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Size distribution and mixing state of black carbon particles during a heavy air pollution episode in Shanghai

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Abstract

A Single Particle Aerosol Mass Spectrometer (SPAMS), a Single Particle Soot Photometer (SP2) and various meteorological instruments were employed to investigate the chemical and physical properties of black carbon (BC) aerosols during a regional air pollution episode in urban Shanghai over a five-day period in December 2013. The average $PM_{2.5}$ and BC mass concentrations were 221 and $3.2 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, respectively, with the $PM_{2.5}$ peak value of $636 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ at noon of 6 December and the BC peak value of $12.1 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ at 04:26 LT on 7 December. The number size of BC cores was distributed over ~ 60 – 400 nm, with a peak around ~ 60 nm. The BC core mass size distribution was within ~ 70 – 500 nm, with a peak around ~ 200 nm.

The number concentration of BC-containing particles captured by SPAMS in the size range 200–1200 nm agreed very well with that detected by SP2 ($R^2 = 0.87$). A cluster analysis of the single particle mass spectra allowed for the separation of BC-containing particles into seven classes. Pure BC accounted for 0.53 % of BC-containing particles; BC attributed to biomass burning (BBBC) accounted for 22.60 %; K-rich BC-containing (KBC), NaK-rich BC-containing (NaKBC), BC internally-mixed with OC and ammonium sulfate (BCOC-SO_x), BC internally-mixed with OC and ammonium nitrate (BCOC-NO_x) were all attributed to traffic emissions and accounted for 73.24 %; unidentified particles accounted for 3.63 %.

The size distribution of internally-mixed BC particles was bimodal. Detected by SP2, the condensation mode peaked around ~ 230 nm and droplet mode peaked around ~ 380 nm, with a clear valley in the size distribution around ~ 320 nm. The condensation mode mainly consisted of traffic emissions, with particles featuring a small BC core (~ 60 – 80 nm) and a relatively thin absolute coating thickness (ACT, ~ 50 – 130 nm). The droplet mode included highly aged traffic emission particles and biomass burning particles. The highly aged traffic emissions had a small core (~ 60 – 80 nm) and a very thick ACT (~ 130 – 300 nm), which is larger than reported in any previous literature. The biomass burning particles had a larger BC core (~ 80 – 130 nm) and a thick ACT (~ 110 –

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300 nm). High concentration gaseous pollutants like NO_2 were found to accelerate the aging process and resulted in a continuous size growth of BC-containing particles from traffic emission. The condensation of gaseous pollutants made a significant contribution to the extremely high particulate matter during heavy pollution episode in the urban area.

1 Introduction

Aerosols represent the largest uncertainty in estimating radiative forcing of atmospheric species, through strongly affecting the energy balance of the Earth by scattering and/or absorbing solar radiation (Pöschl, 2005), and influencing cloud formation (Jacobson, 2006). Emitted from incomplete combustion of fossil fuel and biomass (Bond et al., 2013), black carbon (BC) is a strongly light-absorbing carbonaceous material in aerosols, second to carbon dioxide as a contributor to positive radiative forcing (Ramanathan and Carmichael, 2008; Jacobson, 2001).

The physical (e.g., size distribution and morphology) and chemical (e.g., mixing state and composition) properties of ambient BC are very complex and are constantly changing in the atmosphere. For example, BC particles exposed to sub-saturated sulfuric acid vapor exhibit a marked change in morphology, characterized by a decreased mobility-based diameter but an increased fractal dimension and effective density (Zhang et al., 2008). Through using electron tomography with a transmission electron microscope and three-dimensional (3-D) imaging, Adachi et al. (2010) found that many BC particles have open, chainlike morphology even after being surrounded by organic matter, and are located in off-center positions within their host materials. China et al. (2013) quantified the morphology of BC particles and classified them into four categories: ~ 50 % were embedded (heavily coated), ~ 34 % were partly coated, ~ 12 % had inclusions and ~ 4 % were bare. The organic coating is known to strongly affect the optical properties of the soot aggregates by acting as a lens that amplifies the absorption coefficient of the BC core (Lack and Cappa, 2010; Shiraiwa et al., 2010). Schnaiter

