

- High $PM_{2.5}$ levels occurred in autumn and winter though annual air quality improved.
- Among WSI, nitrate grew fastest during severe aerosol pollution periods.
- Industrial emission was closely associated with the deterioration of air quality.
- Among ten types of sources, secondary source contributed most to $PM_{2.5}$.
- Regional transport played a key role in enhancement of $PM_{2.5}$ and chemical species.

1 **Characteristics of fine particulate matter and its sources in an**
2 **industrialized coastal city, Ningbo, Yangtze River Delta, China**

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23 Abstract

24 Chemical information is essential in understanding the characteristics of airborne particles, and
25 effectively controlling airborne particulate matter pollution, but it remains unclear in some regions
26 due to the scarcity of measurement data. In the present study, 92 daily PM_{2.5} (particulate matter
27 with an aerodynamic diameter $\leq 2.5 \mu\text{m}$) samples as well as historical observation data of air
28 pollutants were collected in urban Ningbo, one of important industrial cities in the coastal area of
29 the Yangtze River Delta, China in autumn and winter (from Nov. 2014 to Feb. 2015). Various
30 chemical species in PM_{2.5} were determined including water soluble ions, organic and elemental
31 carbon and elements. Positive matrix factorization model, cluster analysis of back trajectories,
32 potential source contribution function (PSCF) model and concentration-weighted trajectory
33 (CWT) model were used for identifying sources, apportioning contributions from each source and
34 tracking potential areas of sources. The results showed the PM_{2.5} concentration has been reducing;
35 nonetheless, the concentrations of PM_{2.5} are still much higher than the World Health Organization
36 guideline with high PM_{2.5} concentrations observed in autumn and winter for the past few years.
37 During the sampling period, the average PM_{2.5} mass concentration was $77 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ with the major
38 components of OC, NO₃⁻, SO₄²⁻, NH₄⁺ and EC, accounting for 26.0, 18.8, 14.5, 11.8 and 6.4% in
39 the total mass concentration, respectively. When the aerosol pollution got worse during the
40 sampling period, the NO₃⁻, SO₄²⁻ and NH₄⁺ concentrations increased accordingly and NO₃⁻
41 appeared to increase at fastest rate. SO₄²⁻ transported from industrial areas led to slight difference
42 in spatial distribution of SO₄²⁻ in Ningbo. More secondary organic carbon was formed and the
43 enrichment factor values of Cu, Ag, Cd, Sn and Pb increased with the degradation of air quality.
44 Ten types of sources were identified for PM_{2.5} in the autumn and winter of Ningbo, which are
45 metallurgical industry, biomass burning and waste incineration, manufacturing related with Mo,
46 chlor-alkali chemical industry, oil combustion, vehicular emission, secondary source, soil dust,
47 road dust and manufacturing related with Cr, accounting for 9.4, 4.8, 9.4, 7.6, 8.1, 18.7, 27.6, 2,
48 7.1 and 5.2% of the total sources, respectively. There were five groups of air parcels arriving in
49 Ningbo, of which inland air masses originating from Shandong province were associated with the
50 highest PM_{2.5} concentrations. Despite the slight differences, it was obvious that the north of

51 Jiangxi, east of Anhui, west of Jiangsu, south of Shandong were identified as major potential
52 sources-areas of SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^- , NH_4^+ , Cl^- , OC and EC by both PSCF and CWT models.
53
54 **Keywords:** $\text{PM}_{2.5}$; Chemical species; Source apportionment; Yangtze River Delta

56 1. Introduction

57 PM_{2.5} (particulate matter with an aerodynamic diameter $\leq 2.5 \mu\text{m}$) is one of the most important
58 pollutants. It not only has an adverse effect on air quality, human health and atmospheric visibility
59 but also plays a significant role in global climate and ecosystem cycling (WHO, 2005; Fiore et al.,
60 2012; IPCC AR5, 2014; Seinfeld et al., 2016). With roaring economic development, rapid
61 industrialization and urbanization in recent decades, frequent occurrence of haze events was
62 recorded in the Yangtze River Delta (YRD) and the North China Plain (NCP), which was mainly
63 caused by high concentration of PM_{2.5} (Xu et al., 2012; Yang et al., 2015; Zhao et al., 2011),
64 which has attracted public and scientific attention worldwide. To gain sufficient fundamental
65 knowledge for the improvement of regional air quality necessitates a comprehensive study on
66 characteristics of PM_{2.5} and its sources in a specific region (Cheng et al., 2015). Therefore, a
67 detailed understanding of chemical composition and origins of PM_{2.5} is vital for policy-makers to
68 develop effective air pollution control strategies.

69 YRD is regarded as one of the regions with the most significant anthropogenic sources for
70 PM_{2.5} in the world. Ningbo, with approximately 7.6 million inhabitants (Zhejiang statistical
71 yearbook 2013), is one of the famous economic and industrial centers of YRD region. In addition,
72 Ningbo is an important coastal city located 220 km south of Shanghai and approximately 150 km
73 southeast of Hangzhou, which is a major exporter of electrical products, textiles, food and
74 industrial tools. Although the annual average PM_{2.5} concentrations decreased from 49 to 39 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$
75 in Ningbo in recent five years, the PM_{2.5} concentrations were still far higher than the air quality
76 guideline of World Health Organization (annual mean 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$). In particular, severe PM_{2.5}
77 pollution episode frequently occurred in the seasons of autumn and winter. Thus, there is an urgent
78 need in studying the cause of severe PM_{2.5} pollution episode and developing emission policy
79 controls for effectively reducing haze pollution and PM_{2.5} levels in autumn and winter.

80 A number of studies were conducted to investigate chemical characteristics and potential
81 sources of PM_{2.5} in Ningbo. By chemical mass balance (CMB) receptor model, Xiao et al. (2012)
82 reported that the most important PM_{2.5} sources, based on samples collected in Ningbo during
83 selected one week sampling period for each season (winter, spring, summer and autumn) in 2010,

84 included suspended dust, fly ash from coal combustion, sulfates, vehicle exhaust, nitrates and
85 secondary organic carbon (SOC), with contributions of 19.9, 14.4, 16.9, 15.2, 9.78 and 8.85%,
86 respectively. In addition, Yu et al. (2015) applied positive matrix factorization (PMF) model on
87 aerosol samples collected in winter of 2012 at five sites in Ningbo to quantify the main $PM_{2.5}$
88 sources. Joint observations of air pollution were carried out in YRD and a heavy haze episode was
89 observed from 28 May to 6 June 2011, during which it was found that up to 37% of $PM_{2.5}$ in
90 Ningbo was contributed by the local biomass burning by Weather Research and Forecasting and
91 Community Multiscale Air Quality (WRF/CMAQ) model simulation (Cheng et al., 2014).
92 Recently, Du et al. (2015) studied seasonal and spatial variations of OC and EC in $PM_{2.5}$ in typical
93 periods of 4 seasons from December 2012 to October 2013 in Ningbo and found OC and EC
94 accounted for 17 and 6% of $PM_{2.5}$, and the average concentrations of SOC in summer and autumn
95 accounted for 42 and 28% of total OC, respectively. Xu et al. (2016) captured a high aerosol
96 pollution episode in Ningbo from December 2012 to January 2013 and the analytical results
97 showed that the stagnant meteorological conditions, long-range transport of air masses from heavy
98 industries and biomass burning from northern China to Ningbo could be taken into account as the
99 main factors for such a severe and long-lasting pollution event. Based on the above literature
100 review, most of the air pollution studies in Ningbo were conducted before 2013 when the Air
101 Pollution Prevention and Control Action Plan (APPCAP) was not issued and executed by Chinese
102 government yet; besides, it is known that the autumn and winter are the seasons in which high
103 pollution events can occur most frequently and severely, however, comprehensive studies on the
104 chemical composition and source analysis of $PM_{2.5}$ in Ningbo during both seasons after 2013 have
105 been rarely reported. Thus, a recent study appears to be essential to evaluate if and how the
106 implementation of the APPCAP since 2013 can affect the aerosol pollution status and its source
107 profiles in Ningbo.

108 Therefore, to fill up the abovementioned research gap, a field sampling of $PM_{2.5}$ was
109 conducted in Ningbo during autumn and winter seasons from Nov. 2014 to Feb. 2015. In this
110 study, the chemical compositions of $PM_{2.5}$ were analyzed and their characteristics were
111 summarized; besides, PMF receptor model, cluster analysis of back trajectories, potential source

112 contribution function (PSCF) and concentration-weighted trajectory (CWT) models, were applied
113 to estimate the relative contributions of sources and identify potential aerosol pollution source
114 areas. The new findings can not only serve as an up-to-date reference database for future field
115 measurement and modeling work, but also are expected to be beneficial for policy-makers to
116 retrofit air pollution control strategy in this region if necessarily in time.

117 **2. Materials and Methods**

118 **2.1 Sampling site**

119 The aerosol sampling was conducted from Nov. 4, 2014 to Feb. 6, 2015 at the rooftop of
120 Environment Monitoring Center of Ningbo (SZ, 121°31'41.11"E, 29°53'0.43"N) (Fig. 1). The
121 sampling site is away from the immediate influence of local pollution sources, such as roadside
122 vehicular exhausts and industrial emissions, which is considered to be representative of air
123 pollution level in urban areas of Ningbo. Besides the study site, PM_{2.5} concentrations were also
124 observed at six other sites including Dongqianhu (site 1, rural site), Longsai (site 2, industrial site),
125 Fenghua (site 3, suburban site), Wenfeng (site 4, background site), Cixi (site 5, urban), Wanli (site
126 6, urban site) and Beilun (site 7, industrial site) during the sampling period.

127 **2.2. Sample collection**

128 PM_{2.5} samplers (Partisol Model 2025 Sequential Air Sampler, Thermo-fisher Scientific Inc.
129 USA) with BGI Inc. Very Sharp Cut Cyclone impactors were used to simultaneously collect PM_{2.5}
130 for 24 h from 0:00 to 23:00 LT every day at a flow rate of 16.7 L min⁻¹, with Quartz fiber and
131 Teflon filters that are 47 mm in diameter. The quartz fiber filters were pre-fired (4 h at 800 °C) to
132 remove all organic impurities. Filters were conditioned in a dryer (25 °C, 40% RH) for 24 h and
133 then they were weighed before and after sampling using a microbalance with sensitivity ±0.01 mg.
134 After sampling, the exposed filters were stored in a freezer at -20 °C to minimize losses of volatile
135 components. In addition, hourly measurements were conducted for sulfur dioxide (SO₂), nitrogen
136 dioxide (NO₂), carbon monoxide (CO), ozone (O₃) and PM_{2.5} at multiple sites from 2011 to 2015
137 in Ningbo, and the detailed information on instruments, calibration and maintenance have been
138 reported by Ji et al. (2012).

139 **2.3 Sample analysis**

140 A quarter of each Teflon filter was extracted using 25 ml of deionized water (Millipore, 18.2
141 MΩ) in an ultrasonic bath for 30 min. The extract liquid was filtered and subsequently analyzed
142 by Ion Chromatograph (IC) (DIONEX, ICS-90, USA) to determine the concentrations of water-
143 soluble ions (Na^+ , NH_4^+ , K^+ , Mg^{2+} , Ca^{2+} , Cl^- , NO_3^- and SO_4^{2-}). The quartz filter was cut and the
144 concentrations of OC and EC were determined using a thermal/optical carbon aerosol analyzer
145 (DRI Model 2001A, Desert Research Institute, USA).

146 A quarter of the Teflon filter was digested using a mixture of concentrated HF (0.2 ml), HCl (2
147 ml) and HNO_3 (6 ml) in the automated sample digestion system DEENA (Thomas Cain Inc.,
148 USA). The subsequent analysis of trace elements (Na, Mg, Al, K, Ca, Ti, V, Cr, Mn, Fe, Co, Ni,
149 Cu, Zn, As, Mo, Ag, Cd, Sn, Ba, Tl and Pb) was carried out using an Agilent 7500ce inductively
150 coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS) (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA). The
151 analytical methods or protocols of chemical species in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ have been introduced in the previous
152 study (Tian et al., 2016), in which the detailed information on the instruments (e.g., precision,
153 detection limit, operation, calibration and maintenance) and quality assurance/control could be
154 found.

155 **2.4 Positive Matrix Factorization model**

156 Positive Matrix Factorization (PMF) model, an effective receptor modeling tool, has been
157 worldwide applied for source apportionment in the field of environmental research and
158 administration (Brown et al., 2007; Shi et al., 2016). The description of PMF method has been
159 introduced in details in the supplementary materials. The sampling data and the uncertainty of all
160 species based on method detection limit are input into US EPA's PMF 5.0, and source profiles and
161 source contributions can be acquired. Robust uncertainty estimates and diagnostics are shown to
162 assess the rationality of the results. In this study, 33 types of chemical species (Na, Mg, Al, K, Ca,
163 Ti, V, Cr, Mn, Fe, Co, Ni, Cu, Zn, As, Mo, Ag, Cd, Sn, Ba, Tl, Pb, Na^+ , NH_4^+ , K^+ , Mg^{2+} , Ca^{2+} ,
164 Cl^- , F^- , SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^- , OC and EC) can be loaded into PMF 5.0, and the sources of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ will be
165 identified and the mass contributions of each source will be also quantified.

