



Semi-continuous measurement of water-soluble ions in PM_{2.5} in Jinan, China: Temporal variations and source apportionments

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ABSTRACT

To better understand secondary aerosol pollution and potential source regions, semi-continuous measurement of water-soluble ions in PM_{2.5} was performed from December 2007 to October 2008 in Jinan, the capital of Shandong Province. The data was analyzed with the aid of backward trajectory cluster analysis in conjunction with redistributed concentration field (RCF) model and principal component analysis (PCA). SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻ and NH₄⁺ were the most abundant ionic species with annual mean concentrations (\pm standard deviations) of 38.33 (\pm 26.20), 15.77 (\pm 12.06) and 21.26 (\pm 16.28) μ g m⁻³, respectively, which are among the highest levels reported in the literatures in the world. Well-defined seasonal and diurnal patterns of SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻ and NH₄⁺ were observed. The fine sulfate and nitrate oxidation ratios (SOR and NOR) were much higher in summer (SOR: 0.47 \pm 0.13; NOR: 0.28 \pm 0.03) than those in other seasons (SOR: 0.17–0.30; NOR: 0.12–0.14), indicating more extensive formations of SO₄²⁻ and NO₃⁻ in summer. The most frequent air masses connected with high concentrations of SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻ and NH₄⁺ originated from Shandong Province in spring, autumn and winter, while from the Yellow Sea in summer, and then slowly traveled in Shandong Province to Jinan. RCF model indicated that Shandong Province was the main potential source region for SO₄²⁻ and NO₃⁻ and other potential source regions were also identified including the provinces of Hebei, Henan, Anhui and Jiangsu and the Yellow Sea. Principal component analysis indicated that the major sources contributing to PM_{2.5} pollution were secondary aerosols, coal/biomass burnings and traffic emissions.

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1. Introduction

The rapid industrialization and urbanization in China have inevitably led to remarkable increase of air pollutants emissions in the past two decades. Coal combustions and automobile exhausts are mainly responsible for the severe air pollution in large cities in China (Chen et al., 2004). Primary air pollutants such as SO₂ and dust have been successfully reduced due to the enforcement of control measurements in recent years (Chan and Yao, 2008), while PM_{2.5} has emerged as the biggest concern. PM_{2.5} is believed to be a predominant factor to scatter and absorb solar radiation and reduce visibility (Sloane et al., 1991), and it can easily penetrate into lungs and lead to the respiratory and mutagenic diseases (Hughes et al., 1998). Water-soluble ions account for about half of the

PM_{2.5} mass (Zhang et al., 2007b; Chan and Yao, 2008). The major water-soluble ions such as sulfate, nitrate and ammonium have effects on the hygroscopic nature and acidity of aerosols (Ocskay et al., 2006), while their characteristics vary significantly with seasons and geographic locations.

Shandong Province is located on the central coast of China and adjacent to Korea and Japan. The area of Shandong constitutes only 1.6% of total China area while anthropogenic emissions from Shandong contributed approximately 10% for SO₂, 8% for NO_x, and 9% for PM_{2.5} to China emissions in 2006 (National Bureau of Statistics of China, 2009; Zhang et al., 2009). Regional transport of air pollutants from Shandong was found to contribute to the aerosol pollution in Beijing under prevailing south and southeast winds (Streets et al., 2007). Besides, Shandong was identified as a potential source region for secondary inorganic aerosol in Seoul, Korea (Heo et al., 2009). As the capital of Shandong Province, Jinan was listed in the group of large cities with the highest concentrations of SO₂, NO_x and TSP in the world (Baldasano et al., 2003). Previous study showed that Jinan suffered serious PM_{2.5} pollution

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and SO_4^{2-} and NO_3^- were major contributors to the visibility reduction (Yang et al., 2007). However, temporal variations (especially diurnal variation) and source apportionments of water-soluble ions in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ in Jinan are still unclear.

In order to better understand secondary aerosol pollution and potential source regions in Jinan, semi-continuous measurement of water-soluble ions in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ was performed, in conjunction with trace gases and meteorological parameters in 2008. This paper presents the overall results of water-soluble ions. We first show the seasonal and diurnal variations of major water-soluble ions, and then deploy backward trajectory cluster analysis and redistributed concentration field (RCF) model to allocate the potential source regions for secondary ions in Jinan. Finally, principal component analysis (PCA) is used to uncover the underlying factors contributing to the $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ pollution in Jinan.

2. Experiments and methodologies

2.1. Sampling sites

Four intensive measurements were conducted from December 2007 to October 2008. In winter (Dec 1 2007–Jan 3 2008) and spring (Apr 1–18 2008), the observation site was chosen at the rooftop of public teaching building in Hongjialou Campus of Shandong University (in brief “HJLC”; $36^\circ 69' \text{N}$, $117^\circ 06' \text{E}$), and the detailed information about this site was given by Xu et al. (2010). In summer (Jun 5–17 2008) and autumn (Sep 12–Oct 15 2008), the study site was set up on the fourth floor at the building of Environmental Science and Engineering in Central Campus of Shandong University (in brief “CC”; $36^\circ 40' \text{N}$, $117^\circ 03' \text{E}$) (Shou et al., 2010), 1 km away from the HJLC. The sampling inlet was ~ 15 m above the ground level at the two sites. These two sites are both located in the urban area in Jinan, being surrounded by residential or commercial districts (Xu et al., 2010).

2.2. Instruments

An ambient ion monitor (AIM; Model URG 9000B, URG Corporation) was used to measure hourly concentrations of water-soluble ions in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$, including F^- , Cl^- , NO_2^- , NO_3^- , SO_4^{2-} , Na^+ , NH_4^+ , K^+ , Mg^{2+} and Ca^{2+} . The instrument has been used in several field campaigns, and the details can refer to Zhou et al. (2010). To avoid positive interference from SO_2 to the SO_4^{2-} measurement (Wu and Wang, 2007; Zhou et al., 2010), a NaOH solution (5 mmol L^{-1}) was substituted for the original ultra-pure water as the denuder liquid to enhance the absorption of SO_2 .

$\text{PM}_{2.5}$ samples were collected on Teflon membranes using a commercially available filter-based sampler (Reference Ambient Air Sampler, Model RAAS 2.5–400, Thermo Andersen) and 101 sets of samples were obtained during our observation. The collection of samples and analysis of water-soluble ions have been described elsewhere (Wu and Wang, 2007; Zhou et al., 2010). In this study, we compared the results obtained from AIM and traditional filter-based measurements in Section 3.1.1.

