COMPARISONS OF URBAN AND RURAL PM_{10-2.5} AND PM_{2.5} MASS CONCENTRATIONS AND SEMI-VOLATILE FRACTIONS IN NORTHEASTERN COLORADO

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12 Abstract

13 Coarse (PM_{10-2.5}) and fine (PM_{2.5}) particulate matter in the atmosphere adversely affect human 14 health and influence climate. While PM_{2.5} is relatively well studied, less is known about the 15 sources and fate of PM₁₀₋₂ 5. The Colorado Coarse Rural-Urban Sources and Health (CCRUSH) study measured PM_{10-2.5} and PM_{2.5} mass concentrations, as well as the fraction of semi-volatile 16 17 material (SVM) in each size regime (SVM_{2.5}, SVM_{10-2.5}), from 2009 to early-2012 in Denver 18 and comparatively rural Greeley, Colorado. Agricultural operations east of Greeley appear to 19 have contributed to the peak PM_{10-2.5} concentrations there, but concentrations were generally 20 lower in Greeley than in Denver. Traffic-influenced sites in Denver had PM_{10-2.5} concentrations 21 that averaged from 14.6 to 19.7 μ g/m³ and mean PM_{10-2.5}/PM₁₀ ratios of 0.56 to 0.70, higher 22 than at residential sites in Denver or Greeley. PM_{10-2.5} concentrations were more temporally 23 variable than PM_{2.5} concentrations. Concentrations of the two pollutants were not correlated. Spatial correlations of daily averaged PM_{10-2.5} concentrations ranged from 0.59 to 0.62 for pairs 24 25 of sites in Denver and from 0.47 to 0.70 between Denver and Greeley. Compared to PM_{10-2.5}, concentrations of PM_{2.5} were more correlated across sites within Denver and less correlated 26 27 between Denver and Greeley. PM_{10-2.5} concentrations were highest during the summer and early fall, while PM_{2.5} and SVM_{2.5} concentrations peaked in winter during periodic multi-day 28 inversions. SVM_{10-2.5} concentrations were low at all sites. Diurnal peaks in PM_{10-2.5} and PM_{2.5} 29

1 concentrations corresponded to morning and afternoon peaks of traffic activity, and were 2 enhanced by boundary layer dynamics. $SVM_{2.5}$ concentrations peaked around noon on both 3 weekdays and weekends. $PM_{10-2.5}$ concentrations at sites located near highways generally 4 increased with wind speeds above about 3 m s⁻¹. Little wind speed dependence was observed 5 for the residential sites in Denver and Greeley. The mass concentration data reported here are 6 being used in ongoing epidemiologic studies for PM in northeastern Colorado.

7

8 **1** Introduction

9 Particulate matter (PM) in the troposphere is a complex mixture of inorganic and organic components with particle aerodynamic diameters ranging from a few nanometers to tens of 10 11 micrometers. PM has been linked to multiple detrimental public health outcomes (U.S. EPA, 2004) and plays important roles in climatic processes including cloud formation (Wang et al., 12 13 2011), precipitation (Stevens and Feingold, 2009), and the solar radiation budget (Kim and 14 Ramanathan, 2008). Particle size reflects emission sources and composition, with fine 15 particulate matter (PM_{2.5}, aerodynamic diameters less than 2.5 µm) being derived primarily from combustion and industrial sources or produced through atmospheric processes (Seinfeld 16 17 and Pandis, 2006). In contrast, coarse particulate matter (PM_{10-2.5}, aerodynamic diameters between 2.5 and 10 µm) is typically produced by abrasive processes or exists naturally, and is 18 19 emitted from many different sources, often through suspension and dispersion (Minguillon et al., 2014). Particles commonly found in the coarse mode include geogenic mineral dust 20 21 (Kavouras et al., 2007), vehicle-related emissions like road dust, brake-wear, and tire-wear 22 particles (Harrison et al., 2012), particles emitted from industrial processes (Sawvel et al., 23 2015), sea-salt (Pakbin et al., 2011), road-salt (Kumar et al., 2012), microbiological organisms 24 and their byproducts (Bowers et al., 2013, O'Sullivan et al., 2015), and organic matter from a variety of sources (Hiranuma et al., 2011; Cheung et al., 2012). PM_{10-2,5} is expected to be mainly 25 composed of non-volatile material, but this assumption has not been well studied. Due to the 26 27 relatively short atmospheric lifetime of $PM_{10-2.5}$ and the wide range of potential local sources, 28 PM_{10-2.5} composition is typically heterogeneous across different ecological regions (Malm et 29 al., 2007) and within urban areas (Cheung et al., 2011). PM_{10-2.5} is poorly modeled using the 30 Community Multiscale Air Quality (CMAQ) modeling system, suggesting both emissions and transport of this pollutant are not well understood and/or parameterized (Li et al., 2013). 31

In their review of the epidemiologic literature on the health risks of $PM_{2.5}$ and $PM_{10-2.5}$, 1 Brunekreef and Forsberg (2005) concluded both fractions are harmful to human health. PM_{2.5} 2 3 consistently showed a significant relationship with mortality after adjustment for confounding 4 pollutants. PM_{10-2.5} showed inconsistent relationships with risk of mortality, though the 5 reviewers concluded that PM_{10-2.5} may have a stronger short-term effect than PM_{2.5} for some endpoints like asthma and respiratory hospital admissions. A recent meta-analysis and review 6 7 of epidemiologic studies of PM_{10-2.5} health outcomes found evidence of increased risk of 8 respiratory and cardiovascular morbidity and mortality with short-term increases in PM_{10-2.5} 9 concentrations (Adar et al., 2014). Long-term associations between PM_{10-2.5} and health 10 outcomes were not significant after accounting for the effects of PM_{2.5}. As highlighted by 11 Wilson et al. (2005) and Adar et al., (2014), epidemiologic studies focusing on PM_{10-2.5} must 12 address the issue of spatial heterogeneity for proper health outcome and exposure assessment. 13 The Colorado Coarse Rural-Urban Sources and Health (CCRUSH) study aimed to compare the 14 mass concentrations and composition of PM_{10-2.5} in two distinctly different cities, Denver and 15 Greeley, CO (Clements et al., 2012; Clements, 2013). To accomplish this objective, continuous PM_{10-2.5} and PM_{2.5} mass concentrations were measured for just over three years (Jan. 2009 -16

of the study were presented in Clements et al. (2012). Clements et al. (2014) presented results

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of trace element analysis of the filter samples. Bowers et al. (2013) presented an analysis of the bacterial community structure and diversity of the same filter set. This paper examines the full three-year data set for $PM_{10-2.5}$ and $PM_{2.5}$ mass concentrations and their semi-volatile fractions, which will be used in ongoing epidemiologic studies comparing urban and rural health effects of $PM_{10-2.5}$.

Apr. 2012), with a year of PM_{10-2.5} and PM_{2.5} filter samples collected every sixth day for

compositional analyses (Feb. 2010 - Mar. 2011). Mass concentration results from the first year

The particulate monitor used in the CCRUSH study, the tapered element oscillating microbalance (TEOM) model 1405-DF, is a semi-continuous dichotomous sampler that measures $PM_{10-2.5}$ and $PM_{2.5}$ directly with the inclusion of a virtual impactor (VI) after the PM_{10} inlet. The TEOM 1405-DF also quantifies the loss of semi-volatile material (SVM) from heated collection filters, providing total and semi-volatile mass concentrations on an hourly-average basis. 'Semi-volatile,' in the context of the TEOM instrument measurements, is defined as any particulate-bound substance that will evaporate at temperatures up to 30°C. Ammonium nitrate and semi-volatile organic compounds have been shown to comprise the majority of the semi volatile mass lost from TEOM filter surfaces at 30°C (Grover et al., 2006).

