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# Ultrafine particle and fine trace metal (As, Cd, Cu, Pb and Zn) pollution episodes induced by industrial emissions in Huelva, SW Spain

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# HIGHLIGHTS

▶ We studied how industrial emissions contribute to ultrafine particles (UP).

▶ Traffic and industrial UP episodes are identified from the relation of UP and PM<sub>2.5</sub>.

▶ Road traffic emissions, in the morning rush hours, are associated with OM and BC.

▶ Industrial plumes, during daylight, are related with heavy metals.

▶ Industrial emissions are the first cause of high UP in Huelva city.

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# ABSTRACT

Urban air quality impairment by ultrafine particles has become a matter of concern due to the adverse effects on human health. Most of the studies of ultrafine particles in urban air guality have focused on vehicle exhaust emissions. We studied how industrial emissions contribute to ultrafine particle concentrations in downwind urban ambient air. This research is based on experimental data collected in the ambient air of the industrial city of Huelva (SW Spain) over April 2008-December 2009 period (particle number, gaseous pollutants and black carbon concentrations and levels and chemical composition of PM<sub>10</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> with daily and hourly resolution). This city is affected by emissions from the second largest Cu-smelter in Europe, phosphoric acid and fertilizer production plants and an oil refinery and petrochemical plant. Industrial emissions are the main cause of ultrafine particle episodes. When vehicle exhaust emissions are the main source, ultrafine particles typically show (24-h mean) concentrations within the range 14,700–5000 cm<sup>-3</sup> (50th–1st), with 60% of these linked to this source and 30% to industrial emissions. In contrast, when daily mean levels of N are within the range 50,000 -25,500 cm<sup>-3</sup> (100th-70th), industrial and vehicle exhaust emissions accounted for 49 and 30%, respectively. High concentrations of toxic trace metals (As, Cu, Cd, Zn and Pb) were recorded when the study city suffered fumigations of the Cu-smelter plumes (e.g. 10–25 ng m $^{-3}$  As, 1–2 ng m $^{-3}$  Cd and >10<sup>5</sup> cm<sup>-3</sup> of ultrafine particles). Because of these industrial emissions, ultrafine particle concentrations during daylight are about two times higher than those observed in other European cities. Recently, ultrafine particle emissions in vehicle exhausts have been subject to limit values in a recent stage of the EURO standards. Industrial emissions should also be considered.

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# 1. Introduction

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1352-2310/\$ – see front matter © 2012 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2012.08.003 Epidemiological studies performed during recent decades have shown that in urban areas there is a relationship between the mass concentration of particles smaller than 10 and 2.5  $\mu$ m aerodynamic



111 diameter (PM<sub>10</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub>, respectively) and cardiovascular and 112 respiratory morbidity (WHO, 2005). Because of this, standards for 113 PM<sub>10</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> have been set in many countries. More recent studies 114 reveal that some of the cardiovascular effects attributed to exposure 115 to PM<sub>2.5</sub> may be due to ultrafine particles (diameter smaller than 116 0.1 µm; Araujo & Nel, 2009). Ultrafine particles typically account for 117 80-90% of the total number concentrations and for <10% of the 118 PM<sub>2.5</sub> particle mass concentration (Putaud et al., 2010 and references 119 therein). Most of the  $PM_{2.5}$  mass concentrations (>90%) occur in the 120 accumulation mode  $(0.1-1 \,\mu m)$ . As a consequence ultrafine particles 121 are not properly monitored using PM<sub>10</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> as air quality 122 assessment metrics. The total number concentration of particles 123 coarser than a given size (usually 2 or 10 nanometres) has been used 124 as a metric representative of ultrafine particles (e.g. Puustinen et al., 125 2007). Size-resolved measurements have been used to study the 126 sources and processes contributing to ultrafine particles (e.g. Casati 127 et al., 2007). The correlation between particle number and  $PM_{2.5}$ 128 concentrations in urban ambient air is rather weak (Putaud et al., 129 2010). In urban areas it has been observed that organic matter and 130 elemental carbon are the only two PM<sub>2.5</sub> components that may 131 significantly correlate with the particle number, with this being 132 attributed to vehicle exhaust emissions (Rodríguez et al., 2007). 133 Because of the concern linked to ultrafine particle ambient air 134 pollution, standards for particle number emissions have been set in 135 EURO-5b (Regulation 692/2008).

136 Although biogenic SOA emissions may in general contribute to 137 ultrafine and organic carbon concentrations, the high correlation 138 between OC and BC in the study area points to anthropogenic 139 emissions (industrial plus vehicle exhaust emissions) as dominant 140 source. Particles emitted by this source tend to be bimodal, exhib-141 iting a nucleation mode (<30 nm), constituted by sulphuric acid 142 droplets that may be covered by condensed hydrocarbons, and 143 a soot mode (50-200 nm; Kittelson, 1998). The formation rate of 144 the nucleation mode particles is significantly influenced by ambient 145 air conditions (e.g. wind speed, temperature and humidity; Casati 146 et al., 2007). The soot mode is constituted by light-absorbing 147 elemental carbon, primary organic carbon, condensed metals and 148 sulphates and some carcinogenic organic pollutants (e.g. polycyclic 149 aromatic hydrocarbons; Morawska and Zhang, 2002).

150 Up to the present date, modest attention has been paid to other 151 potential major anthropogenic sources of ultrafine particles, even 152 though it is well known that some activities may release large 153 amounts of gaseous precursors. This is the case of some industrial 154 activities that release large amounts of SO<sub>2</sub> and/or hydrocarbons. 155 Sulphuric acid plays a key role in nucleation and new particle 156 formation processes (Kulmala et al., 2004). These emissions result 157 in gas-to-particle conversion processes that may prompt ultrafine 158 and accumulation mode (0.1-1 µm) particle pollution. Nucleation 159 of sulphur gases followed by particle growth by condensation 160 and/or coagulation may result in the formation of ultrafine and fine 161 particles and both (especially the latter) result in PM<sub>2.5</sub> pollution. 162 These particles may be externally or internally mixed with trace 163 elements linked to industrial emissions.

