

1 Simultaneous Measurements of Urban and Rural Particles in Beijing, Part II: Case Studies  
2 of Haze Events and Regional Transport

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19 Abstract

20 Two parallel field studies were conducted simultaneously at both urban and rural sites in  
21 Beijing from 11/01/2016 to 11/29/2016. Online single-particle chemical composition  
22 analysis was used as a tracer system to investigate the impact of heating activities and the  
23 formation of haze events. Central heating elevated EC-Nit, EC-Nit-Sul, and ECOC-Nit  
24 levels by 1.5–2.0 times due to the increased use of coal in the urban areas. However, in the  
25 rural areas, residential heating which mainly consumes low-quality coal and biomass  
26 burning elevated ECOC-Nit-Sul, Nak-Nit, and OC-Sul levels by 1.2–1.5 times. Four severe  
27 haze events (hourly  $PM_{2.5} > 200 \mu g m^{-3}$ ) occurred at both sites during the studies. In each  
28 event, a pattern of “transport and accumulation” was found. In the first stage of the pattern,  
29 particles were regionally transported from the south or southwest and accumulated under  
30 air stagnations, creating significant secondary formation, then  $PM_{2.5}$  boosted up to  $300 \mu g$   
31  $m^{-3}$ . At both sites, the severe haze occurred due to different patterns of local emission,  
32 transport, and secondary processes. At PG, the sulfate-rich residential coal burning  
33 particles were dominant. The regional transport between PG and PKU was simulated using  
34 the WRF-HYSPLIT model, confirming that the transport from PG to PKU was significant,  
35 but PKU to PG occurred occasionally. These cases can explain the serious air pollution in  
36 the urban areas of Beijing and the interaction between urban and rural areas. This study  
37 can provide references for enhancing our understanding of haze formation in Beijing.

38 Keywords: urban; regional; single particle; transport; pollution event

39

## 40 **1. Introduction**

41 The Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei (BTH) area in China has been suffering from extreme haze  
42 events caused by high concentrations of  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  ( $> 200 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) since 2013 (Guo et al., 2014).  
43 Studies have been performed to understand the formation of such massive haze events in  
44 Beijing (Tian et al., 2014; Quan et al., 2013; Che et al., 2014; He et al., 2015). Traffic,  
45 cooking, and coal combustion emissions accounted for 41–59% of the total submicron  
46 organic aerosols and the remainder was secondary organic aerosols (Sun et al., 2014).  
47 Model studies suggest that temperature inversion, low boundary layer, and transported  
48 pollutants cause the local accumulation of  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  in urban areas (Zhang et al., 2015). In  
49 short, significant local emissions, unfavorable meteorological conditions, and regional  
50 transport play essential roles in accumulating  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ .

51 There are unresolved issues surrounding whether the rapid boosting of PM in Beijing is  
52 due to local secondary aerosol formation or transport. Wang et al. (2016) have proposed  
53 that the accumulation of nitrates is dominant at the beginning of haze events, and then  
54 sulfate increases because  $\text{SO}_2$  is oxidized into sulfate in ammonium-rich conditions.  
55 Moreover, Cheng et al. (2016) have suggested that  $\text{NO}_2$  could oxidize  $\text{SO}_2$  to sulfate on the  
56 surface of alkali aerosols. However, Li et al. (2015) have argued that regionally transported  
57  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  is a significant cause of severe haze. Last but not least, Sun et al. (2013) and (2014)  
58 have proposed that both local formation and regional transport are causing factors. Except  
59 for model studies, most field studies have focused on urban areas in Beijing, with limited  
60 attention to rural areas. The characterization of rural PM is also essential to understanding  
61 the evolution of particulate haze events.

62 The cold winter results in the necessity of heating, consequently impacting the air quality  
63 in BTH (Sun et al., 2014). In urban areas, central heating systems use coal or natural gas,  
64 while rural households use coal or biofuel for heating and cooking. Residential emissions  
65 in Beijing reach about 4 million tons, mainly caused by low-efficiency coal combustion  
66 (Li et al., 2015). Coal combustion organic aerosols (CCOA) account for 20–32% of total  
67 submicron OA in Beijing (Sun et al., 2014; Sun et al., 2013). However, whether CCOA is  
68 contributed by central or household heating remains unclear. Notably, central and  
69 household heating release distinct particles due to different burning conditions (Lee et al.,  
70 2005; Chagger et al., 1999). Therefore, analyzing household heating and cooking emissions  
71 in rural areas is also beneficial for understanding the source of urban PM<sub>2.5</sub> in Beijing.

72 SPAMS has proven a useful tool for characterizing the single-particle chemical  
73 composition, mixing state, and processing of atmospheric particles (Chen et al., 2019a).  
74 Single-particle chemical composition and mixing state can be used as a tracing system to  
75 explore the sources and origins of unique particle types (Chen et al., 2019b; Li et al., 2016).  
76 For example, by combining meteorological parameters, we can determine the sources and  
77 transport conditions of specific particle types (Chen et al., 2018; Chen et al., 2020).

78 As mentioned in Part I (Chen et al., 2020), two SPAMSs were deployed simultaneously at  
79 Peking University (PKU) and Pinggu (PG) to monitor urban and rural particles in the  
80 Beijing region. In Part II, the resolved particle types are used to trace the evolution,  
81 transport, and formation of pollution events. The detailed analysis of haze events and  
82 effects of heating activities are addressed. Combining field measurements and model

83 studies, the interactions between the two sampling sites, representing urban and rural  
84 eastern areas, are systematically analyzed.

## 85 **2. Methodology**

### 86 **2.1 Sampling sites, instrumentation, and data analysis**

87 Please refer to Part I and Support Information for the detail (Chen et al., 2020). Briefly, the  
88 field studies were performed simultaneously at Peking University (PKU) (116.32°E,  
89 39.99°N) and Pinggu (PG) (117.05°E, 40.17°N) from 11/01/2016 to 11/29/2016 (Figure  
90 1). The detailed description of these two sites is available at (Chen et al., 2020). The two  
91 sites represent both typical urban and rural areas, respectively. The local meteorological  
92 data is retrieved from the local meteorological offices. Two SPAMSs (0515, Hexin Inc.,  
93 Guangzhou, China) were deployed at both sites for parallel measurements. SPAMS  
94 generates single particle mass spectra from the captured individual particles. The technical  
95 description of SPAMS is available in the literature (Li et al., 2011). A neural network  
96 algorithm based on adaptive resonance theory (ART-2a) was applied for clustering particle  
97 types in the datasets (Song et al., 1999). During the clustering procedure, the relative peak  
98 areas (RPA) of sulfate and nitrate are considered. A criterion of RPA >0.1 is used to  
99 identify the nitrate-rich (-Nit), sulfate-rich (-Sul), or both. Based on the strategy, 20 and 19  
100 particle types were identified at PKU and PG respectively.

### 101 **2.2 Dispersion model**

102 A WRF-HYSPLIT (Weather Research and Forecasting - Hybrid Single Particle  
103 Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory) coupling model was used to describe the air parcel

104 movement between PKU and PG. The description of the model is available at  
105 <https://www.arl.noaa.gov/hysplit/inline-wrf-hysplit-coupling/>. The HYSPLIT dispersion  
106 simulations were driven by the meteorological data fields from the WRF model version  
107 3.8. The WRF domains are shown in Figure 2. The innermost domain was configured to  
108 cover northern China with a horizontal resolution of 3 km and 35 vertical layers. The  
109 longwave and shortwave radiation schemes were set as the RRTMG and Dudhia scheme  
110 respectively. The Yonsei University (YSU) scheme was used for the PBL parameterization.  
111 For the microphysics, the Morrison 2-moment scheme was adopted. NCEP FNL (National  
112 Centers for Environmental Prediction, final) data with a resolution of  $1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$  was employed  
113 as initial and boundary conditions. The WRF simulation was initialized as a “cold start” at  
114 0000 UTC each day and ran for 36 hours. The first 12 hours were discarded as model spin-  
115 up time, and the output for the following 24 hours was retained. This process was repeated  
116 to produce continuous meteorological data fields for the whole experimental period. The  
117 HYSPLIT was set to release 10,000 Lagrangian particles within one hour at PKU and PG,  
118 10 m above ground level. The concentration of released particles was simulated with one  
119 vertical layer extending from 0 to 1,000 m above ground level.

## 120 **3. Results and Discussion**

### 121 **3.1 Particle type description**

122 We observed five particle categories at both sites: elemental carbon (EC), organic carbon  
123 (OC), internal-mixed EC and OC (ECOC), potassium-rich (K-rich), and metals. According  
124 to their different stages of atmospheric processing, the five categories can be divided into  
125 up to 20 particle types, as shown in Table 1. Particles with relative peak areas of sulfate

126 and nitrate greater than 0.1 were marked with nitrate (-Nit) or sulfate (-Sul), respectively,  
127 or both (-Nit-Sul). The typical single-particle mass spectra of all particle types are available  
128 in Supportive Information and. Besides, the suffixes “\_PKU” and “\_PG” are used when  
129 the same particles appear. The higher relative abundance of secondary species indicates the  
130 particles are more aged (Chen et al., 2020).

