

PM10 source apportionment applying PMF and chemical tracer analysis to ship-borne measurements in the Western Mediterranean

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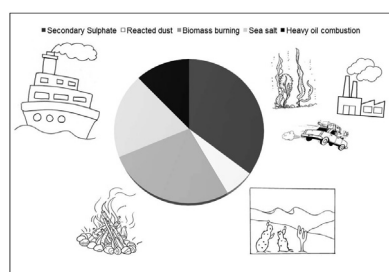
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GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT



ABSTRACT

A PM10 sampling campaign was carried out on board the cruise ship Costa Concordia during three weeks in summer 2011. The ship route was Civitavecchia-Savona-Barcelona-Palma de Mallorca-Malta (Valletta)-Palermo-Civitavecchia. The PM10 composition was measured and utilized to identify and characterize the main PM10 sources along the ship route through receptor modelling, making use of the Positive Matrix Factorization (PMF) algorithm. A particular attention was given to the emissions related to heavy fuel oil combustion by ships, which is known to be also an important source of secondary sulphate aerosol. Five aerosol sources were resolved by the PMF analysis. The primary contribution of ship emissions to PM10 turned out to be $(12 \pm 4)\%$, while secondary ammonium sulphate contributed by $(35 \pm 5)\%$. Approximately, 60% of the total sulphate was identified as secondary aerosol while about 20% was attributed to heavy oil combustion in ship engines. The measured concentrations of methanesulphonic acid (MSA) indicated a relevant contribution to the observed sulphate loading by biogenic sulphate, formed by the atmospheric oxidation of dimethyl sulphide (DMS) emitted by marine phytoplankton.

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1. Introduction

The contribution of diverse anthropogenic and natural emissions sources, such as highly populated and industrial coastal areas, intense ship traffic, forest fire emissions and Sahara dust outbreaks, together with meteorological and geographical peculiarities, make the Mediterranean Basin one of the most polluted regions on Earth in terms of ozone concentrations and aerosol loading (Lelieveld et al., 2002; Velchev et al., 2011). This is caused by local emissions as well as transport of air pollution from outside the Mediterranean region. Ship emissions are an important source of pollution in this region and represent significant and growing contributors to air quality degradation in coastal areas (Van Aardenne et al., 2013). Emissions of exhaust gases and particles from the oceangoing ships affect the chemical composition of the atmosphere, climate and regional air quality (Eyring et al., 2005). In recent years, particle emissions from ships and harbour activities became a concern for air quality and object of several scientific investigations (Moreno et al., 2010; Becagli et al., 2012; Cesari et al., 2014; Bove et al., 2014). A number of studies have shown that ship exhaust particles contain V and Ni and these elements have been used as markers to investigate primary ship emissions using receptor models (Mazzei et al., 2008; Viana et al., 2009; Cuccia et al., 2010; Pandolfi et al., 2011; Salameh et al., 2015). The Joint Research Centre of the European Commission (JRC, EC) has carried out an air quality monitoring program from 2006 to 2014, based on observations from a cruise ship following a regular route in the Western Mediterranean. In the framework of a collaboration agreement between the JRC and Costa Crociere, continuous measurements of atmospheric pollutants were carried out on cruise ships from spring to autumn. During two campaigns in particular, in 2009 and 2010, a two-stage streaker sampler (Formenti et al., 1996) was installed on the ship. The elemental composition of the fine and coarse fraction of PM₁₀, separately collected by the streaker on an hourly basis, was measured by PIXE analysis (Schembari et al., 2014). These datasets were used for an investigation of the influence of ship emissions on the composition of aerosols over the sea through a source apportionment analysis by PMF as well as by chemical marker compounds. The ship emissions were found to be an important source of aerosols in the Western Mediterranean, however a quantification of their impacts by PMF was not obtained. That experiment did not disentangle primary and secondary sources of sulphate and did not resolve the contribution of primary aerosol from ships, presumably because of the insufficient chemical speciation of PM₁₀. A mixed combustion source, which showed evidence of a direct connection with ship emissions was found to contribute by 55%, 63% and 80% to PM₁₀, Black Carbon and sulphate, respectively (Schembari et al., 2014). In summary, the results of the previous campaigns indicated a significant impact of ship emissions to PM levels in the explored area but were not conclusive. In this context, a new PM₁₀ sampling campaign was organized in the summer of 2011, to complete the information of the previous studies and to get a better description of PM sources. An extensive characterisation of PM₁₀ samples, collected using a sequential filter sampler, was addressed; the obtained data were analysed by PMF and used to identify and characterize the main PM₁₀ sources met along the route.

2. Material and methods

2.1. Monitoring campaign

The monitoring station was placed in a cabin at the front of the top deck of the ship "Costa Concordia". It permitted to perform continuous measurements of NO_x, SO₂, O₃ and Black Carbon (BC),

the last one by means of an Aethalometer (AE 21, 2 wavelengths, Magee Scientific, USA) (Schembari et al., 2014). The aerosol sampling campaigns were carried out during three weeks of summer 2011: July 18–25, August 15–22 and September 12–19. PM₁₀ samples were collected on Quartz filters (47 mm diameter, flow rate 2.3 m³ h⁻¹) using a Sven Leckel Ingenieurburo sequential sampler, placed on the top of the cabin where the monitoring and meteorological station were also located. The sampling was carried out on a variable time basis: the sampler was started 1 h after the departure from each harbour and stopped 1 h before the arrival in the next harbour. Each leg was then divided in periods of about 4–5 h with one filter sampled per each period. This resulted in a variable number of filters per open-sea leg and in a total number of about 20 filters per week.

2.2. Analytical methods

All filters were pre-conditioned for two days in a controlled room (temperature: 20 ± 1 °C, relative humidity: 50 ± 5%) before and after the sampling and then weighed using an analytical balance (sensitivity: 1 μg). Field blank filters were used to monitor possible artefacts. The compositional analyses were conducted using different methods. The elemental composition of filters sampled in August and September weeks, were measured by ED-XRF (Energy Dispersive – X Ray Fluorescence) using an ED-2000 spectrometer from Oxford Instruments (Ariola et al., 2006) for S, Cl, K, Ca, Ti, V, Cr, Mn, Fe, Ni, Cu, Zn, Br, Ba, Pb. For technical reasons, the concentrations of the same elements in the samples collected during the July cruise were indeed determined by PIXE analysis at the HVEE 3 MV Tandem accelerator, installed at the LABEC (Laboratorio Beni Culturali) laboratory of INFN in Florence (Calzolari et al., 2006; Lucarelli et al., 2013). The concentration values of S and K determined using ED-XRF were corrected for an average attenuation factor (Bove et al., 2014) to determine their mean values, whereas S, Cl, K resulted to be always below their Minimum Detection Limit when measured by PIXE. The Minimum Detection Limits obtained for both the techniques are shown in Table E1 in the electronic supplementary material. Finally, the analytical uncertainties are the sum of the systematic term on the calibration standards (5%) and of the statistical fluctuation on peak areas.