164 The development of techniques or methods for identifying the 165 sources contributing to ultrafine particles is a major challenge in 166 urban air quality nowadays. Several attempts have been made, by 167 studying the relationship between particle number and PM<sub>2.5</sub> 168 composition (Pey et al., 2009), by performing speciation of organic 169 compounds (Kleeman et al., 2009) and by using the relationship 170 between black carbon and particle number with a high time reso-171 lution (Rodríguez and Cuevas, 2007).

172 In this study we focused on identifying the sources and processes 173 contributing to the number concentration of particles coarser than 174 2.5 nm in an urban area affected by industrial emissions. Different 175 methods were used. Particle number concentrations were analysed

using: 1) 1-h data of black carbon, trace gases and meteorological parameters measured over two years, 2) 1-h resolution data of PM<sub>2.5</sub> elemental composition, and 3) receptor-modelling techniques based on 2-years' data of 24-h average PM<sub>2.5</sub> chemical composition. Results show that the contribution of industrial emissions to ultrafine particles in the urban ambient air of industrial cities is comparable to that of vehicle exhausts.

# 2. Methodology

# 2.1. Study area

The study city (Huelva; 37°15'0"N, 6°57'0"W, 54 m.a.s.l) is located in SW Spain (Fig. 1). Air pollutants are mostly emitted by vehicle exhausts and by industrial activities in two estates to the south of Huelva: Punta del Sebo and Nuevo Puerto (Fig. 1). The second largest Cu-smelter factory in Europe (which emits SO<sub>2</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>, As, Sb, Pb, Zn and Sn) and a fertilizer and phosphoric acid production plant (which emits NH4<sup>+</sup> and Na phosphate, phosphoric acid, sulphuric acid and sodium silicate) are located in Punta del Sebo. A crude oil refinery and a petrochemical complex (which



Fig. 1. Map of Huelva. Green lines indicate main roads and motorways around Huelva city. Punta del Sebo and Nuevo Puerto Industrial Estates and the University Campus measurement site are highlighted. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

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emits SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>x</sub>, NH<sub>3</sub>, Ni, V and a wide variety of hydrocarbons) are to be found in Nuevo Puerto. Pollutants emitted by these industries are described in previous works (De la Rosa et al., 2010; Fernández-Camacho et al., 2010a; Sánchez de la Campa et al., 2011) and in the European Pollution and Emission Register (http://eper.ec. europa.eu/eper/). These industrial emissions can reach the city of Huelva on the southerly winds episodically linked to specific synoptic conditions or on an almost daily basis linked to the development of coastal breezes during daylight (Castell et al., 2010).

# 2.2. Experimental data

Concentrations of gaseous pollutants and levels and composition of atmospheric particulate matter were monitored in an urban background station (37°16′13.1″, 6°55′30.9″ m.a.s.l) located at the University Campus on the northern side of the city. The site is situated about 7 km from Punta del Sebo Estate and about 14 km from Nuevo Puerto Estate. Moreover, two entry roads to the city are located about 500 m to the west and about 1000 m to the east of the measurement site. The measurements used for this study were collected from April 2008 to December 2009.

#### 2.2.1. Particle number, black carbon, $PM_{10}$ and $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations

Details of the experimental methods have been presented by Fernández-Camacho et al. (2010b). Thus a brief summary is performed here. The particle number (PN) was monitored using a TSI<sup>TM</sup> 3776 model Ultrafine Condensation Particle Counter (UCPC). The instrument records data averaged at 1-min intervals and detects particles coarser than 2.5 nanometres (nm) operating in high-flow mode (1.5  $l m^{-1}$ ). Because 80–90% of particles in urban air are <0.1 µm, PN is considered representative of ultrafine particle number concentration. Black carbon (BC) concentration was monitored using a Thermo<sup>™</sup> Carusso model 5012 Multi-Angle Absorption Photometer (MAAP). BC concentrations were calculated using a mass-specific attenuation cross-section equal to 10.31  $m^2 g^{-1}$ (Fernández-Camacho et al., 2010b). Instruments were intercompared before the measurement campaign and calibrated for airflow on a weekly basis using a Gilibrator™ bubble-flow meter. Data availability was 90% for BC and 70% for particle number.

 $PM_{10}$  and  $PM_{2.5}$  were sampled (24-h) using EU reference methods: a Graseby Andersen<sup>™</sup> sampler (68 m<sup>3</sup> h<sup>-1</sup>, EN-12341) for  $PM_{10}$  and a MCV<sup>™</sup> (30 m<sup>3</sup> h<sup>-1</sup>, EN-14907) for  $PM_{2.5}$ . The sampling frequency was 1 sampling day (00:00–00:00 GMT) every four days in 2008 and every eight days in 2009. MUNKELL<sup>™</sup> microquartz fibre filters were used. Filters were conditioned at 20 °C and 25% RH before weighting previous and after sampling. Blank field filters were also used.

Hourly levels of PM<sub>10</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> were monitored using a GRIMM<sup>™</sup> optical particle counter. Their concentrations were converted to the gravimetric equivalent by comparing with the EU (gravimetric) reference method using the EU standardized method (EC Working Group on Particle Matter report, 2002).

#### 2.2.2. Gaseous pollutants, meteorology and road traffic data

Concentrations of gaseous pollutants (SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>x</sub> and O<sub>3</sub>) were monitored with 1-h resolution using the reference methods of the European air quality directives (2008b/50/EC). Meteorological parameters (wind speed and direction, temperature, relative humidity, pressure and global radiation), monitored in a station less than 2 km away managed by the Meteorological State Agency (AEMET), and road traffic intensity data (number of vehicles  $h^{-1}$ ), recorded on the two roads close to the measurement site, were also used. These data were obtained during 2008 and 2009 with 1-h resolution.