131 As described in Part I, we performed a responding analysis of meteorological factors (e.g.,  
132 wind speed and wind direction) and hourly number counts of observed particles at both  
133 sites. At PKU, the following particle types were local: EC-Nit, EC-Nit-Sul, ECOC-Nit-  
134 Sul, Ca-rich, and ECOC-Nit. These particles arrived at PKU with no unique orientations,  
135 at low wind speed (commonly  $< 2 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ ) and with clear diurnal patterns. On the contrary,  
136 parts of OC-Nit, OC-Sul, NaK-Nit, and NaK-Nit-Sul responded to unique wind directions,  
137 implying that these particle types were regionally transported. At PG, all particle types  
138 showed patterns that were both local and regional. For example, OC, ECOC, OC-Nit-Sul,  
139 and ECOC-Nit-Sul came from the local area, northeast, and southwest. Universal patterns  
140 can be used to determine the mechanisms of pollution event formation when combined  
141 with unique cases.

142

143 Table 1. Particle types and their relative fractions and chemical composition

	Both	PKU	PG	Chemical Composition*	
EC	EC-Nit	7.0	2.0	$C_n^+$ , $C_n^-$ , $HSO_4^-$ , $NO_2^-$ , $NO_3^-$	
	EC-Nit-Sul	10.5	3.5		
	EC-Sul	0.7	0.1		
ECOC	ECOC-Nit-Sul	12.0	18.6	$C_n^+$ , $C_n^-$ , $C_xH_y^+$ , $C_xH_yO_z^+$ $HSO_4^-$ , $NO_3^-$	
	ECOC-Sul	12.7	9.8		
K-rich	K-rich	7.2	6.4	$K^+$ , $NH_4^+$ , $HSO_4^-$ , $NO_3^-$ $NO_2^-$	
	K-Nit	8.0	8.2		
	K-Nit-Sul	16.0	1.9		
	K-Sul	0.6	4.5		
NaK	NaK	0.4	1.8	$Na^+$ , $K^+$ , $NH_4^+$ , $HSO_4^-$ , $NO_3^-$	
	NaK-Nit	6.4	1.7		
	NaK-Nit-Sul	2.5	1.9		
	NaK-Sul	0.2	0.4		
OC	OC-Nit-Sul	7.4	21.3	$C_xH_y^+$ , $C_xH_yO_z^+$ , $NH_4^+$ $HSO_4^-$ , $NO_3^-$	
	OC-Sul	0.9	6.9		
	Ca-dust	0.4	0.1		$Cl^-$
Fe	Fe-rich	3.1	1.8	$Fe^+$ , Org, $HSO_4^-$ , $NO_3^-$ TMA, $NH_4^+$ , $HSO_4^-$ , $NO_3^-$	
	ECOC-Nit	3.1%			
	OC-Nit	0.9%			
	K-Amine-Nit-Sul	0.1%			
	ECOC		5.9%		$C_n^+$ , $C_n^-$ , $C_xH_y^+$ , $C_xH_yO_z$
	OC		3.3%		$C_xH_y^+$ , $C_xH_yO_z$

144 \* chemical species with ionic relative peak area >0.1

### 145 3.2 Overview of haze events

146 Figures 3 and 4 show the overview of PM<sub>2.5</sub>, meteorology parameters, and time trends of  
 147 particles at PKU and PG respectively. There were four parallel haze events during the  
 148 observation period: 11/01/2016–11/07/2016 (E1), 11/09/2016–11/15/2016 (E2),  
 149 11/15/2016–11/22/2016 (E3), and 11/25/2016–11/28/2016 (E4).

150 The pattern of single-particle chemical composition, represented by normalized number  
 151 fractions of particle types in different periods, is used to describe PM characteristics. The  
 152 correlations of normalized number fractions during events at PKU and PG are shown in



153 Tables 2 and S3. E1\_PKU was well correlated with Clear1 ( $R = 0.90$ ) and E2\_PKU ( $R =$   
 154  $0.86$ ), but poorly correlated with Clear2 ( $R = 0.38$ ) and E4 ( $R = 0.64$ ). This is because  
 155 E1\_PKU and E2\_PKU occurred before the heating period, but E4\_PKU occurred after  
 156 (11/15/2016). The chemical compositions of the four events at PG are highly correlated  
 157 with each other (all  $R_s > 0.90$ , Table S3). These results indicate that the chemical  
 158 composition patterns changed significantly at PKU, but insignificantly at PG.

159 Table 2. Correlations of number fractions of particle types in different events at PKU.

	E1	Clear1	E2	Clear2*	E4
E1	1				
Clear1	0.90	1			
E2	0.86	0.91	1		
Clear2	0.38	0.70	0.58	1	
E4	0.64	0.81	0.83	0.76	1

160 Note: The chemical composition of E3 is unavailable.

### 161 3.3 Influence of heating activities

162 Central heating began on 11/15/2016 in the urban area, while residential heating in the rural  
 163 area had no distinct starting day. As such, the shift in emissions due to the increased use of  
 164 solid fuel directly affected the particulate chemical composition. As shown in Figure 5, the  
 165 normalized fractions of EC-Nit\_PKU, EC-Nit-Sul\_PKU, and OC-Nit\_PKU increased by  
 166 about 1.5 times. EC-Nit\_PKU and EC-Nit-Sul\_PKU came from multiple local sources, one  
 167 of which was coal burning in boilers (Xu et al., 2018). In addition, high EC concentrations  
 168 have been observed during the heating period each year for decades (Chen et al., 2016b).  
 169 The mass spectra of OC-Nit particles were composed of a series of ion fragments of  
 170 polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs). The results are consistent with organic aerosols

171 from coal burning in AMS-related studies (Wang et al., 2019). Additionally, PM<sub>2.5</sub>-bound  
172 PAHs increased by three times when the heating period began in Beijing (Zhang et al.,  
173 2017). The results also suggest the potential health risks of coal burning in wintertime in  
174 Beijing (Linak et al., 2007; Chen et al., 2013).

175 Biomass burning (BB) has been proven as a significant source of PM<sub>2.5</sub> in Beijing (Sun et  
176 al., 2014), accounting for 9–12% (Liu et al., 2019). Anthropogenic BB, e.g. burning  
177 household biofuel, is prohibited in urban areas, but common in the areas surrounding  
178 Beijing. Most BB-related particles such as K-rich, K-Nit, and K-Nit-Sul at PKU were  
179 regional (Part I)(Chen et al., 2020). Not surprisingly, K-Nit\_PKU and K-Nit-Sul\_PKU  
180 both increased to 1.7 times after 11/15/2016. Interestingly, K-Amine-Nit\_PKU increased  
181 by 2.3 times after the heating period began, suggesting that BB is also a source of  
182 particulate amines in Beijing (Chen et al., 2019b).

183 After 11/15/2016, NaK-Nit-Sul\_PG, Ca-rich\_PG, and OC-Sul\_PG increased by 1.96, 1.30,  
184 and 1.47 times respectively. As described above, in rural areas, low-quality coal is  
185 commonly used for residential heating and cooking, resulting in abundant EC-Sul, OC-Sul,  
186 and NaK-Nit-Sul (Xu et al., 2018; Chen et al., 2016a). Interestingly, Ca-rich particles that  
187 were well correlated with OC-Sul ( $R = 0.79$ ) also increased, possibly due to flying ash from  
188 coal stoves.

189 A number of studies have reported contributions of coal burning to the submicron PM in  
190 urban areas of Beijing. According to these mass-based studies, PM-bound PAHs, chloride,  
191 sulfate, nitrate, and lead were markers from emissions of coal burning (Xu et al., 2018; Sun  
192 et al., 2014; Ma et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2019). Our result shows that these species were

193 internally mixed as the ECOC particles. In particular, the household heating in PG released  
194 significant fractions of ECOC particles that arrived in the urban areas of Beijing. Likewise,  
195 K-rich particles from BB also transport to the urban areas of Beijing. Conclusively, control  
196 of emissions from household heating is also a key to improve the air quality in Beijing.