3 This paper explores the factors that drove temporal and spatial variability of PM_{10-2.5} and PM_{2.5} 4 total and semi-volatile concentrations during the CCRUSH study, focusing on how they 5 differed across comparatively rural and urban sites. Temporal variability was assessed on 6 multiple timescales, revealing the seasonal impacts of meteorology on particulate 7 concentrations and the impact of traffic on diurnal pollutant profiles. Nonparametric regression 8 analysis was used to explore the relationships between meteorological variables and PM_{10-2.5} 9 mass concentrations. Dynamics of relationships between PM_{10-2.5} concentrations, traffic 10 patterns, wind conditions, relative humidity (RH), and soil moisture were examined because 11 these factors influence dispersion of dust from roadways and natural surfaces, an important 12 emission pathway for PM_{10-2.5} in the semi-arid western United States.

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14 2 Materials and methods

15 2.1 Monitoring sites

16 CCRUSH study monitoring took place at four elementary schools, two located in Denver and 17 two in Greeley, the details of which are presented in Table 1. Data from two additional 18 monitoring sites operated by the Colorado Department of Public Health and Environment 19 (CDPHE), CAMP and Denver Municipal Animal Shelter (DMAS), were included to provide additional insight into spatial and temporal variations. Figure S1 in the supplemental 20 information provides a map of the monitoring sites. Denver is the largest city in Colorado and 21 22 in 2011 had an estimated metropolitan-area population of 2,599,504, about half of the state 23 population. Greeley is located 75 km north-northeast of Denver in Weld County and had a 24 population of 95,357 in 2011 (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 2012). As of 2012, Weld County 25 contained 2 million acres dedicated to farming and raising livestock (U.S. Department of Agriculture, 2012). 26

The two CCRUSH monitors in Denver were located at Alsup Elementary School (ALS) and Edison Elementary School (EDI). ALS is a residential-industrial site northeast of the urban core of Denver and about 4.5 km east of the intersection of four major roadways (I-25, I-270, I-76, and US-36). Interstate-76 is located a half kilometer away from ALS and runs diagonally from west to north of the site. A sand and gravel operation is located 0.5 km to the northwest. EDI is

located in a residential area west of the urban core of Denver. The CDPHE sites CAMP and 1 2 DMAS are located in downtown Denver and 5 km south of downtown, respectively. CAMP (AOS Site ID: 080310002) is a stand-alone building containing monitoring instruments for 3 multiple pollutants. DMAS (AQS Site ID: 080310025) was part of the EPA NCore 4 5 Multipollutant Monitoring Network and was located on the rooftop of the Denver Municipal Animal Shelter, 0.1 km west of I-25. The two CCRUSH sites in Greeley were located in 6 7 residential areas, with McAuliffe Elementary School (MCA) located on the west side of town 8 in the suburban fringe and Maplewood Elementary (MAP) located nearer to the town center. A 9 summary of traffic levels for major roadways near all sites is included in Table S1. The two 10 major roadways near Greeley, US-85 and US-34, had an order of magnitude less traffic per 11 hour than the interstates in Denver and are located 2.7 km east and 3.1 km south of MAP, 12 respectively.

13 2.2 Particulate matter monitoring

14 A TEOM 1405-DF (Thermo Scientific Inc.) semi-continuous particulate monitor was operated at each CCRUSH site for three years, with the exception of MCA, where the TEOM was only 15 operated for six months before being shut down due to a leak in the instrument's Filter Dynamic 16 17 Measurement System (FDMS) linear-valve seals. The TEOM quantifies particulate 18 concentrations by measuring changes in the oscillating frequency of a tapered glass element as 19 particles are deposited on a filter placed on the tip of the element. Oscillating frequency is 20 converted to deposited mass via a calibration coefficient and first principles (Thermo Scientific, 21 2009). All monitors were placed in temperature-controlled shelters on school rooftops with the 22 exception of MCA, where the monitor was placed in an attic with inlet tubing running through 23 the ceiling onto the rooftop. At monthly intervals, all TEOM monitors were thoroughly cleaned 24 and inspected, TEOM (TEOM TX40, Thermo Scientific) and FDMS (47mm TX40, Thermo 25 Scientific) filters were changed, and flow rates were calibrated. Data were downloaded during each monthly visit and processed on-site to further identify possible instrument issues. Sites 26 27 were visited every one to two weeks for general instrument inspection, performing flow audits, and to observe and log instrument conditions. All TEOM 1405-DF instruments were operated 28 29 and maintained according to the manufacturer's specifications. Raw mass concentrations based on actual sample flow rates, which contain no interpolated values, were downloaded and 30 31 corrected for the deposition of PM_{2.5} in the PM_{10-2.5} channel due to the VI. Prior publications from the CCRUSH study present further data processing details (Clements et al., 2012;
 Clements et al., 2013).

3 The TEOM 1405-DF quantifies concentrations of semi-volatile species with the use of the 4 FDMS, which consists of a linear valve that diverts the sample flow to chilled FDMS filters 5 (4°C), cleaning the sample stream. At six-minute intervals the FDMS valve changes position, 6 switching between depositing sample particles on TEOM filters and flowing clean air across 7 TEOM filters. TEOM filter mass change measured during the particle depositing mode 8 measures the non-volatile particulate mass, and the mass change when clean air is flowing 9 through collection filters measures the loss of semi-volatile mass due to the heated TEOM filters 10 (30°C, Hering et al., 2004). Summing the two fractions gives the total particulate mass concentration. Hourly and daily averages of PM2.5 and PM10-2.5 total, non-volatile, and semi-11 12 volatile mass concentrations were calculated from the raw six-minute data for the CCRUSH data set. Hourly and daily averages missing more than 25% of the data from the specified time 13 14 interval were censored due to lack of completeness.

15 Quality checked hourly-average PM₁₀ and PM_{2.5} total mass concentration data were provided 16 by the CDPHE for the CAMP and DMAS monitoring sites. At both sites, a PM₁₀ TEOM without 17 FDMS and a PM_{2.5} TEOM with FDMS were collocated on site rooftops. CDPHE PM_{10-2.5} 18 concentrations were estimated by subtracting PM_{2.5} from PM₁₀ mass concentrations. PM₁₀ 19 concentrations, and subsequently PM_{10-2.5} concentrations, were not available from CAMP from 20 1/1/2009 to 11/19/2010 due to a data logging issue with the TEOM. Due to the errors that are 21 introduced by the subtraction-method when using a combination of TEOMs with and without 22 semi-volatile mass loss correction, daily average CDPHE data containing this error were 23 corrected following the methods of Clements et al. (2013). This correction estimated the daily 24 average semi-volatile fraction of PM2.5 (SVM2.5) from total PM2.5 concentrations for the CAMP 25 and DMAS time series using linear regression. Nine months of SVM_{2.5} and PM_{2.5} data collected at each site from October 2011 through July 2012 were used to develop the correction models 26 at each site. Daily mean SVM_{2.5} concentrations measured at CAMP and DMAS during this 27 period were 1.62 and 2.95 μ g/m³, respectively. Resulting estimates of SVM_{2.5} concentrations 28 from linear regression during the CCRUSH campaign were 1.46 and 2.72 µg/m³ at CAMP and 29 DMAS, respectively. Modeled $SVM_{2.5}$ concentrations were subtracted from total $PM_{2.5}$ 30 31 concentrations, yielding nonvolatile PM_{2.5} concentrations that were then subtracted from measurements from the collocated PM₁₀ TEOM monitor to estimate PM_{10-2.5}. Due to the very 32

1 low concentrations of $PM_{10-2.5}$ SVM (SVM_{10-2.5}) in Colorado, this correction method was shown 2 to closely estimate true $PM_{10-2.5}$ concentrations. Hourly averaged $PM_{10-2.5}$ concentrations could 3 not be corrected due to the low coefficients of determination for the SVM_{2.5} vs. $PM_{2.5}$ linear 4 regression relationships at CAMP and DMAS. Uncorrected CDPHE $PM_{10-2.5}$ hourly mass 5 concentrations may be biased by up to 30%, on average. Such errors have been shown to affect 6 both spatial and temporal summary statistics (Clements et al., 2013).