Other instruments for measuring SO_2 (TEI, Model 43C), NO_x (TEI Model 42i-TL), O_3 (TEI, Model 49C), CO (API Model 300E) and BC (Magee Scientific, Berkeley, California, USA, Model AE-21) have been described in our previous studies (Zhou et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2010). And the meteorological data were directly obtained from an automatic meteorological station (Xu et al., 2010).

2.3. Trajectories calculation and cluster analysis

Three-day backward trajectories, terminated at 50 m a.s.l., were computed every hour by the Hybrid Single-Particle Lagrangian

Integrated Trajectory model (HYSPPLIT, version 4.9) with the Global Data Assimilation system (GDAS) meteorological data (Draxler and Rolph, 2003). A total of 2278 backward trajectories with 72 hourly trajectory endpoints in four seasons were used as input for further analysis. A K-means cluster approach was then used to classify the trajectories into several different clusters (Salvador et al., 2010) and five suitable clusters were chosen in four seasons.

2.4. Redistributed concentration field (RCF) model

In this study, C_k is the concentration measured at the receptor site for trajectory k . If C_{ik} is the mean concentration of the grid cells which are hit by segment i ($i = 1, N_k$) of trajectory k (Salvador et al., 2010), then the distribution of air pollutants for trajectory k is

$$C_{ik} = C_k \frac{C_{ik} N_k}{\sum_{i=1}^{N_k} C_{ik}}, i = 1, N_k \quad (1)$$

After the redistribution of all individual trajectories, the new concentration field \bar{C}_{mn} is calculated by the redistributed concentration C_{ik} :

$$\log \bar{C}_{mn} = \frac{1}{\sum_{k=1}^M \sum_{i=1}^{N_k} \tau_{mnik}} \sum_{k=1}^M \sum_{i=1}^{N_k} \log(C_{ik}) \tau_{mnik} \quad (2)$$

In eq. (2), τ_{mnik} is the residence time of segment i for trajectory k in grid cell (m, n) . The new concentration field is repeated until the average difference for the concentration fields of two successive iterations is below a threshold value of 0.5%. The geophysical regions passed by the trajectories were divided into $1.0^\circ \times 1.0^\circ$ grids.

3. Results and discussions

3.1. Overall statistics of water-soluble ions in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$

3.1.1. Comparison of results from AIM and traditional filter-based measurements

To evaluate the performance of modified AIM, hourly data from AIM were averaged to match the collection time of filter samples for comparison. The results from AIM and traditional filter-based measurements are plotted in Fig. 1. Excellent correlations were found for major ionic species, namely, SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^- , NH_4^+ , Cl^- and K^+ ($R^2 = 0.84\text{--}0.95$, RMA slope = $0.83\text{--}1.08$), and good correlations ($R^2 = 0.46\text{--}0.90$, RMA slope = $0.83\text{--}1.08$) were obtained for F^- , Na^+ , Mg^{2+} and Ca^{2+} with relatively low concentrations. NO_2^- showed no correlation and far higher concentration measured by AIM than that by traditional filter-based measurement (RMA slope = 42.90 ; $R^2 = 0.08$), and this difference could be due to the loss of NO_2^- from the filters (Chang et al., 2007; Zhang et al., 2007a). Overall, AIM worked well for measuring major water-soluble ions in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$.

3.1.2. Mass concentrations

The hourly mean concentrations and standard deviations of water-soluble ions in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ are summarized in Table 1. The concentrations of water-soluble ions followed the order of $\text{SO}_4^{2-} > \text{NH}_4^+ > \text{NO}_3^- > \text{Cl}^- \sim \text{NO}_2^- \sim \text{K}^+ > \text{Na}^+ > \text{Ca}^{2+} > \text{F}^- > \text{Mg}^{2+}$ and this order changed slightly with seasons. SO_4^{2-} , NH_4^+ and NO_3^- were the dominant ions, and contributed more than 80% to the total measured water-soluble ions. SO_4^{2-} was the most abundant water-soluble ion in Jinan and its annual mean concentration was $38.33 \pm 26.20 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, accounting for $44.65 \pm 11.30\%$ of the total measured water-soluble ions. It is worth noting that the concentration of SO_4^{2-} alone was more than twice the annual US National

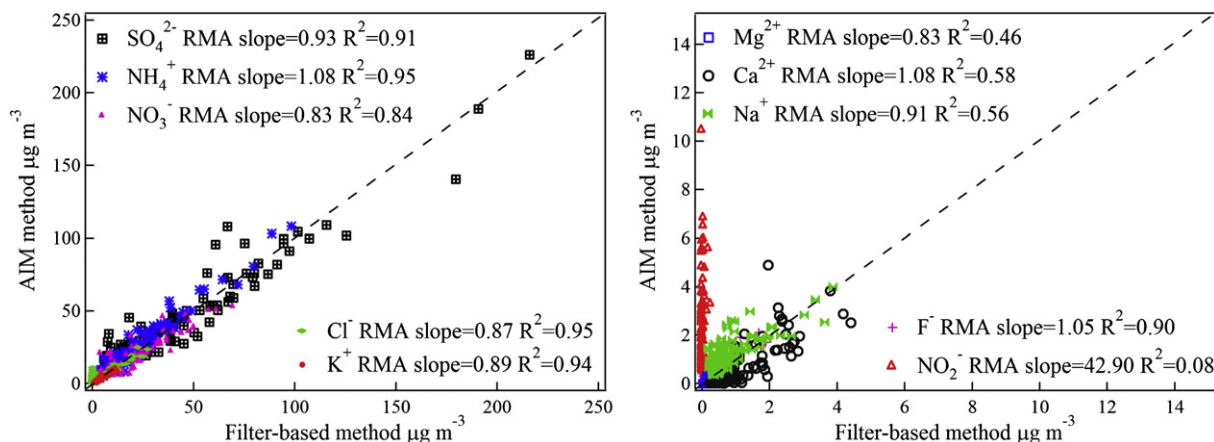


Fig. 1. Scatter plots of major water-soluble ions from AIM and Filter-based methods.

Ambient Air Quality Standards of PM_{2.5} (15 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) and the hourly maximum concentration of SO₄²⁻ could be up to 227 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. NH₄⁺ (21.16 ± 16.28 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) and NO₃⁻ (15.77 ± 12.06 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) were another major components, accounting for 17.63 ± 7.61% and 23.07 ± 5.85% of the total water-soluble ions respectively.

Table 2 compares the concentrations of SO₄²⁻, NH₄⁺ and NO₃⁻ in PM_{2.5} in Jinan with those measured in other cities over the world. Obviously, the levels of these compounds in Jinan were substantially (5–10 times) higher than those in cities of USA, Europe, Japan and Korea. Moreover, they were also higher than those of other Chinese cities (e.g. Beijing, Shanghai), which are well-known to suffer serious aerosol pollution. These results demonstrated the severity of secondary inorganic aerosol pollution in Jinan.

