



1 **Seasonal variations in composition and sources of atmospheric ultrafine particles**
2 **in urban Beijing based on near-continuous measurements**

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17 **Abstract.** Understanding the composition and sources of atmospheric ultrafine particles (UFPs) is
18 essential in evaluating their exposure risks. It requires long-term measurements with high time
19 resolution, which are to date scarce. We performed near-continuous measurements of UFP composition
20 during four seasons in urban Beijing using a thermal desorption chemical ionization mass spectrometer,
21 accompanied by real-time size distribution measurements. We found that UFPs in urban Beijing are
22 dominated by organic components, varying seasonally from 68 to 81%. CHO organics are the most
23 abundant in summer, while sulfur-containing organics, some nitrogen-containing organics, nitrate, and
24 chloride are the most abundant in winter. With the increase of particle diameter, the contribution of
25 CHO organics decreases, while that of sulfur-containing and nitrogen-containing organics, nitrate, and
26 chloride increase. Source apportionment analysis of the UFP organics indicates contributions from
27 cooking and vehicle sources, photooxidation sources enriched in CHO organics, and
28 aqueous/heterogeneous sources enriched in nitrogen- and sulfur-containing organics. The increased
29 contributions of cooking, vehicle, and photooxidation components are usually accompanied by
30 simultaneous increases in UFP number concentrations related to cooking emission, vehicle emission,
31 and new particle formation, respectively. While the increased contribution of the
32 aqueous/heterogeneous composition is usually accompanied by the growth of UFP mode diameters.
33 The highest UFP number concentrations in winter are due to the strongest new particle formation, the
34 strongest local primary particle number emissions, and the slowest condensational growth of UFPs to
35 larger sizes. This study provides a comprehensive understanding of urban UFP composition and
36 sources and offers valuable datasets for the evaluation of UFP exposure risks.



37 1. Introduction

38 Ultrafine particles (UFPs, particles with diameters smaller than or equal to 100 nm) have significant
39 effects on human health (HEI, 2013; Ohlwein et al., 2019; WHO, 2013) and global climate (Kulmala
40 et al., 2004; Pierce and Adams, 2007). Their human exposure risks and climate effects are highly
41 related to their composition and size (Oberdorster et al., 2005; Pierce and Adams, 2007). To better
42 evaluate the exposure risks of UFPs and to formulate corresponding air quality guidelines, the World
43 Health Organization made several recommendations to guide measurements and regulations of UFPs
44 in 2021 (Organization, 2021). They emphasized that local understanding of UFP origins and their
45 chemical composition are scarce in most parts of the world.

46 Current field studies of atmospheric UFP composition and their source apportionment are mostly based
47 on offline sampling. These measurements usually use a size-resolving impactor to collect UFPs on
48 filters for tens of hours to several days (Cabada et al., 2004; Cass et al., 2000; Ham and Kleeman, 2011;
49 Herner et al., 2005; Kleeman et al., 2009; Massling et al., 2009; Xue et al., 2019; Xue et al., 2020a;
50 Xue et al., 2020b; Zhao et al., 2017). They found that organic carbon, sulfate, and nitrate could account
51 for 50-90% of the detected compounds, and the composition could vary greatly with UFP sizes due to
52 different sources and atmospheric evolutions (Cabada et al., 2004; Herner et al., 2005; Massling et al.,
53 2009). For source apportionment, the Chemical Mass Balance analysis was often used which relies
54 heavily on the source profiles and the limited numbers of molecular markers (Ham and Kleeman, 2011;
55 Kleeman et al., 2009; Xue et al., 2019). The identified sources include meat cooking, gasoline, diesel,
56 motor oil, and wood burning. However, these offline explorations can not capture the high temporal
57 variability in size-resolved UFP composition and sources, nor can they distinguish primary UFPs from
58 secondary sources, e.g., new particle formation, due to the lack of tracers and composition profiles for
59 secondary sources. Simultaneous real-time measurements of UFP composition and size distributions
60 are needed to accurately identify both primary and secondary sources.

61 Using a thermal desorption chemical ionization mass spectrometer (TDCIMS), the size-resolved
62 composition of UFPs can be measured with a resolution of tens of minutes (Li et al., 2021; Smith et
63 al., 2004). Previously, it has been used in a number of sites for short-term measurements and found
64 distinct characteristics for UFPs in urban (Li et al., 2022a; Li et al., 2021; Smith et al., 2008; Smith et
65 al., 2005), rural (Lawler et al., 2020; Smith et al., 2010), and remote areas (Glicker et al., 2019; Lawler
66 et al., 2018; Lawler et al., 2021; Lawler et al., 2014). For instance, UFPs in urban areas have more
67 nitrogen- and sulfur-containing organics (Smith et al., 2005; Winkler et al., 2012), while those at forest
68 sites have more CHO organics (Glicker et al., 2019; Lawler et al., 2018). With these near-continuous
69 measurements, unique sources such as fungal bursts (Lawler et al., 2020) and sea-salt nanoparticles
70 (Lawler et al., 2014) were identified and the mechanisms of new particle formation were examined (Li
71 et al., 2022a). Source apportionment analysis was performed for the high time-resolution TDCIMS
72 results in Amazon Basin to isolate anthropogenic UFPs from background UFPs (Glicker et al., 2019).



73 These analyses mainly focused on short-term analysis covering several weeks. To address the UFP
74 composition and sources from a more comprehensive view, there is an urgent need for long-term and
75 high-time-resolution measurements in diverse environments.