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et al. (2005) observed that amplification factors of the internally-mixed BC of 1.8 to 2.1 compared to the specific absorption cross section of externally-mixed BC. Zhang et al. (2008) observed that the internally-mixed particles can increase their absorption efficiency by nearly 2-fold and scattering efficiency by approximately 10-fold at 80 % relative humidity relative to fresh particles. On the other hand, Cappa et al. (2012) and Lan et al. (2013) observed a limited enhancement due to the mixing state of ambient BC, suggesting that other factors may affect their absorption properties. Through coagulation and condensation, BC can form an internal mixture, which increases its cloud nucleation activity (Khalizov et al., 2009; Moffet and Prather, 2009). Most BC is removed from the troposphere via wet deposition with a short lifetime of 5 to 10 days (Kanakidou et al., 2005; Chung and Seinfeld, 2002).

Many measurement methods for BC particles have been developed and used in recent years (Petzold et al., 2013). Among them, the Single Particle Soot Photometer (SP2) has become increasingly recognized as a valuable tool for characterizing BC-containing particles (Stephens et al., 2003; Schwarz et al., 2006). SP2 can quantitatively measure the mass and determine the mixing state of an individual BC-containing particle (Schwarz et al., 2010). Taylor et al. (2014) quantitatively evaluated the capability of the SP2 to determine the particle mixing state through using the concentric core/shell model. Liu et al. (2014) analyzed the size distribution, mixing state of BC aerosols in London during winter time based on the same technique. Furthermore, Moteki et al. (2014) identified two morphological types of the mixed BC-containing particles as attached and coated, an important finding for understanding the climate impact of BC particles.

Depending on the experimental method, different terms are used in the literature for the most refractory and light-absorbing components of carbonaceous aerosols: black carbon (BC) or elemental carbon (EC). The definitions of EC and BC have been discussed in details elsewhere (Bond and Bergstrom, 2006; Almeida et al., 2013; Petzold et al., 2013). Herein, we use BC throughout this manuscript, since we applied SP2 to

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quantitatively measure the refractory black carbon mass, which utilizes laser-induced incandescence method (Petzold et al., 2013; Stephens et al., 2003).

As a highly complementary instrument, single particle mass spectrometer can detect the chemical properties of BC particles. Moffet and Prather (2009) observed a rapid coating process of organic carbon and sulfate on the BC core and assessed the related absorption enhancement during an air pollution episode of the Mexico City. Healy et al. (2012b) found that the mass size distribution for BC-containing particles was bimodal at an urban background site in Paris. The smaller mode was attributed to local emission, mostly externally-mixed BC particles, while the larger mode was dominated by aged particles associated with continental transport events. Zhang et al. (2014) found that an active photochemical formation of secondary organic aerosol (SOA) led to a distinct diurnal pattern of mixing state of BC with SOA in the condensation mode, while the photochemical aging had limited or negligible influence on the mixing state and growth of BC in the droplet mode. The size ranges of condensation mode ($D_{va} \sim 100\text{--}300\text{ nm}$) and droplet mode ($D_{va} \sim 300\text{--}1000\text{ nm}$) were defined by John et al. (1990) and Seinfeld and Pandis (2012).

Shanghai, with a population of over 24 million people, is the largest commercial and industrial mega-city in China. Due to the skyrocketing amount of industrial and metropolitan emissions, Shanghai's air quality has been deteriorating in the past decades. For example, the annual average $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentration was reported to increase from about $60\ \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ during 1999–2000 to about $90\ \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ in 2005–2006 (Ye et al., 2003; Feng et al., 2009). Previous aerosol studies in Shanghai were mostly based on filter sampling with a coarse time resolution, which cannot always keep track of the fast variation of aerosol properties in the atmosphere. In this study, we deployed two complementary techniques, with single particle resolution and high time resolution, to detect the evolution of the urban BC aerosols in Shanghai during an extreme pollution period. We used the SP2 to measure the mass and size distribution, and the mixing state of individual BC particles. Single Particle Aerosol Mass Spectrometer (SPAMS)

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was used in parallel to record chemical characteristics and mixing state of individual BC particles.