### 197 **3.4 Case studies: Haze events at PKU**

198 As shown in Figure 3, before  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  increased to  $100 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  during E1\_PKU, two processes  
199 of  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  transport were observed. The first process was from 12:00 on 11/01/2016 to 2:00  
200 on 11/02/2016, in which OC-Nit-Sul, K-Nit-Sul, K-Nit, NaK-Nit, K-Nit-Sul increased  
201 dramatically as the southern wind speed increased from  $1.3 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  to  $3.7 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ . The wind  
202 speed then decreased to  $1.2 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  until 16:00 on 11/02/2016, and the accumulation of  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$   
203 resulted in a concentration of  $67 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ . The second process occurred from 17:00 on  
204 11/02/2016 to 16:00 on 11/03/2016. Severe accumulation then started at 1:00 on  
205 11/04/2016, with an elevating trend of RH, reaching the highest  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  level of  $314 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$   
206 at 03:00 on 11/05/2016. After that, the wind dispersed the  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  to  $11 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  at 17:00 on  
207 11/06/2016. In short, regional particles were transported from the south or southwest, then  
208 the accumulation of  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  began. The accumulation of pollutants was accompanied by  
209 secondary aerosol formation, causing severe haze events.

210 During the events at PKU (Figure 3), particles transported from the south and southwest  
211 were observed and labeled with red rectangles. During E4\_PKU, the  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  concentration  
212 increased from  $6 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  to  $122 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  between 15:00 on 11/24/2016 and 3:00 on  
213 11/25/2016 due to the southern wind, which brought abundant NaK-Nit, NaK-Nit-Sul,  
214 ECOC-Nit-Sul, and EC-Nit-Sul. Notably, regional particles were dramatically different

215 from those of E1\_PKU due to the heating period. Then, under stagnant air conditions, the  
216 accumulation began at 22:00 on 11/25/2016 and lasted until 03:00 on 11/26/2016, with  
217 PM<sub>2.5</sub> levels reaching 281  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ . At this stage, such local particles as OC-Nit-Sul, ECOC-  
218 Nit-Sul, and ECOC-Nit also showed accumulation and local emissions, while both the K-  
219 rich and NaK families showed a pattern of transport and accumulation (Figures 6 and 7).

220 As shown in Figure 6, which gives an integrated view of related particle types in urban  
221 Beijing, three types of particle evolution are distinguished during E1. First, EC particles,  
222 including EC-Nit, EC-Nit-Sul, and EC-Sul, show trends of accumulation, but with clear  
223 patterns of emissions, suggesting a pattern of emission and accumulation. Second, for  
224 regional particles such as the K-rich and NaK families, the processes of transport and  
225 accumulation were identified, with significant accumulation but unclear diurnal patterns.  
226 Third, the OC and ECOC families illustrated clear diurnal patterns of local emission and  
227 evolution. Notably, during the development of E1, the fractions of aged ECOC-Nit-Sul  
228 increased from 20% to 83%, suggesting that significant secondary processing occurred.

229 Due to the nature of SPAMS, the quantitative measurement of secondary formation is  
230 unavailable. Fortunately, as an integrated and extensive project, APHH-Beijing also  
231 included the online monitoring of the chemical composition of PM<sub>2.5</sub>. For example, during  
232 the transport stage of E4\_PKU, PM<sub>2.5</sub> was composed of 60% organic matter (OM) and 40%  
233 total nitrate, sulfate, and ammonium. During the accumulation stage, sulfate, nitrate, and  
234 ammonium levels were boosted up to 123  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  (63%) together (Liu et al., 2019). Wang  
235 et al. (2019) also reported that, during the accumulation stage of E4\_PKU, the elevation of  
236 secondary OOA1 and OOA2 was significant.

237 In the most recent study of aerosol-radiation feedback deterioration in Beijing during  
238 wintertime, Wu et al. (2019) proposed that the increase of near-surface PM<sub>2.5</sub> from 10 to  
239 200  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  can result in a decrease of the planetary boundary layer (PBL) from 1,500 m to  
240 400 m, the decrease consequently contributes to PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentration by 20%. However, a  
241 20% difference cannot explain that PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentration increased from 100  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  to 300  
242  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ . Moreover, when PM<sub>2.5</sub> exceeded 200  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ , the height of the PBL remained at  
243 400–500 m and air stagnation occurred with weak horizontal wind and inactive advection.  
244 Zhong et al. (2017) observed that weak temperature inversion occurred at the same period,  
245 and near-surface RH increased after southerly transport, along with decreased vertical wind  
246 speed and increased RH during winter. Air stagnation was also observed in this study with  
247 low wind speed and high RH (Figure 2). Based on the evidence of chemical evolution, the  
248 southerly transport of PM was strongly connected to pollution events at PKU.

### 249 **3.5 Case studies: Haze events at PG**

250 A pollution event occurred at PG (E1\_PG) from 11/01 to 11/08. During this period, a  
251 similar pattern of transport and accumulation as E1\_PKU was also observed. At the  
252 beginning of each pollution event, there was also a transport process of particles from the  
253 southwest (Figure 4); when the wind speed reached  $< 2 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ , accumulations began, and  
254 the haze dispersed with the elevating wind speed. The development of haze events was  
255 similar, and Figure 4 lists all the favorable wind directions for transport marked with red  
256 rectangles. As shown in Figure 9, EC-Nit and EC-Nit-Sul showed unclear diurnal patterns,  
257 indicating that both particle types were transported regionally. K-rich, NaK, OC, and  
258 ECOC had clear diurnal heating and cooking patterns, suggesting that local sources were  
259 dominant. Such aged particle types as OC-Nit-Sul and ECOC-Nit-Sul increased due to

260 local aging processes during E1\_PG. Therefore, E1\_PG was mainly driven by the input of  
261 particles, local emissions, and accumulation. Moreover, the relative abundance of ECOC-  
262 Nit-Sul increased twofold from 2:00 on 11/03/2016 to 12:00 on 11/03/2016, suggesting the  
263 contribution of secondary formation (Figure 8).

264 Both E1\_PG and E1\_PKU had patterns of transport and accumulation, but the transported  
265 particles were different; for example, at the PG site, the appearance of EC-Nit and EC-Nit-  
266 Sul, which came from the west, i.e., urban Beijing, was pronounced, while at PKU, aged  
267 particle types such as OC-Nit-Sul, K-Nit-Sul, K-Nit, NaK-Nit, and K-Nit-Sul increased  
268 dramatically due to transport. These particle types were emitted from residential heating in  
269 rural areas. In the accumulation stages at both sites, the concentrations of local particles  
270 rose, such as EC-Nit-Sul at PKU and NaK-Nit-Sul at PG. In short, the evolution of particles,  
271 including both transport and accumulation at both PKU and PG, were affected by the  
272 movement of air mass and local emissions.

273 When E4\_PG occurred, transport from the southwest was identified along with the  
274 transport of EC-Sul and EC-Nit-Sul, resulting in a PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentration of 176  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  at  
275 10:00 on 11/24/2016. The average wind speed was 1.5  $\text{ms}^{-1}$  at the time, representing a  
276 typical stagnant-air condition. All particle families showed accumulation trends after that  
277 (Figure 4). The sharp decrease of all particle families was due to the high western wind  
278 speed ( $> 4 \text{ ms}^{-1}$ ) at 12:00 on 11/26/2016. During particulate accumulation at PG, such local  
279 particle types as ECOC, OC, and NaK still had diurnal patterns, but the aged “-Nit-Sul”  
280 particles types were predominant ( $> 50\%$  in all particle families). Thus, the local  
281 accumulation of pollutants was the major driver of E4\_PG (Figure 8).

### 282 3.6 Interaction of PM between PKU and PG

283 Since PKU and PG share 17 common particle types, possible transport between the two  
284 sites was validated using the HYSPLIT model. All cases of transport are available in  
285 Supplementary information (Figures S11 and S12). Figures 10 and 11 only illustrate the  
286 examples of transport during each pollution event. The PKU site is located on the edge of  
287 plumes originating from PG during E1, which implies that the particulate transport was  
288 partially from PG (Figure 10). Moreover, the PKU site lies in the high concentration zone  
289 of plumes PG from during E3 and E4. Therefore, E3\_PKU and E4\_PKU were confidently  
290 considered input haze events. In contrast, the relatively slighter transport of air mass from  
291 PKU to PG was observed during these events. As shown in Figure 11, the air mass passing  
292 through the PKU site mainly influenced the areas in the south and east. Consequently, the  
293 PG site was seldom in the high concentration zone of plumes originating from PKU.

294 Figures 10 and 11 suggest that pollutants were transported significantly from PG to PKU  
295 during stagnant air conditions when dense haze occurred. These results are consistent with  
296 the analysis of particle categories. As shown in Figure 3, when the transport occurred in  
297 04<sup>th</sup> November, 19<sup>th</sup> November, and 26 November, the regional particle types, such as K-  
298 Nit-Sul, Nak-Nit-Sul, ECOC-Nit-Sul, and OC-Nit-Sul increased due to the transport from  
299 the East (Part I). In an urban area such as PKU, the local EC particles were associated with  
300 the ECOC and OC families causing severe pollution in the urban area. On the other hand,  
301 in the rural area, the aged particles were dominant under stagnant air conditions and  
302 transported to PKU, leading to extreme urban particulate pollution. Besides, our results are  
303 consistent with other studies in the APHH-Beijing Project. For example, Du et al. (2019)

304 have confirmed that regional transport plays a non-negligible role in haze episodes with  
305 contributions of 14–31% to the surface PM<sub>2.5</sub> mass concentration.

