Intercomparison of four different cascade impactors for fine and ultrafine particle sampling in two European Iocations indoor and outdoor air

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21 Abstract

22 Due to the need to better characterise the ultrafine particles fraction and related personal 23 exposure, several impactors have been developed to enable the collection of ultrafine particles (<100 nm). However, to the authors' knowledge there have been no field campaigns to-date 24 25 intercomparing impactor collection of ultrafine particles. The purpose of this study was twofold: 1) to assess the performance of a number of conventional and nano-range cascade 26 impactors with regard to the particle mass size distribution under different environmental 27 conditions and aerosol loads and typesin indoor and outdoor air, and 2) to characterise aerosol 28size distributions including ultrafine particles using impactors in 2 European locations. The 29 impactors used were: (i) Berner low-pressure impactor (BLPI; 26 nm - 13.5 µm), (ii) nano-30

Berner low-pressure impactor (nano-BLPI; 11 nm - 1.95 μm) and (iii) Nano-microorifice
 uniform deposit impactor (nano-Moudi; 10 nm-18 μm), and (iv) Personal cascade impactor
 Sioutas (PCIS; < 250 nm - 10 μm). Only the BLPI substrates were coated with a thin layer of
 vacuum grease, therefore particle bounce that may occur during dry collection should only be
 considered for the other impactors.

Taking the BLPI as an internal reference, the best agreement regarding mass size distributions 6 7 was obtained with the nano-BLPI, independently of the aerosol load and aerosol chemical composition. The nano-Moudi showed a good agreement for particle sizes >320 nm, whereas 8 for particle diameters <320 nm this instrument recorded larger mass concentrations in outdoor 9 10 air than the internal reference. This difference could be due to particle bounce, to the 11 dissociation of semi volatiles in the coarser stages and/or to particle shrinkage during transport through the impactor due to higher temperature inside this impactor. Further 12 13 research is needed to understand this behaviour. With regard to the PCIS, their size-resolved 14 mass concentrations were comparable with other impactors for PM₁, PM₂ and PM₁₀, but the 15 cut-off at 250 nm did not seem to be consistent with that of the internal reference. Chemical processed linked to aerosol infiltration (e.g., evaporation) were identified in indoor air 16 17 samples.

18 Keywords: Mass size distribution; Chemical characterization; Ultra-fine particles; Cascade19 Impactors; Nanoparticles; Ultrafine particles

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21 1 Introduction

Used in numerous areas of air quality research, cascade impactors are established, relatively 22 simple, and robust instruments. They collect airborne aerosols and segregate them into a 23 24 number of aerodynamic sizes for subsequent determination of mass size distribution, chemical and/or physical properties (Hitzenberger et al., 2004; Seinfeld and Pandis, 2006). The 25 26 mechanical principle behind size impaction employs the known quantities of Stokes number and slip correction factors to derive particle inertia, therefore ascribing a stopping distance in 27 accordance to particle size (Hinds, 1999). Particulates are collected onto substrates, frequently 28 made of quartz, polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE; best known as Teflon), polyethylene 29 terephthalate (commonly abbreviated PET, otherwise known as Mylar), polycarbonate or 30 aluminium (Howell et al., 1998; Schaap et al., 2004; Tursic et al., 2008). The choice of 31

1 substrate is dependent on the type of impactor, sampling conditions and analytical techniques intended to be carried out (Fujitani et al., 2006). A variety of cascade impactor designs have 2 3 appeared since May (1945) first reported on an initial design to sample coarse aerosols (>2.5 µm). Since then, sampling size fractions for traditionally designed commercially available 4 5 cascade impactors allowed for particle collection from coarse to fine fractions (<2.5 µm), for example 10 µm - 0.034 µm for the Berner low-pressure impactor (BLPI) (Hering et al., 1978; 6 Berner and Luerzer, 1980; Hillamo and Kauppinen, 1991) and size cuts as small as 0.056 µm 7 for the micro-orifice uniform deposit impactor (Moudi) (Marple et al., 1991). 8

However, epidemiological studies have evidenced the need to focus on ultrafine particles 9 10 (UFP; $D_p < 100$ nm), due to their possibly larger impacts on health when compared to coarser 11 particles (Oberdörster, 2000; Oberdorster et al., 2005). Recently, due to the growing need to better characterise the UFP fraction, the second generation of Moudi impactors (Model 122 12 and Model 125 Nano-Moudi-IITM, MSP Corp., Shoreview, MN, USA), both available in the 13 rotating version (122-R and 125-R) and in the non-rotating version (122-NR and 125-NR) and 14 15 nano-BLPI (not commercially available) were introduced, both adaptions of the original Moudi (Marple et al., 1991) and BLPI impactors (Hering et al., 1978; Berner and Luerzer, 16 17 1980; Hillamo and Kauppinen, 1991), modified to enable the collection of UFP down to 11 nm. Also, the need to better understand and characterise personal exposure led to the 18 19 development of portable, light-weight impactors such as the personal cascade impactor sampler (PCIS; Misra et al, 2002). 20

Due to the physical principle of particle collection associated with all impactors sampling 21 artefacts can occur, including particle bounce, particle blow off, and particle wall loss (Wall et 22 al., 1988; Schwarz et al., 2012). These artefacts vary according to the impactor type (Hillamo 23 and Kauppinen, 1991; Howell et al., 1998; Štefancová et al., 2011) loads, composition of the 24 aerosol sampled (Huang et al., 2004; Sardar et al., 2005; Fujitani et al., 2006; Crilley et al., 25 2013), and the type of substrate used (Fujitani et al., 2006; Nie et al., 2010). Also, because 26 long sampling time is required for having enough mass of the finest UFP for chemical 27 analysis may produce sampling artefacts of volatilization or absorption. 28

As well as those previously described, the sampling and accurate sizing of UFP/nanoparticles also present challenges. There is a need to produce a fast flowing jet of air onto an impactor plate, creating the inertia allowing for collection of the smallest size fractions producing a high pressure differential at the lowest cut sizes. This pressure drop changes the vapour

1 pressure in the bulk which can then enhance volatilisation (Hering and Cass, 1999). Attempts to address this issue were successfully carried out by decreasing the pressure drop over a 2 reduced number of stages (Marple et al., 1991; Štefancová et al., 2011). Moreover, the low 3 mass of UFP requires a greater collection concentration which then increases the possibility 4 5 of mass overloading on the larger fractions. The commercially available Nano-Moudi-IITMseeks to reduce jet velocity, pressure drop, particle bounce, re-entrainment and 6 evaporative loss by incorporating micro-orifice nozzles (up to 2000 as small as 50 µm in 7 diameter in the 10 L/min Model 125 and up to 6 000 of 50 µm diameter in the 30 L min⁻¹ 8 9 Model 122). The rotating Nano-Moudi-IITM_versions (Model 122-R and 125-R) have internal embedded stepper motors for the rotation of the sampling stages, thereby spreading the 10 sample over the filter to reduce build-up (Marple et al., 2014). However, as will be described 11 below, this spreading of the sample may lead to new uncertainties and complications. 12

13 Cascade impactors have been deployed in a diverse array of measurement campaigns utilising their versatility, characterising size-fractionated chemical composition of urban aerosols 14 (Sardar et al., 2005; Schwarz et al., 2012), particle volatility (Hering and Cass, 1999; Huang 15 et al., 2004), vapour-particle phase partitioning (Delgado-Saborit et al., 2014), influence of 16 relative humidity (Štefancová et al., 2010), indoor - outdoor relationship (Smolík et al., 17 2008), archive contamination (Mašková et al., 2015), metals in particles collected near a busy 18 19 road (Lin et al., 2005; Karanasiou et al., 2007; Ondráček et al., 2011), size-segregated emission particles in a coal-fired power station (Tursic et al., 2008), whilst extensive 20 theoretical investigations and experimental characterization of cascade impactors tended to 21 focus on the performance of one type of cascade impactor (Biswas and Flagan, 1984; Wang 22 and John, 1988; Stefancová et al., 2011; Jiménez and Ballester, 2011; Marple et al., 2014). 23 Howell et al. (1998) carried out an intercomparison of 'traditional' BLPI and Moudi 24 impactors during a field campaign. Field campaigns usually provide a greater variation of 25 conditions than controlled laboratory based conditions, offering a more robust analysis of 26 comparable instrumentation. Another notable intercomparison study was conducted by 27 Pennanen et al. (2007) who tested a modified 4-stage Harvard high-volume cascade impactor 28 29 against a reference 10-stage BLPI in 6 different European locations over different seasons. 30 The authors note the implicit effects on individual impactors of meteorology and aerosol composition. Other studies have run two or more impactors in tandem measuring 31 simultaneously indoors and outdoors (Smolík et al., 2008; Mašková et al., 2015), to cover 32 extended particle size distributions (Geller *et al.*, 2002), or characterise artefacts caused by 33

particle volatility (Huang *et al.*, 2004; Schaap *et al.*, 2004) or changes in size distribution due
 to different relative humidity (Štefancová *et al.*, 2010).