2 Experimental

2.1 Single particle soot photometer

2.1.1 Description

The number and mass size distribution, as well as the mixing state of individual refractory BC particles were characterized using a single particle soot photometer (SP2, Droplet Measurement Technologies, Inc., Boulder, CO) (Stephens et al., 2003; Baumgardner et al., 2004). In brief, SP2 detects incandescence and scattering signals of BC-containing particles induced by a 1064 nm Nd:YAG intra-cavity laser. The mass of BC is proportional to the intensity of the laser induced incandescence signal. Any measured particle with a detectable incandescence signal is treated as a BC particle; whereas a particle that only exhibits scattering signal is considered as a non-BC particle. The total BC mass loading is reported as the sum of all detected single BC masses. The SP2 samples at low flow ($30\ \text{cm}^3\ \text{min}^{-1}$) in order to avoid multiple particles crossing the laser at the same time. We only saved data for every 50th particle in order to extend the sampling time without generating excessively large data sets.

2.1.2 Calibration and detection efficiency

The SP2 incandescence signal was calibrated using Aquadag[®] black carbon particles (Aqueous Deflocculated Acheson Graphite, manufactured by Acheson Inc., USA). The Aquadag[®] black carbon particles were selected by mobility diameter using a differential mobility analyzer (DMA) and the corresponding particle masses were calculated using the effective density data provided in Gysel et al. (2011). The scattering signal was calibrated using mono-disperse polystyrene latex spheres (Nanosphere Size Stan-

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dards, Duke Scientific Corp., Palo Alto, CA, USA) with known diameters (80–350 nm). More details about SP2 calibration can be found in Gysel et al. (2011), Baumgardner et al. (2012) and Laborde et al. (2012). A diagram of the calibration system is shown in the Supplement (Fig. S1).

5 The detection efficiency was measured using Aquadag[®] black carbon particles, and the results were shown in Fig. S2 (in the Supplement). The details of the measurement method were described in Schwarz et al. (2010). SP2 detection efficiency was nearly unity for larger BC mass (up to 300 fg, corresponding to 680 nm mass-equivalent diameter). While the minimum BC mass with near-unity detection efficiency is ~ 0.7 fg
10 BC-mass corresponding to 90 nm mass-equivalent diameter. The total ambient mass concentrations of BC were underestimated because of the low detection efficiency of the smaller BC particles, likely by $\sim 20\%$ (Schwarz et al., 2006; McMeeking et al., 2010). During the calibration and sampling time, the SP2 was operated at a stable temperature 20° and pressure ~ 1013 hPa. The SP2 laser power was at 1750 mA through
15 the whole experiment.

2.1.3 Data analysis

The BC mass in individual particle was determined from the peak intensity of the incandescence signal according to the Aquadag[®] black carbon calibration (Sect. 2.1.2). The measured ambient BC mass was converted to the mass equivalent diameter, assuming
20 a density of 1.8 g cm^{-3} (Bond and Bergstrom, 2006). In addition to the BC mass, the measurement of the scattering signal of a BC-containing particle allows for the determination of its scattering cross section. However, the scattering properties of externally- and internally-mixed BC particles, as detected by the SP2, may be distorted, because the mass of each particle is reduced by the laser heating. Thus, scattered light from
25 a sampled BC particle does not yield a full Gaussian waveform. The Gaussian scattering function was reconstructed from the leading edge of the scattering signal (before the particle is perturbed by the laser) by using a two-element avalanche photodiode (APD). This method allows SP2 to determine the scattering properties of individual BC

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particles as well as the BC mass and to distinguish the mixing state of a single BC particle (so called, LEO-fit method, Gao et al., 2007). The optical diameter of a BC particle or the coated BC size (D_p) was derived by inputting the LEO fitted scattering signal and BC core size (D_c) into Mie calculations, and using a core refractive index
5 $m = 2.26 - 1.26i$ (Moteki et al., 2010; Liu et al., 2014; Laborde et al., 2013) and a coating refractive index $m = 1.5 + 0i$ (Laborde et al., 2013). The absolute coating thickness (ACT) of a BC particle was calculated as $(D_p - D_c)/2$. However, BC aging processes in the real atmosphere may result in aerosols with particles that have a off-centered morphology (Matsui et al., 2013). For example, when a small BC particle coagulates
10 with a relatively large BC-free particle, the small BC particle may stay at the surface and lead to an effective negative coating thickness if determined by the methods used here. In this study, the negative coating thickness was observed for less than 2% of all BC-containing particles; we did not take those particles into account when we calculated the average ACT. More details of data analysis and uncertainties are discussed
15 in supplement, as well as in Liu et al. (2014) and Laborde et al. (2013).

