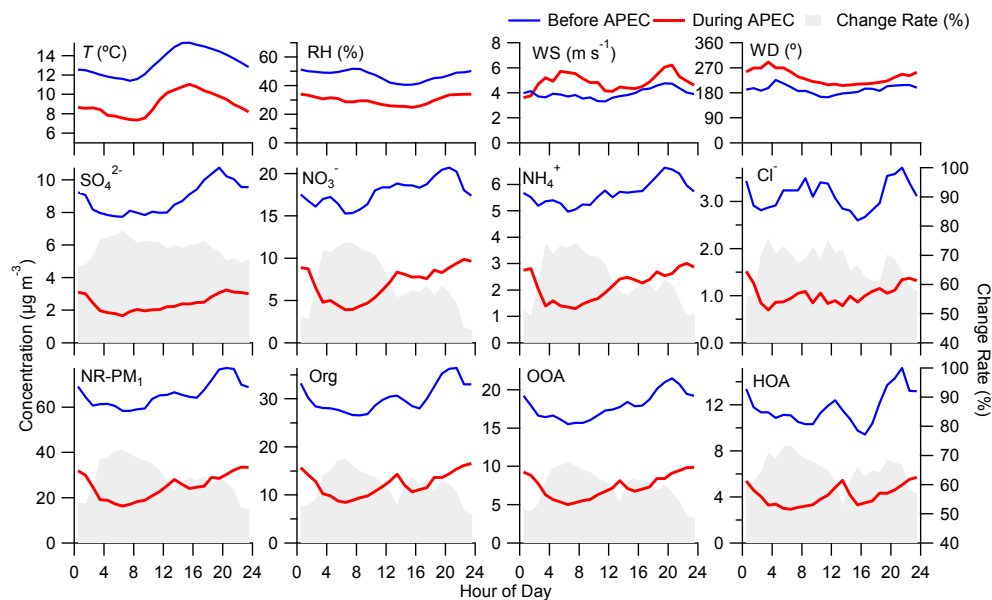


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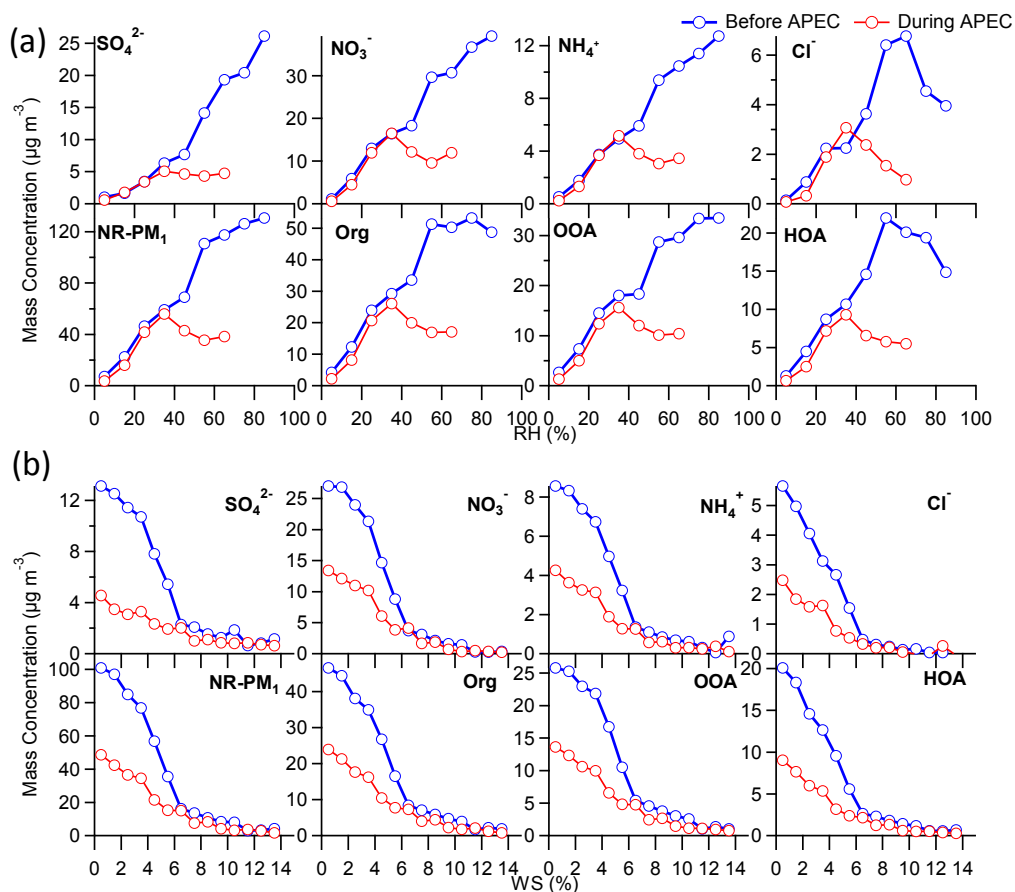
961 **Figure 5.** Submicron aerosol composition as a function of non-refractory submicron  
 962 aerosol (NR-PM<sub>1</sub>) mass loadings (a) before the Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation  
 963 (APEC) summit and (b) during APEC. The solid line shows the probability of the  
 964 NR-PM<sub>1</sub> mass.