7 2.3 Meteorology, gas-phase pollutant, and traffic count data

8 Ambient temperature and RH were measured by each TEOM throughout the CCRUSH 9 campaign. Relative humidity data from ALS were used for comparison with pollutant 10 concentration data from CAMP and DMAS. Additional meteorological data collected by the 11 CDPHE include ambient temperature and wind conditions at CAMP; temperature and wind at 12 DMAS; wind at ALS; and wind at Carriage (CRG), a site 1.75 km southeast of EDI. CRG wind 13 data were used for comparisons with EDI pollutant concentration data. Winds were measured 14 at 10.5 m at all sites except ALS, which had a 14.0 m tower. Ambient temperature, RH, and wind condition data sets were downloaded from the National Climatic Data Center for the 15 Greeley Airport (GREA) site operated by NOAA (Site #: 24051/GXY). Soil moisture data were 16 17 downloaded for the Nunn #1 site (NUN, SCAN Site #: 2017) located in Weld County and 18 operated by the United States Department of Agriculture's National Resources Conservation 19 Service. Soil moisture data are compared to pollutant concentration data collected in Greeley. 20 From this set of meteorological variables, hourly and daily arithmetic averages were calculated 21 for ambient temperature, RH, and soil moisture. Vector averages were calculated for wind conditions. 22

23 CDPHE also provided gas-phase pollutant data from CAMP (NO, SO₂, CO), DMAS (O₃, NO,

24 SO₂, CO), GRET (O₃, CO) and Welby (WBY) a site 1.5 km northwest of ALS located on the

25 northwest side of I-76 (O₃, NO, SO₂, CO). Hourly vehicle count data were downloaded from

26 the Colorado Department of Transportation Data Explorer for I-25, I-70, I-76, and I-270 in

27 Denver, and CO-257 and US-85 in Greeley. Traffic count site details and distances to nearest

28 CCRUSH monitoring sites can be found in Table S1. When calculating correlations between

29 particulate data and the meteorological, gas-phase pollutant, and traffic data, site pairs that are

30 nearest to each other were compared.

1 2.4 Data analysis

2 In addition to standard descriptive statistics, the concordance correlation coefficient (CCC) and 3 coefficient of divergence (COD) were used to compare air pollutant time series. The 4 concordance correlation coefficient (CCC) accounts for correlation as well as divergence from 5 the concordance, or 1:1 line, and is a measure of reproducibility (Lin, 1989). The CCC is useful 6 in quantifying the spatial homogeneity of a pollutant, and can be compared to the Pearson's 7 correlation coefficient, ρ , directly through a bias correction factor (C_b), as shown in equation 1. For time series from sites *j* and *h*, σ_i^2 and σ_h^2 are time series variances, σ_{ih} is the covariance, and 8 9 μ_i and μ_h are mean values.

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$$CCC = \frac{2\sigma_{jh}}{\sigma_j^2 + \sigma_h^2 + (\mu_j - \mu_h)^2} = \rho C_b$$
 (1)

11 A common measure of spatial homogeneity, the coefficient of divergence (COD, equation 2), 12 is also considered for comparison with other studies. In calculating the COD, X_{ij} and X_{ih} 13 represent measurement *i* from monitoring sites *j* and *h*, respectively, and *n* is the total number 14 of data points considered.

15
$$COD = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(\frac{X_{ij} - X_{ih}}{X_{ij} + X_{ih}}\right)^2}$$
 (2)

Correlation analysis was performed between particulate and meteorological, gas-phase 16 17 pollutant, and traffic data. A summary of these results is included in Table S2 of the 18 supplemental information. PM_{2.5} was moderately correlated with gas-phase species and 19 negatively correlated with wind speed. PM_{10-2.5} was correlated with both traffic and RH, but no 20 linear relationship was observed with wind speed. To further investigate trends observed in the 21 correlation analysis, nonparametric regression (NPR) was used to compare pollutant 22 concentrations and meteorological conditions important for dust emissions (wind speed, wind 23 direction, RH, and soil moisture) using the methods described in Clements et al. (2012). This approach provides objectively smoothed estimates of the expected value of the concentration 24 25 as a function of the explanatory variable. The Nadaraya-Watson estimator is used to calculate 26 weighted average concentrations within a moving window:

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$$C(\theta) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} K\left(\frac{\theta - W_i}{\Delta \theta}\right) c_i}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} K\left(\frac{\theta - W_i}{\Delta \theta}\right)}$$
(3)

1 where θ is the value of the explanatory variable for which the estimate is made, W_i is the value of the explanatory variable at time i, $\Delta \theta$ is the smoothing parameter, and K references the 2 averaging kernel. A Gaussian kernel was applied to all meteorological NPRs. Wind speed and 3 4 direction regressions excluded "calm" conditions, approximated as hours with wind speeds below 0.5 m/s. An optimal smoothing parameter for each meteorological variable and pollutant 5 6 type was determined via leave-one-out cross validation (Henry et al., 2002). For each 7 meteorological variable and pollutant pair considered, the optimal smoothing parameters from 8 all sites were averaged together and this average smoothing parameter was used to assess final 9 NPR relationships. Smoothing parameters used for PM_{10-2.5} were: 0.32 m/s for wind speed, 9.3° for wind direction, 3.25% for RH, and 0.30% for soil moisture (MAP only). Smoothing 10 parameters used for PM_{2.5} were: 0.24 m/s for wind speed, 6.7° for wind direction, 1.65% for 11 RH, and 0.30% for soil moisture (MAP only). NPR results for wind speeds above the 99.9th 12 13 percentile for each site are not displayed due to limited data coverage and high uncertainties in those regions of the regressions. Ninety-five percent confidence intervals of nonparametric 14 15 regressions were calculated using the methods of Henry et al. (2002). Kernel-smoothed hourly-16 average pollutant and meteorological time series are also presented using a smoothing factor of 17 three hours.

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19 **3** Results and Discussion

20 **3.1 Summary statistics**

Table 2 gives a statistical summary of the daily average particulate matter concentration data. The highest mean $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations were measured at DMAS (10.15 µg/m³) and ALS (9.02 µg/m³). Both of these sites were located in semi-industrial parts of Denver and were less than 0.5 km from interstate highways. The lowest average $PM_{2.5}$ mass concentrations were measured east of downtown Denver at the residential site, EDI. The average Denver $PM_{2.5}$ mass concentration over the whole CCRUSH campaign was 8.74 µg/m³, which is similar to the average $PM_{2.5}$ concentration of 8.42 µg/m³ measured in Greeley.