2.2 Single particle aerosol mass spectrometer

A SPAMS was deployed simultaneously with SP2 to detect chemical composition of BC-containing particles. The technical details of SPAMS have been described elsewhere (Li et al., 2011). Briefly, aerosols in the size range of $0.2\text{--}2.0 \mu\text{m}$ are introduced
20 into the focus lens through a 0.1 mm critical orifice at a flow of 80 mL min^{-1} due to the pressure drop from ~ 760 to ~ 2.2 Torr. Then particles are accelerated to a terminal size-dependent aerodynamic velocity, which is measured by two orthogonally-oriented continuous lasers (532 nm) separated by a fixed 6 cm distance. A pulsed desorption/ionization laser (Q-switched Nd:YAG laser, 266 nm) is triggered when a particle arrives at the ion source region. Both positive and negative ions are detected
25 simultaneously by the time-of-flight mass spectrometer. In this work, the power of the desorption/ionization laser was kept at $\sim 0.6 \text{ mJ}$ per pulse. The particle size was calculated from the measured speed using a calibration curve generated by mono-disperse

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We should note that SPAMS preferentially detected internally-mixed BC particles, and had reduced detection efficiency for pure BC particles. The particles detected and chemically analyzed by SPAMS range from 200 to 2000 nm in size, and the detection efficiency decreases rapidly below 400 nm and above 1200 nm (Li et al., 2011). The majority of the pure BC particles diameter are smaller than 200 nm in diameter (Kondo et al., 2006), and therefore, they are missed by SPAMS.

3.4 Mixing state and size distribution of internally-mixed BC particles

3.4.1 Temporal variations of internally-mixed BC particles

A comparison of the internally-mixed BC particles number concentration between SP2 and SPAMS is given in Fig. 4 and Fig. S4. The agreement observed is reasonably good ($R^2 = 0.87$, slope = 0.65) considering the combined experimental uncertainties of the methods. Detected by SP2, the internally-mixed BC particles accounted for approximately 70% number fraction of BC-containing particles during the whole period. Moteki et al. (2007) also found the internally-mixed BC particles accounted for 63% number fraction of BC-containing particles in the aged urban plume. The high correlation coefficient indicates that we can use the two complementary techniques to analyze the mixing state and chemical composition of internally-mixed BC particles with single particle resolution at the same time (although not for the same particle since both methods are destructive).

The temporal variation of number size distribution and particle types changed rapidly and intricately, as shown in Fig. 4. From 12:00 LT on 5 December to 00:00 LT on 7 December, the $PM_{2.5}$ and BC mass increased slowly to an extremely polluted state. The number fraction of BBBC particles also increased during this period (Fig. 4b) and the D_p of BC showed two distinct modes (Fig. 4a). Then, the BC-containing particles number increased rapidly at 02:00 LT on 7 December. Presumably, boundary layer compression during the night led the fast change of BC-containing particles. After that, the

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number concentration of BC-containing particles exhibited diurnal variation, with two major peaks at the rush hours, i.e., from 08:00–12:00 LT or from 16:00–20:00 LT.

3.4.2 Size distribution and source apportionments of internally-mixed BC particles

Figure 5a shows the D_p number size distribution histogram detected by SP2. The BC-containing particles were detected in both the condensation and droplet modes in this study. The condensation mode peak was centered around ~ 230 nm and droplet mode peak was centered around ~ 380 nm, with a boundary D_p around ~ 320 nm. The presence of condensation mode ($D_{va} = \sim 200$ – 500 nm) and droplet mode ($D_{va} = \sim 550$ – 1200 nm) was confirmed by the SPAMS data (Fig. 5b). Similar particle size distributions were also found in other studies in China (Huang and Yu, 2008; Zhang et al., 2014).