**Figure 6.** Average chemical composition of non-refractory submicron aerosol (NR-PM<sub>1</sub>) before and during the Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC) summit and that of five haze episodes and two clean events marked in Fig. 2.

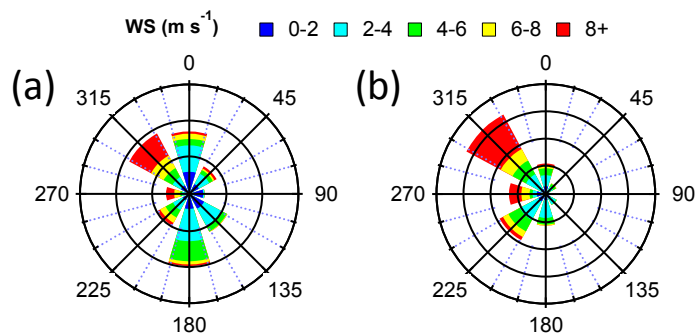


**Figure 7.** Diurnal variations of meteorological variables such as temperature ( $T$ ), relative humidity (RH), wind speed (WS), and wind direction (WD); non-refractory submicron aerosol (NR-PM<sub>1</sub>) species; and organic aerosol (OA) factors before and during the Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC) summit. The change rates during APEC (= (Before APEC–APEC)/Before APEC  $\times$  100) are also marked in light gray in the figure.



