



1	Highly time-resolved urban aerosol characteristics during					
2	springtime in Yangtze River Delta, China: Insights from soot					
3	particle aerosol mass spectrometry					
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Abstract: In this work, the Aerodyne soot particle – aerosol mass spectrometer 28 (SP-AMS) was deployed for the first time during the spring of 2015 in urban Nanjing, 29 a megacity in the Yangtze River Delta (YRD) of China, for online characterization of 30 the submicron aerosols (PM₁). The SP-AMS enables real-time and fast quantification 31 of refractory black carbon (rBC) simultaneously with other non-refractory species 32 (ammonium, sulfate, nitrate, chloride and organics). The average PM₁ concentration 33 was found to be 28.2 μ g m⁻³ (~54% of the PM_{2.5} mass), with organics (45%) as the 34 most abundant component, following by sulfate (19.3%), nitrate (13.6%), ammonium 35 (11.1%), rBC (9.7%) and chloride (1.3%). These PM₁ species together can reconstruct 36 ~44% of the light extinction during this campaign based on the IMPROVE method. 37 Chemically-resolved mass-based size distributions revealed that small particles 38 especially ultrafine ones (<100 nm vacuum aerodynamic diameter) were dominated 39 by organics and rBC, while large particles had significant contributions from 40 41 secondary inorganic species. Source apportionment of organic aerosols (OA) yielded four OA subcomponents, including hydrocarbon-like OA (HOA), cooking-related OA 42 (COA), semi-volatile oxygenated OA (SV-OOA), and low-volatility oxygenated OA 43 44 (LV-OOA). Overall, secondary organic aerosol (SOA, equal to the sum of SV-OOA and LV-OOA) dominated the total OA mass (55.5%), but primary organic aerosol 45 (POA, equal to the sum of HOA and COA) can outweigh SOA in early morning and 46 evening due to enhanced human activities. High OA concentrations were often 47 associated with high mass fractions of POA and rBC, indicating the important role of 48 anthropogenic emissions during heavy pollution events. The diurnal cycles of nitrate, 49 50 chloride and SV-OOA both showed good anti-correlations with air temperatures, suggesting their variations were likely driven by thermodynamic equilibria and 51 gas-to-particle partitioning. On the other hand, in contrast to other species, sulfate and 52 LV-OOA concentrations increased during afternoon, and showed no positive 53 correlations with relative humidity (RH), indicating the significant role of 54 photochemical processing rather than aqueous-phase processing for their formations. 55 The bivariate polar plots show that the SV-OOA was formed locally, and the 56





variations of hydrogen-to-carbon (H/C) and oxygen-to-carbon (O/C) ratios in the Van
Krevelen space further suggests an evolution pathway of SV-OOA to LV-OOA. Our
findings regarding springtime aerosol chemistry in Nanjing may have important
implications for the air quality remediation in the densely populated regions.

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62 **1. Introduction**

In recent years, high concentrations of fine particulate matter (PM2.5) have been 63 frequently observed (Hu et al., 2015), in accompanying with the visibility impairment 64 and occurrence of haze events across large parts of China. PM_{2.5} also affects human 65 health (e.g., Pope and Dockery, 2006;Cao et al., 2012), regional and global climate 66 (directly by absorbing and scattering solar radiation or indirectly by acting as cloud 67 condensation nuclei and ice nuclei)(e.g., Ghan and Schwartz, 2007; Pöschl, 2005), and 68 the earth's ecosystem (Carslaw et al., 2010). These effects are predominantly 69 70 dependent upon the physical and chemical characteristics of fine particles, such as mass concentration, chemical composition, size distribution, and hygroscopicity, all of 71 which are influenced by the emission sources and transformation and evolution 72 73 processes in the atmosphere.

The Yangtze River Delta (YRD) region is one of the most populated and 74 75 economically developed areas in China, but it is also facing with severe air pollution lately. Nanjing, as one of the major megacities in this region, has a daily $PM_{2.5}$ mass 76 concentration varying between 33-234 µg m⁻³ during November 2011 - August 2012, 77 with an mean value of 106 µg m⁻³, which is 4.2 times the WHO air quality standard of 78 25 μg m⁻³ (Shen et al., 2014). PM_{2.5} pollution is significantly elevated during hazy 79 days, for example, a daily average of 282 µg m⁻³ was observed for a heavily polluted 80 day (Fu et al., 2008). A number of studies regarding aerosol chemistry in Nanjing 81 have been conducted, and identified various inorganic components (sulfate, nitrate, 82 ammonium and heavy metals, etc.) (e.g., Wang et al., 2003;Hu et al., 2012) and 83 hundreds of organic species (carboxylic/dicarboxylic acids, amines and amino acids, 84 polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons, etc.) (Wang et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2002; Yang et 85





al., 2005; Wang et al., 2009) that contribute to the aerosol mass. However, past studies
mostly employed filter-based sampling technique, which due to low time resolution (a
few hours to days), is often incapable of capturing details of the atmospheric
evolution processes during the typical lifecycle of aerosols (Wexler and Johnston,
2008). Subsequent offline analyses may also introduce artifacts as some semi-volatile
species can evaporate during sampling and storage (Dong et al., 2012).

On the other hand, in the past 15 years, the Aerodyne Aerosol Mass spectrometer 92 (AMS) (Canagaratna et al., 2007) has been widely used, and was proven to be 93 powerful for real-time online measurements of size-resolved chemical compositions 94 of submicron aerosols (PM₁) with very fine time resolution (seconds to minutes) 95 (Zhang et al., 2007a; Jimenez et al., 2009). The development of Aerodyne AMS began 96 with the invention of quadruple AMS (Q-AMS) (Jayne et al., 2000), following by the 97 compact time-of-flight AMS (C-ToF-AMS) (Drewnick et al., 2005), high resolution 98 99 time-of-flight AMS (HR-ToF-AMS) (DeCarlo et al., 2006) and the soot particle AMS (SP-AMS) (Onasch et al., 2012). There are also an aerosol chemical speciation 100 monitor (ACSM) (Ng et al., 2011) and its updated version of ToF-ACSM (Fröhlich et 101 102 al., 2013), which are in particular designed for long-term unattended aerosol measurements. SP-AMS is the most advanced version, which in principle incorporates 103 104 the single particle soot photometer (SP2) into the HR-ToF-AMS, and upgraded with a laser vaporizer for detecting refractory black carbon (rBC) and associated/coated 105 species that cannot be measured by other types of AMS. 106

Recently, the Aerodyne AMS has been deployed widely in China (particularly 107 108 Beijing) (e.g., Xu et al., 2014 and references therein; Sun et al., 2014; Yeung et al., 2014;Zhang et al., 2014;Li et al., 2015;Shen et al., 2015;Sun et al., 2015a;Sun et al., 109 2015b;Yan et al., 2015;Zhang et al., 2015;Tang et al., 2016;Zhang et al., 2016a;Jiang 110 et al., 2015;Chen et al., 2015;Xu et al., 2015;Du et al., 2015;Sun et al., 2016;Wang et 111 al., 2015; Han et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2016b). However, only a few field campaigns 112 were conducted in the YRD region. Huang et al. (2012b) deployed an HR-ToF-AMS 113 together with an SP2 in Shanghai during the 2010 Shanghai World Expo, and in 114





115 Jiaxing during summer and winter of 2010 (Huang et al., 2012a). In urban Nanjing, an ACSM was applied for characterizing PM₁ during summer and autumn harvest 116 seasons (Zhang et al., 2015), and during December 2013 to investigate a few heavy 117 haze events (Zhang et al., 2016b). In addition, a Q-AMS was deployed in Nanjing to 118 investigate the effects of PM_1 on visibility during January 2013 (Shen et al., 2015). 119 Furthermore, a recent study by Wang et al. (2016a) reported the observation of 120 fullerene soot in suburban Nanjing using an SP-AMS. Nevertheless, many questions 121 remain with regard to aerosol chemistry, sources, and processes in this region. 122 Moreover, none of the previous AMS measurements studied the aerosol 123 characteristics during springtime in Nanjing. For these reasons, we reports in this 124 work, for the first time, the real-time measurement results on urban fine aerosols in 125 Nanjing using the SP-AMS during spring in 2015. The rich high resolution mass 126 spectra (HRMS) data allow us to conduct in-depth analyses, and better understand the 127 128 characteristics, sources and relevant transformation processes of ambient aerosols in 129 Nanjing.

