

High Time-resolution Characterization of PM_{2.5} Sulfate Measured in a Japanese Urban Site

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ABSTRACT

The high time-resolution monitoring data are essential to estimate rapid changes in chemical compositions, concentrations, formation mechanisms, and likely sources of atmospheric particulate matter (PM). In this study, PM_{2.5} sulfate, PM_{2.5}, PM₁₀, and the number concentration of size-resolved PMs were monitored in Fukuoka, Japan by good time-resolved methods during the springtime. The highest monthly average PM_{2.5} sulfate was found in May (8.85 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$), followed by April (8.36 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$), March (8.13 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$), and June (7.22 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$). The cases exceed the Japanese central government's safety standard for PM_{2.5} (35 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) reached 10.11% during four months campaign. The fraction of PM_{2.5} sulfate to PM_{2.5} varied from 12.05% to 68.11% with average value of 35.49% throughout the entire period of monitoring. This high proportion of sulfate in PM_{2.5} is an obvious characteristic of the ambient PM_{2.5} in Fukuoka during the springtime. However, the average fraction of PM_{2.5} sulfate to PM_{2.5} in three rain events occurred during our intensive campaign fell right down to 15.53%. Unusually high PM_{2.5} sulfate (>30 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) marked on three days were probably affected by the air parcels coming from the Chinese continent, the natural sulfur in the remote marine atmosphere, and a large number of ships sailing on the nearby sea. The theoretical number concentration of (NH₄)₂SO₄ in PM_{0.5-0.3} was originally calculated and then compared to PM_{2.5} sulfate. A close resemblance between the diurnal variations of the theoretically calculated number concentration of (NH₄)₂SO₄ in PM_{0.5-0.3} and PM_{2.5} sulfate concentration indicates that the secondary formed (NH₄)₂SO₄ was the primary form of sulfate in PM_{2.5} during our monitoring period.

Key words: Sulfate, Particulate matter, PM_{2.5}, Particle number concentration, Fukuoka

1. INTRODUCTION

As the primary gaseous pollutant, sulfur dioxide (SO₂) with nitrogen oxides (NO_x) is emitted from the burning processes of fossil fuels and can be oxidized in the atmosphere to form gas-phase sulfate via reaction with OH radical to yield H₂SO₄ (Mauldin *et al.*, 2012). The gas-phase sulfuric acid, furthermore, preferentially form ammonium sulfate under most conditions, though ammonium nitrate is favored by low temperature and high humidity.

Ammonium sulfate is a major component of PM_{2.5} with ammonium nitrate, carbonaceous mass, and crustal material. Through the one year monitoring study at Hong Kong, Huang *et al.* (2014) reported that sulfate was the most abundant component in the PM_{2.5} mass (32.0% in average, ranging from 24.3-41.1%).

It is well known that PM_{2.5} containing secondary water soluble particles including ammonium sulfate can affect the eyes and nasal mucosa and causes respiratory diseases (Seaton *et al.*, 2005; Lebowitz, 1996). Dockery *et al.* (1993) investigated the health risk of fine PM including sulfate and they reported that higher ambient levels of fine PM and sulfate were associated with increased mortality from not only respiratory but cardiac diseases. Especially, since ammonium sulfate is water-soluble, it can be dissolved in sweat and pass through the skin into the bloodstream, and then it can lead to more harmful health risk (Garrod *et al.*, 1998).

Sulfate aerosols have also potential to mitigate the effect of rising surface temperatures by scattering the solar radiation (Keith, 2000). As one of the global scale issues associated with sulfate, acid rain can be also considered. The sulphate ion joins with hydrogen atoms in the air and becomes sulphuric acid. This then falls back down to earth as acid rain.

In order to fully understand the health risk and other local/global effects of sulfate particle as well as to control the sources of direct PM_{2.5}, its spatio-temporal

distributions and transport with the patterns of source emissions must be comprehensively investigated. Especially, the availability of high time-resolved PM_{2.5} sulfate measurement provides the opportunity to better characterize and improve its exposure estimate. Moreover, a good time-resolved monitoring for PM_{2.5} sulfate will provide us with valuable knowledge regarding its health effect as well as formation process, and transport.

