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Chemical characteristics and source apportionment of PM_{2.5} between heavily polluted days and other days in Zhengzhou, China

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ABSTRACT

PM_{2.5} samples were collected in Zhengzhou during 3 years of observation, and chemical characteristics and source contribution were analyzed. Approximately 96% of the daily PM_{2.5} concentrations and annual average values exceeded the Chinese National Ambient Air Quality Daily and Annual Standards, indicating serious PM_{2.5} pollution. The average concentration of water-soluble inorganic ions was 2.4 times higher in heavily polluted days (daily PM_{2.5} concentrations > 250 μg/m³ and visibility < 3 km) than that in other days, with sulfate, nitrate, and ammonium as major ions. According to the ratio of NO₃/SO₄²⁻, stationary sources are still the dominant source of PM_{2.5} and vehicle emission could not be ignored. The ratio of secondary organic carbon to organic carbon indicated that photochemical reactivity in heavily polluted days was more intense than in other days. Crustal elements were the most abundant elements, accounting for more than 60% of 23 elements. Chemical Mass Balance results indicated that the contributions of major sources (i.e., nitrate, sulfate, biomass, carbon and refractory material, coal combustion, soil dust, vehicle, and industry) of PM_{2.5} were 13%, 16%, 12%, 2%, 14%, 8%, 7%, and 8% in heavily polluted days and 20%, 18%, 9%, 2%, 27%, 14%, 15%, and 9% in other days, respectively. Extensive combustion activities were the main sources of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons during the episode (Jan 1–9, 2015) and the total benzo[a]pyrene equivalency concentrations in heavily polluted days present significant health threat. Because of the effect of regional transport, the pollution level of PM_{2.5} in the study area was aggravated.

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Introduction

In recent years, China has experienced unprecedented economic developments along with a substantial quantity of energy consumption, which results in serious air pollution problems, especially extreme haze episodes (Wang et al., 2015). A haze comprising suspended solids, liquid particles,

smoke, and vapor in the atmosphere which is defined as a weather phenomenon with the horizontal visibility less than 10 km and the relative humidity (RH) less than 80% (Tan et al., 2009; Yang et al., 2015). Haze episodes have frequently occurred in China along with the characteristics of large polluted areas, long duration, and high concentration level (Wang et al., 2014b). Recently, the occurrence of haze has

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rapidly increased in the Yangtze River Delta region and other regions (Wang et al., 2014a). Five heavy pollution episodes, whose frequencies were far greater than those in other years, were recorded in January 2013 in northern China (Ji et al., 2014).

Particulate matter (PM) played a major role in the formation and evolution of haze (Tan et al., 2009). PM not only affects climate, environment, and visibility but also has a severe effect on human health (Pope et al., 2002). PM can be classified by size into PM₁₀ (aerodynamic diameter < 10 μm) and PM_{2.5} (aerodynamic diameter < 2.5 μm). As PM_{2.5} is associated with more adverse health effects and influences on haze than larger particles (Zhao et al., 2009), numerous analyses of the haze mainly concentrate around chemistry compositions and the source appointment of PM_{2.5} (Pateraki et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2013a; Zhou et al., 2016). Sulfate, nitrate, and ammonium (secondary inorganic aerosols, SIAs) were found to be the major components of water soluble inorganic ions (WSIIs), which accounted for one-third or more of PM_{2.5} (Kim et al., 2006; Cao et al., 2012; Kong et al., 2014). Organic carbon (OC) and elemental carbon (EC) are also important constituents of PM_{2.5}, particularly in highly industrialized and urbanized areas (Huang et al., 2014b). Elements were divided into crustal elements and anthropogenic pollution elements, including trace heavy metals harmful to the human body (Gao et al., 2015). Although polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) constitute a small part of PM_{2.5}, they are well known to be carcinogenic and mutagenic (Hu et al., 2007).

Zhengzhou, which is the capital of Henan province, is faced with severe air pollution accompanied by the rapid development of the economy and a substantial number of people living demand, with a long-term coal-dominated energy structure (<http://tongji.cnki.net/kns55/Nav/YearBook.aspx?id=N2016010114&floor=1###>). According to satellite remote sensing data, China is the most serious global PM polluted area. Moreover, most of the Henan Province experienced high aerosol optical depth problems, particularly Zhengzhou (Tao et al., 2014), which is similar to the report by Luo et al. (2014). According to the data from the Ministry of Environmental Protection of the People's Republic of China (MEPPRC, <http://www.mep.gov.cn/>), Zhengzhou is among the 10 Chinese cities with the worst air quality in 2013–2015 and the primary pollutant was PM_{2.5} (<http://www.zzepb.gov.cn/Information/Content/?id=32853>). Several studies have been reported on the chemical composition and source apportionment of PM_{2.5} in Zhengzhou; however, only one year of data was available in most of the literature. For example, Geng et al. (2013b) determined that soil dust, secondary aerosol, coal combustion, biomass burning/oil combustion/incineration, vehicle emissions, and industrial emissions contributed approximately 26%, 24%, 23%, 13%, 10%, and 4%, respectively, to PM_{2.5} mass by positive matrix factorization in Zhengzhou in 2010. A few studies on the long-term observation of PM_{2.5} in Zhengzhou, such as the WSIIs, carbonaceous components (Wang et al., 2016a), and PAHs (Wang et al., 2015) of PM_{2.5} were investigated in Zhengzhou from 2011 to 2013. However, the source contribution percentages were obtained during normal days excluding episodes. There was no report on source apportionment of PM_{2.5} during heavily polluted days in Zhengzhou, as well as the research in long-term episode days.

In this study, 174 PM_{2.5} samples were collected and WSIIs, OC, EC, and elements of the samples were detected. Chemistry characteristics and potential source percentage contribution of PM_{2.5} were contrasted between heavily polluted days and other days during 2013–2015 (including a typical haze episode).

1. Materials and methods

1.1. Site description and sample collection

Zhengzhou belongs to the warm temperate zone continental climate, which has four distinctive seasons with an average temperature of approximately 15°C (<http://tongji.cnki.net/kns55/Nav/YearBook.aspx?id=N2014120113&floor=1>). The sampling site is located on the roof of the Collaborative Innovation Center of Henan Resources and Materials Industry in Zhengzhou University in Zhengzhou High-tech Zone (34°48' N, 113°31' E) (Fig. 1). The sampling height is approximately 13 m above the ground and there is no tall building around.

One hundred seventy-four samples were collected by using quartz microfiber filters (20.3 cm × 25.4 cm, Pall, USA) with a high-volume PM_{2.5} sampler (TE-6070D Tisch Environmental, USA), which was accompanied by the flow rate 1.13 m³/min during the periods from 8 December 2012 to 24 October 2015. Sampling was conducted from 9:00 am to 8:00 am of the following day.