3.2. Temporal variations of water-soluble ions in PM_{2.5}

3.2.1. Seasonal variations of major water-soluble ions

Different seasonal variations were observed for individual ion due to their differences in emission sources and formation mechanisms (Table 1). Secondary ions, namely SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻, NH₄⁺ and NO₂⁻ showed higher values in summer (64.27 ± 31.00, 19.22 ± 11.84, 28.01 ± 16.27 and 2.93 ± 2.45 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) and winter (42.84 ± 31.72, 21.77 ± 15.05, 29.19 ± 20.72 and 2.48 ± 1.94 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$), and lower levels in spring (27.11 ± 11.41, 10.19 ± 6.00, 13.28 ± 8.75 and 1.50 ± 1.27 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) and autumn (30.99 ± 14.15, 11.69 ± 7.33, 15.13 ± 7.36 and 1.75 ± 1.61 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$). The summertime peak could be attributed to more active photochemistry process which can facilitate formation of secondary species, while the higher levels in winter may associate with huge emissions of primary pollutants (such as SO₂ and NO_x) from coal combustion for heating and worsen atmospheric dispersion.

The fine sulfate and nitrate oxidation ratios (SOR and NOR) are defined as $\text{SOR} = \text{nSO}_4^{2-} / (\text{nSO}_4^{2-} + \text{nSO}_2)$ and $\text{NOR} = \text{nNO}_3^- / (\text{nNO}_3^- + \text{nNO}_x)$ to indicate the process and extent of formations from SO₂ to SO₄²⁻ and NO_x to NO₃⁻ (Wang et al., 2005). SOR and NOR are represented in Fig. 2 and their average values were both larger than 0.10, reflecting occurrence of secondary formation in Jinan (Wang et al., 2005). SOR in summer was 0.47 ± 0.13, much larger than that in spring (0.22 ± 0.05), autumn (0.30 ± 0.04) and winter (0.17 ± 0.02), indicating stronger oxidation of SO₂ to SO₄²⁻ in summer leading to the highest concentration of SO₄²⁻ in spite of relatively lower SO₂ concentrations among four seasons (SO₂: Summer = 26.25 ± 28.73 ppb; Spring = 32.14 ± 26.86 ppb; Autumn = 22.31 ± 16.41 ppb; Winter = 58.59 ± 32.98 ppb). The formation of SO₄²⁻ from SO₂ mainly includes gas-phase reaction of SO₂ and OH radical affected by temperature and solar radiation (Seinfeld, 1986), and heterogeneous reaction which is a function of RH (metal catalyzed oxidation or H₂O₂/O₃ oxidation) (Dlugi et al., 1981). The seasonal variation of SOR was consistent with temperature in Fig. 2, indicating that gas-phase oxidation of SO₂ played a major role in the formation of SO₄²⁻ in the whole year (Wang et al., 2005). NOR showed the highest level in summer (0.28 ± 0.03), the lowest level in winter (0.12 ± 0.01), and comparable level in spring (0.14 ± 0.01) and autumn (0.14 ± 0.01), indicating that high temperature and high RH promoted the faster formation of NO₃⁻ in spite of more dissociation of NH₄NO₃ at high temperature in summer.

The mass ratio of NO₃⁻/SO₄²⁻ has been used as an indicator of relative importance of mobile (e.g. vehicles) vs. stationary sources (e.g. power plant) in the air pollution (Yao et al., 2002; Wang et al., 2006). High NO₃⁻/SO₄²⁻ mass ratios have been measured in southern California, with 2 in downtown Los Angeles and 5 in

Table 1
Concentrations of water-soluble ions (mean concentrations ± standard deviation (SD)) in four seasons in Jinan ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$).

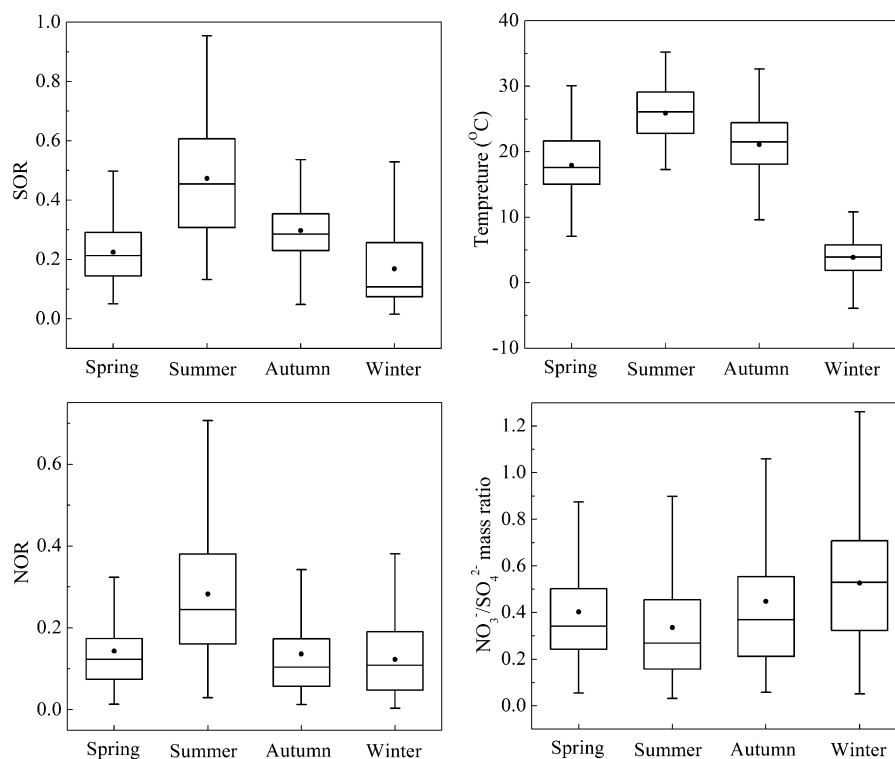
| Species | Mean ± SD | | | | |
|-------------------------------|-------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|
| | Annual (N = 2282) | Spring (N = 448) | Summer (N = 276) | Autumn (N = 773) | Winter (N = 785) |
| F ⁻ | 0.33 ± 0.42 | 0.22 ± 0.31 | 0.21 ± 0.28 | 0.15 ± 0.15 | 0.61 ± 0.53 |
| Cl ⁻ | 4.19 ± 5.36 | 1.59 ± 2.34 | 3.18 ± 3.74 | 1.44 ± 1.56 | 8.75 ± 6.37 |
| NO ₂ ⁻ | 2.10 ± 0.86 | 1.50 ± 1.27 | 2.93 ± 2.45 | 1.75 ± 1.61 | 2.48 ± 1.94 |
| NO ₃ ⁻ | 15.77 ± 12.06 | 10.19 ± 6.00 | 19.22 ± 11.84 | 11.69 ± 7.33 | 21.77 ± 15.05 |
| SO ₄ ²⁻ | 38.33 ± 26.20 | 27.11 ± 11.41 | 64.27 ± 31.00 | 30.99 ± 14.15 | 42.84 ± 31.72 |
| Na ⁺ | 1.22 ± 0.75 | 0.85 ± 0.38 | 2.12 ± 1.04 | 1.04 ± 0.62 | 1.34 ± 0.65 |
| NH ₄ ⁺ | 21.26 ± 16.28 | 13.28 ± 8.75 | 28.01 ± 16.27 | 15.13 ± 7.361 | 29.19 ± 20.72 |
| K ⁺ | 2.36 ± 2.32 | 1.32 ± 1.14 | 4.62 ± 3.08 | 1.44 ± 1.17 | 3.07 ± 2.54 |
| Mg ²⁺ | 0.11 ± 0.15 | 0.12 ± 0.10 | 0.03 ± 0.05 | 0.01 ± 0.07 | 0.22 ± 0.17 |
| Ca ²⁺ | 0.76 ± 1.18 | 0.83 ± 0.17 | 0.29 ± 0.46 | 0.23 ± 0.59 | 1.41 ± 1.43 |