In general, the mass concentration of ambient particulate sulfate has been routinely measured by collecting filter samples (usually over 24 hr) typically followed by semi or bulk analyses using an ion chromatographic technique. In recent, several semicontinuous instrumentation methods, capable of providing real-time sulfate measurements, have been developed (Drewnick *et al.*, 2003). However, there are a limited number of such reasonable real-time monitoring studies.

In this study, we investigated the characteristics of the highly time-resolved PM_{2.5} sulfate measured simultaneously with PM_{2.5}, PM₁₀, and number concentration of size-resolved PMs in a Japanese urban site.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1 Description of the Monitoring Site

An intensive monitoring of PM_{2.5} sulfate, PM_{2.5}, PM₁₀, and number concentration of size-resolved PMs were performed simultaneously at a ground-based site in Fukuoka, Japan from Mar. 19 to Jun. 16, 2008. The city of Fukuoka located in the northwest part of Fukuoka Prefecture is the Kyushu's largest and one of the Japan's ten most populated cities. Because of its closeness to the Asian mainland, added to various local sources (see Fig. 4), this area can be directly exposed to the outflow of air masses from the Asian continent especially during springtime. A ground-based sampling station (with a height of 15 m above ground) is located at the Fukuoka Women's University building (33.40°N; 130.26°E) and is marked as a filled circle in Fig. 5.

2.2 Monitoring of Sulfate and PMs

Highly time-resolved PM_{2.5} sulfate was measured continuously with the ambient particulate sulfate monitor (8400S) manufactured by Rupprecht and Patashnick Co. PM_{2.5} was collected on a platinum strip and then a higher flash temperature was employed for 10-14 msec to reduce sulfate SO₂. Finally, the evolved SO₂ (i.e., product of sulfate reduction) was quantified by pulsed fluorescence. The sampling cycle length was slightly shorter (485 sec). A detailed description of design, operation, and data reduction and processing can be found elsewhere (Drewnick *et al.*, 2003). The

quality assurance of this PM_{2.5} sulfate monitor (8400S) was reasonably proven through the intercomparison and evaluation of four semi-continuous PM_{2.5} sulfate instruments by Drewnick *et al.* (2003). In their field study, an excellent agreement among four PM_{2.5} sulfate instruments (R^2 and the recoveries were 0.87-0.94 and 0.98-1.06, respectively) was created.

In order to measure PM_{2.5} mass concentration, a light scattering PM_{2.5} monitors (Dust scan Scouts, Rupprecht & Patashnick Co. Model 3020) was simultaneously operated. Details on this PM_{2.5} monitoring system was previously described (Ma and Kim, 2013).

PM₁₀ mass concentration was measured by the tapered element oscillating microbalance (TEOM®, Series 1405) monitor. PM₁₀ mass concentration data were reported in micrograms per cubic meter at standard averaging time of 10 min. This monitor has excellent short-term precision with $\pm 2 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (one-hour average) and $\pm 1 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (24-hour average).

The number concentrations of size-selective PMs (i.e., 0.3-0.5 μm , 0.5-1.0 μm , and 2.0-5.0 μm) were also monitored by optical particle counters (OPC) (RION, KC-01D).

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1 Inter-correlation among PM_{2.5} Sulfate, PM_{2.5}, PM₁₀, and Number Concentration of Size-resolved PMs

The relationships among PM_{2.5} sulfate, PM_{2.5}, PM₁₀, and number concentration of size-resolved PMs were examined using the correlation coefficient (Fig. 1). PM_{2.5} sulfate has a strong relationship with the number concentration of PM_{0.5-0.3} ($R=0.90$). This result indicates that the secondary formed PM_{2.5} sulfate primary belonged to PM_{0.5-0.3}. Highly linear correlation ($R=0.82$) was also found between PM_{2.5} sulfate and PM_{2.5}. It is therefore suggested that PM_{2.5} was strongly influenced by PM_{2.5} sulfate, namely, sulfate was one of primary components in PM_{2.5}. Meanwhile, PM_{2.5} has a higher correlation with the number concentration of PM_{1.0-0.5} ($R=0.91$) than that with the number concentration of PM_{0.5-0.3} ($R=0.88$). This means PM_{2.5} was mainly dominated by not the number of PMs but PMs size. The number concentration of PM₅₋₂ has no meaningful relationship with PM₁₀, which is interesting since a more direct relationship might be expected.

