GEOPHYSICAL RESEARCH LETTERS, VOL. 33, L22801, doi:10.1029/2006GL027624, 2006

# **Correction published 5 October 2007**

# High loadings and source strengths of organic aerosols in China

Gehui Wang,<sup>1,2</sup> Kimitaka Kawamura,<sup>1</sup> Tomomi Watanabe,<sup>1</sup> Shuncheng Lee,<sup>3</sup> Kinfai Ho,<sup>3</sup> and Junji Cao<sup>4</sup>

Received 20 July 2006; revised 11 September 2006; accepted 18 October 2006; published 17 November 2006.

[1] Nation-wide studies of organic aerosols were conducted on a molecular level in 15 Chinese cities. The results showed strikingly high levels of organic compounds (e.g., annual concentrations of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons, phthalates, sugars and diacids are 110, 370, 400 and 830 ng m<sup>-3</sup>, respectively), especially in the midwest region during winter (up to 125  $\mu g m^{-3}$  organic carbon). Fossil fuel combustion and/or biomass burning products are 3-30 times more abundant in winter than in summer. In contrast, significant quantity of phthalates  $(168-2200 \text{ ng m}^{-3})$  was detected in summer. Concentrations of the pollutants are generally 1-3 orders of magnitude higher than those in developed countries. Their source strengths are characterized in winter by fossil fuel combustion, followed by secondary oxidation, plant wax emissions and biomass burning, whereas in summer by secondary oxidation, followed by fossil fuel combustion and plastic emissions. Citation: Wang, G., K. Kawamura, T. Watanabe, S. Lee, K. Ho, and J. Cao (2006), High loadings and source strengths of organic aerosols in China, Geophys. Res. Lett., 33, L22801, doi:10.1029/2006GL027624.

#### 1. Introduction

[2] One fourth of primary anthropogenic organic aerosols on the globe is generated in China [Cooke et al., 1999]. A steep increase in the concentrations of NOx, volatile organic compounds, particles, and ozone has been considered as the result of heavy usage of coals and the rapid growth of the number of vehicles in the urban areas, especially in the mega-cities [Akimoto, 2003; Richter et al., 2005]. China is the largest user of coal in the world, consuming 1.2 billion tons of coal in 2002, most of which are burned without efficient controls. Its annual usage is predicted to increase by 3 times in 2020 [Aldhous, 2005]. Traditional Chinese style of domestic energy utilization (i.e., coal and biofuel usage) combined with its vigorous expansion of economy and number of motor vehicles make its air pollution problems different from those of any other countries in the world.

[3] To better understand the current status of air pollution in China, a nation wide survey of organic aerosols was

Copyright 2006 by the American Geophysical Union. 0094-8276/06/2006GL027624

conducted on molecular levels in its 15 cities during summer and winter. Here, we highlight the anthropogenic compounds (i.e., polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs), phthalates, and biomass burning products) and photochemical oxidation products (i.e., dicarboxylic acids) and discuss their molecular compositions, seasonal and spatial distributions, and source strengths.

#### 2. Experiment

[4] PM<sub>2.5</sub> atmospheric aerosols were collected for 24hr using pre-combusted quartz filter. Two days of the samplings in 14 Chinese cities except Nanjing were simultaneously performed on 13 and 14 January 2003 for winter campaign, but on different days for summer campaign in June/July, 2003 to avoid any wet deposition. While a week term of aerosol collection in Nanjing was conducted in summer and winter 2004, respectively. The filter aliquot was extracted with a mixture of methanol/dichloromethane (2:1, v/v), followed by concentration, and derivatization with N,O-bis-(trimethylsilyl)trifluoroacetamide prior to GC/MS determination. Another aliquot of the sample was extracted with pure water to isolate low molecular weight dicarboxylic acids, which were concentrated and reacted with BF<sub>3</sub>/n-butanol before GC analysis. More details about the sample collection and determination can been seen in the previous papers [Kawamura and Yasui, 2005; Wang et al., 2006a, 2006b].

## 3. Results and Discussion

[5] A total of 129 organic compounds were detected, including *n*-alkanes ( $C_{16}-C_{31}$ ), PAHs (18 species), hopanes ( $C_{27}-C_{32}$ ), phthalates (6 species), fatty acids ( $C_{10}-C_{34}$ ), fatty alcohols ( $C_{12}-C_{32}$ ), sterols (4 species), lignin and resin products (3 species), sugars (8 species), polyols/polyacids (4 species), and dicarboxylic acids ( $C_2-C_{11}$ ). Levoglucosan was found as the dominant species in winter, followed by oxalic, octadecenoic and hexadecanoic acids, whereas oxalic acid was found as the dominant in summer, followed by bis(2-ethylhexyl)phthalate, hexadecanoic acid and dibutyl phthalate. Concentrations of the organic compounds detected in Chinese aerosols are 1–3 orders of magnitude higher than those in developed countries, especially in cold seasons due to the usage of coal for house heating (Table 1).