Table 2Mass concentrations of PM_{2.5} and the major chemical components in Jinan and other cities over the world ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$).

| Site | Type | Time | Mass concentrations ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) | | | | References |
|-----------------------|---------|-------------------|--|-------------------------------|------------------------------|------------------------------|----------------------|
| | | | PM _{2.5} | SO ₄ ²⁻ | NH ₄ ⁺ | NO ₃ ⁻ | |
| Jinan, China | Urban | Dec 2007–Oct 2008 | | 38.33 | 21.26 | 15.77 | This study |
| Beijing, China | Urban | 2001–2003 | 154.26 | 17.07 | 8.72 | 11.52 | Wang et al., 2005 |
| Shanghai, China | Urban | Sep 2003–Jan 2005 | 94.64 | 10.39 | 3.78 | 6.23 | Wang et al., 2006 |
| Qingdao, China | Coastal | 1997–2000 | 43.6 | 11.94 | 5.79 | 3.4 | Hu et al., 2002 |
| Xi'an, China | Urban | Oct 2006–Sep 2007 | 130 | 27.9 | 7.6 | 12 | Shen et al., 2009 |
| Linan, China | Rural | Oct–Nov 1999 | 90 | 21.2 | 8.6 | 7.7 | Xu et al., 2002 |
| Mong Kok, Hong Kong | Urban | Nov 2000–Feb 2001 | 69.15 | 10.32 | 3.84 | 2.65 | Louie et al., 2005 |
| Taichung, Taiwan | Urban | 2001–2003 | 59.8 | 9.45 | 4.49 | 1.93 | Fang et al., 2002 |
| Seoul, Korea | Urban | Mar 2003–Feb 2005 | 42.8 | 7.5 | 5.5 | 7.1 | Kim et al., 2007 |
| Tokyo, Japan | Urban | Sep 2007–Aug 2008 | 20.58 | 3.8 | 2.27 | 0.96 | Khan et al., 2010 |
| New York, US | Urban | 2002–2003 | 13.16 | 4.29 | 1.93 | 2.04 | Qin et al., 2006 |
| St. Louis, US | Urban | 2000–2003 | 16.4 | 4.23 | 1.94 | 2.48 | Lee and Hopke, 2006 |
| Kerbside, Switzerland | Urban | Apr 1998–Mar 1999 | 24.6 | 2.8 | 1.6 | 3 | Hueglin et al., 2005 |
| Huelva, Spain | Urban | 1999–2005 | 19 | 3.6 | 1.4 | 0.5 | Querol et al., 2008 |
| Milan, Italy | Urban | Aug 2002–Nov 2003 | 20.2 | 4 | 2.2 | 4.6 | Lonati et al., 2005 |
| Milan, Italy | Urban | Aug 2002–Nov 2003 | 53.7 | 5.8 | 5.2 | 20.2 | Lonati et al., 2005 |

Rubidoux, which was due to less use of coal (Kim et al., 2000); However in Chinese cities (e.g. Beijing, Shanghai), lower ratios had been reported as a result of the wide use of sulfur-containing coal (Yao et al., 2002). In our study, the NO₃⁻/SO₄²⁻ mass ratio ranged from 0.03 to 1.52, with the annual mean of 0.44. These results indicated that like other cities in China, stationary sources were more important compared with vehicle emissions in Jinan. The NO₃⁻/SO₄²⁻ mass ratios showed clear seasonal variations with the highest ratio in winter (0.53 ± 0.05), the lowest ratio in summer (0.34 ± 0.03), and comparable ratio in spring (0.40 ± 0.06) and autumn (0.42 ± 0.06) (see Fig. 2). The reason is that in summer high temperature and high RH are more favorable for formation of SO₄²⁻ compared to NO₃⁻ due to enhanced evaporation of NH₄NO₃ at high temperature.

Cl⁻ showed higher concentrations in winter (8.75 ± 6.37 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) than that in other seasons (Table 1). Cl⁻ is a major component of sea-salt particle, and is also released from coal combustion (Sun et al., 2006). In winter, the air generally originated from the northwest (Xu et al., 2010) and thus the influence of sea-salt would be minor. The mass ratio of Cl⁻/Na⁺ was calculated as 6.18 ± 2.96 in winter, which is much higher than that detected for sea water (1.797) (Moller, 1990). Therefore, the elevated concentration of Cl⁻ in winter was due to the enhanced coal combustion. K⁺ exhibited higher levels in summer (4.62 ± 3.08 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) and winter (3.07 ± 2.54 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) than that in spring and autumn (1.32 ± 1.14 and 1.44 ± 1.17 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$). In summer, extensive activities of biomass burning around Shandong was the main factor contributing to the elevated concentration of K⁺ (<http://maps.geog>.