Before each sampling, the quartz filters were wrapped in aluminum foil and baked at 450°C for 4.5 hr in a Muffle furnace. All filters were then placed in a super clean room (temperature: 25 ± 5°C; RH: 50% ± 5%) for at least 48 hr and weighed in a micro-balance (Mettler Toledo XS205, Switzerland) before and after each sampling. All filters were stored in a freezer at –20°C before analysis.

1.2. Chemical analysis

1.2.1. WSIIs analysis

Two pieces of circular membranes (each piece 10.9 cm²) were cut from each sample filter and dipped in 25 mL ultra-pure water in 100 mL bottles. WSIIs from the samples were extracted by the ultrasonic bath for 30 min (bath temperature < 30°C). The extracted solutions were filtered with hydrophilic membranes (0.22 μm) before determination. Four anion species (F[–], Cl[–], NO₃[–], and SO₄^{2–}) were analyzed by using an ion chromatography (ICS-900, Dionex, USA) with an IonPacASII-HC4 mm anion separation column and an IonPacAGII-HC4 mm guard column. The eluents were 8.0 mmol/L Na₂CO₃ and 1.0 mmol/L NaHCO₃ mixtures with 0.8 mL/min flow rate. Five cation species (Na⁺, K⁺, NH₄⁺, Ca²⁺, and Mg²⁺) were detected by ion chromatography (ICS-90, Dionex, USA) with an IonPacCS12A cation separation column and an IonPacCG12A guard column. The eluents were 20 mmol/L of methane sulfonic acid with 1.0 mL/min flow rate.

1.2.2. EC and OC analysis

Two 2.0 cm² membranes were punched from each filter and used for analysis using a carbon analyzer (Sunset Laboratory, USA). The analysis proceeds essentially in two stages. In the first, OC is volatilized from the sample in a pure helium

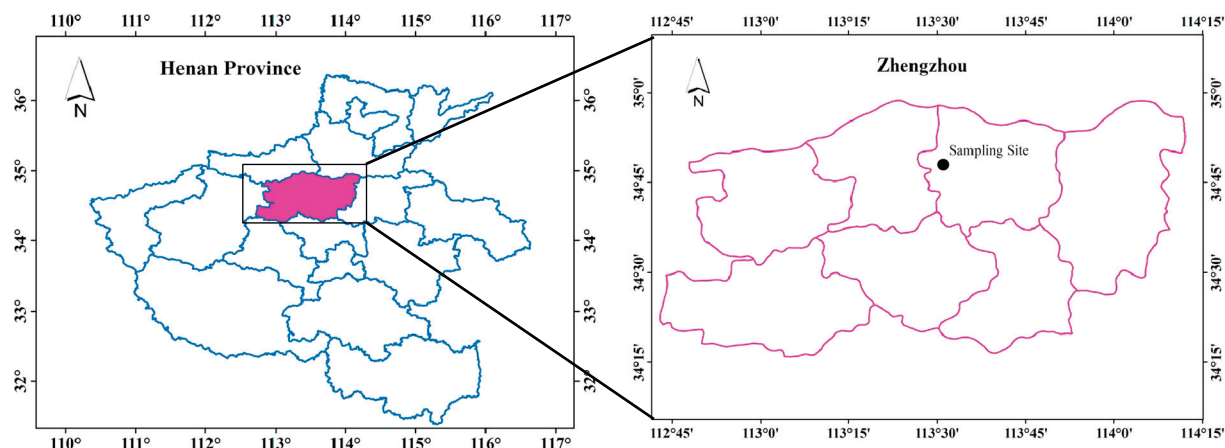


Fig. 1 – Location of the sampling site in Zhengzhou, Henan Province, China.

atmosphere as the temperature is stepped to about 840°C. During the second stage, EC measurement is made in an oxidizing atmosphere of 2% oxygen with 98% helium as the temperature is stepped to about 870°C. The carbonaceous combustion products that evolved at different temperatures were completely oxidized to carbon dioxide and reduced to methane which was detected by the flame ion detector (FID). Methane gas was used as an internal standard during the entire measurement process to calibrate the FID response signal.

1.2.3. Element analysis

Six quartz filters (10.9 cm² each) were placed in a high-pressure Teflon digestion vessel and were digested with a mixture of ultra-high purity acids (11.1% HNO₃/33.5% HCl), and then heated in a microwave system. The microwave system was ramped to 200°C and was retained at this temperature for 30 min. A total of 23 trace elements (Be, B, Mg, Al, Ti, V, Mn, Fe, Co, Ni, Cu, Zn, As, Se, Sr, Mo, Ag, Cd, Sn, Sb, Ba, Tl, and Pb) were measured by using inductively coupled plasma mass (Agilent 7500cx, USA) and each sample was repeated three times. Recovery as well as calibration and quantification was performed using external standard solutions, and the mixture of Li, Se, Ge, Y, In, Tb, and Bi (10 µg/mL, Internal Standard Mix) was also added for quality control.

1.2.4. PAH analysis

Six quartz filters (10.9 cm² each) were placed in 250 mL bottles and extracted three times with 50 mL dichloromethane and then agitated ultrasonically (bath temperature: 0°C). Each extraction step lasted 30 min. The combined extracts were filtered and concentrated in a rotary evaporation apparatus under vacuum. Sixteen PAHs, including naphthalene (Nap), acenaphthylene (Acy), acenaphthene (Ace), fluorene (Flu), phenanthrene (Phe), anthracene (Ant), fluoranthene (Flt), pyrene (Pyr), benzo[a]anthracene (BaA), chrysene (Chr), benzo[b]fluoranthene (BbF), benzo[k]fluoranthene (BkF), benzo[a]pyrene (BaP), indeno[1,2,3-cd]pyrene (IcdP), dibenz[a,h]anthracene (DaA), and benzo[ghi]perylene (BghiP), which were US Environmental Protection Agency (US EPA's) 16 priority PHA pollutants, were quantified using Gas Chromatography-Mass Spectrometry (GC-MS) (7890A

GC-5975 MS, Agilent, USA) during the episode (January 1–9 in 2015) in this study. A deuterated surrogate compound mixture (Nap-D8, Ace-D10, Phe-D10, Chr-D12, and Perylene-D12) was added into all the samples for the determination of the recovery ratio. The recovery of the standard addition ranged from 79% to 104%. Only trace amounts of low molecular weight PAHs were detected in the blank filter, which was less than 5% of the amount of samples.