To the authors' knowledge there has been no field campaign to-date intercomparing impactor 3 collection efficiency of UFP. As a result, this paper seeks to address this by assessing the 4 performance of a number of conventional and nano-range impactors, namely Berner low-5 pressure impactor (BLPI, 25/0.018/2, Hauke, Austria), nano-Berner low-pressure impactor 6 (nano-BLPI, 10/0,01, Hauke, Austria), nano-microorifice uniform deposit impactor (Nano-7 Moudi-IITM, MSP Corp., Shoreview, MN, USA Model 125R; U.S. Patent # 6,431,014B1) and 8 Personal cascade impactor Sioutas (SioutasTM PCIS, SKC Inc.; Misra et al, 2002), by means 9 10 of two intercomparison exercises, one in Prague, during winter 2015, and other in Barcelona during summer 2015 in indoor and outdoor air. The aim of the campaigns was to test the 11 instruments' performance under different environmental conditions and aerosol loads and 12 types, with an emphasis on the transport of outdoor aerosols into the indoor air. Our work 13 reports on the impactor performances not only with regard to different particle size 14 15 distributions but also aerosol composition and meteorology.

16 2 Methodology

17 2.1 Sampling sites and sampling set-up

18 2.1.1 Prague

The field intercomparison initially took place in outdoor air (6th-23rd February 2015) and it 19 was subsequently moved indoors (23rd February 2015 - 2nd March 2015) in Prague, Suchdol at 20 the Institute of Chemical Process Fundamentals (ICPF), Academy of Sciences of the Czech 21 Republic (ASCR) compound (50°7'36.47"N, 14°23'5.51"E, 277 m.a.s.l). Suchdol is a 22 residential area in north-western Prague, about 6 km from the city centre. It is recognized as a 23 suburban background site with residential houses and a university campus interspersed 24 between plenty of green spaces. The traffic flow is moderate along one major 2-lane road 25 (average traffic of 10000-15000 vehicles day⁻¹) with regular bus services. Due to its location 26 on a plateau above the river Vltava there are not many contributory roads alongside (Figure 27 S1 in the supplementary information). Detailed information of the area where the impactors 28were located were previously provided by Smolík et al. (2008) and Hussein et al. (2006). 29

Outdoor sampling consisted of 3 weekend sampling periods (6 - 9th, 13 - 16th and 20th - 23rd
 February 2015), and 2 week-day samplings, (10 - 12th and 17 - 20st February 2015).

In addition, indoor samples were also collected during 2 week-day samplings (23rd - 25th and 3 25th - 27th February 2015) and a final 3-day weekend sampling period (27th February 2015 -4 2nd March 2015). This resulted in a total of 5 valid outdoor samples (three weekend and two 5 week-day) and two valid indoor samples (one weekend and one week-day). For both outdoor 6 and indoor sampling, the weekend runs started on the preceding Friday between 11:00h-7 13:00h local time and finished at 9:00h local time on the following Monday. The week-day 8 samplings started between 11h00-14h00 and terminated at 9h00. The sample duration in 9 10 Prague was defined based on the experience from previous research (Smolík et al., 2008; Štefancová et al., 2011). Based on ambient PM concentrations it was considered that samples 11 should be collected over no more than 72 hours, to avoid substrate overload. 12

13 2.1.2 Barcelona

The Barcelona intercomparison was conducted exclusively outdoors at an air quality 14 monitoring station at IDAEA-CSIC located in an urban background site in the southwest of 15 Barcelona (41°23'14" N, 02°06'56"E, 78 m.a.s.l) from 18th May to 3rd July 2015 (Figure S2 16 in the supplementary information). The sampling site, described in detail by Reche et al. 17 (2015), is influenced by vehicular emissions from one of the city's main traffic avenues 18 (Diagonal avenue), located at approximately 200 m from the site and with a mean traffic 19 density of 90 000 vehicles/-day-L min⁻¹ (Amato *et al.*, 2015). Even though the site is officially 20 classified as urban background, it is located in a city with very high road traffic and 21 influenced by the emissions of one of the largest arterial roads of the city. 22

Outdoor sampling in Barcelona consisted of 4-day (during week-days) samples, each of them accounting for 96h (4 consecutive days). A total of 4 samples (4-days each) was collected. The runs started every Monday between 10:00h-12:00h local time and finished on Fridays around 14:00h-16:00h local time. The sample duration in Barcelona was set longer than in Prague since the averages of particle mass collected during a sampling less than 4 days would not be sufficient for further chemical analysis. Indoor intercomparisons were not carried out due to the absence of an appropriate location for indoor air sampling.

1 2.2 Instrument set-up and experimental specifications

2 In the present study, the mass size distribution of the aerosol was measured by different types3 of cascade impactors:

A Berner low-pressure impactor (BLPI, 25/0.018/2, Hauke, Austria; (Berner et al., 1979;
Preining and Berner, 1979) which collects particles onto PET foils (Mylar 13 μm thick)
(flow rate 24.8 L min⁻¹). The impactors separated particle mass into 10 size fractions. The
cut diameters of the stages were 0.026, 0.056, 0.1, 0.16, 0.25, 0.43, 0.86, 1.73, 3.425, and
6.61 μm (Štefancová *et al.*, 2011). The impactors were equipped with inlets with the cutpoint calculated as 14 μm.

A modified BLPI (denominated as nano-BLPI, 10/0.01, Hauke, Austria) collecting particles on PET foils (Mylar 13 μm thick) (flow rate 17.2 L min⁻¹) from 0.01 μm to 1.95 μm in 8 size stages. The aerodynamic cut diameters of stages 1 to 8 were 0.011, 0.024, 0.039, 0.062, 0.095, 0.24, 0.49, 1.0 μm, and the inlet cut-point was calculated as 1.95 μm.
 Given that the nano-BLPI is a custom made instrument, the design parameters of each of its impaction stages are shown in Table S1 in the supplementary supporting information.