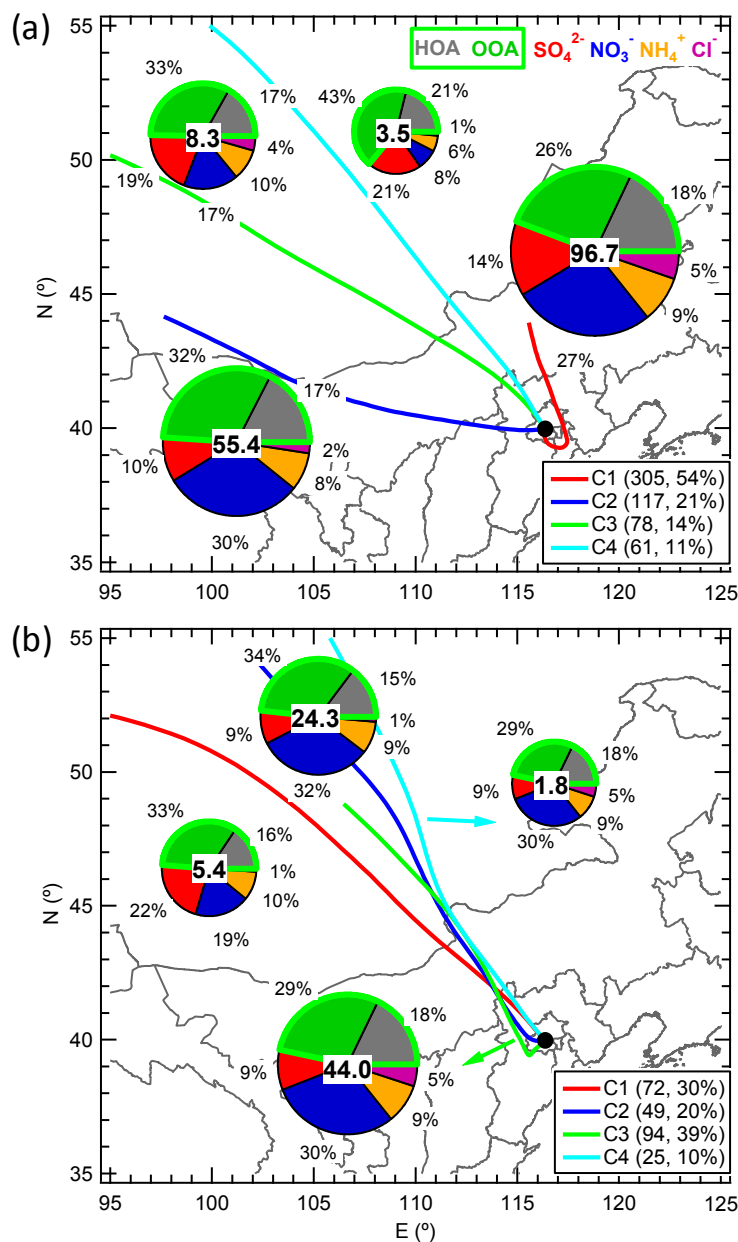
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977 **Figure 8.** Variations of non-refractory submicron aerosol (NR-PM<sub>1</sub>) species and  
 978 organic aerosol (OA) factors as a function of (a) relative humidity (RH) and (b)  
 979 wind speed (WS) before and during the Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC)  
 980 summit. The RH and WS were from the tower measurements at 280 m.



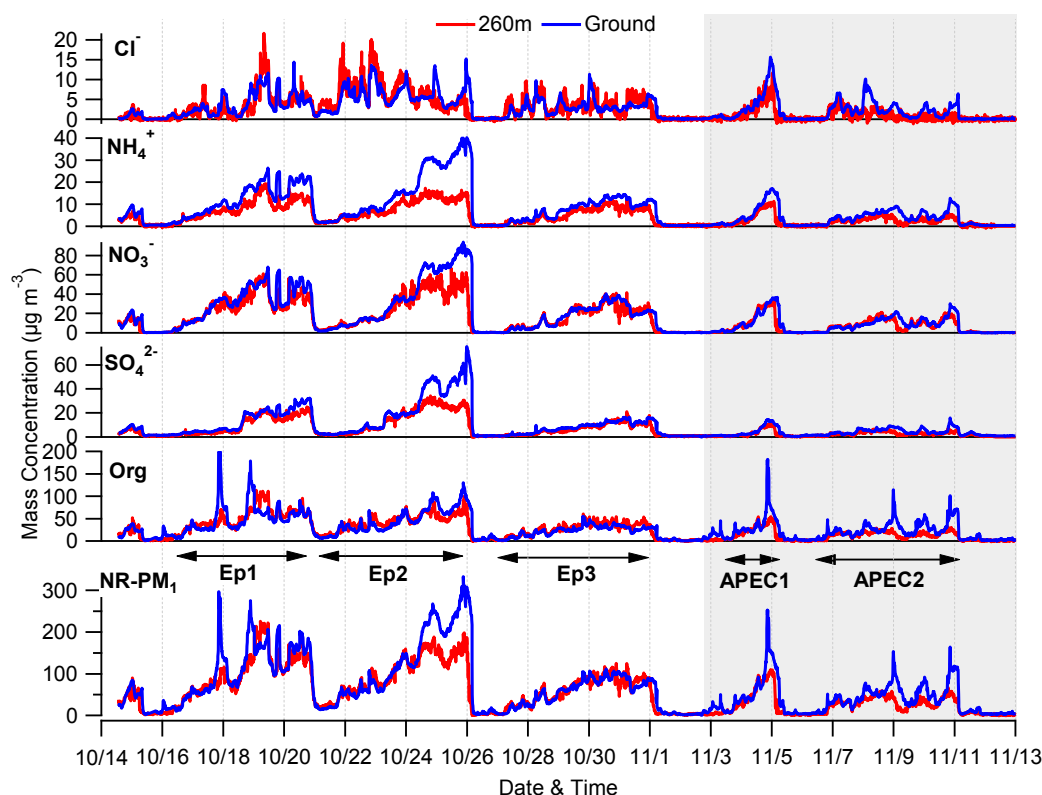
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982 **Figure 9.** Wind increase plots (a) before the Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation  
 983 (APEC) summit and (b) during APEC.