2. Results and discussion

2.1. PM_{2.5} concentrations

The daily average concentrations of PM_{2.5} and its visibility are shown in Fig. 2. As compared with the Chinese National Ambient Air Quality Standard (NAAQS) (daily standard: 75 µg/m³), the daily PM_{2.5} concentrations varied from 50 to 698 µg/m³, with 167 days (i.e., approximately 96% of the samples) exceeding the standard. The annual average values, which were 191, 185, and 150 µg/m³ in 2013, 2014, and 2015, respectively, all these values exceeded the Chinese NAAQS (annual standard: 35 µg/m³) with the annual mean values 3.3–4.5 times higher than the standard in three years. The annual concentration of PM_{2.5} was higher than Beijing (135 µg/m³) (Zhang et al., 2013b), Handan (131 µg/m³) (Meng et al., 2016), and Tianjin (141 µg/m³) (Zhao et al., 2013), as well as the southern cities in China, which were approximately 2–4 times higher than that in Shanghai (54 µg/m³) (Geng et al., 2013a), Fuzhou (44 µg/m³) (Xu et al., 2012), and Xiamen (71 µg/m³) (Zhang et al., 2011). Compared with the developed countries, the annual concentration was obviously much higher with 5–13 times than Veneto, Italy (33 µg/m³) (Squizzato et al., 2012), Yokohama, Japan (20.6 µg/m³) (Khan et al., 2010), and Florida, USA (12.7 µg/m³) (Olson et al., 2008). Considering the significant influence on ordinary people because of poor visibility, heavily polluted days were identified in this study by PM_{2.5} daily concentrations >250 µg/m³ and visibility <3 km.

The numbers of heavily polluted days and other days were 24 (7, 12 and 5 days in 2013, 2014 and 2015, respectively) and 150 days, respectively; the ratio of heavily polluted days is

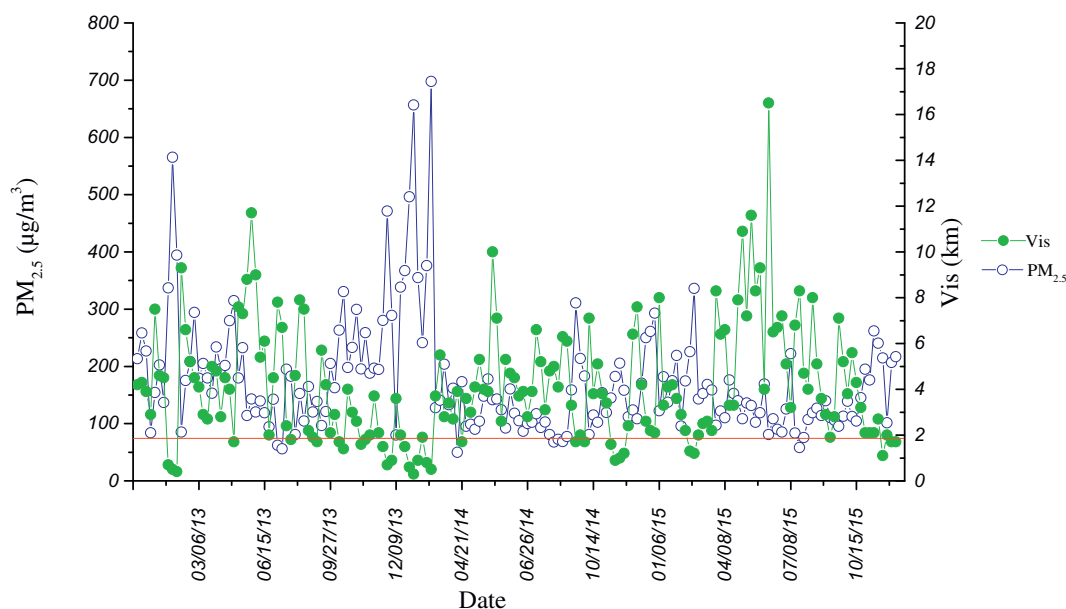


Fig. 2 – PM_{2.5} daily concentrations and visibilities in 2013–2015 (mm/dd/year). PM_{2.5}: particulate matter with an aerodynamic diameter < 2.5 µm.

approximately 14% of total sample days ($n = 174$). PM_{2.5} mass in heavily polluted days contributed 29% of total mass of PM_{2.5} from 2013 to 2015 as calculated below:

$$\text{Proportion} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{24} C_i \cdot t \cdot Q}{\sum_{j=1}^{174} C_j \cdot t \cdot Q}$$

where C_i and C_j represent the concentration of PM_{2.5} in heavily polluted days and those in all sampling days, and t represents the time of sampling of each filter (23 hr), and Q is the flow rate (1.13 m³/min).

The average concentrations of PM_{2.5} were 366 ± 124 and 144 ± 50 µg/m³ in heavily polluted days and in other days, respectively. The level of PM_{2.5} pollution is still serious in the study area and stricter strategies should be used to reduce the pollution situation.

2.2. Chemical analysis

2.2.1. WSII analysis

The average concentration of WSII during 2013–2015 was 75.4 ± 48.8 µg/m³, accounting for $44\% \pm 15\%$ of PM_{2.5}. The ratio was consistent with previous studies in Taian (44%) (Liu et al., 2016), Wuhan (42%–44%) (Zhang et al., 2015), and Handan (45%) (Meng et al., 2016), which were much higher than that in Shanghai (32%) and Yokohama, Japan (35%) (Khan et al., 2010). The WSII concentrations in heavily polluted days and other days are shown in Table 1. An obvious distinction was observed in the average concentration of each ion and total WSII, which was much higher in heavily polluted days (153.6 µg/m³) than that in other days (62.9 µg/m³) (approximately 2.4 times), but with nearly the same WSII/PM_{2.5} ratio (43%–44%). Therefore, the high concentration of PM_{2.5} in heavily polluted days was related to the high concentration of WSII.

SIAs, including SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^- , and NH_4^+ were generally major ions in WSII (accounting for more than 80%), with the average concentrations in heavily polluted days and other days both following the order: SO_4^{2-} (55.4 and 23.8 µg/m³, accounting for

Table 1 – Concentrations of WSII and carbonaceous material of PM_{2.5} in heavily polluted days and in other days.

	Heavily polluted days ($n = 24$)	Other days ($n = 150$)
Visibility (km)	1.4 ± 0.7	4.6 ± 2.5
PM _{2.5}	366 ± 124	144 ± 50
WSII		
SO_4^{2-}	55.4 ± 31.8	23.9 ± 14.9
NO_3^-	41.9 ± 16.6	17.4 ± 11.7
NH_4^+	30.4 ± 14.3	12.8 ± 6.6
SIAs	127.7 ± 57.7	54.1 ± 29.1
WSII	153.6 ± 65.9	62.9 ± 30.9
Carbon		
OC	61.7 ± 23.3	20.6 ± 12.9
EC	12.9 ± 8.1	6.8 ± 4.1
TC	74.6 ± 23.3	27.5 ± 15.7
SOC	45.0 ± 27.2	13.1 ± 10.8
Ratios		
WSII/PM _{2.5} (%)	43 ± 12	44 ± 15
SIAs/PM _{2.5} (%)	35 ± 11	38 ± 15
$\text{NO}_3^-/\text{SO}_4^{2-}$	0.87 ± 0.38	0.77 ± 0.40
OC/EC	6.8 ± 5.4	3.3 ± 1.9
SOC/OC	0.68 ± 0.25	0.58 ± 0.18
TC/PM _{2.5} (%)	21 ± 7	19 ± 8

SIAs: secondary inorganic aerosols (NH_4^+ , NO_3^- , SO_4^{2-}); PM_{2.5}: particulate matter with an aerodynamic diameter < 2.5 µm; OC: organic carbon; EC: elemental carbon; TC: total carbon; SOC: secondary organic carbon; WSII: 9 water soluble inorganic ions.
All units were in µg/m³ unless otherwise noted.