### 306 **3.7 Implications**

307 This study provides the polar plots that are used to explain the interaction of pollutants and  
308 wind. Such regional pollution sources as BB, coal, and steel industries have a strong impact  
309 on the particulate chemical composition of the air in urban Beijing. Besides, according to  
310 model studies, air pollutants in Hebei, Henan, and Shandong provinces are transported to  
311 Beijing (Shi et al., 2019; Du et al., 2019). In these provinces, efforts have been made to  
312 abate emissions from the steel industry, power plants, and traffic. However, BB accounted  
313 for 10–20% of the PM<sub>2.5</sub> in the study period (Liu et al., 2019). In particular, household  
314 biofuel combustion is a primary BB source during winter, impacting both outdoor and  
315 indoor air quality (Zhang and Cao, 2015). Therefore, more attention should be paid to  
316 tackling BB emissions.

317 This study improves our general understanding of the sources of sulfates in Beijing.  
318 Particles that only increased with the uptake of sulfate, such as OC-Sul\_PKU, K-Sul\_PKU,  
319 and NaK-Sul\_PKU, were transported regionally and arrived at the sampling site during  
320 high wind speeds ( $> 4 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ ). The results are consistent with the findings of Duan et al.  
321 (2019) and Du et al. (2019) that sulfates in Beijing during winter are formed regionally.  
322 Nitrate-containing particles could be found after processing in the NO<sub>x</sub>-rich urban and rural  
323 plumes of Beijing. Since SPAMS is limited in tracking such partial organics as  
324 hydrocarbons and PAHs, the evolution of secondary organics is unavailable in this study.



#### 325 **4. Summary**

326 The wintertime haze events that occurred in Beijing from 11/01/2016 to 11/29/2016 have  
327 been investigated. The heating period, including central and residential heating in both  
328 urban and rural areas, severely impacted the particulate chemical composition in the region.  
329 In Beijing, a pattern of the transport and accumulation of particles was found in both the  
330 urban and rural areas. The input of regional particles was strongly connected to stagnation  
331 of the air which provided favorable conditions for the accumulation of pollutants,  
332 ultimately leading to severe haze events. In the rural area, the heavy haze was mainly  
333 controlled by air stagnation and local emissions, but regional transport was also observed.  
334 We also discussed the influence of regional transport using the dispersion model. The air  
335 masses between PKU and PG interacted with each other whenever heavy haze occurred.  
336 Parts I and II of this study are useful for understanding the formation mechanism of winter  
337 haze in both the urban and rural areas of Beijing. This study also implies that the mitigation  
338 of PM relies on both urban and rural areas.

339 *Data availability.* All the data described in this study is available upon request from the  
340 corresponding authors.

341 *Author contributions.* YC, FY, MZ, TZ, QZ, and KH designed the experiments; YC, JC,  
342 ZW, MT, CP, and HY carried them out; XY, GS, and SZ analyzed the experimental data;  
343 YC prepared the manuscript with contributions from all coauthors.

344 *Competing interests.* The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

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487 Figure 1 Map of the sampling sites.

488 Figure 2. Spatial configuration of domains used for WRF simulation.

489 Figure. 3. Time trends of PM<sub>2.5</sub>, temperature, relative humidity, wind direction, wind speed,  
490 and single particle types at PKU. The rectangles indicate the transport of regional particles.

491 Figure 4. Time trends of PM<sub>2.5</sub>, temperature, relative humidity, wind direction, wind speed,  
492 and single particle types at PG. The rectangles indicate the transport of regional particles.

493 Figure 5. Variation of particle number fractions at PKU and PG before and after the heating  
494 period 2017.

495 Figure 6. Time trends of number fractions of particle types (left) and hourly counts of  
496 particle families (EC, BB, NaK, OC, and ECOC, right) during Pollution Event 1 (E1 11/01–  
497 11/08) at PKU.

498 Figure 7. Normalized time trends of number fraction of particle types (left) and hourly  
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500 (E4) at PKU.

501 Figure 8. Time trends of number fractions of particle types (left) and hourly counts of  
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503 11/08) at PG.

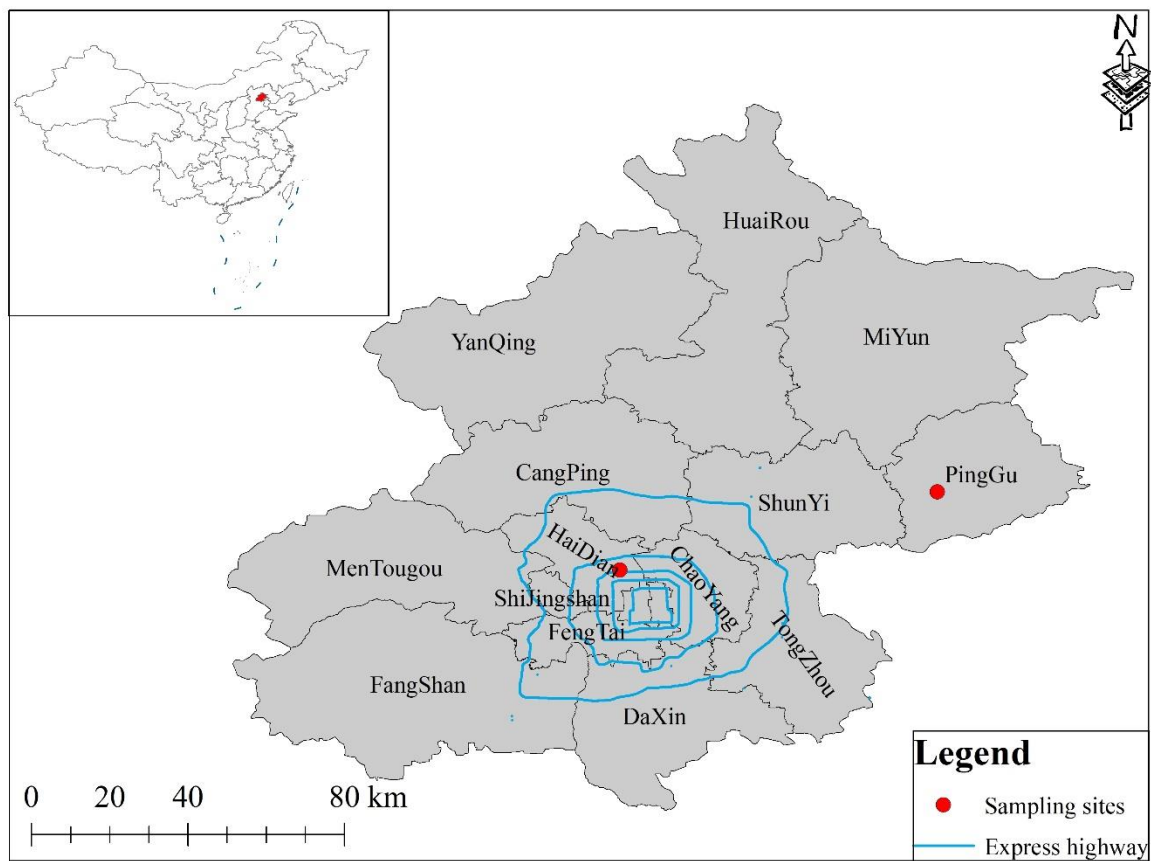
504 Figure 9. Time trends of number fractions of particle types (left) and hourly counts of  
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506 PG.

507 Figure 10. Typical dispersion of air mass from PG (star, on the right) to PKU (dot, on the  
508 left) during E1 (11/04), E2 (11/11), E3 (11/19) and E4 (11/26).

509 Figure 11. Typical dispersion of air mass from PKU (star, on the left) to PG (dot, on the  
510 right) in E1 (11/01), E2 (11/11), E3 (11/19) and E4 (11/29).