76 The primary and secondary sources of particles in urban atmospheres usually show significant seasonal
77 characteristics. Thus, addressing the seasonal variations of UFPs, as well as their governing factors, is
78 fundamental to evaluating their long-term impacts. For fine particles in Beijing, coal combustion is
79 more abundant in winter due to domestic heating in the surrounding regions (Sun et al., 2015; Zhang
80 et al., 2013), biomass burning is more abundant in harvest seasons (Zhang et al., 2008), and dust storms
81 are more frequent in spring (Xu et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2013). Besides these primary sources,
82 previous studies on larger particles showed higher oxidation states of organic aerosols in summer due
83 to stronger photochemical processes (Hu et al., 2017; Ma et al., 2022; Sun et al., 2018). However,
84 considering the short lifetime of UFPs, seasonal variations of the composition and sources of UFPs are
85 likely different. For example, as an important source of UFPs, new particle formations in Beijing were
86 observed to be the weakest in summer and strongest in winter due to temperature variations (Deng et
87 al., 2020; Li et al., 2020; Wu et al., 2007). Similar to Beijing, seasonal variations of UFP composition
88 based on high time-resolution measurements are also scarce for other atmospheric sites.

89 Here, we performed near-continuous measurements of UFP composition and size distributions over
90 four seasons in a typical megacity of Beijing with ~22 million people. The UFP composition, its size
91 dependence, and seasonal variability were analyzed. Several molecular markers from cooking and
92 vehicle emissions were identified. These markers were combined with the Positive Matrix
93 Factorization (PMF) analysis to address contributions from primary and secondary sources of UFPs.
94 The aerosol General Dynamic Equation (GDE) was used to quantify the emission rates of primary
95 UFPs and the formation rates of secondary UFPs. The driving factors for the seasonal variations of
96 UFP composition and number concentrations were identified.

97 **2. Methods**

98 **2.1 Field measurements.**

99 The sampling site is on the fifth floor of a building on the west campus of Beijing University of
100 Chemical Technology (39°94'N, 116°30'E) (Liu et al., 2020). The site is a typical urban site,
101 surrounded by residential and commercial buildings. Three trafficked roads are 130~565 m away from
102 the sites. UFP composition, particle number-size distribution, trace gases, and meteorological
103 conditions were measured over four seasons between Dec. 2019 and Aug. 2021. An overall of 149
104 days' TDCIMS measurements were used for analysis, with at least three weeks' data for each season.
105 Details of the sampling periods are described in [Table S1](#).

106 UFP composition was measured by the TDCIMS using the “bulk collection mode” (Li et al., 2021;
107 Smith et al., 2004). The TDCIMS collects pre-charged particles on a high voltage-biased Pt filament



108 and then vaporizes the particles for analysis by a chemical ionization high-resolution time-of-flight
109 mass spectrometer (CI-HTOF, Aerodyne Research Inc. and ToFwerk AG). The particle electrostatic
110 collection efficiency on the filament decreases rapidly with increasing particle size, ensuring that the
111 collected particle mass is mainly from UFPs (Li et al., 2021). Using O_2^- as the reagent ion, sulfate,
112 nitrate, chloride, and most of the oxygenated organics can be measured, while black carbon,
113 hydrocarbon compounds, and bases such as ammonium and aminium cannot be detected. Every
114 sampling cycle is followed by a background cycle where no voltages are applied to the Pt filament for
115 particle collection. The signals from the background cycle are subtracted from the sampling cycle to
116 exclude minor influences from the gas phase compounds. Each analysis cycle (including a sample and
117 a background cycle) is set to be 10–40 min, depending on the estimated sample mass. The detailed
118 principles, operations, and quantifications of the TDCIMS are the same as the “bulk collection mode”
119 described in our previous study (Li et al., 2021).

120 The particle number size distributions from 1 nm to 10 μm were measured using a home-built particle
121 size distribution system (PSD, 3 nm–10 μm) and a diethylene glycol scanning mobility particle
122 spectrometer (DEG-SMPS, 1–7.5 nm). The configuration and operation of the PSD are the same as
123 described in our previous studies (Cai et al., 2017). The time resolution of the measurement is 5 min.
124 The number and mass concentrations of atmospheric UFPs were estimated via the integration of size
125 distribution measurements, assuming spherical particles with a density of 1.4 g cm^{-3} .

126 Other parameters used in this study include the meteorological conditions measured by the
127 meteorology stations (AWS310, Vaisala Inc., Finland) and trace gases measured by the trace gas
128 analyzers (TGA, Thermo Fisher). The mixing layer height (MLH) was estimated from the vertical
129 profiles measured by a ceilometer (CL51, Vaisala Inc., Finland) and a three-step idealized-profile
130 method was used to estimate the MLH (Eresmaa et al., 2012).