Average $PM_{10-2.5}$ concentrations showed a different spatial pattern from $PM_{2.5}$. Average $PM_{10-2.5}$ concentrations at CAMP (19.71 µg/m³), ALS (15.30 µg/m³), and DMAS (14.60 µg/m³) were elevated substantially above concentrations measured at EDI (8.02 µg/m³). Nearby interstate highways likely contributed to the relatively high $PM_{10-2.5}$ concentrations measured at ALS and

DMAS. Downtown traffic on nearby roads within 20 m of all sides of CAMP was a likely local 1 2 PM_{10-2.5} source at that location. The average PM_{10-2.5} concentrations at the MAP and MCA sites in Greeley were 10.34 μ g/m³ and 9.87 μ g/m³, respectively, falling between the concentrations 3 measured at EDI and at the traffic-influenced sites in Denver. Ninety-fifth percentile values of 4 5 PM_{10-2.5} were roughly double those for PM_{2.5}, with the traffic-influenced sites having the highest peak concentrations. Like the mean values, 95th percentile values of PM_{10-2.5} at the Greeley 6 7 sites fell between those at EDI and those at the traffic-influenced sites in Denver. For the CCRUSH sites, mean and 95th percentile concentration values for both PM_{2.5} and PM_{10-2.5} over 8 9 the three-year period were similar to those observed during the first year (Clements et al., 2012).

10 Using data from co-located PM₁₀ and PM_{2.5} monitors that had been reported to the U.S. 11 Environmental Protection Agency's Air Quality System (AQS), Li et al. (2013) estimated average PM_{10-2.5} concentrations of 17.25 μ g/m³ for 50 sites across the western United States. 12 13 Values in Denver and Greeley were similar to PM_{10-2.5} concentrations in Seattle, WA (9.0 and 14 14.8 μ g/m³), Spokane, WA (15.9 μ g/m³), Salt Lake City, UT (11.1 and 12.7 μ g/m³), and 15 multiple cities in California (e.g. San Diego, Sacramento, Anaheim, and Fresno). Sites located 16 in the arid southwest (Arizona, New Mexico, and Texas) tended to have higher PM_{10-2.5} 17 concentrations due to geogenic dust emissions.

As shown in Table 2, the urban-residential site EDI and the two Greeley sites had the lowest average $PM_{10-2.5}/PM_{10}$ ratios (0.49 – 0.53). Among the traffic-influenced sites, ALS and DMAS had mean ratios of 0.59 and 0.56, respectively, while CAMP had a mean ratio of 0.70. CAMP is essentially a curbside monitor for local street traffic in downtown Denver. Liu and Harrison (2011) observed a similar gradient in $PM_{10-2.5}/PM_{10}$ ratios in the United Kingdom, with curbside and roadside monitors having the highest ratios (0.71 and 0.57 on average, respectively) and urban background or rural sites having the lowest ratios (0.54-0.51).

On a day-to-day basis $PM_{10-2.5}$ was generally more temporally variable than $PM_{2.5}$, with higher coefficients of variation (COV) and absolute standard deviations than $PM_{2.5}$ at all sites except at EDI, where $PM_{2.5}$ was more temporally variable than at all other sites (Table 2). Daily $PM_{10-2.5}$ 2.5 COV were highest at ALS, MCA, and MAP, while the three traffic-influenced sites had the highest $PM_{10-2.5}$ standard deviations.

EDI, CAMP, and MAP had the lowest hourly $PM_{10-2.5}$ COVs of 0.96, 1.07 and 1.09, respectively. ALS, MCA and DMAS had higher hourly COV of 1.2, 1.28 and 1.34. As will be shown in the next section, traffic is highly influential in driving diurnal $PM_{10-2.5}$ variability, which is reflected in the increased COV for traffic-influenced sites at the hourly time-scale.
The hourly COV for PM_{10-2.5} for the sites in northeastern Colorado can be compared with those
Li et al. (2013) estimated from co-located PM₁₀ and PM_{2.5} measurements across the western
United States. They estimated COV for 25 sites with hourly data, which ranged from 0.7 to 2.0.
Hourly COV for 13 of the 25 sites were above 1.5 (Li et al., 2013), so the temporal variability
observed in northeastern Colorado generally falls at the lower end of the range they reported.

8 Semi-volatile concentrations were measured in both particle size ranges, though concentrations 9 were low in the PM_{10-2.5} range. Average SVM_{2.5} concentrations ranged from 2.05 μ g/m³ at EDI to 2.58 µg/m³ at MCA. PM_{2.5} at the MAP site in Greeley contained 29% semi-volatile material 10 11 on average, similar to percentages at Denver sites ALS (26%) and EDI (27%). Little to no 12 seasonal variability was observed in the SVM_{2.5}/PM_{2.5} ratios. For comparison, PM_{2.5} at a 13 background site in Paris, France was found to be 23% and 18% semi-volatile material in winter 14 and summer, respectively, using TEOM instruments (Favez et al., 2007). Ammonium nitrate 15 and semi-volatile organic matter were shown to explain the majority of PM_{2.5} semi-volatile material as measured by TEOMs in Fresno, CA (Grover et al., 2006), Paris (Favez et al., 2007), 16 17 and Beijing (Sciare et al., 2007).

18 The highest semi-volatile concentrations in the coarse size range were measured at ALS, 19 averaging just $0.20 \,\mu$ g/m³, about 1% of the total mass concentration average. Low semi-volatile 20 concentrations in the coarse particle size range suggest that ammonium nitrate and semi-volatile organic matter are not found in large concentrations in the coarse mode at our study sites. Gas-21 22 phase nitric acid does partition to the coarse mode via heterogeneous reactions with dust-related 23 minerals (Usher et al., 2003), but the reaction products are not volatile at 30°C. Mineral-bound 24 nitrate is commonly measured in urban and rural coarse aerosols (Cheung et al., 2011; Lee et 25 al., 2008). The slight signal in SVM_{10-2.5} at ALS might be in part due to semi-volatile PAHs, which have been measured at traffic sites in the coarse mode in California (Cheung et al., 2012). 26 27 Semi-volatile organic species have also been identified in the coarse mode during haze events in China (Wang et al., 2009). 28

3.2 Time series and monthly trends

Figure 1 shows smoothed ($\Delta \theta = 3$ hours) time series of particulate mass concentrations, gasphase pollutant concentrations, and meteorological conditions. To highlight the seasonal trends, 1 monthly medians of daily average concentrations are presented in Figure S2 of the supplemental 2 information. Monthly medians for $PM_{2.5}$ and $SVM_{2.5}$ show the same annual pattern, with a 3 primary peak in winter and a smaller peak in the middle of summer. As expected, O_3 4 concentrations also peaked in summer, while CO and NO peaked in winter.

5 A recent source apportionment study in Denver found significant contributions to the PM_{2.5} fraction from a light n-alkane/PAH factor during summer, which would contribute to the semi-6 7 volatile fraction measured by the TEOM during this time (Xie et al., 2013). The Denver Aerosol 8 Sources and Health (DASH) study also found that PM_{2.5} nitrate and organic species indicative 9 of motor vehicle emissions peaked in Denver during winter (Dutton et al., 2010). These species are likely to have contributed to wintertime PM2.5 and SVM2.5 peaks in the CCRUSH study as 10 11 well. Factor analysis of trace element data from 24-hour filter samples collected at the 12 CCRUSH sites every sixth day from February 2010 – March 2011 showed a factor accounting 13 for 80% of the sulfur contributing about 50 to 60% of the PM_{2.5} trace element concentrations 14 and peaking in winter and fall (Clements et al., 2014). Some wintertime PM_{2.5} peaks appear to 15 be due to episodic inversions, identified by simultaneous increases in CO and NO with peaks in both PM_{2.5} and SVM_{2.5}. Wintertime inversions did not affect PM_{10-2.5} to the same extent, as 16 17 PM_{10-2.5} concentrations decreased during many of the periods of high PM_{2.5}. Calm winds during multi-day inversions would inhibit resuspension, which may be why $PM_{10-2.5}$ concentrations 18 are relatively low during these periods while PM_{2.5} and gas-phase species build up. 19

Temporal trends in $PM_{10-2.5}$ are less obvious than those for $PM_{2.5}$ due to the relatively variable nature of $PM_{10-2.5}$ concentrations. As also reflected in the summary statistics, Figure 1 shows relatively large differences in $PM_{10-2.5}$ mass concentrations between sites compared to $PM_{2.5}$. The highest $PM_{10-2.5}$ concentrations were measured at CAMP during the summer and fall of 2011, though this monitoring site only operated through the second half of the CCRUSH study. For sites with multiple years of monitoring data, there were no pronounced differences in yearto-year average particulate concentrations or in year-to-year COVs.