The water-soluble inorganic components of the PM₁₀ were determined by Ion Chromatography (IC) using an ICS-1000 Ion Chromatography System (Dionex) at the University of Milan. In particular, for the extraction of the PM, a quarter of each filter was wetted previously and then three times with MilliQ water in an ultrasonic bath for 20 min (complete recovery, 98% ± 3%), renewing the water at each step (Piazzalunga et al., 2013). The extracts were analysed using IC to identify the major ionic species (i.e., Na⁺, NH₄⁺, K⁺, Mg²⁺, Ca²⁺, Cl⁻, SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻) with an overall 10% uncertainty for the ionic concentrations. The MSA (methanesulfonic acid) concentration values were also measured by IC with the same uncertainty. The lack of quantification of low-Z elements (due to the X-ray self-absorption and the high Si concentration in the quartz filters) was partially recovered by Ionic Chromatography analysis which was finally considered more accurate for such elements.

Information on meteorological parameters (wind speed and direction, temperature, humidity from the meteorological station of the ship) and on the ships position, speed and sailing direction, were also available (in 10 min intervals) and used to identify situations where the PM sampling might be influenced by the emissions of Costa Concordia itself. When the inlets of the measurement station were downwind the ship stack within an angle of ±40°, the data were discarded to avoid any risk of contamination.

Air mass back-trajectories were calculated using the US NOAA HYSPLIT model (<http://ready.arl.noaa.gov/HYSPLIT.php>) with GDAS meteorological data. For each filter, five-day back trajectories

arriving at 50 m and 500 m above sea level were calculated for the positions where the filter sampling ended, to evaluate the different air masses arriving over the sea in the three cruise weeks. During summer 2011, the route of the ship was Civitavecchia-Savona-Barcelona-Palma de Mallorca-Malta (Valletta)-Palermo-Civitavecchia (see [Figure E1](#) in the electronic supplementary material).

2.3. Aerosol composition: mass closure

Details on the method to obtain the aerosol composition is described in [Schembari et al. \(2014\)](#). Briefly, concentration values of SO_4^{2-} , NH_4^+ and NO_3^- were directly retrieved from the IC analysis, while sea salt and dust were obtained from raw data and conversion factors: sea salt was calculated from Na^+ and Cl^- concentration values, taking into account the seawater composition ([Seinfeld and Pandis, 1998](#)); dust was obtained by multiplication of non-sea-salt calcium nssCa^{2+} (calculated by subtracting from total measured Ca^{2+} , the fraction in sea salt given by multiplication of Na^+ by $\text{Ca}^{2+}:\text{Na}^+$ ratio in seawater composition, [Seinfeld and Pandis, 1998](#)) by 5.6 (the value retrieved by [Putaud et al. \(2004\)](#) for a background site, would vary for any other kind of station).

2.4. Receptor model-PMF

Positive Matrix Factorization (PMF) was used to identify and characterize the major PM10 sources along the ship route. PMF has been described in detail by its developers ([Paatero and Tapper, 1994](#)), it has been adopted in several studies for PM receptor modelling and has rapidly become a reference tool in this research field (e.g., [Qin et al., 2006](#); [Escrig et al., 2009](#); [Contini et al., 2012](#); [Cuccia et al., 2013](#)). In this work, the PMF2 program ([Paatero, 2010](#)) and the methodology described in [Bove et al. \(2014\)](#) was used. The PMF analyses were carried out using the data collected from the three weeks of the summer 2011. The variables were selected according to the signal-to-noise criterion ([Paatero and Hopke, 2003](#)) and 14 series of concentration values were finally retained for the PMF study: Ti, V, Fe, Ni, MSA, Cl^- , NO_3^- , SO_4^{2-} , Na^+ , NH_4^+ , K^+ , Mg^{2+} , Ca^{2+} , BC. The [Polissar et al. \(1998\)](#) procedure was used to assign concentration data and their associated uncertainties; the Cl^- , NO_3^- , Na^+ , Mg^{2+} uncertainties only were increased of 20% in the PMF runs for down weighting these elements which resulted ubiquitous among the factors. The number of samples considered in the PMF run (55) satisfies the criteria set in [Thurston and Spengler \(1985\)](#). PMF results are affected by the rotational ambiguity ([Paatero et al., 2002](#)) and rotations are directly implemented in the minimisation algorithm using the FPEAK parameter ([Paatero, 1997](#)). In the analysis, the parameters obtained from the scaled residual matrix, IM (the maximum individual column mean), and IS (the maximum individual column standard deviation), together with Q-values (goodness of fit parameter) were examined to find the most reasonable solution. The best rotation for each factor was chosen in the FPEAK range from -2 to $+2$ by discarding the solutions corresponding to profiles without physical meaning (i.e., the sum of elemental concentrations exceeded 100%) and selecting those generating concentration ratios between the tracer elements of the natural sources (e.g., sea salt, crustal matter) comparable to literature values ([Bove et al., 2014](#)).

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Meteorological conditions

The sea level pressure composite mean and anomalies over the Mediterranean basin during the three campaigns according to the

NCEP/NCAR Reanalysis ([Kalnay et al., 1996](#)), are shown in [Figure E2](#) in the electronic supplementary material. While in August and in September the synoptic conditions were characterized by the expansion towards the Mediterranean of the Azores Anticyclone, in line with seasonal climatology (especially in August, whereas a slightly negative anomaly is found in September), in July the situation was very peculiar. In this case, the anticyclonic system is confined over the Atlantic, favouring the development of low-pressure systems across Central Europe and the Mediterranean Basin, where a strong negative pressure anomaly can be seen.

The meteorological parameters recorded during the three cruises by the on-board instrumentation are reported in [Figure E3](#) in the electronic supplementary material and confirm what is suggested by the synoptic analysis. In particular, pressure exhibited lower average values and larger variability in July, associated to episodes of strong wind and, as a consequence, rough sea along the route. On the contrary, during the two campaigns in August and September, more stable conditions were encountered, with higher pressure values and generally lighter winds, apart from the last leg of the September cruise, when the passage of an Atlantic frontal system determined a sudden pressure drop and wind speed increase.

The meteorological conditions along the ship route during the most relevant strong wind episodes were also assessed using a 32-year hindcast, recently realized at the University of Genoa by means of simulations with the Weather Research and Forecasting (WRF, [Skamarock et al., 2008](#)) model on a domain covering the entire Mediterranean with a horizontal grid spacing of 10 km. Details about the modelling system are given in [Mentaschi et al. \(2015\)](#).