166 2.5 Air mass back trajectory cluster

167 Forty eight hours backward trajectories arriving at the sampling site (121°31'41.11"E,
168 29°53'0.43"N) were calculated using the HYSPLIT 4 model issued by National Oceanic and
169 Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) during the sampling period. The arrival level was set at 100
170 m above ground level (a.g.l.) and the 48 h back trajectories were calculated at 0:00, 6:00, 12:00
171 and 20:00 UTC.

172 2.6 PSCF and CWT model

173 The potential source areas can be identified using potential source contribution function
174 (PSCF) model, which combines the backward trajectory and a defined value of air pollutant
175 (Nicolas et al., 2011). The study field is divided into small equal grid cells (ij). The value of PSCF
176 is expressed as:

$$177 \quad PSCF_{ij} = \frac{m_{ij}}{n_{ij}} \quad (1)$$

178 where i and j denote the latitude and longitude, respectively, n_{ij} represents the number of endpoints
179 passing through the ij cell, and m_{ij} is defined as the number of endpoints in the same cell
180 associated with samples that are higher than the criterion value. The 75th percentile for each
181 chemical species is selected as the criterion value. To reduce the uncertainty in cells, a weighting
182 function $w(n_{ij})$ should be multiplied with a m_{ij}/n_{ij} value when n_{ij} is lower than three times of
183 average number of trajectory endpoints (n_{mean}) in each cell (Dimitriou and Kassomenos et al.,
184 2015; Polissar et al., 2001). The weight potential source contribution function (WPSCF) is
185 described as follows:

$$186 \quad WPSCF_{ij} = \frac{m_{ij}}{n_{ij}} \times W(n_{ij}) \quad (2)$$

$$187 \quad W(n_{ij}) = \begin{cases} 1.00, & 3n_{mean} < n_{ij} \\ 0.70, & 1.5n_{mean} < n_{ij} \leq 3n_{mean} \\ 0.40, & n_{mean} < n_{ij} \leq 1.5n_{mean} \\ 0.20, & n_{ij} \leq n_{mean} \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

188 The concentration-weighted trajectory (CWT) model is used to weight trajectories with
189 related concentrations of air pollutants. The geographical field is divided into cells representing an
190 area of $1.0^\circ \times 1.0^\circ$. The CWT can be calculated as follows:

$$C_{ij} = \frac{\sum_{h=1}^M C_h \times \tau_{ijh}}{\sum_{h=1}^M \tau_{ijh}} \times W(n_{ij}) \quad (4)$$

192 where C_{ij} is the mean weight concentration of the back trajectory h in the ij cell; C_h represents
 193 $PM_{2.5}$ concentration in the trajectory h through ij cell; t_{ijh} represents the time that trajectory h
 194 resides in the ij cell. $W(n_{ij})$ used in CWT is the same as that in PSFC to reduce the uncertainty in
 195 cells.

196 The studied domain is from 20 to 50° N and 110 to 130° E, which includes almost all areas
 197 covered by all the air mass transport pathways. Both WPSCF and CWT analyses were calculated
 198 using the MeteInfo software-TrajStat Plugin (Wang et al., 2009), which has been proven useful
 199 to identify potential source areas of $PM_{2.5}$ and its chemical species (Wang et al., 2015).

200 3. Result and Discussion

201 3.1 Levels of $PM_{2.5}$

202 The levels of $PM_{2.5}$ in Ningbo from 2011 to 2015 and the measurement data for this study are
 203 presented in Fig. 2. As shown in Fig. 2(a), clear monthly variations of $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations were
 204 observed and higher values were recorded in November, December and January. The monthly
 205 average concentrations were 63 ± 29 , 79 ± 22 and 86 ± 43 $\mu g/m^3$ in November, December 2014
 206 and January 2015, respectively. Given that the electricity and natural gas are the main power
 207 sources for residential heating in urban area of Ningbo in autumn and winter (Ningbo Statistical
 208 Yearbook, 2015), the increased consumption of coal burning for power generation during these
 209 seasons could contribute more to $PM_{2.5}$ concentration in this region. In addition, regional transport
 210 or stagnant meteorological condition also played important roles in the accumulation of $PM_{2.5}$ in
 211 autumn and winter. As shown in Fig. S1, in the autumn and winter the precipitation (on average
 212 93.9 mm) and WS (on average 1.5 m/s) were lower than annual average values of the precipitation
 213 (139.5 mm) and WS (1.7 m/s), respectively. Lower precipitation and WS were conducive to the
 214 accumulation of air pollutants. Besides, prevailing northerly wind, which carried air pollutants in
 215 NCP and YRD to the sampling site, resulted in the degradation of air quality in Ningbo in the
 216 autumn and winter. The results in Fig. 3 show that $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations at all sampling sites in
 217 this study were significantly correlated with each other though they are with different urbanization

218 gradients. Consequently, it can be inferred that the inland air masses transported from outside had
219 a dominant effect on the $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations so as to reduce the spatial variation due to the
220 geographical closeness of all studied sites within Ningbo. It is also consistent with the findings
221 reported by Li et al. (2017) that the continental air masses could import higher concentration of
222 $PM_{2.5}$ to Ningbo. Further discussion will be shown in section 3.4.

223 As shown in Fig. 2(b), the consistent variations were found between $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations
224 measured using filter sampling and automatic analyzers. The $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations varied from 23
225 to 204 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ with a mean value of 77 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ based on filter sampling method. The number of days
226 exceeding the Chinese Ambient Air Quality Standards (CAAQS) daily limit of 75 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ was 42,
227 accounting for 48 % of total number of air pollution days in the whole year (from Nov 2014 to Oct
228 2015). According to American Ambient Air Quality Standard (AAQs) and World Health
229 Organization (WHO) guideline, there were 83 and 90 days exceeding the daily $PM_{2.5}$ thresholds of
230 35 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ (AAQs) and 25 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ (WHO) during the sampling period, respectively. The annual
231 $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations in Ningbo had reduced very slightly from 46 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ in 2014 to 45 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ in
232 2015, which were lower than those observed in Ningbo before executing the Air Pollution
233 Prevention and Control Action Plan (Li et al., 2017a). It suggested that APPCAP come into effect
234 and air quality gradually improved. However, the levels of $PM_{2.5}$ increased comparatively from
235 Nov 2013-Feb 2014 to Nov 2014-Feb 2015, which were close to those observed (81.1 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) in
236 winter before executing the Air Pollution Prevention and Control Action Plan (Li et al., 2017a). In
237 addition, note that the annual average concentration from Nov 2014 to Oct 2015 is 3 times the
238 AAQs $PM_{2.5}$ threshold value of 15 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, and 4.5 times the WHO guideline value of 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$
239 in urban Ningbo.

240 Compared to $PM_{2.5}$ levels in other key cities of YRD, it can be found that the annual average
241 concentration of $PM_{2.5}$ in Ningbo (from Nov 2014 to Oct 2015) was lower than those in Hangzhou
242 (56 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$), Nanjing (58 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$), Wuxi (63 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$), Suzhou (60 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) and Shanghai (53 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)
243 (China Statistical Yearbook On Environment, 2015). Besides, the annual average concentration of
244 $PM_{2.5}$ in Ningbo was lower than or similar with those in most coastal cities of China, including
245 Tianjin (76 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$), Qinhuangdao (48 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$), Qingdao (53 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$), Danlian (50 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) and

246 Guangzhou ($45 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$), but higher than those of Zhuhai ($33 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$), Shenzhen ($33 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$), Xiamen
247 ($34 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) and Fuzhou ($33 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) (China Statistical Yearbook On Environment, 2015). As shown
248 in Fig. S2, moderate correlations were found between $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ and SO_2 , NO_2 , CO and O_x using
249 regression analysis ($P < 0.001$). It is understandable that these gases may be emitted by the same
250 sources that emit $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ and its precursors, or themselves may serve as precursors to secondary
251 $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ formation. Variations in this complex ambient mixture are accompanied and affected by
252 variations in an array of meteorological conditions. In general, for the past few years the $\text{PM}_{2.5}$
253 concentration has been reducing; nonetheless, the level of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ is still much higher than the
254 WHO guideline and further control measures should be taken to improve air quality in Ningbo.

255 **3.2 Characteristic of chemical composition in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$**

256 **3.2.1 The major water soluble ions analysis**

257 Tab. 1 and Fig. 4 present concentrations and variations of chemical composition in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ and
258 aerosol chemical profile at various air quality levels (the categorization of air quality levels based
259 on $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentration bands and the numbers of days with different air quality levels during the
260 sampling period are shown in Tab. S1.) (Ji et al., 2016). Water soluble ions (WSIs) accounted for
261 45.2% of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ and the NO_3^- , SO_4^{2-} , NH_4^+ and Cl^- were the major WSIs of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ during the
262 sampling period. The concentrations of major WSIs varied in the following order: $\text{NO}_3^- > \text{SO}_4^{2-} >$
263 $\text{NH}_4^+ > \text{Cl}^-$. NO_3^- concentrations ranged from 2.5 to $42.5 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ with an average of $14.5 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$.
264 When the aerosol pollution got worse during the sampling period, the NO_3^- , SO_4^{2-} and NH_4^+
265 concentrations increased accordingly and NO_3^- appeared to increase at fastest rate. As reported by
266 previous study (Seinfeld et al., 2016), NO_3^- originated from conversion of gaseous NO_x which
267 could be from power plant, traffic emission, shipping emission, industrial combustion and other
268 processes, etc. Based on emission inventory of air pollutants in Ningbo (Tab. S2), it can be seen
269 power plant, mainly the coal-fired boilers, is the predominant source for NO_x , which deems to play
270 an important role in the formation of NO_3^- in Ningbo according to the velocity and conversion rate
271 of NO_3^- from NO_x (Seinfeld and Pandis, 2016). Besides, the observed results also indicated a
272 strong correlation between NO_3^- and SO_2 during the moderately and heavily polluted periods as
273 shown in Fig. 5. It might be because that secondary inorganic ions such as NO_3^- are generated

274 through both homogeneous and heterogeneous reactions of gaseous precursors including SO₂ and
275 NO_x (Xu et al., 2017).

276 SO₄²⁻ concentrations ranged from 3.6 to 25.0 μg/m³ with an average of 11.2 μg/m³. SO₄²⁻
277 contributed the second largest portion of the WSIs after NO₃⁻. As discussed above, SO₄²⁻ is mainly
278 formed via conversion of primary gaseous pollutant SO₂ and a small fraction can come from
279 marine source. Considering that there is no strong source of SO₂ in the urban areas of Ningbo and
280 sulfur containing fossil fuels are mainly used in industrial facilities (including coal fired power
281 plants) located far away from downtown area in suburb industrial zones or industrial areas of
282 YRD, SO₄²⁻ might be transported from industrial areas leading to slight difference in spatial
283 distribution of SO₄²⁻ in Ningbo (Fig. S3), which was consistent with the results observed by Li et
284 al. (2017).

285 Cl⁻ is considered to be an important ion contributing to the formation of PM_{2.5} in coastal
286 cities (Xu et al., 2017). Cl⁻ showed the high concentration in this study, which may be attributed
287 to both sea source and anthropogenic emission. As reported by Nenes et al. (1998), sea-salt
288 aerosols act as cloud condensation nuclei with SO₂ oxidation proceeding in the resulting cloud
289 droplet producing H₂SO₄ and HNO₃. The formation of H₂SO₄ and HNO₃ promotes the acidity in
290 the NaCl particles, and can result in the evaporation of HCl and decline in the ratio of Cl to Na
291 less than that in sea salt, leading to Cl-depletion. The positive Cl_{excess} of 2.4±2.2 calculated by Eqs
292 (5) and (6) during this study period suggested that Cl⁻ was influenced by anthropogenic emission
293 more than Cl-depletion process in particular in this study.

$$294 \quad Cl_{\text{excess}} = Cl_{\text{sample}} - Cl_{\text{reference}} \quad (5)$$

$$295 \quad Cl_{\text{reference}} = Na_{\text{sample}} / (Na/Cl)_{\text{sea}} = Na_{\text{sample}} / 0.556 \quad (6)$$

296 where Cl_{sample} and Cl_{reference} represent the Cl⁻ concentration observed in the sample and sea-salt
297 sample, respectively, and Na_{sample} is the Na⁺ concentration observed in the sample.

298 NH₄⁺ concentrations ranged from 2.3 to 24.2 μg/m³ with an average of 9.1 μg/m³. The
299 correlations between equivalent concentrations of NH₄⁺ and the total equivalent concentrations of
300 SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻ and Cl⁻ are reported in Fig. 6, which were very significant indicating NH₄⁺ presented
301 similar variation with SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻ and Cl⁻ in this study. In addition, the slopes of regression lines

302 were the same with a value of 0.89 throughout the sampling campaign, good and moderate air
303 quality period and polluted days, showing that NH_4^+ equivalent concentrations were not enough to
304 neutralize the sum of SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^- and Cl^- equivalent concentrations. It suggested that $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ is
305 acidic but the acidity of these aerosols did not vary significantly with degradation of air quality.
306 Due to instability of NH_4NO_3 and NH_4Cl and deficient NH_4^+ conditions, the formation of
307 $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ and NH_4HSO_4 is more preferred than that of NH_4NO_3 or NH_4Cl (Meng et al., 2011;
308 Seinfeld et al., 2016). In addition, the acidity of the $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ is an important parameter affecting the
309 acidity-dependent heterogeneous chemical processes on the aerosol surfaces like the hydrolysis of
310 N_2O_5 , the oxidation of SO_2 and the formation of organic aerosols (Wang et al., 2016).

