

# Chemical formation and source apportionment of PM<sub>2.5</sub> at an urban site at the southern foot of the Taihang mountains

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#### ABSTRACT

The region along the Taihang Mountains in the North China Plain (NCP) is characterized by serious fine particle pollution. To clarify the formation mechanism and controlling factors, an observational study was conducted to investigate the physical and chemical properties of the fine particulate matter in Jiaozuo city, China. Mass concentrations of the water-soluble ions (WSIs) in PM<sub>2.5</sub> and gaseous pollutant precursors were measured on an hourly basis from December 1, 2017, to February 27, 2018. The positive matrix factorization (PMF) method and the FLEXible PARTicle (FLEXPART) model were employed to identify the sources of PM<sub>2.5</sub>. The results showed that the average mass concentration of PM<sub>2.5</sub> was 111  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup> during the observation period. Among the major WSIs, sulfate, nitrate, and ammonium (SNA) constituted 62% of the total PM<sub>2.5</sub> mass, and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> ranked the highest with an average contribution of 24.6%. NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> was abundant in most cases in Jiaozuo. According to chemical balance analysis, SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, and Cl<sup>-</sup> might be present in the form of (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>, NH<sub>4</sub>NO<sub>3</sub>, NH<sub>4</sub>Cl, and KCl. The liquid-phase oxidation of SO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> was severe during the haze period. The relative humidity and pH were the key factors influencing SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> formation. We found that NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> mainly stemmed from homogeneous gas-phase reactions in the daytime and origi-

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nated from the hydrolysis of  $N_2O_5$  in the nighttime, which was inconsistent with previous studies. The PMF model identified five sources of  $PM_{2.5}$ : secondary origin (37.8%), vehicular emissions (34.7%), biomass burning (11.5%), coal combustion (9.4%), and crustal dust (6.6%).

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# Introduction

Over the past years, China has experienced serious PM2.5 pollution with its rapid economic development, urbanization, and industrialization, especially in the winter on the North China Plain (NCP) (Huang et al., 2014; Zhao et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2017). In winter, due to intense anthropogenic emissions from coal combustion and biomass burning, unfavorable meteorological conditions, and unique topography, the high aerosol loadings in ambient air were caused by the joint influence of primary source emissions and secondary aerosols (Y. Sun et al., 2013; Cai et al., 2017). Serious PM<sub>2.5</sub> pollution impacts regional climate changes and human health (Huang et al., 2014; Jiang et al., 2018; Lelieveld et al., 2015). To understand the characteristics and sources of PM<sub>2.5</sub>, many studies have investigated the chemical components of PM<sub>2.5</sub>. especially during the haze episodes in the winter on the NCP, including organic carbon, elemental carbon and water-soluble inorganic ions (WSIs) (Yang et al., 2011; Zheng et al., 2015; Xu et al., 2017; Zou et al., 2018). Previous studies have revealed that sulfate, nitrate, and ammonium (SNA) are the major components of PM<sub>2.5</sub> (Dong et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2018), especially in the haze. In the winter on the NCP, the high relative humidity (RH) promotes the secondary chemical transformation of primary gas precursors (Cheng et al., 2016; Wu et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2018), and the shallow planetary boundary layer height (PBLH) exacerbates the heavy haze pollution (H. Wang et al., 2019). The dominant secondary inorganic aerosol species changed from sulfate to nitrate, and the main source for the primary organic aerosols changed from coal combustion to biomass burning (Y. Wang et al., 2020).