3.2. PM10 composition

The average PM10 concentration and its composition are reported in [Table 1](#) whereas in [Fig. 1](#) the chemical composition as described in 2.3 Section for the three 2011 cruises, is shown. The nssSO_4^{2-} , NO_3^- , sea salt seem to be quite different between the July campaign and the other two cruise weeks ([Fig. 1](#)). Such a discrepancy is attributable to the peculiar meteorological conditions occurred in July, as discussed in the previous section. The balance between nitrate and ammonium sulphate also shows two different well defined situations. During July and for some samples collected in September, ammonium and nitrate ions exactly balance, this highlighting the lack of ammonium sulphate. On the contrary, in August the sum of nitrate and sulphate ions are completely balanced by ammonium ([Fig. 2a](#)). Furthermore, the ratio $(\text{SO}_4^{2-} + \text{NO}_3^-) : \text{NH}_4^+$ shows increases correlated with Cl^- concentration values ([Fig. 2b](#)). [Fig. 3](#) shows the anti-correlation between chlorine and sulphate concentration values: all these pieces of information point at the presence of air masses of two different origin which affect our samples as also indicated by back trajectory analysis. The air masses reaching the ship route in July, had been mainly over the sea for at least the previous 24 h; during the August and September cruises, the impacting air masses passed mostly over the continental areas, suggesting a larger contribution from the transport of terrestrial pollutants to the open sea. An example is shown in [Figure E4](#) of the electronic supplementary material. In conclusion, when the air masses reached the ship coming from the continent, sulphate concentrations increased and the ratio $(\text{SO}_4^{2-} + \text{NO}_3^-) : \text{NH}_4^+$ approached 1. On the contrary, sulphate concentration values remained low without any sizeable presence of ammonium sulphate when the aerosol impacting the ship was mainly of marine origin.

The primary contribution of ship emissions to PM10 can be calculated on the basis of previous research works ([Agrawal et al.,](#)

Table 1

Average PM10 composition and BC obtained by Aethalometer for the three campaigns in summer 2011: average (A) and standard deviation (St. Dev) of concentration values were calculated with the samples (reported as percentage frequency, F) with concentration values above their Minimum Detection Limit (MDL). For Cl, K and Ca both the total concentration by ED-XRF and the soluble fraction by IC are reported.

	ng m ⁻³		
	A	St. Dev	F
PM10	13113	4778	100%
S	1684	933	67%
Cl	209	376	38%
K	340	291	65%
Ca	151	120	93%
Ti	31	19	98%
V	16	13	95%
Cr	10	5	58%
Mn	5	4	75%
Fe	164	101	98%
Ni	7	5	87%
Cu	5	3	64%
Zn	16	15	87%
Br	7	5	58%
Ba	15	7	27%
Pb	4	3	16%
MSA	54	28	93%
Cl ⁻	381	452	98%
NO ₃ ⁻	882	584	98%
SO ₄ ²⁻	3216	2254	100%
Na ⁺	1003	566	100%
NH ₄ ⁺	1043	869	100%
K ⁺	151	150	27%
Mg ²⁺	139	79	100%
Ca ²⁺	222	114	100%
BC	570	501	100%

2009; Zhao et al., 2013) and using the equation:

$$PM_{10} = R \frac{V_a}{F_{V,HFO}} \quad (1)$$

$R = 8205.8$ is the average ratio of PM2.5 to normalized V emitted (ppm) suggested in Agrawal et al. (2009), which could be universally applied to other locations with HFO burning ship emissions; V_a is the ambient concentration of V (ng m⁻³), whilst $F_{V,HFO}$ is a term indicating the typical V content (in ppm) in HFOs used by vessels. We used the same average value of $F_{V,HFO} = (65 \pm 25)$ ppm, in agreement with Cesari et al. (2014). According to eq. (1), the primary PM10 from ship traffic ranged from 0.7 to 3.4 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$; similar values had been previously obtained in some port sites (Viana et al., 2009).

3.3. Sulphate apportionment

The contributions of different sources to the sulphate concentration was evaluated on the basis of specific markers as described in Table E2 in the electronic supplementary material. The main components of the sulphate are the sea salt sulphate (ssSO₄²⁻), that is the amount of sulphate present in sea salt particles, and non-sea-salt sulphate. The non-sea-salt sulphate (nssSO₄²⁻) is defined as the amount of the sulphate present in particles in excess of what expected from sea salt particles, and has three contributions: anthropogenic, biogenic and crustal nssSO₄²⁻. According to some literature works, methanesulfonic acid can be used as a marker for quantifying the biogenic non-sea salt sulphate (nssSO₄²⁻_{bio}). The ratio between MSA and nssSO₄²⁻_{bio} depends on the season (Kouvarakis and Mihalopoulos, 2002), latitude (Chen et al., 2012) and temperature (Bates et al., 1992). In a previous work (Schembari et al., 2014), the nssSO₄²⁻_{bio} was estimated starting from the measurement of MSA concentration in the samples

through the relation by Bates et al. (1992) even if that equation was obtained during of field campaign in the eastern Pacific Ocean.

In our data set we identified a sample marked in Fig. 3, that seems to be affected by a strong presence of fresh marine aerosols: the ratio Cl⁻:Na⁺ = 1.094 and Mg⁺:Na⁺ = 0.24 are very similar to those reported in literature for the fresh marine aerosol, respectively 1.17, and 0.25 (Keene et al., 1986). Furthermore, the ionic balance is fully respected: 162 neq m⁻³ of anions vs. 160 neq m⁻³ of cations and the sulphate is not fully balanced from ammonium, this highlighting the presence of a sulphates source different from the anthropogenic ones. With this sample, the direct calculation (details are shown in Table E2b in the electronic supplementary material) of the nssSO₄²⁻_{bio} concentration using the diagnostic ratios reported in literature work (Keene et al., 1986), is possible and the MSA:nssSO₄²⁻_{bio} ratio was found to be 0.08 against the value of 0.03 which would result from the Bates's formula. Finally, we adopted MSA:nssSO₄²⁻_{bio} = 0.08 for the whole campaign and to derive the sulphate apportionment.

The results of such calculations for the three cruises are reported in Table 2 and Fig. 8. Large concentration values of nssSO₄²⁻ were obtained for all the three weeks, while highest values of ssSO₄²⁻ and lowest values of nssSO₄²⁻ were observed in July (Fig. 1). The latter were in coincidence with a quite high wind speed, in particular during the Savona-Barcelona and Palermo-Civitavecchia legs. The analysis of wind speed and direction, both measured on board and obtained by hindcast simulations with the WRF-ARW model (see also Figure E5 and E6 in the electronic supplementary material), highlighted that it blew from the sea and its velocity increased rapidly during the last part of the routes, close to the Barcelona coast and to Civitavecchia, respectively. This observation confirms the sea salt dependence on the local wind speed in the Mediterranean Basin (Bergametti et al. (1989); Chabas and Lefèvre (2000); Contini et al., 2010). The main contribution to nssSO₄²⁻ was of anthropic origin in August and September, whereas in July nssSO₄²⁻_{bio} was prevailing, probably due to the particular meteorological conditions that determined high sea salt concentrations. The nssSO₄²⁻_{anthr} contributed to PM10 by 5%, 25% and 18%, in July, August and September, respectively, while the nssSO₄²⁻_{bio} was on average 9%, 5% and 3% of PM10 in the same periods. The nssSO₄²⁻_{crust}, as estimated by this approach, remained always around 1% of PM10.