3.2 Time-series Variation of PM_{2.5} Sulfate and PM_{2.5}

Fig. 2 shows the timely variation of hourly average PM_{2.5} sulfate and PM_{2.5} during four serial months from March to June. The hourly variations of PM_{2.5} sulfate

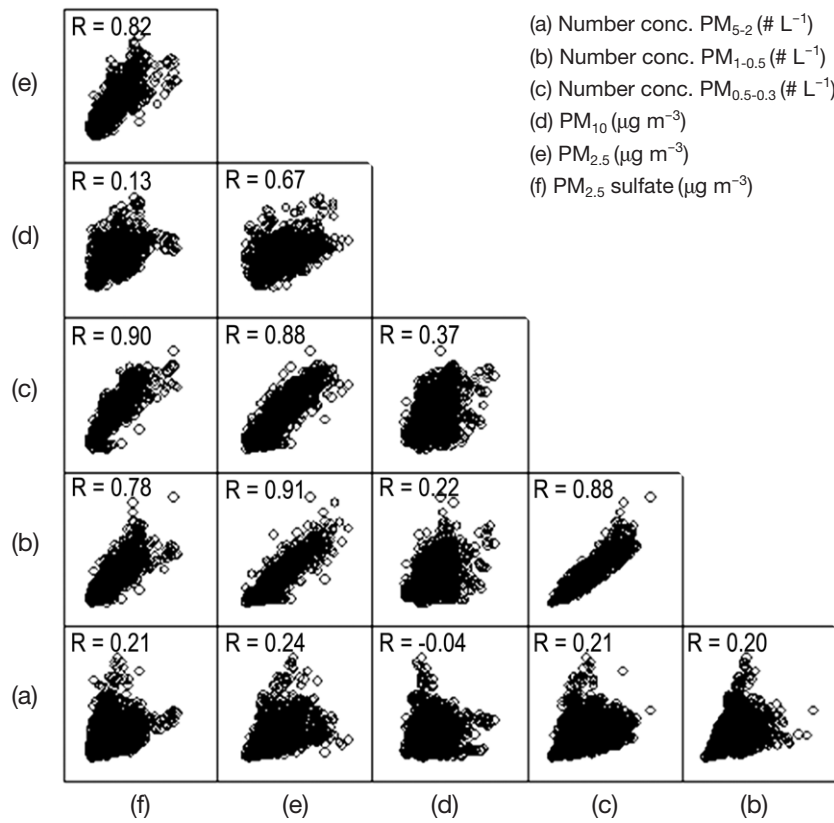


Fig. 1. Inter correlations among $PM_{2.5}$ sulfate, $PM_{2.5}$, PM_{10} , and numberconcentration of size-resolved PMs.