15% and 17% of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$) > NO_3^- (41.9 and 17.4 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, both 12% of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$) > NH_4^+ (30.4 and 12.8 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, 8% and 9% of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$, respectively). The previous studies demonstrated that the ratio of $\text{NO}_3^-/\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ could be reasonably used as an indicator of the importance of mobile and stationary sources to nitrogen and sulfur in the atmosphere (Xu et al., 2012; Xu et al., 2016), and high $\text{NO}_3^-/\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ signified the predominance of mobile source over stationary source of pollutants (Arimoto et al., 1996). In this study, the ratio in heavily polluted days (0.87) was slightly higher than that in other days (0.77). Compared with other cities, the ratio was much higher than that in Fuzhou (0.41) (Xu et al., 2012), Hangzhou (0.36) (Cao et al., 2009), and Hongkong (0.26) (Pathak et al., 2003) and close to Guangzhou (0.79) (Tan et al., 2009) and Beijing (0.71) (Wang et al., 2005). However, the ratio was much lower than that in downtown Los Angeles and Rubidoux (2–5) (Kim et al., 2000) in Southern California, with low coal consumption. Overall, stationary sources in Zhengzhou are still the dominant source of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$. However, vehicle emission could not be ignored because of the rapid growth of vehicles and severe traffic jams.

2.2.2. OC and EC analysis

The mean concentrations of OC and EC in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ are provided in Table 1, in which the concentration in heavily polluted days (61.7 and 12.9 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, accounting for 18% and 4% of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$) was much higher than that in other days (20.6 and 6.8 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, 14% and 5% of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$, respectively), with the annual average OC concentration of 25.8–26.8 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ (13%–17% of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$) in 2013–2015. The annual average OC concentration was close to Shijiazhuang (26.5 \pm 21.7 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) (Zhao et al., 2013) and higher than Xiamen (three sites: 15.8 \pm 9.1, 19.3 \pm 9.5, and 19.7 \pm 8.3 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) (Zhang et al., 2011), Tianjin (18.8 \pm 12.9 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$), and Beijing (18.2 \pm 13.8 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) (Zhao et al., 2013), and the ratios of OC/ $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ were similar to those in Beijing, Tianjin, and Shijiazhuang (approximately 13%–15% of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$) (Zhao et al., 2013) and lower than that in Xiamen (25%–27% of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$) (Zhang et al., 2011). In addition, the mean OC concentration was approximately six times higher than that for Yokohama, Japan (3.8 \pm 1.5 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ or 18% of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$), with much less difference among the ratios of OC/ $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ (Khan et al., 2010). The average concentration for EC was 7.7 \pm 5.3 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ during 2013–2015, which was much higher than Xiamen (three sites: 2.7 \pm 1.2, 3.3 \pm 1.3, and 3.5 \pm 1.4 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) (Zhang et al., 2011) and Yokohama, Japan (1.9 \pm 1.2 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) (Khan et al., 2010) and lower than Shijiazhuang (9.8 \pm 4.8 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) (Zhao et al., 2013), and the ratio of EC/ $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ (5% of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$) was nearly the same as Xiamen (Zhang et al., 2011) and Shijiazhuang (Zhao et al., 2013), and lower than that of Yokohama (9% of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$; Khan et al., 2010). The average values of total carbon (TC = OC + EC) were 74.6 \pm 23.3 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ (21% of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$) and 27.5 \pm 15.7 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ (19% of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$) in heavily polluted days and other days. The results indicate that TC plays an important role in the components of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$, with a relatively substantial difference in the concentrations and a slight variation of the ratios between heavily polluted days and other days.

According to the previous study, if the OC/EC ratio exceeds 2.0–2.2, then the ratio can be used for the identification and evaluation of secondary organic carbon (SOC) (Liu et al., 2016). In this study, SOC was also found in other days as long as secondary $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ was present. As shown in Table 1, the average

ratio in heavily polluted days (6.8 \pm 5.4) was much higher than that in other days (3.3 \pm 1.9). SOC was estimated as the following equation (Ji et al., 2014).

$$\text{SOC} = \text{OC} - \text{EC} \times \left(\frac{\text{OC}}{\text{EC}} \right)_{\min}$$

where, $(\text{OC}/\text{EC})_{\min}$ was represented by the observed minimum ratio. The concentrations of SOC were 45.0 \pm 27.2 and 13.1 \pm 10.8 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ in heavily polluted days and other days, respectively. The ratio of SOC/OC in heavily polluted days (0.68 \pm 0.25) was slightly higher than that in other days (0.58 \pm 0.18), which indicated that photochemical reactivity in heavily polluted days was more intense than that in other days.

2.2.3. Elemental analysis

Elements were divided into two groups: crustal elements including Mg, Al, Fe, and Ti (data not shown), which were considered as the main contributors to the high loading of crustal dust; anthropogenic pollution elements including Mn, Ni, Cu, Zn, As, Se, Cd, Sb, and Pb, which probably originated from fossil fuel combustion, industrial metallurgical processes, and vehicle emissions (Gao et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2015). The total concentration of crustal elements in the study area (3.4 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) was slightly lower than that in Tianjin (3.9 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) and Shijiazhuang (3.9 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) but higher than Chengde (2.4 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$), and Beijing (3.1 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) (Zhao et al., 2013); approximately accounting for 2%–3% of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ in these cities. For anthropogenic pollution elements, the total concentration (1.6 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ or 2% of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$) was higher than that in Tianjin, Shijiazhuang, Chengde and Beijing (1.2, 1.2, 0.5 and 0.6 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, accounting for less than 1% of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$) (Zhao et al., 2013). These results indicated serious pollution in the study area, especially anthropogenic pollution. The element concentrations of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ in heavily polluted days and in other days are shown in Table 2. The concentration of all elements in heavily polluted days was obviously higher than that in other days, with the average concentration of total elements 6.6 \pm 3.1 and 3.8 \pm 2.1 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, respectively. Compared with the WSIs and carbonaceous species, the elements had less contribution to $\text{PM}_{2.5}$, in which the ratios of total elements to $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ were only 1.8% and 2.8% (slight difference) and the crustal elements (i.e., Mg, Al, and Fe) dominated the most abundant elements in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$, accounting for 62% and 67% in total elements in heavily polluted days and other days, respectively.