[6] Concentrations of  $\Sigma$ PAHs were found to be significantly higher in winter (14–701 ng m<sup>-3</sup>, average 198 ng m<sup>-3</sup>) than in summer (2–168 ng m<sup>-3</sup>, average 29 ng m<sup>-3</sup>) (Figure 1a). Their concentrations are generally 1–2 orders of magnitude higher than those reported in Los Angeles (12 ng m<sup>-3</sup>) [*Rogge et al.*, 1993b], London (17 ng m<sup>-3</sup>) [*Baek et al.*, 1992], and Tokyo (20 ng m<sup>-3</sup>) (K. Kawamura,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Institute of Low Temperature Science, Hokkaido University, Sapporo, Japan.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>School of the Environment, State Key Laboratory of Pollution Control and Resources Reuse, Nanjing University, Nanjing, China.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>Department of Civil and Structural Engineering, Hong Kong Polytechnic University, Hong Kong, China.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>Institute of Earth Environment, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Xi'an, China.

Compound	Winter		Summer		
	Range	Mean	Range	Mean	Comparison With Other Cities and Regions
n-Alkanes(C <sub>16</sub> -C <sub>31</sub> )	195-1430	516	10-328	138	69, Los Angeles [Rogge et al., 1993a]
UCM <sup>b</sup>	784-6050	2200	37-1520	586	880, Tokyo [Kawamura et al., 1995]
PAHs	14 - 701	198	2 - 168	29	12, Los Angeles [Rogge et al., 1993a]
					17, London [Baek et al., 1992]
					20, Tokyo (K. Kawamura, unpublished data, 1989)
Hopanes( $C_{27}-C_{32}$ )	3 - 60	18	0-15	3.1	2.6, Miami, Florida [Lang et al., 2002]
Phthalates	62-445	196	168 - 2200	551	8.2, Paris [Teil et al., 2006]
Fatty acids (C <sub>10</sub> -C <sub>34</sub> )	318-3240	1020	155 - 876	457	317, Los Angeles [Rogge et al., 1993a]
					330, Tokyo [Kawamura et al., 2003]
Fatty alcohols $(C_{12}-C_{32})^{c}$	6-527	91	3-42	21	
Sterols	11 - 1450	297	0 - 81	19	
Lignin & resin products	5-333	63	1-53	9	
Sugars	64-3240	675	9-735	130	1920, Amazonia [Graham et al., 2002]
Polyols & polyacids	33-439	120	41-195	110	
Diacids $(C_2 - C_{11})$	315-1920	867	198 - 2150	796	1870, Los Angeles [Kawamura and Kaplan, 1987]
					678, Amazonia [Graham et al., 2002]
					636, Tokyo [Kawamura and Yasui, 2005]

Table 1. Concentrations of Organic Compounds in Aerosols (PM2.5) From 15 Chinese Cities and Comparison With Other Cities and Regions in the World<sup>a</sup>

 $^{a}$ In units of ng m $^{-3}$ .  $^{b}$ UCM, unresolved complex mixture of hydrocarbons.

<sup>c</sup>Fatty alcohols with even carbon number.



Figure 1. Seasonal and spatial distributions of organic compounds in the aerosols from 15 Chinese cities (ng  $m^{-3}$ ).

unpublished data, 1989). The highest concentrations were obtained in the mid-west China, i.e., Xi'an and Chongqing (Figure 1a). In winter, benzo[*b*]fluoranthene (BbF) was found as the dominant PAH in all the cities studied (56.8  $\pm$  53.4 ng m<sup>-3</sup>), accounting for 30.1  $\pm$  4.9% of  $\Sigma$ PAHs. In summer, BbF was also the most abundant (9.3  $\pm$  14.3 ng m<sup>-3</sup>), except for Hong Kong, Xiamen and Jinchang. Indeno[1,2,3-*cd*]pyrene (IP) and benzo[*ghi*]perylene (BghiP) were the second most abundant PAHs in both seasons.