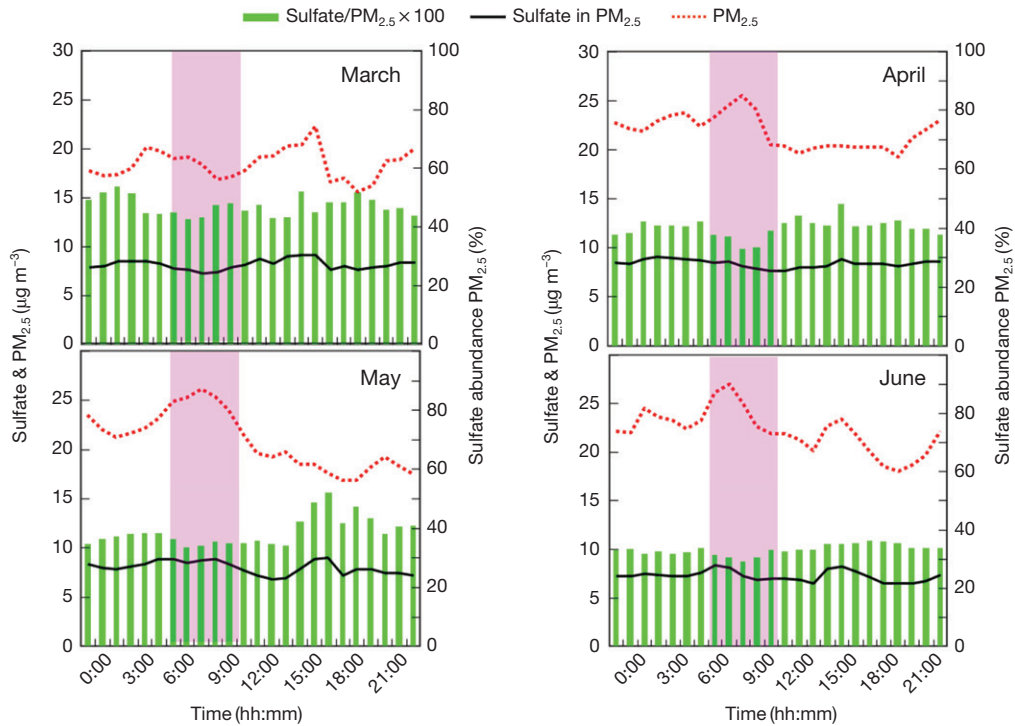
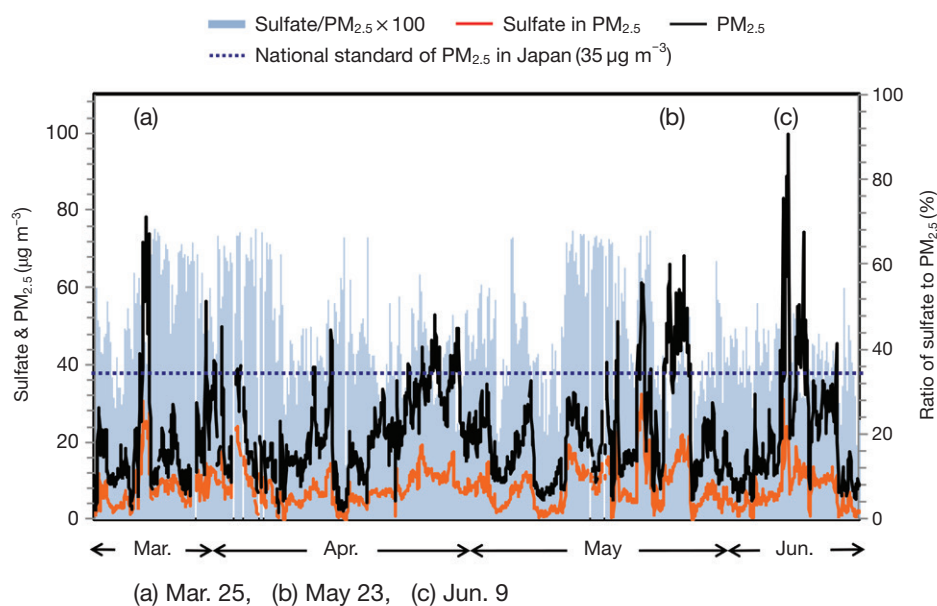


Fig. 2. Timely fluctuation of hourly-averaged $PM_{2.5}$ sulfate in $PM_{2.5}$ and $PM_{2.5}$ in four serial months from March to June.

Table 1. Statistical summary of PM_{2.5} sulfate, PM_{2.5}, and the fraction of PM_{2.5} sulfate to PM_{2.5} monitored at 10-min intervals.

