

1 **Contrasting sources and processes of particulate species in haze days with low and**
2 **high relative humidity in wintertime Beijing**

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28

29 **Abstract**

30 Although there are many studies of particulate matter (PM) pollution in Beijing, the
31 sources and processes of secondary PM species during haze periods remain unclear.
32 Limited studies have investigated the PM formation in highly-polluted environments
33 under low and high relative humidity (RH) conditions. Herein, we present a systematic
34 comparison of species in submicron particles (PM₁) in wintertime Beijing (29 December
35 2014 to 28 February 2015) for clean periods and pollution periods under low and high
36 RH conditions. PM₁ species were measured with an aerosol chemical species monitor
37 (ACSM) and an aethalometer. Sources and processes for organic aerosol (OA) were
38 resolved by positive matrix factorization (PMF) with multilinear engine 2 (ME-2). The
39 comparisons for clean, low-RH pollution, and high-RH pollution periods are made from
40 three different aspects, namely (a) mass concentration, (b) mass fraction, and (c) growth
41 rate in diurnal profiles. OA is the dominant component of PM₁ with an average mass

42 concentration of $56.7 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (46%) during high-RH pollution and $67.7 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (54%)
43 during low-RH pollution periods. Sulfate had higher concentration and mass fraction
44 during high-RH pollution periods, while nitrate had higher concentration and mass
45 fraction during low-RH pollution periods. The diurnal variations of nitrate and
46 oxygenated organic aerosol (OOA) showed a daytime increase of their concentrations
47 during all three types of periods. Nitrate had similar growth rates during low-RH ($0.40 \mu\text{g}$
48 $\text{m}^{-3} \text{h}^{-1}$) and high-RH ($0.55 \mu\text{g m}^{-3} \text{h}^{-1}$) pollution periods. OOA had a higher growth rate
49 during low-RH pollution periods ($1.0 \mu\text{g m}^{-3} \text{h}^{-1}$) than during high-RH pollution periods
50 ($0.40 \mu\text{g m}^{-3} \text{h}^{-1}$). In contrast, sulfate had a decreasing trend during low-RH pollution
51 periods, while it increased significantly with a growth rate of $0.81 \mu\text{g m}^{-3} \text{h}^{-1}$ during high-
52 RH pollution periods. These distinctions in mass concentrations, mass fractions, and
53 daytime growth rates may be explained by the difference in the formation processes,
54 affected by meteorological conditions. In particular, photochemical oxidation and
55 aqueous-phase processes may both produce sulfate and nitrate. The relative importance
56 of the two pathways, however, differs under different meteorological conditions.
57 Additional OOA formation under high-RH (>70%) conditions suggests aqueous-related
58 formation pathways. This study provides a general picture of the haze formation in Beijing
59 under different meteorological conditions.

60 **1 Introduction**

61 Air pollution is a serious environmental problem in China, particularly in the North China
62 Plain (NCP) in winter, affecting air quality and human health. Beijing is one of the most
63 polluted megacities in the NCP, with an annual mean concentration of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ being 86 and
64 $51 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ in 2014 and 2018, respectively (<http://sthjj.beijing.gov.cn/>), which significantly
65 exceeded the Chinese National Ambient Air Quality Standard (annual average of $35 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$).
66 Fine PM pollution in polluted urban environments is complex and is typically
67 associated with enhanced primary emissions from multiple sources, strong secondary
68 aerosol formation, and stagnant weather conditions (Sun et al., 2011; 2013; 2016; Huang
69 et al., 2014; Hu et al., 2016; An et al., 2019). Regional transport of air pollutants from
70 urbanized and industrialized areas has an important contribution to fine PM pollution in
71 the NCP region. For example, severe fine PM pollution in Beijing during winter often
72 happened when prevailing air masses were from the south (Sun et al., 2016).

73 Organic aerosol (OA) is the major constituent of fine PM and is much less understood
74 compared to inorganic aerosol in terms of their chemical nature and sources (Hallquist et
75 al., 2009; Shrivastava et al., 2017). OA is composed of a wide variety of organic species
76 from different sources, and its emission sources and atmospheric processes are not well
77 understood so far, especially in those regions with high fine PM pollution. OA is either
78 directly emitted to the atmosphere (primary organic aerosol, POA) or formed in the
79 atmosphere (secondary organic aerosol, SOA). Therefore, it is essential to identify and
80 quantify the major emission sources and understand the formation processes of OA.

81 The Aerodyne aerosol chemical speciation monitor (ACSM) with quadrupole (Q) or time-

82 of-flight (TOF) mass analyzer is capable of real-time determination of non-refractory
83 components in submicron aerosol (NR-PM₁), overcoming the limitation of filter
84 measurements such as limited time resolution or measurement artifacts (Ng et al., 2011a;
85 Froehlich et al., 2013). ACSM has been widely used for fine PM studies in many sites in
86 China including Beijing, Nanjing, Shijiazhuang, and Baoji (Sun et al., 2014; Wang et al.,
87 2017; Zhang et al., 2017; Huang et al., 2019). By applying positive matrix factorization
88 (PMF, Paatero et al., 1993) or multilinear engine (ME-2, Canonaco et al., 2013) solver to
89 the ACSM data, main OA sources can be identified. Those sources include hydrocarbon-
90 like OA (HOA), biomass burning OA (BBOA), cooking OA (COA), coal combustion OA (CCOA)
91 and oxygenated OA (OOA). OOA can further be resolved into semi-volatile OOA (SV-OOA)
92 and low-volatility OOA (LV-OOA) by volatility, or more-oxidized OOA (MO-OOA) and less-
93 oxidized OOA (LO-OOA) by oxidation state. MO-OOA and LO-OOA together were found to
94 contribute 61% of OA in Beijing during summer in 2011 (Sun et al., 2012), while POA was
95 found to be more important during winter of the same year (Sun et al., 2013). However,
96 many recent studies show large contributions of SOA in wintertime Beijing (Huang et al.,
97 2014; Hu et al., 2016; Xu et al., 2018) and CCOA is often found to be a large fraction of POA
98 during wintertime pollution days in Beijing (Sun et al., 2016b; Wang et al., 2015; Elser et
99 al., 2016). The discrepancies in SOA contribution in different measurement periods reflect
100 the difference in atmospheric and meteorological conditions, e.g., atmospheric oxidative
101 capacity and relative humidity (RH) (Sun et al., 2013; Xu et al., 2017; Wu et al., 2018; Song
102 et al., 2019).

103 Despite the observations of large production of secondary aerosol during haze events, the
104 formation mechanisms are not yet well understood. Specifically, more studies are needed
105 to elucidate the relative importance of photochemical oxidation versus aqueous-phase
106 processes on the formation of secondary aerosol during wintertime haze episodes of
107 different meteorological conditions. In this study, we present measurement results at an
108 urban site in Beijing during the winter of 2014-2015. The chemical nature of NR-PM₁,
109 sources of OA, formation processing of secondary aerosol in different episodes, and
110 particularly the effects of RH on secondary aerosol formation are discussed.

111 **2 Methods**

112 **2.1 Site description and instrumentation**

113 The online measurements were conducted on the rooftop of a building (about 20 m above
114 the ground level) at the campus of the National Centre for Nanoscience and Technology
115 (40.00° N, 116.38° E) from 29 December 2014 to 28 February 2015. The observation site
116 is between the 4th and 5th ring roads in the northwest of Beijing and is surrounded by a
117 residential area.