[7] Coals are commonly used in China for heating and cooking, in which combustion efficiency is very low. Around 5000 tons of PAHs were emitted in 2000 from combustion of Chinese household honeycomb-briquette that are made of coal, in which BbF gives the highest emission factor [Chen et al., 2005]. BbF was found as the dominant PAH in the soot deposits from coal-burning stoves in China [Wornat et al., 2001]. Previous PAH studies also showed the predominance of BbF in Chinese continental [Guo et al., 2003; Wang et al., 2006a] and coastal marine aerosols [Simoneit et al., 2004b]. All the data including those in this study (except the Hong Kong summer samples) demonstrated that BbF is the most abundant PAH in aerosols all over China mainly due to incomplete combustion of coals. This is different from the cases in other countries, where PAHs are largely derived from incomplete combustion of petroleum, and IP or BghiP is the dominant PAH [Menichini et al., 1999; Rogge et al., 1993a]. PAHs ratios are also used to discuss the sources of combustion-derived PAHs [Yunker et al., 2002]. Ratio of BbF/(IP + BghiP) in the 15 Chinese cities was  $1.2 \pm 0.4$  in summer and  $1.8 \pm 0.4$  in winter. They are much higher than those reported in developed countries (e.g.,  $0.3 \pm 0.2$  in USA) [Rogge et al., 1993a], further suggesting the difference in the PAH sources between China and other countries.

[8] Extremely high levels of phthalates (up to 2200 ng m<sup>-3</sup>) dominated by bis(2-ethylhexyl), dibutyl and diisobutyl phthalates are detected in the aerosols, especially in hot seasons (Table 1), probably due to an enhanced evaporative release from plastics, followed by adsorptive deposition on pre-existing particles (Figure 1b). Phthalate concentrations in Chinese aerosols are 1–3 orders of magnitude higher than those in Belgium [*Kubátová et al.*, 2002], Sweden [*Thuren and Larsson*, 1990] and France [*Teil et al.*, 2006] (Table 1 and Figure 1b). Phthalates are carcinogenic and endocrine-disrupting, and PAHs are mutagenic/carcinogenic as well. Their ubiquitous and abundant occurrences in the Chinese atmosphere may have a significant adverse impact on the local human health.

[9] Levoglucosan (dehydrated sugar) is a major burning product of cellulose, whereas dehydroabietic acid is produced by burning conifer resin. Concentrations of these biomass burning products in winter were found to be several times greater than those in summer (see Figure 1c, only for levoglucosan). In mid-west cities (Chongqing and Xi'an), their wintertime concentrations are much higher than those reported in USA, Belgium and Amazonia [*Simoneit et al.*, 2004a]. This study clearly shows that biofuel combustion is another important source for organic aerosols in China.

[10] Homologous dicarboxlylic acids  $(C_2-C_{11})$  were detected in the aerosol, dominated with oxalic acid followed by malonic and succinic acids. Their concentrations



**Figure 2.** Source strengths of organic matter in aerosols from 15 Chinese cities.

 $(200-2150 \text{ ng m}^{-3}, \text{ average } 840 \text{ ng m}^{-3})$  are lower than those from Los Angeles in 1984 [Kawamura and Kaplan, 1987], but are similar to those from Amazonia in 1999 [Graham et al., 2002] and Tokyo in 1989 [Kawamura and Yasui, 2005] (Table 1 and Figure 1d). Diacids are more abundant in summer than in winter in most north cities and vice versa in most south cities. Diacids can be produced primarily from vehicular exhaust, but the major portion is secondary oxidation products of the organic precursors [Kawamura and Kaplan, 1987; Kawamura and Yasui, 2005]. Ratios of total diacids on a carbon basis to organic carbon in the 15 cities were all higher in summer (6.8  $\pm$ 2.5%) and lower in winter  $(4.0 \pm 2.0\%)$ , indicating the enhanced photochemical oxidation in summer. The more abundant wintertime diacids in the south cities were probably caused by the accumulation within the inversion layers that are frequently developed in winter. Diacids and sugars are water-soluble, and thus have been recognized as active cloud condensation and ice formation nuclei [Sun and Ariya, 2006].

[11] Based on the organic tracers mentioned above and the classification by Simoneit et al [Simoneit et al., 2004b], averaged source strengths of organic matter in aerosols from the 15 cities are evaluated as follows. Firstly, contribution of fossil fuel usage (coal and petroleum) was defined as the sum of coal and petroleum derived n-alkanes, UCM, PAHs and hopanes. Polyacids and dicarboxylic acids were classified as secondary oxidation. Terrestrial natural background was defined as the sum of plant wax alkanes and higher molecular weight (HMW) fatty acids (C  $\geq$  15) and alcohols (C > 22). The biomass burning contribution was calculated as the sum of levoglucosan, lignin and resin products, and sterols (e.g.,  $\beta$ -sitosterol and ergosterol). Phthalates were categorized as plastics, while primary saccharides and reduced sugars except for levoglucosan, were classified into the soil category. Finally, contribution of marine natural background was defined as the sum of lower molecular weight (LMW) fatty acids and alcohols, since the LMW fatty acids and alcohols were undetectable in most cases for the inland samples.