- A nano-microorifice uniform deposit area impactor (Nano-Moudi-IITM, MSP Corp.,
 Shoreview, MN, USA Model 125R; U.S. Patent # 6,431,014B1) equipped with PTFE
 filters (with diameters of 47 mm, 0.5 μm pore and 0.14 mm thick) was used to collect
 size-resolved aerosol samples.
- This impactor effectively separated the particulate matter into 13 stages with nominal cut diameters of 0.010, 0.018, 0.03, 0.06, 0.10, 0.18, 0.32, 0.56, 1.0, 1.8, 3.2, 5.6, 10 μm and the inlet cut-point as 18 μm when operated at an inlet flow rate of 10 L min⁻¹.
- Three personal cascade impactor samplers (SioutasTM PCIS, SKC Inc; Misra et al, 2002) 23 • operating with a flow rate of 9 L min⁻¹ at a pressure drop of 11 inches of H₂O (2.7 kPa). 24 Particles can be separated in the following aerodynamic particle diameter ranges: <0.25; 25 26 0.25 to 0.5; 0.5 to 1.0; 1.0 to 2.5; and >2.5 μ m. The collection substrates were 37 mm 27 PTFE filters (Pall) in Prague or quartz fibre filters (Pall) in Barcelona for the $< 0.25 \,\mu m$ 28 filter stage, and 25 mm PTFE filters (Pall) for the 0.25-2.5 µm and >2.5µm impactor stages. Two of the PCIS deployed in Prague separated particle mass in all of the 5 size 29 30 fractions while another unit collected particles only at 3 of the stages ($< 0.25 \mu m$; 0.25-2.5 μ m and >2.5 μ m). In order to facilitate interpretation of the data, a lower cut diameter of 31 30 nm was assumed for the last filter stage of particles $< 0.25 \,\mu\text{m}$ (quasi-UFP). 32

1 All the cascade impactors were loaded with uncoated substrates to avoid possible 2 interferences in future chemical analysis (mainly, determination of organics), so the particle 3 bounce that might occur during dry collection has to be considered excepting for the case of 4 BLPI which foils were coated with a thin layer of vacuum grease (Apiezon L, Apiezon 5 products, M&I Materials Ltd, Manchester, England) to ensure adherence of deposited 6 particles and reduce the artefact of bounce.

For the Prague winter intercomparison, the abovementioned six different impactors were 7 deployed simultaneously in both outdoor and indoor sampling periods. The cascade impactors 8 and their inlets were positioned outside above the roof of ICPF building, 285 m.a.s.l. The 9 10 nano-Moudi, in order to protect its electrical components, was kept inside an air-conditioned 11 cabin with a temperature continually lower than 20°C and a metal pipe (about 300 cm long) was extended through the roof of the building. With regard to indoor sampling, the impactors 12 were placed inside Laboratory of Aerosol Chemistry and Physics experimental hall on the 2nd 13 floor where office and other experimental activities take place. In both campaigns (indoor and 14 15 outdoor), the pump exhausts were extended far of the sampling spots in order to avoid sampling artefacts. 16

17 For the Barcelona summer intercomparison, the same cascade impactors were deployed 18 (except for the PCIS) at the urban background monitoring site located in IDAEA-CSIC (78 19 m.a.s.l; South West part of the city) within the University Campus and they were positioned 20 under a plastic shelter to protect them from rain while allowing free ventilation. All the 21 impactor pumps were placed 5 m distance from the impactors whilst long tubes (10 m) were 22 connected to the exhausts to avoid contamination of the samples.

The error in the sampling flow rate and sampled volume in both campaigns was < 5%. Thus, it is assumed that flow rates did not affect the particle size cut-offs. The uncertainty in the particle mass concentration determination was < 15% except in some cases for the smallest stages of nano-BLPI and nano-Moudi impactor which reached mass value deviations > 20 % (standard deviation).

The specifications of the campaigns and the impactors deployed in the intercomparison study are summarized in Table 1. The BLPI was used as internal reference for the size distribution in this study as it was calibrated with the method described by Hillamo and Kauppinen (1991) for the fine stages and by Štefancová *et al.* (2011) for coarse stages. For the intercomparison,

32 the modal pattern of aerosol mass size distribution was divided into four size groups: (i) PM_{10}

2 3 4

supplementary information.

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Table 1. Impactors deployed in Prague and Barcelona and their specifications.

 $(D_p < 10 \ \mu\text{m}), (ii) PM_2 (D_p < 2 \ \mu\text{m}), (iii) PM_1 (D_p < 1 \ \mu\text{m}) and (iv) PM_{0.25} (D_p < 0.25 \ \mu\text{m}) particles.$

Approximate lower cut points for those selected size fractions are shown in Table S2 in the

Impactor BLPI type		nano-BLPI	nano-Moudi	PCIS (5 stages) ^c	PCIS (3 stages) ^d		
Number of	5x outdoor (3x weekend-days + 2x week-days)	eekend-days + weekend-days +		5x outdoor (3x weekend-days + 2x week-days)	5x outdoor (3x weekend-days + 2x week-days)		
samplings in Prague	2 x indoor (1xweekend- days + 1x week- days)	2 x indoor (1xweekend- days + 1x week- days)	2 x indoor (1xweekend- days + 1x week- days)	2 x indoor (1xweekend-days + 1x week-days)	2 x indoor (1xweekend- days + 1x week-days)		
Number of samplings in in Barcelona	4 x outdoor (4 x week-days)	4 x outdoor (4 x week-days)	4 x outdoor (4 x week-days)	N/A	N/A		
Flow rate $(L \min^{-1})^a$	24.8	17.2	10	9	9		
Sampling substrates	PET foils (MYLAR) 13 μm thick	PET foils (MYLAR) 13 μm thick	PTFE 47 mm	37 mm PTFE filters (Pall) < 0.25 μ m stage and 25 mm PTFE filters (Pall) for the 0.25-2.5 μ m and 2.5-10 μ m stages	37 mm quartz-fibre filters (Pall) < 0.25 μ m stage and 25 mm PTFE filters (Pall) for the 0.25-2.5 μ m and >2.5 μ m stages		
Nº Stages	10	8	13	5	3		
Lower cut sizes $(\mu m)^{b}$	0.026	0.011	0.01	0.03	0.03		
	0.056	0.024	0.018	0.25	0.25		
	0.10	0.039	0.032	0.50	2.50		
	0.16	0.062	0.056	1.00			
	0.25	0.095	0.10	2.50			
	0.43	0.24	0.18				
	0.86	0.49	0.32				
	1.73	1.0	0.56				
	3.42		1.00				
	6.61		1.80				
			3.20				
			5.60 10				
Inlet cut- point (µm)	14	1.95	10	10	>2.5		

6 7 ^a Volumetric flow rate at 20°C and ambient pressure

^b All sizes are aerodynamic equivalent diameters

 $^{\rm c}$ Two units deployed; A cyclone was installed ahead which cut PM_{10} 8

^d One single unit deployed 9

10 N/A - Not available

2.3 Sample conservation and gravimetric analysis 11

12 Particle mass concentrations on impactor substrates were gravimetrically determined by pre-

and post-weighing the Mylar foils and filters (PTFE and quartz fiber) with a Sartorius M5P-13

14 000V001 electronic microbalance in Prague and a Mettler MT5 electronic microbalance in 1 Barcelona, both with a $\pm 1 \mu g$ sensitivity. Blank samples (1 per sample) were collected per 2 each impactor type in both intercomparison (Prague and Barcelona) for each of the sampling 3 periods. The deviation of mass values due to varying conditions was corrected with the help 4 of the corresponding blanks.

5 All samples were equilibrated for a period of 24 hours before weighing in a temperature and 6 relative humidity controlled room (20.0 \pm 0.2 °C; 45.4 \pm 0.6 % RH). The electrostatic charges 7 of the filters were removed using an U-shaped electrostatic neutralizer (Haug, type PRX U) in 8 Prague and a zerostat anti-static instrument (Z108812-1EA, Sigma-Aldrich Co. LLC.) in 9 Barcelona. Each sample was weighed three times with an accuracy of mass determination of \pm 10 2 µg. After weighing, the sampled foils and filters were stored in the freezer at -18 °C.

11 **2.4** Ion chromatography analysis

12 Ion chromatography analysis were only carried out for the Prague samples and for the BLPI, 13 nano-BLPI and nano-Moudi impactors with the aim to support the interpretation of the 14 particle mass size distributions data. The PCIS filters were not analysed due to the differences 15 observed for the finest size fraction with the other impactors, as will be discussed below.