The above-discussed results can be compared with those collected in the similar cruise in June 2010 (Schembari et al., 2014), also reported in Table 2. The previous sulphate apportionment showed similar contributions to 2011 data for nssSO₄²⁻_{crust} and ssSO₄²⁻. Indeed, the meteorological conditions in June 2010 were quite resembling those found in July 2011, with cool temperatures and intense winds (see Schembari et al., 2014). The nssSO₄²⁻_{bio} showed higher average contributions if compared to values obtained in the three 2011 cruises. Higher values of nssSO₄²⁻_{anth} were also obtained in 2010 with respect to the 2011 campaigns, with the only exception of the August cruise, when higher levels of nssSO₄²⁻_{anth} were found.

3.4. PMF results

The database used as input to PMF included data obtained by the analysis of filters sampled along open-sea legs while samples collected when the ship was manoeuvring or hotelling in the harbours and when the sampling station was downwind the ship stack, were excluded. The database was completed with the time series of hourly BC concentration values and PM10 mass concentration.

Five factors were resolved and identified by PMF for PM10 obtaining the best solution with FPEAK = 0: *Secondary Sulphate*,

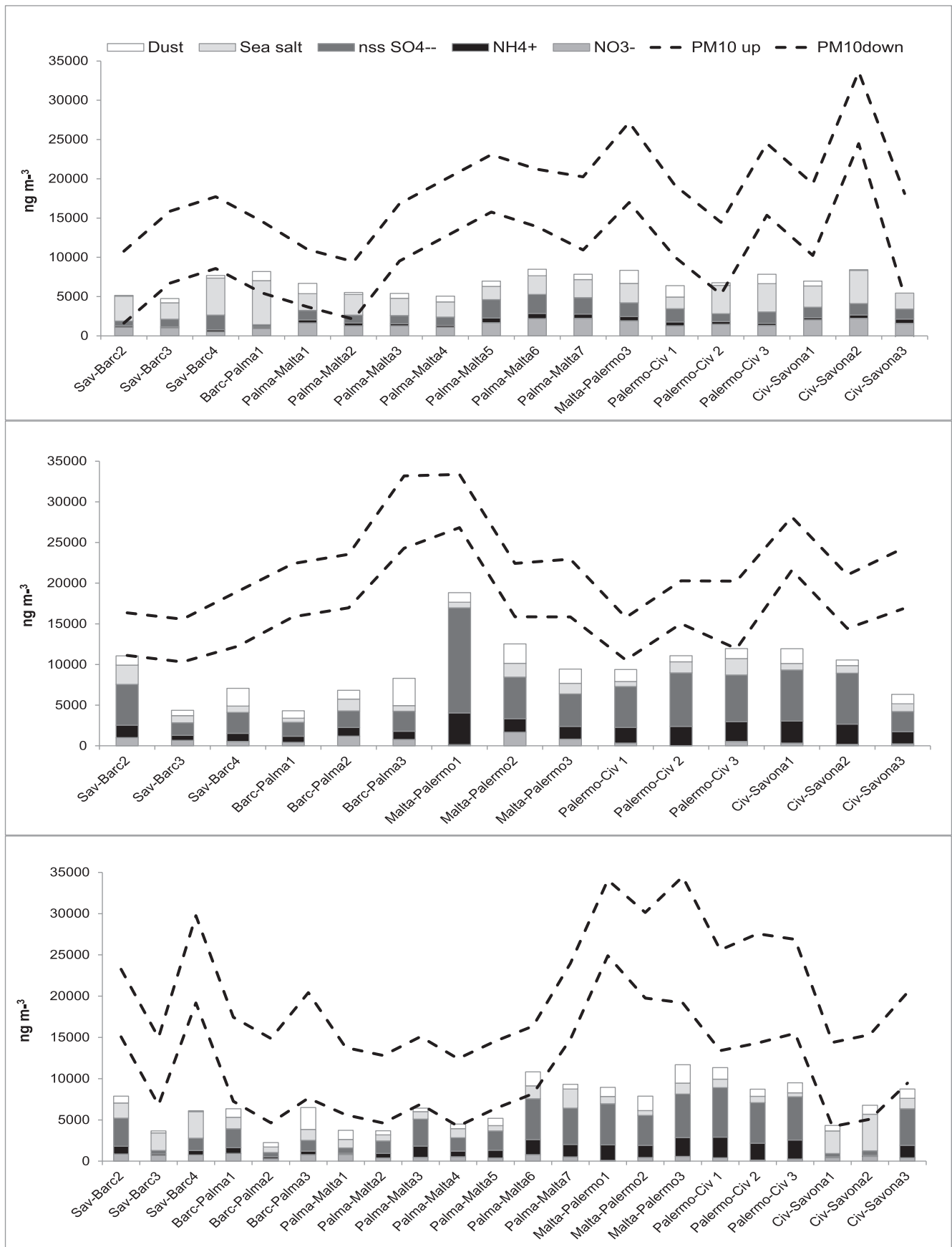


Fig. 1. PM10 chemical composition obtained from raw data and conversion factors during July (top), August (centre) and September (bottom) campaigns. PM10 gravimetric values, which were affected by large uncertainties, are also shown in each panel as 1-sigma band delimited by the two dashed lines.