118 A Q-ACSM was deployed for the mass concentration measurements of NR-PM₁ species,
119 and the detailed operation principles can be found in Ng et al. (2011a). Briefly, ambient
120 air was pumped through a 3/8 in stainless steel tube at a flow rate of 3 L min⁻¹, of which

121 85 mL min⁻¹ was sampled into the Q-ACSM. In order to remove coarse particles, an URG
122 cyclone (URG-2000-30ED, size cut-off 2.5 μm) was installed in front of the inlet. Because
123 particle bounce can affect collection efficiency (CE), to reduce this uncertainty and to dry
124 the particles, a Nafion dryer (MD-110-48S; Perma Pure, Inc., Lakewood, NJ, USA) was
125 installed after the URG cyclone. An aerodynamic lens was used to focus the submicron
126 particles into a narrow beam, the particles beam then impinged on a heated tungsten
127 surface (about 600 °C) to evaporate, impacted by 70-eV electron to ionize, and then
128 detected by a quadrupole mass spectrometer. During this study, the scan rate of Q-ACSM
129 was at 200 ms amu⁻¹ from m/z 10 to 150 and the time resolution was 30 min. To determine
130 the response factor (RF), a differential mobility analyzer (DMA, TSI model 3080) and a
131 condensation particle counter (CPC, TSI model 3772) were used to select and count the
132 monodisperse 350-nm ammonium nitrate (NH₄NO₃) particles, respectively. The mass of
133 NH₄NO₃ particles was calculated with known particle size and number concentrations.
134 This calculated mass concentration was compared to the RF of the Q-ACSM, resulting in
135 the ionization efficiency (IE) value (Ng et al., 2011a).

136 The gaseous species including O₃, NO_x, and SO₂ were measured by a Thermo Scientific
137 Model 49i ozone analyzer, a Thermo Scientific Model 42i NO-NO₂-NO_x analyzer, and an
138 Ecotech EC 9850 sulfur dioxide analyzer, respectively. The NH₃ concentrations were
139 measured by an NH₃ analyzer (Picarro G2103). The concentrations of black carbon (BC)
140 was determined by an aethalometer (Model AE-33, Magee Scientific) with a time
141 resolution of 1 min. In brief, light attenuation at seven different wavelengths was recorded
142 for particle-laden filter spots, and BC concentration was retrieved based on the light
143 attenuation at 880 nm. An automatic weather station (MAWS201, Vaisala, Vantaa, Finland)
144 was used to measure the meteorological parameters including temperature, pressure,
145 relative humidity and visibility, and a wind sensor (Vaisala Model QMW101-M2) was
146 used to measure the wind speed and wind direction.

147 **2.2 Data analysis**

148 **2.2.1 ACSM data analysis**

149 The standard Q-ACSM data analysis software (v.1.5.3.5) written in Igor Pro (WaveMetrics,
150 Inc., OR, USA) was used to calculate the mass concentrations for different species in NR-
151 PM₁. Default relative ionization efficiencies (RIE) were used for organics (1.4), nitrate (1.1)
152 and chloride (1.4), respectively (Ng et al., 2011a). RIE of 5.8 for ammonium and 1.2 for
153 sulfate were determined by the IE calibrations of ammonium nitrate and ammonium
154 sulfate. Meanwhile, data were corrected for the particle collection efficiency (CE), due to
155 particle bounce on the vaporizer. CE can be affected by relative humidity, mass fraction of
156 ammonium nitrate and particle acidity. In our measurement, the particles were generally
157 neutral and dried before sampling into the ACSM. CE was calculated as $CE_{dry} = \max(0.45,$
158 $0.0833 + 0.9167 \times ANMF)$, where ANMF refers to the ammonium nitrate fraction in NR-
159 PM₁(Middlebrook et al. 2012).

160 2.2.2 OA source apportionment

161 The receptor model PMF using a multilinear engine (ME-2) was used to identify and
162 quantify the OA sources. PMF is a bilinear receptor model used to describe the variability
163 of a multivariate dataset, X , as the linear combination of a set of constant factor profiles, F ,
164 and their corresponding time series G , as expressed in equation 1.

$$165 \quad X = GF + E \quad (1)$$

166 where X is the measured OA mass spectra consisting of i rows and j columns, and E is the
167 model residuals. The PMF uses a least squares method to minimize the object function Q ,
168 defined as the sum of the squared residuals (e_{ij}) weighted by their respective uncertainties
169 (σ_{ij}).

$$170 \quad Q = \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n (e_{ij}/\sigma_{ij})^2 \quad (2)$$

171 Unconstrained PMF analyses of OA data suffer from rotational ambiguity when sources
172 show similar profiles and temporal covariation (Canonaco et al., 2013; Huang et al., 2019).
173 However, by introducing *a priori* information as additional model input and constraining
174 one or more output factor profiles to a predetermined range, ME-2 can overcome such
175 difficulties and provide more environmentally meaningful solutions. When an element of
176 a factor profile (f_j , where j refers to the m/z) is constrained with a certain a value (a), the
177 following conditions need to be fulfilled:

$$178 \quad f_{j,solution} = f_j \pm a \times f_j \quad (3)$$

179 The a value can vary between 0 and 1, which is the extent to which the output profiles can
180 vary from the model inputs. The data analysis were conducted using the source finder
181 (SoFi, Canonaco et al., 2013) tool version 4.9 for Igor Pro. Due to rotational ambiguity,
182 there was no mathematically unique solution. Therefore, criteria including chemical
183 fingerprint of the factor profiles, correlations with external tracers, and diurnal cycles
184 were used for the factor identification and interpretation (Ulbrich et al., 2009; Huang et
185 al., 2014, Elser et al., 2016).

186 2.2.3 Aerosol liquid water content

187 NR-PM₁ inorganic species, NH₃ concentrations and meteorological parameters including
188 temperature and RH were used to calculate the aerosol liquid water content from
189 inorganic species (ALWC_{*i*}) based on the ISORROPIA-II model (Fountoukis and Nenes,
190 2007). Here we ran the ISORROPIA-II in “forward” mode and the particles were assumed
191 to be deliquescent, i.e., in metastable mode (Hennigan et al., 2015). The thermodynamic
192 equilibrium of the NH₄⁺-SO₄²⁻-NO₃⁻-Cl⁻-H₂O system was then modeled and ALWC_{*i*} was
193 calculated.

194 Meanwhile, the contribution of organics to ALWC (ALWC_o) was also calculated using the
195 following equation (Guo et al., 2015; Cheng et al., 2016):

$$196 \quad W_{\text{org}} = \frac{\text{OM}}{\rho_{\text{org}}} \cdot \rho_w \cdot \frac{\kappa_{\text{org}}}{(100\%/\text{RH} - 1)}$$

197 where OM is the mass concentration of organics, ρ_w is the density of water and ρ_{org} is the
198 density of organics ($\rho_{\text{org}} = 1.4 \times 10^3 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$, Cerully et al., 2015). κ_{org} is the hygroscopicity
199 parameter of organic aerosol composition. We adopted a κ_{org} value of 0.06 based on
200 previous cloud condensation nuclei measurements in Beijing (Gunthe et al., 2011).