The cities along the southern foot of the Taihang Mountains, e.g., Zhengzhou and Xinxiang, have been assessed in previous studies. SNA accounted for more than 50% of the PM<sub>2.5</sub> mass concentration on haze days in Zhengzhou (S. Wang et al., 2019; Dong et al., 2020). The major chemicals of PM<sub>2.5</sub>, secondary inorganic aerosols (SIAs), and OC (organic carbon) on polluted days were 2.1-2.3 times higher than those on clean days in Xinxiang (Feng et al., 2018). Jiaozuo (35.17-35.35°N, 113.07–113.43°E) (Fig. 1a), an industrial city in Henan Province, is also located along the southern Taihang Mountains. The administrative area of Jiaozuo covers 4071 km<sup>2</sup>, and the annual coal consumption is approximately 15 million tons, approximately 60% of which is used to generate electricity. In 2017, the annual mass concentration of PM<sub>2.5</sub> was 75.7  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup> in Jiaozuo, which is much higher than the standard of 10  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup> recommended by the World Health Organization (WHO). In recent years, the Chinese government has firmly decided to improve air quality. The Ministry of Environmental Protection of the People's Republic of China has formulated the scheme of air pollution prevention and control in the Jing-Jin-Ji Region and surrounding areas in 2017 (Feng et al., 2018). In this scheme, 28 cities are involved, including Jiaozuo. Nevertheless, studies related to PM<sub>2.5</sub> about Jiaozuo are rare. Thus, it is urgent to perform relevant research on Jiaozuo. Based on hourly continuous observations of PM<sub>2.5</sub>, gaseous pollutants, chemical components, and carbonaceous components, we investigated the characteristics, formation mechanism, and sources of PM<sub>2.5</sub> in the winter of Jiaozuo. Our findings will help to expand the knowledge of haze formation in NCP and provide some useful information for the improvement of air quality in Jiaozuo.

#### 1. Materials and methods

#### 1.1. Sampling site

Hourly online ambient observations were conducted from December 1, 2017, to February 27, 2018, at the urban site of Jiaozuo (35.10°N, 113.42°E). The observation site is located in the southeast of Jiaozuo (Fig. 1d). There is a trunk road in the eastern site. There are no major sources of pollution nearby. The observations were performed on the third floor of a building, approximately 10 m above the ground. The aerosol optical depth (AOD) was high in Henan Province and in Jiaozuo during the study (Fig. 1b), which indicates that the level of atmospheric aerosol pollution was high. Certain cities near Jiaozuo (Fig. 1c), e.g., Zhengzhou, Luoyang, and Xinxiang, were characterized by serious air pollution as well. This indicates that the PM<sub>2.5</sub> observed in Jiaozuo was affected by local sources and regional transportation.

#### 1.2. Instruments

The elemental carbon (EC) and organic carbon (OC) concentrations were measured with a field semicontinuous OCEC aerosol analyzer (Model-4, Sunset Laboratory Inc., USA). The analyzer complies with the NIOSH5040 protocol. The hourly mass concentrations of  $Mg^{2+}$ ,  $Ca^{2+}$ ,  $K^+$ ,  $NH_4^+$ ,  $Na^+$ ,  $SO_4^{2-}$ , NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, and Cl<sup>-</sup>in PM<sub>2.5</sub> were measured with a Monitoring for AeRosols and GAses (MARGA) instrument (ADI 2080, Metrohm Applikon, B.V.). The lowest detection limits of Mg<sup>2+</sup>, Ca<sup>2+</sup>, K<sup>+</sup>, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, Na<sup>+</sup>, SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, and Cl<sup>-</sup>were 0.04, 0.04, 0.09, 0.05, 0.04, 0.04, 0.05 and 0.02  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup>, respectively. The gaseous HNO<sub>3</sub>, HCl, and NH<sub>3</sub> were also measured by MARGA. More details on this instrument can be found in previous studies (ten Brink et al., 2007; Roig Rodelas et al., 2019). The hourly mass concentration of PM<sub>2.5</sub> was measured based on the  $\beta$ -ray method (5030i, Thermo Scientific). The hourly mass concentration of SO<sub>2</sub> was measured according to the impulse fluorescence method (43i, Thermo Scientific). The hourly mass concentration of NO<sub>2</sub> was measured with the chemiluminescence method (42i, Thermo





Scientific). The hourly mass concentration of CO was measured following the gas filter correlation (CFC) method (42i, Thermo Scientific). The meteorological parameters, including the wind direction (wd), wind speed (ws), ambient temperature, atmospheric pressure, and relative humidity (RH), were measured at an automatic meteorological station.

# 1.3. Model calculations

# 1.3.1. Back trajectory

Backward trajectory analysis is usually employed to identify the potential transport pathways of air masses. With the use of TrajStat software (Wang et al., 2009), 48-hr back trajectories starting at an arrival level of 100 m from the observation site in Jiaozuo were calculated at a 1-hr resolution during the study period. FNL global analysis data were obtained from the National Center for Environmental Prediction's Global Data Assimilation System (GDAS) wind field reanalysis (http://www.arl.noaa.gov/). The backward trajectory model was run every hour of the day. Backward trajectory clustering was then applied to group trajectories with similar geographic origins and histories.