306 2.2.3. Bulk chemical composition of particles: 24-h resolution 307 Samples of PM<sub>10</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> collected on the microquartz fibre filters were chemically analysed using the method of Querol et al. 308 (2008). This method includes ICP-OES and ICP-MS for elemental 309 310 composition, Ion Chromatography for ions  $(SO_4^{2-}, NO_3^{-},$  $Cl^{-}$  and  $NH_{4}^{+}$ ) and the LECO SC-144 DR instrument for total carbon. 311 312 Average precision and accuracy are within the range of 3–10% for 313 most elements and compounds. Silica and carbonate were estimated by stoichiometry using the Ca, Mg and Al data (Querol et al., 2001). 314

A set of 62 samples of PM<sub>10</sub> and 59 samples of PM<sub>2.5</sub> were selected for the analysis of organic carbon (OC) and elemental carbon (EC), using the Thermo Optical Transmittance technique (Birch and Cary, 1996) and a Sunset Laboratory<sup>™</sup> instrument with the default temperature steps of the EUSAAR2 program. The filters were selected in a homogeneous way, covering a representative range of concentrations of the area of study during the four seasons. The EC data were used to determine the mass-specific attenuation cross-section by comparison with the absorption coefficient measured by the MAAP. Then, mean black carbon (BC) concentrations were determined for each PM<sub>10</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> sample. To determine the BC load in PM<sub>2.5</sub>, the mean ratio of BC in PM<sub>2.5</sub>/BC in PM<sub>10</sub> was used. A mass-absorption efficiency of 10.31  $\pm$  0.25  $m^2\,g^{-1}$  and a mean BC in  $PM_{2.5}/BC$  in  $PM_{10}$  ratio equal to 0.74  $\pm$  0.025 was obtained (see details in Fernández-Camacho et al., 2010b). Then, the organic carbon in each PM<sub>10</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> sample was determined as the difference between TC and BC. Finally, the organic matter was estimated by multiplying OC concentrations by 1.8 to take the contribution of other atoms into account (Turpin and Lim, 2001).

A total of 136 samples of  $PM_{10}$  and 134 samples of  $PM_{2.5}$  collected from April 2008 to December 2009 were analysed using this method (Table 1).

#### 2.2.4. Elemental composition of particles: 1-h resolution

A 'streaker' sampler (PIXE International Corporation) was employed to collect samples of fine (<2.5  $\mu$ m aerodynamic diameter) and coarse (2.5–10  $\mu$ m) particles with one hour resolution (D'Alessandro et al., 2003). A paraffin-coated kapton foil was used as an impaction surface for coarse particles and a Nuclepore filter as a fine particle collector. Elemental composition was determined by PIXE in the LABEC laboratory at INFN in Florence (Italy): Ti, V, Cr, Mn, Fe, Ni, Cu, Zn, As, Se, Sr and Pb as trace elements and Na, Mg, Al, Si, P, S, Cl, K and Ca as major elements. Concentration uncertainties were around 5%. Detection limits were about 10 ng m<sup>-3</sup> for low-Z elements and 1 ng m<sup>-3</sup> (or below) for medium-high Z elements. (Chiari et al., 2006). The sampling was performed from 15th to 22nd October 2009.

#### 2.3. Data treatment

#### 2.3.1. Components of ultrafine particles

In order to identify the sources and processes that contribute to the particle number concentrations, PN was split into two components (Rodríguez and Cuevas, 2007):

$$PN1 = S1 \cdot BC \tag{1}$$

$$PN2 = PN - PN1 \tag{2}$$

where  $S1 = 6.9 \ 10^6 \ particles \ ng^{-1} \ BC$  is the minimum slope observed in the PN vs BC plot in our measurement site and represents the minimum number of particles formed/emitted per nanogram of BC emitted by vehicle exhausts (Fig. 2).

In cities where black carbon is dominated by vehicle exhaust emissions, this method allows to segregate the contribution of this source from that of other sources to the ultrafine particle

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#### Table 1

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Mean chemical composition of PM10 and PM2.5 in Huelva from April 2008 to December 2009. NS: number of samples. OM: organic matter. SIC: secondary inorganic compounds.