311 **3.2.2 Carbonaceous species**

312 The average concentrations of OC and EC were 19.0 and 4.9 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ during this sampling
313 campaign in Ningbo, accounting for 24.7 and 6.4% of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$, respectively. The concentrations of
314 OC ranged from 4.7 to 66.1 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ while that of EC was in the range between 1.3 and 12.8 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$.
315 The average OC/EC ratios ranged from 2.0 to 7.7 with an average of 3.9. As shown in Fig. 7(a),
316 with the degradation of air quality, the ratio of OC/EC increased correspondingly. However, the
317 ratios of OC/EC obviously declined with the enhancement of EC concentrations (Fig. 7(b)). EC is
318 essentially a primary pollutant of incomplete fuel combustion including fossil fuel and biomass,
319 etc. (Andersson et al., 2015) and OC originates from primary anthropogenic sources such as fuel
320 combustion and is also formed via secondary transformation of gaseous precursors (Cao et al.,
321 2007; Wang et al., 2012). The increase in OC/EC ratios with enhancement of air pollution levels
322 suggested a significant effect of secondary organic carbon while the decline in OC/EC ratios with
323 enhancement of atmospheric EC levels indicated high EC concentrations and low OC/EC ratios
324 possibly concurred. Local freshly emitted EC under stagnant atmospheric conditions or that
325 transported from upwind high emission areas could result in high concentrations of EC at study
326 site, which usually corresponded with less secondary formation of OC (Aggarwal et al., 2009).
327 However, due to the dispersion during long-range transport and aging effect under sunlight
328 irradiation (Zhao et al., 2016), EC concentrations decreased and more secondary formation of OC
329 could be expected.

330 As shown in Figs. 7(c) and 7(d), the significant correlation between OC and SO_4^{2-} but the
331 insignificant correlation between EC and SO_4^{2-} were observed, which confirmed that secondary
332 formation played an important role in the generation of OC and sulfate through homogeneous
333 and/or heterogeneous reactions. In addition, the average ratio of OC/EC was 3.9 in Ningbo in this
334 study, which again supported the strong contribution of SOC to $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ in this study, as the ratio of
335 OC/EC greater than 2.0 could be generally applied to identify and evaluate secondary organic
336 aerosols (Chow et al., 1996; Turpin and Huntzicker, 1991).

337 To further evaluate the contributions of both primary and secondary organic carbon to
338 carbonaceous aerosol, the equations (7) and (8) below are used (Turpin and Huntzicker, 1995):

$$339 \quad \text{OC}_{sec} = \text{OC}_{tot} - \text{EC} \times (\text{OC/EC})_{min} \quad (7)$$

$$340 \quad \text{OC}_{pri} = \text{EC} \times (\text{OC/EC})_{min} \quad (8)$$

341 where OC_{sec} is secondary OC, OC_{tot} is total OC, OC_{pri} is primary OC, and $(\text{OC/EC})_{min}$ is the
342 minimum ratio of OC/EC, which could replace the ratio of OC/EC in the primary aerosol. The
343 $(\text{OC/EC})_{min}$ in the lowest 10% OC/EC ratios would be a reasonable estimate of the primary
344 emissions in this study (Lim et al., 2002; Wu et al., 2016). The results showed that the fraction of
345 SOC in total carbon (TC) was 43.0%, and SOC accounted for 41.3, 39.4, 38.7, 52.4 and 52.3% of
346 TC when air quality were excellent, good, lightly polluted, moderately polluted and heavily
347 polluted, respectively. The higher percentage (52.4 and 52.3%) of SOC during the moderately and
348 heavily polluted periods might be related to rapid transformation of the SOC precursors, i.e.,
349 VOCs (Cao et al., 2005).

350 3.2.3 Elemental profile

351 As shown in Tab. 1, twenty-two elements were analyzed in the aerosol samples, including
352 Na, Mg, Al, K, Ca, Ti, V, Cr, Mn, Fe, Co, Ni, Cu, Zn, As, Mo, Ag, Cd, Sn, Ba, Tl and Pb, the total
353 concentration of elements accounted for only 5.5% of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ during the sampling period with
354 average concentration of all elements of $4.2 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. As shown in Tab. S3, significant positive
355 correlations between $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ and Na, K, Mn, Fe, Co, Cu, As, Mo, Ag, Cd, Sn, Ba as well as Pb (2-
356 tailed, $P < 0.001$) were found, indicating that the above-mentioned elements increased with
357 enhancement of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentrations. The concentration of K, Na, Al, Ca, Fe, Zn and Mg

358 accounted for 93% of the total concentration of all measured elements in this study. From the
359 literature (Song et al., 2001), K, Al, Ca and Fe were associated with crustal sources; besides, Fe
360 and K originated from industrial emission and biomass burning, respectively. Significant
361 correlations between Fe and Cd (Tab. S3) as well as K and EC (Fig. S4) supported the results,
362 which showed Cd came from metallic smelting and biomass burning emitted EC and K
363 simultaneously. The mass concentrations of Ni ($0.010\pm 0.005 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) and V ($0.006\pm 0.005 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)
364 in this study were comparable to those observed in Ji'nan, China (Gu et al., 2014) and significant
365 correlation between Ni and V might imply that Ni and V originated from the same source, which
366 was consistent with the finding in previous studies that shipping emission was characteristic of
367 high Ni and V concentrations (Tao et al., 2017). The average concentrations of Mn, Cu, Zn, Cr,
368 Co, Cd, and Pb were 0.057 ± 0.037 , 0.027 ± 0.014 , 0.376 ± 0.229 , 0.029 ± 0.013 , 0.0004 ± 0.0002 ,
369 0.002 ± 0.001 and $0.091\pm 0.055 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, respectively, which deemed to be mainly from metal
370 smelting (Amato et al., 2012; Liu et al., 2016). V, Cr, Ni, Co, Sr and Cd showed no obvious
371 variations, probably related to various industrial activities (Yang et al., 2013; Yao et al., 2016).

372 Enrichment factor (*EF*) has been widely applied to evaluate the enrichment degrees of
373 elements using the equation (9):

$$374 \quad EF = (X/X_{\text{Ref}})_{\text{environment}} / (X/X_{\text{Ref}})_{\text{background}} \quad (9)$$

375 where *X* is element in the studied environment and X_{Ref} is the reference element (Huang et al.,
376 2012). Al is used as the reference element in this study (Liu et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2016; Zhang
377 et al., 2015). $(X/X_{\text{Ref}})_{\text{background}}$ was obtained based on concentrations in topsoil in China (Wei et al.,
378 1991). The *EF* values of Ti, Mg, Fe, Co, Ba, Ca, K, Na, V, Mn, Ni, Cr, As, Mo, Cu, Tl, Pb, Ag,
379 Sn, Zn and Cd ranged from 1.0 to 2, 892.6 during the sampling period. The *EF* values of Ti, Mg,
380 Fe, Co, Ba, Ca, K, Na were lower than 10, suggesting that they mainly originated from natural
381 sources while those of V, Mn, Ni, Cr, As, Mo, Cu, Tl, Pb, Ag, Sn, Zn and Cd were higher than 10,
382 indicating that these elements were closely related to anthropogenic activities (Wang et al., 2013).
383 Mg and Na could be attributed to sea salt while Ti, Fe, Co, Ba, Ca and K were bound up with
384 crustal sources. The *EF* value of Cd varied from 184.4 to 8,605.8, which were associated with
385 anthropogenic emission i.e., intensive industrial processes (Wang et al., 2013). Note that with the

386 deterioration of air quality the *EF* values of Cu, Ag, Cd, Sn and Pb increased accordingly, which
387 indicated enhancement in effect of their anthropogenic emission on the worse local air quality.

388 **3.3. Source apportionment**

389 To avoid repeated calculation, K, Na, Ca and Mg measured by ICP-MS were utilized instead
390 of those ions analyzed by IC for the source analysis by PMF modeling. In final, 30 variables were
391 input into the PMF model including PM_{2.5}, F⁻, Cl⁻, NO₃⁻, SO₄²⁻, NH₄⁺, OC, EC, Na, Mg, Al, K, Ca,
392 Ti, V, Cr, Mn, Fe, Co, Cu, Ni, Ag, Tl, Zn, As, Mo, Ba, Cd, Sn and Pb. Of all the variables, PM_{2.5}
393 was considered as the total variable. After initial examination of PMF model, Ni, Ag and Tl were
394 eliminated from the model due to the poor match between the modeled and measured values. The
395 measured concentrations of chemical species input into the PMF model accounted for 80.2% of
396 the total PM_{2.5}. 5-13 factors were attempted in the PMF model operation (Tab. S4). After
397 optimization, 10 factors were determined as input parameters by Error Estimation (EE) diagnostics
398 analysis and the most reasonable results were acquired. The regression line between the PM_{2.5}
399 concentration (*y*) produced by the PMF modeling and that measured in this study (*x*) could be
400 expressed as $y = 0.89x + 3.37$ ($r^2 = 0.86$). $Q_{(Robust)}/Q_{(True)}$ of 0.93 also indicated that ten factors
401 could be an optimal solution. The spectrum of different sources for PM_{2.5} in this study estimated
402 by PMF model was shown in Fig. 8. Besides, the contribution of each source by weight percentage
403 was presented in Fig. 9 and time series of the contribution from different sources was shown in
404 Fig. S5.

405 The first source category of PM_{2.5} was metallurgical industry, accounting for 9.4% of PM_{2.5}.
406 This source was characterized by high loading of Mn and Zn and moderate loading of Fe, Co and
407 Cu, which is consistent with findings in previous studies (Kim et al., 2003; Song et al., 2006). As
408 documented by economic census conducted by Ningbo statistics bureau (<http://english.nbtjj.gov.cn>), there were approximately 5,082 enterprises related to metal smelting and processing.

410 The source factor 2, contributing 4.8 % to PM_{2.5}, was characteristic of high contribution of K
411 and moderate loading of Pb, As, Cd, Cu, OC and EC. It was reported in previous studies that high
412 contribution of K and Pb could be from biomass burning and waste incineration (Huang et al.,
413 2014; Yuan et al. 2006).

414 The third source factor had high proportion of Mo and the moderate loadings of Co, Cu, Fe
415 and Zn, which could be identified as industrial processes related with Mo (Tao et al., 2014), and
416 this factor accounted for 9.4% of PM_{2.5}. This might be supported by such a fact that there are
417 plenty of enterprises related to Mo production and manufacturing according to the field
418 investigation in Ningbo (<http://english.nbtjj.gov.cn>).

419 Factor 4 had a significant contribution of Cl⁻, accounting for 7.6% of PM_{2.5}. In addition to
420 marine source (seawater), coal combustion and chlor-alkali chemical industry could be identified as
421 the main source for Cl⁻ in this study (Xu et al., 2017; Liu et al., 2017).

422 The fifth factor had a highest loading of V with an average contribution of 8.1% to PM_{2.5},
423 which was the indicator of heavy oil combustion (Vallius et al., 2003). Heavy oil is normally used
424 for cargo ships and diesel vehicles etc. (Vallius et al., 2003; Yao et al., 2016; Tao et al., 2017).

425 The sixth type of source was characterized by EC and OC and also contained high loadings
426 of SO₄²⁻, NH₄⁺ and Ca. The OC and EC are major pollutants from gasoline and diesel combustion
427 (Zhang et al., 2017; Yao et al., 2016). Hence, vehicle exhaust could be identified for this factor
428 and contributed 18.7% to PM_{2.5}. The sampling site was located in the downtown area of Ningbo,
429 densely populated and heavily affected by nearby traffic activities.

430 Factor 7 was highly loaded with SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻ and NH₄⁺, representative of contribution by
431 secondary inorganic aerosols (Gao et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2017). A number of studies suggested
432 that NO₃⁻, SO₄²⁻ and NH₄⁺ were mainly stemmed from the conversion processes of gaseous
433 precursors to particle (Liu et al., 2015; Tao et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2006). This factor accounted
434 for 27.6% of PM_{2.5}, possessing the highest contribution to these fine aerosols, indicating its
435 important roles in worsening the air quality and visibility reduction in this region.

436 The eighth category of pollution sources was characterized by elements including the Mg, Al,
437 Ca and Ti, which are of crustal source or soil dust, contributing an average of 2% of PM_{2.5}. This
438 was consistent with findings in a previous study conducted in urban Ningbo (Yu et al., 2015).

439 The ninth factor had high abundance of Al and V, indicating a strong contribution from road
440 dust accounting for 7.1% of PM_{2.5} (Li et al., 2016). As mentioned above, the population of

441 automobiles was large and traffic in downtown area was heavy, hence it might be understandable
442 that road dust could be a more important source than soil dust for PM_{2.5} in this study.