#### 1.3.2. WRF

The Weather Research and Forecasting (WRF) model (version 3.6) was employed to compute the meteorological fields during the observation. The model was configured with two-way nested domains. The grid dimensions were 183  $\times$  173 and

 $244 \times 274$ , with horizontal resolutions of 45 and 15 km, respectively (Fig. S1). Detailed configurations of the model are provided in Table S1. NCEP FNL reanalysis data, with a  $1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$  resolution, were adopted to provide the initial and boundary conditions.

#### 1.3.3. Dispersion and trajectory analysis

The air parcel dispersion over Jiaozuo was simulated using the FLEXible PARTicle (FLEXPART) dispersion model. The FLEX-PART model (https://www.flexpart.eu) developed by the Norwegian Institute for Air Research has been widely used to simulate atmospheric transport processes (Stohl et al., 2005; Tian et al., 2018). This model can perform both forward and backward simulations, which are aimed at tracing particles from source areas and tracking particles from given receptors, respectively (Tian et al., 2018). The WRF outputs of its two simulation domains (described in 1.3.2) were used to drive FLEX-PART (Brioude et al., 2013). Thirty-six backward integrations were performed each hour from December 1, 2017, to February 27, 2018. In each integration, 5000 stochastic particles were released at the observation site at a height of 50~100 m. The residence time analysis (RTA) method is applied to determine the relative impacts of the sources in each cell on the receptor (Ashbaugh et al., 1985; Skiles et al., 2018), which is defined as:

$$RTA(i, j) = \frac{t(i, j)}{T} \times 100\%$$
(1)

where, t(i, j) is the residence time in each cell outputted by FLEXPART, and T is the total residence time of all cells.

#### 1.3.4. Positive matrix factorization model

A positive matrix factorization (PMF) model (PMF 5.0) was employed to identify the contribution of sources to samples based on the fingerprints of the sources (Norris and Duvall, 2014). Details on the PMF model can be found in previous studies (Chi et al., 2019; Xie et al., 2020). Ten species were analyzed: eight WSIs, OC, and EC. The concentrations of  $PM_{2.5}$ were also imported into the model to estimate the factor contributing to the total  $PM_{2.5}$ . Model parameters were selected according to the user guide and previous studies. Twenty runs were performed for each chemical compound. Between 3 and 6 factors were selected based on the  $Q_{robust}/Q_{true}$  value.

#### 1.4. pH prediction

The aerosol acidity is the key factor influencing atmospheric chemistry and physics. In this study, we used the ISORROPIA II model to calculate the aerosol pH. ISORROPIA II is a thermodynamic equilibrium model for Na<sup>+</sup>-Cl<sup>-</sup>-Ca<sup>2+</sup>-K<sup>+</sup>-Mg<sup>2+</sup>-SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>-NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>-NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-H<sub>2</sub>O aerosol system (Pye et al., 2020). Further descriptions of this model can be found in previous studies (Lin et al., 2020; Shi et al., 2017; Song et al., 2018). In this study, ISORROPIA-II was performed in the forward model for the aerosol system in the metastable condition. The observed hourly concentrations of total ammonium (NH<sub>3</sub> + NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>), total nitrate (NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> + HNO<sub>3</sub>), total chloride (Cl<sup>-</sup> + HCl), SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>, Na<sup>+</sup>, Ca<sup>2+</sup>, K<sup>+</sup>, Mg<sup>2+</sup>, as well as the hourly ambient temperature and RH were served as the input data for ISORROPIA II. The uncertainties of estimated pH by ISORROPIA II under low

RH were high (S. Wang et al., 2020). Thus, the data with RH < 30% were excluded in this study.