131 **2.2 Source apportionment of UFP composition.**

132 The Igor-based interface SoFi (solution finder, version 6.5) and ME-2 (Canonaco et al., 2013) were
133 used for the PMF analysis to analyze the sources of organics in UFPs. The integrated thermal
134 desorption signals of organic peaks with m/z between 100 and 300 measured by the TDCIMS were
135 used as the input data matrix. The integrated thermal desorption signals from the background samples
136 were used to derive the input error matrix. The best solution in each season was chosen according to
137 Q/Q_{exp} , the similarities between m/z profiles, time series, and diurnal variations of the factors. The
138 correlations between each factor and the measured key species, trace gas, and $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ were calculated
139 for better identification of the factors. It should be noted that there were also many peaks with m/z
140 below 100, but a large fraction of them was from thermal decomposition, and their inclusion would
141 add great complexity to the factor assignments. The signal intensity instead of the mass concentration
142 was used because sensitivity quantification of the TDCIMS was based on the calibration of limited
143 numbers of compounds which may induce unknown uncertainties when quantifying the sources. As a



144 result, the signal intensity measured by the TDCIMS is reported for reference and the relative
145 variations of detected species are studied rather than their estimated ambient concentrations.

146 2.3 Quantifying source and loss terms of UFP number concentrations.

147 In the measured size distribution plots, there are usually abrupt increases in UFP number concentration.
148 During new particle formation (NPF) periods, the abrupt increases of UFPs are usually accompanied
149 by a burst of sub-3 nm particles and usually start from noontime. During non-NPF periods, the abrupt
150 increases of UFPs are usually accompanied by an increase in primary emission tracers (as will be
151 shown in Section 3.2). We apply the GDE to quantify the new particle formation rates (J) and primary
152 particle number emission rates (E) at the observation site. The calculation of J follows those described
153 in previous studies (Cai and Jiang, 2017; Cai et al., 2017). The calculation of $E_{[i,j]}$ ($\text{m}^{-3} \text{s}^{-1}$), the particle
154 emission rates in the size range of $[d_i, d_j]$, follows Eq. 1 (Cai et al., 2018; Kontkanen et al., 2020)
155 during non-NPF periods.

$$156 \quad E_{[i,j]} = \frac{dN_{[i,j]}}{dt} + GR(n_j - n_i) + CoagSnk_{[i,j]} - CoagSrc_{[i,j]} - TR_{[i,j]} \quad (\text{Eq. 1})$$

157 Where $\frac{dN_{[i,j]}}{dt}$ ($\text{m}^{-3} \text{s}^{-1}$) is the variation of the particle number concentration in the size range of $[d_i,$
158 $d_j]$ during the period of dt (s^{-1}); $GR(n_j - n_i)$ ($\text{m}^{-3} \text{s}^{-1}$) is the net condensation growth term, GR ($\text{m} \text{s}^{-1}$) is
159 the condensational growth rate of particle d_i , and n_i (m^{-4}) is the particle number size distribution
160 function for particle d_i ; $CoagSrc_{[i,j]}$ and $CoagSnk_{[i,j]}$ ($\text{m}^{-3} \text{s}^{-1}$) are the coagulation source and sink terms;
161 $TR_{[i,j]}$ is the transport term. Overall, 33 size bins were included in the size range of 3-50 nm.

162 The term $\frac{dN_{[i,j]}}{dt}$ and $CoagSnk_{[i,j]}$ can be directly calculated from the size distribution data (Cai et al.,
163 2018). GR is calculated by the theoretical condensation of the condensable vapors, that is the sum of
164 H_2SO_4 and condensable organic vapor concentrations. Here, we regard condensable organic vapors as
165 oxygenated organic molecules (OOMs) with saturation vapor pressure lower than $0.3 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ as in our
166 previous studies (Li et al., 2022a; Qiao et al., 2021). Since not all the observation days were equipped
167 with the measurements of condensable vapors, we adopted seasonal-dependent GR derived from
168 seasonal average condensable vapor concentrations reported in our previous study, that is 1.2×10^7 ,
169 9.9×10^7 , 1.2×10^8 , and $5.0 \times 10^7 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ for winter, spring, summer, and autumn (Qiao et al., 2021),
170 respectively. For particles smaller than 50 nm, $CoagSrc_{[i,j]}$ term can be neglected; for particles smaller
171 than 5 nm, the uncertainties will be very large for E . We only calculated E_{3-50} in this study and
172 $CoagSrc_{[i,j]}$ was thus neglected. Generally, $TR_{[i,j]}$ term cannot be quantified using the mathematic
173 method. As our previous study has indicated there was no significant transport term on a long-term
174 time scale (Kontkanen et al., 2020), we initially assumed that $TR_{[i,j]}$ equals 0. Another assumption is
175 that the influences from the variation in MLH are neglected. We briefly explore how the assumptions



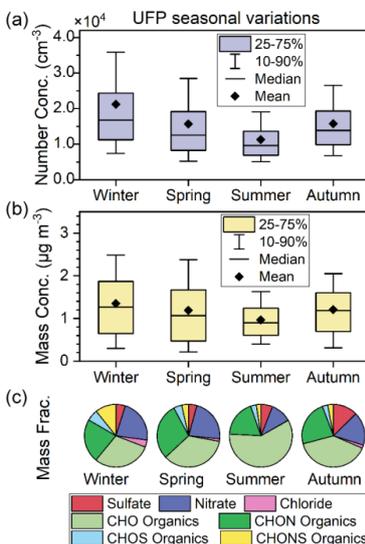
176 of $TR_{(i,j)}$ and MLH influence the results in the next paragraph.