[12] We found that fossil fuel usage is the dominant source in winter (Figure 2), contributing to nearly 50% of total identified compound mass (TCM), followed by secondary oxidation products, terrestrial plant emissions, and biomass burning (Figure 2). As discussed above, coal burning is the overwhelming source of organic aerosols in winter, although numbers of automobiles have rapidly increased these days. In contrast, secondary oxidation (i.e., diacids) were found as the most important source of summer organic aerosols, contributing one third of TCM, followed by fossil fuel combustion, plastic evaporation, and terrestrial plant emissions. The important contributions of photochemical oxidation of organic precursors have been reported in urban aerosols from Tokyo and Los Angels [*Kawamura and Yasui*, 2005; *Schauer et al.*, 1996]. Large contribution of plastic materials to summer organic aerosols may be characteristic to Chinese aerosols.

### 4. Conclusions

[13] A heavy loading of organic pollutants has been confirmed as a common phenomenon in many regions of China, not only in the economically developed areas near the coast but also in the mid and western regions. However, it was found to be different from the satellite observation of tropospheric nitrogen dioxide over China [*Richter et al.*, 2005], whose column concentrations maximized in the economically developed eastern part mainly due to the intensified emissions of vehicular exhaust. The ground surface observations demonstrated that the Chinese organic aerosols are characterized by fossil fuel and biofuel burning in winter and secondary oxidation products in summer. The high loadings of Chinese organic aerosols probably influence the local human health and regional/global climate in a significant manner.

[14] Acknowledgments. This work is financially supported by Japan Society for the Promotion of Science and the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology of Japan (Grant-in-Aid 17340166) and the National Natural Science Foundation of China (40475050 and 40121303).

#### References

- Akimoto, H. (2003), Global air quality and pollution, *Science*, 302, 1716–1719.
- Aldhous, P. (2005), China's burning ambition, Nature, 435, 1154-1520.
- Baek, S. O., M. E. Goldstone, P. W. W. Kirk, J. N. Lester, and R. Perry (1992), Concentrations of particulate and gaseous polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons in London air following a reduction in the lead content of petrol in the United Kingdom, *Sci. Total Environ.*, 111, 169–199.
- Chen, Y. J., G. Y. Sheng, X. H. Bi, Y. L. Feng, B. X. Mai, and J. M. Fu (2005), Emission factors for carbonaceous particles and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons from residential coal combustion in China, *Environ. Sci. Technol.*, 39, 1861–1867.
- Cooke, W. F., C. Liousse, H. Cachier, and J. Feichter (1999), Construction of a  $1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$  fossil fuel emission data set for carbonaceous aerosol and implementation and radiative impact in the ECHAM4 model, *J. Geophys. Res.*, 104(D18), 22,137–22,162.
- Graham, B., O. L. Mayol-Bracero, P. Guyon, G. C. Roberts, S. Decesari, M. C. Facchini, P. Artaxo, W. Maenhaut, P. Köll, and M. O. Andreae (2002), Water-soluble organic compounds in biomass burning aerosols over Amazonia: 1. Characterization by NMR and GC-MS, *J. Geophys. Res.*, 107(D20), 8047, doi:10.1029/2001JD000336.
- Guo, Z. G., L. F. Sheng, J. L. Feng, and M. Fang (2003), Seasonal variation of solvent extractable organic compounds in the aerosols in Qingdao, China, Atmos. Environ., 37, 1825–1834.
- Kawamura, K., and I. R. Kaplan (1987), Motor exhaust emissions as a primary source for dicarboxylic acids in Los Angeles ambient air, *Environ. Sci. Technol.*, 21, 105–110.
- Kawamura, K., and O. Yasui (2005), Diurnal changes in the distribution of dicarboxylic acids, ketocarboxylic acids and dicarbonyls in the urban Tokyo atmosphere, *Atmos. Environ.*, 39, 1945–1960.