201 **3 Results and discussion**

202 **3.1 Temporal variations and mass fractions of PM₁ species**

203 Fig. 1 shows the time series of mass concentrations of OA, SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻, NH₄⁺, Cl⁻, and BC, as
204 well as the meteorological parameters. The average mass concentration of PM₁ during the
205 entire measurement period was 73.8 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, similar to those observed in Beijing in winter
206 2011 (66.8 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, Sun et al., 2013) and winter 2013 (64.0 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, Sun et al., 2016). The
207 lowest daily average concentration was 5.2 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ on 31 December, while the highest was
208 210.1 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ on 15 January, with a difference of a factor of ~40. OA (52%) was the most
209 abundant component of PM₁, irrespective of the meteorological conditions, followed by
210 nitrate (14%) and sulfate (11%). The weather conditions during the measurement period
211 were characterized by drastic changes in wind speed, wind direction, RH and temperature,
212 providing a unique setting to investigate the influence of meteorological conditions on PM
213 species. The clean and pollution episodes occurred alternately during the measurement
214 period, and the PM₁ concentration was usually lower than 20 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ during clean episodes
215 and higher than 100 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ during pollution episodes. As such, the measurements can be
216 divided into the clean period (PM₁ <20 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) and the pollution period (PM₁ >100 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$).
217 South/southeasterly wind directions with low speed (average, 0.9 -1.0 m s^{-1}) were
218 typical for the pollution period, while north/northwesterly with high speed (average, 2.5
219 m s^{-1}) for the clean period (Fig. 1).

220 During the polluted period, RH varied from 15% to 95% with an average value of 46% and
221 a median value of 43%. To investigate the effects of RH on PM pollution formation, we
222 further divided the pollution period into two categories, the low-RH pollution days (RH
223 <50%) and the high-RH pollution days (RH >50%). The diurnal variations of mass
224 concentrations and fractions of different chemical species during clean days, low-RH
225 pollution days and high-RH pollution days are shown in Fig. 2. The mass fractional
226 variations were flatter during low-RH and high-RH pollution days than during clean days,
227 likely due to the accumulation of pollutants during stagnant weather conditions in
228 pollution days. During clean days, secondary inorganic aerosol showed generally
229 increasing trends from 06:00 to 20:00 local time (LT), despite the development of the
230 boundary layer height during the day. The growth rate of nitrate mass (0.21 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3} \text{ h}^{-1}$)
231 was higher than that of sulfate (0.04 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3} \text{ h}^{-1}$) and ammonium (0.10 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3} \text{ h}^{-1}$), indicating
232 that formation of nitrate was perhaps faster than that of sulfate and ammonium during

233 clean days. During low-RH pollution days, nitrate increased from 06:00 to 20:00 LT, with
234 a growth rate of $0.40 \mu\text{g m}^{-3} \text{h}^{-1}$, which was two times higher than that during clean days.
235 On the contrary, sulfate concentrations increased from 06:00 to 10:00 LT, then started
236 decreasing and reached the minimum at 14:00 LT, possibly due to the increase of the
237 boundary layer height during the day, which outweighed the production of sulfate.
238 Associated with both sulfate and nitrate, ammonium showed a minor increase from 06:00
239 to 20:00 LT with a mass growth rate of $0.18 \mu\text{g m}^{-3} \text{h}^{-1}$. This phenomenon suggested that
240 the low-RH condition was favorable for nitrate formation but not for sulfate formation
241 under polluted conditions. In contrast, obvious increases of secondary inorganic species
242 from 8:00 to 16:00 LT were observed during high-RH pollution days, with growth rates of
243 $0.81 \mu\text{g m}^{-3} \text{h}^{-1}$, $0.55 \mu\text{g m}^{-3} \text{h}^{-1}$ and $0.46 \mu\text{g m}^{-3} \text{h}^{-1}$ for sulfate, nitrate and ammonium,
244 respectively. These mass growth rates increased correspondingly by about 20, 2.6 and 4.6
245 times compared to those during clean days. Note that nitrate growth rate in high-RH
246 pollution days ($0.55 \mu\text{g m}^{-3} \text{h}^{-1}$) was still slightly higher than that in low-RH pollution days
247 ($0.40 \mu\text{g m}^{-3} \text{h}^{-1}$), indicating that nitrate production is still efficient when RH is high,
248 although not as much higher compared to sulfate. Measurements of sulfate oxygen
249 isotopes suggest that the largely enhanced formation of sulfate is associated with efficient
250 aqueous-phase reactions during high-RH pollution days (Shao et al., 2019). Note that the
251 comparison of growth rates was done under the assumption that chemical processes
252 were the main reason for mass growth, which might not be the case if other factors such
253 as planetary boundary layer height variations dominate. Yet comparison of growth rates
254 of different species in the same time period would not be affected by these factors because
255 those species should share the same effects.

256 **3.2 Sources and diurnal variations of OA**

257 Source apportionment was performed on the OA data. Three to seven factors were
258 examined using an unconstrained PMF model, and the factors were qualitatively identified
259 based on their mass spectral profiles and correlation with external data. We found that a
260 solution of five factors (i.e., HOA, COA, CCOA, BBOA, and OOA) best explains our data. For
261 the solutions with less than 5 factors, HOA appeared to be mixed with COA while CCOA
262 mixed with BBOA (Fig. S1). However, when the number of factors was increased to 6, the
263 OOA factor split into two OOA factors of similar time series (Fig. S2), suggesting that
264 further separation of the factors does not improve the interpretation of the data.

265 Although five factors with different profiles and temporal variations were identified by
266 the unconstrained PMF model, the factor profiles and time series were suboptimal,
267 specifically for HOA, COA, and BBOA. The diurnal pattern of HOA showed pronounced
268 peaks at cooking time, indicating its mixing with COA. The fractional contribution of m/z
269 60 (f_{60} , typically related to the fragmentation of anhydrous sugars) in HOA (0.008) was
270 higher than the average value reported from multiple ambient datasets (0.002, Ng et al.,
271 2011). To reduce the mixing between factors, the reference HOA mass spectral profile,
272 characterized by a small f_{60} (Wang et al., 2017), and the BBOA mass spectral profile,
273 derived from Beijing wintertime measurements (Elser et al., 2016), were constrained

274 using ME-2. For the COA mass spectral profile that was derived from our unconstrained
275 PMF analysis, a-value of 0 was used. Meanwhile, for HOA and BBOA, the a values were
276 varied systematically between 0 and 1 with an interval of 0.1 to explore the solution space.
277 To assess the obtained solutions, we have set thresholds for the highest acceptable f_{60}
278 value (0.006) for HOA and f_{57} value (0.042) for BBOA, based on mass spectra obtained at
279 multiple sites (mean $\pm 2\sigma$, Ng et al., 2011). Only solutions that conform to both criteria
280 were selected and the final solution was the average of those selected reasonable
281 solutions (Fig. S3).

282 The final OA factors resolved by ME-2 include four POA (i.e., HOA, COA, BBOA and CCOA),
283 and one SOA (i.e., OOA) factors, on average accounting for 14%, 14%, 10%, 32% and 31%
284 of OA mass concentration, respectively. The mass spectral profiles and time series of the
285 resolved factors are shown in Fig. 3a and b, respectively. The diurnal patterns of these
286 factors are presented in Fig. 4. The HOA spectrum is similar to those derived from other
287 studies in Beijing (Hu et al., 2016; Sun et al., 2014; 2016) and Pittsburgh (Ulbrich et al.,
288 2016), and also resembles the source profile from diesel exhausts (Canagaratna et al.,
289 2004). A strong correlation between the time series of HOA and BC was observed
290 ($R^2=0.84$). The diurnal cycle of HOA was similar to those observed in other studies in
291 Beijing (Sun et al., 2011; 2013; 2014), showing higher mass concentrations during the
292 night than during the day, due to enhanced traffic emissions from heavy duty vehicles and
293 diesel trucks that are allowed to enter the inner city during the night.