177 On the particle size distribution plots, we notice that the abrupt appearance of particles during non-
 178 NPF days usually happens in the early morning (6:00-9:00) and late afternoon (17:00-20:00) (Figure
 179 S1). The afternoon peak is accompanied by a decrease in MLH and an increase in particle numbers in
 180 all sizes within the range of 3-50 nm, thus the abrupt increase in particle number concentration could
 181 be due to the combined effects of MLH, transport, and emission. The morning peak is accompanied
 182 by the increase in MLH, which should decrease particle number concentrations, and the increase in
 183 particle number is only observed for 3-30 nm particles but not for 30-50 nm. Thus, the increasing
 184 morning peak could only be caused by the primary emission of 3-30 nm particles. As a result, the 3-
 185 30 nm particle emission rate during 6:00-9:00 is calculated to represent the average primary particle
 186 emission rates for each day. It should be noted that the emission rates during 6:00-9:00 may be
 187 underestimated due to the increase of MLH, and the emission rates only represent the increasing rates
 188 of primary particles at the observational site, not the direct emission rates from the sources.

189 3. Results and discussion

190 3.1 UFP concentration, composition, and seasonal variability

191 The overall concentration of UFPs is the highest in winter and the lowest in summer. The UFP number
 192 concentrations expressed in mean \pm standard deviation are $(1.7 \pm 1.2) \times 10^4$, $(1.5 \pm 1.1) \times 10^4$,
 193 $(1.1 \pm 0.7) \times 10^4$, and $(1.5 \pm 0.9) \times 10^4 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ (Figure 1a) and the UFP mass concentrations are 1.3 ± 0.9 ,
 194 1.2 ± 0.9 , 1.0 ± 0.6 , and $1.2 \pm 0.7 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (Figure 1b) for winter, spring, summer, and autumn, respectively.
 195 The seasonal variations are partly caused by the variation in MLH (Figure S2), while the other driving
 196 factors are related to the source and loss terms of UFPs and will be further discussed in Section 3.3.



197



198 **Figure 1.** Seasonal variations of UFP concentrations and composition in urban Beijing. (a) UFP
199 number concentrations in the size range of 3-100 nm. (b) UFP mass concentrations integrated from
200 size distribution measurements, assuming spherical particles with a density of 1.4 g cm^{-3} . (c) Mass
201 fractions of the components measured by the TDCIMS in negative ion mode.

202 The detected UFP composition is dominated by organics (68-81% for mass fraction), with minor
203 contributions from nitrate (11-22%), sulfate (4-13%), and chloride (0.1-4%) over all four seasons
204 (Figure 1c). The organic species include CHO, CHON, CHOS, and CHONS organics, contributing 30-
205 59%, 19-29%, 3-6%, and 2-11% mass concentrations of the detected UFP compounds, respectively.
206 The detected particulate species are similar for all four seasons as indicated by the similarities in the
207 mass defect plots (Figure S3). The measured composition is consistent with the offline results from
208 Beijing, which showed that organics were the most abundant in UFPs (Massling et al., 2009; Zhao et
209 al., 2017). It should be noted that the collected mass integrated from the TDCIMS signals is ~50% of
210 the total collected mass estimated from the size distributions (Figure S4). This is possibly due to the
211 uncertainties in the quantification methods or because some UFP compounds (e.g., ammonia, amines,
212 black carbon, and alkanes) cannot be ionized by O_2^- in the TDCIMS. However, as the mass estimated
213 from the two methods are in good correlation, we assume that the TDCIMS-measured composition is
214 representative of UFP composition. As some of the particulate CHON, CHOS, and CHONS organics
215 would decompose to CHO fragments in the TDCIMS during the thermal desorption process, there may
216 be some underestimation of CHON and CHOS/CHONS organics and overestimation of CHO organics.

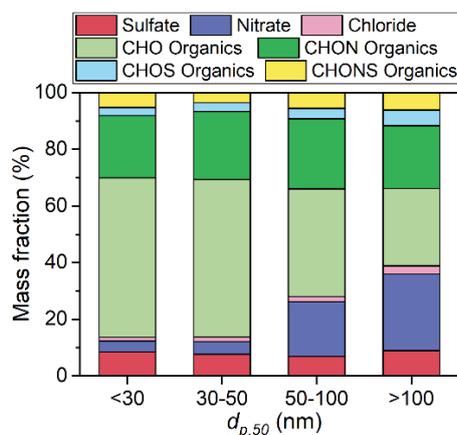
217 A major seasonal difference in UFP chemical composition is that the highest fractions of slow-
218 desorbed CHO organics are observed in summer (59%), which may be related to the strongest solar
219 radiation and lowest NO_x concentrations. On the one hand, the appearance of most CHO organic ions
220 during temperature ramping of the Pt wire during TDCIMS analysis occurs later, thus at a higher
221 temperature, compared to nitrate and chloride, while slightly earlier, or at a lower desorption
222 temperature, compared to sulfate (Figure S5). The higher temperature desorption, which we refer to as
223 “slowly-desorbed,” indicates that these species must be low-volatility compounds or the corresponding
224 thermal decomposition fragments. On the other hand, the overall CHO organic mass has an afternoon
225 peak at ~14:00, and its diurnal variation is consistent with that for O_3 in summer (Figure S6), indicating
226 they might be related to photooxidation chemistry. Based on these, we hypothesize that CHO organics
227 in the UFPs are mostly from the partitioning of low-volatility compounds originating from the gas-
228 phase oxidation. Thus, the higher CHO fractions in summer are due to the strongest solar radiation,
229 which benefits the gaseous photooxidation, and the lowest NO_x (Figure S2), which contributes to the
230 formation of CHO organics over CHON organics (Yan et al., 2020; Ye et al., 2019).