443 The tenth factor was associated with industrial emission, characteristic of a significant
444 loading of Cr. In addition, a certain amount of Mn, Zn and Al was also observed in this factor.
445 This factor contributed 5.2% to PM_{2.5}.

446 Based on the above analysis, it is found that the contribution of the secondary inorganic
447 aerosol was the largest source and the control of gaseous precursor like SO₂, NO_x and NH₃, etc.
448 should be further strengthened. Vehicular exhaust was the second largest source, which suggested
449 that advanced technology needs to be implemented to more effectively control traffic emission.
450 Manufacturing and other industrial processes in relation to Mo, Cr and Cl⁻ contributed 22.2% to
451 PM_{2.5}. In addition, it is also clear that the road and soil dust emission should be further suppressed
452 in near future.

453 **3.4. Source analysis based on backward trajectories, WPSCF and CWT**

454 Figs. 10, 11 and 12 showed the association of the backward trajectories with PM_{2.5}, and
455 potential sources-areas of NO₃⁻, SO₄²⁻, NH₄⁺, Cl⁻, OC, EC and PM_{2.5}, during the sampling period.
456 In terms of directions and traveled regions, major trajectories were divided into five groups by
457 cluster analysis: (1), (2), (3), (4) and (5), accounting for 31.4, 14.5, 27.1, 12.2 and 14.0% of the
458 total trajectories, respectively. The PM_{2.5} concentrations in every group were shown in Tab. S5.
459 Trajectory (1) stemmed from Shandong province, which clearly represented inland air masses.
460 The highest PM_{2.5} concentrations were associated with this group of trajectories. Trajectory (2)
461 began in Liaoning province, passed through ocean before arriving at Ningbo. Trajectory (3) was
462 originated from the East China Sea with relatively shorter pathways, which were bound up with
463 the lowest PM_{2.5} concentrations. Trajectory (4) originated from Mongolia, across over Inner
464 Mongolia, Hebei province, the Bohai Sea, Shandong province and the East China Sea before
465 arriving at the sampling site, which showed the extremely long transport pathway. Trajectory (5)
466 was originated from Anhui province, across over the border of Jiangsu and Zhejiang provinces
467 before arriving at Ningbo, which showed the extremely shorter transport pathway, associated with
468 higher PM_{2.5} concentrations.

469 As shown in Figs. 11 and 12, the most areas of Jiangsu province, eastern areas of Anhui
470 province, south of Shandong province and northeastern areas of Zhejiang province were identified
471 as major potential sources-areas of PM_{2.5} as well as NO₃⁻, SO₄²⁻, NH₄⁺, Cl⁻, OC and EC based on
472 WPSCF and CWT models. However, slight difference in potential source areas of NO₃⁻, SO₄²⁻,
473 NH₄⁺, Cl⁻, OC and EC was found. For example, high potential source areas and transport pathways
474 of NO₃⁻, SO₄²⁻, Cl⁻, OC and EC were mainly located in the north and northwest of Ningbo
475 including areas of Jiangsu province, the north of Zhejiang province, the south of Shandong
476 province and Jiujiang city in Jiangxi province, where the largest coal-fired thermal power plant in
477 Jiangxi province was located. NH₄⁺ shared the similar source regions with NO₃⁻, SO₄²⁻, Cl⁻, OC
478 and EC but had less high potential source areas across the abovementioned regions. The possible
479 reason for this was that the source of NH₄⁺ is different from those of NO₃⁻, SO₄²⁻, Cl⁻, OC and EC.
480 NH₄⁺ originated from the transformation of NH₃ (Seinfeld et al., 2016), which mainly come from
481 agricultural activities (Wu et al., 2016). In addition, the partial areas of Yellow Sea and East China
482 Sea were identified as high potential sources-areas of Cl⁻. Note that NO₃⁻, SO₄²⁻, Cl⁻, OC and EC
483 had obvious high potential source areas across inland regions including Yangzhou-Zhenjiang-
484 Changzhou-Wuxi-Suzhou-Jiaxing cities. Considering that many cities located along this pathway
485 are industrial cities, such as Yangzhou, Zhenjiang, Changzhou, Wuxi, Suzhou and Jiaying,
486 regional transport from these areas would have potentially high impact on the formation of severe
487 pollution. In addition, regional transport from Taizhou industrial regions in Zhejiang province,
488 which is located in the south of Ningbo, might play an important role in the high concentrations of
489 NO₃⁻, SO₄²⁻, Cl⁻, OC and EC. Such a pollution band agrees well with a previous study (Li et al.,
490 2017b).

491 **4. Conclusion**

492 An intensive experiment was conducted to study the characteristics of PM_{2.5} and its sources
493 in Ningbo, an important industrial city in the coastal area of the Yangtze River Delta, China in
494 both autumn and winter seasons. The major gaseous pollutants, PM_{2.5} and its chemical
495 compositions were concurrently measured. Based on PMF, PSCF and CWT models, sources of

496 PM_{2.5} were identified, and sources areas of PM_{2.5} and its chemical species were investigated. The
497 conclusions were summarized as below:

498 The annual average PM_{2.5} concentrations declined in past few years, but were still far higher
499 than the WHO guideline. In particular, the PM_{2.5} pollution episodes frequently occurred in autumn
500 and winter, when further control measures should be taken to improve air quality in Ningbo. It
501 appears that regional transport played important roles in high aerosol pollution in both seasons.

502 The water-soluble ions, carbonaceous species and elements contributed 48.7±14.8%,
503 29.9±8.0% and 5.5±9.0% to PM_{2.5}, respectively. Based on the emission inventory and the
504 relationship between NO₃⁻ and SO₂, industrial emission played an important role in formation of
505 NO₃⁻. Controlling NO_x from industrial emission will be helpful for reducing PM_{2.5} level in
506 Ningbo. With the degradation of air quality, the ratio of OC/EC increased correspondingly and
507 suggested that secondary organic aerosol contributed significantly to OC. In addition, industrial
508 emissions played a more important role when air quality became more polluted based on *EF*
509 values.

510 Ten types of sources were determined via PMF model analysis based on the EE diagnostics.
511 Secondary source was the highest contributor to PM_{2.5} in Ningbo for the whole study period, and
512 followed by vehicular emission, metallurgical industry, manufacturing related with Mo, oil
513 combustion, chlor-alkali chemical industry, road dust, manufacturing related with Cr, biomass
514 burning and waste incineration and soil dust, respectively.

515 The most areas of Jiangsu province, eastern areas of Anhui province, south of Shandong
516 province and northeastern areas of Zhejiang province were identified as major potential sources-
517 areas of PM_{2.5} as well as NO₃⁻, SO₄²⁻, NH₄⁺, Cl⁻, OC and EC by WPSCF and CWT models. In
518 addition, the partial areas of Yellow Sea and East China Sea were identified as high potential
519 sources-areas of Cl⁻. Due to the transboundary transport effect, joint pollution prevention and
520 control measures need to be strengthened to improve the air quality in this region.

521 **Acknowledgment**

522 This work is supported by the National Key Research and Development Program of China
523 (2016YFC0202701), Ningbo Science and Technology Foundation (16YFZCSF00260) and Beijing

524 Municipal Science and Technology Project (D171100001517003). The authors also gratefully
525 acknowledge Ningbo Environmental Monitoring Center for supporting in the monitoring
526 campaign.

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Figure legends

Fig. 1. Location of sampling site (SZ), Dongqianhu (site 1, rural site), Longsai (site 2, industrial site), Fenghua (site 3, suburban site), Wenfeng (site 4, background site), Cixi (site 5, urban), Wanli (site 6, urban site) and Beilun (site 7, industrial site) in Ningbo.

Fig. 2. Concentrations of $PM_{2.5}$ in Ningbo (a) Monthly $PM_{2.5}$ variations in urban Ningbo from 2011 to 2015 (b) Variations in $PM_{2.5}$ observed using filter sampling and automatic analyzers in this study.

Fig. 3. The regression lines of hourly $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations among multiple sites in Ningbo in this study.

Fig. 4. Chemical composition in $PM_{2.5}$ in this study (a) daily variation (b) chemical profile in $PM_{2.5}$ at various air quality levels (SP, Slightly polluted; MP, Moderately polluted; HP, Heavily polluted).

Fig. 5. The regression line between SO_2 and NO_3^- during the moderately and heavily polluted days.

Fig. 6. Correlations among inorganic ions during the sampling period, good and moderate air quality, and polluted days.

Fig. 7 (a) The relationship between the ratios of OC/EC and air pollution levels; (b) The correlation between OC/EC and EC concentration; (c) The correlation between SO_4^{2-} concentration and EC concentration; (d) The correlation between SO_4^{2-} concentration and OC concentration.

Fig. 8. Factor profile (w % of species) in each source for $PM_{2.5}$ in Ningbo.

Fig. 9. The contribution from each source to the ambient $PM_{2.5}$ in Ningbo.

Fig. 10. Backward trajectories arriving at the sampling site in Ningbo and their cluster analysis.

Fig. 11. The WPSCF maps for main chemical species and $PM_{2.5}$ in Ningbo in this study.

Fig. 12. The WCWT maps for main chemical species and $PM_{2.5}$ in Ningbo in this study.

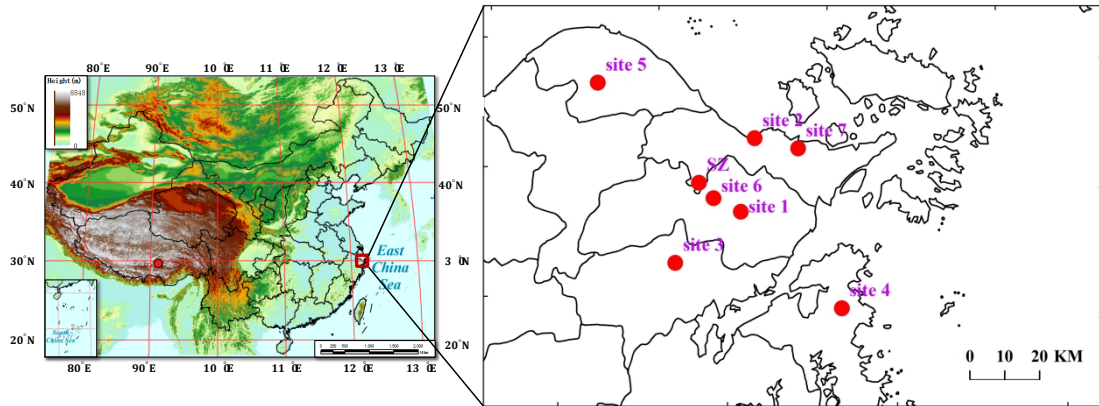


Fig. 1. Location of sampling site (SZ), Dongqianhu (site 1, rural site), Longsai (site 2, industrial site), Fenghua (site 3, suburban site), Wenfeng (site 4, background site), Cixi (site 5, urban), Wanli (site 6, urban site) and Beilun (site 7, industrial site) in Ningbo.

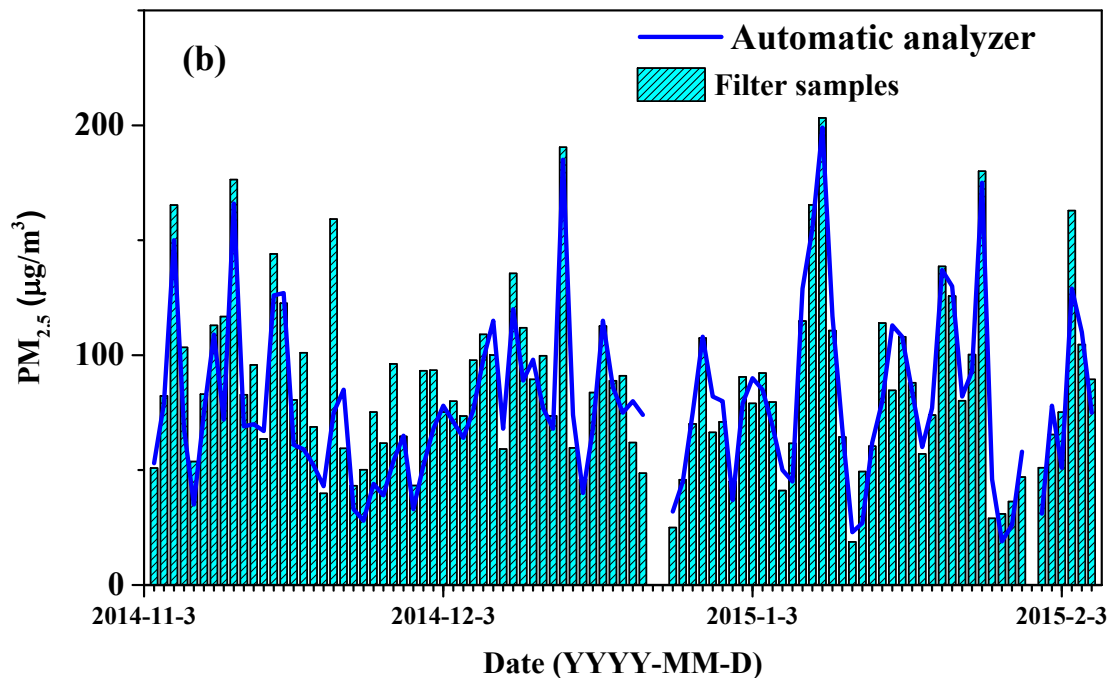
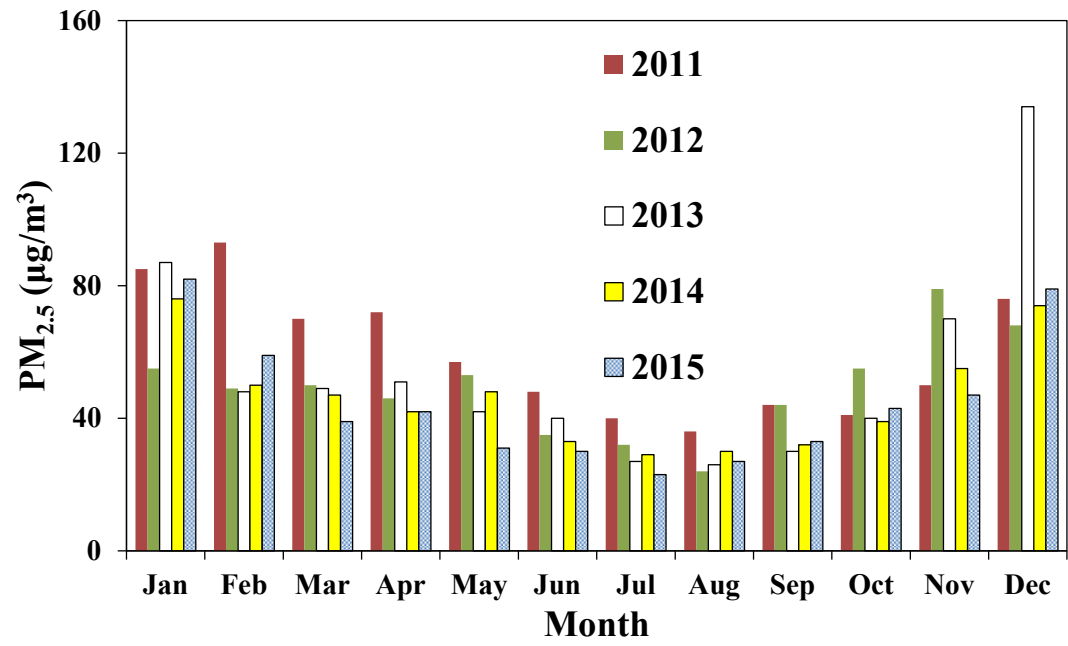