The whole nano-Moudi impactor samples were extracted in 7 ml of ultrapure water. In case of 16 17 the Berner impactors, approximately 1/3 of each foil with samples from each stage was cut out and number of aerosol spots on cut piece was calculated. The ratio between cut and total 18 19 number of spots at each impactor stage was used to recalculate results to overall ion amount on each stage. All samples were then extracted with 7 ml of ultrapure water, sonicated for 30 20 min in ultrasonic bath and shaken for 1 hour using a shaker. The extracts were then analyzed 21 using a Dionex 5000 system both for cations (Na⁺, NH₄⁺, K⁺, Ca²⁺ and Mg²⁺) and anions 22 (SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻, Cl⁻) in parallel. An IonPac AS11-HC 2 x 250 mm column was used for anions 23 using hydroxide eluent, IonPac CS18 2 x 250 mm for cations using methane sulfonic acid 24 25 solution as an eluent. Both anion and cation set-up were equipped with electrochemical suppressors. External calibration was done using NIST traceable calibration solutions. 26

1 3 Results

2 3.1 Meteorological data and mean aerosol concentrations in outdoor air

3 Table 2 displays the meteorological data (ambient temperature, relative humidity, ambient 4 pressure and wind speed), the mean and standard deviations $(\pm \sigma)$ of aerosol concentrations for 5 Prague and Barcelona and season during sampling with BLPI.

6 Table 2. Meteorological data and mean daily aerosol concentrations in outdoor air in Prague
7 from 6th to 23rd February 2015 and in in Barcelona from 18th May to 3rd July 2015.

	Sampling site	Temperature (°C)		Relative humidity (RH, %)		Barometric pressure recalculated to sea level (mbar)	Wind Speed (km h ⁻¹)	Mean РМ ₁₄ [*] (µg m ⁻³)	
		Min	Max	Min	Max	icver(initiar)		(µg III)	
	Prague (winter)	-3.4±2.6	3.9±3.3	51±15.4	92±2.1	1023±9.4	12.5±6.6	34.6 ± 15.8	
	Barcelona (summer)	18±3.3	26±3.3	39±9.9	85±7.1	1018±3.1	12±2.6	15.2 ± 2.1	

8 During the winter campaign in outdoor air from 6th to 23rd February 2015 in Prague, the daily
9 maximum average temperature was 3.9±3.3 °C and the minimum average temperature was -

10 3.4 ± 2.6 °C. The relative humidity varied in the range of 51-92% from day to day.

As expected, higher temperatures during summer were monitored in Barcelona from 18th May 11 to 3rd July 2015 (minimum of 18±3 °C and maximum of 26±3 °C). However, slightly lower 12 13 RH (minimum of 39±10 % and maximum of 85±7%), similar pressure (1018±3 mbar) and wind speed $(12\pm3 \text{ km h}^{-1})$ values were recorded. The results imply that aqueous particles may 14 have been collected on an impaction stage different from the stage where they ought to be 15 collected due to the flow-induced relative humidity changes during the day (Fang et al., 1991; 16 Stefancová *et al.*, 2010). Aqueous particles can shrink due to evaporation caused by pressure 17 drop through the impactor and/or grow due to condensation caused by aerodynamic cooling. 18 19 Also, a distortion of the size distribution due to bounce off should not be neglected for Barcelona given that foils were not greased prior to sampling. bounce-off should not be 20 neglected for Barcelona in the nano-BLPI, nano-Moudi and PCIS given that foils were not 21 greased prior to sampling. The same artefact is not expected to occur during winter in Prague 22 (outdoors). This is supported by previous tests from BLPI (authors' unpublished data) 23

showing no difference between two identical impactors when one of them used greased foils
 and the other one ungreased foils in winter conditions.

In Prague, the mean PM_{14} mass concentration measured outdoors (with BLPI) was 34.6 \pm 3 15.8 μ g m⁻³ whilst in Barcelona (with BLPI) it was 15.2 ± 2.1 μ g m⁻³ (Table 2), in <u>a similar</u> 4 order of magnitude than-as during previous results from agreement with previous results from 5 2008 winter campaign in ICPF (Schwarz et al. 2012; PM₁₄=34 µg m⁻³) and of the same order 6 of magnitude as PM₁₀ from aduring a 2014 summer campaign in the monitoring station at 7 IDAEA-CSIC ($PM_{10}=19.6 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$). The reason of higher averages of particle mass 8 concentrations in winter in Prague than in summer in Barcelona are due to higher emissions 9 10 (mainly due to coal and biomass burning used for residential heating) and meteorological 11 conditions such as the lower mixing heights of the boundary layer or even temperature inversions occurring in Prague (Schwarz et al., 2012). 12

13 3.2 Average particle mass concentrations per stage for the different impactors

14 To estimate the cumulative mass concentration for the different size ranges in each of the 15 impactors, the integrated curve of the measured particle mass size distributions was 16 determined by Eq. 1:

17
$$M_i = M_{i-1} + \int_{D_{pi-1}}^{D_{pi}} \frac{dM}{dlogD_p} \times dlogD_p \qquad \text{Eq. (1)}$$

18 Where, M_i is the estimated mass concentration for each impactor stage *i*, D_{pi-1} and D_{pi} are 19 respectively the lower and upper cut-off diameters of the impactor stage *i*

20 The cumulative curves of the particle mass size distributions from Prague (indoor and 21 outdoor) and Barcelona are shown in Figures 1 and 2, respectively.

Results show that the nano-BLPI behaved similarly to the internal reference considered for this work (BLPI), especially for particles larger than 250 nm. Outdoors and indoors, the nano-Moudi was in agreement with the BLPI for particles larger than 320 nm (independent of the aerosol load and type). However, for particles below 320 nm, the particle mass concentration of the nano-Moudi tended to be higher than for the BLPI, especially during winter in Prague. In indoor air, the nano-Moudi cumulative curve of the mass size distributions was closer to the curve obtained for the BLPI impactor.

29 While in Prague, the nano-Moudi mass size distributions for particles >1 μ m were lower than 30 the rest of the impactors, in Barcelona, this trend was not so evident (Figure 1 and 2). This

1 different behaviour could be ascribed to a number of causes: (a) in outdoor air the effect of 2 particle bounce and/or the shrinkage of semi volatile compounds may have caused a shift in 3 particle mass towards the lower sizes of the nano-Moudi, especially in winter in Prague resulting in higher concentrations for particles below 320 nm; and/or (b) indoors, the 4 5 mechanism of the nano-Moudi of spreading the sample (rotating plates) and also the heat generated from the sensor board of nano-Moudi, with the increase in temperature, both in 6 7 air and inside indoor the nano-Moudi shellcabinet, could favour particle dissociation/evaporation from the PTFE filters and thus result in lower mass loads across the 8 lower size ranges, and thus the nano-Moudi curve would appear to be closer to the internal 9 10reference BLPI. This effect would not be so prominent in outdoor air, given that the instrument does not reach such temperature increments since it was kept inside an air-11 conditioned cabin with a temperature continually lower than 20°C while indoors, the 12 temperature was continually higher than 23°C. For one sampling exercise outdoors, in Prague, 13 14 the instrument's temperature shown on nano-Moudi cabinet's screen increased from 18.8 °C up to 26.6 °C after 4 hours sampling, and then increased up to 31.6 °C at the end of one of the 15 16 sampling periods (3 days sampling; 72h). The temperature increase (both indoors and 17 outdoors) was significant and able to explain dissociation of ammonium nitrate which increases progressively with increasing temperature (Allen et al., 1989; Stelson and Seinfeld, 18 1982; Talbot et al., 2016). Ammonium chloride is known to behave similarly (Pio and 19 Harrison, 1987a,b; Allen et al., 1989). Nie et al. (2010) also attributed the loss of volatile 20compounds to the increase of the temperature inside the MOUDI.- However, nitrate 21 concentrations were low in indoor air (see sections below), and therefore the volatilization of 22 this species would have had a low impact on particle mass (leaving only the organic fraction 23 24 to account for this). Further research is necessary to clarify the different behaviours observed.