231 Another seasonal difference is that higher fractions of fast-desorbed species are measured in winter,
232 including nitrate, chloride, and some CHON (e.g., $\text{C}_6\text{H}_4\text{NO}_3^-$, nitrophenols) organic compounds. These
233 species are all desorbed at lower temperatures (Figure S5) and their concentrations in UFPs are



234 negatively correlated to ambient temperature (Figure S7), indicating their relatively higher volatility.
 235 Thus, the higher fractions in winter are mainly governed by the temperature-dependent partitioning of
 236 these compounds. It should be noted that CHONS organic (e.g., deprotonated aminomethanesulfonic
 237 acid $\text{CH}_4\text{NSO}_3^-$ and deprotonated taurine $\text{C}_2\text{H}_6\text{NSO}_3^-$) fractions also increase in winter. Previously,
 238 $\text{CH}_4\text{NSO}_3^-$ and $\text{C}_2\text{H}_6\text{NSO}_3^-$ were reported to be formed in the gas phase through the reaction between
 239 SO_3 and amines under dry conditions (Li et al., 2018; Sarkar et al., 2019), which is favored in winter
 240 Beijing where the ambient relative humidity is relatively low. The seasonal variations of these CHONS
 241 species are different from those in larger particles where S-containing organics are mainly
 242 organosulfates from primary emissions or heterogeneous/aqueous reactions (Ma et al., 2022).

243 The composition of UFPs also varies greatly with particle size. As shown in Figure 2, the most
 244 significant size-dependent variations were observed for nitrate and CHO organics. The nitrate fraction
 245 increases significantly with increasing particle diameter, probably due to the Kelvin effects that prevent
 246 it from partitioning to small particles, or due to an increase in aqueous/heterogeneous processes at
 247 larger particle sizes. The CHO organic fraction decreases significantly with increased particle size,
 248 possibly due to its low volatility that favors smaller particles compared to the high-volatility
 249 compounds. Compared to CHO organics, the relative contributions of N- and S-containing organics
 250 increase with particle size, possibly due to higher volatility or the aqueous/heterogeneous formation as
 251 particles grow. The sulfate fraction does not change significantly with particle sizes, possibly due to
 252 the opposite size-dependence of condensational growth of H_2SO_4 and the aqueous/heterogeneous
 253 formation of sulfate.

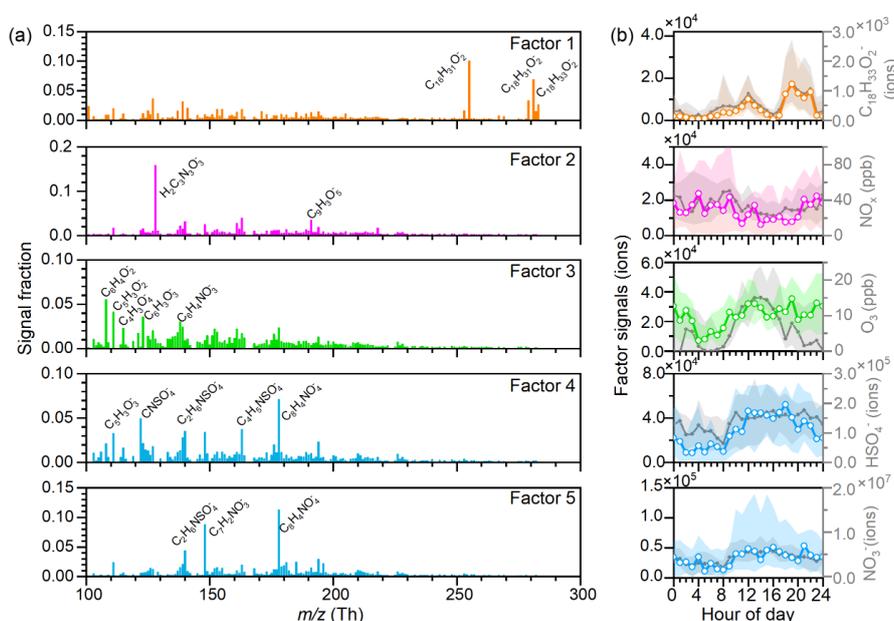


254
 255 **Figure 2.** Size-dependent composition of UFPs. UFP composition mass fraction variation with the
 256 representing particle size $d_{p,50}$. $d_{p,50}$ corresponds to 50% volume mean diameter of particles collected
 257 on the TDCIMS filament.



258 3.2 Sources of UFP organics and their seasonal variabilities

259 As organics are the main components of UFPs, PMF source apportionments were performed for the
 260 organic compounds. Five factors were identified in each season. The factor profiles and their diurnal
 261 variations in winter are shown in Figure 3, and the results in other seasons are shown in Figure S8-10.
 262 The correlations between PMF factors and key UFP components, trace gases, meteorology parameters,
 263 and PM_{2.5} for the four seasons are shown in Figure S11.



264

265 **Figure 3.** Source apportionment of the UFP organic composition (m/z 100-300) measured by the
 266 TDCIMS in winter. (a) m/z profiles of the five PMF factors; (b) diurnal variations of each factor and
 267 their related terms.