As shown more distinctly in the monthly median plots in the supplemental information, PM_{10} . 28 2.5 at most of the sites was highest in summer and fall. $PM_{10-2.5}$ at EDI was the exception, 29 displaying relatively little seasonality. In the analysis of February 2010 – March 2011 trace 30 element data from the CCRUSH filter samples, Clements et al. (2014) found that a factor 31 associated with mineral dust contributed more than half of the trace element mass in $PM_{10-2.5}$, 32 peaking in summer and fall when RH and soil moisture were low. Dry environmental conditions 1 increase dust emissions from roads (Amato et al., 2014) and soil surfaces (Kim and Choi, 2015).

2 Relative humidity was highest during winter and lowest in March and September, while wind
3 speed was highest during spring, peaking in April.

4 3.3 Spatial comparisons

5 Spatial comparisons between each monitoring site for daily averaged PM_{2.5}, SVM_{2.5}, and PM₁₀₋ 2.5 are presented in Table 3, including both pairwise correlation coefficients and CCC values. 6 Bias correction factors (C_b) are listed in parentheses for comparisons between sites for the same 7 8 pollutant. Correlation coefficients for PM_{2.5} ranged from 0.65 for the ALS-EDI pair to 0.92 for 9 CAMP-DMAS. PM_{10-2.5} correlation coefficients for sites within Denver ranged from 0.59 for 10 ALS-CAMP to 0.79 for CAMP-DMAS. Correlations for PM_{10-2.5} between MAP and the Denver 11 sites ranged from 0.47 for CAMP-MAP to 0.70 for ALS-MAP, whereas those for PM2.5 ranged 12 from 0.34 for EDI-MAP to 0.61 for ALS-MAP. Relatively high regional correlations for PM₁₀-13 2.5 suggest that weather patterns moving through region influence the temporal variability of 14 this pollutant on daily timescales. Similar temporal variability of emission sources (e.g. traffic) could also contribute to high regional correlations for PM_{10-2.5}. Correlations within Greeley 15 were also high; as reported by Clements et al. (2012) the correlation coefficients for PM_{2.5} and 16 17 PM_{10-2.5} between MAP and MCA over six months of monitoring were 0.82 and 0.98, 18 respectively. Lastly, spatial SVM_{2.5} correlations for the CCRUSH sites were moderate, from 19 0.26 (MAP-EDI) to 0.53 (ALS-EDI).

20 Daily average PM_{10-2.5} concentrations in Denver and the Front Range tended to be more 21 spatially correlated than observed in previous studies using continuous monitors in Los 22 Angeles, CA and the United Kingdom (Moore et al., 2010; Liu and Harrison, 2011). Li et al. (2013) found correlation values for $PM_{10-2.5}$ that were comparable to those in Colorado for four 23 24 sites in El Paso, TX (0.49<p<0.76), two sites in Albuquerque, NM (p=0.53), three sites in North Dakota (0.46<p<0.60), and three sites in northern Idaho/northeastern Washington 25 $(0.48 < \rho < 0.61)$. For 24-hour PM_{10-2.5} filter samples collected at 10 sites around the Los Angeles, 26 27 CA metropolitan area, Pakbin et al. (2010) showed moderate to high correlation between urban 28 Los Angeles sites $(0.48 < \rho < 0.80)$ and lower correlations for an industrial shipping site 29 $(0.04 \le \rho \le 0.25)$, and semi-rural sites in Riverside $(0.04 \le \rho \le 0.48)$.

30 The CCC represents correlation that has been penalized according to the mean difference in 31 concentrations between two sites. For $PM_{2.5}$, comparisons between MAP and the Denver sites produced the lowest CCC values, corresponding to the low correlation coefficients for the same data comparisons. For $PM_{10-2.5}$, the lowest CCC and C_b values were for comparisons between CAMP and the other sites, corresponding to the relatively high concentrations observed at CAMP. Within Denver, concentrations of $PM_{10-2.5}$ were more heterogeneous than those for $PM_{2.5}$. Low to no correlation or concordance was found between $PM_{2.5}$ and $PM_{10-2.5}$ for all site pairs. COD values are presented in Table S3 and agree with the CCC results, showing $PM_{10-2.5}$ to be more spatially heterogeneous than $PM_{2.5}$.

8 Using nonparametric regression with wind direction, Clements et al. (2012) identified the 9 influence of emissions from a sand and gravel operation less than 0.5 km west of ALS. 10 Interstate-76 is also located nearby, about 0.5 km away in the same general direction. During the 3-year study period, average PM_{10-2.5} concentrations at ALS exceeded 25 μ g/m³ when winds 11 were from 225 to 315 degrees, compared to an average of about 13 μ g/m³ with winds from all 12 13 other directions. Seasonal wind roses for ALS are shown in Figure S3 of the supplemental 14 information. To determine how spatial correlations were affected by the local sources at ALS, 15 hourly concentrations collected while wind was coming from 225 to 315 degrees were removed from the ALS time series. Daily averages were recalculated and one daily average value was 16 17 removed due to having less than 75% of hourly values remaining. With the adjustment, the overall mean PM_{10-2.5} concentration at ALS was reduced from 15.30 μ g/m³ to 14.38 μ g/m³. 18 19 With the censored data, correlations for $PM_{10-2.5}$ at ALS with the other sites increased by 2% to 20 8%. CCC values were reduced by 4% for ALS-CAMP and increased by 11% to 19% for the 21 other site comparisons, due mainly to the reduced mean concentration at ALS.

22 **3.4 Diurnal and day of week trends**

Figure 2 compares median pollutant concentrations and traffic counts for each hour of the day 23 24 for weekdays and weekends. PM_{2.5} peaked in the morning on weekdays, a trend that nearly disappeared on weekends. In contrast, SVM_{2.5} generally peaked at noon on both weekdays and 25 26 weekends, preceding the early afternoon ozone peak by about two hours. Bimodal diurnal 27 profiles were observed on weekdays for PM_{10-2.5} at all sites except ALS, with peaks in the 28 morning (6:00-8:00 MT) and late afternoon (18:00-20:00 MT). The morning peak in PM_{10-2.5} disappears on weekends, likely due to the absence of a morning traffic peak. Late afternoon 29 30 PM_{2.5} concentrations typically started increasing around 6:00 PM MT due to a lowering boundary layer, a trend that was accentuated in winter and fall. Peak PM_{10-2.5} concentrations 31 correspond well with this increase in PM_{2.5}, even though the peak in traffic occurred an hour 32

earlier. Using the Kruskal-Wallis test with daily averages (5% significance level), it was
 determined that PM_{10-2.5} concentrations were significantly higher on weekdays than weekends
 at all sites (all p-values < 0.05). PM_{2.5} weekday-weekend comparisons showed significant
 differences only at ALS and CAMP (p-values of 0.02 for both locations).