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131 2. Experiments

132 2.1 Sampling site and instrumentation

The field campaign was conducted in the environment monitoring station of Nanjing Olympic center (32°0'33.00"N, 118°44'9.53"E, Fig. S1) from April 13 to 29, 2015. Details of the sampling site are shown in Fig. S1. The site was surrounded by residential buildings, close to a few urban arterial roads (~ 85 m northwest of Huangshan Road, ~ 200 m northeast to Mengdu Street and ~425 m southwest of Xinglong Street). There are also a restaurant (~50 m), a student cafeteria (~300 m), and the Nanjing Cigarette Factory (~480 m southeast) around the site.

The sampling inlet was installed outside the fifth floor of the building (~12 m above the ground), with a $PM_{2.5}$ cyclone (URG Corp., Chapel Hill, NC, USA) to remove coarse particles. Ambient particles were dried (RH <10%) via a diffusion dryer filled with silica gel before entering into the SP-AMS. The sampling line (~2 m





144 long) was assembled using stainless steel tubing and proper fittings. Air flow was controlled at around ~5 L min⁻¹, with a flow rate into the SP-AMS at ~80 cm³ min⁻¹. 145 The SP-AMS can measure non-refractory (NR) PM1 components including 146 ammonium, nitrate, sulfate, chloride and organics similar to other types of AMS via a 147 thermal tungsten heater. Moreover, it can also measure rBC and coated species as it is 148 equipped with an intracavity Nd:YAG laser vaporizer (1064 nm) (Onasch et al., 2012). 149 During this campaign, the instrument was switched between "laser on" and "laser off" 150 settings, and between V-mode (better for mass quantification) and W-mode (better 151 chemical resolution, \sim 5000 in this study), with one cycle including six menu settings 152 (M1: Laser on V-mode; M2: Laser off V-mode; M3: Laser on W-mode; M4: Laser off 153 W-mode; M7: Laser on PToF-mode; M8: Laser off PToF-mode). Each menu was set 154 to 2.5 min, thus a full running cycle lasted for 15 mins. The PToF-mode was under 155 V-mode, but was tuned in particular for measuring particle sizes. The tungsten heater 156 157 was always turned on and kept at $\sim 600^{\circ}$ C.

The SP-AMS, in conjunction with a scanning mobility particle sizer (SMPS) (TSI 158 inc., Shoreview, MN, USA) was calibrated for mass quantification (e.g., ionization 159 160 efficiency) using size-selected (250 nm and 300 nm) monodisperse ammonium nitrate particles following the procedures detailed in Jimenez et al. (2003). Pure ammonium 161 sulfate was used to determine the relative ionization efficiency (RIE) of sulfate 162 (Setyan et al., 2012). Quantification of rBC was calibrated using Regal Black 163 (REGAL 400R pigment black, Cabot Corp.) particles according to the procedures 164 reported in Onasch et al. (2012). Note that the solution of Regal Black was sonicated 165 166 during calibration to maintain a relative stable aerosol flow. RIEs of ammonium, nitrate, sulfate, chloride, organics and rBC were determined to be 3.15, 1.05, 1.20, 1.3, 167 1.4 and 0.33, respectively. On the other hand, particle sizing was calibrated using 168 standard polystyrene latex (PSL) spheres (Duke Scientific Corp., Palo Alto, CA, USA) 169 across 100 - 700 nm range. Flow rate was also calibrated prior to the measurement. 170 Concentrations of gaseous species, e.g., carbon monoxide (CO) (Model T300, 171

172 Teledyne API, USA), ozone (O₃) (Model EC9810, Ecotech Pty Ltd, Australia),





173 nitrogen dioxide (NO₂) and sulfur dioxide (SO₂) (Model LGH-01, Anhui Landun,

174 China), and meteorological data including air temperature (T), relative humidity (RH),

175 visibility (km), wind speed (WS) and wind direction (WD) were acquired at the same

site. PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀ mass concentrations were also recorded (BAM-1020, Met One

177 Instruments, Inc., USA), in parallel with the SP-AMS measurement.

178 **2.2 Data treatment and source analyses**

The SP-AMS data were post-processed by using the Igor-based standard 179 ToF-AMS Analysis Toolkit SQUIRREL v1.56D and PIKA v1.15D, available at: 180 http://cires1.colorado.edu/jimenez-group/ToFAMSResources/ToFSoftware/index.htm 181 1. Note all mass concentrations reported here were calculated from the HR fitted 182 results on V-mode data. A constant collection efficiency (CE) of 0.5 was used for the 183 184 mass quantification, in consistent with many other AMS studies, as indeed the mass fraction of ammonium nitrate (mostly <40%), particle acidity (near neutral) and RH 185 186 (<10%) do not affect the CE significantly for this dataset (Middlebrook et al., 2012).

Unless specified, the concentrations of ammonium, sulfate, nitrate, chloride and organics are from M2 setting (tungsten vaporizer only), while the *r*BC data is from M1 setting (dual-vaporizers: tungsten + laser) in this paper. The meteorological data (RH, T, WS, WD and visibility), concentrations of gas-phase species (CO, NO₂, SO₂ and O₃) and PM_{2.5} were averaged into hourly data for comparisons with the SP-AMS data. The data reported are at local time, e.g., Beijing (BJ) Time.

Positive matrix factorization (PMF) (Paatero and Tapper, 1994) was applied on the HRMS of organic aerosol (OA) obtained under laser off W-mode (M4 setting) to elucidate the OA sources/processes. We used the PMF Evaluation Tool version 2.08A (downloaded from:

197 <u>http://cires1.colorado.edu/jimenez-group/wiki/index.php/PMF-AMS_Analysis_Guide</u>) 198 (Ulbrich et al., 2009) to investigate the PMF results by varying the number of factors 199 (from 2 to 8 factors) and rotations ("*fpeak*", from -1 to 1 with an increment of 0.1). 200 Only ions with m/z less than or equal to 180 were included in the analyses. Following 201 the instruction detailed by Zhang et al. (2011), the 4-factor solution (at *fpeak* = -0.1)





202 was chosen as the optimal solution, as the 3-factor solution cannot separate the hydrocarbon-like OA (HOA) and cooking OA (COA) (Fig. S2), and the 5-factor 203 solution clearly splits the semi-volatile oxygenated OA (SV-OOA) factor into two 204 OOA factors (Fig. S3). A summary of the key diagnostic plots are provided in Fig. S4. 205 Detailed discussion of the PMF results is presented in Section 3.5. Note we found no 206 significant differences between the PMF source apportionment results from the 207 HRMS of OA obtained with dual-vaporizers setting (M3 setting) and current results 208 (M4 setting, tungsten vaporizer only), as the OA HRMS acquired under these two 209 circumstances were overall very similar (details in Section 3.4). 210