294 Similar to HOA, the mass spectrum of COA also displayed high signals in odd fragments,
295 while the m/z 55/57 ratio (1.45) and m/z 41/43 ratio (1.6) were significantly higher
296 compared to those of the HOA factor profile (m/z 55/57=0.65, m/z 41/43=0.88). The COA
297 profile is similar to those resolved in previous studies in Beijing (Elser et al., 2016; Sun et
298 al., 2016), Paris (Crippa et al., 2013) and Zurich (Dey et al., 2004). The R^2 between COA
299 and m/z 55 time series was 0.73. The diurnal cycle of COA showed two prominent peaks
300 during lunch (12:00-13:00 LT) and dinner (18:00-19:00 LT) times, and the peak in the
301 evening was more pronounced than that at noon, consistent with a previous study in
302 Beijing (Sun et al., 2016). Furthermore, the diurnal variation of COA was more obvious
303 with much clear noon and evening peaks during clean days than during low-RH and high-
304 RH pollution days, likely because the stagnant meteorological conditions during pollution
305 days facilitated the accumulation of pollutants and thus weakened the diurnal fluctuation.

306 The BBOA mass spectrum showed a similar pattern as that extracted from Crippa et al.
307 (2014), with pronounced peaks at m/z 60 and 73, two distinct markers of biomass
308 burning emissions (Lanz et al., 2007). BBOA also showed similar time series with a high
309 signal at m/z 60 ($R^2=0.74$). The diurnal cycle of BBOA showed a slight increase during the
310 night (18:00-24:00 LT), corresponding to nighttime burning for residential heating in
311 clean days, while this diurnal cycle became much flat during low-RH and high-RH
312 pollution days, likely due to the stagnant meteorological conditions during pollution days.
313 On average, BBOA contributed 10% of the total OA, much less than that of CCOA (32%),
314 consistent with previous results in Beijing (Elser et al., 2016).

315 The profile of CCOA showed a moderate correlation with that resolved in Beijing in winter
316 2014 (Elser et al., 2016). Similar to previous studies, signals related to unsaturated
317 hydrocarbons, especially those at m/z 77, 91 and 115, contributed significantly to the total
318 CCOA signal. In addition, there was a strong correlation between CCOA and Cl⁻ ($R^2=0.82$),
319 which was considered as a marker mainly from coal combustion emissions. The mass
320 concentration and mass fraction of CCOA were both significantly higher at night than
321 those during the day, which was observed both in clean days and pollution days. The
322 diurnal pattern suggests much stronger emissions from coal combustion at night, a
323 situation further deteriorated by a shallower boundary layer at night.

324 One secondary OA factor, namely OOA, was also resolved, characterized by an important
325 contribution at m/z 44. The profile of OOA is also similar to those resolved in Ng et al.
326 (2011) and Sun et al. (2013). OOA is correlated well with nitrate ($R^2=0.89$), and the diurnal
327 cycle of OOA shows an increase from about 6:00 to 20:00 LT, indicating the contribution
328 from photochemical production and accumulation of OOA. Note that the growth rate of
329 OOA during low-RH pollution days ($1.0 \mu\text{g m}^{-3} \text{h}^{-1}$) was higher than that during high-RH
330 pollution days ($0.40 \mu\text{g m}^{-3} \text{h}^{-1}$) and clean days ($0.35 \mu\text{g m}^{-3} \text{h}^{-1}$) (Fig. 4).

331 3.3 Chemically resolved PM pollution

332 Fig. 5 shows the mass fraction of PM₁ and OA during clean, low-RH and high-RH pollution
333 periods. OA was the dominant component in PM₁, with an average concentration
334 increasing from $10.9 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ during clean periods to $56.7 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ during high-RH pollution
335 periods and further to $67.7 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ during low-RH pollution periods. The corresponding
336 mass fraction of OA was 56%, 46%, and 54%, respectively. The decrease of OA mass
337 fraction during pollution periods can be attributed to the increased formation of sulfate
338 and nitrate, as demonstrated in the above section. Specifically, nitrate increased from 11%
339 ($2.2 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) during clean periods to 14% ($17.2 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) during high-RH pollution periods
340 and to 15% ($18.8 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) during low-RH pollution periods, while sulfate increased from
341 10% ($2.0 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) during clean periods to 17% ($20.9 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) during high-RH pollution
342 periods but decreased back to as low as 7% ($8.8 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) during low-RH pollution periods.
343 The increased formation of nitrate from clean to pollution periods, especially during low-
344 RH pollution periods, is likely due to enhanced photochemical production, as discussed in
345 Lu et al. (2019) which shows fast photochemistry during wintertime haze events in
346 Beijing. Specifically, the atmospheric oxidation proxy ($\text{O}_x=\text{O}_3+\text{NO}_2$) increased from 39.2
347 ppb during clean periods to 47.8 ppb during high-RH pollution periods, and up to as high
348 as 59.8 ppb during low-RH pollution periods. Meanwhile, the precursor gas for nitrate,
349 NO₂, increased accordingly from 16.7 ppb during clean periods to 42.2 ppb during high-
350 RH pollution periods and to 55.4 ppb during low-RH pollution periods. The averaged PM₁
351 concentrations during high-RH ($123.2 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) and low-RH ($125.4 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) pollution
352 periods were very similar; but a distinct difference lies in the sulfate and nitrate fractions
353 in these two types of pollution periods. We observed similar contributions from nitrate
354 during low-RH pollution periods and high-RH pollution periods, while a much larger
355 contribution from sulfate during high-RH pollution periods than during low-RH pollution

356 periods because of enhanced formation from aqueous-phase processes.

357 In terms of OA sources, CCOA and OOA were the major sources irrespective of the PM₁
358 level. The mass fraction of CCOA in OA increased from 25% (2.8 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) during clean
359 periods to 31% (17.6 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) during high-RH pollution periods and to 35% (23.7 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$)
360 during low-RH pollution periods, indicating the importance of residential coal
361 combustion emissions during haze pollution in wintertime Beijing (Elser et al., 2016; Li
362 et al., 2017). OOA also increased significantly during pollution periods, from 4.1 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ to
363 $\sim 20 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. It should be noted that the average OOA mass concentrations were rather
364 similar during high-RH (19.8 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) and low-RH (18.3 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) pollution periods. However,
365 the OOA mass fraction in OA during the high-RH pollution period (35%) is higher than
366 that during the low-RH pollution period (27%), indicating an additional contribution of
367 OOA from e.g., aqueous-phase oxidations during high RH condition, as discussed below.
368 The mass fraction of HOA in OA increased from 8% (0.8 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) during clean days to 13%
369 (8.8 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) during low-RH pollution days and further to 16% (9.1 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) during high-RH
370 pollution days, suggesting an increased contribution of HOA in pollution days. The mass
371 fraction of HOA is similar to those measured in wintertime Beijing in 2011 (14%, Hu et al.,
372 2016) and in 2013 (11%, Sun et al., 2016). In contrast, the mass concentrations of COA
373 during low-RH pollution days (8.8 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) and high-RH pollution days (6.8 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) were
374 higher than that during clean days (2.0 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$), but the mass fraction of COA in OA during
375 high-RH pollution days (12%) and low-RH pollution days (13%) were lower than that
376 during clean days (20%). A similar decrease of HOA contribution and increase of COA
377 contribution during clean days were also observed by Sun et al. (2016) in wintertime
378 Beijing in 2011. The highest contribution of BBOA was observed during low-RH pollution
379 days with a mass fraction of 12% (8.1 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$). The BBOA concentration during high-RH
380 pollution days (3.4 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) was higher than that during clean days (1.0 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$), but the
381 mass fraction of BBOA in OA during high-RH pollution days (6%) was lower than that
382 during clean days (10%).