- Kawamura, K., M. Kosaka, and R. Sempere (1995), Distributions and seasonal changes in hydrocarbons in urban aerosols and rain waters (in Japanese), *Chikyu Kagaku*, 29, 1–15.
- Kawamura, K., Y. Ishimura, and K. Yamazaki (2003), Four years' observations of terrestrial lipid class compounds in marine aerosols from the western North Pacific, *Global Biogeochem. Cycles*, 17(1), 1003, doi:10.1029/2001GB001810.
- Kubátová, A., R. Vermeylen, M. Claeys, J. Cafmeyer, and W. Maenhaut (2002), Organic compounds in urban aerosols from Gent, Belgium: Characterization, sources, and seasonal differences, *J. Geophys. Res.*, 107(D21), 8343, doi:10.1029/2001JD000556.
- Lang, Q., Q. Zhang, and R. Jaffe (2002), Organic aerosols in the Miami area, USA: temporal variability of atmospheric particles and wet/dry deposition, *Chemosphere*, 47, 427–441.
- Menichini, E., F. Monfredini, and F. Merli (1999), The temporal variability of the profile of carcinogenic polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons in urban air: A study in a medium traffic area in Rome, 1993–1998, *Atmos. Environ.*, 33, 3739–3750.
- Richter, A., J. Burrows, H. Nub, C. Granier, and U. Niemeier (2005), Increase in tropospheric nitrogen dioxide over China observed from space, *Nature*, 437, 129–132.
- Rogge, W. F., M. Mazurek, L. M. Hildemann, and G. R. Cass (1993a), Quantification of urban organic aerosols at a molecular level: Identification, abundance and seasonal variation, *Atmos. Environ., Part A*, 27, 1309–1330.
- Rogge, W. F., M. A. Mazurek, L. M. Hildemann, G. R. Cass, and B. R. T. Simoneit (1993b), Quantification of urban organic aerosols at a molecular level: Identification, abundance and seasonal variation, *Atmos. Environ.*, *Part A*, 27, 1309–1330.
- Schauer, J. J., W. F. Rogge, L. M. Hildemann, M. A. Mazurek, G. R. Cass, and B. R. T. Simoneit (1996), Source apportionment of airborne particulate matter using organic compounds as tracers, *Atmos, Environ*, 30, 3837–3855.
- Simoneit, B. R. T., V. O. Elias, M. Kobayashi, K. Kawamura, A. I. Rushdi, P. M. Medeiros, W. F. Rogge, and B. M. Didyk (2004a), Sugars: Dominant water-soluble organic compounds in soils and characterization as tracers in atmospheric particulate matter, *Environ. Sci. Technol.*, 38, 5939–5949.
- Simoneit, B. R. T., M. Kobayashi, M. Mochida, K. Kawamura, and B. J. Huebert (2004b), Aerosol particles collected on aircraft flights over the northwestern Pacific region during the ACE-Asia campaign: Composition and major sources of the organic compounds, J. Geophys. Res., 109, D19S09, doi:10.1029/2004JD004565.
- Sun, J., and P. A. Ariya (2006), Atmospheric organic and bio-aerosols as cloud condensation nuclei (CCN): A review, *Atmos. Environ.*, 40, 795– 820.
- Teil, M. J., M. Blanchard, and M. Chevreuil (2006), Atmospheric fate of phthalate esters in an urban area (Paris-France), *Sci. Total Environ.*, 354, 212–223.
- Thuren, A., and P. Larsson (1990), Phthalate esters in the Swedish atmosphere, *Environ. Sci. Technol.*, 24, 554–559.
- Wang, G., L. Huang, X. Zhao, H. Niu, and Z. Dai (2006a), Aliphatic and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons of atmospheric aerosols in five locations of Nanjing urban area, China, *Atmos. Res.*, 81, 54–66.
- Wang, G. H., K. Kawamura, S. C. Lee, K. F. Ho, and J. J. Cao (2006b), Molecular, seasonal and spatial distributions of organic aerosols from fourteen Chinese cities, *Environ. Sci. Technol.*, 40, 4619–4625.
- Wornat, M. J., E. B. Ledesma, and A. K. Sandrowitz (2001), Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons identified in soot extracts from domestic coalburning stoves of Henan Province, China, *Environ. Sci. Technol.*, 35, 1943–1952.
- Yunker, M. B., R. W. Macdonald, R. Vingarzan, R. H. Mitchell, D. Goyette, and S. Sylvestre (2002), PAHs in the Fraser River basin: a critical appraisal of PAH ratios as indicators of PAH source and composition, *Org. Geochem.*, 33, 489–515.

J. Cao, Institute of Earth Environment, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Xi'an, China.

K. Ho and S. Lee, Department of Civil and Structural Engineering, Hong Kong Polytechnic University, Hong Kong, China.

K. Kawamura, G. Wang, and T. Watanabe, Institute of Low Temperature Science, Hokkaido University, Kita 19, Nishi 8, Kita-ku, Sapporo 060-0819, Japan. (kawamura@lowtem.hokudai.ac.jp)