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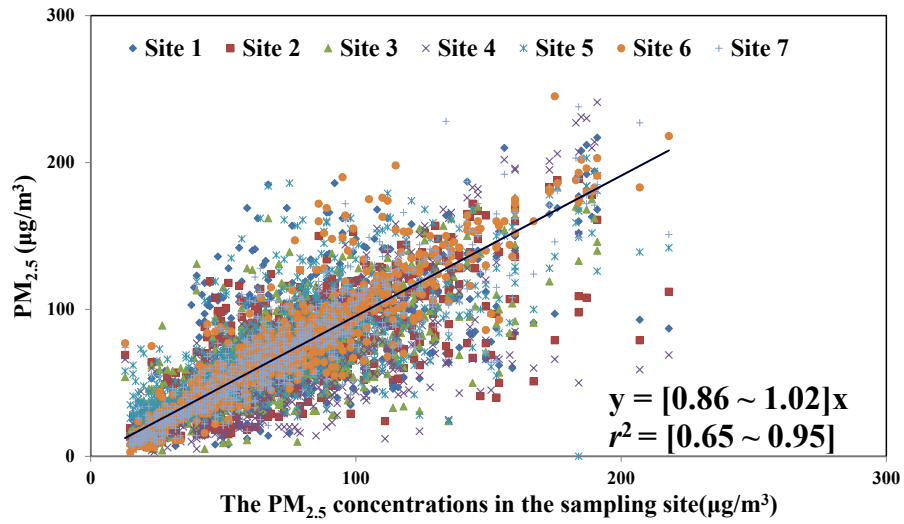


Fig. 3. The regression lines of hourly PM_{2.5} concentrations among multiple sites in Ningbo in this study.

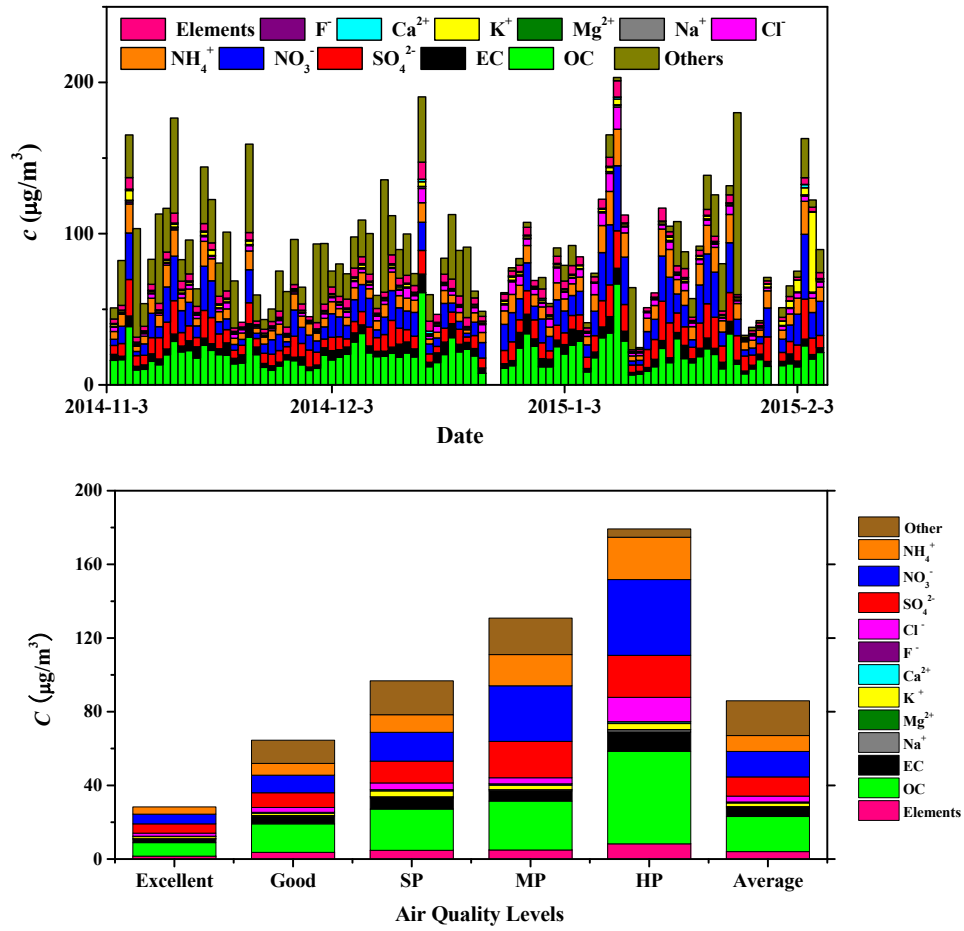


Fig. 4. Chemical composition in $PM_{2.5}$ in this study (a) daily variation (b) chemical profile in $PM_{2.5}$ at various air quality levels (SP, Slightly polluted; MP, Moderately polluted; HP, Heavily polluted).

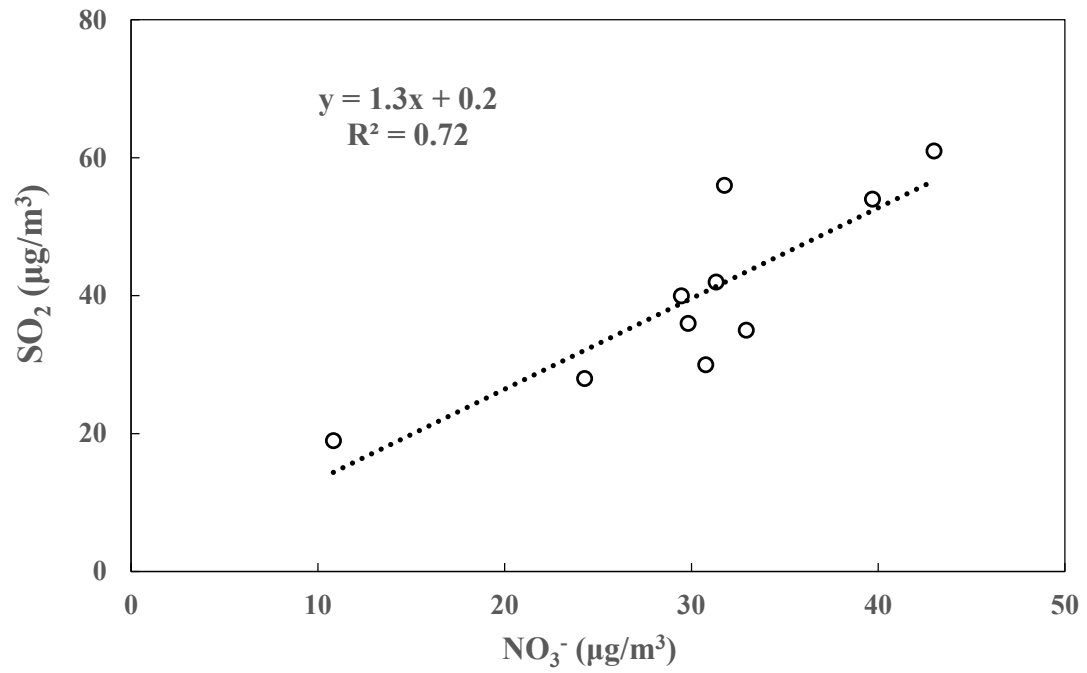


Fig. 5. The regression line between SO_2 and NO_3^- during the moderately and heavily polluted days.

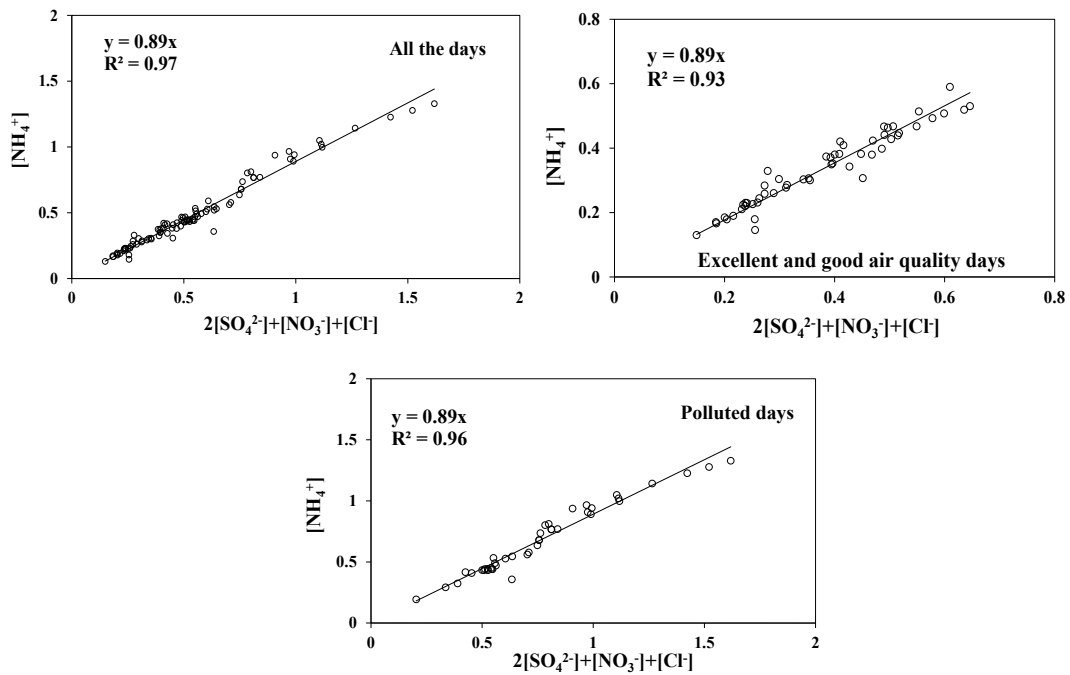


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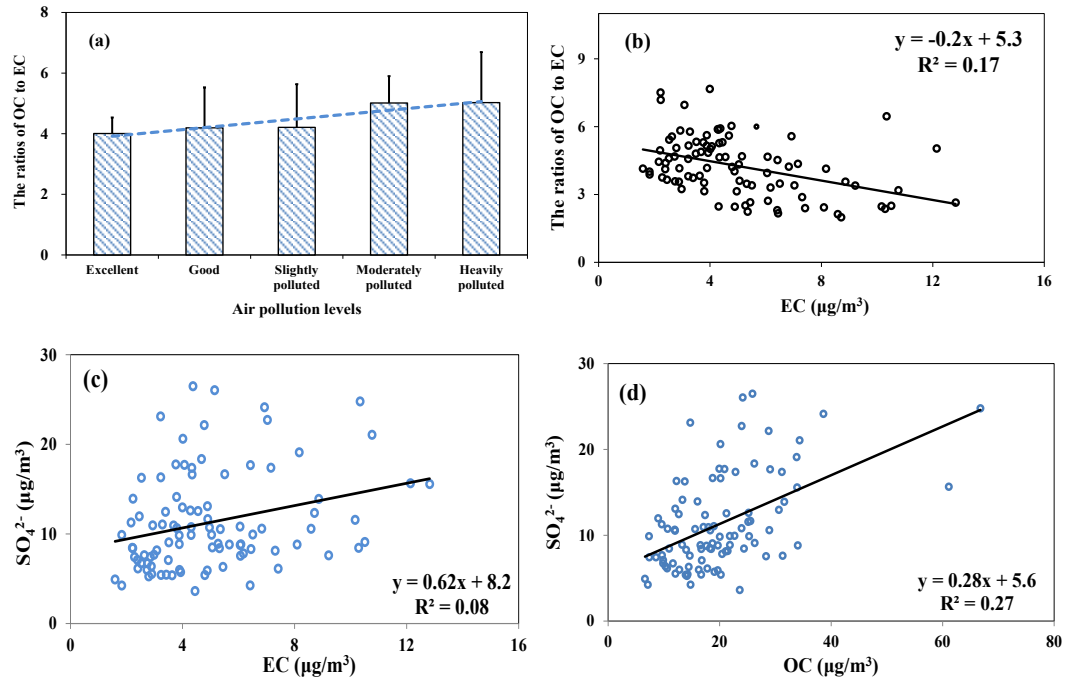