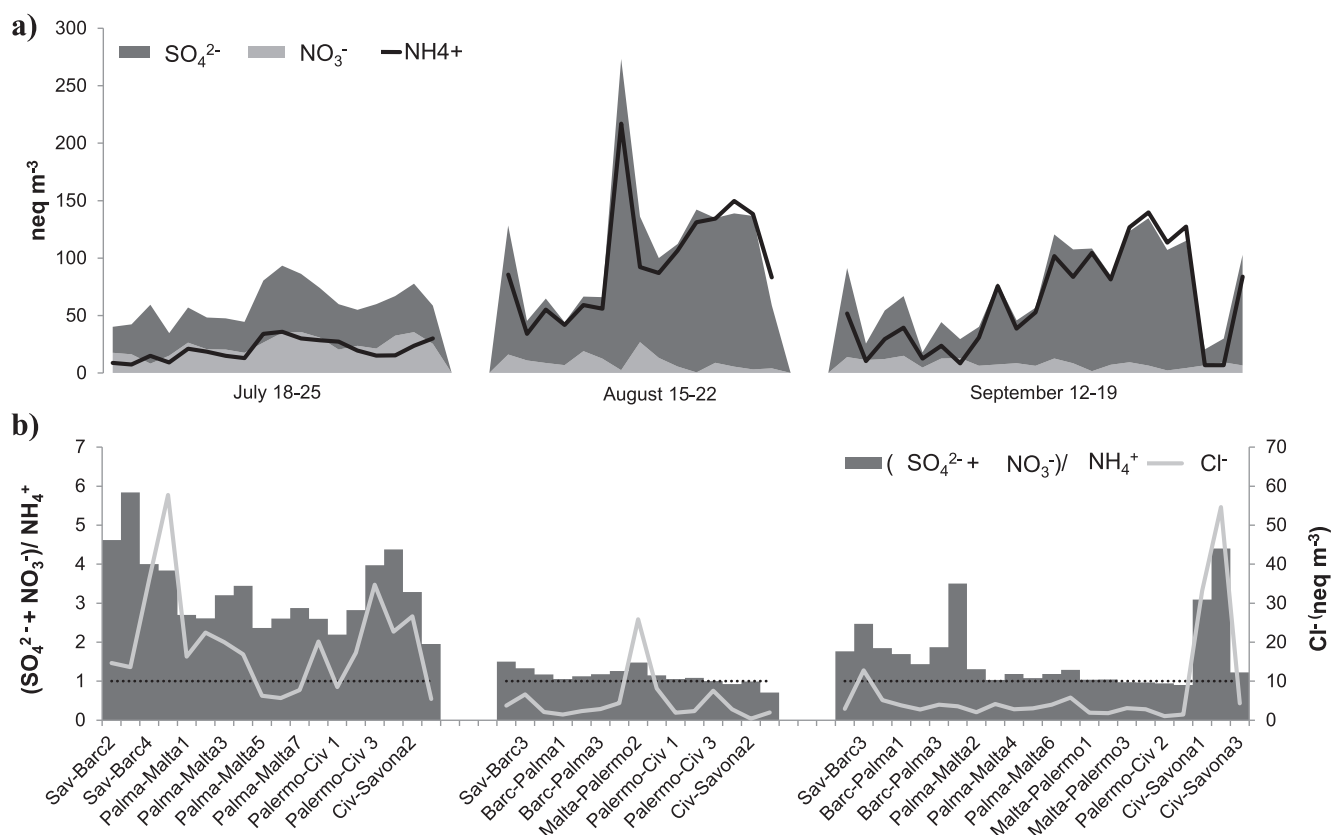


Fig. 2. a) Ionic balance for the three cruise campaigns in neq m^{-3} b) the ratio between the sum of NO_3^- and SO_4^{2-} with NH_4^+ is compared with the Cl^- concentration.

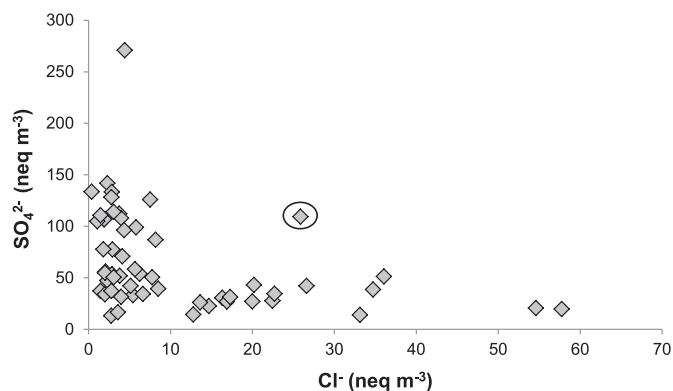


Fig. 3. Scatter plot between SO_4^{2-} and Cl^- concentrations. When the Cl^- concentrations are high (greater than 10 neq m^{-3}) the SO_4^{2-} concentrations are low. The marked data is the sample used to calculate the $\text{MSA}/\text{nssSO}_4^{2-}\text{-bio}$ ratio.

Reacted dust, Biomass burning, Sea salt and Heavy oil combustion. Source profiles and explained variations (EV) parameters are

shown in Fig. 4, while the average PM_{10} apportionment is given in Fig. 5.

PMF-Factor 1 was identified as the contribution due to Secondary Sulphate looking at the high EVs for SO_4^{2-} and NH_4^+ and the relevance of these compounds in the chemical profile (Fig. 4). The average concentration ratio for $\text{SO}_4^{2-} : \text{NH}_4^+$ in the factor is 2.1 ± 0.1 , which is slightly lower than the stoichiometric figure for ammonium sulphate (i.e. $\text{SO}_4^{2-} : \text{NH}_4^+ = 2.7$). The average relative contribution of this factor to the PM_{10} mass is $(35 \pm 5)\%$, with highest concentrations observed during August and lowest in July as reported in Table 3. The PMF result is comparable, within its uncertainty, with the direct calculation of the average abundance of ammonium non-sea-salt sulphate in PM_{10} of $(39 \pm 4)\%$, discussed in Section 3.2. The quite low concentration value of July reported in Fig. 6 confirms the observations obtained by the measurements.

PMF-Factor 2 was characterised by high EV values for Ti and Fe, this suggesting a contribution by mineral dust, and by a relevant fraction of SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^- , NH_4^+ and BC in the source profile (Fig. 4). The mineral particles aged in the atmosphere and then changed

Table 2

Contributions to the total SO_4^{2-} concentration in absolute values, for the three cruise weeks in 2011 and for the previous campaign in June 2010 determined with the method described in Section 3.3.

ng m^{-3}	2010 June 7–14	2011 July 18–25	2011 August 15–22	2011 September 12–19
tot SO_4^{2-}	4550	1760	4820	3100
ss SO_4^{2-}	280	420	150	250
nss SO_4^{2-} -crystal	30	30	60	40
nss SO_4^{2-} -biogenic	1290	870	750	400
nss SO_4^{2-} -anthropogenic	2950	440	3850	2410