# 2. Results and discussion

#### 2.1. General description of the pollutants

## 2.1.1. Overview of the pollutants and meteorological conditions

As shown in Fig. 2, the mass concentrations of PM<sub>2.5</sub> ranged from 5 to 420  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup> with an average of 111  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup>, which was much higher than the second grade of the China National Ambient Air Quality Standards (AAQS grade II; 75  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup> on average). In the gaseous pollutants, NO<sub>2</sub> (average: 39  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup>), SO<sub>2</sub> (average: 22  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup>), and CO (average: 1.3 mg/m<sup>3</sup>) exhibited moderate concentrations. The total mass concentration of the main WSIs in  $PM_{2.5}$ , including  $Mg^{2+}$ ,  $Ca^{2+}$ ,  $K^+$ , NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, Na<sup>+</sup>, SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, and Cl<sup>-</sup>, during the whole study was  $76 \pm 57 \ \mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup>, accounting for 68% of the PM<sub>2.5</sub> mass concentration on average, which was much higher than that observed in the winter in Nanjing (Li et al., 2016; Jiang et al., 2018). The most abundant anions were  $SO_4^{2-}$  (13.6%) and  $NO_3^{-}$  (26.9%), and the most abundant cation was  $NH_4^+$  (14.7%). The mass concentrations of OC and EC were 16.8 and 4.2  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup>, respectively. In this study, the wind speed ranged from 0~9.5 m/s (average: 3.2 m/s), and the RH ranged from 10% to 90% (average: 42%). The Pearson correlation coefficients between the RH and wind speed and the PM<sub>2.5</sub> level were 0.64 and -0.32, respectively. This indicated that a high RH and low wind speed were beneficial to the formation of PM<sub>2.5</sub>.

#### 2.1.2. Diurnal variation in the pollutants

The diurnal variation in PM<sub>2.5</sub> (Fig. 3d) was almost consistent with the diurnal changes in the boundary layer (Fig. S2). There was a PM<sub>2.5</sub> peak at 10:00 (LST), which then decreased. At night, the mass concentration of PM<sub>2.5</sub> was higher than that during the daytime, which suggested that anthropogenic emissions and aerosol accumulation were relatively high. K<sup>+</sup>, a tracer ion for biomass burning (Andreae et al., 1998), exhibited a peak at approximately 10:00 and 21:00 (LST) (Fig. 3a), corresponding to the rush hours of resident activities, e.g., cooking. A similar phenomenon was reported in Nanjing (Wang et al., 2016). From 00:00 to 3:00 (LST), K<sup>+</sup> concentration was on high-value, which could be related to biomass burning for heating. Ca<sup>2+</sup> and Mg<sup>2+</sup> (Fig. 3a, c,), usually associated with windblown, resuspended dust from roads and anthropogenic sources (Nicolas et al., 2009), peaked from 10:00 to 11:00 (LST), which can be the joint effect of road dust during the rush hours and the diurnal variations in the boundary layer (Wang et al., 2016).  $SO_4^{2-}$ ,  $NO_3^{-}$  and  $NH_4^+$  attained very similar diurnal variations (Fig. 3b, d), indicating that their chemical forms were related (detailed discussion in 2.2.1). Moreover, the fluctuation of the diurnal variations suggested that the associated chemical mechanisms were complex. Most of the WSIs and gaseous pollutants reached low values at approximately 15:00, which could be related to the highest PBLH occurring at this time (Fig. S2).



Fig. 2 – Time series of (a) PM<sub>2.5</sub> and its chemical components, (b) gaseous pollutants, (c) wind speed and wind direction, (d) pressure and RH in Jiaozuo in the winter of 2017.



Fig. 3 – Average diurnal variations in the major WSIs, PM<sub>2.5</sub>, and gaseous pollutants in Jiaozuo in the winter of 2017.



Fig. 4 – (a) Total mass concentration and proportion occupied in PM<sub>2.5</sub> of the major water-soluble ions (WSIs) at the different PM<sub>2.5</sub> levels; (b)–(d) scatter plot of ammonium vs. the major acidic ions in PM<sub>2.5</sub> (electron equivalent concentrations are used).