2.3. Mass reconstruction

The result of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ mass closure during heavily polluted days and other days is shown in Fig. 3, including SIAs, organic matter (OM), crustal matter (CM), EC, other soluble ions, other elements, and other non-identified compositions. CM is calculated using the crustal species, which can be expressed as follows (Huang et al., 2014b):

$$\text{CM} = 2.2[\text{Al}] + 2.49[\text{Si}] + 1.63[\text{Ca}] + 2.42[\text{Fe}] + 1.94[\text{Ti}],$$

where Si is estimated based on the Al-to-Si ratio (0.46) (Chow et al., 2015) in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$. OM is estimated as an OC multiplied by 1.6 \pm 0.2 for urban areas (Turpin and Lim, 2001). The sum of Na^+ , K^+ , F^- , and Cl^- concentrations and 20 concentrations of

Table 2 – Elemental concentrations of PM_{2.5} in heavily polluted days and in other days.

	Heavily polluted days (n = 24)	Other days (n = 150)
Mg	506 ± 241	524 ± 458
Al	1521 ± 1112	1059 ± 718
Mn	121 ± 81	76 ± 45
Fe	1322 ± 771	1051 ± 806
Ni	7 ± 7	5 ± 4
Cu	53 ± 36	33 ± 21
Zn	1071 ± 978	598 ± 698
As	38 ± 33	18 ± 14
Se	11 ± 11	7 ± 5
Cd	12 ± 9	7 ± 6
Sb	14 ± 10	14 ± 13
Pb	291 ± 153	247 ± 170
Total elements	6556 ± 3130	3787 ± 2057
Total elements/PM _{2.5} (%)	1.8 ± 0.9	2.8 ± 1.5

All units were in ng/m³ unless otherwise noted.
Total elements: 23 elements.

elements (all elements except Al, Fe, and Ti) were calculated as other soluble ions and other elements, respectively, to avoid double counting of the composition.

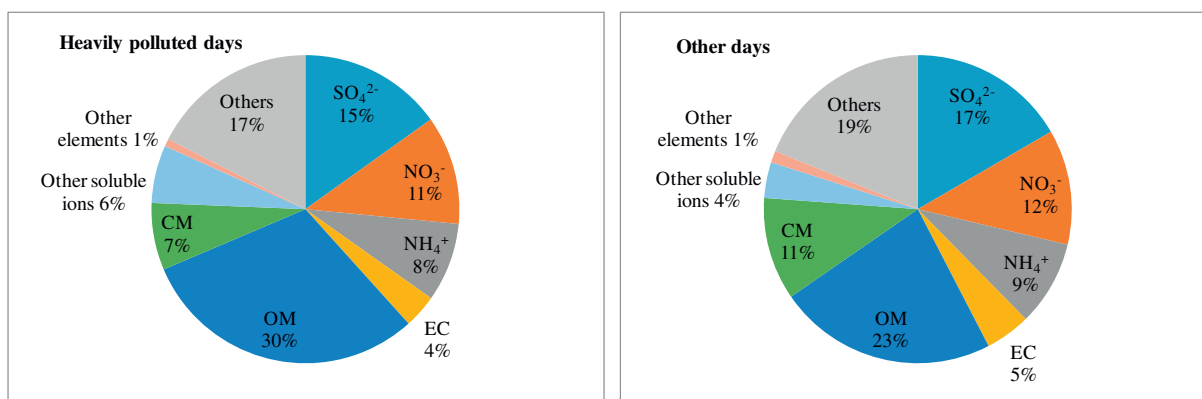
The total reconstructed masses for PM_{2.5} were 83% and 81% in heavily polluted days and other days, respectively. SIAs, OM, and CM were the major components of PM_{2.5}, accounting for 35%, 30%, and 7% in heavily polluted days and 38%, 23%, and 11% in other days, respectively. By comparison, the ratio of OM/PM_{2.5} was higher in heavily polluted days (30%) than that in other days (23%), mainly due to the higher ratio of OC/PM_{2.5} in the former case, particular higher SOC in polluted days. The ratio of SOC/OC in heavily polluted days (0.68) was higher than that in other days (0.58), suggesting more intense photochemical reaction in heavily polluted days. Nonetheless, the value of OM/PM_{2.5} ratio in heavily polluted days was close to that in Xi'an (31%) and Guangzhou (33%), but much lower than the values in Beijing (41%) and Shanghai (48%); all four cities were under highly polluted events (Huang et al., 2014a). However, the ratio of CM/PM_{2.5} was higher in other days (11%). With other ratios (i.e., SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻, NH₄⁺, EC, et al. to

PM_{2.5}), no obvious difference was evident. Therefore, high concentrations of OM (i.e., OC) are more closely related to the high concentrations of PM_{2.5} than other components, which should be paid more attention to lessen the serious pollution of PM_{2.5}.

2.4. Source apportionment of PM_{2.5}

Source contribution estimates (SCEs) were the main outputs of the chemical mass balance (CMB) model, which represented the fractional contribution to the ambient PM_{2.5} concentration by each source profile used in the model run. Apart from SCEs, such diagnostic parameters like R² were also provided by the CMB as performance measures of the least square calculations (Pirovano et al., 2015). When the target values of diagnostic parameters address the requirements of CMB (USEPA, 2004) (<https://www3.epa.gov/ttn/scram/models/receptor/EPA-CMB82Manual.pdf>) (i.e., R² > 0.8, X² < 2, 80% < mass% < 120%), the results of the source apportionment are acceptable.

In this study, CMB v8.2, which was developed by the USEPA, was used to apportion the sources of PM_{2.5}. Soil dust, secondary aerosol, coal combustion, biomass burning, vehicle and industrial emission were the main sources in Zhengzhou (Geng et al., 2013b). The details of these profiles will be the subject of another paper and are herein only summarized. The soil dust profile was obtained by chemical analyses of resuspended soil samples collected near the site. The biomass profile was obtained by combustion experiments in the Shenzhen Graduate School of Peking University (Wang et al., 2016b), supported by the public welfare projects from MEPPRC (201409010). The vehicle profile was obtained by a tunnel experiment in the Jingguang North Road Tunnel of Zhengzhou. The profile for secondary sulfate and nitrate was purely stoichiometric because NO₃⁻ and SO₄²⁻ existed as (NH₄)₂SO₄ and NH₄NO₃, which will be the subject of another paper. The source profile for coal combustion was obtained from a previous study (Zheng et al., 2005). The source profile for the industry was obtained from the report by Chen et al. (1994). According to hundreds of carbon and refractory material factories (<http://www.zhengzhou.gov.cn/html/www/news4/20160826/281572.html>), the profile for carbon and refractory material was obtained by chemical analyses of PM_{2.5} sample from carbon and refractory factories in Zhengzhou. Eight

**Fig. 3 – Mass closure of PM_{2.5} during heavily polluted and other days.**

pollution sources, including nitrate, sulfate, biomass, carbon and refractory material, coal combustion, soil dust, vehicle, and industry, were analyzed. The values of R^2 , X^2 , and percent mass in heavily polluted days (0.92, 0.54, and 81%, respectively) and other days (0.94, 0.47, and 115%, respectively) were all in the qualified range.