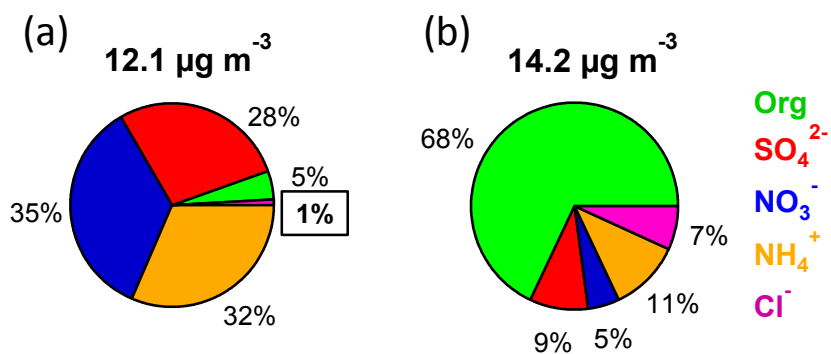
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985 **Figure 10.** Average non-refractory submicron aerosol (NR-PM<sub>1</sub>) composition for  
 986 each cluster (a) before and (b) during the Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC)  
 987 summit. The numbers on the pie charts refer to the average total NR-PM<sub>1</sub> mass for  
 988 each cluster. In addition, the number of trajectories and its percentage to the total  
 989 trajectories are also shown in the legends.