The size-fractionated average mass concentrations ($PM_{0.25}$, PM_1 , PM_2 and PM_{10}) collected by each impactor along with standard errors deviation ($\pm \sigma$) in the respective size fractions, using data from a total of 5 experiments outdoors and 2 indoors in Prague, and a total of 4 valid samples outdoors in Barcelona are summarised in Figure 3. Approximate cut points for the selected size fractions are shown in Table S2 in the supporting information. However, it is important to take into account that some differences in the results could be partially attributed to the differences in the real cut points for the selected size fractions.

The average PM₁₄ mass concentrations and corresponding standard deviation obtained using 1 the internal reference (BLPI) -in Prague outdoors were $34.6 \pm 15.8 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$. In Barcelona, the 2 PM_{14} mass concentrations and standard deviation in summer were 15.2 ± 2.1 µg m⁻³. 3 Comparison of independent data from Grimm laser spectrometer (corrected with high volume 4 5 samplingsampler) and the impactors with PM₁ and PM₁₀ size cuts, was carried out for the outdoor campaign in Barcelona (4 samples). A slope of 0.98 and a R^2 of 0.7 was obtained for 6 the PM₁₄ for BLPI with PM₁₀ from an online laser spectrometer (corrected with regard to 7 reference instrumentation) whereas for PM₁, a slope of 0.7 and a better fit of the data was 8 obtained (R^2 =0.9). Similarly to BLPI, the nano-BLPI shows a slope of 0.7 and a R^2 of 1 for 9 the cut point PM1. The mass differences detected for PM1 suggest that impactors sampling 10 artefacts such as particle blow off, particle wall losses and/or particle bounce occurred. 11

12 <u>Finally, the portable PCIS were only used in Prague during winter given the differences</u> 13 <u>obtained with regard to the BLPI for the quasi-ultrafine size mode (<250 nm; $PM_{0.25}$). A</u>

14 similar pattern was observed for indoor air, although with a relatively smaller difference. A

15 possible reason for the discrepancies observed regarding the $PM_{0.25}$ fraction could be ascribed

16 to the different pressure drops across the impactor stages originating from different flow rates

17 (e.g., PCIS 9 L min⁻⁴ vs. BLPI 24.8 L min⁻⁴). The higher pressure drop in the stationary

18 impactors (e.g., BLPI) may increase the probability of volatilisation of semi-volatile species

19 during prolonged sampling, and could contribute to an underestimation of the $PM_{0.25}$ when

- 20 compared to the PCIS (Sioutas, 2004).
- 21 The differences with regard to the coarse fractions were much smaller when compared to the

22 quasi-UFP fractions. In outdoor air, the PCIS showed consistently higher concentrations for

23 particles larger than 1 µm. Similar results were reported by Sioutas (2004) where an average

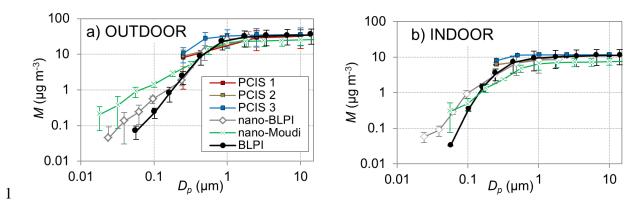
ratio PCIS to Moudi (Model 110, MSP Corp, Minneapolis, MN) of 2.02 (\pm 0.59) and 1.21 (\pm

25 0.35) was reported for an aerodynamic size range $< 0.25 \mu m$ and 2.5-1 μm , respectively.

26 <u>However, in indoor air a consistently underestimation, was observed for an aerodynamic size</u>

27 <u>range 1-10 μm.</u>

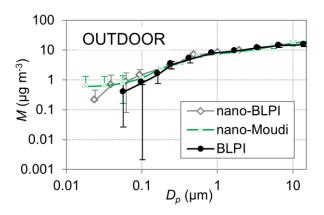
- 28 In summary, for the aerosols and sampling conditions in this work, the PCIS provided
- 29 <u>comparable size-resolved mass concentrations for particles > 1 μ m while the cut-off at 250</u>
- 30 nm did not seem to be consistent with the internal reference BLPI. In order to fully
- 31 <u>understand these phenomena, a more systematic evaluation might be required. For this reason,</u>
- 32 data from PCIS will not be discussed in the following sections.



2 Figure 1. Cumulative mass concentrations measured by the six impactors in Prague: (a) 3 outdoors and (b) indoors. Error bars indicate the standard deviation $(\pm \sigma)$.

4

5



6 Figure 2. Cumulative mass concentrations measured by the three impactors in Barcelona, 7 outdoors. Error bars indicate the standard deviation $(\pm \sigma)$.

8 As shown in Figure 3, the largest relative difference between the average mass concentrations 9 with the three impactors (PCIS, nano-BLPI and nano-Moudi) and the internal collected reference (BLPI) was calculated for the PM_{0.25}-size fraction measured outdoors in Prague by 10PCIS and nano-Moudi, when concentrations were larger by 354 and 126 %, respectively. The 11 12 best agreement between the three impactors and the internal reference was obtained in the 13 Barcelona summer campaign. Intercomparisons between the nano-BLPI impactor and the reference BLPI indicate an overall 14 15 good agreement with absolute differences in mass concentrations per size fraction being 16 <30%, independent of the aerosol type. A consistent underestimation of the particle mass 17 concentrations for the PM_{0.25} size fractions was obtained with the nano-BLPI for all campaigns and locations (Figure 3). This consistent underestimation was in the order of 5 and 18 22% outdoors in Barcelona and Prague, respectively, and 10% indoors in Prague, for PM_{0.25}. 19

As for PM₁, a slight overestimation of mass concentrations with regard to the BLPI was
 obtained by the nano-BLPI in both sampling campaigns outdoors. The largest deviation in this
 size fraction was obtained in Prague outdoors (15%) whereas the smallest difference was
 obtained in Barcelona (5%). Similar to the PM_{0.25} fraction, the PM₁ and PM₂ concentrations
 obtained indoors by the nano BLPI were lower (12 and 15%, respectively) than those of the
 BLPI.

7 As for the nano Moudi, it consistently measured lower PM_1 and PM_2 concentrations in all 8 campaigns (max difference obtained indoors for $PM_1 = 31\%$ and $PM_2 = 30\%$). These 9 differences can be explained by the difference in the cut points given that PM_1 and PM_2 10 fractions from the BLPI are actually 0.86 µm and 1.7 µm, respectively. For quasi-UFP mass 11 concentrations were significantly higher (126%) in Prague outdoors, whereas the 12 disagreement with the BLPI was reduced in Barcelona outdoors (14%). Finally, in indoor air, 13 concentrations registered by the nano Moudi were lower (30%) than the BLPI, in Prague.

14 Finally, the portable PCIS were only used in Prague during winter given the differences obtained with regard to the BLPI for the quasi-ultrafine size mode PM_{0.25} (354%). A similar 15 16 pattern was observed for indoor air, although with a relatively smaller, but still high 17 difference (75%). A possible reason for the discrepancies observed regarding the PM_{0.25} 18 fraction could be ascribed to the different pressure drops across the impactor stages originating from different flow rates (e.g., PCIS 9 L min⁻¹ vs. BLPI 24.8 L min⁻¹). The higher 19 20 pressure drop in the stationary impactors (e.g., BLPI) may increase the probability of 21volatilisation of semi-volatile species during prolonged sampling, and could contribute to an underestimation of the PM_{0.25} when compared to the PCIS (Sioutas, 2004). 22

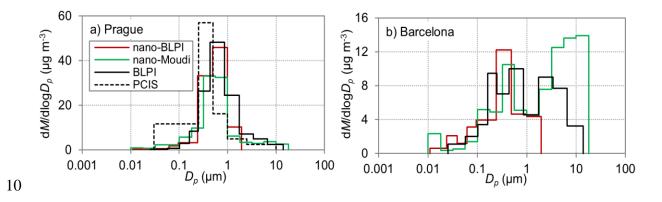
23 The differences with regard to the coarse fractions were much smaller when compared to the quasi-UFP fractions ($<[\pm 42\%]$ and $<[\pm 27\%]$ in outdoors and indoors, respectively). In 24 outdoor air, the PCIS showed consistently higher PM₁, PM₂ and PM₁₀ concentrations (42, 14 25 26and 4%, respectively). Similar results were reported by Sioutas (2004) where an average ratio 27 PCIS to Moudi (Model 110, MSP Corp, Minneapolis, MN) of 2.02 (± 0.59) and 1.21 (± 0.35) was reported for an aerodynamic size range $< 0.25 \mu m$ and $2.5 - 1 \mu m$, respectively. However, 2829 in indoor air a consistently underestimation (12, 16 and 21 % for PM₁, PM₂ and PM₁₀), was 30 observed.