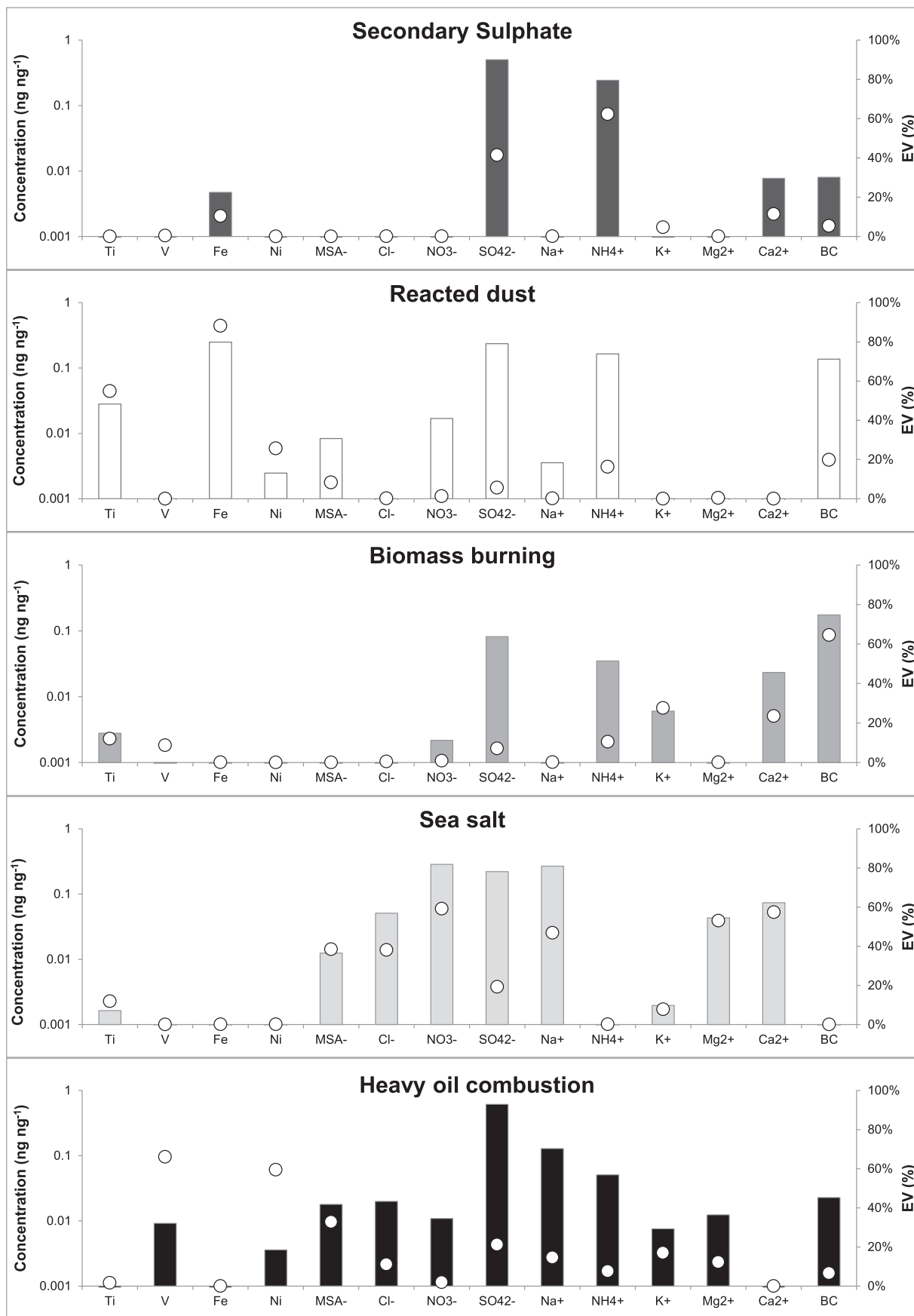


Fig. 4. PMF profiles (left axis, coloured bars) and explained variation factors, EV (right axis, white circles) of the PM10 sources resolved in all the three cruise weeks in summer 2011.

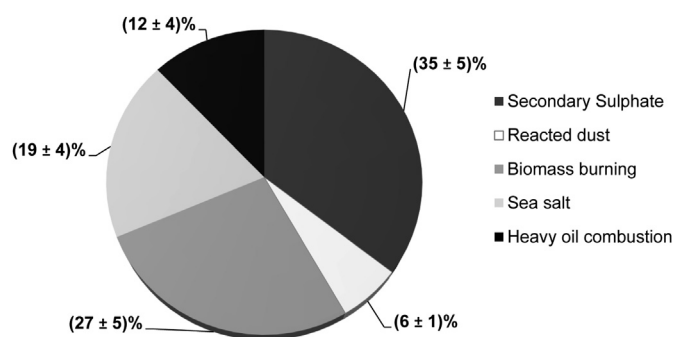


Fig. 5. Average source apportionment obtained by the PMF analysis of the PM10 data sets collected during the summer 2011.

their original composition, getting mixed/coated with organic and inorganic ions (sulphate and nitrate) and BC (Fairlie et al., 2010). For this reason, this factor was labelled as *Reacted dust*, also in agreement with other source profiles obtained by PMF in Mediterranean sites (Perrone et al., 2013; Cesari et al., 2014). The temporal pattern of this factor showed highest concentrations along the Barcelona-Palma legs (see also Fig. 6), in particular near the Palma coast. Moreover, this source profile is quite similar to the mineral dust profile obtained by PMF analysis of the data sampled in a site located at Palma de Mallorca (Pey et al., 2013), which includes anthropogenic dust emissions from the harbour too. For this reason, the fraction of PM10 attributed by PMF to *Reacted dust*, even if it appears consistent with the “chemical” apportionment described in Section 2.3, is not comparable to the pure dust composition.

PMF-Factor 3 was assigned to *Biomass burning* because it was characterized by high contributions of BC, SO_4^{2-} , NH_4^+ and K^+ in the source profile (Fig. 4) and by high EV values for BC and K^+ in agreement with other works which adopted K^+ as tracer of biomass burning (Belis et al., 2011). High concentration values were detected along the Malta-Palermo leg, both in August and September (see also Fig. 6). Maximum values were observed with high wind speed and prevailing direction from the Sicilian coast and from the city of Palermo. The contribution of the source, on average $(27 \pm 5)\%$ of PM10, seems to be excessive considering the summer period in which the measurements were performed. Actually, this is not a pure profile because includes the mixing with other sources like re-suspended dust coming from the continents nearby. This aspect is confirmed also by the presence of Ca^{2+} element, which instead is absent in the “*Reacted dust*” profile.

PMF-Factor 4 was identified as *Sea salt* since it was characterized by high EV values for NO_3^- , Cl^- , Na^+ , Mg^{2+} and MSA (Fig. 4). The $\text{Cl}^-:\text{Na}^+$ ratio in the profile is equal to 0.2, which is much smaller than both the 0.9 mean ratio obtained in the 2009 and 2010 cruises (Schembari et al., 2014) and the 1.17 ratio of fresh sea salt particles (Keene et al., 1986). This can be due to evaporation of HCl to the atmosphere which occurs in marine air samples (Perrone et al., 2013; Cuccia et al., 2013). The PMF algorithm could not distinguish fresh and aged sea salt: in the *Sea salt* source profile (Fig. 4), the presence of the secondary nitrates and MSA^- due to the oxidation of dimethyl sulphide emitted from the sea suggested the mixing with secondary components of PM10. The average fraction of PM10 attributed to this factor was $(19 \pm 4)\%$, in agreement with the $(27 \pm 5)\%$ value obtained as the sum of Sea salt and Nitrates components obtained evaluated by chemical analysis (Section 2.3). The sea salt concentration was higher in July than in August and September as highlighted in Table 3: this confirms the occurrence of sea salt events during the Savona-Barcelona and Palermo-Civitavecchia legs as described in Section 3.2.