		Average	Min.	Max.	S.D. ^a
March (n=1,584) ^b	PM _{2.5} sulfate ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$)	8.13	7.29	9.17	0.51
	PM _{2.5} ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$)	18.34	15.62	22.22	1.57
	Sulfate fraction (%) ^c	47.09	42.54	53.91	3.27
April (n=4,176)	PM _{2.5} sulfate ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$)	8.36	7.56	9.12	0.41
	PM _{2.5} ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$)	21.84	19.28	25.51	1.73
	Sulfate fraction (%)	39.99	32.77	47.86	3.18
May (n=4,320)	PM _{2.5} sulfate ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$)	8.85	6.85	9.01	0.66
	PM _{2.5} ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$)	20.88	16.91	26.13	2.91
	Sulfate fraction (%)	39.07	33.52	52.04	4.96
June (n=2,160)	PM _{2.5} sulfate ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$)	7.22	6.44	8.34	0.05
	PM _{2.5} ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$)	22.17	18.05	27.04	2.27
	Sulfate fraction (%)	33.14	29.02	36.35	1.85

^a: standard deviation^b: data number taken at 10-min intervals^c: PM_{2.5} sulfate/PM_{2.5} × 100**Fig. 3.** Trends in time-series variation of PM_{2.5} sulfate and PM_{2.5} from March to June.

and PM_{2.5} show a severe temporal fluctuation. As might be expected, the maximum level of PM_{2.5} was marked during the morning rush-hour and beginning of work from 06:00AM to 09:00AM during the whole period with the exception of March. Meanwhile, in the case of PM_{2.5} sulfate, there was no meaningful diurnal fluctuation through the whole period. The highest monthly average PM_{2.5} sulfate was found in May (8.85 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$), followed by April (8.36 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$), March (8.13 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$), and June (7.22 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$). Meanwhile, the fraction of PM_{2.5} sulfate to PM_{2.5} was marked the highest level in March (47.09%), followed by April (39.99%),

May (39.07%), and June (33.14%). Details on monthly PM_{2.5} sulfate, PM_{2.5}, and the fraction of PM_{2.5} sulfate to PM_{2.5} monitored at 10-min intervals during spring season are statistically summarized in Table 1.

Fig. 3 shows the trends in time-series variation of PM_{2.5} sulfate and PM_{2.5} measured at an interval of 10 minutes from March to June. The drastic variations of high-time resolved PM_{2.5} sulfate and PM_{2.5} were still found in the whole monitoring period. The Japanese central government's safety standard for PM_{2.5} is a 35 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ hourly-average of over a 24-hour period, and a 15 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ annually. Many local governments in west-

ern Japan, especially Fukuoka, are providing detailed hourly $PM_{2.5}$ data on their websites and have adopted stricter policies. They also issue a $PM_{2.5}$ warning to their residents when $PM_{2.5}$ levels of $35 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ are reached. The cases exceed $35 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ and $15 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ reached 10.11% and 51.21%, respectively during our four months campaign. The temporal variation of $PM_{2.5}$ sulfate (average $7.02 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) looks very similar to that of $PM_{2.5}$. The fraction of $PM_{2.5}$ sulfate to $PM_{2.5}$ varied from 12.05% to 68.11% with the average value of 35.49%. The values of $[PM_{2.5} \text{ sulfate}/PM_{2.5} \times 100]$ over 50% accounted for 14.78% of full data throughout the entire period of monitoring.

Meanwhile, average $PM_{2.5}$ sulfate, $PM_{2.5}$, and the fraction of $PM_{2.5}$ sulfate to $PM_{2.5}$ during three rainy periods were $2.17 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, $11.24 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, and 15.53%, respectively. Therefore, it is fairly certain that the wash-out of pollutants, especially water-soluble sulfate, by precipitation relieves temporarily the air pollution in urban area.

Yang *et al.* (2011) characterized the $PM_{2.5}$ speciation in representative megacities across China. According to their study, $PM_{2.5}$ in Beijing, Chongqing, Shanghai, Guangzhou were $118.5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (yearly average), $129.0 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (yearly average), $67.6 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (yearly average), $81.7 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (wintertime average), respectively. $PM_{2.5}$ sulfate at same four megacities in China were $15.8 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, $25.6 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, $13.0 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, $12.6 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, respectively. The $PM_{2.5}$ of Fukuoka in this study is fairly lower in comparison with the lowest $PM_{2.5}$ level among the cities in China. However, the fraction of $PM_{2.5}$ sulfate to $PM_{2.5}$ with average value of 35.49% is overwhelmingly higher than those of Chinese cities ranged from 6.9% to 19.8%. This result indicates that the high proportion of sulfate in $PM_{2.5}$ is an obvious characteristic

of the ambient $PM_{2.5}$ in Fukuoka during the spring-time. Therefore, it can be said that reductions in sulfate, fundamentally SO_2 , lead to net reductions in $PM_{2.5}$ mass concentration in Fukuoka during the spring season.