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212 3. Results and discussion

213 3.1 Mass concentrations, chemical compositions and diurnal changes

The temporal variations of meteorological parameters, concentrations of the gas 214 215 pollutants, concentrations and mass fractions of different PM₁ components, and the PM_{2.5} mass loadings (from Met one BAM-1020) over the sampling period are 216 illustrated in Fig. 1. During this study, the mean temperature was 18.5 °C, RH on 217 218 average was 64%, and wind predominantly blew from southeast and southwest (Fig. S5). The SP-AMS PM₁ concentrations ranged from 5.1 to 97.9 μ g m⁻³, with an 219 average of 28.2 μ g m⁻³. Note this average PM₁ concentration is significantly lower 220 than those observed during summer (38.5 μ g m⁻³), autumn (46.4 μ g m⁻³) and winter 221 (89.3 µg m⁻³) (Zhang et al., 2015;Zhang et al., 2016b), showing that the air during 222 springtime in Nanjing is cleaner than in other seasons. The variations of PM₁ 223 concentrations also match very well with $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations (Pearson's $r^2 = 0.72$), 224 and on average PM_1 accounts for ~ 54% of the $PM_{2.5}$ mass. 225

The average PM₁ composition is shown in Fig. 2a. The most abundant component is found to be organics (45.0%), following by sulfate (19.3%), nitrate (13.6%), ammonium (11.1%), *r*BC (9.7%) and chloride (1.3%). Fig. 2b further shows changes of the PM₁ chemical compositions in different concentration bins. It can be seen that although most PM₁ mass loadings are within 10 - 40 μ g m⁻³, high loading periods tend





to have higher mass contributions from organics and rBC, and less contributions from secondary inorganic species, indicating that high PM events were influenced significantly by local fresh emissions.

The molar ratio of inorganic anions (sulfate, nitrate and chloride) to cations 234 (ammonium) is 1.05 (Fig. 3a) (Zhang et al., 2007b). Considering that a small fraction 235 of sulfate, nitrate and chloride are possibly associated with metal cations, such as Na⁺, 236 K⁺ and Ca²⁺, etc., it can be concluded that the NR-PM₁ was overall neutral throughout 237 the study. On the other hand, the molar ratio of inorganic anions to ammonium is on 238 average 1.17 (Fig. 3b) when dual-vaporizers are on. This may be partially due to 239 variations of ionization/collection efficiencies of the measured species as the addition 240 of laser beam may change the distribution of vaporized species inside the ion chamber, 241 and also because of the detection of sulfate, nitrate and chloride bonded with metal 242 cations under the dual-vaporizers. These species don't evaporate on the tungsten 243 244 vaporizer under the laser-off mode. Indeed, more metal signals were observed with 245 the dual-vaporizers, as shown in Fig. S6.

Fig. 2c shows the average diurnal changes of organics, sulfate, nitrate, chloride 246 247 and rBC. Sulfate concentrations are slightly higher during daytime than during nighttime, indicating a significant contribution from photochemical reactions. Sulfate 248 249 also shows the least variations among all species, reflecting its regional behavior. Except for sulfate, all other species present a dual-peak pattern, with one peak in early 250 morning and another one in early evening. The peaks of rBC and organics are likely 251 due to local traffic/cooking activities (see details in Section 3.5), while the behavior of 252 253 nitrate is likely driven by the thermodynamic gas-particle partitioning: $NH_4NO_3(p) \leftrightarrow$ NH₃(g) + HNO₃(g), as it shows good anti-correlations with the diurnal changes of 254 temperatures (r = -0.72 for nitrate vs. T). Furthermore, we calculated the diurnal 255 variations of the equilibrium constant of NH4NO3 (Kp,AN) (Young et al., 2015;Seinfeld 256 and Pandis, 2006) in Fig. 2c. The $K_{p,AN}$ displays a similar trend as nitrate (r = 0.68), 257 providing strong evidence that nitrate variations were governed mainly by the 258 thermodynamic equilibrium. Chloride shows similar behavior as nitrate, indicating it 259





is driven by the equilibrium $NH_4Cl(p) \leftrightarrow NH_3(g) + HCl(g)$, as well (r = -0.76 for chloride vs. T). Therefore, when temperature rises, more NH_4NO_3 and NH_4Cl can dissociate into gaseous NH_3 , HNO_3 and HCl, mass loadings of particle-phase nitrate and chloride decrease correspondingly, and vice versa.

In order to further elucidate the formation processes of nitrate and sulfate, we 264 calculated the oxidation ratios of sulfur (f_S) and nitrogen (f_N) (Fig. 4a and 4b), defined 265 as $f_{\rm S} = n {\rm SO_4^{2-}}/(n {\rm SO_4^{2-}} + n {\rm SO_2})$ and $f_{\rm N} = n {\rm NO_3^{-}}/(n {\rm NO_3^{-}} + n {\rm NO_2})$ (Xu et al., 2014), 266 indicating the conversion of SO₂ and NO₂ to sulfate and nitrate, respectively. Here 267 nSO4²⁻, nNO3⁻, nSO2 and nNO2 are the molar quantities of particle-phase sulfate and 268 nitrate, gas-phase SO₂ and NO₂, respectively. Diurnal variations of f_S , f_N and mass 269 ratios of SO42-/NO3- are presented in Fig. 4d-f, along with the diurnal cycle of RH. 270 The $f_{\rm S}$ reaches a maximum around 3 pm; similarly, the SO₄²⁻/NO₃⁻ ratios are elevated 271 significantly during daytime, in particular during afternoon. These behaviors suggest 272 273 the remarkable role of photochemical processing of SO_2 to sulfate. In addition, the diurnal profile of $f_{\rm S}$ shows a negative correlation with that of RH (r = -0.52), 274 indicating somewhat insignificant influence of aqueous-phase production of sulfate 275 276 during this campaign. Interestingly, during nighttime (7 pm - 6 am), variations of $f_{\rm N}$ follows the changes of RH, probably suggesting a nighttime formation pathway of 277 278 nitrate, e.g., N₂O₅ + H₂O = 2HNO₃ and HNO₃ + NH₃ = NH₄NO₃; while the afternoon drop of f_N is likely due to evaporation of nitrate as the temperature increases. 279

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281 **3.2** Chemically-resolved size distributions

The campaign-averaged mass-based size distributions, fractional contributions and diurnal size distributions (image plots) of the major PM₁ species are depicted in Fig. 5 (temporal variations of the mass-based size distributions of these PM₁ species over the whole measurement period are provided in Fig. S7). Note the size distribution of *r*BC in these plots were scaled from the size distribution of *m*/*z* 24 (C₂⁺), as other major *r*BC ion clusters may be heavily influenced by other ions, such as C⁺ signal but from organics at *m*/*z* 12 (C⁺), HCl⁺ signal at *m*/*z* 36 (C₃⁺), SO⁺ signal





289 at m/z 48 (C₄⁺), C₂H₄O₂⁺ signal at m/z 60 (C₅⁺). As can be expected, all inorganic species (sulfate, nitrate, chloride and ammonium) display a unimodal distribution with 290 an accumulation mode peaking \sim 550 nm (vacuum aerodynamic diameter, D_{va} 291 292 (DeCarlo et al., 2004)), since they were mainly formed from secondary reactions. The organics has a much broader size distribution across from ultrafine (<100 nm) to 293 supermicron meter range, with a small sub-peak centering ~120 nm in addition to the 294 major peak at ~440 nm, indicating influences from both primary and secondary 295 emissions. On the contrary, size distribution of rBC behaves very differently from 296 other components, which peaks at 90 - 200 nm range, reflecting clearly that it is 297 mainly originated from primary emissions. Overall, the small particles are 298 predominantly consisted of organics and rBC, which together account for more than 299 90% of the ultrafine particle mass. Mass contributions from inorganic species increase 300 significantly with the increase of particle size, and they dominate masses of particles 301 302 larger than 400 nm (Fig. 5b).