The specific composition in condensation and droplet modes were quite different (Fig. 5b). BBBC particles exhibited a smaller number fraction in the condensation mode and dominated the number fraction in the droplet mode. Ammonium nitrate can condense on particle surfaces during atmospheric transport if sulfate is fully neutralized and excess ammonia is available (Riemer et al., 2004). The sulfate condensation on BC surfaces occurs rapidly at a local level, while ammonium nitrate condensation occurs continuously over longer timescales during transport (Healy et al., 2012a). Therefore, BCOC-NO_x particles are much older than BCOC-SO_x, and consequently have a larger size. As shown in Fig. 5b, the BCOC-NO_x had a higher number fraction than BCOC-SO_x did in the droplet mode. Based on the particle classification and source apportionment analysis, the internally-mixed BC particles from traffic emissions accounted for almost all of the particles observed in the condensation mode. However, the particle sources in the droplet mode were more diverse, including traffic emissions and biomass burning.

Previous studies revealed that different sources emit different core diameters for BC-containing particles (Liu et al., 2014; Takahama et al., 2014; Reddington et al., 2013; Schwarz et al., 2008) and the aging processes affect the coating thickness (Laborde

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cles also suggested that high concentrations of gaseous pollutants like NO₂ or volatile organics and their transformations play a vital role for particle growth and the increase of PM loading in urban area especially during a heavy pollution episode. Reductions in the emissions of gaseous precursors, such as NO₂ in the urban area, are critical for remediation of the severe urban haze pollution in China.

4 Conclusions

In this study, we characterized BC-containing particles during a heavy air pollution episode in Shanghai. The BC mass loading in Shanghai was similar to other cities in China but much higher than in other mega-cities around the world, with an average of 3.2 μg m⁻³ and the peak value of 12.1 μg m⁻³ at 04:26 LT on 7 December 2013. The BC mass accounted for 1.45 % of PM_{2.5} mass on average. The number- and mass-weighted BC core size distributions were around ~ 60–400 and 70–500 nm, with peaks around ~ 60 and ~ 200 nm, respectively.

Through SPAMS, we classified the BC-containing particles into 7 groups, according to their mass spectral patterns. The pure BC particles accounted for 0.53 % number fraction of BC-containing particles (although this number could be underestimated because of the low detection efficiency for pure BC in SPAMS). The BBBC particles came from biomass burning, accounting for 22.60 %. The KBC, NaKBC, BCOC-NO_x and BCOC-SO_x came from traffic emissions, accounting for 73.24 %. The remaining unidentified particles accounted for 3.63 %.

The size distribution of internally-mixed BC particles was bimodal. The condensation mode mainly consisted of traffic emissions, which had a small core (~ 60–80 nm) with thin ACT (~ 50–130 nm). The droplet mode included biomass burning and deeply aged traffic-emitted BC-containing particles. The biomass burning particles had larger core sizes (~ 80–130 nm) with thick ACT (~ 110–300 nm) and the highly aged traffic emissions had small core sizes (~ 60–80 nm) with thick ACT (~ 130–300 nm). It is rare to see the traffic-emitted BC growing so quickly to the droplet mode. The high concen-

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trations of gaseous pollutants like NO₂ and volatile organics and their transformations accelerated the growth of BC-containing particles and contributed to the high particle mass concentration in the heavy air pollution episode.

The quantitative number and mass information provided by SP2 supplemented the SPAMS chemical analysis in the entire experiment. The two complementary techniques can detect the physical and chemical properties of BC aerosol with single particle resolution. The combined use of SP2 and SPAMS would have potential of wider applications for future projects.