The results of source percentage contribution to $PM_{2.5}$ during heavily polluted days and other days are shown in Table 3. CMB results indicated that sulfate, coal combustion, nitrate, and biomass were the major sources in heavily polluted days, with 16%, 14%, 13%, and 12% contributions, respectively. Coal combustion, nitrate, sulfate, vehicle, and soil dust were the major sources in other days, with 27%, 20%, 18%, 15%, and 14% contributions, respectively. The results were in accordance with the results of mass reconstruction and the concentration of $PM_{2.5}$ from the same source, which was higher in heavily polluted days. The contribution of biomass burning was much higher in heavily polluted days ($44 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, 12%) than that in other days ($13 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, 9%) because most of the heavily polluted days were in autumn and winter, not only including the period of straw burning but also straw as heating and cooking fuel in the country without central heating. Although the concentration of $PM_{2.5}$ from coal combustion was higher in heavily polluted days ($50 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) than that in other days ($38 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$), the impact (source contribution) was less in polluted days. Unknown sources with 19% contribution of $PM_{2.5}$ still exist, which suggests that further research is necessary for this field.

2.5. Analysis of one haze episode

2.5.1. Chemical characteristics of $PM_{2.5}$

The days during January 1–9 in 2015 were chosen for the analysis of a severe haze episode process. The concentration of $PM_{2.5}$ increased at first and reached a peak concentration on January 5, and then declined with fluctuations. All daily average concentrations of $PM_{2.5}$ during the episode process exceeded the Chinese NAAQS (daily standard: $75 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$), with the peak concentration of $PM_{2.5}$ ($293 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) exceeding beyond 2.9 times. According to the definition, three days (from January 3 to 5) were identified as heavily polluted days during the episode process with daily concentrations of $PM_{2.5}$ beyond $250 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ and visibility lower than 3 km. The average concentrations in heavily polluted days and other days of

$PM_{2.5}$, WSIs, EC, OC, elements, and ratios of SIAs/ $PM_{2.5}$, $\text{NO}_3^-/\text{SO}_4^{2-}$, and OC/EC are shown in Table 4.

As shown in Table 4, the average concentrations in heavily polluted days were much higher than that in other days, and the components can be classified into two categories due to the obvious or slight difference of ratios between heavily polluted days and other days. The first group includes WSIs (133.9 ± 21.0), SIAs (101.7 ± 24.6), and NO_3^- ($44.1 \pm 17.9 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$), accounting for $50\% \pm 5\%$, $38\% \pm 8\%$, and $16\% \pm 6\%$ of $PM_{2.5}$ in heavily polluted days, which were much higher than that (59.4 ± 13.8 , 41.9 ± 12.5 , and $14.2 \pm 6.7 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, accounting for $40\% \pm 6\%$, $28\% \pm 6\%$, and $9\% \pm 3\%$ of $PM_{2.5}$), respectively. The obvious difference of the ratio of $\text{NO}_3^-/\text{PM}_{2.5}$ was strongly relevant to the difference of the ratio of SIAs/ $PM_{2.5}$ and WSIs/ $PM_{2.5}$. The ratios of $\text{NO}_3^-/\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ and OC/EC also have a conspicuous disparity between heavily polluted days (1.35 ± 0.49 and 2.8 ± 1.2) and

Table 4 – Average concentrations of $PM_{2.5}$, WSIs, EC, OC, elements, and ratios of SIAs/ $PM_{2.5}$, $\text{NO}_3^-/\text{SO}_4^{2-}$, and OC/EC during the episode event.

	Heavily polluted days (n = 3)	Other days (n = 6)
$PM_{2.5}$	268 ± 22	150 ± 31
WSIs		
SO_4^{2-}	32.1 ± 2.3	15.1 ± 2.8
NO_3^-	44.1 ± 17.9	14.2 ± 6.7
NH_4^+	25.5 ± 4.7	12.6 ± 3.4
SIAs	101.7 ± 24.6	41.9 ± 12.5
Other soluble ions	32.2 ± 4.7	17.6 ± 3.2
WSIs	133.9 ± 21.0	59.4 ± 13.8
Carbon		
OC	60.4 ± 20.4	32.2 ± 6.7
EC	24.7 ± 12.7	16.3 ± 4.4
TC	85.1 ± 27.7	48.5 ± 10.9
Elements		
Crustal elements	1.6 ± 0.4	1.1 ± 0.4
Total elements	3.3 ± 0.6	2.3 ± 0.8
Ratios		
$\text{SO}_4^{2-}/\text{PM}_{2.5}$ (%)	12 ± 0	10 ± 2
$\text{NO}_3^-/\text{PM}_{2.5}$ (%)	16 ± 6	9 ± 3
$\text{NH}_4^+/\text{PM}_{2.5}$ (%)	9 ± 1	8 ± 2
SIAs/ $PM_{2.5}$ (%)	38 ± 8	28 ± 6
WSIs/ $PM_{2.5}$ (%)	50 ± 5	40 ± 6
OC/ $PM_{2.5}$ (%)	22 ± 6	22 ± 5
EC/ $PM_{2.5}$ (%)	9 ± 5	11 ± 3
TC/ $PM_{2.5}$ (%)	31 ± 8	33 ± 8
$\text{NO}_3^-/\text{SO}_4^{2-}$	1.35 ± 0.49	0.91 ± 0.32
OC/EC	2.8 ± 1.2	2.0 ± 0.4
Crustal elements/ $PM_{2.5}$ (%)	0.6 ± 0.2	0.7 ± 0.2
Total elements/ $PM_{2.5}$ (%)	1.2 ± 0.2	1.5 ± 0.3
Heavily polluted days: from January 3 to January 5.		
Other days: from January 1 to January 2 and January 6 to January 9.		
SIAs: SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^- , NH_4^+ .		
Other soluble ions: Na^+ , K^+ , Mg^{2+} , Ca^{2+} , F^- and Cl^- .		
WSIs: 9 water soluble inorganic ions; $PM_{2.5}$: particular matter with an aerodynamic diameter $< 2.5 \mu\text{m}$; EC: elemental carbon; OC: organic carbon; SIAs: secondary inorganic aerosols; TC: total carbon.		
Crustal elements: Mg, Al, Fe and Ti.		
Total elements: 23 elements.		
All units were $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ unless otherwise noted.		

Table 3 – Source percentage contribution to $PM_{2.5}$ during heavily polluted and other days by chemical mass balance.