5 3.5 Nonparametric Regression

Figures 3a and 3b present nonparametric regression results for $PM_{10-2.5}$ and $PM_{2.5}$ versus RH, showing that $PM_{10-2.5}$ decreased and $PM_{2.5}$ increased with increasing RH. Above 50% RH, $PM_{10-2.5}$ concentrations tended to decrease rapidly, generally dropping to below 5 μ g/m³ when RH levels were over 90%. Maximum $PM_{10-2.5}$ concentrations occurred for RH below 50% at all sites. At higher RH, surface wetting likely inhibits resuspension, thus suppressing $PM_{10-2.5}$ mass concentrations. In contrast, the increase in $PM_{2.5}$ mass concentrations with increased RH is likely due to hygroscopic growth and enhanced dissolution of water-soluble species.

13 As shown in Figures 3c and 3d, $PM_{2.5}$ and $PM_{10-2.5}$ concentrations also displayed contrasting 14 relationships with wind speed. Regressions of PM_{10-2.5} against wind speed at ALS, DMAS, and 15 CAMP displayed a U-shaped profile, with concentrations decreasing for wind speeds up to 2 to 16 3 m/s, then increasing with wind speeds above 3 m/s. PM_{10-2.5} at EDI does not appear to be 17 sensitive to wind speed, though lower wind speeds in general were experienced at EDI (99.9th 18 percentile less than 6 m/s). CAMP also experienced lower wind speeds, but displays a U-shaped 19 profile, possibly due to resuspension of road dust. Wind speeds were highest in Greeley, but the average $PM_{10-2.5}$ concentration increased by only a few $\mu g/m^3$ as wind speeds increased 20 21 from about 6 m/s to more than 10 m/s. PM_{2.5} concentrations generally decreased as wind speeds increased, reflecting the effect of dilution. Studies in Europe have observed similar 22 23 relationships between PM_{10-2.5} and wind speed to those presented here, with most sites showing 24 U-shaped relationships and sites located near sources showing more resuspension than 25 background or residential sites (Harrison et al., 2001; Charron and Harrison, 2005; Liu and 26 Harrison, 2011; Barmpadimos et al., 2012).

As shown in Figure 3e, $PM_{10-2.5}$ concentrations at MAP peaked with soil moisture levels below 13%, and decreased sharply with moisture levels above 25%. $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations decreased with soil moisture values above 30%. The highest soil moisture and RH levels were observed during precipitation or snowfall events (Figure 1), so the high ends of the RH (>80%) and soil moisture (>30%) regressions might partly reflect precipitation scavenging. Amato et al. (2013) analyzed the effect of rain on non-exhaust traffic emissions and found that contributions from
different sources (e.g. tire wear and road wear) recovered at different rates after precipitation
events. Biological particles have also been shown to have complex relationships with
precipitation, sometimes increasing in concentration during and immediately after rainfall
(Huffman et al., 2013).

To separate the effects of RH and wind speed, additional NPRs for PM_{10-2.5} against wind speed were assessed using data sets for ALS and MAP, sorted for RH above and below 50%. This threshold was chosen because of the significant decrease in average concentrations observed above 50% RH. Figure 3g shows that resuspension at ALS was heavily inhibited at elevated RH. In contrast, as shown in Figure 3h, PM_{10-2.5} concentrations at MAP are higher at lower RH but exhibit relatively little dependence on wind speed at either low or high RH.

12 Wind direction NPRs for PM_{10-2.5} and PM_{2.5} are found in Figures 4 and 5, respectively. For both size ranges, wind direction trends for ALS and EDI in the three-year data set were similar to 13 14 those identified by Clements et al. (2012) for the initial year of data. Results for PM_{2.5} and PM_{10-2.5} at MAP show greater differences. The wind direction regression for PM_{10-2.5} at MAP 15 16 shows increased concentrations with winds from the east to southeast and from the northwest. 17 A local intersection is located 0.4 km to the northwest of MAP and might be a source of the 18 northwesterly peak at this site. The more urban parts of Greeley and two large cattle feedlots 19 are located to the southeast of MAP. Cow fecal matter was identified as a major contributor to 20 PM_{10-2.5} bacterial diversity throughout the year in Greeley (Bowers et al., 2013).

Winds from the south and west brought increased concentrations of $PM_{2.5}$ to MAP, which could be a result of nighttime downslope flow transporting urban aerosol generated in Denver and other Front Range communities. The increase with winds from the south and west does not appear in the $PM_{10-2.5}$ wind direction regression, although the northwesterly peak appears in regressions for both size regimes. The lack of a peak to the south or west in the NPR for $PM_{10-2.5}$ at MAP is consistent with the expectation that regional transport of $PM_{10-2.5}$ is limited by relatively rapid deposition rates.

PM_{10-2.5} at ALS showed peaks with winds out of the west, the direction of the gravel pit and I-76, and with winds from the southwest. PM_{10-2.5} at EDI had increased concentrations with winds coming from the northeast and secondarily from the southeast. Possible PM_{10-2.5} sources near EDI include the intersection of I-70 and I-25 2 km to the northeast and I-25 2.5 km to the southeast. PM_{10-2.5} at CAMP displayed a primary peak with wind from the north-northeast, and 1 secondary peaks with winds from the east, southwest, and northwest. CAMP is located in 2 downtown Denver with intersections within 20 m of the monitoring site to the north, south, and 3 west, and major one-way street directly to the east. The wind direction NPR also suggests the 4 importance of local traffic for $PM_{10-2.5}$ concentrations at DMAS, displaying a peak with winds 5 from the northeast, the direction of I-25 less than half a kilometer away.

6 PM_{2.5} at ALS peaked with winds from the southwest, the direction of the urban-industrial area 7 between ALS and downtown Denver. Because of the relative location of the Denver monitoring 8 sites, this area north of downtown Denver could also be a "source" region contributing to 9 elevated concentrations of both PM_{10-2.5} and PM_{2.5} with winds from the north for CAMP and 10 DMAS and from the NE for EDI. DMAS is also located in close proximity to I-25, which curves around the east side of the property from north to south, and could contribute to the elevated 11 12 PM_{2.5} concentrations observed with winds from both the north-northeast and south-southeast directions. 13

14

15 4 Conclusions

16 The CCRUSH study characterized PM_{10-2.5}, PM_{2.5}, SVM_{2.5}, and SVM_{10-2.5} mass concentrations 17 in urban and rural communities in northeastern Colorado. The CCRUSH data are being used in 18 ongoing epidemiologic studies investigating associations between coarse PM concentrations 19 and health responses in northeastern Colorado. The measurements presented here show that 20 traffic influenced sites in Denver had the highest PM_{10-2.5} concentrations and PM_{10-2.5}/PM₁₀ 21 ratios. The CAMP site in downtown Denver had the highest $PM_{10-2.5}$ concentrations, whereas PM_{2.5} concentrations were highest at DMAS and ALS, two monitoring sites located near 22 23 interstate highways. Average PM_{10-2.5} concentrations at CAMP were about twice as high as 24 those at the residential sites in Denver and Greeley. In contrast, the highest average $PM_{2.5}$ 25 concentration at DMAS was only about 30% higher than the lowest value, which was found at EDI. While SVM_{2.5} ranged from 26 to 29% of the total PM_{2.5} mass, the highest average SVM₁₀₋ 26 27 2.5 concentration at ALS made up just 1% of the PM_{10-2.5} mass.