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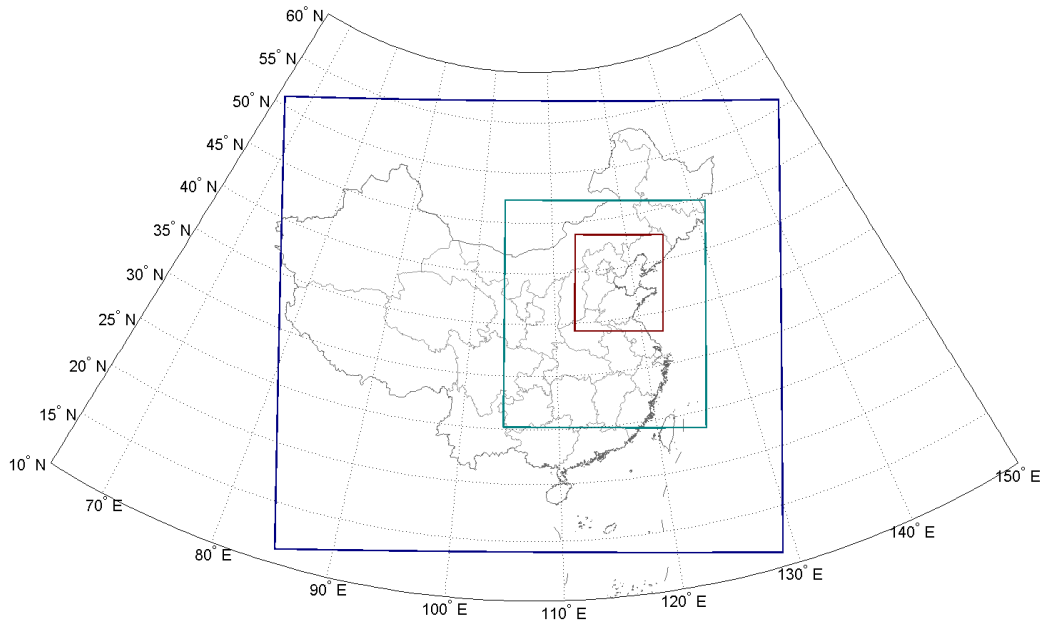


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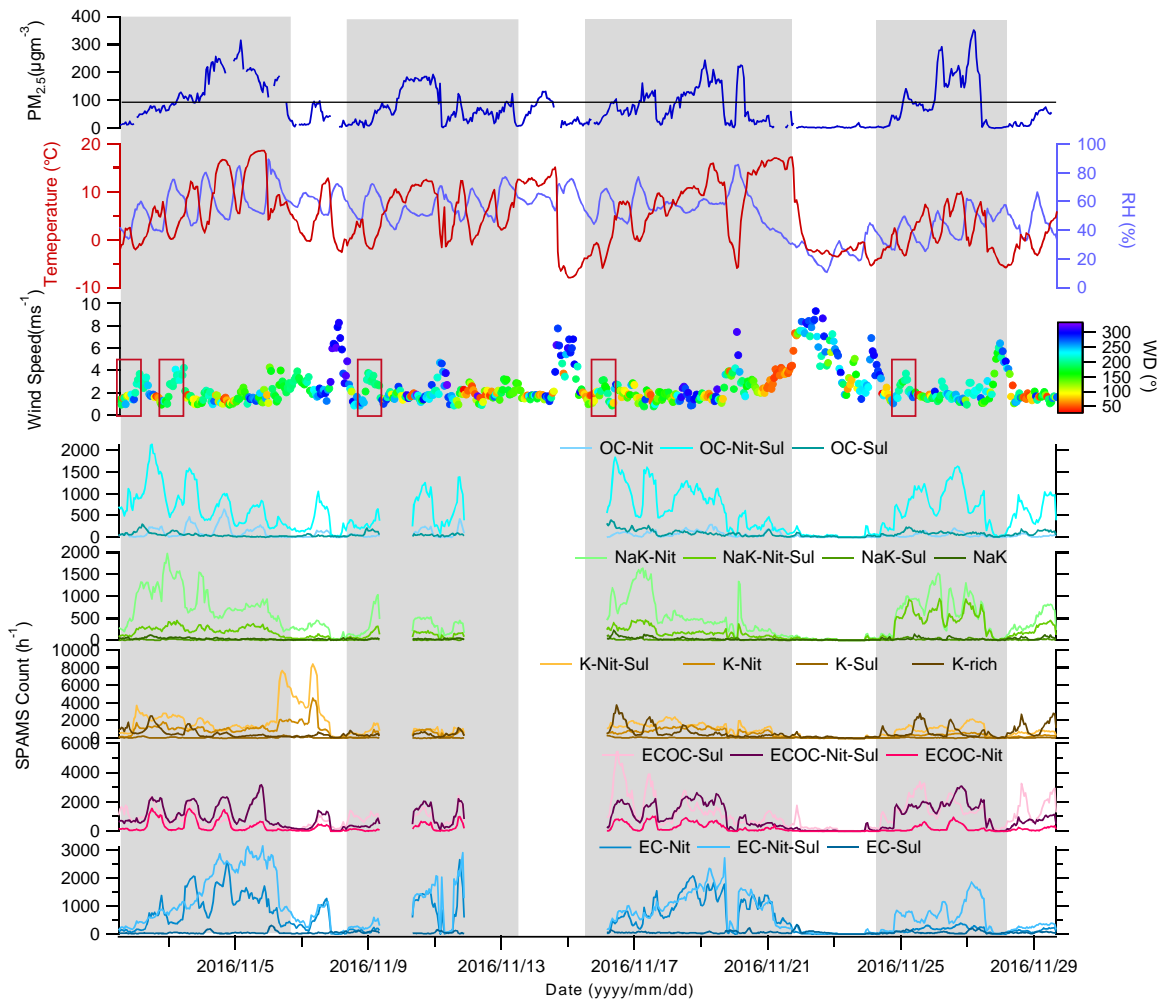
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518 Figure 2. Spatial configuration of domains used for WRF simulation.