	NS	PM <sub>10</sub> 136		PM <sub>2.5</sub> 134		PM <sub>2.5-10</sub> 134		
		$\mu g m^{-3}$	%	$\mu g \ m^{-3}$	%	$\mu g m^{-3}$	%	
-	PM	$\textbf{32.7} \pm \textbf{13.0}$		$19.3\pm10.6$		$13.4\pm8.0$		
	OM	$5.8\pm3.6$	18	$\textbf{5.8} \pm \textbf{3.6}$	30	$\textbf{0.0} \pm \textbf{1.9}$	0	
	BC	$\textbf{0.8} \pm \textbf{0.4}$	2	$\textbf{0.6} \pm \textbf{0.4}$	3	$\textbf{0.2}\pm\textbf{0.2}$	2	
	nss-SO4 <sup>2–</sup>	$\textbf{3.0} \pm \textbf{2.0}$	9	$\textbf{2.7} \pm \textbf{1.6}$	14	$\textbf{0.3}\pm\textbf{0.6}$	2	
	$NO_3^-$	$2.6 \pm 1.7$	8	$1.0 \pm 1.1$	5	$1.6 \pm 1.2$	12	
	$NH_4^+$	$\textbf{0.8} \pm \textbf{0.6}$	3	$\textbf{0.8} \pm \textbf{0.7}$	4	$\textbf{0.0} \pm \textbf{0.6}$	0	
	Na	$1.3\pm1.0$	4	$\textbf{0.5}\pm\textbf{0.3}$	3	$\textbf{0.8} \pm \textbf{0.6}$	6	
	Cl-	$1.2\pm1.4$	4	$\textbf{0.2}\pm\textbf{0.4}$	1	$1.0\pm1.1$	7	
	ss-SO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup>	$0.3\pm0.2$	1	$0.1 \pm 0.1$	1	$\textbf{0.2}\pm\textbf{0.2}$	1	
	$CO_3^{=}$	$\textbf{2.2} \pm \textbf{1.2}$	7	$\textbf{0.8} \pm \textbf{0.4}$	4	$1.5 \pm 1.0$	11	
	SiO <sub>2</sub>	$\textbf{4.6} \pm \textbf{2.7}$	14	$1.3\pm0.8$	6	$\textbf{3.3} \pm \textbf{2.3}$	25	
	$Al_2O_3$	$1.5\pm0.9$	5	$\textbf{0.4} \pm \textbf{0.3}$	2	$1.1\pm0.8$	8	
	Ca	$1.0\pm0.6$	3	$\textbf{0.4} \pm \textbf{0.2}$	2	$\textbf{0.7}\pm\textbf{0.6}$	5	
	К	$0.4\pm0.2$	1	$\textbf{0.2}\pm\textbf{0.2}$	1	$\textbf{0.2}\pm\textbf{0.1}$	1	
	Mg	$0.3\pm0.1$	1	$0.1\pm0.1$	0	$0.2\pm0.1$	1	
	Fe	$\textbf{0.6} \pm \textbf{0.3}$	2	$0.2\pm0.1$	1	$\textbf{0.4} \pm \textbf{0.3}$	3	
-	$PO_4^{3-}$	0.2 ± 0.2	1	0.1 ± 0.1	0	0.1 ± 0.2	1	
_		ng m <sup>-3</sup>	‰	ng m <sup>-3</sup>	‰	ng m <sup>-3</sup>	‰	
	Ti	$46.5\pm30.1$	1.4	$17.8\pm29.9$	0.9	$\textbf{28.7} \pm \textbf{25.0}$	2.1	
	V	$5.3 \pm 4.2$	0.2	$3.4\pm3.2$	0.2	$1.9 \pm 1.5$	0.1	
	Cr	$2.3\pm2.0$	0.1	$1.6 \pm 4.4$	0.1	$0.7 \pm 1.8$	0.1	
	Mn	$9.6\pm5.2$	0.3	$4.0\pm2.0$	0.2	$5.6 \pm 3.7$	0.4	
	Со	$0.3\pm0.2$	<0.1	$0.2\pm0.1$	<0.1	$0.1\pm0.3$	<0.1	
	Ni	$3.7 \pm 2.8$	0.1	$2.3 \pm 1.7$	0.1	$1.4 \pm 2.0$	0.1	
	Cu	45.3 ± 30.2	1.4	$31.2 \pm 20.4$	1.6	$14.1 \pm 17.5$	1.1	
	Zn	47.4 ± 42.9	1.4	$37.3 \pm 49.5$	1.9	$10.1 \pm 40.4$	0.8	
	As	6.2 ± 7.8	0.2	5.1 ± 7.6	0.3	$1.1 \pm 4.1$	0.1	
	Se	$2.1 \pm 2.8$	0.1	$1.7 \pm 2.8$	0.1	$0.4 \pm 1.6$	<0.1	
	KD	$1.2 \pm 0.7$	<0.1	$0.4 \pm 0.4$	<0.1	$0.8 \pm 0.5$	0.1	
	Sr Mo	$0.2 \pm 2.5$	0.2	$1.3 \pm 0.7$	0.1	$4.9 \pm 1.3$	0.4	
	IVIO Cd	$12.2 \pm 1.0$	0.4	$0.7 \pm 0.9$	<0.1	$11.5 \pm 1.9$	0.9 <0.1	
	Cu Sn	$0.7 \pm 0.9$	0.0	$0.0 \pm 1.0$	<0.1	$0.1 \pm 0.6$	< 0.1	
	Sh	$2.0 \pm 2.0$	0.1 <0.1	$1.3 \pm 1.3$	0.1 <0.1	$1.1 \pm 0.8$	0.1	
	SU Po	$1.0 \pm 0.9$	<0.1 1.0	$0.0 \pm 0.0$	< 0.1	$0.0 \pm 0.5$	0.1	
	Da Dh	$51.9 \pm 46.4$ $14.4 \pm 15.2$	1.0	$19.7 \pm 30.7$ $10.8 \pm 14.3$	1.0	$12.2 \pm 57.2$	0.9	
	Bi	$0.9 \pm 1.1$	<0.4 <0.1	$0.8 \pm 1.0$	< 0.1	$0.1 \pm 0.5$	<0.1	
-		$\mu g m^{-3}$	%	$\mu g m^{-3}$	%	$\mu g m^{-3}$	%	
-	PM	32.7 + 13.0	_	$193 \pm 106$		134 + 80		
	$\Sigma$ chemistry	$26.9 \pm 5.5$	82.1	$15.2 \pm 3.3$	78.5	$11.7 \pm 2.3$	87.3	
		$64 \pm 12$	19.6	$45 \pm 10$	23.4	$19 \pm 0.8$	14.2	
	OM	$5.8 \pm 3.6$	17.8	$5.8 \pm 3.6$	30.0	$0.0 \pm 0.0$	0.2	
	BC	$0.8 \pm 0.4$	2.5	$0.6 \pm 0.6$	3.1	$0.2 \pm 0.2$	1.5	
	Mineral dust	$10.8 \pm 1.4$	32.9	$3.3 \pm 0.4$	17.0	$7.5 \pm 1.0$	55.9	
	Marine	$2.9 \pm 0.5$	8.7	$0.9\pm0.2$	4.4	$2.0 \pm 0.4$	15.0	
		-						

417 418 concentrations. PN1 accounts for the minimum primary emissions 419 of vehicle exhausts and is constituted by the previously described 420 soot mode (light-absorbing elemental carbon, carbonaceous mate-421 rial, trace metals, etc.) and those components nucleating and 422 condensing immediately after emission (e.g. sulphates, condensed 423 hydrocarbons and unburned oil). PN2 accounts for those particles 424 resulting from enhancement in new particle formation processes in 425 several contexts: during the dilution and cooling of vehicle exhausts 426 or in ambient air linked to photochemical processes and/or in gas-427 to-particle conversion processes in precursor plumes. This method 428 has successfully been applied in European cities (Reche et al., 2011). 429

#### 430 2.3.2. Source apportionment

431 The sources that contribute to particle concentration were 432 identified by performing Principal Component Analysis (PCA) fol-433 lowed by varimax rotation. Because the results of the PCA depend 434 on the data set analysed, several combinations of variables were 435 tested. The contribution of each source was quantified by Multi-



Fig. 2. Hourly average values of the particle number (PN) versus black carbon (BC) concentrations between 06:00 and 09:00 h. S1 indicates the line of minimum slope which contains N-vs.-BC data.