In line with the diurnal mass loadings of the PM₁ species shown in Fig. 2c, the diurnal size distribution of sulfate is generally stable, with masses concentrating in the 400 - 700 nm range throughout the day (Fig. 5c); while the size distributions of nitrate, chloride and organics present clear enhancements in the 300 - 700 nm range during early morning and early evening due to increased mass concentrations of these species during these two periods. The size distribution of *r*BC is also enhanced during the morning and evening hours, but it extends to a much smaller size range (<100 nm).

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311 **3.3** PM₁ contributions on visibility impairment

In order to figure out the major species that are responsible for the visibility degradation, here we employed the IMPROVE method to reconstruct the light extinction coefficients (b_{ext}). b_{ext} values are derived from the measured visibility: $b_{ext}=3.91/V_s$ (Kong et al., 2015), where V_s stands for the visibility (in meter). The following IMPROVE formula (Yang et al., 2007) was used:

317 $b_{\text{ext}} = 3f(\text{RH})\{[(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4] + [\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3] + [\text{NH}_4\text{Cl}]\} + 4[\text{OM}] + 10[\text{BC}] + 1[\text{soil}] + 10$





318 Where f(RH) is a RH-dependent empirical coefficient which considers the effects of water uptake by inorganic salts on the light extinction; the f(RH) values used here 319 were taken from Malm and Day (2001), which were regressed from the Great Smoky 320 data set. [(NH₄)₂SO₄], [NH₄NO₃], [NH₄Cl], [OM], and [BC] represent the mass 321 concentrations of ammonium sulfate, ammonium nitrate, ammonium chloride, 322 organics and black carbon directly from the SP-AMS measurements (in $\mu g m^{-3}$) 323 $([(NH_4)_2SO_4] = 1.375*[SO_4^{2-}], [NH_4NO_3]=1.29*[NO_3^{-}] \text{ and } [NH_4C1] = 1.51*[C1^{-}]).$ 324 Since the SP-AMS cannot accurately measure soil components (e.g., various 325 metals/metal oxides/metal salts), the term [soil] was set to zero during calculations. 326

By using this method, the reconstructed visibilities match reasonably well with 327 the measured values ($r^2 = 0.50$) as shown in Fig. 6a. Fig. 6b shows the time series of 328 the measured and reconstructed extinction coefficients throughout the whole sampling 329 period. It should be noted that, on average, the measured PM₁ species are only able to 330 331 explain $\sim 44\%$ of the light extinction. This is likely due to that: 1) as shown earlier, the SP-AMS measured PM₁ only occupies ~54% of the PM_{2.5} mass; 2) we didn't include 332 contributions from soil components, coarse particles and also some gas-phase species 333 334 (such as NO₂); 3) although the influences of water are included in part through f(RH)for inorganic salts, the water uptake by organic species are not considered explicitly. 335 which can be significant especially for the SOA under high RH conditions (Duplissy 336 337 et al., 2011; Denjean et al., 2015). Indeed, as shown in Fig. 6a, reconstructed visibilities appear to deviate more significantly from the measured visibilities under 338 high RH than ones under low RH conditions, suggesting the importance of 339 340 particle-bounded water on visibility degradation. The pie chart in Fig. 6b presents the average relative contributions of different components to the light extinction of PM₁. 341 The largest contributor is organics which accounts for 37.7%, followed by ammonium 342 sulfate (25.1%), rBC (20.7%), ammonium nitrate (15.1%) and a minor contributor of 343 ammonium chloride (1.4%). 344

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346 3.4 Chemical characteristics of OA





347 The unique laser vaporizer of SP-AMS allows it to detect rBC and species coated on the rBC core including both non-refractory and refractory organics, thus 348 comparison between the OA mass spectra obtained with dual-vaporizers and tungsten 349 vaporizer settings, can infer some information regarding the chemical features of 350 refractory organics, that were unable to be determined by any other types of AMS. As 351 shown in Fig. 7a and 7b, the OA obtained with dual-vaporizers setting have slightly 352 higher oxygen-to-carbon (O/C) ratio (0.28 vs. 0.27), nitrogen-to-carbon (N/C) ratio 353 (0.033 vs. 0.032) and lower hydrogen-to-carbon (H/C) ratio (1.50 vs. 1.52) than the 354 corresponding elemental ratios of OA obtained with the tungsten vaporizer only. This 355 result indicates that refractory organics are likely more oxygenated than the 356 non-refractory organics, and for this dataset it is mainly due to a higher fractional 357 contribution from $C_2H_3O^+$ (see the inset of Fig. 7a). This is different from the results 358 on laboratory-generated nascent soot, where larger fCO_2^+ (i.e., the fraction of total 359 organic signal contributed by CO_2^+) was observed with the dual-vaporizers setting, 360 indicating the variability of the chemical compositions of refractory organics. Note 361 the elemental ratios shown throughout the paper were all calculated based on the 362 363 method proposed by Aiken et al. (2008) (referred to as A-A method). Recently, Canagaratna et al. (2015) improved this methodology by using specific ion fragments 364 as markers to calculate the O/C and H/C ratios (referred to as I-A method). The I-A 365 method increased the O/C ratio, H/C ratio, and the OM/OC ratio higher than the 366 values calculated from the the A-A method, on average, by 28%, 10% and 8%, 367 respectively (Fig. S8). In this work, we used the results from the A-A method for 368 369 consistency and comparisons with previous AMS measurements.

Overall, the O/C ratio (0.27) of OA in Nanjing during springtime is a bit lower than those observed at other urban locations in China – for instances, 0.30 in Shenzhen (He et al., 2011), 0.31 in Shanghai (Huang et al., 2012b), 0.33 in Lanzhou (Xu et al., 2014) and 0.34 in Beijing (Zhang et al., 2014), and much lower than those at rural sites – for instances, 0.47 in Kaiping (Huang et al., 2011) and 0.59 in Changdao (Hu et al., 2013). As O/C ratio is a good indicator of the aging degree of





OA, the relatively low O/C level indicates a significant contribution from fresh emissions in Nanjing aerosols during springtime. Accordingly, the non-refractory OA (pie chart in Fig. 7b) is dominated in hydrocarbon $C_xH_y^+$ ions (51.2%) rather than the oxygen-containing ion fragments (37.4% of $C_xH_yO_1^+$ and $C_xH_yO_2^+$).