Peak monthly median PM_{10-2.5} concentrations generally occurred in summer and fall, reflecting relatively dry conditions during those seasons. PM_{10-2.5} concentrations demonstrated one or two diurnal peaks, corresponding to morning and/or afternoon traffic peaks. Concentrations of PM_{2.5} and SVM_{2.5} shared similar seasonal trends. Along with NO and CO concentrations, they peaked in winter when periodic temperature inversions occurred. Daily average concentrations of $PM_{2.5}$ and $SVM_{2.5}$ were correlated. They showed different diurnal trends, however, with PM_{2.5} peaking on weekday mornings and $SVM_{2.5}$ at about noon. This pattern suggests photolysis-driven atmospheric chemistry has a stronger influence on $SVM_{2.5}$ than on $PM_{2.5}$ as a whole. Clements et al. (2013) discussed the need to account for $SVM_{2.5}$ to correct volatile mass loss from TEOM measurements, which is the function of the FDMS system. Beyond incorporating this correction, researchers and air quality managers might want to separately track $SVM_{2.5}$ concentrations to gain insight into the behavior of this semi-volatile fraction.

8 Pairwise correlation coefficients for daily average PM_{10-2.5} concentrations between the MAP 9 site in Greeley and the Denver sites were higher than those for PM_{2.5}. The relatively high 10 correlations for PM_{10-2.5} may be due to sites across the region having similar influence of synoptic scale meteorology, or to different sites having similar day-to-day patterns in nearby 11 12 source activity. Within Denver, however, concentrations of PM_{10-2.5} were more heterogeneous than those for $PM_{2.5}$. As suggested by Wilson et al. (2005) the greater heterogeneity in PM_{10-} 13 2.5 concentrations would contribute to greater exposure estimation error for urban-scale 14 15 epidemiologic studies of PM_{10-2.5} health effects, compared to those for PM_{2.5}.

16 As expected, $PM_{10-2.5}$ concentrations generally declined with increasing moisture levels, 17 indicated by RH and soil moisture. PM2.5 and PM10-2.5 concentrations displayed contrasting 18 relationships with wind speed. PM2.5 concentrations generally decreased as wind speeds 19 increased, reflecting the effect of greater dilution at higher wind speeds. PM_{10-2.5} concentrations 20 at traffic-influenced sites increased with wind speeds above 3 m s⁻¹. Wind speed appeared to have less influence on PM_{10-2.5} at EDI and MAP, possibly because these sites were further than 21 22 the others from major sources such as roadways or gravel operations. In general, the 23 relationships between soil and road dust resuspension, moisture and soil crust state are not well 24 understood, and warrant further research to help in modeling dust emissions (Kok et al., 2014; 25 Klose et al., 2014; Haustein et al., 2015).

Nonparametric regression with wind direction points to the Front Range urban corridor as a source area for relatively high $PM_{2.5}$ in Greeley, but not for $PM_{10-2.5}$. Relatively high $PM_{10-2.5}$ concentrations are seen at MAP when winds are from the east, the direction of a developed part of town as well as two cattle feedlots. All of the Denver sites show increased $PM_{10-2.5}$ concentrations when major traffic corridors and the industrial area in northeast Denver are upwind. Efforts to reduce concentrations of $PM_{10-2.5}$ would be aided by research into means of 1 reducing emissions from heavily traveled roadways, including vehicle and road wear and re-

- 2 suspension of deposited materials.
- 3

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1 Table 1. Summary description of the CCRUSH and CDPHE particulate monitoring sites.

2							
Monitoring Site	ALS (CCRUSH)	EDI (CCRUSH)	CAMP (CDPHE)	DMAS (CDPHE)	MAP (CCRUSH)	MCA (CCRUSH)	
City	Denver	Denver	Denver	Denver	Greeley	Greeley	
Coordinates	39.83N 104.94W	39.76N 105.04W	39.75N 104.99W	39.70N 105.00W	40.42N 104.71W	40.43N 104.77W	
Start Date 1/26/2009		1/8/2009	1/1/2009	1/1/2009	1/16/2009	1/1/2009	
End Date 9/29/2011		3/1/2012	4/30/2012	4/30/2012	2/2/2012	6/19/2009	
Site Description	te Description Industrial- Residential		Urban- Roadside	Urban- Roadside	Rural- Residential	Rural- Residential	
Instruments	TEOM 1405-DF (FDMS)	TEOM 1405-DF (FDMS)	TEOM 1400a (FDMS); TEOM 1400ab (no FDMS)	TEOM 1400a (FDMS); TEOM 1400ab (no FDMS)	TEOM 1405-DF (FDMS)	TEOM 1405-DF (FDMS)	
Inlet Height (m)	Inlet Height (m) 6		6	5 9		10.5	

Table 2. Summary statistics of particulate matter concentrations during the CCRUSH 1

2 campaign. Statistics are for daily averages except where indicated.

3													
Monitoring Site (City, Site Type)		ALS (Der	wer, Industri	al-Residential)	EDI (Denver, Urban-Residential)								
Particulate Fraction	PM _{2.5}	SVM _{2.5}	PM _{10-2.5}	SVM _{10-2.5}	PM _{10-2.5} / PM ₁₀	PM _{2.5}	SVM _{2.5}	PM _{10-2.5}	SVM _{10-2.5}	PM _{10-2.5} / PM ₁₀			
Mean (St. Dev., µg/m³)	9.02 (4.64)	2.32 (1.50)	15.30 (10.36)	0.20 (0.30)	0.59 (0.18)	7.66 (5.33)	2.05 (1.91)	8.02 (4.85)	0.02 (0.25)	0.51 (0.21)			
Median (µg/m³)	8.07	2.08	13.37	0.16	0.62	6.55	1.81	7.17	0.01	0.53			
5 th /95 th Per. (μg/m ³)	3.90/ 16.90	0.50/ 5.29	2.02/ 35.74	-0.20/ 0.72	0.23/ 0.81	2.14/ 16.92	-0.28/ 5.16	1.61/ 17.20	-0.35/ 0.44	0.20/ 0.77			
Daily COV ^a (Hourly COV)	0.51 (0.82)	0.65 (1.56)	0.68 (1.20)	1.53 (5.83)	0.31 (-)	0.70 (1.16)	0.93 (2.37)	0.61 (0.96)	13.18 (37.50)	0.40			
N (% Complete)			755 (76%)			747 (65%)							
Monitoring Site (City, Site Type)		CAMP	(Denver, Urb	an-Roadside)		DMAS (Denver, Urban-Roadside)							
Particulate Fraction	PM _{2.5}	SVM _{2.5} ^b	PM _{10-2.5} ^c	SVM _{10-2.5}	PM _{10-2.5} / PM ₁₀	PM _{2.5}	SVM _{2.5} ^b	PM _{10-2.5} ^c	SVM _{10-2.5}	$\frac{PM_{10\text{-}2.5}}{PM_{10}}$			
Mean (St. Dev., µg/m³)	7.97 (4.40)	1.42 (1.08)	19.71 (10.53)	-	0.70 (0.15)	10.15 (4.51)	2.72 (1.14)	14.60 (8.20)	-	0.56 (0.19)			
Median (µg/m³)	7.14	1.22	18.09	-	0.74	9.30	2.50	13.89	-	0.61			
5 th /95 th Per. (μg/m ³)	3.01/ 16.59	0.20/ 3.54	5.22/ 38.88	-	0.38/ 0.86	4.95/ 18.18	1.40/ 4.74	2.62/ 28.63	-	0.20/ 0.77			
Daily COV (Hourly COV)	0.55 (0.81)	0.76 (-)	0.53 (1.07)	-	0.21	0.44 (0.63)	0.42 (-)	0.56 (1.34)	-	0.34			
N (% Complete)	1121 (92%)	1121 (92%)	503 (90%)	-	503 (90%)	1097 (90%)	1097 (90%)	980 (81%)	-	980 (81%)			
Monitoring Site (City, Site Type)	MAP (Greeley, Rural-Residential)						MCA (Greeley, Rural-Residential)						
Particulate Fraction	PM _{2.5}	SVM _{2.5}	PM _{10-2.5}	SVM _{10-2.5} ^d	PM _{10-2.5} / PM ₁₀	PM _{2.5}	SVM _{2.5}	PM _{10-2.5}	SVM _{10-2.5}	PM _{10-2.5} / PM ₁₀			
Mean (St. Dev., μg/m³)	8.15 (4.79)	2.39 (1.80)	10.34 (7.11)	0.05 (0.38)	0.53 (0.20)	8.68 (4.29)	2.58 (1.54)	9.87 (7.74)	-0.06 (0.24)	0.49 (0.18)			
Median (µg/m³)	7.13	2.22	9.17	0.05	0.56	7.71	2.22	7.76	-0.05	0.50			
5 th /95 th Per. (μg/m ³)	2.60/ 17.64	0.10/ 5.41	1.63/ 22.89	-0.54/ 0.62	0.19/ 0.78	4.45/ 15.43	0.75/ 4.87	1.69/ 23.97	-0.39/ 0.29	0.15/ 0.76			
Daily COV (Hourly COV)	0.59 (0.91)	0.75 (1.89)	0.69 (1.09)	7.68 (36.33)	0.37	0.49 (0.86)	0.60 (1.46)	0.78 (1.28)	4.19 (13.21)	0.37			
N (% Complete)		(7	822, SVM _{10-2.} 74%, SVM _{10-2.}	5: 788 5: 71%)		168 (99%)							