# 2.2. Composition, sources and formation mechanism of $\ensuremath{\text{PM}_{2.5}}$

#### 2.2.1. Composition of PM<sub>2.5</sub>

As shown in Fig. 4a, the total mass concentration of the major WSIs increased with increasing PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentration. The proportion of the major WSIs contained in PM2.5 on clean days (PM<sub>2.5</sub>  $\leq$  75  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup>) was higher than that on haze days (Fig. 4a), which indicated that the contribution of the other chemical components increased on haze days. NO3<sup>-</sup>, NH4<sup>+</sup>, and SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> were the major components of WSIs in descending order, which accounted for 39.7%, 21.7%, and 19.9%, respectively, of the WSIs on average. In previous studies (Ming et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2018), the mass concentration of  $NH_4^+$  was lower than that of  $SO_4^{2-}$ , which differed from this study. A higher mass concentration of  $NO_3^-$  than that of  $SO_4^{2-}$  was found in this study. Over the past decade, owing to the strict control of SO<sub>2</sub> emissions and the sharp increase in motor vehicles (Yang et al., 2015; Fu et al., 2017), the dominant secondary inorganic aerosol species have changed from sulfate to nitrate (Y. Wang et al., 2020).

The homology of the WSIs was analyzed based on hierarchical clustering analysis in this study (Fig. S3).  $NH_4^+$ , SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2–</sup>, and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>–</sup> were clustered into one group. The distance between  $NH_4^+$  and  $SO_4^{2-}$  was smaller than that between  $NH_4^+$  and  $NO_3^-$ . Generally,  $SO_4^{2-}$  is preferentially combined with NH4<sup>+</sup> over NO3<sup>-</sup> in all chemical models. NH3 prefers to react with H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> to form NH<sub>4</sub>HSO<sub>4</sub> or (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>, and if NH<sub>3</sub> occurs in a sufficient amount for H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>, the excess NH<sub>3</sub> could react with  $HNO_3$  to form  $NH_4NO_3$  (Pathak et al., 2009). Fig. 4b<sup>°</sup>d show scatter plots of  $NH_4^+$  vs.  $SO_4^{2-}$ ,  $SO_4^{2-}$ + $NO_3^-$ , and SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>+NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>+Cl<sup>-</sup>at different PM<sub>2.5</sub> levels. Fig. 4b reveals that  $NH_4^+$  is abundant and neutralizes  $SO_4^{2-}$  at all  $PM_{2.5}$  levels, which indicates that all  $SO_4^{2-}$  exists in the form of  $(NH_4)_2SO_4$ (Meng et al., 2016). The higher the PM<sub>2.5</sub> pollution level is, the more abundant the excess  $NH_4^+$  is. Furthermore,  $NO_3^-$  was considered in the charge balance (Fig. 4c). The ratio of  $NH_4^+$ to  $SO_4^{2-}+NO_3^{-}$  was above the 1:1 line in most cases, suggesting the presence of NH<sub>4</sub>NO<sub>3</sub> and excess NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> after neutralization by SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>. The presence of Cl<sup>-</sup> fully neutralizes NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> (Fig. 4d). The remaining Cl<sup>-</sup> occurred in the form of KCl (the Pearson coefficient between K<sup>+</sup> and Cl<sup>-</sup>was 0.7). In conclusion, SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, and Cl<sup>-</sup> occurred as (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>, NH<sub>4</sub>NO<sub>3</sub>, NH<sub>4</sub>Cl, and KCl.

#### 2.2.2. Source of the WSIs

NO<sub>3</sub><sup>−</sup> and SO<sub>4</sub><sup>−</sup> are formed via the oxidation of their gaseous precursors (NO<sub>x</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub>, respectively). Generally, SO<sub>2</sub> mainly comes from coal combustion, and NO<sub>x</sub> primarily stems from vehicle exhaust and fuel combustion (Deng et al., 2016). In this study, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>−</sup>/SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2−</sup> (2.1 ± 0.7) was much higher than that in Beijing and Xi'an (Wang et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2018). During the haze period (PM<sub>2.5</sub> ≥ 75 µg/m<sup>3</sup>), NO<sub>3</sub><sup>−</sup> and SO<sub>4</sub><sup>−</sup> were higher than those on clean days (Fig. 4b). The sulfur oxidation ratio (SOR) and nitrate oxidation ratio (NOR) can be employed to reflect the degree of atmospheric conversion of SO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub>, respectively, into SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2−</sup> and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>−</sup>, respectively (Fu et al., 2008). SOR and NOR are defined as:

$$SOR = nSO_4^{2-} / (nSO_4^{2-} + nSO_2)$$
 (2)

$$NOR = nNO_3^{-}/(nNO_3^{-} + nNO_2)$$
(3)