In summary, for the aerosols and sampling conditions in this work, the PCIS provided
 comparable size-resolved mass concentrations for PM₁, PM₂ and PM₁₀ while the cut-off at
 250 nm did not seem to be consistent with the internal reference BLPI. In order to fully
 understand these phenomena, a more systematic evaluation might be required. For this reason,
 data from PCIS will not be discussed in the following sections.

6 3.3 Aerosol mass size distributions

7 3.3.1 Particle size distribution in outdoor air

8 The average particle mass size distributions obtained in the outdoor intercomparison study9 (Prague and Barcelona) can be found in Figure 3.



11 Figure 3. Average mass size distributions obtained outdoors: (a) winter in Prague and (b)
12 summer in Barcelona.

As can be seen, the particle mass size distributions are very different depending on the season 13 14 and sampling location. During winter in Prague (outdoors), the mass size distributions have a predominantly fine mode, with the coarse mode being almost negligible (by all impactors). 15 16 The maximum mass concentration obtained in the fine size fraction mode was between 0.4-0.9 µm, whereas in summer in Barcelona, this maximum was shifted towards smaller size 17 fractions between 0.2 and 0.4 µm. In addition to the different aerosol types, this shift to lower 18 sizes might be caused by a lower average relative humidity during sampling in Barcelona that 19 20 could have caused the particle drying (Tables 2) and therefore, be a reason for particle bounce (Fang et al., 1991; Štefancová et al., 2010). In Prague (outdoors), particle bounce had a 21 22 negligible effect because high RH was recorded. This is importantIn the same time as only few coarse particles were present and at the same time the high share of primary, less 23 oxygenated organics was found (Kubelová et al., 2015; Vodička et al., 2013). Although it is 24

1 known that RH is lowered at each stage of any cascade impactor due to kinetic effects and to 2 short time of flight between the nozzle and the impaction plate, this decrease is only moderate 3 for the first stages. For example, the pressure below stage 6 of the BLPI which corresponds to particles as smaller thanas 440 nm is only 6% lower than ambient. A similar value is found 4 5 for nano-BLPI for equivalent stage. The nano-Moudi has even smaller pressure drops at equivalent stages. The drying becomes important for lower stages, howeverIndeed, it is 6 7 known that kinetic effect limiting drying of particles would be more pronounced at lower 8 temperatures in winter due to lower equilibrium water vapor pressure. and drying of particles 9 can occur. In any case, atmospheric particles in thise size range below 250 nm are comprised 10 mostly of organics, especially in winter (see e.g Kubelová et al, 2015). These fractions of organics are often of semiliquid nature and this fact efficiently prevents bounce. 11

12 While in Prague during winter the coarse mode was mostly insignificant, in Barcelona during 13 summer the mass size distributions were clearly bimodal, with larger coarse mode 14 concentrations (Figure 3). The coarse mode obtained may be due to mineral and marine 15 aerosol contributions in the study area (Querol *et al.*, 2008).

16 The majority of mass concentrations were found in the accumulation mode (PM₁) for both 17 campaigns ($7.9 \pm 0.7 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$ and $22.9 \pm 9.8 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$ according the internal reference BLPI in 18 summer Barcelona and winter Prague, respectively). With the increase in mass there was an 19 increase in agreement between the impactors, where the closest agreement was observed 20 (between 200-600 nm) (Figure 3).

Figure 3 reveals that the nano-Moudi recorded higher particle mass concentrations in the 21 ultrafine range (<100 nm) than the reference BLPI during winter in Prague (5 samples in total 22 23 outdoors). Although differences were smaller, the same is true for the Barcelona summer campaign (4-week sampling4 samples in total, Figure 3). As previously mentioned, to protect 24 the electrical components of the nano-Moudi during winter campaign in Prague outdoors, it 25 26 was kept inside a climate controlled cabin with a temperature continually lower than 20°C. At these temperatures dissociation of ammonium nitrate can still occur at a slow rate (Smolík et 27 al., 2008). In addition, during the sampling, an increase of temperature inside the nano-Moudi 28 29 shell-cabinet was detected due to the internal mechanism of spreading the sample (rotating 30 plates) and the electric current in the sensor board which generates heat. It is therefore likely that the internal temperature in the nano-Moudi (always >30 °C) was higher than that of the 31 cabin (<20 °C) and thus led to particle volatilisation (Štefancová et al., 2010). The lower 32

1 nitrate and chloride concentrations in the accumulation mode on the nano-Moudi filters (see below) would support this interpretation. It is also known that a 5°C difference between the 2 PTFE filter (of the type used in the nano-Moudi) and sampling temperature may accelerate 3 the dissociation of ammonium nitrate on PTFE filters up to 20% (Hering and Cass, 1999). 4 The BLPI and nano-BLPI have no internal warming mechanisms and were located outdoors 5 in Prague and Barcelona, so it is expected that lower volatilisation would occur in these 6 scenarios. However, drying of particles before they are deposited on a substrate may happen 7 8 also in the BLPI and nano-BLPI due to lower residence time and higher pressure drops_-(at 9 equivalent sizes) and despite lower residence times in comparison with the nano-Moudi. This would increase the driving force for evaporation at those stages, which would encourage 10 particle shrinkage. However the situation is more complicated while a particle is incorporated 11 into a deposit of particles where other processes like diffusion in semiliquid mixture of other 12organics or Raoult's law play their roles. This process anyhow-influences the measured 13 concentrations and therefore the impactors comparison. 14

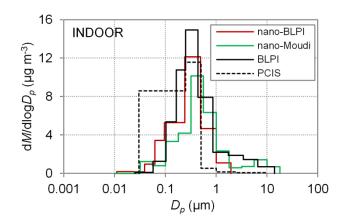
Furthermore, decomposition of ammonium nitrate and chloride, is probably also enhanced in 15 the nano-Moudi due to the spreading of the sample on the whole filter surface, in comparison 16 17with thick individual spots of material obtained with the BLPI and nano-BLPI impactors. All these previous facts (temperature, RH, high surface area) appear to enhance the evaporation of 18 19 semi-volatiles (and dissociation of ammonium nitrate) and therefore particle shrinkage during transport through the nano-Moudi explaining the mass size distributions from the nano-Moudi 2021 being skewed towards smaller particle fractions during the Barcelona and Prague campaigns 22 (Figure 3). Also, the residence time of particles inside the nano-Moudi low pressure stages is longer due to the lower volumetric flow rate in this instrument. All of this could thus explain 23 the mass size distributions from the nano-Moudi being skewed towards smaller particle 24 25 fractions during the Barcelona and Prague campaigns (Figure 3). It should be stated that the rotation of the impaction plates and the nozzle plates of the nano-Moudi was specifically 26 designed to achieve a uniform deposit on the collection substrates and therefore, eradicate the 27 particle bounce-off artefact (Marple et al., 2014) that may otherwise occur. Particle bounce-28 29 off would only be expected when collecting particles in dry conditions such as in Barcelona 30 (< 50% RH) (Table 2) or indoors. Finally, the overall internal volumes in the low pressure stages seem similar in all of the impactors tested; however, this would need experimental 31 32 confirmation.