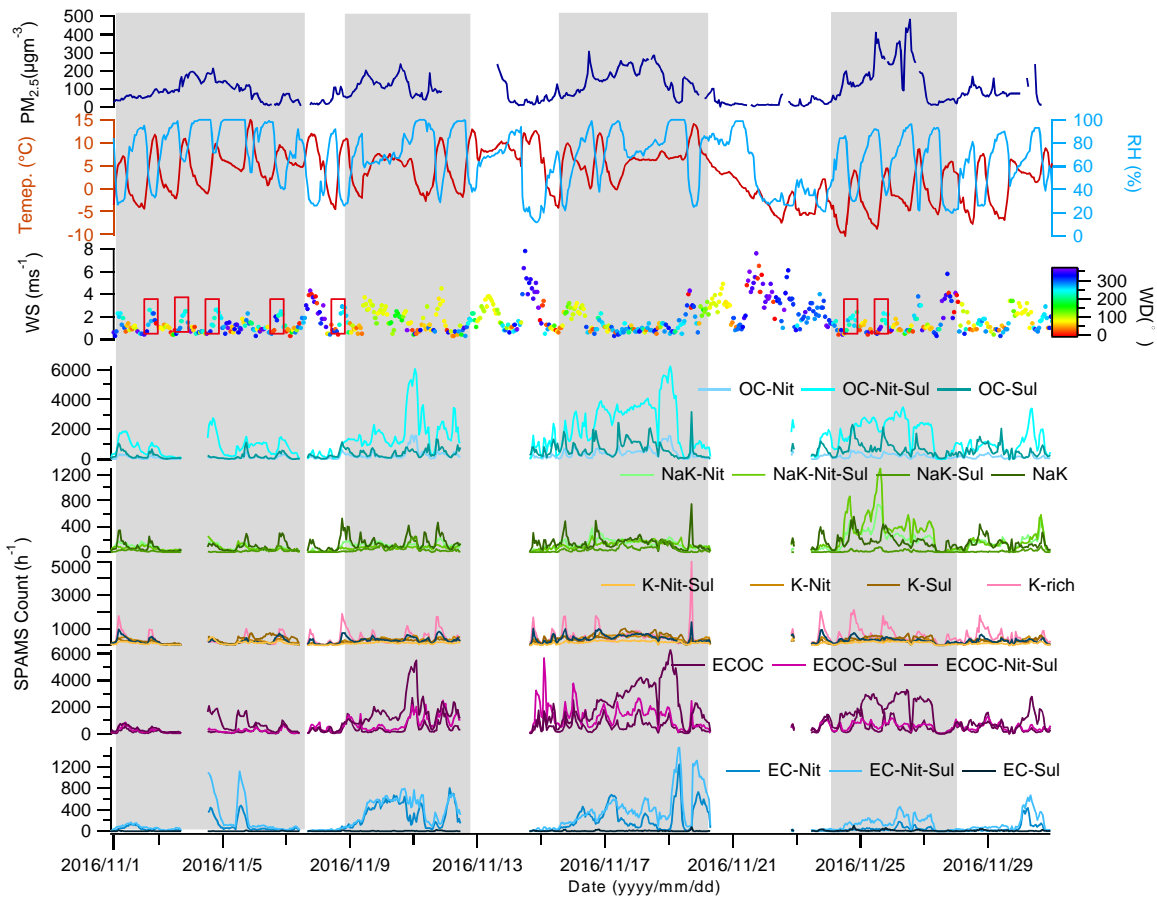
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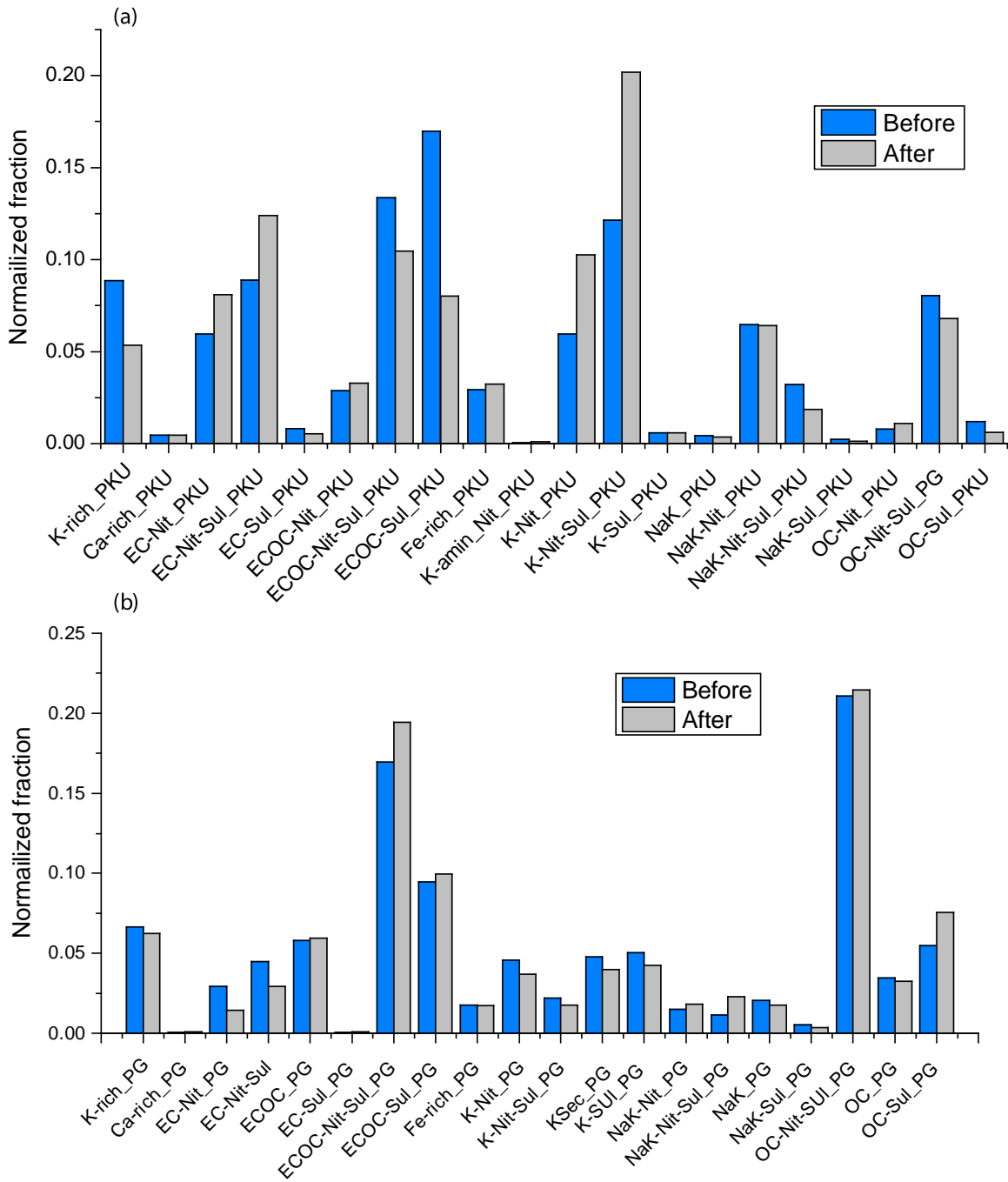
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525 Figure 4. Time trends of PM<sub>2.5</sub>, temperature, relative humidity, wind direction, wind speed,  
 526 and single particle types at PG. The rectangles indicate the transport of regional particles.

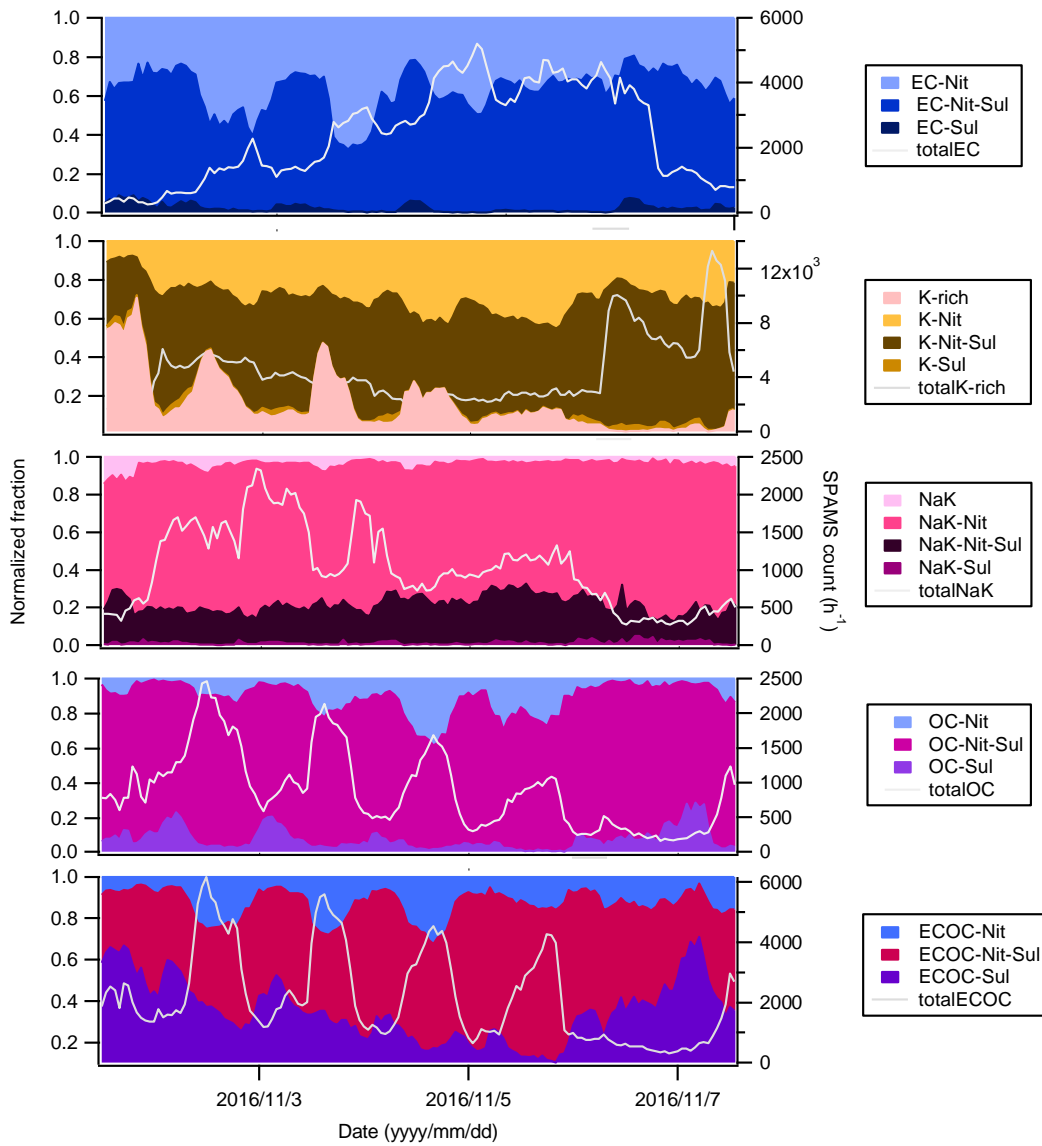
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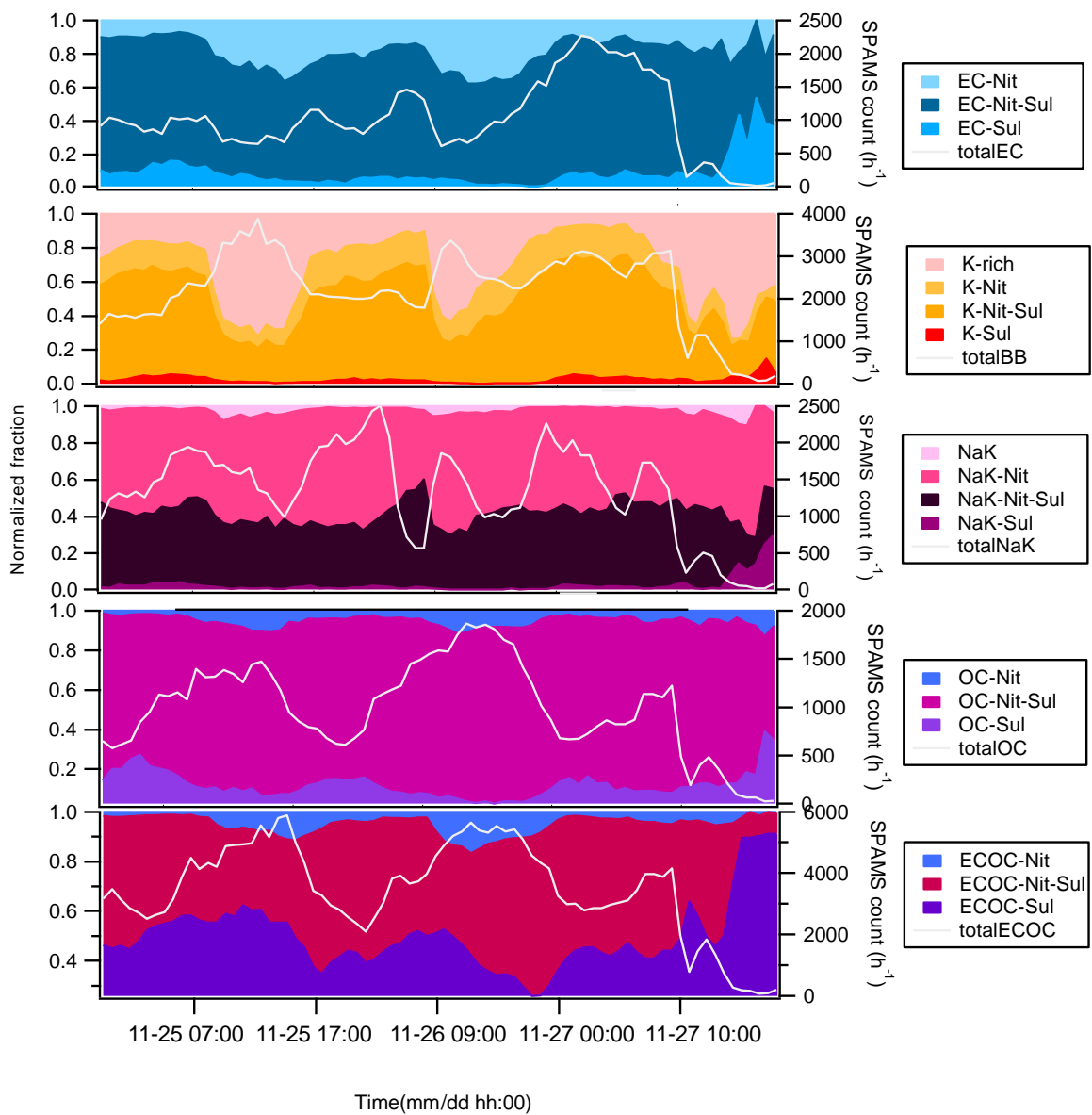