3.3 Discussions on Unusually High $PM_{2.5}$ Sulfate

In Fig. 3, there were three event days unusually high $PM_{2.5}$ sulfate ((a) Mar. 25, (b) May 23, and (c) Jun. 9). The $PM_{2.5}$ sulfates in these three episodic days were over $30 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. In order to discuss on this unusually high $PM_{2.5}$ sulfate, we drawn the back trajectories at 500 and 1000 m altitudes on three event days of highly recorded $PM_{2.5}$ sulfate using the National Oceanic Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) HYSPLIT (HYbrid Single-Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory) dispersion-trajectory model "backwards" (<http://www.arl.noaa.gov>). The result of back trajectories (the left of Fig. 4) is displayed in Fig. 4 with the source distribution in the highlighted region of Fukuoka (the right of Fig. 4).

In the cases of Mar. 25 (i.e., a dust storm occurred), the air parcels were coming from the Chinese continent. Dupont *et al.* (2015) reported that the metal oxides present in mineral dust can act as atmospheric photo catalysts promoting the formation of fine H_2SO_4 and sulfate particles. Therefore, the episodically high $PM_{2.5}$ sulfate on Mar. 25 was probably promoted by mineral dust and/or the local sources distributed at upwind region.

Meanwhile, the prevailing wind on May 23 was originated from the south-western part of Kyusyu Island and the Pacific Ocean. The oceanic emission of dimethylsulfide (DMS: CH_3SCH_3) is known to be a major pri-

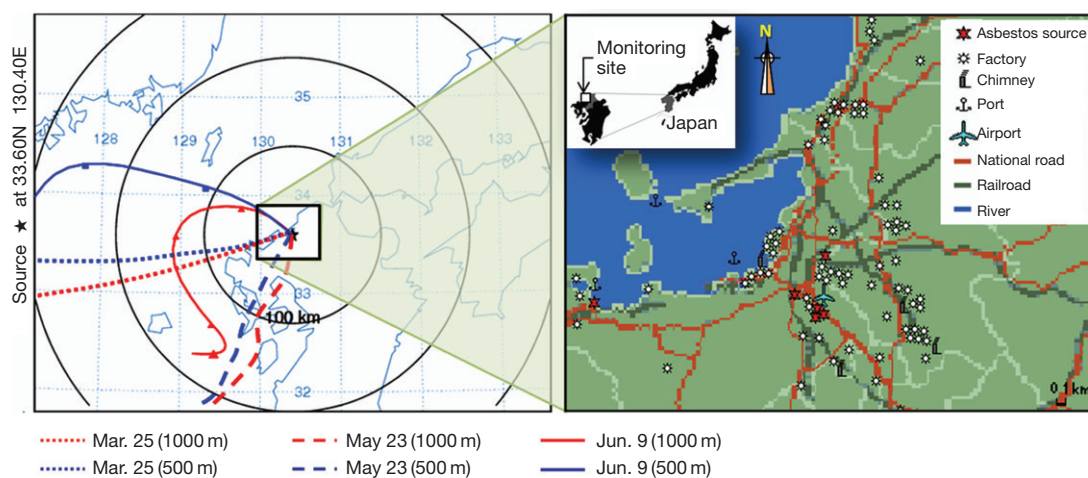


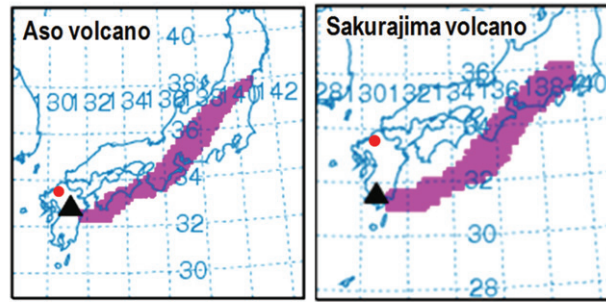
Fig. 4. Back trajectories at 500 and 1000 m altitudes on three event days of highly recorded $PM_{2.5}$ sulfate (left) and the source distribution in the highlighted region of Fukuoka (right).