1 3.3.2 Particle size distribution in indoor air

2 In Prague, indoor concentrations were lower than outdoors mainly due to a change in weather conditions resulting in cleaner air masses during sampling periods (Figure 3 and Figure 4). 3 Reduced penetration efficiency and faster settling times probably explain the lower indoor 4 5 coarse mode mass obtained (Figure 4; Hussein et al, 2007). Once again, the nano-BLPI 6 measured similar mass concentrations to the reference BLPI while the nano-Moudi recorded 7 notably lower mass from fine to coarse modes. In addition, the nano-Moudi size distribution showed a slight shift towards larger particle sizes (Figure 4). The difference between the 8 BLPIs and the nano-Moudi could suggest that the latter underestimated mass during this 9 10 campaign for all particle cut sizes. Initially this would appear to reduce the possibility of volatility losses being responsible for this difference, as ammonium nitrate dissociates readily 11 indoors thereby causing equal losses to all impactors (Lunden et al., 2003). However, because 12 of the way the sample is spread across the substrate in the nano-Moudi, as described above, 13 the ammonium nitrate collected would be more prone to volatilization than that collected on 14 the other impactors. Therefore it could be considered that the mechanism of the nano-Moudi 15 of spreading the sample (rotating plates), with the increase in temperatures, both indoors and 16 inside the nano-Moudi shellcabinet, could enhance dissociation/evaporation from the nano-17 Moudi PTFE substrates. This conclusion can be supported by Figures 5 and 6, which show 18 19 significantly lower mass concentrations of major species of ammonium nitrate with the nano-Moudi, in comparison with the BLPI. 20

21 A number of sources of uncertainty in this interpretation should be taken into account:

- a) Increased uncertainty in the mass determination due to lower mass concentrations andshorter sampling times
- b) No blank correction available for nano-Moudi IC data
- c) No uncertainty calculations for mass determinations available for nano-Moudi,
 possibly resulting in negative mass concentrations in the lower stages
- d) Only 2 valid samples available for indoor air (for all impactors)



1 2

Figure 4. Average mass size distributions in Prague during winter in indoor air.

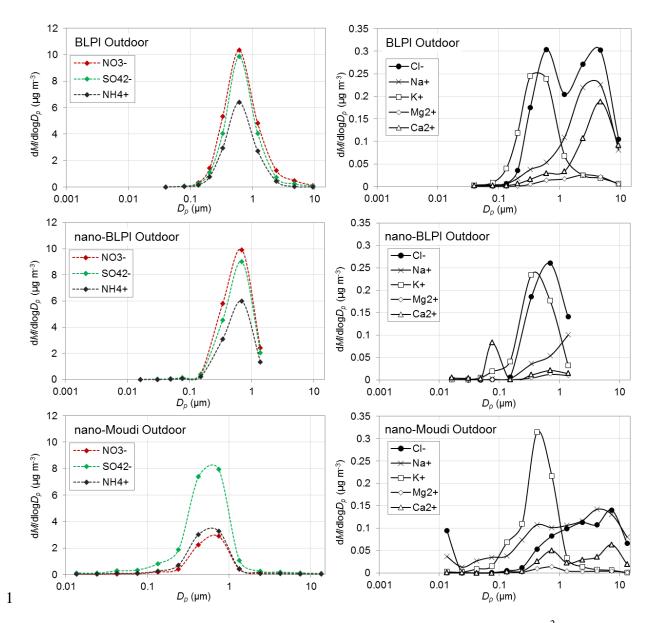
3 3.3.3 Size distribution of inorganic ions

4 Figures 5 and 6 show the particle mass size distributions of major (SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻ and NH₄⁺) and
5 minor (Cl⁻, Na⁺, K⁺, Mg²⁺ and Ca²⁺) aerosol constituents for the winter campaign in Prague in
6 outdoor and indoor air, respectively. Corresponding actual mean values for mass concentra7 tions for all of the ions analyzed for each of the environments (indoor and outdoor) in Prague,
8 are shown in Table S2 of the supplementary information. The uncertainty of the blanks is also
9 included in the Table S2.

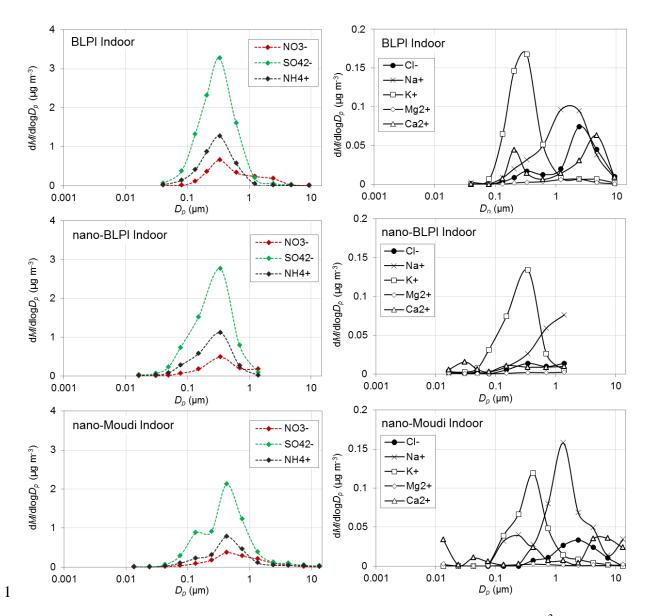
10 In the winter in Prague, the mass size distributions of components have a predominantly fine 11 mode (< 1 μ m), with the coarse mode being almost negligible in winter in Prague (by all 12 impactors) but highly significant in Barcelona during summer, such as the case for BLPI.

While the fine mode was dominant for the particle mass concentration and all the 13 predominant aerosol constituents $(SO_4^{2-}, NO_3^{-} \text{ and } NH_4^{+})$ for both indoor and outdoor air 14 during winter in Prague, the average mass size distributions for minor species (Cl⁻, Na⁺, K⁺, 15 Mg^{2+} and Ca^{2+}), were clearly multimodal (Figures 5 and 6). Similar mass size distributions of 16 these species were obtained by the nano-BLPI and the reference BLPI both outdoors and 17 indoors in Prague. However marked differences in the mass size distributions of these species 18 were observed with the nano-Moudi impactor. In outdoor air there is a clear decrease of NO_3 19 and NH_4^+ -concentrations measured with the nano-Moudi ($PM_{10} = 1.7 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$; Table S2), 2021 confirming the interpretations provided in the previous sections. The same is valid for fine 22 chlorides that are missing on same nano-Moudi samples showing ammonium chloride evaporation (NH₄Cl). Nitrates present indoors (due to indoor ammonium nitrate dissociation; 23 Allen et al., 1989; Stelson and Seinfeld, 1982; Talbot et al., 2016) are influenced by other 24

species different to ammonium salts (e.g. sodium or potassium nitrate) that are not prone to 1 2 dissociation. For this reason, the difference between nano-Moudi and the other impactors 3 indoors (Figure 6) was much smaller compared to outdoors (Figure 5). The lower sulphate and mass concentration on nano-Moudi indoor samples were caused by other factors (possibly 4 bounce) given that average RH indoors in winter was low (21%). In addition, outdoors in 5 Prague, the mass size distributions obtained by the BLPI showed that Ca²⁺, Na⁺ and Mg²⁺ 6 were dominated by coarse modes and for the case of K^+ , the fine mode is the dominant one 7 (suggesting biomass combustion as a possible emission source). As for Cl⁻, the mass size 8 9 distributions were clearly bimodal. The nano-Moudi outdoors had different size distributions from the BLPI for Cl⁻, Na⁺, Ca²⁺ and Mg²⁺. Only for K⁺ the size distribution is similar. Mass 10 size distributions of Cl⁻ and Na⁺ may have been influenced by filter contamination. The Ca²⁺ 11 peak detected at around 100 nm obtained by the nano-BLPI in outdoor air may possibly be 12 ascribed also to filter contamination, although no specific data are available to support this 13 14 interpretation. Similar peaks at 10 and 50 nm were observed indoors with the nano-Moudi and nano-BLPI which may suggest bounce, contamination or blank variability. 15



2 Figure 5. Average mass size distributions for different ionic species (left: $SO_4^{2^-}$, NO_3^- and 3 NH_4^+ and right: Cl⁻, Na^+ , K^+ , Mg^{2^+} and Ca^{2^+}) during winter in outdoor air in Prague.