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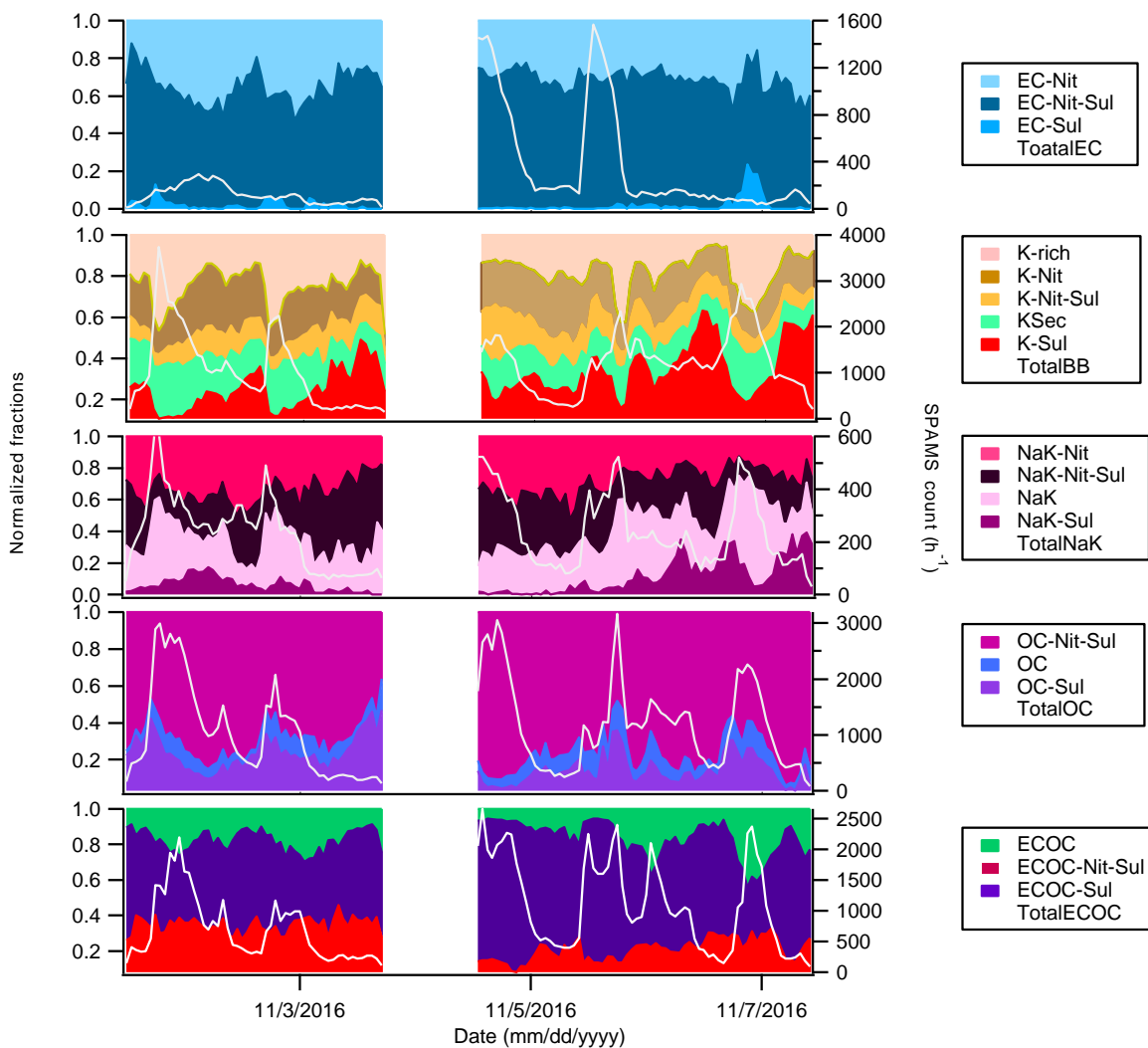