mary source of natural sulfur in the remote marine atmosphere (Luria and Sievering, 1991; Bates *et al.*, 1987). Therefore the highest mass concentration of PM_{2.5} sulfate observed on May 23 was probably influenced by the sulfate aerosol formed by the heterogeneous and homogeneous oxidations of SO₂ in the remote marine atmosphere.

The air parcel of Jun. 9 arrived at our sampling site after passing through the Korean Strait, where a large number of ships including oil tanker and large transport ships are sailing. Ships are major sources of atmospheric pollutants. In Europe, the emissions of SO₂ and NO_x from shipping are projected to exceed all the land-based emissions by 2020 (European Commission, 2005). In the Baltic Sea and the North Sea, the average SO₂ emissions out of 22 ships were 54 ± 13 kg h⁻¹ and 42 ± 11 kg h⁻¹, respectively (Berg *et al.*, 2012). Consequently, the heightened PM_{2.5} sulfate level on Jun. 9 was possibly due to the liner shipping, coastal liner, and fishery on the Korean Strait and Japanese coast.

Aso volcano (32.88°N, 131.11°E) and Sakurajima volcano (31.35°N, 130.39°E) located in the central Kyushu Island and the bosom of Kagosima bay of Kyusyu, respectively are the world's most active volcanoes. In recent years, they have been the sites of frequent ash eruption. Volcanic eruption also typically releases SO₂, sulfate, and other sulfur-containing species (Iino and Terada, 2003). It is therefore very meaningful to examine the transport and dispersion of the volcanic ashes on May 22 because the prevailing wind on May 23 was originated from the south-western part of Kyusyu Island. We ran the time dependent 3-dimensional Volcanic Ash Forecast Transport And Dispersion (VAFTAD) model developed by the National Oceanic Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) Air Resources Laboratory (ARL) (Heffter and Stunder, 1993). The VAFTAD calculates transport and dispersion of volcanic aerosol particles from an ash column extending from the volcano summit to the column top. The input data for model calculation are eruption time, coordinates (start point), and height of source. The forecast meteorological fields for VAFTAD model are routinely generated from National Centers for Environmental Prediction (NCEP) daily runs of the Global Forecast System (GFS) model and the North American Mesoscale (NAM) model. More detailed model description of the VAFTAD was given by Heffter and Stunder (1993).

Fig. 5 shows the visual ash clouds forecasted by the NOAA's volcanic ash model at surface-FL550 during 6 h from eruption at two volcanoes on May 22. As displayed in Fig. 5, the VAFTAD simulation result indicates that both volcanic ash plumes bounded for the east part of each volcano for a while after eruption and then it moved toward to the southeast. Thus, the pres-



• : Field study site

Fig. 5. Visual ash clouds forecasted by the NOAA's volcanic ash model at surface-FL550 during 6 h from eruption at two volcanoes on May 22, 2008.

ent monitoring site appears not to be affected by the volcanic ash plumes.

3.4 Theoretically Calculated Number Concentration of (NH₄)₂SO₄ in PM_{0.5-0.3}

As discussed earlier, there was a strong correlation between PM_{2.5} sulfate and the number concentration of PM_{0.5-0.3}. It is very meaningful to examine the chemical forms of PM_{2.5} sulfate probably classified as (NH₄)₂SO₄, NH₄HSO₄, and H₂SO₄. For this reason, we tried to calculate the theoretical number concentration of (NH₄)₂SO₄ in PM_{0.5-0.3} and then that was plotted with the diurnal PM_{2.5} sulfate concentration.