2 Figure 6. Average mass size distributions for different ionic species (left: $SO_4^{2^-}$, NO_3^{-} and 3 NH_4^+ and right: Cl⁻, Na^+ , K^+ , Mg^{2+} and Ca^{2+}) during winter in indoor air in Prague.

4 4 Conclusions

5 This work aimed to assess the performance of four conventional and nano-range impactors, 6 by means of two intercomparison exercises in Prague, during winter 2015 and in Barcelona 7 during summer 2015. The aim of the campaigns was to test the instruments' performance with 8 regard to the particle mass size distributions under different aerosol compositions resulting 9 from different emission sources, meteorology, seasons, and air mass origins. All the cascade 10 impactors were loaded with uncoated substrates excepting for the case of BLPI which foils 11 were coated.

1 Taking the BLPI as an internal reference, the best agreement regarding mass size distributions was obtained with the nano-BLPI, especially for particles larger than 250 nm. The nano-2 Moudi showed a good agreement for particle sizes >320 nm, whereas for particle diameters 3 <320 nm this instrument recorded larger mass concentrations than the internal reference. 4 5 Different particle effects may have caused the differences regarding particle mass concentrations collected in indoor and outdoor air by the nano-Moudi. Particle volatilisation 6 7 may have occurred due to the internal rotating mechanisms and the electric current in the 8 sensor board of nano-Moudi which heat the impactor casing up. Decomposition of ammonium nitrate and chloride, as evidenced by the lower nitrate and chloride concentrations 9 in the accumulation mode, is probably also enhanced in the nano-Moudi due to the spreading 10 of the sample on the whole filter surface, in comparison with thick individual spots of 11 material obtained with the BLPI and nano-BLPI impactors. Further research is needed to 12 13 clarify this issue. With regard to the PCIS, their size-resolved mass concentrations were comparable with other impactors for PM_1 , PM_2 and PM_{10} , but the cut-off at 0.25 µm was not 14 consistent with that of the internal reference. 15

In Barcelona, the sampling took place under dry conditions (< 50% RH) and thus, particle
bounce would be expected since some particles (depending on composition) could get dry.
Inversely, bounce can be probably neglected for the Prague outdoor intercomparison since the
RH was always >50 % indicating the presence of droplet aerosols that tend to adhere to the
impaction substrate. To avoid such an effect impactor substrates should always be greased
especially in areas with low humidity.

Aerosol mass size distributions were assessed for the Prague and Barcelona campaigns. During winter in Prague (outdoors), the mass size distributions showed a predominantly fine mode, with the coarse mode being almost negligible (by all impactors). However, in Barcelona, the coarse size fractions showed larger mass concentrations, evidencing the higher influence of mineral and marine aerosols.

This study concludes that comparability between the different types of impactors assessed was dependent on particle size. <u>Different performances when challenged with secondary</u> <u>aerosols (due to volatilization) with regard to primary aerosols (potential bounce, also</u> <u>affecting secondary inorganics), wereas observed.</u> Specifically, the influence of the differences in impactor construction (number of jets, flow, vapour pressure, etc.) on UFP mass concentrations should be further addressed. In addition, further research is necessary with regard to the particle processes (evaporation, bounce, etc.) behind the differences in
 particle mass observed across size fractions in this study.

3 The conclusions from this work allow us to extract the following recommendations with re4 gard to ultrafine particle sampling with cascade impactors:

- To avoid particle bounce and increase the accuracy of the size cuts, impactor substrates
 should be greased especially in areas and seasons with low humidity.
- Detailed assessments of the sampling duration should be carried out to allow sufficient
 collection of material on each stage for adequate quantification without overloading the
 upper collection stages. Common approaches to avoid particle overloading include using
 multiple-orifice collection stages, and rotating collection substrates (Marple et al., 2014;
 Marple et al., 1991).
- Attention should be paid to volatilization issues during aerosol transport inside the impactors especially with regard to temperature increases associated with internal rotating mechanisms and the electric current in the sensor board of nano-Moudi.
- Attention should also be paid to sample storage, to avoid evaporation of already deposited
 particles that may lead to a decrease of mass on a given stage. This evaporation would
 modify the observed aerosol size distribution, and would affect all impactor types.

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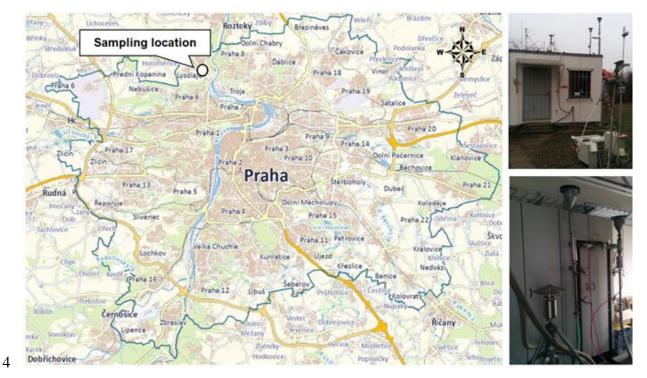
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3 Supplementary information



- 5 Figure S1. Sampling location in Prague and impactors deployed in outdoor (top right) and
- 6 indoor environment (bottom right) (IPR, 2015).



2

3

Figure S2. Sampling location in Barcelona (BcnMap, 2015). Table S1. Design parameters of the stages from nano-BLPI.

Stage number	Lower cut sizes (µm)	Number of nozzles	Nozzle Diameter (mm)
9	1.95	1	3.60
8	1.00	39	0.70
7	0.49	17	0.60
6	0.24	8	0.54
5	0.095	43	0.27
4	0.062	88	0.25
3	0.039	142	0.25
2	0.024	237	0.25
1	0.011	408	0.25

4

5 Table S2. Average mass concentrations for different ionic species during winter in outdoor
6 and indoor air in Prague.

Type of environment	Impactor	Mass ionic species (µg m ⁻³)							
		NO ₃ ⁻	SO4 ²⁻	$\mathrm{NH_4}^+$	Cl	Na^+	\mathbf{K}^+	Mg^{2+}	Ca ²⁺
	BLPI (PM ₁₄)	6.72	5.72	3.78	0.40	0.22	0.20	0.03	0.14
Outdoor	nano-BLPI (PM _{1.95})	5.78	4.99	3.31	0.18	0.06	0.16	0.01	0.03
	nano-Moudi (PM ₁₀)	1.71	5.12	2.06	0.19	0.25	0.20	0.01	0.06
Indoor	BLPI (PM ₁₄)	0.49	2.15	0.78	0.05	0.10	0.10	0.01	0.05

nano-BLPI (PM _{1.95})	0.35	1.93	0.73	0.02	0.05	0.09	0.00	0.02
nano-Moudi (PM10)	0.34	1.53	0.53	0.03	0.13	0.08	0.00	0.05
Blank uncertainty*	1.3×10^{-3}	9.4×10^{-4}	2.0×10^{-4}	3.0×10^{-4}	2.0×10^{-4}	2.0×10^{-4}	1.0×10^{-4}	3.0x10 ⁻⁴

1 * Recalculated per $1m^3$ of air for BLPI for 72 h sampling.