268 Factor 1 and factor 2 are identified as cooking-related and vehicle-related sources, respectively. Factor
 269 1 is enriched in C₁₆H₃₁O₂⁻, C₁₈H₃₁O₂⁻, and C₁₈H₃₃O₂⁻ (assigned to deprotonated palmitic acid, linoleic
 270 acid, and oleic acids, respectively). Previous studies have revealed that saturated and unsaturated fatty
 271 acids are the major constituents in cooking emissions, accounting for 73-85% of the cooking organic
 272 matter, among which palmitic acid and oleic acid can be treated as the unique fingerprints of
 273 atmospheric cooking particles (Zhao et al., 2007b, a). Factor 1 and the tracers show clear morning,
 274 noon, and evening peaks, corresponding to breakfast, lunch, and dinner times. Factor 2 is enriched in
 275 C₃N₃O₃H₂⁻ (assigned to deprotonated cyanuric acid). Cyanuric acid was previously found with the
 276 biggest emission in the urea-based selective catalytic reduction (SCR) technology for the reduction of
 277 NO_x from the exhaust of diesel-powered vehicles (Yassine et al., 2012). Factor 2 and the tracer show
 278 clear morning peaks corresponding to the morning rush hours, consistent with the diurnal variation of



279 NO_x. These two factors are also identified in the other three seasons (Figure S8-10).

280 Besides these two primary sources, trace amounts of a biomass-burning tracer C₆H₉O₅⁻ (assigned to
281 deprotonated levoglucosan) were also observed. However, its contribution to the total signal is small
282 and could not be separated into individual factors in the PMF analysis. We thus conclude that the
283 contribution of biomass burning to UFPs might be small in urban Beijing. This is understandable since
284 the burning of high-polluting fuels has been phased out in urban Beijing by the People's Government
285 of Beijing Municipality since 2014 (Municipality, 2014). Although large particles in urban Beijing
286 could be influenced by biomass burning and coal combustion through transport from surrounding
287 regions (Li et al., 2022b; Sun et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2008), UFPs could hardly
288 survive after long-distance transport due to their short lifetime.

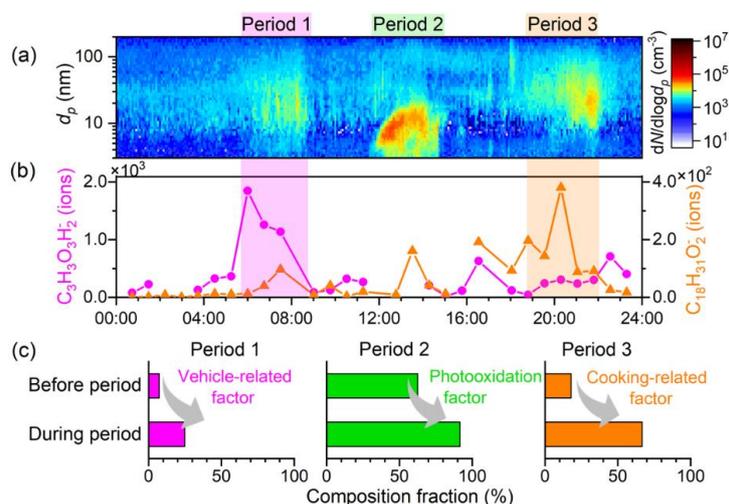
289 Factors 3-5 are identified as secondary sources related to photooxidation formation or
290 aqueous/heterogeneous formation. In winter (Figure 3), factor 3 is enriched in slowly-desorbed, low-
291 volatility CHO organics and has daytime peaks at ~12:00-18:00, which is consistent with the diurnal
292 variation of O₃. They should come from gas-phase photooxidation followed by gas-particle
293 partitioning. Factor 4 and factor 5 are enriched in N- or S-containing organics. Their time series and
294 diurnal variability are highly correlated with sulfate, nitrate, PM_{2.5}, and relative humidity, indicating
295 the aqueous/heterogeneous formation pathway. Similarly, in spring and autumn, factor 3 is identified
296 as a photooxidation factor that is enriched in CHO organics, and factors 4-5 are identified as
297 aqueous/heterogeneous factors that are enriched in N- or S-containing organics (Figure S8-10).
298 Differently, in summer, factor 4 is identified as a photooxidation factor.

299 Clear seasonal variability of the sources was observed, with the contribution of primary emission
300 factors and aqueous/heterogeneous factors higher in winter and autumn, and the contribution of
301 photooxidation factors higher in summer (Figure S11). The sum of cooking and vehicle sources
302 contributed to 10-35% of the total organic signals in the m/z range of 100-300. The fractions of these
303 primary emissions are higher in winter and autumn, possibly indicating higher emissions. Another
304 possibility is that the oxidation degradation of these primary emissions is faster in summer and spring
305 due to higher oxidants and ambient temperature. The contributions of photooxidation factors are 20-
306 70% to the total organic signals in the m/z range of 100-300, with the highest in summer, and lowest
307 in winter. This is consistent with the highest CHO organic fractions in UFPs in summer in Figure 1
308 and is attributed to the strongest solar radiation. The contributions of aqueous/heterogeneous sources
309 are 15-60% to the total organic signals in the m/z range of 100-300, with the highest in winter and
310 lowest in summer.

311 To identify the sources for UFP numbers, we further combined the source analysis with variation in
312 particle size distributions. Among the identified four classes of composition sources, some are related
313 to the increase of UFP number concentrations, while others are related to the increase of UFP diameters.