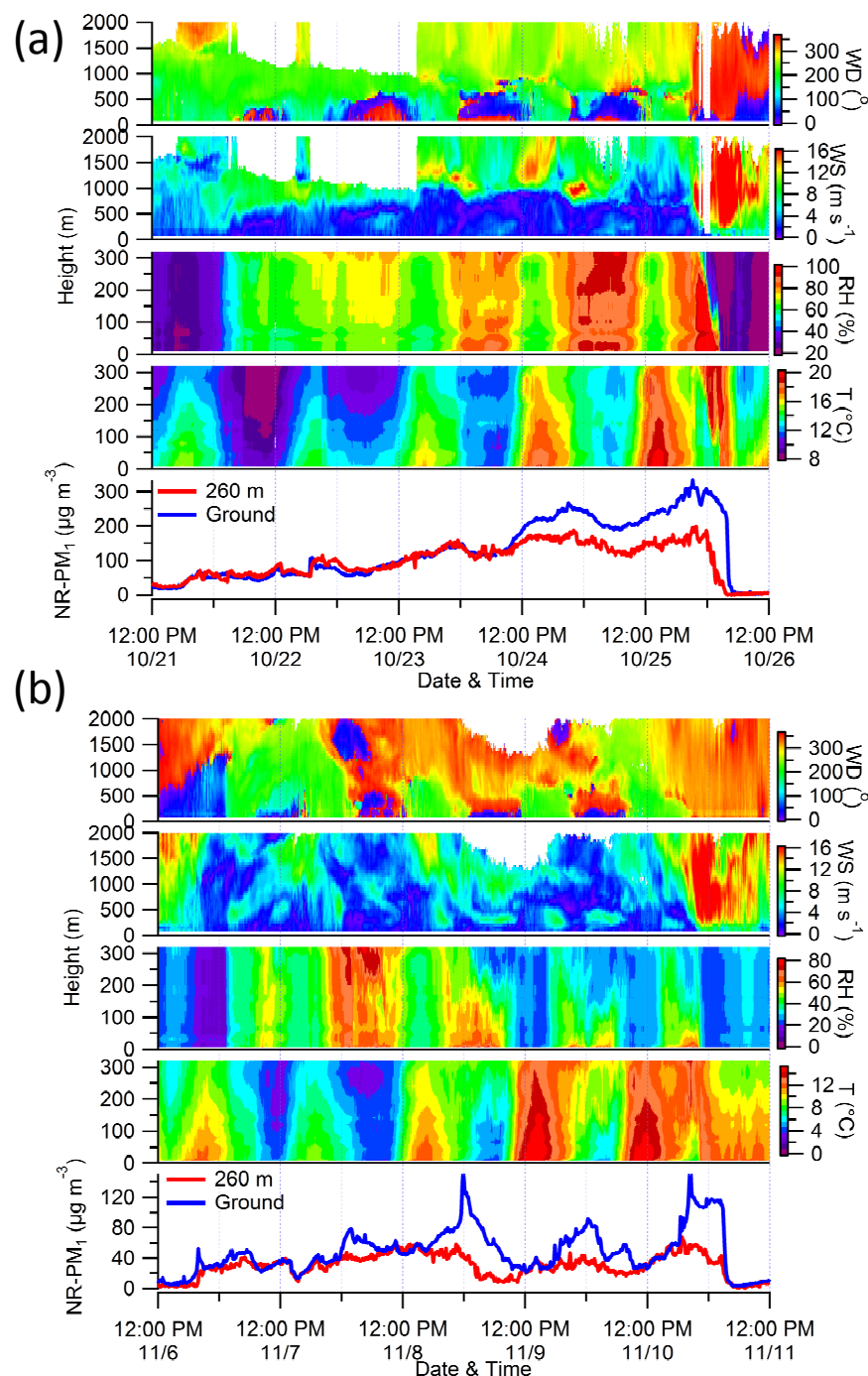
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991 **Figure 11.** Comparisons of time series of total non-refractory submicron aerosol  
 992 (NR-PM<sub>1</sub>) mass and NR-PM<sub>1</sub> species between 260 m and the ground level.



993

994 **Figure 12.** Average chemical composition of the difference between ground level and  
 995 260 m (a) before the Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC) summit and (b)  
 996 during APEC. “1%” shown in the box indicates a lower concentration of chloride at  
 997 the ground site than that at 260 m.



998

999 **Figure 13.** Evolution of vertical profiles of meteorological variables such as wind  
1000 direction (WD), wind speed (WS), relative humidity (RH), and temperature ( $T$ ) and  
1001 non-refractory submicron aerosol (NR-PM<sub>1</sub>) concentration at 260 m and the ground  
1002 site during two pollution episodes (a) Ep2 and (b) APEC2. The vertical profiles of  
1003 wind speed and wind direction were from the measurements of the Doppler wind lidar,  
1004 and those of RH and  $T$  were from the tower measurements. The white areas in the  
1005 figure indicate that the data were not available.