Source name	Source contributions (%)	
	Heavily polluted days	Other days
Nitrate	13	20
Sulfate	16	18
Biomass	12	9
Carbon and refractory material	2	2
Coal combustion	14	27
Soil dust	8	14
Vehicle	7	15
Industry	8	9

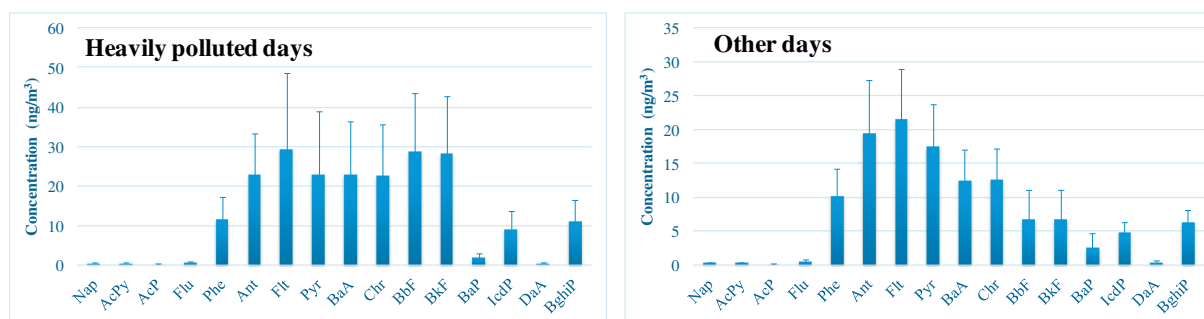


Fig. 4 – Concentrations of 16 PAHs in PM_{2.5} during heavily polluted and other days. PAHs: polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons; PM_{2.5}: particulate matter with an aerodynamic diameter < 2.5 μ m.

other days (0.91 ± 0.32 and 2.0 ± 0.4). This result was due to vehicles with low speed (because of poor visibility) in heavily polluted days, generating a considerable amount of NO_x emissions, thereby resulting in the high NO₃⁻ concentration. In addition, the value of OC/EC (Liu et al., 2016) indicates the presence of SOC from the photochemical reaction in heavily polluted days. The second group includes SO₄²⁻, NH₄⁺, other soluble ions, OC, EC, and crustal elements, in which the concentrations were higher with the increasing concentration of PM_{2.5}; however, the variation of the ratio was small. The ratios of secondary components (i.e., SO₄²⁻ and NH₄⁺) were notably high in heavily polluted days, whereas the value of EC/PM_{2.5} was low. EC is mostly emitted from primary combustion (Yin et al., 2012); therefore, secondary pollution plays a considerable role in heavily polluted days. There are several similar results obtained from Tables 4 and 1; thus, a detailed analysis was not provided for the results of this study.

PAHs, products of incomplete combustion from various sources, such as fossil fuel combustion and biomass burning (Li et al., 2012), ubiquitously existing in vapor and particulate

phases in the atmosphere, have attracted ample concern because these are carcinogenic and mutagenic (Zhang et al., 2013a). Phe, Ant, Flt, Pyr, BaA, Chr, BbF and BkF were abundant PAHs, accounting for more than 80% of PAHs (Fig. 4) during the episode. Chr and BkF were suggested for the origin of coal combustion, and Phe, Flu, Pyr, BghiP, and IcdP were proposed for the existence of motor vehicles emissions (Zhang et al., 2013a), which indicated that coal combustion and motor vehicle emissions had a considerable effect on PAHs in PM_{2.5} during the episode in Zhengzhou. Average concentrations and molecular diagnostic parameters of PAHs are shown in Table 5. The total concentrations of PAHs were 214 ± 117 and 123 ± 33 ng/m³, including 2–3 rings 14 ± 6 and 11 ± 4 ng/m³, 4 rings 121 ± 72 and 84 ± 29 ng/m³, and 5–6 rings 79 ± 41 and 28 ± 10 ng/m³ in heavily polluted days and other days, respectively, accounting for approximately 0.1% of PM_{2.5}. The mean concentration of Carcinogenic PAHs (CANPAHs), including BaA, BbF, BkF, BaP, Chr, DaA and IcdP, was 114 ± 62 ng/m³ (53% of PAHs) during heavily polluted days, which was much higher than that during other days (39 ± 16 ng/m³, 32% of

Table 5 – Average concentrations and molecular diagnostic parameters of PAHs in PM_{2.5} during the episode event.

Species	Heavily polluted days (n = 3)	Other days (n = 6)	Toxic Equivalent Quantity (TEQ) (Heavily polluted days)	TEQ (Other days)
PM _{2.5} (μ g/m ³)	268 ± 22	150 ± 31		
Σ 2–3 rings	14 ± 6	11 ± 4	1.36E–02	1.15E–02
Σ 4 rings	121 ± 72	84 ± 29	2.80E+00	1.63E+00
Σ 5–6 rings	79 ± 41	28 ± 10	9.21E+00	4.95E+00
Σ PAHs	214 ± 117	123 ± 33	1.20E+01	6.59E+00
CANPPAHs	114 ± 62	39 ± 16	1.16E+01	6.28E+00
COMPAHs	177 ± 101	92 ± 23	1.13E+01	5.99E+00
Σ PAHs/PM _{2.5} (%)	0.1 ± 0.0	0.1 ± 0.0		
CANPPAHs/ Σ PAHs	0.53 ± 0.06	0.32 ± 0.12		
COMPAHs/ Σ PAHs	0.82 ± 0.05	0.75 ± 0.04		
IcdP/BghiP	0.85 ± 0.05	0.79 ± 0.01		
IcdP/(IcdP + BghiP)	0.46 ± 0.01	0.44 ± 0.01		

Heavily polluted days: from January 3 to January 5.

Other days: from January 1 to January 2 and January 6 to January 9.

2–3 rings: Nap, AcPy, AcP, Flu and Phe.

4 rings: Ant, Flt, Pyr, BaA and Chr.

5–6 rings: BbF, BkF, BaP, IcdP, DaA and BghiP.

CANPAHs (Carcinogenic PAHs): BaA, BbF, BkF, BaP, Chr, DaA and IcdP.

COMPAHs (Combustion-derived PAHs): Flt, Pyr, BaA, Chr, BbF, BkF, BaP, IcdP and BghiP.

Toxic equivalency factor for individual PAHs was proposed by Nisbet and Lagoy (1992).

All concentration units were in ng/m³ unless otherwise noted.

PAHs), thereby indicating that CANPAHs are extremely harmful to human health with heavy pollution occurrence. Additionally, daily concentrations of BaP varied from 1 to 6 ng/m³, with the concentrations in three days exceeding the Chinese NAAQS (2.5 ng/m³), suggesting a potential health risk. Combustion-derived PAHs (COMPAHs), including Flt, Pyr, BaA, Chr, BbF, BkF, BaP, IcdP, and BghiP, were 177 ± 101 and 92 ± 23 ng/m³, with the ratios of COMPAHs to ΣPAHs 0.82 ± 0.05 and 0.75 ± 0.04 in heavily polluted days and other days, thereby indicating that extensive combustion activities are the main sources of PAHs in the study area.

In addition, the diagnostic ratio analysis of PAHs was used to identify potential sources (Slezakova et al., 2013). From Table 5, the mean IcdP/(IcdP + BghiP) ratios (0.46 ± 0.01 and 0.44 ± 0.01) both below 0.5 (Yunker et al., 2002) indicated that PAHs were influenced by engine fuel combustion. Moreover, according to the previous results (approximately 0.4 for gasoline engines, and 1.0 for diesel engines) (Zhang et al., 2013a), the average values of IcdP/BghiP (0.85 ± 0.05 and 0.79 ± 0.01) also indicated that PAHs originated from vehicle emissions.