where, *n* is the molar concentration. The values of SOR  $(0.30 \pm 0.20)$  and NOR  $(0.34 \pm 0.14)$  were all much higher than 0.1 in this study, which indicated that the secondary formation of SO<sub>2</sub> into SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> and NO<sub>2</sub> into NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> was notable (Zhang et al., 2018). Generally, agricultural activities are deemed to be the dominant NH<sub>3</sub> sources, accounting for approximately 80% of the global tropospheric NH<sub>3</sub> load (Paulot et al., 2014). In this study, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>increased with increasing PM<sub>2.5</sub> (Fig. 4b), which was mainly attributed to the increase of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>. Additionally, the enhanced NH<sub>3</sub> emissions from fossil fuel combustion and biomass burning (Wu et al., 2020; Xiao et al., 2020a), was a possible cause.



Fig. 5 – Fire map of the areas around Jiaozuo and the trajectory clustering results during the observation period. The fire data were acquired from the Fire Information for Resource Management System (FIRMS) developed by the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA). Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) data were used (https://firms.modaps.eosdis.nasa.gov/active\_fire/).

The mass concentrations of  $Mg^{2+}$  and  $Ca^{2+}$  accounted for 0.32% and 2.1%, respectively, of the WSIs in this study. The increasing ratio of  $Mg^{2+}/Ca^{2+}$  suggested that  $Ca^{2+}$  and  $Mg^{2+}$  are affected by anthropogenic sources (Guo et al., 2020). The  $Mg^{2+}/Ca^{2+}$  ratio was 0.18 in Jiaozuo, which was much higher than that observed in Kunming (0.02 to 1.91) (Guo et al., 2020). The  $Mg^{2+}/Ca^{2+}$  ratio on haze days was approximately four times as high as that on clean days in Jiaozuo, which indicated that anthropogenic emissions contributed to the observed haze.

The proportions of Cl<sup>-</sup> and K<sup>+</sup>were much lower than those of SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>. Sea salt, coal combustion, and biomass burning are sources of Cl<sup>-</sup> (Z. Sun et al., 2013). Jiaozuo is an inland city, and the nearest sea is more than 500 km away. We deduced that sea salt contributed little to Cl<sup>-</sup>, and Cl<sup>-</sup> originated from coal combustion or/and biomass burning. K<sup>+</sup>, as a tracer of biomass burning (Andreae et al., 1998; Gao et al., 2011), has been widely found to be the result of biomass burning. In our results, a strong correlation between K<sup>+</sup> and  $Cl^{-}$  (r = 0.70, p < 0.01) and a moderate correlation between  $Cl^{-}and SO_2$  (r = 0.5, p < 0.01) were found. This indicated that biomass burning and coal combustion were the main sources of Cl<sup>-</sup> and K<sup>+</sup>, respectively, in Jiaozuo. As shown in Fig. 5, the wildfires around Jiaozuo, especially in areas above which air masses passed, were intensive, thus confirming our results. The mean ratio of OC to EC was 4.84 in this study, which approached the threshold value between biomass burning and vehicle emissions (Ji et al., 2019).

## 2.2.3. Formation path of $SO_4^{2-}$ and $NO_3^{-}$

As described above, serious oxidation of SO2 and NO2 occurred during the haze period. Furthermore, we investigated the formation path of  $SO_4^{2-}$  and  $NO_3^{-}$ . The average SOR (0.30) in Jiaozuo was much higher than that in Handan (0.1) and Zhengzhou (0.23) (Table 1). The SOR on haze days  $(PM_{2.5} \ge 75 \ \mu g/m^3)$  was approximately twice as high as that on clean days (PM<sub>2.5</sub>  $\leq$  75  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup>), which indicated more intensive secondary transformation on the haze days. Atmospheric sulfate mainly originates from the SO<sub>2</sub> oxidation pathway, including gas-phase reactions with OH radicals or stabilized Criegee intermediates, heterogeneous-phase reactions on the surface of particles, and aqueous-phase reactions with dissolved O<sub>3</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, and organic peroxides (Liu et al., 2020). In previous studies, a high RH promotes SO<sub>2</sub> oxidation. The mean values of the SOR increased remarkably when the RH was above 40% in this study (Fig. 6b), which was similar to previous findings (Liu et al., 2019, 2020). At a low RH, the SO<sub>2</sub> oxidation pathway could include gas-phase reactions and heterogeneous reactions. When the RH was high (> 60%),  $SO_4^{2-}$ primarily stemmed from the aqueous oxidation of SO<sub>2</sub> due to aerosol water content and surface area increase (Zhang et al., 2015). The aerosol acidity is a key factor influencing the aqueous oxidation pathways (Zhang et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2020). The mean evaluated pH was 5.46±0.69 in this study, which was higher than that in Zhengzhou (4.5) (S. Wang et al., 2020). This indicated that the acids in the aerosols in Jiaozuo city were more neutralized. As shown in Fig. 6a, the aerosols pH