314 The increase in UFP numbers is usually accompanied by the enhanced contribution of cooking- or
 315 vehicle-related components or new particle formation events. An example is shown in Figure 4, a
 316 relatively clean day with little interference from background aerosols. There are three periods where
 317 UFP bursts were observed. During period 1, i.e., 6:00-9:00, a mode with a peak diameter at ~20 nm
 318 appeared with a rapid increase in the vehicle tracer, $C_3N_3O_3H_2^-$. Compared to that before period 1, the
 319 contribution of the vehicle-related factor increased from 7% to 25%. During period 2, i.e., 12:00-15:00,
 320 new particle formation happens with a burst of particles at a peak diameter of 5-10 nm. Compared to
 321 that before period 2, the contribution of the photooxidation-related factor increased from 64% to 92%.
 322 This is consistent with our previous studies that slowly-desorbed CHO organics were the most
 323 abundant compounds during NPF periods (Li et al., 2022a). During period 3, i.e., 18:00-22:00, a mode
 324 with peak diameter at ~30 nm bursts, with a rapid increase in the cooking tracer, $C_{18}H_{31}O_2^-$. $C_{18}H_{31}O_2^-$
 325 also has two minor peaks in the morning and noon time, consistent with the cooking activities.
 326 Compared to that before period 3, the contribution of the cooking-related factor increased from 18%
 327 to 67%. Thus, we conclude that the increase in UFP numbers in the three periods is mainly attributed
 328 to the increase in vehicle emissions, new particle formations, and cooking emissions, respectively.



329

330 **Figure 4.** The particle number size distributions (a) and UFP composition variability (b-c) on April
 331 16th, 2020. The three periods with the abrupt appearance of UFP particles on this day are identified as
 332 vehicle-related (period 1), NPF-related (period 2), and cooking-related (period 3) according to
 333 TDCIMS composition measurements.

334 The morning, noon, and evening peaks in UFP numbers were widely observed during the observation
 335 days in all four seasons. During non-NPF days, the UFP number concentration peak mainly appears in
 336 the morning and evening time, corresponding to the primary emissions, and we choose the morning
 337 periods to calculate the daily-averaged E . During NPF days, the UFP number peak mainly appears in



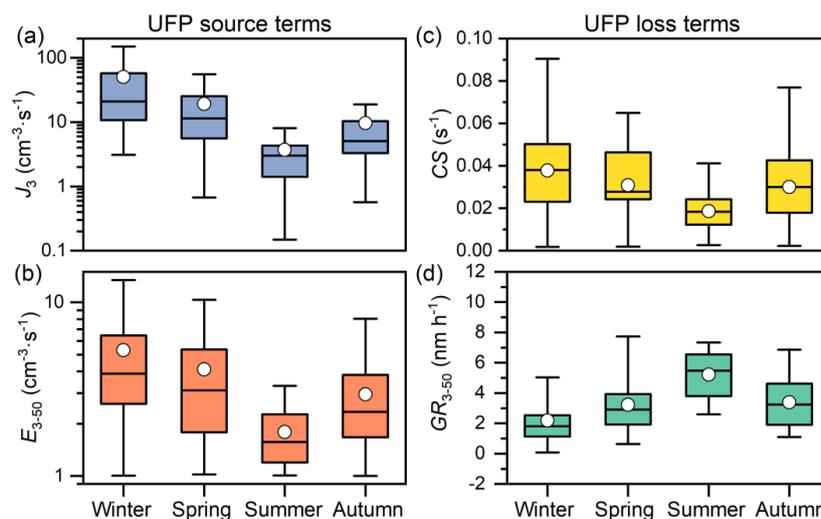
338 the noon time, and the daily-averaged J was calculated during these periods. These further indicate
339 that cooking emissions, vehicle emissions, and new particle formation are the main sources of UFP
340 number concentrations.

341 Different from these three factors, the increased contribution of the aqueous/heterogeneous factor is
342 not accompanied by the increase of UFP number concentrations but by the increase of UFP mode
343 diameters. The contribution of aqueous/heterogeneous factor to sub-50 nm particles is only ~20%. For
344 example, in the day presented in [Figure 4](#), aqueous/heterogeneous factor accounted less than ~10% for
345 the three bursts of UFP number concentration. However, it starts to dominate the organic composition
346 when UFP particles grow above 50 nm ([Figure S12](#)), indicating an important role of
347 aqueous/heterogeneous processes in the growth of particles larger than 50 nm in diameter.

348 **3.3 Driving factors for the seasonal variability of UFPs.**

349 As we have identified the main sources for UFP number concentrations in [Section 3.2](#), we can further
350 address the reasons for the significant seasonal differences in UFP number concentrations as has been
351 shown in [Figure 1](#), according to the variations in their sources and losses. The source terms mainly
352 include new particle formation rates (here represented by J_3) and primary emission rates (here
353 represented by E_{3-50}); the loss terms are presented by condensational growth rates (GR_{3-50}) and
354 coagulation sinks. Here, we apply the condensation sink (CS) to evaluate the strength of coagulation
355 loss.