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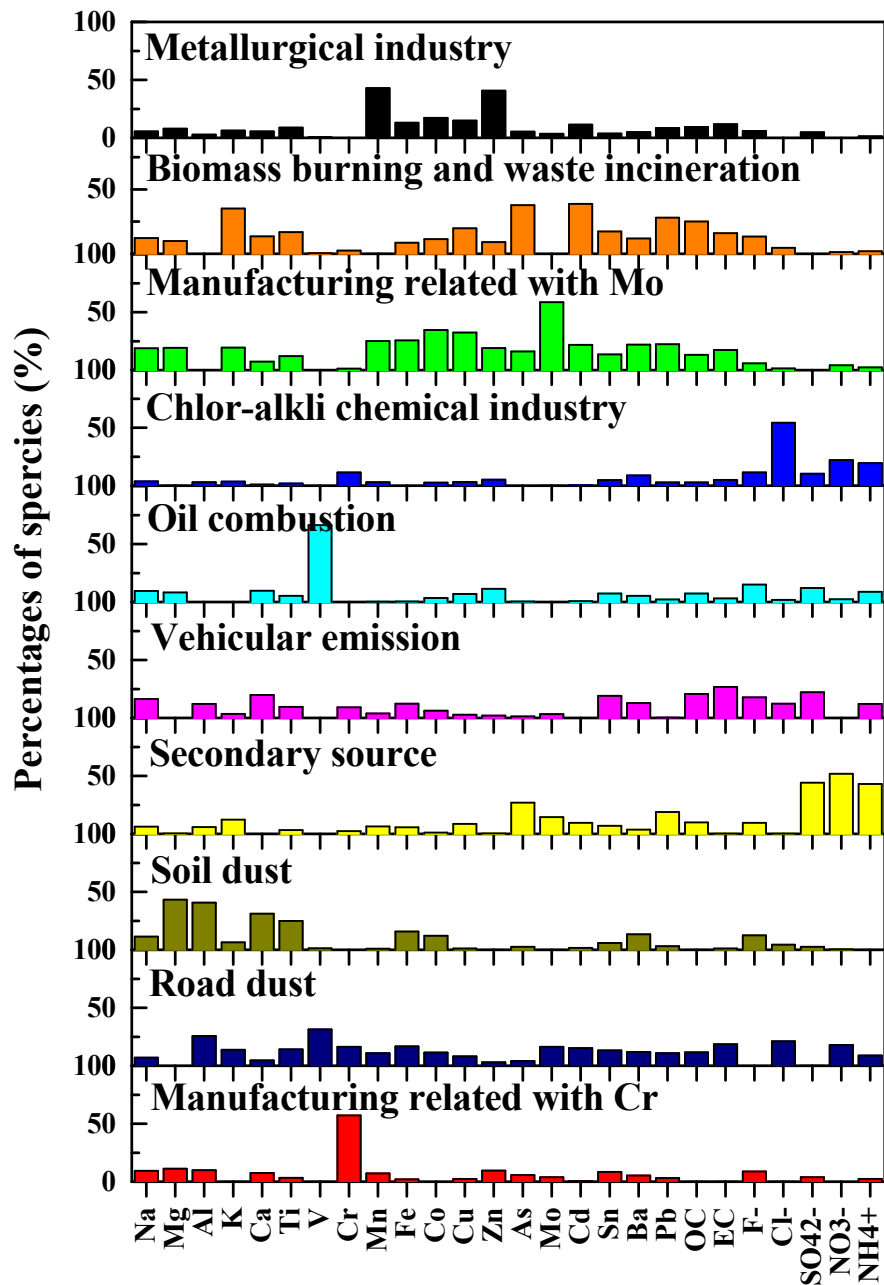


Fig. 8. Factor profile (w % of species) in each source for PM_{2.5} in Ningbo.

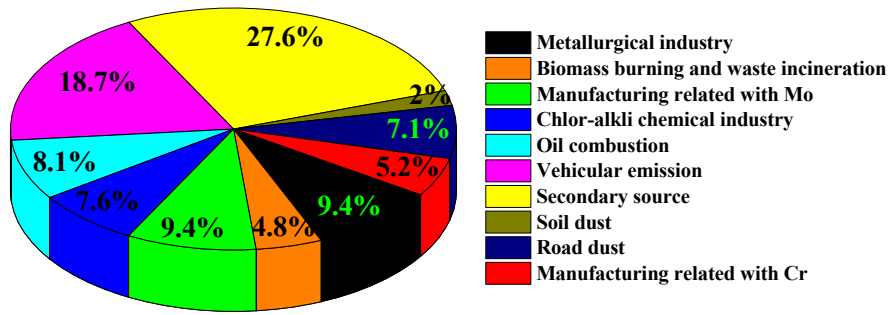


Fig. 9. The contribution from each source to the ambient PM_{2.5} in Ningbo.

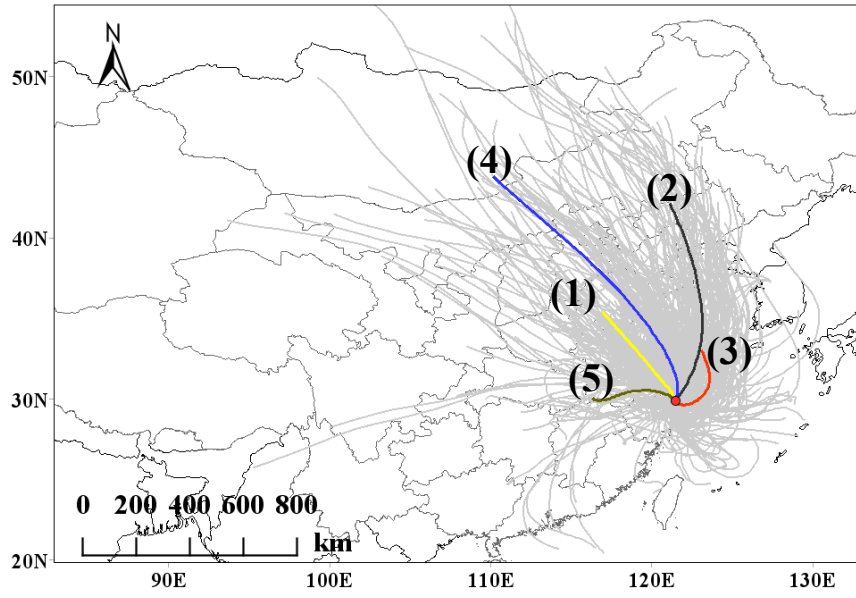


Fig. 10. Backward trajectories arriving at the sampling site in Ningbo and their cluster analysis.

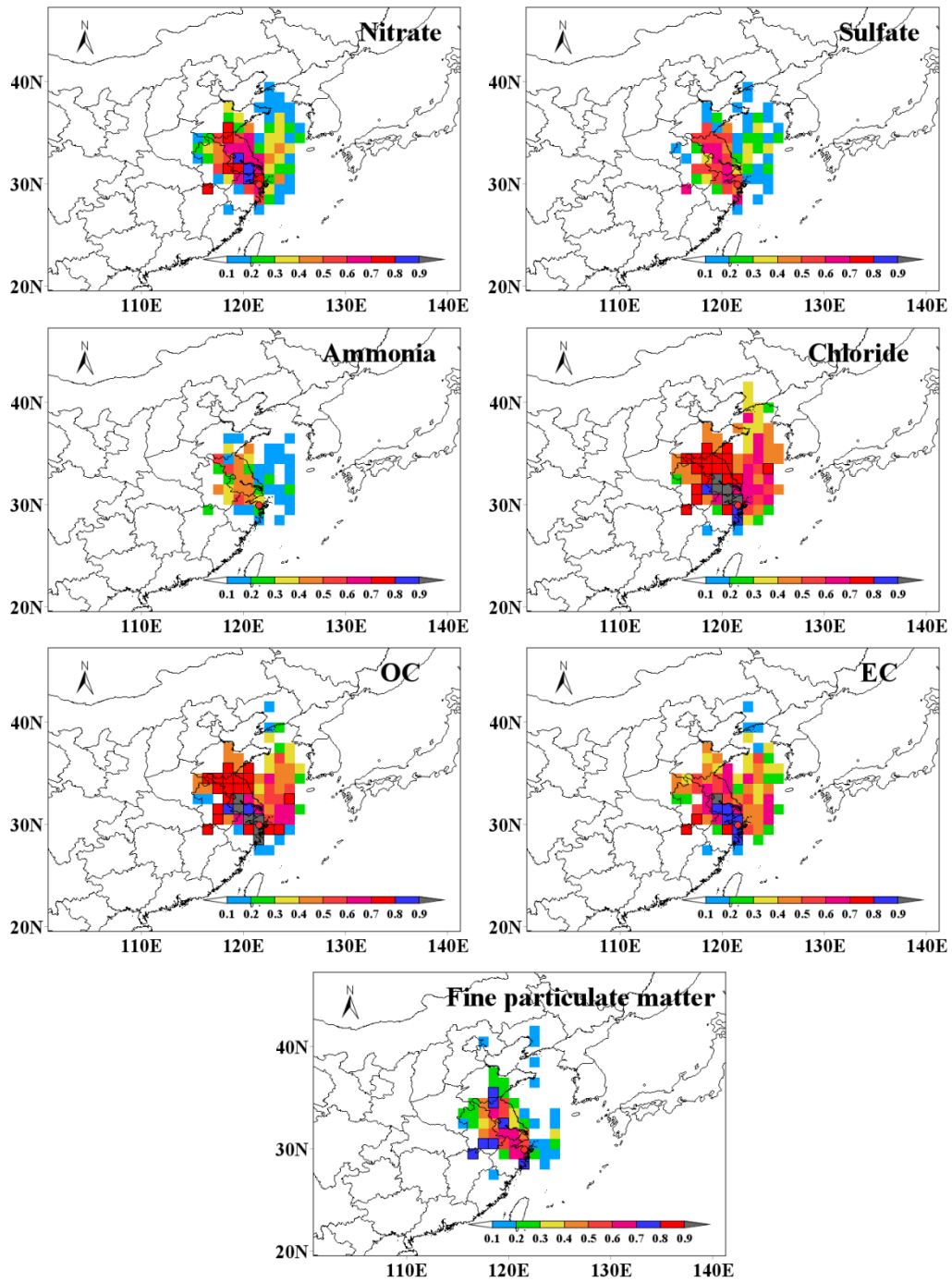


Fig. 11. The WPSCF maps for main chemical species and PM_{2.5} in Ningbo in this study.