Linear Regression Analysis (Thurston and Spengler, 1985). The sources contributing to particle number were identified using the number concentration and  $PM_{2.5}$  composition data. For  $PM_{10}$ ,  $PM_{2.5}$ and PM<sub>2.5-10</sub>, bulk levels and composition data were analysed. Saharan events were excluded from the database in order to prevent the influence of external sources of sulphate, nitrate and other pollutants mixed with dust (Rodríguez et al., 2011).

#### 3. Results and discussion

# 3.1. Chemical composition of particles

The mean chemical composition of  $PM_{10}$  and  $PM_{2.5}$  is shown in Table 1. An average value equal to 32.7  $\pm$  13  $\mu g \; PM_{10} \; m^{-3}$  and 19.3  $\pm$  11 µg PM<sub>2.5</sub> m<sup>-3</sup> was observed. The most important contributors to PM<sub>2.5</sub> were secondary inorganic compounds (sulphate, nitrate and ammonium) and organic matter, which accounted for 23% and 30% of PM<sub>2.5</sub>, respectively. The sulphate load was large, accounting for 14% of PM2.5. Because these compounds mostly occur in the <2.5 µm fraction, their absolute concentrations in PM<sub>10</sub> and PM<sub>25</sub> are close. As expected, the mineral dust and sea salt mostly occur in the coarse 2.5-10 µm fraction. The mean contribution of major species to PM<sub>10</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> is similar to that observed in other cities in Spain (Querol et al., 2004a, 2008). The most significant feature of the  $PM_{10}$ and PM<sub>2.5</sub> composition in Huelva is the high content of toxic trace metals of environmental interest. Concentrations of As, Cu, Zn, Se and Bi are 3–5 times higher than those typically observed in other European cities (Querol et al., 2004b, 2008; Rodríguez et al., 2007; Putaud et al., 2004). Mean concentration of As (6.2 ng m<sup>-3</sup>) is slightly higher than the annual target value of the European standard (6 ng m<sup>-3</sup> in PM<sub>10</sub>; 2004/107/EC).

# 3.2. Influence of industrial emissions on composition and daily evolution of particles

#### 3.2.1. Ultrafine particles and gaseous pollutants

Figure 3 shows the hourly average values for particle number (PN, PN1 and PN2), BC concentrations and gaseous pollutant concentrations, road traffic intensity, road traffic intensity/wind speed and some meteorological parameters and PM<sub>2.5</sub> and PM<sub>2.5-10</sub> concentrations. Working days (Monday to Friday) and weekends are segregated. The influence of vehicle exhaust and industrial emissions on the particle number concentration tends to occur at

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**Fig. 3.** Hourly average values of particles (PN, PN1 and PN2), BC concentrations and gaseous pollutant (NO<sub>x</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub>) concentrations, and of road traffic intensity, the road traffic intensity (number of vehicles/h)/wind speed ratio, of the PN/BC ratio and solar radiation and of PM<sub>2.5</sub> and PM<sub>2.5-10</sub> concentrations, for working days, Saturdays and Sundays during 2008–2009.

different times of day. The sharp increase in road traffic intensity in the morning results in an abrupt rise in PN, BC and  $NO_x$  concentrations due to vehicle exhaust emissions. The enhancement in the dilution conditions and air mass renewal due to the development of inland sea breeze after 09:00 GMT, results in a decrease in the concentration of these vehicles exhaust pollutants, even if the road traffic intensity does not decrease. The correlated weekly evolution of road traffic intensity / wind speed ratio and BC and  $NO_x$ 

concentrations indicates that fresh vehicle exhaust emissions and dilution/ventilation conditions modulate the behaviour of these pollutants (Fig. 3A).

The inland sea breeze blowing from 09:00 to 17:00 GMT is associated with an increase in the sulphur dioxide concentrations (Fig. 3B and C). This is attributed to the inland transport of plumes from the industrial estates located to the south of Huelva (Fig. 1). Observe the correlation between the daily evolution of SO<sub>2</sub>, wind

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speed and solar radiation. The increase in the PN/BC ratio and in PN2 concentrations observed during the inland blowing period is attributed to ultrafine particle formation in the  $SO_2$  plumes. Fernández-Camacho et al. (2010b) showed that there is a strong statistical relationship between PN2 and SO<sub>2</sub>, and between PN1 and  $NO_x$ , in such a way that PN2 tends to show high values during fumigations of industrial plumes, whereas PN1 shows high values linked to vehicle exhaust emissions. Stanier et al. (2004) and Cheung et al. (2011) observed that high particle number concen-tration in industrial SO<sub>2</sub> plumes was due to nucleation burst linked to the sulphuric acid/sulphate particles. During the morning NO<sub>x</sub> maximum period, when ultrafine particles were linked to vehicle exhaust emissions, PN is higher on average value than 23,000 cm<sup>-3</sup>, and PN2 accounted for 53% of PN, whereas during the noon - afternoon SO<sub>2</sub> maximum due to the impact of the industrial plumes, PN is typically higher on average value than 29,000  $\text{cm}^{-3}$ , and PN2 accounted for 70% of PN. 