The scatter plot of f44 (mass fraction of m/z 44 to the total OA) vs. f43 (mass 380 fraction of m/z 43 to the total OA) (a.k.a., triangle plot) (Ng et al., 2010) was often 381 used to investigate the oxidation degrees of OA. As presented in Fig. 8, most OA 382 reside in the bottom end of the triangular region, again pointing out the 383 less-oxygenated behavior of the OA. Since the HRMS can separate different ions at 384 the nominal m/z, we also examined the $fCO_2^+ vs$. $fC_2H_3O^+$ space and illustrated it in 385 Fig. S9 - many OA locate outside the triangular region, yet still close to the bottom. 386 Moreover, m/z 60 (mainly C₂H₄O₂⁺) is a significant fragment ion of levoglucosan, 387 which is well known as the biomass burning aerosol tracer (Alfarra et al., 2007). 388 389 However, as f60 (mass fraction of m/z 60 to the total OA) is very low in OA (average $\pm 1\sigma = 0.4 \pm 0.06$ %), indicating no biomass burning influences on the OA properties 390 during springtime in Nanjing. 391

392

393 **3.5 Sources and evolution processes of OA**

In order to further elucidate the sources and evolution processes of OA, we performed PMF analyses and identified four OA components, including two primary OA (POA) factors – a traffic-related hydrocarbon-like OA (HOA) and a cooking-related OA (COA), and two secondary OA factors – a semi-volatile oxygenated OA (SV-OOA) and a low volatility OOA (LV-OOA). Details about their characteristics are discussed below.

400 3.5.1 Mass spectral features of the OA factors

The mass spectral profiles, time-dependent mass concentrations of the four OA factors and corresponding tracer ions are presented in Fig. 9. The HOA mass spectrum is overall dominated by the $C_xH_y^+$ ions (73.2%), such as $C_3H_7^+$, $C_4H_7^+$, $C_4H_9^+$, $C_5H_9^+$ etc., which are most likely produced from alkanes and cycloalkanes emitted from fuel





405 and lubricating oil burning (Canagaratna et al., 2004). This feature is in good agreement with the mass spectral features of POA directly from vehicle 406 emissions(Collier et al., 2015), and the HOA factors determined in many other 407 locations (e.g., Ge et al., 2012b;Huang et al., 2010;Sun et al., 2011). HOA has the 408 lowest O/C ratio (0.10) and highest H/C ratio (1.75) among all factors, representing its 409 behavior as primary fresh emissions. The COA mass spectrum is also rich in $C_x H_v^+$ 410 ions (64.7%), but having more oxygenated ions ($C_xH_yO_z^+$) than the HOA (26.5% vs. 411 15.4%), especially $C_3H_3O^+$ and $C_3H_5O^+$ ions. The significant contributions of $C_3H_3O^+$ 412 and $C_3H_5O^+$ to m/z 55 and m/z 57 are a common feature of COA, that has been 413 reported in various urban locations around the world, for examples, Beijing (Sun et al., 414 2015a), London (Allan et al., 2010), Fresno (Ge et al., 2012b), New York City (Sun et 415 al., 2011) and Barcelona (Mohr et al., 2012; Mohr et al., 2015). These 416 oxygen-containing ions are in part generated from the fragmentation of fatty acids in 417 418 the cooking aerosols (Ge et al., 2012b). As a result, COA has a higher O/C ratio of 0.16 and a lower H/C ratio of 1.67 than those of HOA. The O/C and H/C levels of 419 COA in this work are also close to those identified in other locations aforementioned. 420 421 The consistency of the chemical characteristics of COA from such different locations suggests that ambient COA is more relevant to the cooking oil rather than the different 422 types of food, which was postulated earlier by Allan et al. (2010). 423

Unlike the two POA factors, SV-OOA and LV-OOA are both abundant in 424 oxygen-containing fragments ($C_xH_yO_z^+$ ions), which are 46.4% and 54.8%, 425 respectively. The higher O/C ratio (0.55 vs. 0.32) and more $C_x H_v O_2^+$ ions (18.8% vs. 426 427 11.8%) in the LV-OOA mass spectrum than those of the SV-OOA, reflecting the fact that LV-OOA went through more aging/oxidation reactions than the SV-OOA. The 428 O/C ratio of SV-OOA is 0.32, which is within the O/C range of SV-OOA observed 429 worldwide (Jimenez et al., 2009). The LV-OOA O/C ratio of 0.55 is in the lower end 430 compared to the O/C levels of LV-OOA observed in other China sites, for examples, 431 0.64 in Kaiping (Huang et al., 2011), 0.65 in Shanghai (Huang et al., 2012b), 0.68 in 432 Lanzhou (Xu et al., 2014), 0.78 in Changdao (Hu et al., 2013) and 0.80 in Hong Kong 433





434 (Lee et al., 2013).

Consistently, in the f44 vs. f43 space (Fig. 8), SV-OOA situates near the bottom 435 side while LV-OOA approaches to the upper part of the triangular region, because of a 436 much larger fractional contribution of CO_2^+ in the LV-OOA mass spectrum. HOA and 437 COA, as POA factors, both reside in the bottom end of the plot, away from SV-OOA 438 and LV-OOA; while they locate outside the triangle in the fCO_2^+ vs. $fC_2H_3O^+$ space 439 (Fig. S9), indicating that the HRMS acquired by the SP-AMS is better in 440 differentiating POA factors from other SOA factors than the unit mass resolution 441 (UMR) data. 442

In order to justify the OA factors identified in this study, we compared the 443 spectral similarities of the OA factor spectral profiles (in both HR and UMR) with 444 those separated during wintertime in Beijing (Sun et al., 2015a), summertime in 445 Lanzhou (Xu et al., 2014), and wintertime in Fresno (Ge et al., 2012b;Ge et al., 446 447 2012a). The results are listed in Table 1. Indeed, the HOA, COA and LV-OOA mass spectra are highly similar to the corresponding factors identified in Bejing, Lanzhou 448 and Fresno ($r^2 > 0.87$); SV-OOA also correlates fairly well with Bejing and Lanzhou 449 SV-OOA too, but with relative low r^2 (0.68 – 0.75), mainly because of one or two ion 450 fragments, namely, higher CO^+ and CO_2^+ signals in Beijing SV-OOA and higher 451 $C_2H_3O^+$ signal in Lanzhou SV-OOA than those in Nanjing SV-OOA. The SV-OOA on 452 the other hand, correlates very well with the Fresno OOA ($r^2 = 0.90$ and 0.91). 453

Moreover, as presented in Fig. 9a, the HOA mass spectrum contains relatively 454 higher fraction of ions with large m/z values (m/z > 100) than that of COA (14.0% vs. 455 8.2%), and most of these ions are $C_x H_v^+$ ions, probably from fuel burning emitted 456 long-chain alkanes, etc. The SV-OOA also includes more large m/z ion fragments (m/z) 457 100) than those in the LV-OOA mass spectrum (10.5% vs. 5.3%), likely suggesting 458 that further oxidation of SOA species may lead to the fragmentation of high molecular 459 weight species and formation of small molecules -a mechanism verified by both 460 lab-scale experiments (e.g., Yu et al., 2014) and field measurements (e.g., Lee et al., 461 2012). 462





463 **3.5.2** Temporal variations, diurnal patterns and relative contributions of the OA