Table 1 – Sulfur oxidation ratio (SOR) and nitrate oxidation ratio (NOR) in different studies.				
Date	Site	SOR	NOR	References
2015.02.10~2015.03.19	Urban site in Beijing, China	0.27	0.17	Zhang et al., 2018
The winter of 2013 and 2014	Handan, China	0.1	0.2	Meng et al., 2016
2017.12.01~2018.02.28	Zhengzhou, China	0.23	0.24	Yang et al., 2020
The winter of 2017	Taiwan, China	0.31	0.11	Shen et al., 2020
2017.12.01~2018.02.28	Jiaozuo, China	0.30	0.34	This study



Fig. 6 – (a) Sulfur oxidation ratio (SOR) and pH at the different levels of PM<sub>2.5</sub>; (b) SOR and pH at the different RH levels. The mean (triangles within the boxes), median (central horizontal bars within the boxes), 25th and 75th percentiles (lower and upper bars, respectively, of the boxes), and minimum and maximum values (lower and upper whiskers, respectively) are indicated.

decreased as the increase of  $PM_{2.5}$  mass concentration. It is believed that a relatively high RH and low pH are beneficial to the aqueous phase chemistry of sulfate formation (Liu et al., 2017, 2020). RH was negatively correlated with pH aerosol in this study (r = -0.56) (Fig. 6b), which suggested high aerosol water content was responsible for the relatively lower aerosol pH (Liu et al., 2017).

The average NOR (0.34) in this study was much higher than that in Zhengzhou and Handan (Table 1), which indicated a more intensive secondary formation of nitrate in Jiaozuo. The NOR value increased with increasing PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentration, and the NOR was not related to the  $NO_2$  concentration (Fig. 7a). NO<sub>x</sub> transformation was more pronounced during the haze episodes than during the clean periods in Jiaozuo. The correlation between the NOR and RH (r = 0.46, p < 0.01) was less notable than that between the SOR and RH (r = 0.79, p < 0.01), which suggested that NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> formation was less sensitive to the RH than to  $SO_4^{2-}$ . The  $NO_3^{-}$  formation pathway mainly includes NO<sub>2</sub> oxidation by OH radicals in the gas phase, heterogeneous reactions on the particle surface, and heterogeneous hydrolysis of N2O5 on wet aerosols or chloridecontaining aerosols (He et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2020). As shown in Fig. 7b, during the daytime (10:00-15:00), the RH gradually decreased with increasing solar radiation, but the NOR and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>/PM<sub>25</sub> sharply increased. RH reduction is unfavorable to heterogeneous reactions. This indicated that during the daytime, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>mainly originated from the homogeneous gas-phase reactions of NO<sub>2</sub> and OH radicals rather than heterogeneous reactions (Xiao et al., 2020b; Ye et al., 2019). At night,  $NO_3^-$  mainly stemmed from the hydrolysis of  $N_2O_5$  on the aerosol surface (Xiao et al., 2020b; Zhang et al., 2018).

#### 2.3. Source identify

### 2.3.1. Source apportionment of the WSIs

Five sources of the  $PM_{2.5}$  concentration were identified based on the PMF model (Fig. 8), including the secondary origin (37.8%), vehicular emissions (34.7%), biomass burning (11.5%), coal combustion (9.4%), and crustal dust (6.6%).