**Fig. 2.** Seasonal variations of SOR, NOR, NO₃⁻/SO₄²⁻ mass ratio and temperature.

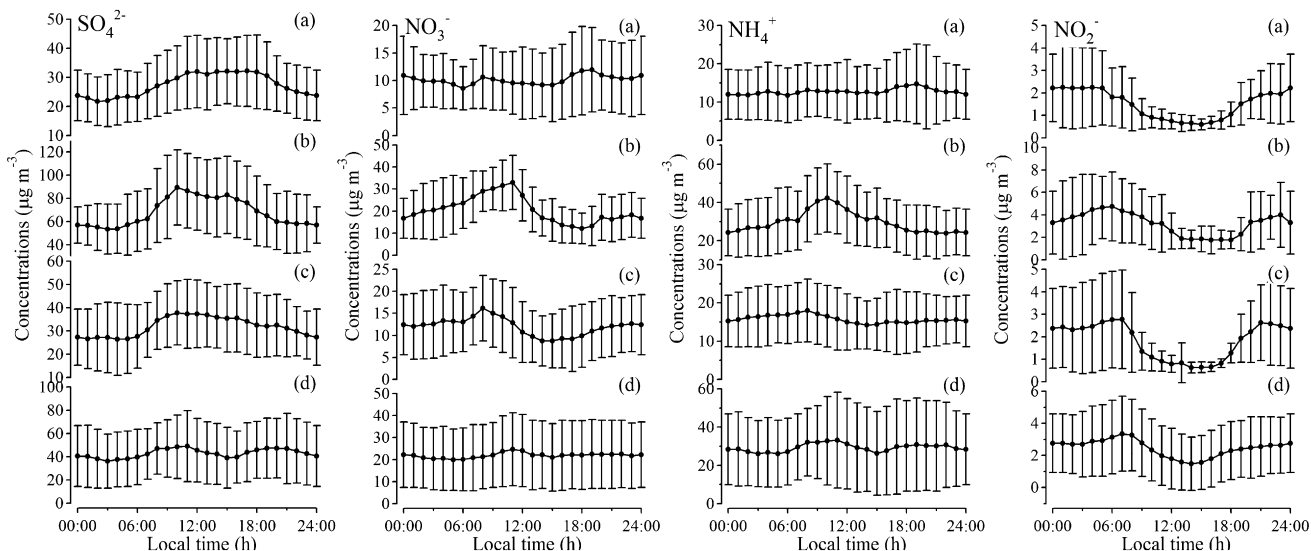


Fig. 3. The diurnal profiles of SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^- , NH_4^+ and NO_2^- in four seasons (a) Spring; (b) Summer; (c) Autumn; (d) Winter.

umd.edu/firms/). High concentrations of K^+ in winter may be associated with coal combustion as implied from the strong correlation ($r = 0.82$) between K^+ with Cl^- (Westberg et al., 2003). Other water-soluble ions were not relevant for seasonal variations due to their low concentrations.

3.2.2. Diurnal variations of secondary water-soluble ions

The diurnal variations of secondary water-soluble ions in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ in four seasons are shown in Fig. 3. In general, SO_4^{2-} exhibited

similar diurnal profiles in spring, summer and autumn, with an evident increase as sun rising and a broad daytime maximum, which was consistent with those reported in other cities (e.g. Beijing, PRD) (Hu et al., 2008; Wu et al., 2009). This typical pattern can be explained by the fact that photochemical production is more extensive during the daytime with stronger solar radiation. Compared with other seasons, in winter SO_4^{2-} had a little diurnal variation and showed two peaks in the morning and evening, which may be related with boundary layer height and photochemical

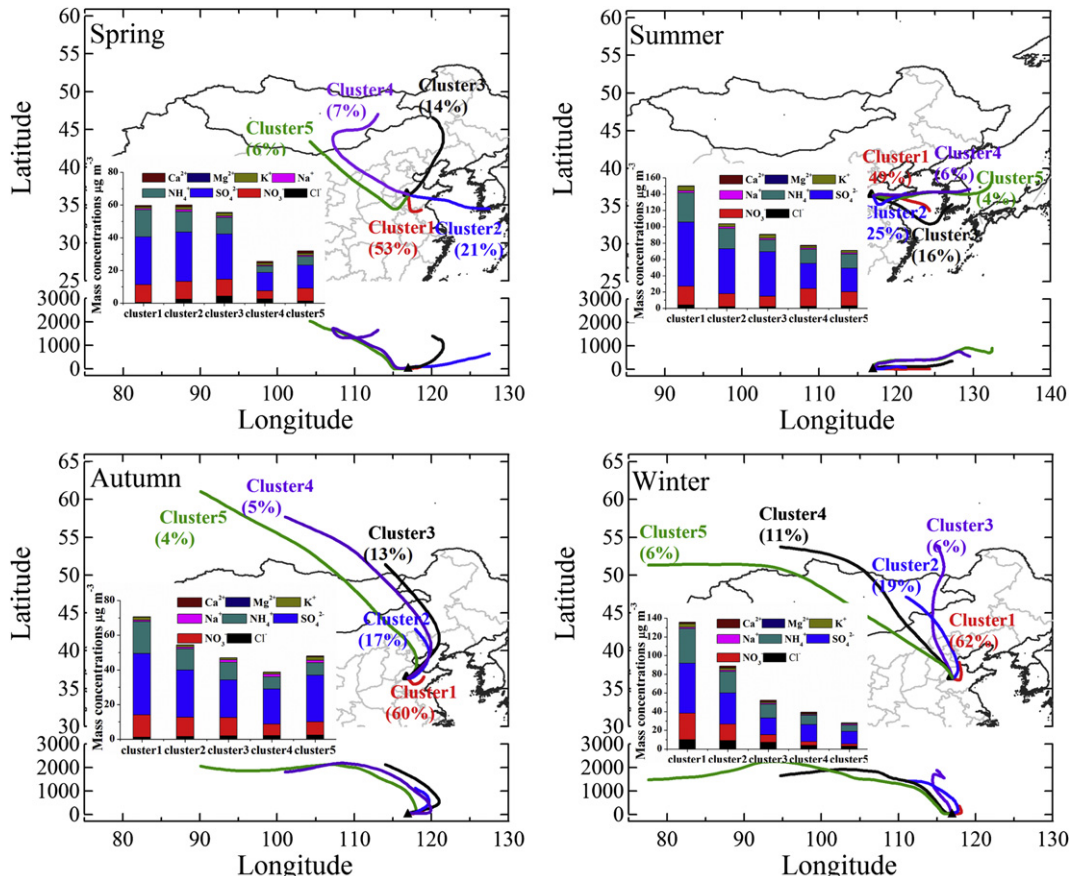


Fig. 4. Mean clusters and the corresponding mean ions concentrations in four seasons.

reaction. The morning peak may be contributed to enhanced photochemical production and the evening peak was a result of accumulation of pollutants with reduced boundary layer height. The lower concentration in the early afternoon was because that the dilution of SO_4^{2-} by increase of boundary layer overwhelmed the production of SO_4^{2-} caused by photochemical reactions.