464 factors

The temporal variations of different OA factors and their corresponding tracer 465 ions are displayed in Fig. 9b. $C_4H_9^+$ ion, a.k.a., the HOA mass spectral tracer (Zhang 466 et al., 2005) indeed varies very closely to the HOA ($r^2 = 0.94$). Time series of the COA 467 tracer ion $C_6H_{10}O^+$ (and also $C_5H_8O^+$, $C_7H_{12}O^+$) (Sun et al., 2011;Ge et al., 2012b) 468 match very well with that of COA too ($r^2 = 0.90$). SV-OOA correlates better with 469 $C_2H_3O^+(r^2 = 0.90)$ than with $CO_2^+(r^2 = 0.66)$. Although LV-OOA doesn't correlate 470 very well with CO_2^+ ($r^2 = 0.12$) mainly due to the mismatch during April 23 - 26, the 471 correlation is still much better than it with $C_2H_3O^+$ ($r^2 < 0.001$). In Table 2, we 472 tabulate the correlation coefficients (r) of the four OA factors with the gas-phase 473 species, BC and inorganic species. Note we used Pearson's r not r^2 here since some 474 correlation coefficients are negative. From the table, it is clear that the traffic-related 475 476 gaseous species, CO and NO₂, correlate best with HOA among all OA factors; SV-OOA correlates better with nitrate (r = 0.49) than it with sulfate (r = 0.11); 477 LV-OOA correlate better with sulfate (r = 0.23) that it with nitrate (r = 0.11). All these 478 479 results are consistent with the traffic origin of HOA, the semi-volatile and low-volatility behaviors of SV-OOA and LV-OOA. 480

Accordingly, diurnal cycles of the OA factors are presented in Fig. 10a. 481 Correlation coefficients (r) of the diurnal variations between OA factors with 482 gas-phases and inorganic species are provided in Table 2, as well. HOA 483 concentrations show an early morning peak, and it overall remains at high levels 484 485 during nighttime. Besides the impacts of boundary layer height, this is also due to enhanced emissions from construction vehicles around the site, which were in fact 486 much more active during nighttime than during daytime because of the restrictions of 487 Nanjing government. Most of those vehicles used low-quality diesel fuel, and could 488 emit a large amount of rBC particles. The rBC diurnal pattern is indeed almost 489 identical to that of HOA (r = 0.99), indicating that the HOA during this campaign was 490 apparently associated with the construction vehicle emissions. COA concentrations 491





492 increase during noon (12 pm - 1 pm) and early evening, in response to the lunchtime and dinnertime cooking activities. SV-OOA concentrations decreases from 9 am, and 493 reach a minimum during afternoon (3 pm - 4 pm), oppositely to the variation of 494 temperatures (r = -0.85) but similar to that of nitrate (r = 0.53), corroborating its 495 semi-volatile feature. Different from other factors, LV-OOA concentrations increase 496 during daytime and shows positive correlation with temperature (r = 0.76); it also has 497 negative correlation with the diurnal cycle of RH (r = -0.75). Both behaviors are 498 similar to those of sulfate (r = 0.72 for the diurnal cycle of LV-OOA vs. sulfate), 499 indicating the leading role of photochemical oxidation for LV-OOA formation as well. 500 As shown in Fig. 10b, due to mainly the increase of LV-OOA mass loading, OA is 501 overwhelmingly dominated by the SOA (SV-OOA + LV-OOA) during afternoon (80.2% 502 at 3 pm); POA (HOA + COA) only dominates the OA mass during morning (53.2% at 503 7 am) and early evening (56.9% at 8 pm) in response to the enhanced traffic and 504 505 cooking emissions. On average, the OA is composed of 27.6% of HOA, 16.9% of COA, 27.4% of SV-OOA and 28.1% of LV-OOA (Fig. 10c), with SOA outweighing 506 POA (55.5% vs. 44.5%). However, as shown in Fig. 10d, with the increase of OA 507 508 mass loadings, the fractional contribution of POA increases, highlighting the important and direct influences of anthropogenic emissions on the heavy pollution 509 haze events. 510

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512 **3.5.3** Local/regional influences and evolution processes of the OA factors

Combining WS, WD and mass loadings, the bivariate polar plots of the four OA 513 514 factors, rBC, and total PM₁ are shown in Fig. 11. These plots provide an effective graphical method for showing the potential influences of air masses from different 515 directions with different wind speeds to the receptor site (Carslaw and Beevers, 2013). 516 Clearly, high mass loadings of HOA and rBC mostly link with low WS ($< 1 \text{ m s}^{-1}$), 517 indicating they are mainly from local vehicle emissions. High COA concentrations 518 occur mainly under low WS as well, but with some high concentrations accompanied 519 with air masses from southeast under higher WS. SV-OOA appears to be formed 520





locally, except for a concentration hotspot in the southeast – likely due to emissions
from the tobacco factory that resides in that direction. High concentrations of
LV-OOA are distributed in all directions under higher WS, representing its regional
behaviors. Overall, high PM₁ mass loadings occur mainly under low WS, indicating
that the PM₁ is heavily affected by local emissions rather than pollutants in a regional
scale.

The aging of OA can be described in general by the increase of O/C and decrease 527 of H/C. In this regard, we plotted the Van Krevelen diagram (Heald et al., 2010) (Fig. 528 12a) to show the relationships between H/C and O/C ratios for all OA as well as the 529 four OA factors. Overall, in this study, the H/C and O/C ratios of OA data are 530 correlated linearly with a slope of -1.04 ($r^2 = 0.93$), indicating the propagation of OA 531 is similar to an aging process that is likely driven by the addition of carboxylic acid 532 (slope of -1). Interestingly, the two OOA factors lie very well on the fitted straight line. 533 534 This trend may suggest that the evolution of secondary OA during this campaign follows a transformation pathway of SV-OOA to LV-OOA through the addition of 535 carboxylic acid. The diurnal cycle of LV-OOA varies oppositely to that of SV-OOA (r 536 = -0.86), probably supporting this hypothesis. In addition, O/C ratios of OA show no 537 obvious correlation with the RH as shown in Fig. 12b, verifying that aqueous-phase 538 539 processing is insignificant compared to the photochemical processing for the oxidation of OA. 540

541

542 4. Conclusions

We present for the first time the real-time measurement results using the SP-AMS on submicron aerosols in urban Nanjing during springtime (April 13 - 29, 2015). The SP-AMS determined PM₁ mass loadings, agreed well with the PM_{2.5} concentrations measured by the Met One PM_{2.5} analyzer. The average PM₁ concentration was 28.2 μ g m⁻³, lower than previously ACSM-determined PM₁ concentrations during summer and winter in Nanjing. Organics on average comprised the largest fraction (45%) of PM₁, and its fractional contributions increased in case of high PM₁ mass loadings. The





550 diurnal cycles of mass concentrations of organics, rBC, nitrate and chloride all presented a similar behavior, which was high in early morning and evening, but low 551 in the afternoon. Concentrations of sulfate, on the contrary, increased during afternoon. 552 Further investigations of $f_{\rm S}$, $f_{\rm N}$, ${\rm SO_4^{2-}/NO_3-}$ and RH revealed that photochemical 553 processing contributed significantly to sulfate formation, while nitrate (and chloride) 554 formation was mainly governed by the thermodynamic equilibrium. The 555 chemically-resolved mass-based size distribution data showed that rBC occupied a 556 large fraction of ultrafine particles, while secondary inorganic species could dominate 557 the mass of particles larger than 400 nm (D_{va}). In addition, by using the IMPROVE 558 method, we found that the observed PM_1 components were able to reproduce ~44% of 559 the light extinction during this study. 560