The toxicity of PAHs on health can be evaluated based on the toxic equivalency factor (TEF) multiplied by the individual PAH concentrations to convert PAH concentrations into BaP equivalency concentrations (BaP_{eq}) (Zhang et al., 2013a). As shown in Table 5, the total BaP_{eq} concentration (12 ng/m³) in heavily polluted days was much higher than that in other days (7 ng/m³), indicating PAHs in heavily polluted days with a higher health risk.

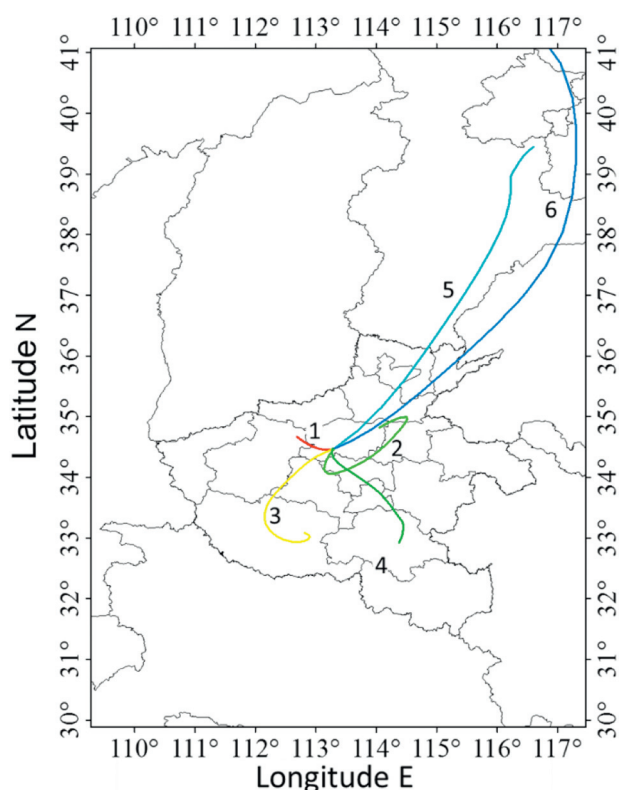


Fig. 5 – The 24-hr backward trajectories of air masses arriving in Zhengzhou at 500 m from January 1–6.

2.5.2. Back trajectory analysis

The Hybrid Single-Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory (HYSPLIT) model is an effective tool used to explain the probable way, including how, when, and where potential pollutants are transported, dispersed, and deposited. Global Data Assimilation System data from the Air Resources Laboratory (data collected from the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, <http://ready.arl.noaa.gov/HYSPLIT.php>) were used in the HYSPLIT_4 transport model to describe the airflow trajectory and the potential regional pollutant transport during the heavy pollution episode, thus showing the effect of the surrounding polluted area on our monitoring station (34°48' N, 113°31' E). The backward trajectory was performed to analyze the origin and direction of the air parcels affecting the air quality in the study region.

In Fig. 5, 24-hr backward trajectory lines from 1 to 6 represent air parcels arriving in our research area from January 1 to January 6, respectively at an altitude of 500 m above ground level. From January 1–4, the air mass pathway mostly came from other adjacent regions in Henan province, and the short trajectory lines proved that the regional pollution sources were close to our research area (Shen et al., 2015). Between January 5–6, lengthy movement of air mass pathway mostly came from the northeast direction weakening the stability of the atmosphere and diluting the heavy pollution condition in our research area. Thus, transport plays a significant role in increasing PM_{2.5} level in the study area. The transport phenomenon is further reflected by the high PM_{2.5} concentrations in adjacent regions (January 1–4) where data were retrieved from the national monitoring network (<http://www.cnemc.cn/>). On January 5, although the concentration of PM_{2.5} increased, the ratio of SIAs/PM_{2.5} decreased from 44% to 40% (data not shown). This may suggest that the external airflow plays an important role in increasing primary PM_{2.5}, especially considering the fact that air mass in line 5 pathway (Hebei province) is highly enriched with industrialized coal combustion byproducts. Finally on January 6, the atmospheric un-stability resulted in pollutants' dispersion with much lower PM_{2.5} level. In brief, owing to the mixed considerable pollutants emitted from other regions which could be transported to the study area with the air masses, the pollution level of PM_{2.5} in the study area was aggravated.

3. Conclusions

According to the three-year observation, the daily PM_{2.5} concentrations varied from 50 to 698 µg/m³, with the annual values (2013–2015: 191, 185, and 150 µg/m³) all exceeding the annual Chinese NAAQS. The average concentrations of PM_{2.5} were 366 ± 124 and 144 ± 50 µg/m³ in heavily polluted days and in other days, respectively. The stricter measures should be implemented to lessen the pollution situation.

Almost all of the chemical composition concentrations in heavily polluted days were higher than that in other days. An obvious distinction was observed in the average concentration of each ion, which was much higher in heavily polluted days, with SIAs (SO₄²⁻ > NO₃⁻ > NH₄⁺) accounting for more than 80% of WSIs. The ratio of SOC/OC indicated that photochemical reactivity in heavily polluted days was more intense.

Elements had less contribution to $PM_{2.5}$ and crustal elements dominated the most abundant elements in $PM_{2.5}$. CMB results indicated that sulfate, nitrate, coal combustion and biomass were the major sources of $PM_{2.5}$ in heavily polluted days, and meanwhile coal combustion, nitrate, sulfate, vehicle, and soil dust were the main contributions to $PM_{2.5}$ in other days. It indicates that the enhanced regulatory measures for the main emission sources should be adopted to improve the air quality.

Concerning the severe haze episode from January 1–9 in 2015 with the peak $PM_{2.5}$ of 293 $\mu g/m^3$, the average ratios of WSIs, SIAs and NO_3^- to $PM_{2.5}$ were in accordance with the average concentrations (much higher in heavily polluted days). However, the variation of the ratio of other compositions was smaller with the increase in concentrations and the value of $EC/PM_{2.5}$ was lower in heavily polluted days. It indicates that secondary pollution played a considerable role in heavily polluted days. The higher concentration of CANPAHs and the total BaPeq in heavily polluted days may indicate very harmful situation to human health. Additionally, daily concentrations of BaP in three days exceeding the Chinese NAAQS also suggest a potential health risk. The ratios of COMPAHs to Σ PAHs indicate that extensive combustion activities are the main sources of PAHs. The average values of $IcdP/(IcdP + BghiP)$ and $IcdP/BghiP$ indicate that PAHs were influenced by engine fuel combustion. According to back trajectory analysis, the transport contaminant from adjacent regions also provided a significant source for the accumulation of the episode and extended the duration of the pollution process.

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