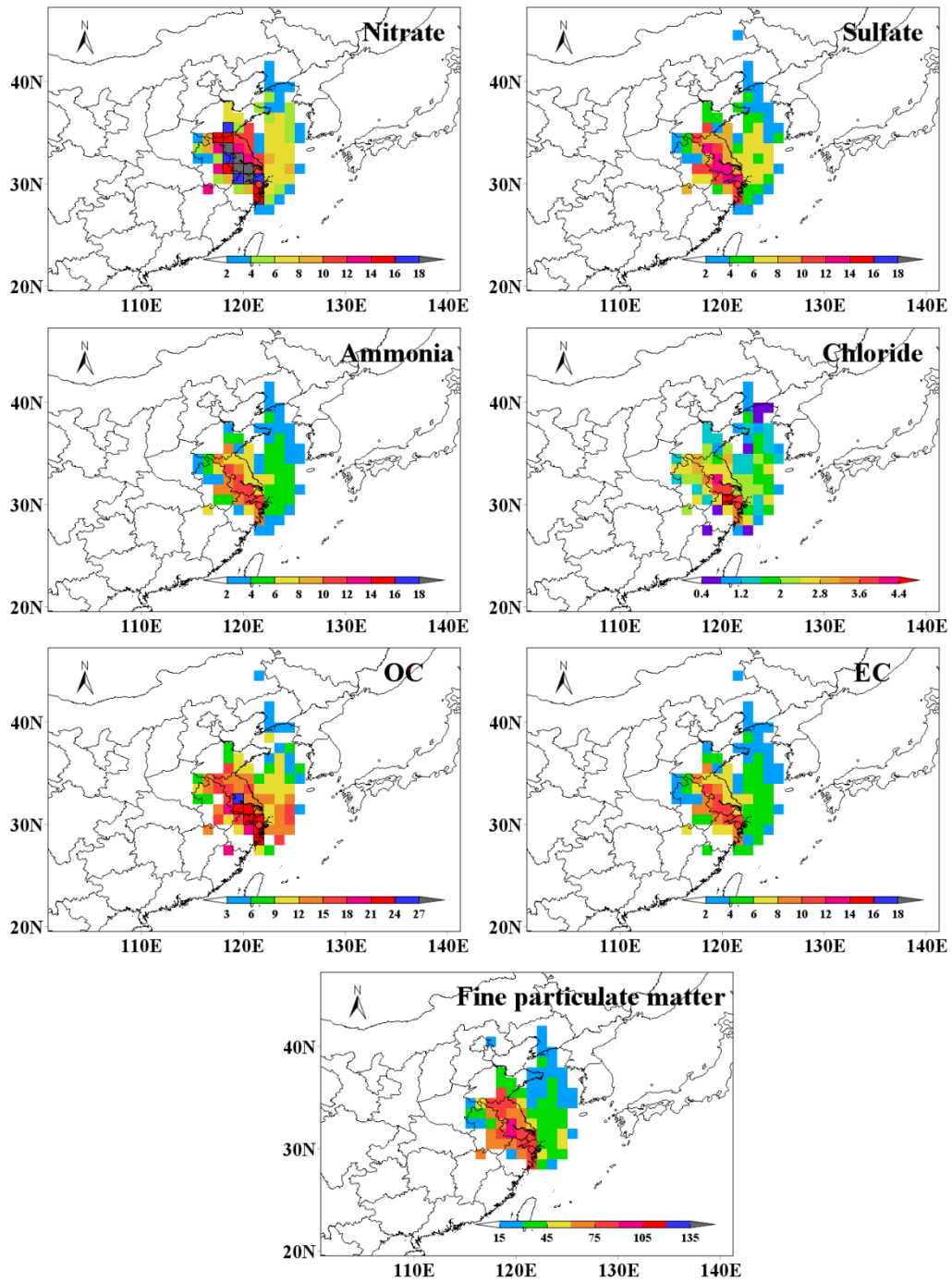


Fig. 12. The WCWT maps for main chemical species and PM_{2.5} in Ningbo in this study.

Tab. 1. The average concentrations of water-soluble inorganic ions, carbonaceous species and trace elements in PM_{2.5} during the sampling period (unit: $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$).

Species	Mean	SD
Water-soluble inorganic ions		
SO ₄ ²⁻	11.2	5.4
NO ₃ ⁻	14.5	9.4
NH ₄ ⁺	9.1	4.8
Na ⁺	0.5	0.2
Mg ²⁺	0.1	0.0
K ⁺	2.0	5.3
Ca ²⁺	0.6	0.3
Cl ⁻	3.3	2.4
F ⁻	0.05	0.02
Carbonaceous species		
OC	19.0	9.8
EC	4.9	2.5
Trace elements		
Na	0.699	0.226
Mg	0.117	0.068
Al	0.616	0.614
K	1.019	0.548
Ca	0.589	0.321
Ti	0.028	0.019
V	0.006	0.005
Cr	0.029	0.013
Mn	0.057	0.037
Fe	0.534	0.273
Co	0.0004	0.0002
Ni	0.010	0.005
Cu	0.027	0.014
Zn	0.376	0.229
As	0.007	0.004
Mo	0.002	0.001
Ag	0.000	0.000
Cd	0.002	0.001
Sn	0.012	0.005
Ba	0.017	0.008
Tl	0.001	0.001
Pb	0.091	0.055

Supplementary materials for
Characteristics of fine particulate matter and its sources in an
industrialized coastal city, Yangtze River Delta, China

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S2.1 PMF model

PMF model, an effective receptor modeling tool, has been worldwide applied for source apportionment in the field of environmental research and administration. Its goal is to resolve the matrix of measured sample data into factor contribution and source profiles, the mathematical equation can be shown in Equation (1):

$$x_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^p g_{ik} f_{kj} + e_{ij} \quad (1)$$

where x_{ij} is the measured concentration of the j th species in the i th samples, p is the number of factors, g_{ik} is the contribution of the i th source to the i th sample, f_{kj} is the species profile of the k th source, e_{ij} is the residuals for each species.

Factor contribution and source profiles are derived by PMF minimizing the objective function Q (Equation (2)):

$$Q = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m \left[\frac{x_{ij} - \sum_{k=1}^p g_{ik} f_{kj}}{u_{ij}} \right]^2 \quad (2)$$

Where u_{ij} is the uncertainty of j th species in the i th sample. The uncertainty is calculated based on method detection limit (MDL) and determination error fraction. If the values are lower than MDL, they will be replaced by half of the MDL and the uncertainty will be set to 5/6 of MDL. If the values are higher than MDL, the uncertainty will be estimated according to the equation (3):

$$Un = \sqrt{(\text{Error Fraction} \times \text{concentration})^2 + (0.5 \times \text{MDL})^2} \quad (3)$$

According to the instrument measurement, Error Fraction values were set to 15%. The sampling data are input into US EPA's PMF 5.0 in this study. Three error uncertainty estimates and diagnostics (Displacement (DISP), Bootstrap (BS), BS-DISP) are used to assess the rationality of the results.

Factor contribution and source profiles are derived by PMF minimizing the objective function Q :

$$Q = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m \left[\frac{x_{ij} - \sum_{k=1}^p g_{ik} f_{kj}}{u_{ij}} \right]^2 \quad (4)$$

Where u_{ij} is the uncertainty of j th species in the i th sample. Q is a critical parameter for PMF and two versions of Q are displayed for the model runs: $Q_{(True)}$ is the goodness-of-fit parameter

calculated including all points and $Q_{(Robust)}$ is the goodness-of-fit parameter calculated excluding points that do not fit the modeled values, defined as samples of which the uncertainty-scaled residual is greater than 4. The difference between $Q_{(True)}$ and $Q_{(Robust)}$ is a measure of the impact of data points with high scaled residuals. If the ratio of $Q_{(True)}/Q_{(Robust)}$ is closer to 1, it indicates that there are not too many outliers affecting the results of PMF runs.

S2.2 HYSPLIT 4 model

The HYSPLIT_4 (HYbrid Single-Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory) model (Version 4) is a complete system for computing simple trajectories to complex dispersion and deposition simulations using either puff or particle approaches. The model uses previously gridded meteorological data on one of three conformal map projections (Polar, Lambert, Mercator). Air concentration calculations associate the mass of pollutant species with the release of either puffs, particles, or a combination of both. The dispersion rate is calculated from the vertical diffusivity profile, wind shear, and horizontal deformation of the wind field. Air concentrations are calculated at a specific grid point for puffs and as cell average concentrations for particles (Draxler et al., 1998).

Assuming that the trajectory of the particle is moving with the wind field, the trajectory is the integral of the point in time and space. Position computed from average velocity linearly is interpolated at the initial position (P) and first-guess position (P'):

$$P(t+dt) = P(t) + 0.5 [V(P\{t\}) + V(P'\{t+dt\})] dt \quad (4)$$

$$P'(t+dt) = P(t) + V(P\{t\}) dt \quad (5)$$

the integration time step is variable: $V_{max} dt < 0.75$.

Cluster analysis is a simple statistical method referring to multivariate, whose purpose is to divide a data set into groups or "clusters" of similar cases or variable. The assignment of members (trajectories) to a given group (cluster) is carried out by minimizing the internal variability within the group of trajectories and maximizing the external variability between different groups based on the trajectory co-ordinates.

The clustering method is based on the spatial similarity of the airflow (speed and direction) to group a large number of trajectories. There are two clustering options with Euclidean distance and

angle distance (Draxler et al., 1999). The Euclidean distance between two backward trajectories is then given by

$$d_{12} = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n ((X_1(i) - X_2(i))^2 + (Y_1(i) - Y_2(i))^2)} \quad (6)$$

Where X_1 (Y_1) and X_2 (Y_2) refer to backward trajectories 1 and 2, respectively. The main disadvantage of using the Euclidean distance is that two backward trajectories following the same path but having different speed may be classified in two different clusters. Since the cluster analysis is to identify the trajectories in similar direction, the angle distance should be selected.

The angle distance between two backward trajectories is defined as

$$d_{12} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \cos^{-1} \left(0.5 \frac{A_i + B_i - C_i}{\sqrt{A_i B_i}} \right) \quad (7)$$

Where

$$A_i = (X_1(i) - X_0)^2 + (Y_1(i) - Y_0)^2 \quad (8)$$

$$B_i = (X_2(i) - X_0)^2 + (Y_2(i) - Y_0)^2 \quad (9)$$

$$C_i = (X_2(i) - X_1)^2 + (Y_2(i) - Y_1)^2 \quad (10)$$

The variables X_0 and Y_0 define the position of studied site. Note that d_{12} varies between 0 and π . The two extreme values occur when two trajectories are in the same and opposite direction, respectively. As defined by equations (7) to (10), d_{12} is the mean angle between the two backward trajectories, as seen from the studied site.

Reference

Draxler, R. R., & Hess, G. D. (1998). An overview of the hysplit-4 modeling system for trajectories. Australian Meteorological Magazine, 47(4), 295-308.

Draxler, R.R., 1999. HYSPLIT 4 User's Guide. NOAA Tech. Memo. ERL ARL-230, 35 pp. [2016 version available online at: http://www.arl.noaa.gov/documents/reports/hysplit_user_guide.pdf. last access: January 2016].

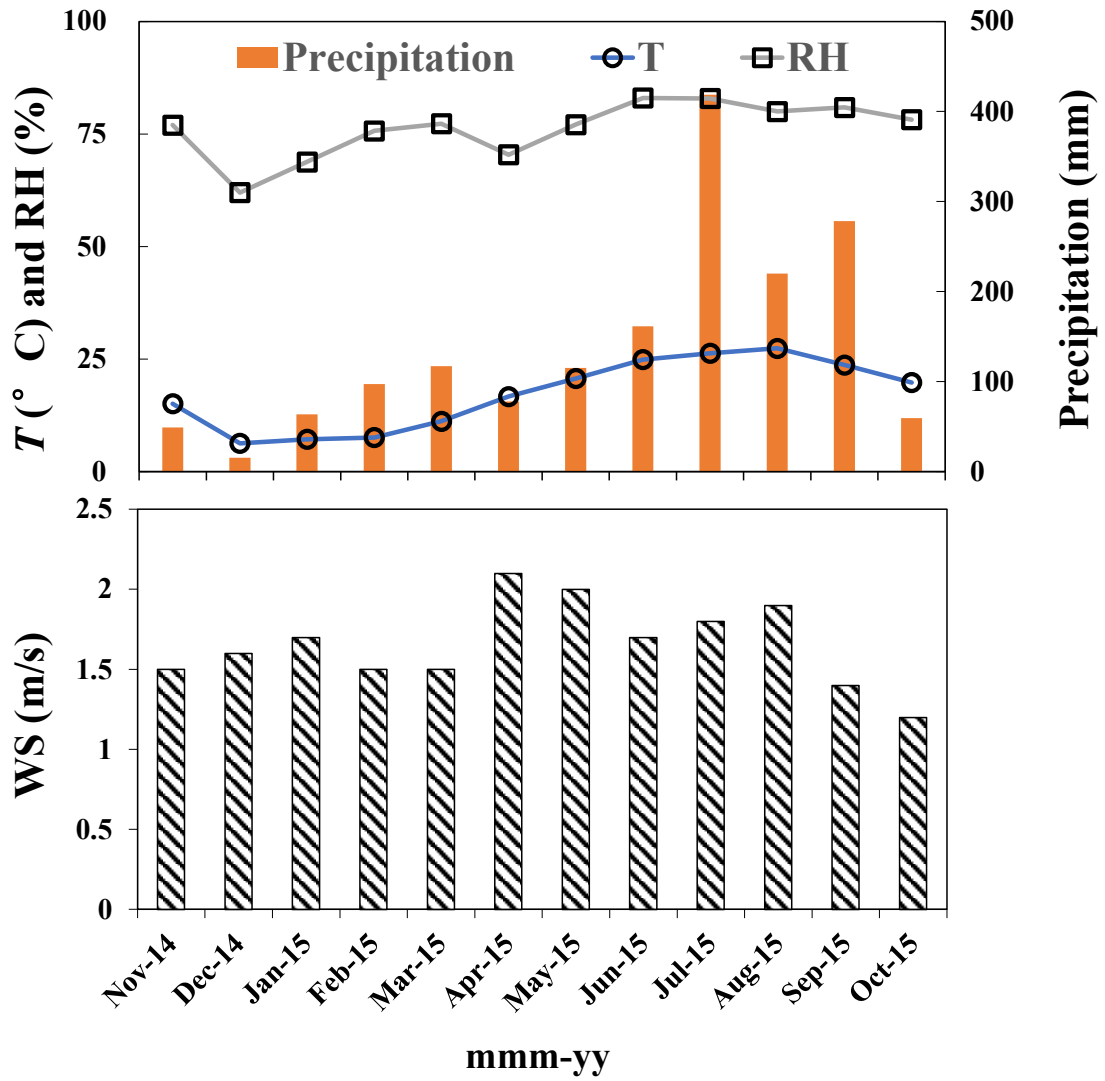


Fig. S1. Monthly variations in the meteorological parameters (Precipitation, RH, T and WS).