Factor 1 was weighted by K<sup>+</sup> and was treated as biomass burning. Factor 2 exhibited high loadings for NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2–</sup>, and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, which can be identified as a secondary origin. Factor 3 was characterized by high contributions of OC and EC, which mainly originates from gasoline and diesel-burning (Li et al., 2020). Therefore, factor 3 was designated as vehicular emissions. High Ca<sup>2+</sup> and Mg<sup>2+</sup>levels occurred in factor 4, which is regarded as crustal dust. The chemical profile of factor 5 was mainly characterized by Na<sup>+</sup>. Jiaozuo is an inland city; thus, sea salt is not the main source of Na<sup>+</sup>. This factor is identified as coal combustion.

#### 2.3.2. Geographical origins of the pollutants

Fig. 9 and S4 show the mean RTA values for the different WSIs.  $NH_4^+$ ,  $SO_4^{2-}$ , and  $NO_3^-$  have similar distribution characteristics (Fig. 9a, S4a, b), respectively), with high RTA values mainly occurring in the northwest areas of the monitoring site. Henan



Fig. 7 – (a) Relationship between the  $PM_{2.5}$  concentration and nitrate oxidation ratio (NOR) (the contour color indicates the NO<sub>2</sub> concentration), (b) diurnal variation in NOR and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>/PM<sub>2.5</sub>.



Fig. 8 – Source profiles of PM<sub>2.5</sub> during the study period. The red points mark the dominant species characterizing each factor profile.

and Shanxi Provinces also experience high pollutant emissions and air pollution levels (Wei et al., 2018; H. Yang et al., 2020). This indicated that secondary pollutants from Shanxi Province could impact Jiaozuo. As shown in Fig. 9b, K<sup>+</sup> had high RTA values in the northwestern and northeastern areas of the monitoring site, which was consistent with Mg<sup>2+</sup> (Fig. S4c). During the study, there were intense wildfires in these areas (Fig. 5). This suggested that the pollutants emitted by biomass burning in Shanxi Province and northeastern Henan Province, e.g., Zhengzhou, Xinxiang, and Anyang, could influence Jiaozuo. Ca<sup>2+</sup> displayed high RTA values in the northwestern and southwestern parts of Jiaozuo. This indicated that Jiaozuo city could be affected by dust sources from southern Shanxi Province and northwestern Henan Province.





In summary, the air pollutants in Jiaozuo mainly originated from local sources and pollutant transport from surrounding cities, which emphasizes that it is very important to implement measures of regional cooperation and joint defense and control strategies.

# 3. Conclusions

The chemical characteristics, formation mechanism, and sources of the  $PM_{2.5}$  in Jiaozuo were examined in detail in this study based on hourly measurements from December 1, 2017, to February 28, 2018. During the whole observation period, the average mass concentration of  $PM_{2.5}$  was 111  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup>, which suggested serious haze pollution in Jiaozuo. The total mass

concentration of the WSIs accounted for 68% of the PM<sub>2.5</sub> mass concentration on average. The WSIs and PM<sub>2.5</sub> exhibited distinct diurnal variations under the joint effects of the boundary layer and emission sources. NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, and SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> were the major components of the WSIs in descending order, which accounted for 40%, 22%, and 20%, respectively, of the WSIs on average. SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, and Cl<sup>-</sup> occurred in the form of (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>, NH<sub>4</sub>NO<sub>3</sub>, NH<sub>4</sub>Cl, and KCl in Jiaozuo. The SOR (0.30) and NOR (0.34) in Jiaozuo were much higher than those in other cities in China, which indicated notable oxidation of SO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub>. At a low RH, sulfate mainly originated from gas-phase and heterogeneous reactions. When the RH was high (>60%), sulfate mainly came from the aqueous oxidation of SO<sub>2</sub>. The aqueous phase chemistry of sulfate formation was enhanced at low pH and high RH. NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>mainly stemmed from homogeneous gasphase reactions during the daytime and originated from the hydrolysis of  $N_2O_5$  during the nighttime. The PMF model identified five sources of  $PM_{2.5}$ : secondary origin (37.8%), vehicular emissions (34.7%), biomass burning (11.5%), coal combustion (9.4%), and crustal dust (6.6%). The FLEXPART model results revealed that the air pollutants in Jiaozuo mainly came from local sources and pollutant transport from surrounding cities.

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# Appendix A Supplementary data

Supplementary material associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:10.1016/j.jes.2020.10.004.

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