#### 3.2.2. Ultrafine particles and elemental composition

The mean daily evolution (hourly values) of PN, SO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub> and of PM<sub>2.5</sub> elemental composition observed during the weekdays (Monday to Friday) and weekends (Saturday and Sunday) of the streaker campaign (15th to 22nd October 2009) is shown in Figure 4. The two types of ultrafine particle episodes are recognized:

• *Fresh road traffic emissions.* These are observed during the morning rush hours of the working days and are associated with high concentrations of typical road dust elements (Si, Al, Fe, Mg, K, Ca, Ti and Mn; Amato et al., 2009).

• Fresh industrial plumes. These events are associated with high concentrations of trace metals (As, Cu, Zn, Se, Pb and P) during the central hours of daylight (10:00–17:00 GMT) due to inland transport of the industrial plumes both during weekdays and weekends. The Fig. 4B shows the highest concentrations of PN, trace metals and SO<sub>2</sub> occurring during weekends. This fact can probably be due to the work regime of industrial estates, as during weekends and holidays, the electric cost is cheaper (by 60–70%).

The occurrence of high PN and trace metal concentrations due to the impact of the industrial plumes (containing SO<sub>2</sub>) is clearly observed in Figure 5A. Observe that several events of N and As concentrations as high as  $10^5$  cm<sup>-3</sup> and 18 ng m<sup>-3</sup> occurred during the streaker campaign. Because the stacks of the Cu-smelter and fertilizer plants are very close together in Punta del Sebo Estate (Fig. 1), simultaneous high As and P events occurred due to mixing of the plumes during inland transport.

The hourly evolution of S (in PM<sub>2.5</sub>) and bulk PM<sub>2.5</sub> is compared with that of N and Zn (in PM<sub>2.5</sub>) in Fig. 5B. It can clearly be observed that the PM<sub>2.5</sub> and S concentrations do not properly detect the fumigations of the industrial plumes. Only in the fumigations that occurred on 18th October is an increase in S concentrations observed. Moreover, high S and bulk PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations were observed during periods of non-fumigation or fresh emissions, e.g. 17th October at night. This indicates that S and PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations are linked to aged emissions, i.e. they are aged grown particles occurring in the accumulation mode (0.1–1  $\mu$ m). In contrast, the high PN and SO<sub>2</sub> concentrations are attributed to fresh ultrafine sulphuric acid/sulphate formation in the industrial plumes (Fig. 5A). The contribution of this ultrafine sulphuric acid/sulphate to bulk S (in PM<sub>2.5</sub>) is so low that it does not result in significant increases in the concentration of the S (Fig. 5B). Similar behaviour was identified in Milan (Italy) and Barcelona (Spain) by Rodríguez et al. (2007); they observed that high PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations were associated with particle growth due to condensation of ammonium nitrate and ammonium sulphate in aged air, whereas fresh emissions resulted in much larger increases in ultrafine than in PM<sub>2.5</sub> particles. The streaker data showed that S. V. Ni, Cr and Br did not show a daily pattern, and high concentrations of these elements were recorded linked to specific events.

Observe in Fig. 5C how PN exhibits a high correlation with elements linked to the fresh industrial Cu-smelter emissions (e.g. Zn, Cu and Pb, *r*: 0.48-0.64) and the phosphoric acid-based fertilizer plant (e.g. P, *r* = 0.44). In contrast, PM<sub>2.5</sub> shows high correlation with compounds linked to aged emissions from the oil refinery (S, V and Ni; *r*: 0.4-0.6) and road dust (Fe, Ca, K, Al and Sr; *r*: 0.3-0.4).



Fig. 4. Daily evolution (hourly values) of particle number (PN), gaseous pollutants (NO<sub>x</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub>) and Fe, Al, Zn, Cu and As in PM<sub>2.5</sub> averaged during weekdays (Monday\_Friday) and weekends (Saturday\_Sunday) of the streaker campaign.

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Fig. 5. A–B) Hourly average values of particle number (PN), SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>x</sub>, some trace metals (P, As, Cu and Zn) and sulphur (S) in PM<sub>2.5</sub>. C) Correlation coefficient between PN and all the elements analysed in PM<sub>2.5</sub>. All data have hourly time resolution. Scale factor has been applied for some elements (x 2 for As, x 5 for P/10 for S) in order to adjust the scale of the graphic.

# 3.3. Ultrafine particles episodes

A classification of ultrafine particle events was performed. This was done by identifying the pollutants that tend to increase simultaneously with hourly particle number concentration N. This classification allows the most frequent scenarios in which ultrafine particle events occur to be identified. Eight types of event, in which N experiences simultaneous increases with NO<sub>x</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub>, BC and/or solar radiation, were considered (Table 2). The most frequent time of occurrence and mean concentrations of the measured parameters are included in the analysis. The overall results show that:

- 29% of the peak events in hourly PN concentrations occurred in the morning (08:00 GMT) with concurrent increase of NO<sub>x</sub> and BC concentrations. These type-1 events are attributed to vehicle exhaust emissions.
  - 31% of the peak events in PN were simultaneous with increases in SO<sub>2</sub> concentrations (type 2, 4, 6 and 8). Most of

these events occurred from 13:00 to 14:00 GMT, when industrial plumes typically reach the measurement site. In most of these events (21% of all PN increases) NO<sub>x</sub> was the only pollutant that experienced a simultaneous increase with  $SO_2$  and PN (type-6).

 In ~20% of the events, no increase in the measured pollutants was observed during the increases in PN concentrations. These type-3 events mostly occurred at noon, when simultaneous increases in PN and in solar radiation were observed.

Fig. 6A and B show the mean PN versus SO<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>3</sub> concentrations recorded in all types of events (data included in Table 2). It can clearly be observed how particle number tends to increase with SO<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>3</sub> concentrations. In fact, the highest PN concentrations are recorded during type-6 ( $N = 80,891 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ ) events, which are associated with the highest SO<sub>2</sub> (28 µg m<sup>-3</sup>) and O<sub>3</sub> (98 µg m<sup>-3</sup>) concentrations. This result suggests the significant involvement of photochemistry in the processes involved in the

PM<sub>2.5</sub>, o S/10, m.Bn

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Table 2

Classification of ultrafine particle events. Type, characteristic, frequency, most frequent time of occurrence (GMT), and concentrations of the considered pollutants.