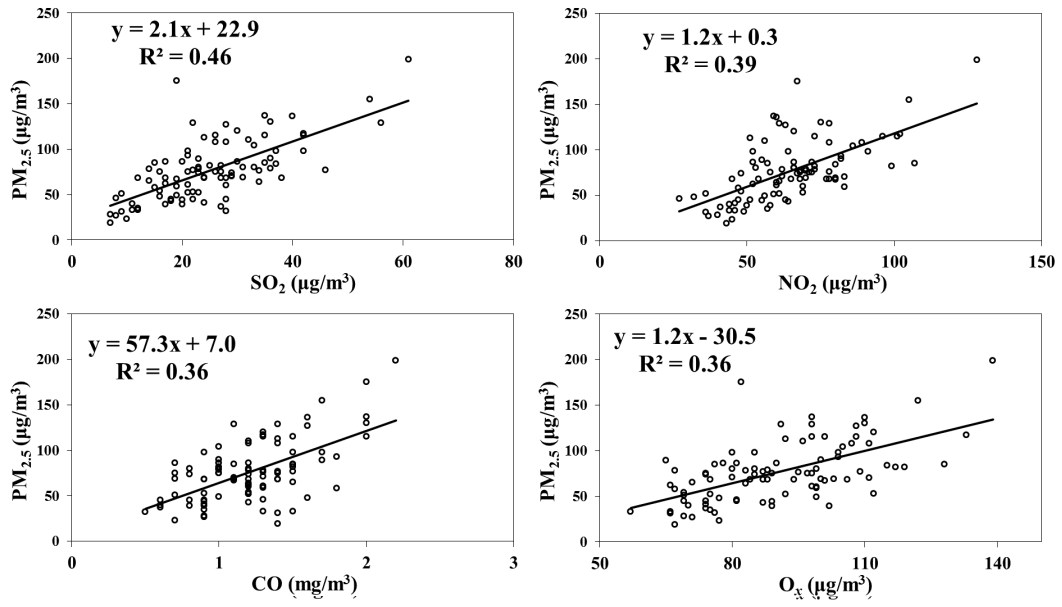


Fig. S2. The regression lines between SO₂, NO₂, CO and O₃ and PM_{2.5} during the sampling period.

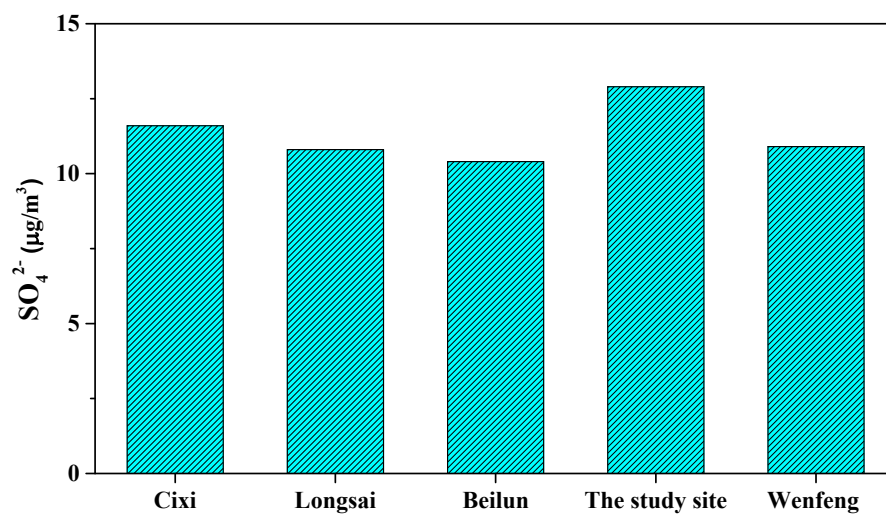


Fig. S3. Spatial distribution of SO₄²⁻ at Cixi, Longsai, Beilun, the study and Wenfeng sites in Ningbo (Data cited from the report of source apportionment in Ningbo).

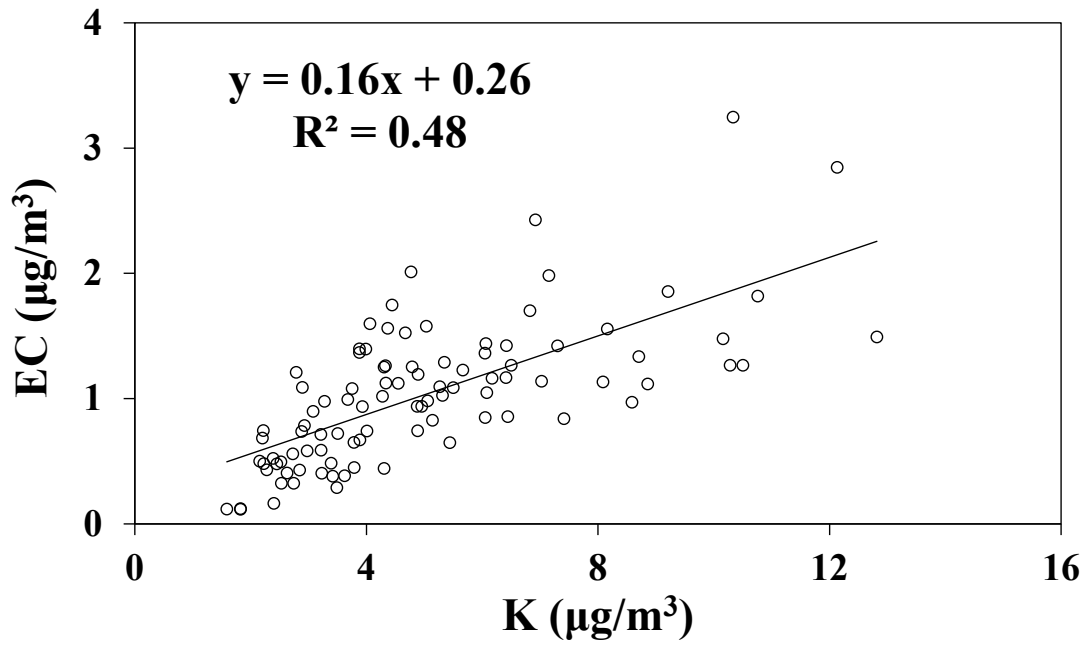


Fig. S4. The regression lines between EC and K during the sampling period.

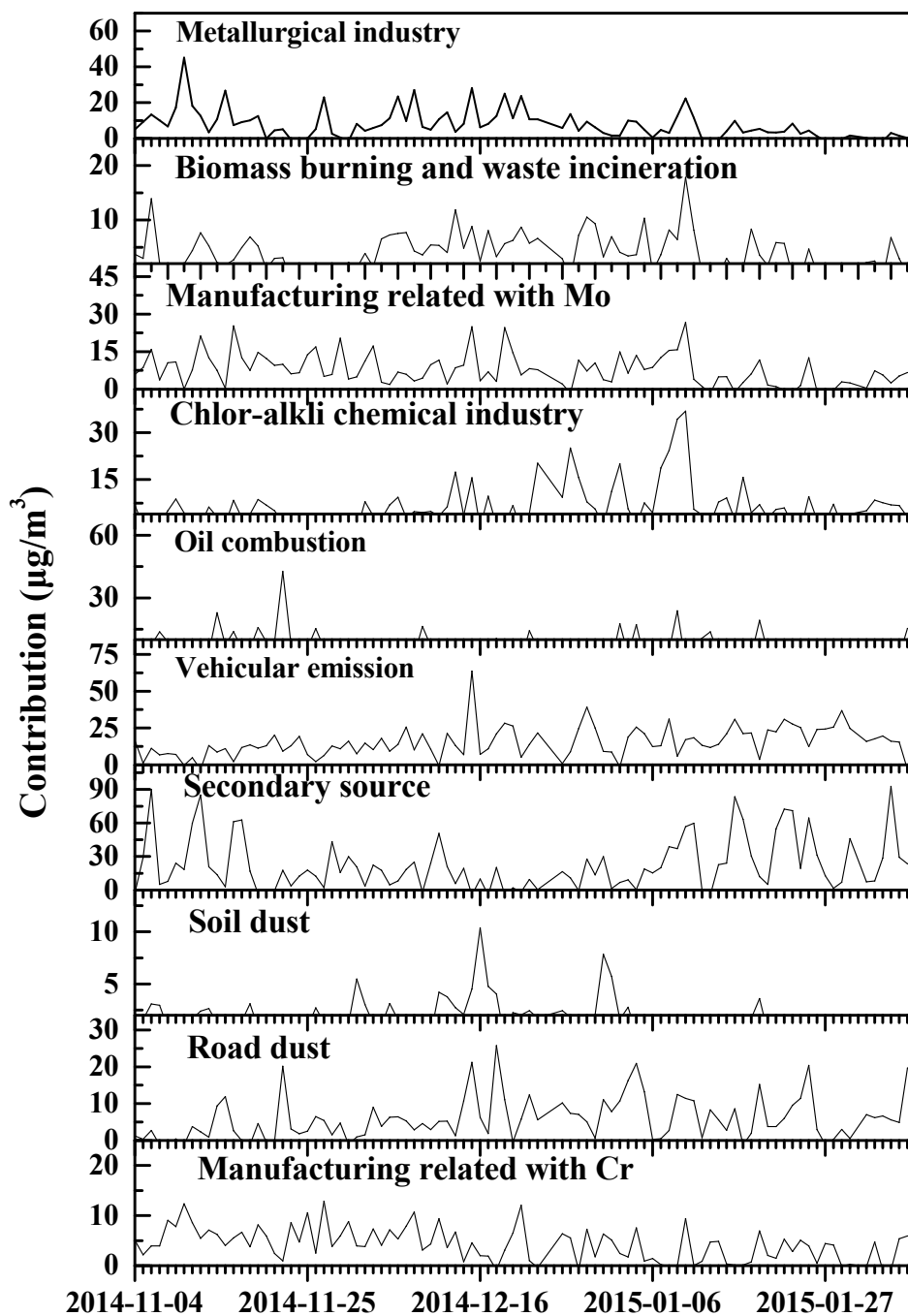


Fig. S5. Daily contribution of each source obtained by PMF analysis.

Tab. S1 The categorization of air quality levels based on PM_{2.5} concentration bands and the numbers of days with different air quality levels during the sampling period.

Air quality levels	Excellent	Good	SP	MP	HP
Data intervals of daily PM _{2.5} concentrations (µg/m ³)	0-35	35-75	75-115	115-150	150-250
The numbers of days	2	48	31	8	3

Tab. S2. Inventory of air pollutants from anthropogenic emission In Ningbo (Unit: $\times 10^4$ ton each year).

Category	SO ₂	NO _x	CO	NH ₃	VOCs
Power plant	8.85	25.33	9.32	0.00	0.63
Industrial combustion	3.45	1.75	1.97	0.00	0.57
Industrial process	4.56	1.55	5.28	0.12	10.84
Residential source	0.07	0.17	6.72	0.02	2.32
Agricultural source	0.01	0.10	1.81	1.97	0.81
Storage and transportation of oil and gas	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.57
Mobile source	0.14	4.11	14.97	0.00	2.62
Ship emission	1.79	2.50	0.05	0.00	0.06
Other anthropogenic emission	0.08	1.60	0.78	0.11	0.21

Tab. S4. Summary of PMF and EE diagnostics by run in the PMF model operation.

Diagnostic	5 factors	6 factors	7 factors	8 factors	9 factors	10 factors	11 factors	12 factors	13 factors
Q_{exp}	1906	1788	1670	1552	1434	1316	1198	1080	962
$Q_{(True)}$	9803.7	8026.3	6264.2	5299.6	4394.7	3731.3	3160.6	2645.0	2316.7
$Q_{(Robust)}$	8990.3	7360.9	5772.6	4937.7	4130.7	3475.5	2939.5	2475.8	2109.3
$Q_{(Robust)}/Q_{exp}$	4.7	4.1	3.5	3.2	2.9	2.6	2.5	2.3	2.2
DISP %dQ	<0.1%	<0.1%	<0.1%	<0.1%	<0.1%	<0.1%	<0.1%	<0.1%	<0.1%
DISP swaps	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Factors with BS					1 st F:84%		2 nd F:94%	1 st F:61%	5 th F:84%
mapping <100%					4 th F:62%		7 th F:66%	2 nd F:84%	8 th F: 65%
					6 th F:91%		10 th F:68%	11 th F: 67%	10 th F:77%
							11 th F:98%		
BS-DISP % cases with swaps	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	23%	34%	19%

F represents Factor

Tab. S5. The association of the backward trajectories with PM_{2.5} concentrations.

Cluster	Average	STDEV
(1)	89.0	53.0
(2)	74.5	47.6
(3)	70.0	48.3
(4)	81.1	40.2
(5)	84.1	37.6