NO_3^- had a more apparent diurnal profile in summer and autumn than that in spring and winter. In summer and autumn, NO_3^- peaked in the morning, and its lowest concentration appeared at 16:00–18:00 (Hu et al., 2008; Wu et al., 2009). The morning peak was synchronous with NO_x , indicating its relation to vehicle emissions (Park et al., 2005). The lowest concentration of NO_3^- in the afternoon was attributed to dissociation of NH_4NO_3 at high temperature and increase of boundary layer height. In winter and spring NO_3^- showed a little diurnal pattern, which was due to minor influence of thermodynamic equilibrium at low temperature. NO_3^- showed two peaks in the morning and evening in spring which was consistent with that of NO_x and may be associated with vehicle emissions (Park et al., 2005). In four seasons NH_4^+ showed similar diurnal profiles with SO_4^{2-} or NO_3^- , indicating the existences of $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ and NH_4NO_3 .

NO_2^- showed similar diurnal profiles in four seasons with higher concentrations at night and lower concentrations during daytime (Fig. 3), and similar profile was also observed in Beijing (Zhang et al., 2007a). Higher NO_2^- concentration at night than that during daytime probably was related with lower oxidized extent due to weak solar radiation and nighttime accumulation of NO_2^- .

3.3. Sources

3.3.1. The potential source regions identification using trajectory statistical methods

Backward trajectory cluster analysis is a useful tool to evaluate the origins of air pollutants at the receptor sites (Salvador et al., 2010), and redistributed concentration field (RCF) model can estimate the potential source regions (Stohl, 1996). The combination of backward trajectory cluster analysis and RCF model can be better to provide a comprehensive view of the potential source regions for SO_4^{2-} and NO_3^- in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ in Jinan. Three-day mean trajectories for clusters in spring, summer, autumn and winter and corresponding mean concentrations of water-soluble ions are expressed in Fig. 4. All the trajectories in four seasons can be classified into 4 main categories based on their origins, paths and latitudes: (1) the shortest/local transport pattern, (2) eastern airflow, (3) northeast air masses and (4) northwest/north air parcel with long transport path. From Fig. 4, it can be seen that the shortest/local transport pattern (cluster 1) was frequent and accounted for 53% of total trajectories in spring, 49% in summer, 60% in autumn and 62% in winter. Eastern airflow was dominant in summer and contributed for 21% of total trajectories in spring (cluster 2). Northeast/north air masses were observed in spring (cluster 3, 14%) and in autumn (cluster 2, 17%). Other clusters generally originated from northwest/north of China and traveled fast at the highest altitude.

The highest concentrations of SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^- and NH_4^+ were observed in the shortest cluster (cluster 1) in four seasons, indicating that secondary ions in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ were easy to be enriched in the

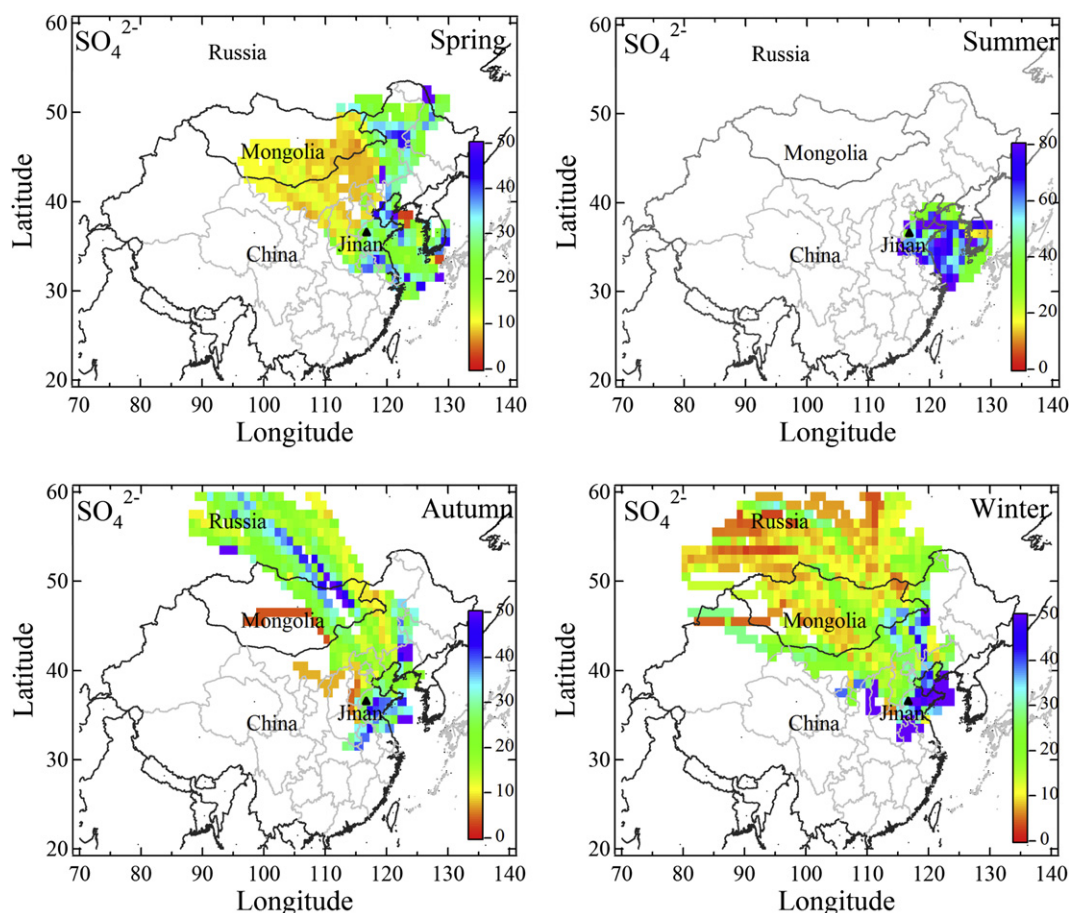


Fig. 5. RCF distribution for sulfate in Jinan in four seasons.

short trajectories from upwind regional and local emission sources (Karaca and Camci, 2010). Cluster 1 generally originated from the middle of Shandong Province, moved southerly and finally turned westerly to Jinan in spring, autumn and winter, while in summer it derived from the Yellow Sea, moved northwesterly to Jinan. A major big petro-chemical corporation, power plants and cement production base are located in the middle (Zibo city) and southwest (Jining city and Zaozhuang city) of Shandong Province. Cluster 1 spent much time on passing over industrial zones with high emissions of primary pollutants (e.g. SO_2 , NO_x), leading to the high concentrations of SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^- and NH_4^+ .