The theoretical number concentration of (NH₄)₂SO₄ in PM_{0.5-0.3} was calculated by the equation below.

$$N.C._{(NH_4)_2SO_4} = N.C._{PM_{0.5-0.3}} \cdot \frac{C_{(NH_4)_2SO_4}}{\rho_{(NH_4)_2SO_4}} \cdot \left[\sum_i^n \frac{C_{spe.}}{\rho_{spe.}} \right]^{-1}$$

where $N.C.$ is number concentration (# L⁻¹), C is mass concentration (μg m⁻³), ρ is density (g cm⁻³), $spe.$ is each composition of five-major species ($n=5$) of PM_{2.5}.

Higo *et al.* (2013) reported that the major components of PM_{2.5} collected at 14-outdoor sites in Fukuoka were sulfate, nitrate, elemental carbon (EC), and organic carbon (OC) and their sum accounted for 82% of PM_{2.5}. Therefore, in this study, EC, OC, (NH₄)₂SO₄, NH₄NO₃, and NH₄Cl were selected as the $spe.$ in above equation.

The concentration of ammonium salts i.e., (NH₄)₂SO₄, NH₄NO₃, and NH₄Cl were theoretically calculated by follows:

$$C_{(NH_4)_2SO_4} = C_{SO_4^{2-}} \cdot \frac{M.W._{(NH_4)_2SO_4}}{M.W._{SO_4}}$$

$$C_{NH_4NO_3} = C_{NO_3^-} \cdot \frac{M.W._{NH_4NO_3}}{M.W._{NO_3}}$$

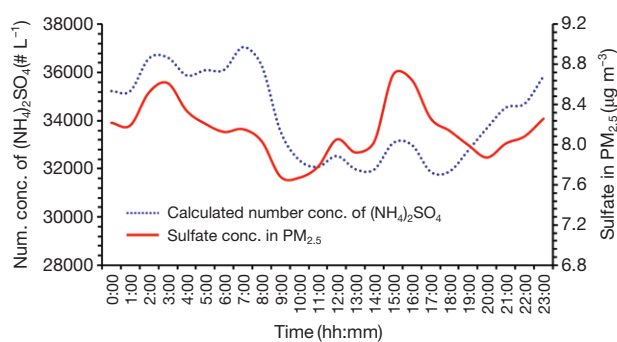


Fig. 6. Diurnal variation of the theoretically calculated number concentration of $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ in $\text{PM}_{0.5-0.3}$ ($\# \text{L}^{-1}$) and $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ sulfate concentration ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$).

$$C_{\text{NH}_4\text{Cl}} = C_{\text{Cl}^-} \cdot \frac{M.W._{\text{NH}_4\text{Cl}}}{A.W._{\text{Cl}}}$$

where $M.W.$ and $A.W.$ are molecular weight and atomic weight, respectively.

Fig. 6 shows the diurnal variations of the theoretically calculated number concentration of $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ in $\text{PM}_{0.5-0.3}$ ($\# \text{L}^{-1}$) and $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ sulfate concentration ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$).

Although their variations do not match perfectly, there is a close correspondent diurnal fluctuation. This result indicates that the secondary formed $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ was the primary form of sulfate in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ during our monitoring period. Moreover, $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ sulfate ion was usually fully neutralized to $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ during our monitoring campaign.

4. CONCLUSIONS

A clear understanding of the uncertainty related to $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ sulfate, which plays an important role in the ambient atmosphere at both emission source and receptor sites, is essential to urban air quality improvement. In addition, a good time-resolved monitoring for $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ sulfate and relevant PMs will provide us with valuable knowledge regarding their health effect as well as formation process, and transport. In the present study, several comprehensive evaluations of the $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ sulfate together with relevant species were performed. As discussed earlier, air pollution in the countries of East Asia is not only a domestic issue anymore. Accordingly, in order to find the cross-border solution to the long-range transboundary air pollution, the relevant nations (i.e., China, Japan, and South Korea) have to agree more actively to share data on pollutants. Consequently, the results obtained in this study would help policy makers to develop effective regional emission control strategies

toward improving the air quality of urban areas in East Asia.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

We express our sincere thanks to Ph.D. R. Cao, Tokyo Dylec Co., for his experimental support.

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(Received 27 July 2015, revised 28 October 2015, accepted 31 October 2015)