383 The chemical composition and sources of PM₁ under different meteorological conditions
384 (e.g., wind direction, wind speed and RH) in the seven pollution episodes (PM₁ >100 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$)
385 and seven clean episodes (PM₁ <20 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) are shown in Fig. S4. Note that these
386 episodes in total accounted for 91% of the entire measurement period. The pollution
387 episodes were found to be associated with the air masses from south/southwest, while
388 clean episodes were associated with the air masses from north/northwest. Meanwhile,
389 the pollution episodes were generally associated with higher RH and lower wind speeds
390 when compared to the clean episodes. The wind speeds were approximately three times
391 higher in clean episodes than those in pollution episodes. For example, the lowest
392 concentration of PM₁ was 6.7 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ in C6 period, corresponding to the highest wind speed
393 (4.0 m s^{-1}) and the lowest concentrations (< 20 ppb) of inorganic gaseous precursors (SO₂,
394 NH₃, and NO_x), while the highest PM₁ concentration of 169.0 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ was found at P5,
395 corresponding to a much lower wind speed (<1.0 m s^{-1}). The mass concentrations of OA
396 increased from $\sim 4.1\text{-}9.4 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ during clean episodes to $\sim 44.7\text{-}85.7 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ during
397 pollution episodes. However, the contributions of OA to PM₁ showed a decreasing trend

398 from 48-59% during clean episodes to 44-57% during pollution episodes, and the
399 corresponding contributions of secondary inorganic species increased from 29-34%
400 ($\sim 2.2\text{-}5.5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) to 27-47% ($\sim 25.5\text{-}62.1 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$), indicating a notable production and
401 accumulation of secondary inorganic aerosol during haze pollution episodes. In contrast,
402 the mass concentration of OOA increased from $\sim 1.4\text{-}3.9 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ during clean episodes to
403 $\sim 10.0\text{-}27.6 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ during pollution episodes, while the contribution of OOA to OA
404 decreased from 33-64% during clean episodes to 20-52% during pollution episodes. The
405 corresponding contribution of POA sources increased from 35-67% ($\sim 1.2\text{-}4.7 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) to
406 38-80% ($\sim 13.9\text{-}58.7 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$), suggesting that in general the emission and accumulation of
407 POA sources played an important role during haze pollution in this measurement
408 campaign.

409 Comparing the pollution episodes with different RH conditions (see Fig. S4), the mass
410 fraction of sulfate was much higher during high-RH pollution episodes (P3, P6 and P7, 15-
411 21%) than during low-RH pollution episodes (P1, P2, P4 and P5, 6-8%). OOA also showed
412 a much higher contribution to OA during high-RH pollution events (62% for P6 and 50%
413 for P7) than during low-RH pollution events (P1, P2, P4 and P5, 20-31%). These variations
414 suggest the potential importance of aqueous-phase reactions on the formation of sulfate
415 and OOA, as discussed above. Further comparison of high-RH and low-RH pollution
416 episodes with similar PM levels (e.g., P2 and P6 with PM_{10} concentration of $98.8 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ and
417 $99.6 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, respectively) shows that secondary inorganic aerosol dominated PM_{10} at high-
418 RH pollution episode. Similarly, as for the high-RH and low-RH pollution episodes with
419 similar OA levels, for example, P6 ($44.7 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) and P7 ($46.3 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$), OOA dominated the
420 particulate pollution (62% of OA) at high-RH pollution events due to efficient formation
421 of SOA. On the contrary, POA had increased contributions to PM pollution at low RH and
422 stagnant weather conditions (from 38% of OA at high-RH pollution to 50% of OA at low-
423 RH pollution), consistent with previous studies in other Chinese cities (e.g., Wang et al.,
424 2017; Huang et al., 2019). These results indicate that meteorological conditions have
425 important effects on the particulate pollution.

426 3.4 Formation of secondary aerosol

427 The relationship between SO_4^{2-} and NO_3^- is investigated to elucidate the formation
428 processes of these two typical secondary inorganic aerosol species. The correlation
429 between SO_4^{2-} and NO_3^- was weak for the entire pollution period, because of the varied
430 relative contribution of different formation processes during different periods. However,
431 better correlations between SO_4^{2-} and NO_3^- were found with different slopes when the data
432 were divided into low-RH (RH <50%) and high-RH (RH >50%) pollution periods (Fig. 6).
433 During low-RH pollution periods, NO_3^- and SO_4^{2-} showed a good correlation ($R^2 = 0.75$)
434 with a ratio of 2.1, indicating a similar photochemical production process. Meanwhile, the
435 high ratio between NO_3^- and SO_4^{2-} suggest the nitrate production is more efficient than
436 that of sulfate during low-RH pollution period. However, during high-RH pollution periods,
437 the ratio of NO_3^- to SO_4^{2-} decreased significantly to 0.40 with a lower correlation coefficient
438 ($R^2 = 0.53$). The degraded temporal correlation between nitrate and sulfate suggest

439 different formation pathway of nitrate and sulfate during high RH pollution periods.
440 Aqueous-phase production of SO_4^{2-} become important during those periods. Consistently,
441 Fig. 7 shows that the sulfate oxidation ratio ($\text{SOR} = [\text{SO}_4^{2-}]/([\text{SO}_4^{2-}] + [\text{SO}_2])$) increased
442 exponentially with the increase of ALWC at $\text{RH} > 50\%$.

443 A strong correlation of the mass concentrations between OOA and NO_3^- was observed with
444 R^2 of 0.84 (Fig. 8a), possibly explained by the dominant contribution of photochemical
445 production for both OOA and NO_3^- . Meanwhile, the O_x concentration during low-RH
446 pollution days (59.8 ppb) was higher than that during high-RH pollution days (47.8 ppb)
447 and clean days (39.2 ppb). With the higher O_x concentration (as a surrogate of oxidant
448 level) under low-RH conditions, the daytime formation of OOA was more efficient and the
449 growth rate was higher during those low-RH pollution days than those during high-RH
450 pollution days and clean days. When considering the RH effect (color coded in Fig. 8a), it
451 is found that the data are scattered around the regression line with uniform slope when
452 $\text{RH} < 70\%$ but concentrated in a small area above the regression line when $\text{RH} > 70\%$,
453 suggesting that the OOA formation at $\text{RH} > 70\%$ is probably promoted by aerosol water.
454 This is further supported by the linear increase of OOA with increasing SO_4^{2-} when RH
455 $> 70\%$, while the relationship between OOA and SO_4^{2-} was very scattered when $\text{RH} < 70\%$
456 (Fig. 8b).