456789 ^a Defined abbreviations: Standard Deviation (St. Dev.), Coefficient of Variation (COV), Percentile (Per.), and Sample Number (N)

^b Estimated using the regression models presented in Clements et al. (2013)

^c Corrected subtraction-method errors using the method of Clements et al. (2013)

^d MAP PM_{10-2.5} semi-volatile concentrations were not available from 8/13/2009 to 9/18/2009, PM_{10-2.5} non-volatile

concentrations were used to estimate total $PM_{10-2.5}$ for this period

- 1 Table 3. Pearson's correlation coefficient (ρ) values are listed below the diagonal, concordance
- 2 correlation coefficient (CCC) values above the diagonal, and bias correction factor (C_b) values

$\rho \setminus CCC(C_b)$		PM _{2.5}					PM _{10-2.5}					SVM _{2.5}		
		ALS	EDI	CAMP	DMAS	MAP	ALS	EDI	CAMP	DMAS	MAP	ALS	EDI	MAP
PM _{2.5}	ALS	1.00	0.62 (0.96)	0.82 (0.98)	0.71 (0.96)	0.56 (0.92)	0.10	0.28	-0.01	0.08	0.03	0.16	0.09	0.06
	EDI	0.65	1.00	0.72 (0.96)	0.66 (0.85)	0.34 (0.99)	-0.04	0.22	-0.08	-0.07	-0.06	0.12	0.25	0.08
	CAMP	0.83	0.75	1.00	0.86 (0.94)	0.37 (0.94)	0.12	0.26	0.05	0.05	0.07	0.12	0.22	0.11
	DMAS	0.74	0.78	0.92	1.00	0.37 (0.94)	0.03	0.21	0.01	-0.01	-0.05	0.08	0.11	0.04
	MAP	0.61	0.34	0.39	0.41	1.00	0.05	0.20	-0.01	0.06	0.14	0.13	0.05	0.22
PM _{10-2.5}	ALS	0.17	-0.10	0.19	0.06	0.11	1.00	0.40 (0.57)	0.38 (0.65)	0.68 (0.94)	0.57 (0.80)	-0.02	-0.03	-0.01
	EDI	0.28	0.22	0.26	0.24	0.20	0.70	1.00	0.20 (0.33)	0.43 (0.62)	0.58 (0.84)	-0.02	0.00	0.01
	CAMP	-0.03	-0.18	0.13	0.02	-0.02	0.59	0.62	1.00	0.66 (0.83)	0.28 (0.60)	-0.01	-0.02	0.00
	DMAS	0.13	-0.12	0.08	-0.02	0.09	0.72	0.70	0.79	1.00	0.60 (0.90)	-0.01	-0.03	0.00
	MAP	0.04	-0.08	0.09	-0.06	0.16	0.70	0.69	0.47	0.67	1.00	-0.04	-0.03	0.00
SVM _{2.5}	ALS	0.77	0.50	0.54	0.53	0.47	-0.14	-0.08	-0.16	-0.14	-0.20	1.00	0.53 (0.99)	0.37 (0.99)
	EDI	0.45	0.80	0.61	0.59	0.21	-0.24	0.01	-0.20	-0.19	-0.14	0.53	1.00	0.25 (0.96)
	MAP	0.30	0.25	0.28	0.23	0.77	-0.07	0.03	-0.01	0.00	0.01	0.37	0.26	1.00

3 in parentheses for spatial comparisons of daily averaged $PM_{2.5}$, $PM_{10-2.5}$, and $SVM_{2.5}$.



1 2

3 Figure 1. Smoothed ($\Delta\theta$ =3 hours) time series of hourly average (a) PM_{10-2.5} mass 4 concentrations, (b) PM_{2.5} mass concentrations, (c) SVM_{2.5} and SVM_{10-2.5} mass concentrations, 5 (d) gas-phase pollutant concentrations, and (e) meteorological conditions (WS and SM stand 6 for wind speed and soil moisture, respectively, precipitation and snowfall data sets are daily 7 totals with no smoothing).



Figure 2. Diurnal trends (time-of-day medians) of (a) PM_{10-2.5} on weekdays, (b) PM_{10-2.5} on
weekends, (c) PM_{2.5} on weekdays, (d) PM_{2.5} on weekends, (e) SVM_{2.5} on weekdays, (f) SVM_{2.5}
on weekends, (g) weekday gas-phase pollutants, (h) weekend gas-phase pollutants, (i) weekday
traffic volumes, and (j) weekend traffic volumes.

Figure 3. Expected value of pollutant concentrations (dashed lines are 95% confidence 3 4 intervals) based on nonparametric regression (NPR) of: (a) PM_{10-2.5} versus RH; (b) PM_{2.5} versus RH; (c) PM_{10-2.5} versus wind speed; (d) PM_{2.5} versus wind speed; (e) MAP PM_{10-2.5} versus soil 5 6 moisture; (f) MAP PM_{2.5} versus soil moisture; (g) ALS PM_{10-2.5} versus wind speed with data 7 stratified at 50% RH; and (h) MAP PM_{10-2.5} versus wind speed with data stratified at 50% RH. 8

(a) ALS PM_{10-2.5} vs. Wind Direction NPR

1

- 3 Figure 4. Expected value of PM_{10-2.5} concentrations (dashed lines are 95% confidence
- 4 intervals) based on nonparametric regression (NPR) against wind direction for (a) ALS, (b)
- 5 EDI, (c) CAMP, (d) DMAS, and (e) MAP.

(b) EDI PM_{2.5} vs. Wind Direction NPR

(c) CAMP PM_{2.5} vs. Wind Direction NPR

180

150

210

(d) DMAS PM_{2.5} vs. Wind Direction NPR

(e) MAP PM_{2.5} vs. Wind Direction NPR

1 2

4

Figure 5. Expected value of PM_{2.5} concentrations (dashed lines are 95% confidence intervals)
based on nonparametric regression (NPR) against wind direction for (a) ALS, (b) EDI, (c)

5 CAMP, (d) DMAS, and (e) MAP.