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538 Figure 7. Normalized time trends of number fraction of particle types (left) and  
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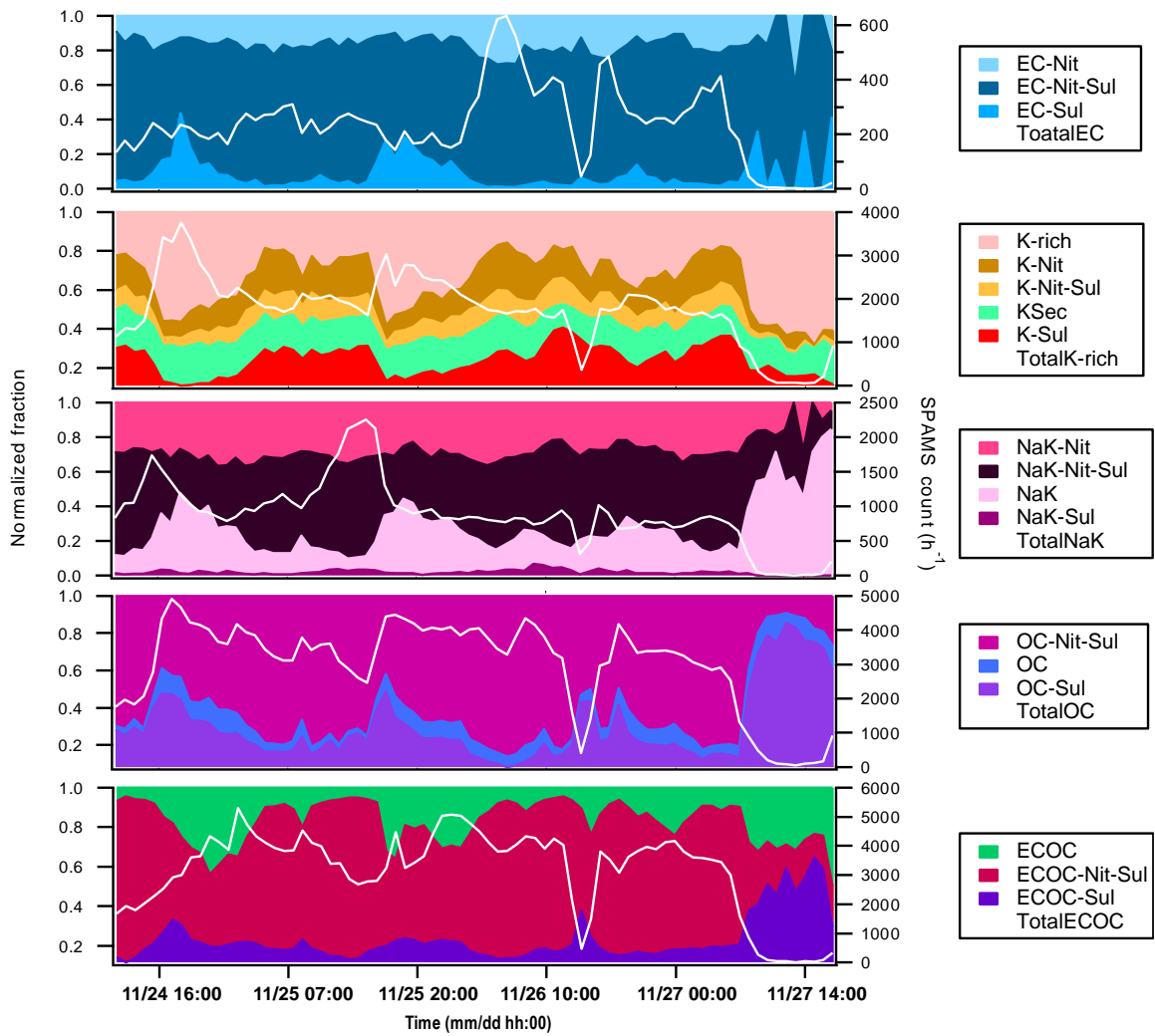
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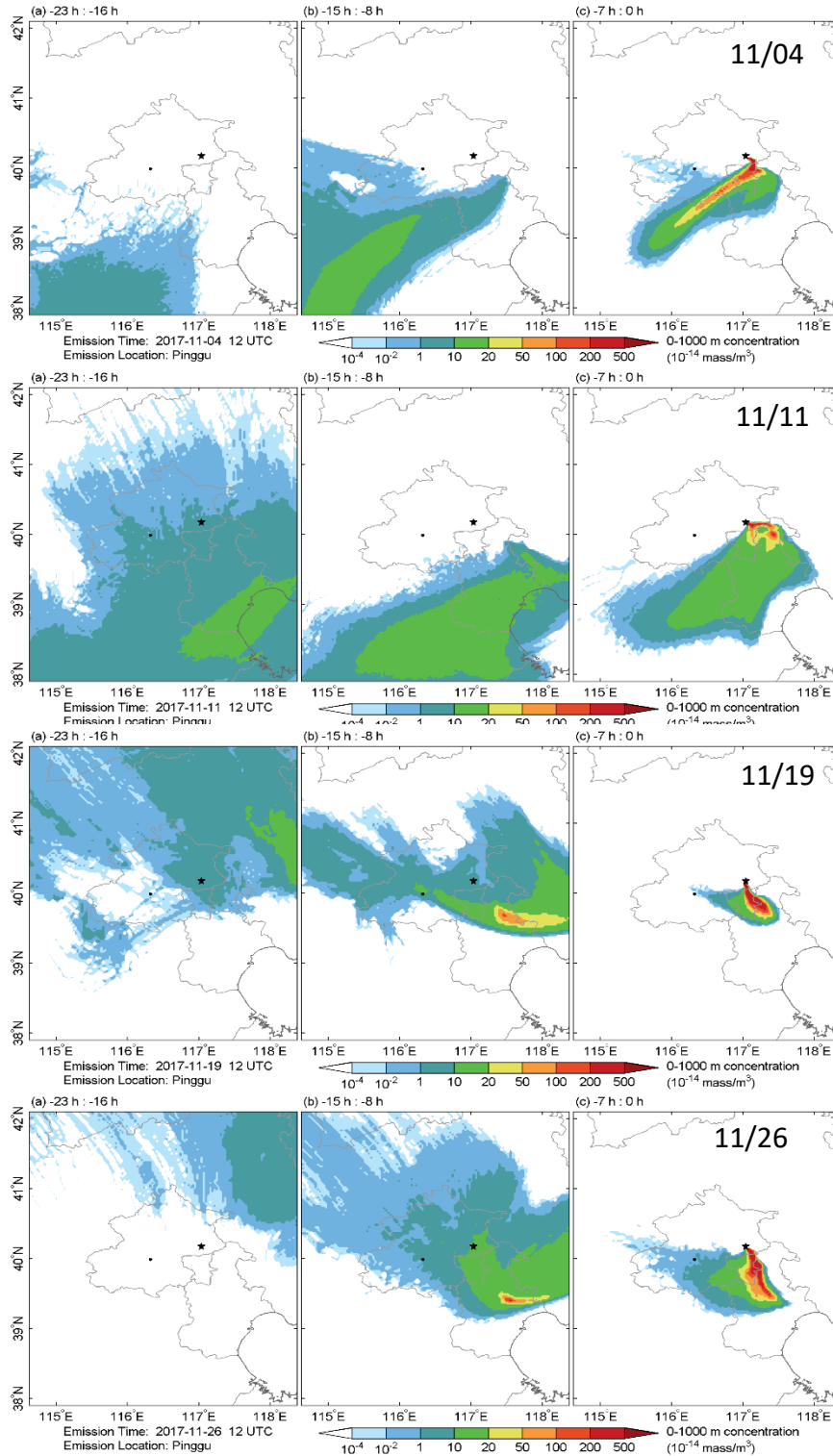
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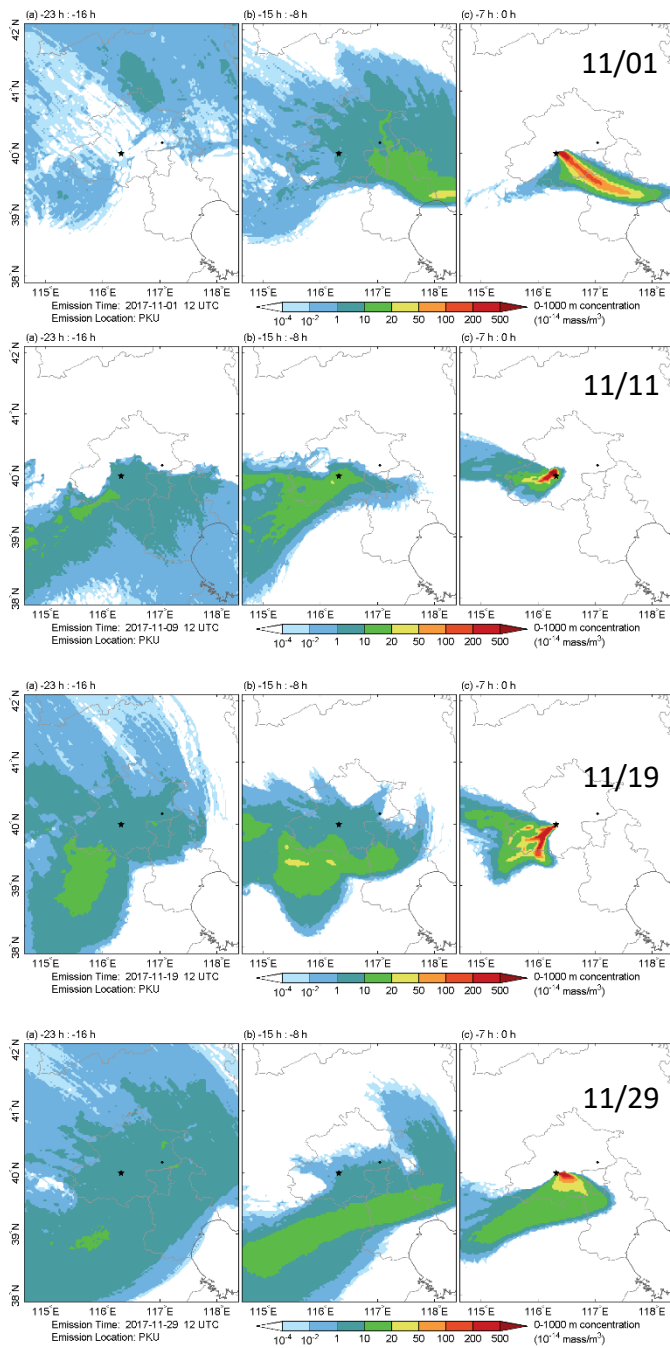
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555

556 Figure 11. Typical dispersion of air mass from PKU (star, on the left) to PG (dot, on the  
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