356 The main sources of the UFP number concentration, J_3 , and E_{3-50} , are both the highest in winter and
357 the lowest in summer ([Figure 5a-b](#)), which are presumably caused by temperature effects. The
358 temperature effect on J_3 is mainly due to the temperature-dependent cluster evaporation rates as
359 reported in our previous study (Deng et al., 2020). This seasonal dependence of atmospheric UFPs
360 attributed to vehicle emissions and its underlining reasons have not been revealed before. On the one
361 hand, the low ambient temperature will largely increase the vehicle emission factors for particle
362 numbers and gaseous hydrocarbons (Suarez-Bertoa and Astorga, 2018; Wen et al., 2021). On the other
363 hand, a large fraction of the nanoparticles from vehicle emissions has been proposed to be formed by
364 nucleation of the emitted hydrocarbon vapors or their oxidation products (Rönkkö and Timonen, 2019).
365 The high ambient temperatures in summer may suppress the formation of these vehicle-related
366 particles, just like it suppresses J_3 during ambient NPF.



367

368 **Figure 5.** Seasonal variations of the main source and loss terms of UFP number concentration. (a) New
 369 particle formation rates for 3 nm particles (J_3); (b) daily average primary particle emission rates for 3-
 370 50 nm particles (E_{3-50}) during 6:00-9:00; (c) condensation sink (CS); (d) growth rates for 3-50 nm
 371 particles (GR_{3-50}) during new particle formation events using the mode fitting method.

372 The lowest GR of UFP occurs in winter (Figure 5d), which further contributes to high wintertime UFP
 373 number concentrations. CS and GR_{3-50} have opposite trends, with CS being the highest in winter while
 374 GR_{3-50} being the highest in summer (Figure 5c-d). The highest GR_{3-50} in summer is due to the highest
 375 condensable vapor concentrations in summer caused by strong solar radiation and high temperature
 376 favoring the formation of condensable OOMs (Li et al., 2022a; Qiao et al., 2021). The theoretical
 377 condensational GR by OOMs and H_2SO_4 for 20 nm particles are 1.1, 3.0, 4.0, and 1.8 $nm \cdot h^{-1}$ in winter,
 378 spring, summer, and autumn, respectively, and they are close to GR derived during NPF events using
 379 the mode-fitting method as shown in Figure 5d. Under the estimated GR , the time needed for sub-3
 380 nm to grow above 50 and 100 nm is the shortest in summer (9 and 19 h, respectively), and the longest
 381 in winter (24 and 49 h, respectively). Thus, the lower GR in winter also contributes to the highest UFP
 382 number concentrations in winter.

383 4. Conclusions

384 In this study, we explored the UFP composition and sources in typical polluted urban environments
 385 based on near-continuous measurements of UFP composition and size distributions in Beijing over
 386 four seasons. We observed that UFP composition varied with seasons and particle diameter, indicating
 387 their different sources. Specifically, photooxidation processes generate more CHO organics, leading
 388 to higher CHO fractions in summer. While aqueous/heterogeneous processes generate more N- and S-
 389 containing organics, leading to higher N- and S-containing organic fractions in above-50 nm particles



390 than sub-50 nm particles. Combining the PMF analysis for UFP organics and the size distribution
391 analysis, we found that vehicle and cooking emissions are two of the most important primary sources
392 of UFP number concentrations in urban Beijing, while new particle formation is the most important
393 secondary source of UFP number concentrations and would increase the contribution of CHO organics
394 to UFP composition. The aqueous/heterogeneous sources would not increase UFP number
395 concentration but would increase UFP mode diameters and mass concentrations. For the seasonal
396 variations, we found that UFP number concentrations are the highest in winter. This is mainly due to
397 the highest primary particle emissions, the highest new particle formation rates, and the lowest particle
398 growth rates in winter. Further controlling of UFPs in urban Beijing needs to focus on vehicle
399 emissions, and the gas precursors related to secondary sources of UFPs.

400 The observed distinct seasonal variabilities of UFP composition and their size dependence emphasize
401 the importance of long-term and high-time-resolution measurements of both UFP composition and size
402 distributions. This could provide valuable datasets for the evaluation of UFP's long-term exposure risks.
403 The high time-resolution measurements combined with PMF analysis can also help identify the
404 secondary UFP sources, which contribute the major fraction of organic signals but could not be
405 identified from previous offline UFP measurements. Further addressing the UFP composition and
406 sources on the regional scale still requires measurements at sites with different distances from the
407 emission sources due to the short lifetime of UFPs.

408

409 **Data availability.**

410 Data are available upon request from the corresponding authors.

411 **Supplement.**

412 The contents of the supporting information include the diurnal variations of E_{3-50} during non-NPF days
413 over four seasons (Figure S1); the diurnal variations of MLH, UVB, T, RH, O_3 , NO_x , and $PM_{2.5}$ in the
414 four seasons (Figure S2); details of the measured UFP composition during four seasons (Figure S3);
415 seasonal variation of the UFP mass estimated from TDCIMS and PSD (Figure S4); the averaged
416 thermal desorption profiles of different UFP composition (Figure S5); the diurnal variation of CHO
417 organics in the four seasons (Figure S6); temperature dependence of some fast-desorbed UFP
418 composition (Figure S7); the spectra of five PMF-factors during spring, summer, and autumn (Figure
419 S8-10); summary of PMF factors during the four seasons (Figure S11); the contribution of different
420 factors as a function of particle sizes (Figure S12); summary of sampling periods (Table S1).

421 **Author contributions.**

422 XL, JJ, and JS designed the study. XL, YC, YYL, RC, YRL, and CD participated in data collection



423 and performed the data analysis. XL prepared the manuscript with contributions from all co-authors.
424 All authors approved the final version of the manuscript.

425 **Competing interests.**

426 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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