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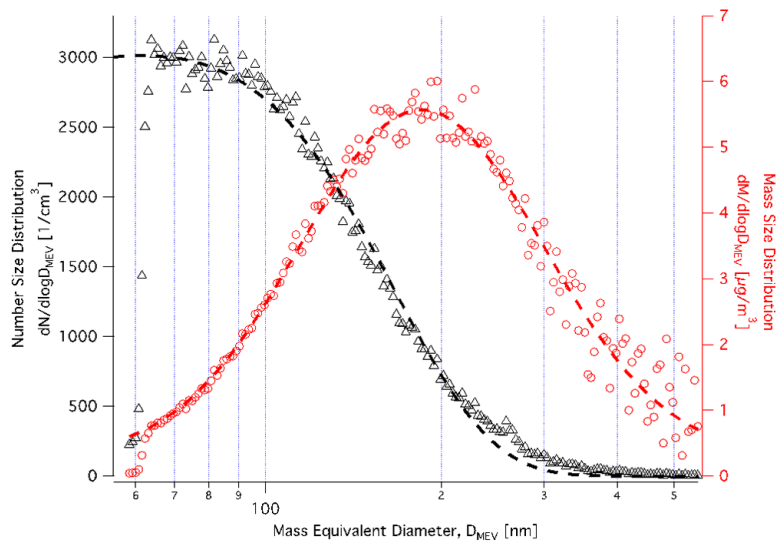


Figure 2. The measured BC core mass size distribution and number size distribution are shown in open red and black markers, respectively. The log-normal fitting to the observed distributions are shown by the dashed lines.

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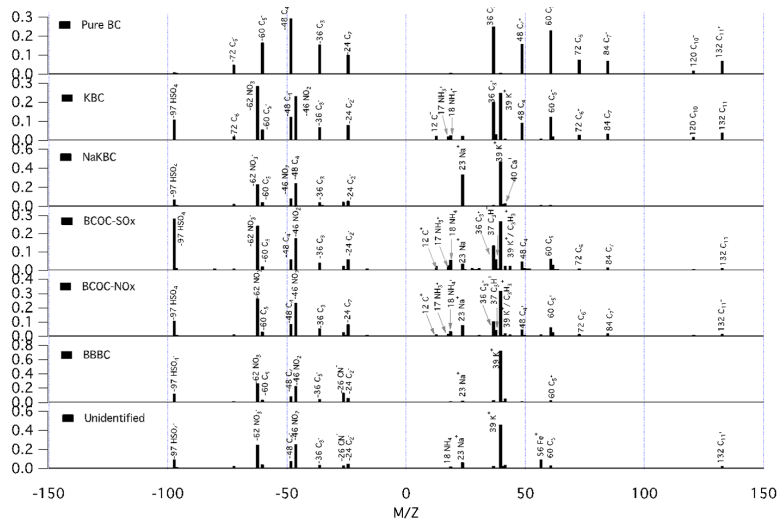


Figure 3. Averaged mass spectra of different types of BC-containing particles. Major peaks are labeled with the most probable assignments.

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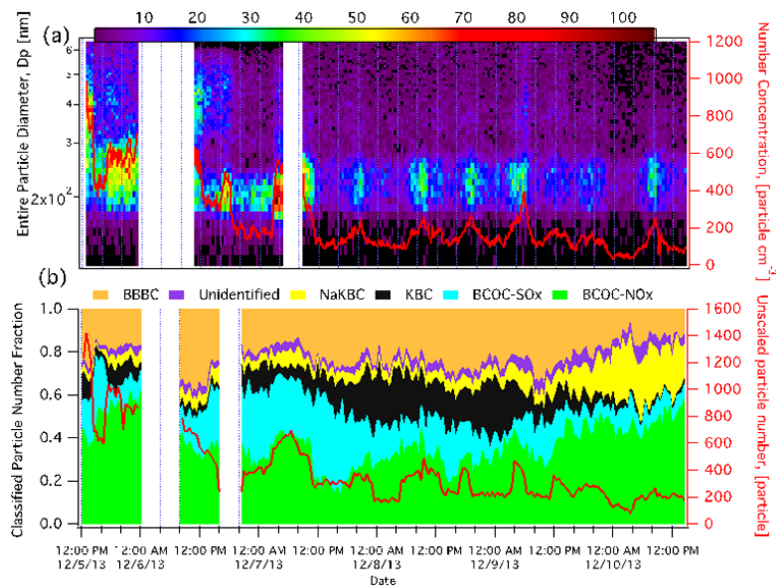


Figure 4. (a) Temporal variations of BC-containing particles number and size distributions with 30 min resolution. The red line shows the number concentration of total BC-containing particles (detected by SP2). (b) Temporal variation of number fractions of different BC-containing particle types with 10 min time resolution. The red line shows the number concentration of total BC-containing particles (detected by SPAMS).