457 **4 Conclusion**

458 We conducted online measurements of PM_{10} in urban Beijing from 29 December 2014 to
459 27 February 2015. The average mass concentration of PM_{10} was $73.8 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ and OA was the
460 most important component of PM_{10} (52%), followed by nitrate (14%) and sulfate (10%).
461 Source apportionment of OA resolved five factors including HOA, COA, BBOA, CCOA, and
462 OOA, in which CCOA (32%) and OOA (32%) were the most important sources to OA. The
463 mass proportion of CCOA in OA showed a significant increase from clean period (25%) to
464 pollution periods (31-35%), highlighting the important role of coal burning in haze
465 formation in wintertime Beijing. The meteorological conditions (WD, WS, and RH) have a
466 significant impact on the chemical composition and evolution of PM_{10} species. Nitrate had
467 a higher contribution during low-RH pollution days, implying the photochemical
468 oxidation process of nitrate formation. In contrast, the mass fraction of sulfate to PM_{10} was
469 much higher during high-RH pollution episodes compared to those during low-RH
470 pollution episodes. The data also showed the exponential increase of sulfate oxidation
471 ratio (SOR) with ALWC at high RH conditions. Both are consistent with the impacts of
472 aqueous-phase reactions on the formation of sulfate. As for the OOA formation, the strong
473 correlation between OOA and NO_3^- may be explained by the dominant role of
474 photochemical production on both species; aqueous-phase processes may add an
475 additional contribution to OOA formation under high RH condition, as indicated by the
476 linear increase of OOA with increasing SO_4^{2-} when $\text{RH} > 70\%$. These results provide
477 insights into the relative importance of photochemical oxidation and aqueous-phase
478 processes for secondary aerosol formation during haze pollution, demonstrating the
479 significance of meteorological conditions in the formation of secondary aerosol.

480 *Data availability.* Raw data used in this study are archived at the Institute of Earth
481 Environment, Chinese Academy of Sciences, and are available on request by contacting
482 the corresponding author.

483 *Supplement.* The Supplement related to this article is available online at

484 *Competing interests.* The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

485 *Author contributions.* RJH designed the study. Data analysis and interpretation were made
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825 **Table1** Summary of the PM₁ composition, OA sources and meteorological conditions
 826 during different pollution periods.

Species	Clean	High-RH pollution	Low-RH pollution
PM ₁ (μg m ⁻³)	19.5	123.2	125.4
Org (μg m ⁻³)	10.9 (56%)	56.7 (46%)	67.7 (54%)
SO ₄ ²⁻ (μg m ⁻³)	2.0 (10%)	20.9 (17%)	8.8 (7%)
NO ₃ ⁻ (μg m ⁻³)	2.2 (11%)	17.2 (14%)	18.8 (15%)
NH ₄ ⁺ (μg m ⁻³)	1.8 (9%)	12.3 (10%)	11.3 (9%)
Cl ⁻ (μg m ⁻³)	1.0 (5%)	7.4 (6%)	8.8 (7%)
BC (μg m ⁻³)	1.7 (9%)	8.6 (7%)	10.0 (8%)
HOA (μg m ⁻³)	0.8 (8%)	9.1 (16%)	8.8 (13%)
COA (μg m ⁻³)	2.0 (20%)	6.8(12%)	8.8 (13%)
BBOA (μg m ⁻³)	1.0 (10%)	3.4 (6%)	8.1 (12%)
CCOA (μg m ⁻³)	2.8 (25%)	17.6 (31%)	23.7 (35%)
OOA (μg m ⁻³)	4.1 (37%)	19.8 (35%)	18.3 (27%)
O _x (ppb)	39.2	47.8	59.8
NO ₂ (ppb)	16.7	42.2	55.4
RH (%)	25.0	60.0	31.0
WS (m s ⁻¹)	2.5	1.0	0.9
Vis (Km)	15.7	6.5	6.7

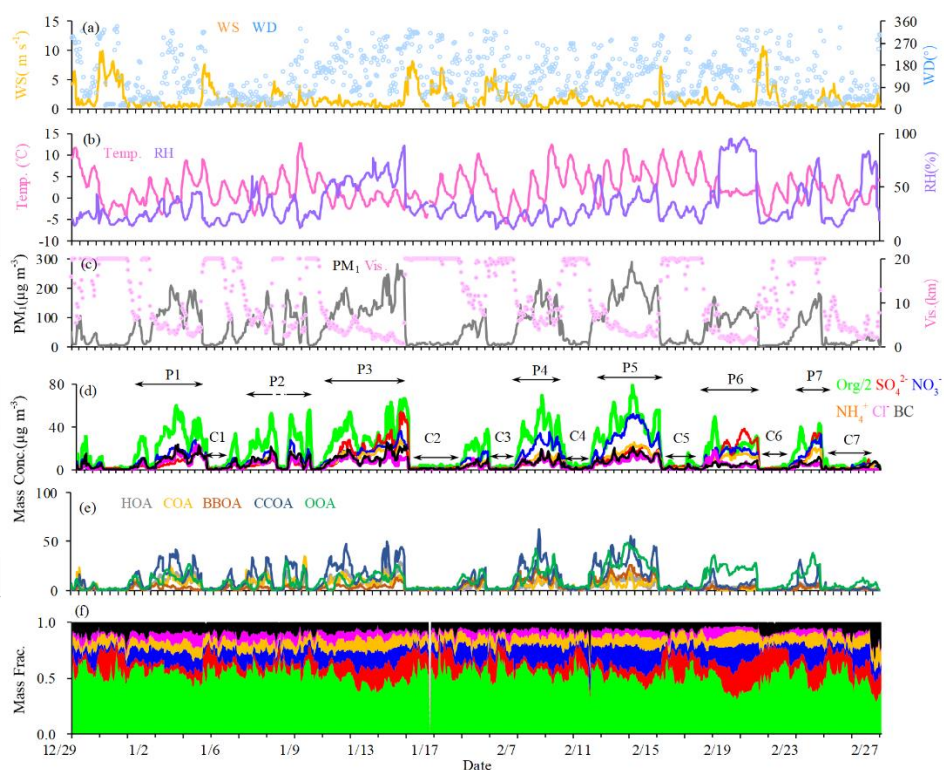
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833 **Figure 1.** Time series of (a) wind speed (WS) and wind direction (WD), (b) Temperature
834 (Temp) and relative humidity (RH), (c) visibility and PM₁, (d) NR-PM₁ species (i.e., OA,
835 SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻, NH₄⁺, Cl⁻ and BC; note that OA is halved clarity), (e) OA factors (i.e., HOA, COA,
836 BBOA, CCOA and OOA), and (f) relative contribution of PM₁ species.