Much higher concentrations of SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^- and NH_4^+ were associated with air masses from northeast or northwest, including cluster 3 in spring, clusters 2 in autumn and cluster 2 in winter. The flow patterns of cluster 3 in spring and cluster 2 in autumn were both typically originated from Inner Mongolia, flowed over Liaoning Province and Bohai Gulf before arriving at Jinan. While cluster 2 in winter derived from Outer Mongolia, passed through Inner Mongolia, Hebei Province and then to Jinan. These trajectories all passed over the Bohai economic zone, which is one of the most populated and industrial zones in China and has the highest SO_2 and NO_x emissions (Zhang et al., 2009).

Low concentrations of SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^- and NH_4^+ occurred in cluster 4 and 5 in spring, autumn and winter. These clusters derived from northwest of China and moved faster at the higher latitudes compared to other clusters.

Compared to other seasons, in summer higher concentrations of SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^- and NH_4^+ could be explained by the combination of Dimethyl Sulfide (DMS) oxidation (Salvador et al., 2010) and long

residence time over industrial zones with large amount emissions of primary pollutants. It was worth noting that there was also a significant fraction of the flow from Korea in summer (cluster 4 and 5, 10%), which passed westerly over the Yellow Sea and Jiaodong Peninsula before arriving at Jinan.

Figs. 5 and 6 show the results of RCF analysis for SO_4^{2-} and NO_3^- , respectively. The high potential source region of SO_4^{2-} and NO_3^- was Shandong, and Hebei, Henan, Anhui, Jiangsu, Liaoning, and Inner Mongolia in spring, autumn and winter and eastern Jiangsu Province, South Korea and the Yellow Sea in summer were also identified as the potential source regions.

3.3.2. The sources identification by principal component analysis (PCA)

In order to identify the sources of water-soluble ions in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$, principal component analysis (PCA) was applied. PCA is a widely used statistical technique to quantitatively identify a smaller number of independent factors among the compound concentrations, which can explain the variance of the data, by using the eigenvector decomposition of a matrix of pair-wise correlations (Johnson and Wichern, 1998; Miller et al., 2002). PCA is conducted using a commercially available software package (SPSS). Hourly values of Nss-SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^- , NH_4^+ , Cl^- , NO_2^- , Na^+ , K^+ , Mg^{2+} , Ca^{2+} , NO_x , SO_2 , CO , BC and O_3 were used for PCA and the results are shown in Table 3.

In spring, four principal components were obtained and accounted for 82% of the total variance. The principal component 1 accounted for 45% of the total variance, and comprised NO_x , NO_2^- , BC and CO , while anti-correlated with O_3 , indicating its relation to

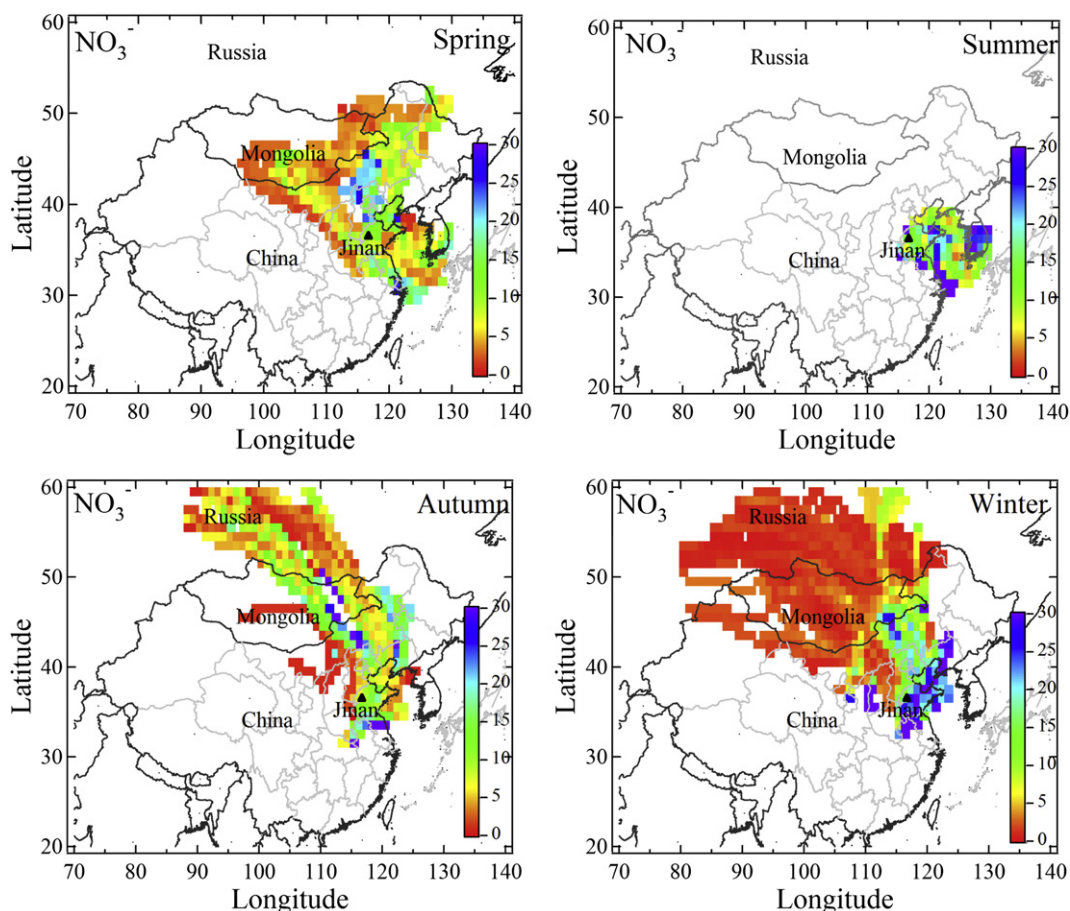


Fig. 6. RCF distribution for nitrate in Jinan in four seasons.