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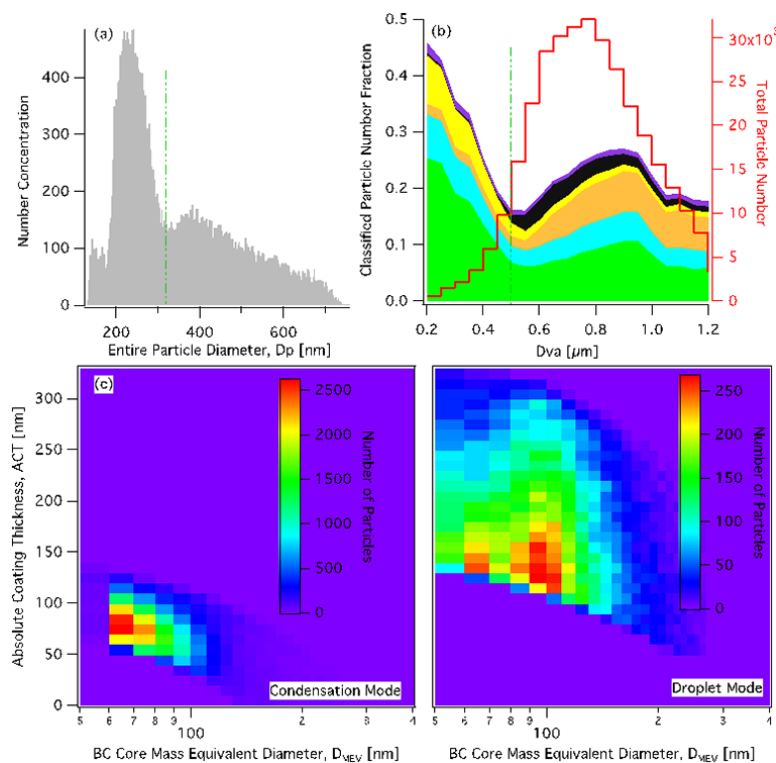


Figure 5. (a) D_p number size distribution histogram for the SP2-detected BC-containing particles. (b) D_{va} number fraction distribution of SPAMS-detected different types BC-containing particles. (c) D_c and ACT with number size distribution in the condensation and droplet modes.

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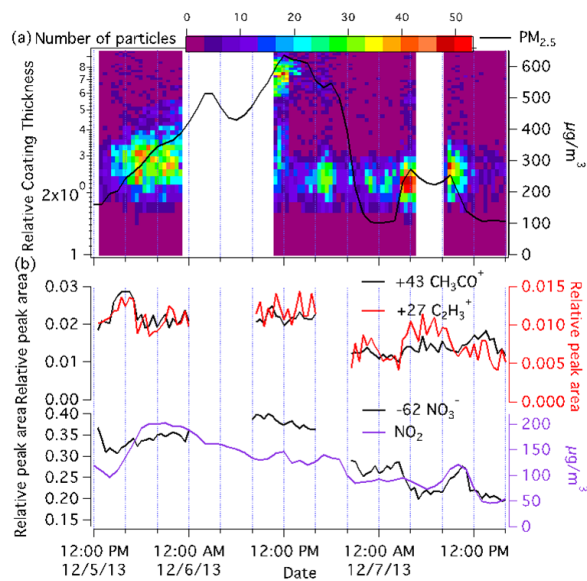


Figure 6. (a) Temporal variation of the relative coating thickness distribution of traffic-emitted BC-containing particles (SP2) with 30 min resolution and the temporal profile of PM_{2.5} concentration with 60 min resolution. (b) Temporal variation of relative peak areas of ²⁷C₂H₃⁺, ⁴³CH₃CO⁺, ⁶²NO₃⁻ of traffic-emitted BC-containing particles (SPAMS) and NO₂ concentration with 30 min resolution.