PMF analyses resolved four OA factors, e.g., HOA, COA, SV-OOA and LV-OOA. 561 Mass spectral profiles of these factors agree very well with the corresponding factors 562 563 identified at other locations. The springtime OA showed no influences from biomass burning emissions. On average, the OA is dominated by SOA (55.5%), but POA 564 appeared to be more important when the OA mass loadings are high, and can be 565 566 dominant in early morning and evening. Diurnal cycle of SV-OOA varied similarly to that of nitrate, reflecting its semi-volatile behavior. Diurnal variations of LV-OOA 567 showed great resemblance to that of sulfate, indicating its formation was mainly from 568 photochemical oxidation, as well. The bivariate polar plots indicate that SV-OOA was 569 formed locally, and the Van Krevelen diagram further suggests a transformation 570 pathway of SV-OOA to LV-OOA probably via the addition of carboxylic acid. 571 572 Generally, our highly time-resolved SP-AMS measurement results may offer useful insights into the aerosol chemistry, and have important implications for the PM 573 control and reduction in this densely populated region. 574

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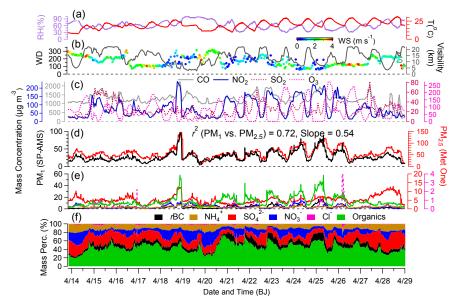


Figure 1. Time series of (a) relative humidity (RH) and temperature (T), (b) wind direction (WD) colored by wind speed (WS, m s⁻¹) and visibility (km), (c) mass concentrations of CO, NO₂, SO₂ and O₃ (hourly data), (d) mass concentrations of PM₁ measured by the SP-AMS, and PM_{2.5} measured by the co-located Met One PM_{2.5} analyzer, (e) mass concentrations of *r*BC, ammonium, sulfate, nitrate, chloride and organics, and (f) mass contributions (%) of the six PM₁ components (BJ, Beijing).





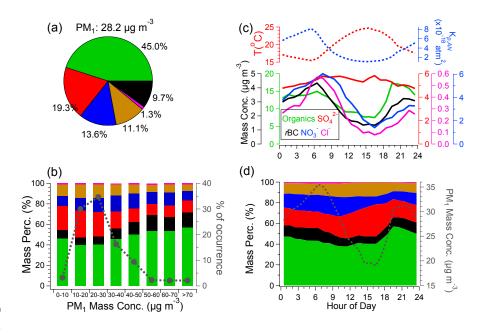
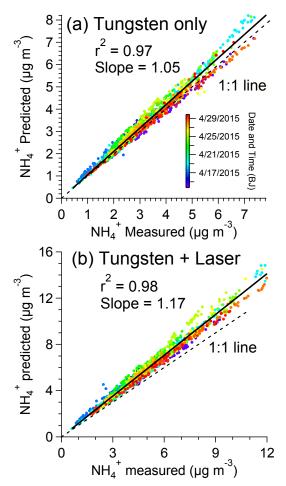


Figure 2. (a) Campaign-averaged mass contributions of organics, sulfate, nitrate, 942 ammonium, chloride and rBC to the total PM_1 , (b) mass percentages of the six PM_1 943 944 species (left y-axis) and, fractions of the number of data points to the total number of data points for PM₁ at different concentration bins (right y-axis), (c) diurnal patterns 945 of mass concentrations of the major PM₁ species (bottom panel), temperature (top 946 panel, left y-axis), and the equilibrium constant ($K_{p,AN}$) of NH₄NO₃ (top panel, right 947 y-axis) $(K_{p,AN} = K_{p,AN}(298)exp\left\{a\left(\frac{298}{T} - 1\right) + b\left[1 + ln\left(\frac{298}{T}\right) - \frac{298}{T}\right]\right\}$, for reaction 948 $NH_3(g) + HNO_3(g) \leftrightarrow NH_4NO_3(p)$. $K_{p,AN}(298)$ is the equilibrium constant at 298 K 949 $(3.36 \times 10^{-16} \text{ atm}^2)$, a = 75.11, and b = -13.5 (Seinfeld and Pandis, 2006)), (d) diurnal 950 variations of mass fractional contributions of the six PM₁ species (left y-axis), and the 951 PM₁ mass concentrations (right y-axis). 952 953 954







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Figure 3. Scatter plots of the predicted $NH_4^+ vs$. measured NH_4^+ concentrations (colored by time), in the case of (a) tungsten vaporizer only, and (b) dual-vaporizers (tungsten + laser). The predicted values were calculated according to the formula: NH_4^+ predicted = $18 \times (2 \times SO_4^{2^2}/96 + NO_3^{-7}/62 + C\Gamma/35.5)$ (Zhang et al., 2007b).





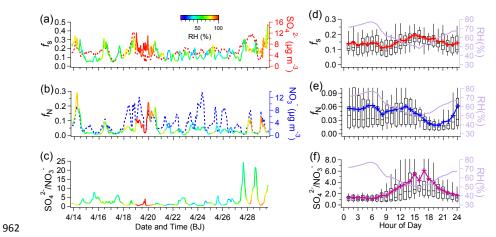


Figure 4. Time series of (a) sulfur oxidation ratio, $f_{\rm S} = n {\rm SO_4}^{2-} / (n {\rm SO_4}^{2-} + n {\rm SO_2})$, and 963 sulfate, (b) nitrogen oxidation ratio, $f_N = nNO_3^{-1}/(nNO_3^{-1} + nNO_2)$, and nitrate, and (c) 964 mass ratios of sulfate to nitrate (f_S , f_N and SO_4^2/NO_3^- are colored by the relative 965 humidity (RH) values), diurnal variations of (d) $f_{\rm S}$, (e) $f_{\rm N}$, and (f) ${\rm SO_4^{2-}/NO_3^{-}}$ and RH 966 (the lines and cross symbols indicate the mean values, the lines in the boxes indicate 967 968 the median values, the upper and lower boundaries of the boxes indicate the 75th and 25th percentiles, and the whiskers above and below the boxes indicate the 90th and 969 970 10th percentiles).

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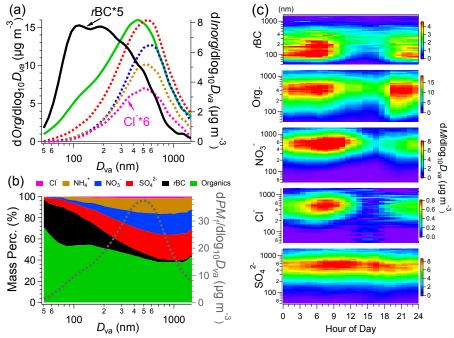


Figure 5. (a) Mass-based average size distributions of organics, *r*BC (left *y*-axis), sulfate, nitrate, chloride and ammonium (right *y*-axis) (D_{va} , vacuum aerodynamic diameter), (b) fractional contributions of the six PM₁ species as a function of particle size (left *y*-axis), and size distribution of total PM₁ (right *y*-axis), (c) diurnal profiles of the size distributions of *r*BC, organics, nitrate, chloride and sulfate.

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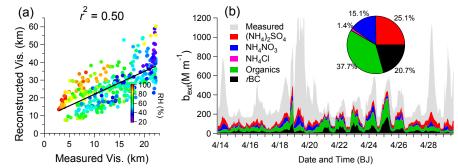


Figure 6. (a) Scatter plot of reconstructed *vs.* measured visibility (colored by RH), (b) light extinction coefficients derived from measured visibility (grey), and reconstructed from SP-AMS measured ammonium sulfate, ammonium nitrate, ammonium chloride, organics and *r*BC using the IMPROVE method. The inset pie shows the relative contributions of the five species to the light extinction of PM_1 .