PMF-Factor 5 was finally identified as *Heavy oil combustion* because it was characterized by high EV values for V and Ni, typical tracers of heavy oil combustion (Mazzei et al., 2008; Viana et al., 2009). The V:Ni concentration ratio in the source profile is 2.6 ± 0.1 , in agreement with the 2.9 ± 0.4 value obtained by PMF during the previous campaigns (Schembari et al., 2014) and with the conclusions of several other literature works which recognized such value as typical of ship emissions (Agrawal et al., 2008; Mazzei et al., 2008; Cuccia et al., 2010; Pandolfi et al., 2011; Bove et al., 2014). The source profile was enriched in sulphate with $\text{SO}_4^{2-}:\text{V} = 67 \pm 4$. The initial $\text{SO}_4^{2-}:\text{V}$ ratio in the particulate exhaust (PM2.5) of the main engine of different oceangoing container vessels is reported to be in the range 11–27 (Agrawal et al., 2008). However, the amount of SO_4^{2-} in the air mass is expected to grow fast due to SO_2 conversion into sulphate; this conversion is faster in high UV radiation and high humidity conditions (Restad et al., 1998; Becagli et al., 2012). Actually, the measured $\text{SO}_4^{2-}:\text{V}$ ratio (similar to the $\text{SO}_4^{2-}:\text{V}$ ratio in the profile) is lower in July than the other two cruise weeks, confirming the higher influence of marine air masses as observed in Section 3.2 and, therefore, of the ship emissions along the route. Ship emissions contributed on average to $(12 \pm 4)\%$ of PM10. This figure is in agreement with the $(16 \pm 11)\%$ percentage evaluated considering the measured V as a marker for the combustion in ship engines (3.2 Section).

The apportionment of single PM10 species is given in Fig. 7. Notably, NO_3^- was mainly associated with *Sea salt* (on average 95%) supporting the nature of aged marine source (Cuccia et al., 2013), whereas NH_4^+ was primarily associated with one of the secondary components of PM10, i.e. *Secondary Sulphate* (on average: 80%). On average, $(23 \pm 9)\%$ of the SO_4^{2-} was attributed to *Heavy oil combustion*. The Sulphate apportionment resolved by PMF appears to be different in the three cruises (see also Fig. 8). The apportionment seems to be quite similar in August and September while an increase of the total SO_4^{2-} attributed to *Heavy oil combustion* in association with the Sea salt events (3.3 Section) was observed in July. The latter can be explained by the possible contamination in the *Heavy oil combustion* profile of the biogenic fraction of the sulphates (the measured biogenic sulphate was much larger than the anthropogenic one in July); this is probably due to the influence of meteorological conditions and air masses which remained over the sea for several hours, producing the association of both sources. Moreover, the average measured MSA: nssSO_4^{2-} ratio for the three cruise weeks is the same value found in the *Heavy oil combustion* factor obtained by PMF analysis to support the biogenic contamination of the sulphate in the profile.

3.4.1. Sources comparison

The new study provided more complete and clear information than the analysis performed in the past years (Schembari et al., 2014). Due to the lack of a complete chemical speciation, only four sources were resolved in 2010 and in particular the PMF did not resolve secondary and primary sources of sulphate. A *Combustion* source only, which showed evidence of a contribution by ship emissions, was found to contribute by $(55 \pm 4)\%$ to PM10. The main scope of the 2011 experiment was to separately quantify the contribution of ship emissions and of secondary sulphate to PM10. This objective was achieved: in 2011 the *Secondary Sulphate* and *Heavy oil combustion* were found to account for $(35 \pm 5)\%$ and $(12 \pm 4)\%$ of PM10, respectively. The *Combustion* factor identified in the previous campaigns is comparable with the sum of *Secondary Sulphate* and *Heavy oil combustion* sources in 2011. Moreover, the source *Not identified* by PMF in 2009–2010 was recognized as *Biomass burning* with the 2011 dataset since it is characterized and traced by high contributions of BC and K^+ . For *Sea salt* and *Reacted dust* a similar mean contribution to PM10 was obtained in 2010 and 2011.

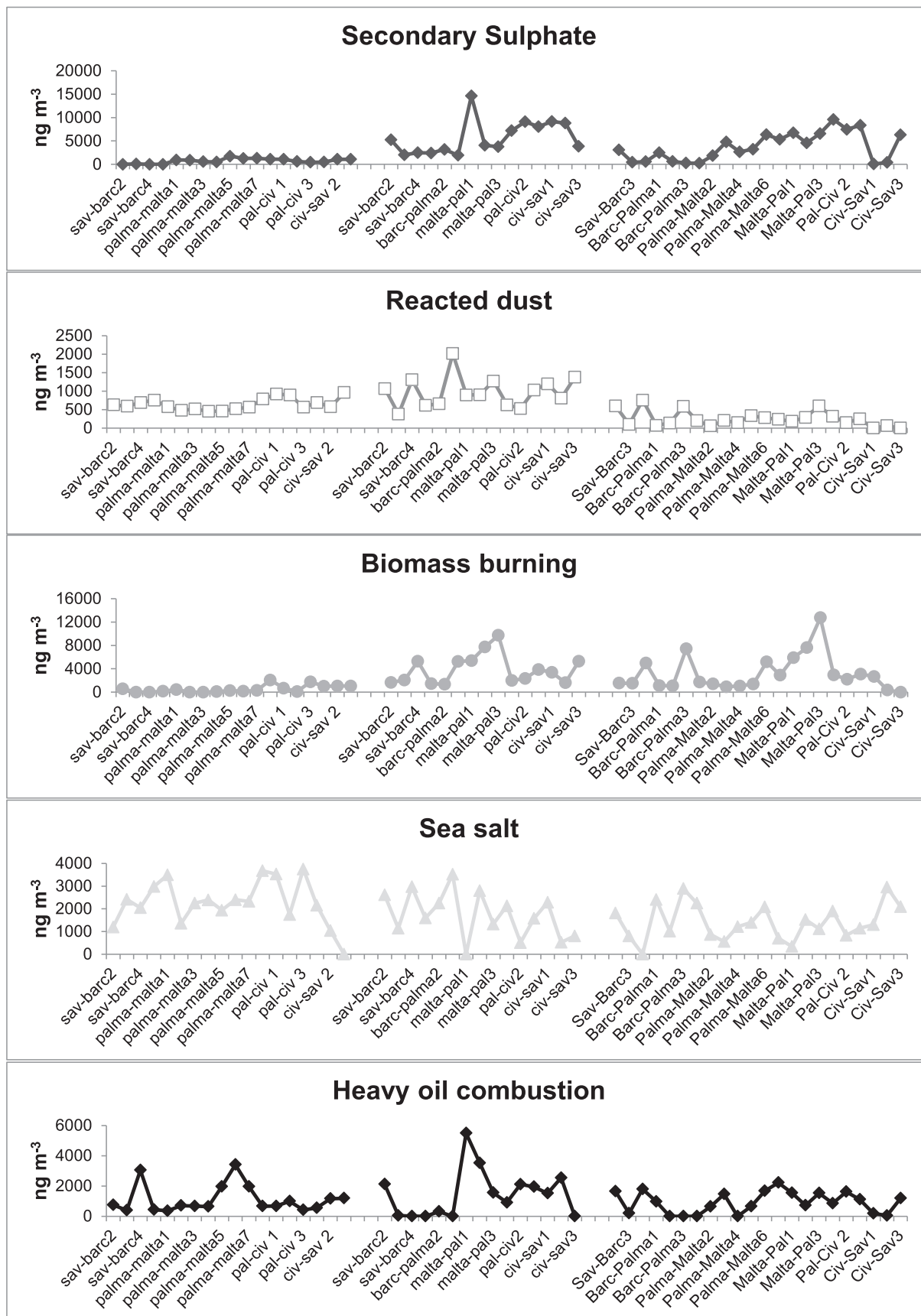


Fig. 6. Average apportionment of elements/compounds concentration obtained by PMF analysis calculated with the PM10 data sets of the whole field campaign.