Type of events	PN peak correlated with	F	Time	$\frac{PN}{cm^{-3}}$	PN1 %	PN2 %	$\frac{NO_x}{\mu g \ m^{-3}}$	$\frac{SO_2}{\mu g \ m^{-3}}$	$\frac{BC}{ng m^{-3}}$	$\frac{O_3}{\mu g m^{-3}}$
NO <sub>x</sub> involved		36%								
Type-1	NO <sub>x</sub> and BC	29%	8:00	22,352	37	63	52	8	1351	50
Type-5	NO <sub>x</sub>	7%	13:00	45,989	7	93	33	8	497	74
SO <sub>2</sub> involved		31%								
Type-2	SO <sub>2</sub> , BC and NO <sub>x</sub>	5%	13:00	33,828	16	84	30	20	807	81
Type-4	SO <sub>2</sub>	4%	14:00	71,989	6	94	20	25	622	82
Туре-6	SO <sub>2</sub> and NO <sub>x</sub>	21%	13:30	80,891	5	95	32	28	608	98
Type-8	SO <sub>2</sub> and BC	1%	11:00	23,466	14	86	6	12	472	75
Only BC involved		14%								
Type-7	BC	14%	11:00	18,080	20	80	18	7	603	69
Non primary pollutants		20%								
Type-3	Only solar radiation	20%	12:00	36,994	9	91	20	9	505	76

conversion of SO<sub>2</sub> to ultrafine particles within the industrial plumes during inland transport prompted by sea breeze. Observe how the PN2 contribution to PN increases with O3 concentrations (Fig. 6D). The contribution of PN1 to PN is only significant during type-1 events (primary vehicle exhaust emissions), when it reaches 37% (Table 2). The contribution of PN2 particles to PN is also high during type-3 and 5 events, even if SO<sub>2</sub> concentrations are rather low (8–9  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup>). The relationship between PN2 and O<sub>3</sub> during these events (a linear trend similar to that observed in all events) suggests the involvement of photochemical processes (Fig. 6D). The fact that increases in SO<sub>2</sub> concentrations were not observed in these events could be due to the fact that SO<sub>2</sub> is consumed by conversion to sulphate, or species other than SO<sub>2</sub> are involved in the nucleation and subsequent particle growth (e.g. organic species; Metzger et al., 2010; Sipilä et al., 2010).

# 3.4. Sources that contribute to ultrafine particles

The sources that contribute to ultrafine particles were identified by applying PCA and varimax rotations to data for particle number concentration data and PM<sub>2.5</sub> chemical composition. Different combinations of variables were tested (e.g. PN and PM<sub>2.5</sub> composition, PN1, PN2 and PM2.5 composition, including trace gases and/or meteorological parameters). A PCA with 45 cases and 27 variables was considered using the software package STATISTICA 7. Three Principal Components (PCs) were persistently observed (Table 3):

- APC-1, showing a high association with species linked to industrial emissions from the Cu-smelter ( $nss-SO_4^{-1}$ , As. Sb. Pb. Zn and Sn), the phosphoric acid and fertilizer plant (nss-SO<sub>4</sub><sup>=</sup>, P and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>) and the oil refinery (nss-SO<sub>4</sub><sup>=</sup>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, V and Ni), was persistently observed. The presence of PN2 in this PC is attributed to ultrafine sulphate particle formation in the plume during inland transport prompted by sea breeze. The association of PN2 in this factor is in agreement with the results above obtained using the streaker, which showed high concentrations of PN and trace metals during fumigations of the industrial SO<sub>2</sub> plumes (Figs. 4B and 5A).
- APC-2 associated with road traffic emissions: vehicle exhaust emissions (OM and PN1) plus road dust (Al, Ca, Fe, Ti, Mn and K). The association of this PC with particle number (PN1) is due to vehicle exhaust emissions, with the contribution of road



Fig. 6. Contributions of PN in absolute concentrations (cm<sup>-3</sup>; A and B) and of PN2 in relative concentrations (%, C and D) versus SO<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>3</sub> concentrations. The number near each dot indicates the type of event described in Table 2. A and B) Dotted lines indicate plus/minus one standard deviation.

Table 3 Factor loading of the Principal Components Analysis (followed by a varimax rotaion) obtained using daily data of PM<sub>2.5</sub> chemical composition and of PN1 and PN2 rticloc

1024	particies.			
1025		PC-1	PC-2	PC-3
1026		Industrial	Road traffic	Sea salt
1027	OM	0.37	0.57	-0.10
1028	PN1	0.52	0.59	-0.10
1029	PN2	0.57	0.26	-0.06
1030	nss-SO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2–</sup>	0.84	-0.02	-0.14
1030	NO <sub>3</sub>	0.51	0.26	-0.14
1051	$\rm NH_4^+$	0.87	0.05	-0.29
1032	Na	-0.08	-0.06	0.86
1033	$Cl^{-}$	0.15	-0.03	0.81
1034	Mg	-0.13	0.33	0.83
1035	Al	0.13	0.76	-0.21
1026	Ca	-0.07	0.89	0.14
1030	Fe	0.14	0.95	0.05
1037	11	0.14	0.46	0.25
1038	Mn	0.26	0.83	0.12
1039	K	0.29	0.71	0.13
1040	P	0.07	0.10	0.10
1041	AS Db	0.85	0.20	0.10
1041	FD Cd	0.80	0.21	0.28
1042	V	0.83	0.15	_0.02
1043	Ni	0.74	0.29	0.02
1044	Zn	0.61	0.11	0.31
1045	Cu	0.44	0.13	-0.05
1046	Bi	0.81	0.07	0.39
10/17	Мо	0.53	-0.01	0.21
1047	Sn	0.71	0.44	0.20
1048	Sb	0.41	0.30	-0.29
1049	% Var	39.20	12.00	11.70
1050				

dust considered being almost negligible (road dust is mostly coarse, with a high contribution to mass, but a low contribution to number concentrations). The association of road dust in this PC is attributed to the simultaneous (correlated) increases in road dust and vehicle exhaust components during the morning rush hours (e.g. Fig. 4A). The presence of PN1 in this PC is in agreement with the weekly cycles of NO<sub>x</sub> and PN1 particles described above, which exhibited high values during workingday rush hours (Fig. 3).