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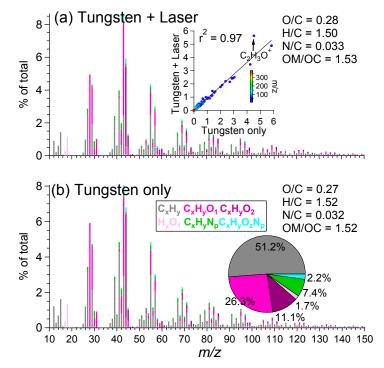
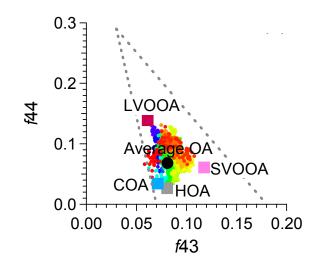


Figure 7. Campaign-averaged high resolution mass spectra of OA colored by six ion
categories, in the case of (a) dual-vaporizers (tungsten + laser) (the inset scatter plot
compares the spectral similarity between (a) and (b)), and (b) tungsten vaporizer only
(the inset pie shows the relative contributions of six ion categories to the total OA).







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Figure 8. Triangle plot of *f*44 *vs. f*43 for all OA (colored by time), and the four OAfactors identified by the PMF analyses.

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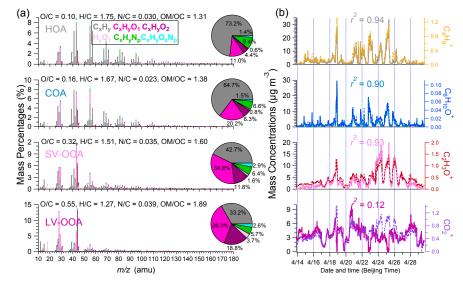
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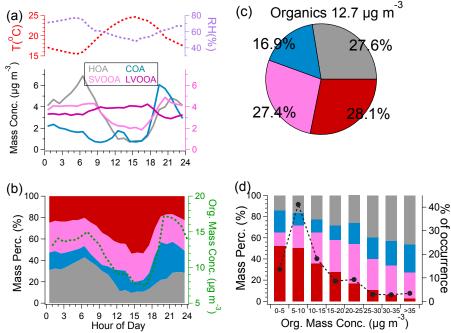


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Figure 9. (a) High resolution mass spectra of hydrocarbon-like OA (HOA), cooking-related OA (COA), semi-volatile oxygenated OA (SV-OOA), and low volatility oxygenated OA (LV-OOA) colored by six ion categories (the four inset pies show the relative contributions of the six ion categories to the four OA factors, respectively), (b) time series of the four OA factors and corresponding tracer ions.





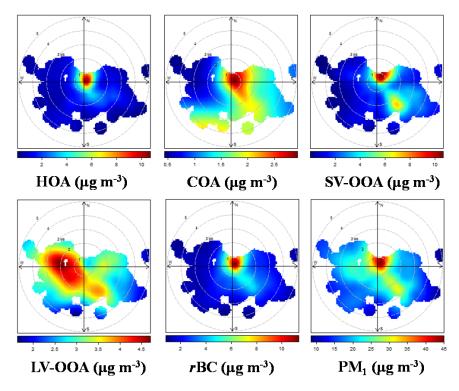


Hour of Day Org. Mass Conc. (µg m) Figure 10. (a) Diurnal cycles of mass concentrations of the four OA factors (bottom panel), temperature (top panel, left y-axis) and RH (top panel, right y-axis), (b) diurnal variations of mass contributions of the four OA factors (left y-axis), and the total OA mass concentrations (right y-axis), (c) campaign-averaged mass contributions of the four OA factors to the total OA mass, and (d) mass contributions of the four OA factors (left y-axis), and the fractions of the number of data points to the total number of data points for the OA at different concentration ranges (right y-axis).

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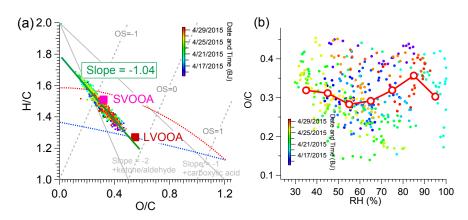
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Figure 11. Bivariate polar plots of HOA, COA, SV-OOA, LV-OOA, *r*BC and PM₁
(the color scale shows the concentration of each species, and the radical scale shows
the wind speed that increases outward from the center).





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Figure 12. (a) Van Krevelen diagram of H/C *vs.* O/C ratios for all OA data colored by time, the blue and red dashed lines correspond to the right and left grey dashed lines in the *f*44 vs. f43 triangle plot of Fig. 8, the grey lines represents the addition of a particular functional group to an aliphatic carbon (Heald et al., 2010), (b) scatter plot of O/C *vs.* RH (colored by time), the circles represents the average O/C values of the RH bins (10% increment).





1038Table 1. Correlation coefficients (Pearson's r^2) between the mass spectral profiles of1039the OA factors identified in this work with the corresponding factors identified in1040Beijing (2013 Winter) (Sun et al., 2015a), Lanzhou (2014 Summer) ((Xu et al., 2014)),1041and Fresno (2010 Winter) (Ge et al., 2012b).

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Nanjing	High resolution MS (r^2)						
(2015 Spring)	Beijing	Lanzhou	Fresno				
	(2013 Winter)	(2012 Summer)	(2010 Winter)*				
HOA	0.92	0.90	0.98				
COA	0.93	0.94	0.93 0.90				
SV-OOA	0.68	0.75					
LV-OOA	0.91	0.98	0.87				
	U	nit mass resolution N	$MS(r^2)$				
HOA	0.92	0.91	0.99				
COA	0.96	0.96	0.95				
SV-OOA	0.70	0.74	0.91				
LV-OOA	0.90	0.98	0.89				

1043 *Note the Fresno (2010 Winter) study only identified one OOA factor, we thus

1044 compared both SV-OOA and LV-OOA in this study with it.





1045	Table 2. Correlation coefficients (Pearson's r) between the time series of the four OA
1046	factors with the gas-phase species (hourly data) and other PM1 components (15-min
1047	data), and the correlation coefficients between the diurnal data.

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	Pearson's r	Temp.(T)	СО	NO ₂	SO_2	O ₃	SO_4^{2-}	NO ₃ -	Cl	rBC
			Hourly data			15-min data				
	HOA	-0.14	0.71	<u>0.77</u>	0.13	-0.54	0.15	0.26	0.45	0.92
	COA	0.11	0.50	0.58	-0.06	-0.22	0.19	0.07	0.08	0.61
	SVOOA	0.19	0.41	0.70	0.14	-0.21	0.11	0.49	0.25	0.70
	LVOOA	0.069	-0.2	-0.18	0.06	0.14	0.23	0.11	0.01	-0.22
		Diurnal data								
	HOA	-0.94	0.86	0.86	0.66	-0.96	-0.35	0.72	0.82	0.99
	COA	-0.15	0.28	0.59	-0.24	-0.24	-0.57	-0.33	-0.25	0.19
	SVOOA	-0.85	0.86	0.94	0.58	-0.90	-0.51	0.53	0.61	0.89
	LVOOA	0.76	-0.58	-0.83	-0.27	0.77	0.72	-0.26	-0.33	-0.75
1049										