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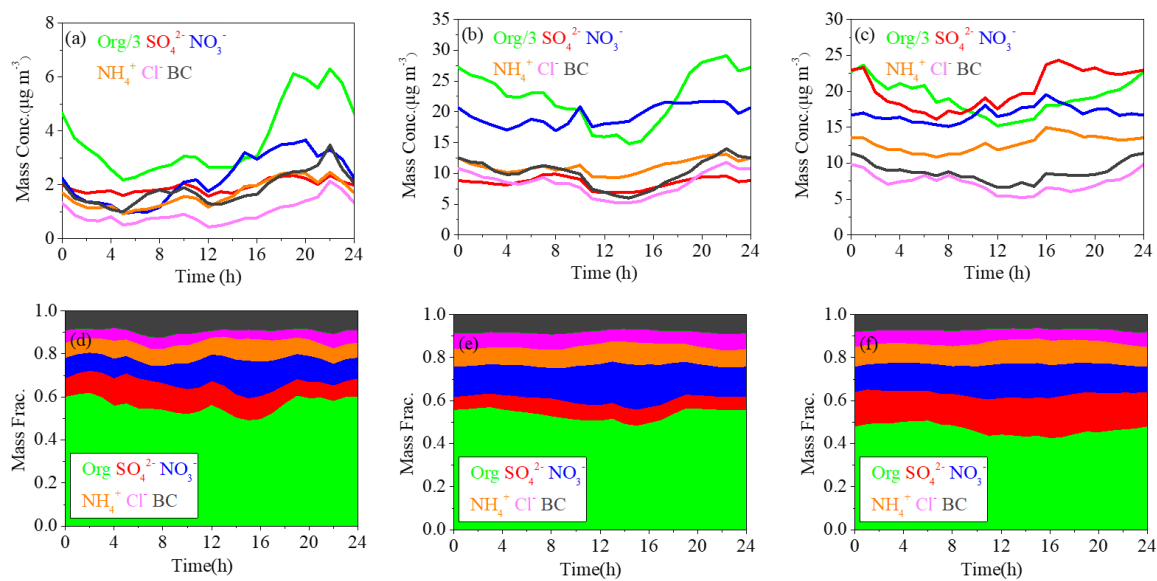
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847 **Figure 2.** The diurnal variations of mass concentrations and relative contributions of PM₁
848 components during clean days (a, d), low-RH pollution days (b, e) and high-RH pollution
849 days (c, f).

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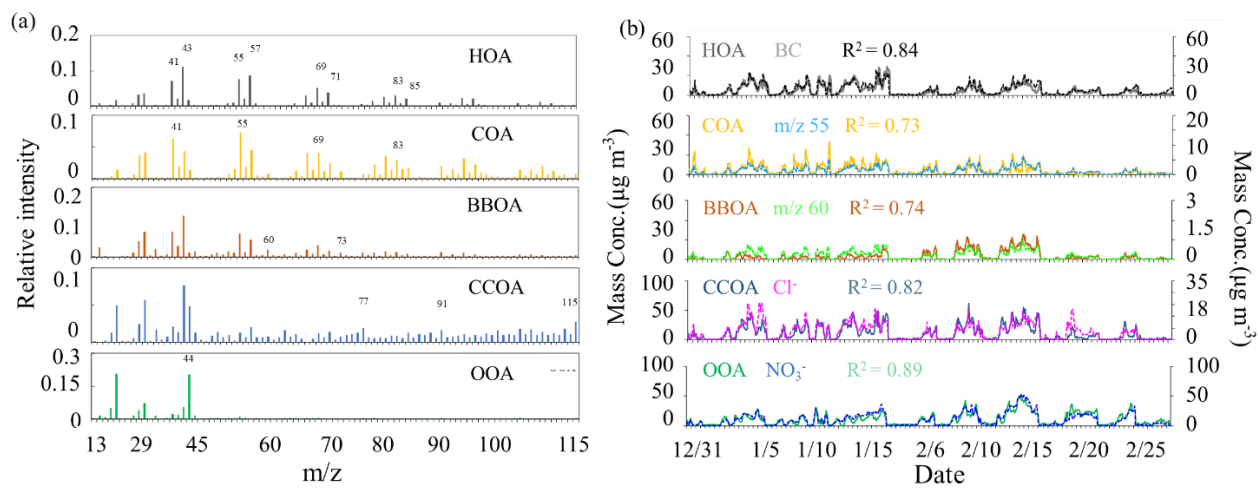
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864 **Figure 3.** The mass spectra(a) and time series(b) of OA factors (HOA, COA, BBOA, CCOA,
865 and OOA).

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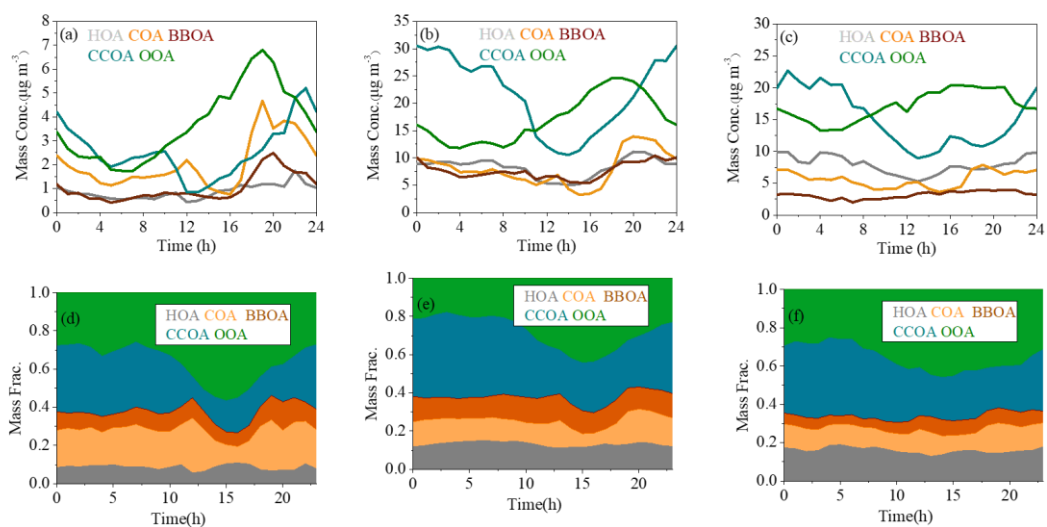
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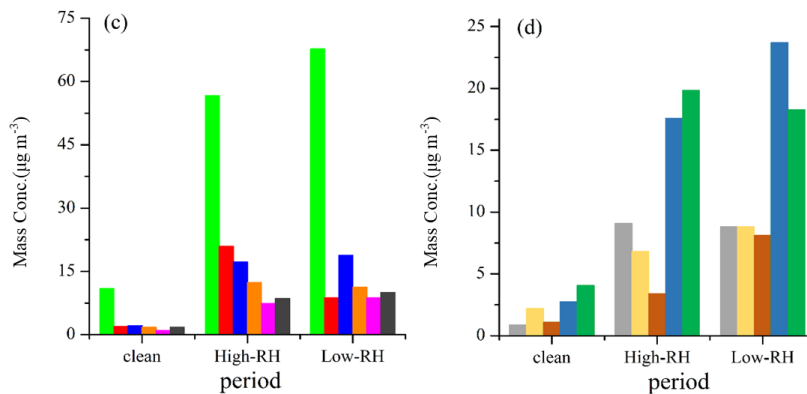
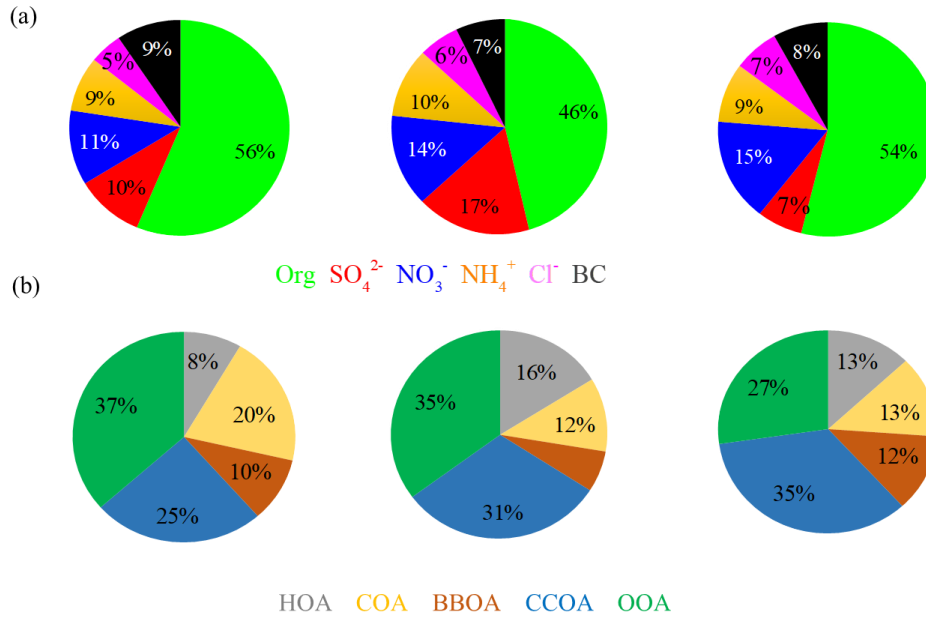
880 **Figure 4.** The diurnal variations of mass concentrations and relative contributions of OA
881 factors during clean days (a, d), low-RH pollution days (b, e) and high-RH pollution days
882 (c, f).