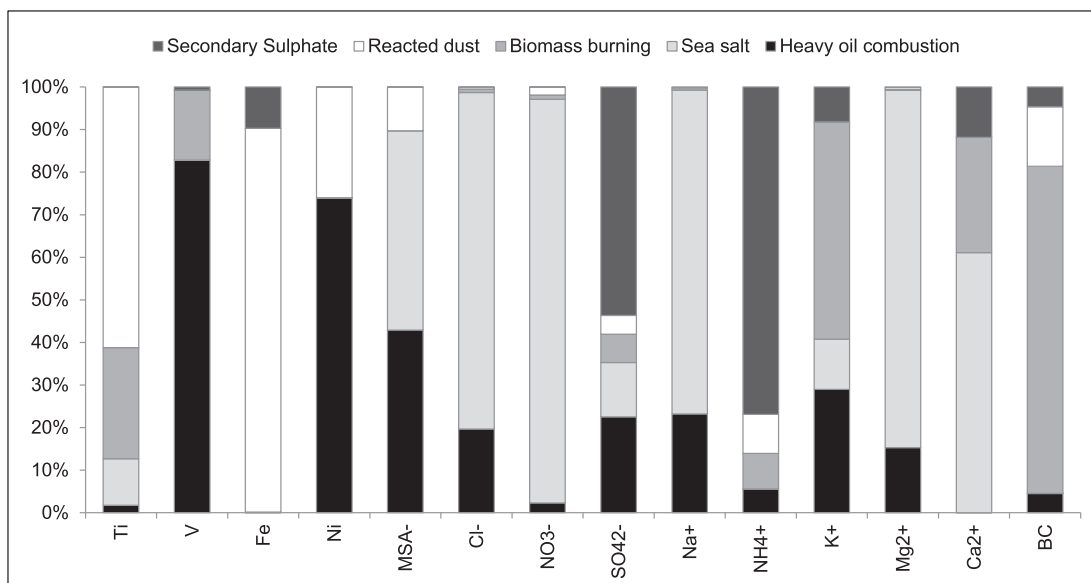


Fig. 7. Time trends of the five pollutant sources (factors) obtained by PMF analysis during the three cruise weeks in summer 2011.

The names given to the sources of the five PMF factors obviously represent a simplification; it is clear that there must be several additional minor sources that have contributed to the observed aerosol composition; in particular, land-based traffic and industrial sources. Thus, the five source profiles are not representing 'pure' sources and the names given to them will only reflect what is believed to be the principal source contributing to this profile.

4. Conclusions

PM10 aerosol samples collected during three campaigns on board a cruise ship from July to September 2011 were analysed to determine their chemical composition and to improve the source apportionment obtained during previous studies performed on board cruise ships in the Western Mediterranean. The biogenic

fraction of the sulphate was prevailing during the July campaign, together with a higher contribution of the ship emissions, probably due to the influence of predominantly marine air masses along the ship route. Five sources were resolved and identified by PMF analysis with the new data sets: *Secondary Sulphate*, *Reacted dust*, *Biomass burning*, *Sea salt* and *Heavy oil combustion*. Heavy oil combustion by ship engines was identified using V and Ni as tracers. Secondary ammonium sulphate was found to be an important source of aerosol in Western Mediterranean. The experiment allowed the identification of a contribution of primary ship emissions to PM10. This contribution turned out to be $(12 \pm 4)\%$, while secondary ammonium sulphate contributed by $(35 \pm 5)\%$. Approximately 60% of the total sulphate was attributed to secondary sources and around 20% was attributed to *Heavy oil combustion* considering the measuring campaigns not influenced by strong sea salt events.

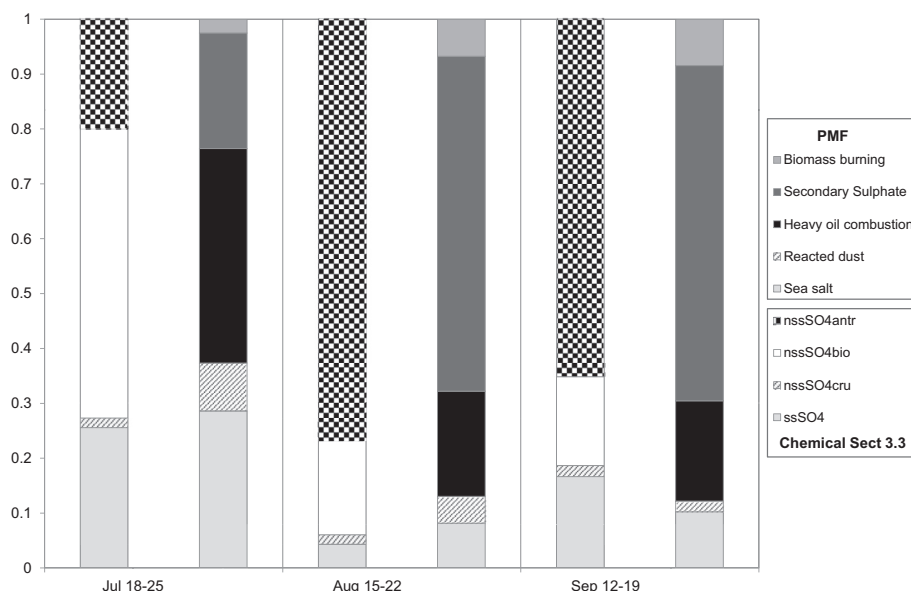


Fig. 8. Average apportionment of the total sulphate (relative values) obtained by PMF (right histograms) and by the chemical approach described in Section 3.3 (left histograms) for the three cruises of the 2011 campaign.

Table 3

Average source apportionment obtained by the PMF analysis of the PM10 data sets collected during the summer 2011 separately for the three cruise campaigns. The average source apportionment is reported in absolute and relative values.

Source	July 18–25		August 15–22		September 12–19	
	(ng m ⁻³)	(%)	(ng m ⁻³)	(%)	(ng m ⁻³)	(%)
Secondary Sulphate	730 ± 170	14 ± 3	5730 ± 720	41 ± 5	3730 ± 500	39 ± 5
Reacted dust	650 ± 40	12 ± 1	980 ± 80	7 ± 1	250 ± 40	3 ± 1
Biomass burning	540 ± 200	10 ± 4	3890 ± 600	28 ± 4	3170 ± 490	33 ± 5
Sea salt	2260 ± 330	43 ± 6	1740 ± 440	13 ± 3	1420 ± 380	15 ± 4
Heavy oil combustion	1110 ± 150	21 ± 3	1470 ± 410	11 ± 4	910 ± 410	10 ± 4

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data related to this article can be found at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2015.11.009>.

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