Table 3
Factor loadings from PCA in the four seasons.

| | Spring | | | | Summer | | | Autumn | | | Winter | | |
|-----------------------------------|---------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|---------------|-------------|-------------|---------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|---------------|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| Nss-SO ₄ ²⁻ | -0.08 | 0.76 | 0.51 | 0.11 | 0.73 | -0.06 | 0.56 | 0.94 | 0.03 | 0.04 | 0.93 | -0.11 | 0.10 |
| NO ₃ ⁻ | 0.20 | 0.91 | 0.02 | 0.03 | 0.91 | 0.18 | -0.07 | 0.63 | 0.49 | -0.24 | 0.78 | -0.18 | 0.26 |
| NH ₄ ⁺ | 0.21 | 0.84 | 0.28 | 0.14 | 0.90 | 0.05 | 0.35 | 0.91 | 0.44 | -0.19 | 0.95 | -0.03 | 0.12 |
| Cl ⁻ | 0.46 | -0.08 | 0.78 | -0.12 | 0.75 | 0.41 | -0.07 | 0.40 | 0.03 | 0.23 | 0.85 | 0.40 | 0.05 |
| NO ₂ ⁻ | 0.85 | 0.27 | 0.17 | 0.09 | 0.38 | 0.76 | -0.01 | -0.05 | 0.77 | 0.06 | 0.83 | 0.15 | -0.03 |
| Na ⁺ | 0.01 | 0.27 | 0.68 | 0.48 | 0.12 | 0.23 | 0.45 | -0.01 | 0.04 | 0.67 | 0.84 | 0.15 | -0.01 |
| K ⁺ | 0.39 | 0.26 | 0.55 | 0.32 | 0.87 | -0.02 | 0.09 | 0.69 | 0.20 | 0.50 | 0.91 | 0.06 | 0.06 |
| Mg ²⁺ | 0.12 | 0.17 | 0.05 | 0.95 | 0.30 | 0.61 | 0.02 | 0.08 | 0.17 | 0.72 | 0.28 | 0.74 | 0.14 |
| Ca ²⁺ | 0.23 | -0.02 | -0.03 | 0.89 | -0.10 | 0.84 | 0.02 | 0.05 | 0.45 | 0.78 | 0.20 | 0.86 | -0.11 |
| NO _x | 0.83 | 0.13 | 0.22 | 0.30 | 0.18 | 0.84 | 0.23 | 0.00 | 0.73 | 0.53 | -0.19 | 0.36 | 0.69 |
| SO ₂ | 0.11 | 0.25 | 0.77 | -0.18 | -0.02 | -0.11 | 0.85 | 0.69 | -0.22 | 0.37 | -0.14 | 0.74 | 0.25 |
| CO | 0.57 | 0.31 | 0.57 | 0.22 | 0.71 | 0.60 | 0.21 | 0.31 | 0.73 | 0.34 | 0.81 | 0.41 | -0.08 |
| O ₃ | - 0.88 | 0.09 | -0.17 | -0.01 | -0.23 | - 0.75 | 0.36 | 0.26 | - 0.42 | -0.07 | -0.32 | 0.03 | - 0.64 |
| BC | 0.70 | -0.08 | 0.00 | 0.42 | 0.72 | 0.41 | -0.10 | 0.29 | 0.83 | 0.25 | 0.85 | 0.33 | -0.05 |
| Variance | 45% | 15% | 13% | 9% | 45% | 18% | 10% | 39% | 18% | 12% | 52% | 16% | 7% |

Note: Values in bold indicate loading factors discussed in this paper.

traffic emissions. The principal component 2 could be explained by secondary aerosols due to the positive contribution from Nss-SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻ and NH₄⁺, and this factor accounted for 15% of the total variance. The principal component 3 contained Cl⁻ and SO₂ with 13% of the total variance, which was related with stationary source emissions such as coal combustion. The principal component 4 was primarily composed of Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺ and Na⁺, and was attributed to the crustal and soil dust from urban constructions.

In summer, three principal components were identified and accounted for 73% of the total variance. The principal component 1 had highly positive contributions from Nss-SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻, NH₄⁺, Cl⁻, K⁺, BC and CO, which could be explained by secondary aerosols mixing with biomass burning. In summer, extensive activities of biomass burning around Shandong were observed (<http://maps.geog.umd.edu/firms/>) and biomass burning is likely to emit large amount of Cl⁻, K⁺, BC and CO. The principal component 2 was composed of NO_x, NO₂⁻, Ca²⁺ and Mg²⁺, and anti-correlated with O₃, which was identified as traffic emissions mixing with crustal and soil dust. The principal component 3 was composed of SO₂, mainly from coal combustion.

In autumn, three principal components were identified and accounted for 69% of the total variance. The principal component 1 accounted for 39% of the total variance, which could be explained by secondary aerosols due to the positive contribution from Nss-SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻ and NH₄⁺. The principal component 2 was composed of NO_x, NO₂⁻, CO and BC, and anti-correlated with O₃, indicating its relation to traffic emissions which accounted for 18% of the total variance. The principal component 3 was primarily composed of Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺ and Na⁺, and was attributed to the crustal and soil dust from urban constructions.

In winter, three principal components also were obtained. The principal component 1 could be identified as secondary aerosols mixing with coal combustion due to the positive contribution from Nss-SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻, NH₄⁺, Cl⁻, NO₂⁻, Na⁺, K⁺, BC and CO. The principal components 2 and 3 were composed of primary pollutants (e.g. SO₂, NO_x, Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺), mainly from coal combustion, crustal and soil dust and traffic emissions. These components accounted for 75% of the total variance in winter.

All in all, the source apportionment indicated that secondary aerosols, coal/biomass burnings and traffic emissions were major contributors for PM_{2.5} loading in Jinan.

4. Summary

Hourly concentrations of water-soluble ions in PM_{2.5} were measured to investigate secondary aerosol pollution and potential

source regions in Jinan, Shandong Province from Dec 2007 to Oct 2008.

The results verified that Jinan was suffering more serious fine particle pollution compared with other cities in the world. Accelerated photochemistry reaction under high temperature, O₃ concentrations and strong solar radiation in summer and high emissions of SO₂ and NO_x from coal combustion in winter led to higher concentrations of SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻ and NH₄⁺ in these two seasons than those in spring and autumn. The diurnal variations of SO₄²⁻ in spring, autumn and winter were dominated by photochemical process, while in winter controlled by boundary layer height and photochemical reaction. In summer and autumn thermodynamic reaction affected diurnal variation of NO₃⁻, while it rarely occurred in spring and winter with a little diurnal variation. Production of secondary inorganic aerosol was more extensive in summer implied by higher SOR and NOR compared to other seasons.

Cluster analysis showed that the synoptic flows arriving at Jinan were dominated by the air masses originating and circulating locally in Shandong Province in spring, autumn and winter, while originating from the Yellow Sea in summer. RCF results indicated that the major potential source regions for secondary ions were concentrated in Shandong and partly from the provinces of Hebei, Henan, Anhui, Jiangsu, and Liaoning, as well as Inner Mongolia in spring, autumn and winter, while in summer Shandong, eastern Jiangsu, South Korea and the Yellow Sea were identified as the main potential source regions. Secondary aerosol dominated the variations of aerosol loading. Traffic emissions and coal combustions were major contributors for urban pollution. The influence of biomass burnings in summer was observed in Jinan.

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