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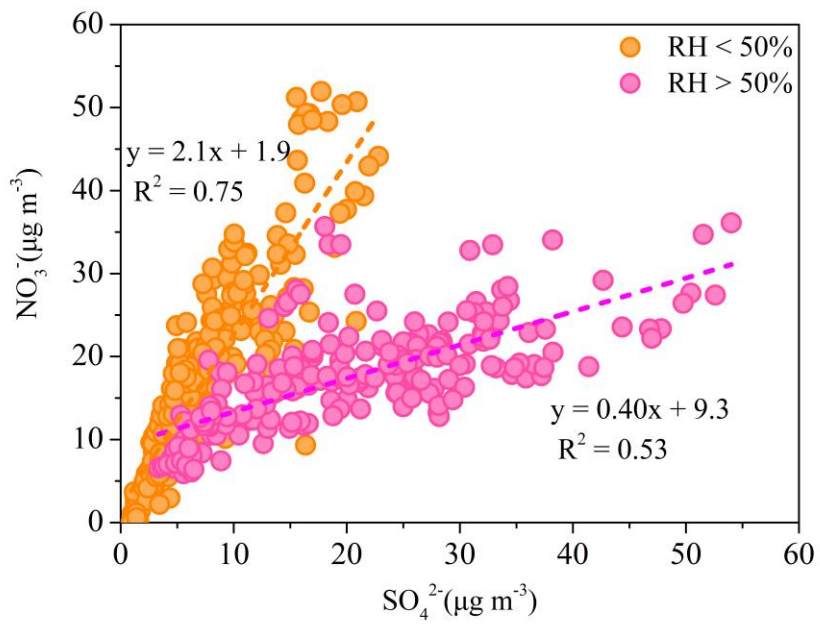
<p>Clean</p> <p>$PM_1=19.5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$</p> <p>$O_x=39.2 \text{ ppb}$ $RH=25\%$</p> <p>$WD=2.5 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ $Vis=15.7\text{km}$</p>	<p>High RH Pollution</p> <p>$PM_1=123.2 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$</p> <p>$O_x=47.8 \text{ ppb}$ $RH=60\%$</p> <p>$WD=1 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ $Vis=6.5\text{km}$</p>	<p>Low RH Pollution</p> <p>$PM_1=125.4 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$</p> <p>$O_x=59.8 \text{ ppb}$ $RH=31\%$</p> <p>$WD=0.9 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ $Vis=6.7\text{km}$</p>
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887 **Figure 5.** PM_1 chemical composition (a) and OA source composition (b) pie chart as well
 888 as the mass concentrations of PM_1 species(c) and OA sources(d) during clean, High-RH
 889 pollution and Low-RH pollution periods.

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892 **Figure 6.** The relationship between SO_4^{2-} and NO_3^- during low-RH ($\text{RH} < 50\%$) and high-
893 RH ($\text{RH} > 50\%$) pollution episodes.

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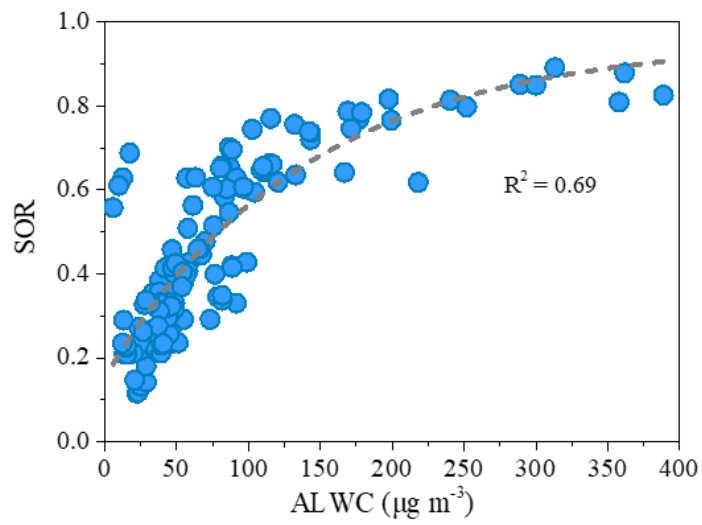
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903 **Figure 7.** The relationship between the sulfate oxidation ratio ($SOR = [SO_4^{2-}]/([SO_4^{2-}] +$
904 $[SO_2])$) and ALWC at high RH pollution condition ($RH > 50\%$).

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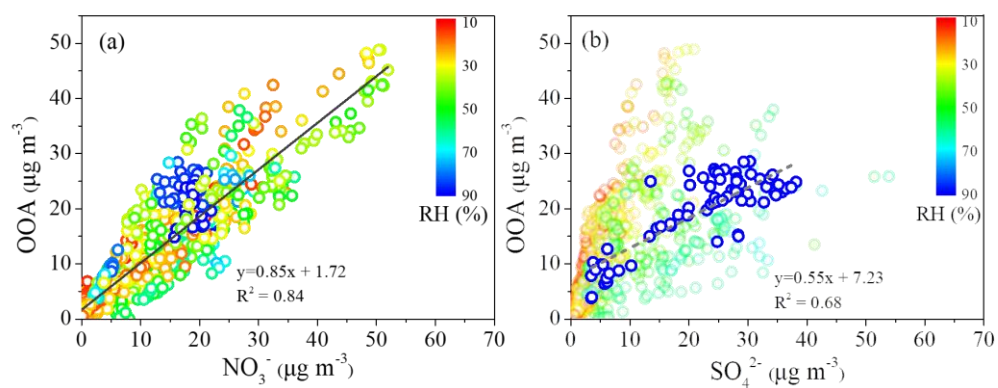
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915 **Figure 8.** Scatter plot between the mass concentration of OOA and NO_3^- (colored by RH)
916 (a), and scatter plot between the mass concentration of OOA and SO_4^{2-} (colored by RH)
917 (b).

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