 APC-3 showing high factor loading for typical sea salt components (Cl, Na and Mg). As expected, neither of the particle number components, PN1 or PN2, was associated with this factor.

Only two sources contributed significantly to the particle number PN: road traffic accounted for  $50 \pm 9\%$ , whereas industrial emissions accounted for  $44 \pm 7\%$  of PN (Fig. 7). The contribution of sea salt was negligible (<1%), whereas the undetermined fraction (the difference between measured PN and the sum of the identified sources) accounted for 4% (Fig. 7). The contribution of these two





Fig. 7. Mean daily contribution to PN ( $cm^{-3}$  and %) of the different factors identified by the PCA analysis.



Fig. 8. Daily averaged values of BC, As and of the particle number PN linked to vehicle exhaust and industrial emissions.

sources to ultrafine particle concentration in ambient air is of a comparable magnitude: the daily mean contribution of each of these sources to the particle number concentration exhibits values within the range 10,000–30,000 cm<sup>-3</sup> (Fig. 8). Observe how industrial emissions can frequently contribute 20,000–30,000 cm<sup>-3</sup> to the particle number and can result in As concentrations within the range 10–25 ng m<sup>-3</sup> (Fig. 8B). Fig. 9 shows the daily mean



Fig. 9. A) Daily averaged values of PN classified from the highest to the lowest concentration (100th to 1st percentile) highlighting the contribution of the industrial, vehicle exhaust and undetermined fraction contributions. The associated concentrations of As, Cd, P, Pb, Al, Fe and BC are plotted in B and C.

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1151averaged values of the particle number PN, classified from the<br/>highest to the lowest concentration (100th to 1st percentile), and<br/>the contribution of the identified sources. Observe how PN values<br/>>25,500 cm^3 (70th P) are mainly induced by industrial emissions,<br/>whereas for PN values <14,700 cm^3 (50th P) the vehicle exhaust<br/>contribution is greater:

- For daily mean levels of PN within the range 50,000–25,500 cm<sup>-3</sup> (100th–70th) industrial and vehicle exhaust emissions accounted for 49 and 30%, respectively.
- For daily PN values within the range 14,700–5000 cm<sup>-3</sup> (50th–1st), vehicle emissions accounted for 60% of PN, with only 30% of PN being linked to industrial emissions.

These results suggest that high PN concentrations, about 25,000 cm<sup>-3</sup>, are mostly due to industrial emissions. Observe the sharp increase in the concentrations of As, Cd, Pb and P (linked to the Cu-smelter and fertilizer production plants) when PN concentrations higher than the 70th P are recorded (Fig. 9B). In contrast, compounds linked to vehicle exhaust and road dust emissions increase progressively from low to high PN events (Fig. 9C).

The potential contribution of new particle formation in ambient air linked to photochemical processes, typically occurring with low concentrations of primary pollutants (e.g. NO<sub>x</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub>; Rodríguez





et al., 2009), was not identified in our PCA, with this being attributed to the fact that any chemical tracer of such a process was analysed. The features of the type-3 events we observed in the time series analysis suggest that these events occur in our study area. In fact, these events could account for the unexplained variance in the PCA ( $\sim$  37%) and for the unaccounted-for fraction in the source contribution (4%; Fig. 7). Pey et al. (2009) identified such photochemically induced new particle formation events in Barcelona, and concluded that they accounted for 3% of the number of particles >10 nm and for 23% of 10–20 nm particles.

The high impact of these industrial emissions on the ultrafine particle concentration is clearly observed in Fig. 10, where the number and black carbon concentration in several European cities is plotted (Reche et al., 2011). In Huelva, BC concentrations exhibit a maximum during the morning rush hours, as in other EU cities due to the dominant role of vehicle exhaust emissions. However, the particle number concentration in Huelva shows a distinct maximum during the noon–afternoon due to the impact of the industrial plumes over the city. Because of this, PN concentrations in Huelva are much higher than in other cities, even though BC levels in Huelva are significantly lower.

# 4. Conclusions

Urban air pollution by ultrafine particles is a matter of concern due to the adverse effects on human health. Studies performed during the last decade showed that vehicle exhausts are a major source of ultrafine particles in urban ambient air. Thus, ultrafine particle emissions in vehicle exhaust have recently been subject to limit values in a recent stage of the EURO standards.

The results of this study show that some industrial emissions result in high concentrations of ultrafine particles. This is the case of the industrial city of Huelva, where the second largest Cu-smelter plant in Europe, phosphoric acid and fertilizer plants, an oil refinery and a petrochemical plant are located. These sources release SO<sub>2</sub>, toxic metals and hydrocarbons, among other pollutants. The results of this study show that industrial emissions are the main cause of ultrafine particle episodes. When vehicle exhaust is the main source, ultrafine particles typically show (24-h mean) concentrations within the range  $14,700-5000 \text{ cm}^{-3}$  (50th-1st), with 60% of these being linked to this source and 30% to industrial emissions. In contrast, when daily mean levels of PN are within the range 50,000-25,500 cm<sup>-3</sup> (100th-70th), industrial and vehicle exhaust emissions accounted for 49 and 30%, respectively. High concentrations of toxic trace metals (As, Cu, Cd, Zn and Pb) are recorded during these ultrafine particle pollution events linked to industrial emissions (e.g. 10-25 ng m<sup>-3</sup> As and 1-2 ng m<sup>-3</sup> Cd). Because of these industrial emissions, ultrafine particle concentrations during daylight are about two times higher than those observed in other European cities.

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