

The contribution of residential coal combustion to atmospheric PM_{2.5} in the North China during winter

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Abstract: The vast area in the North China, especially during wintertime, is currently suffering from severe haze events due to the high levels of atmospheric PM_{2.5}. To recognize the reasons for the high levels of PM_{2.5}, daily samples of PM_{2.5} were simultaneously collected at the four sampling sites of Beijing City (BJ), Baoding City (BD), Wangdu County (WD) and Dongbaituo Countryside (DBT) during the winters and springs of 2014-2015. The concentrations of the typical water-soluble ions (WSIs, such as Cl⁻, NO₃⁻, SO₄²⁻ and NH₄⁺) at DBT were found to be remarkably higher than those at BJ in the two winters, but almost the same as those at BJ in the two springs. The evidently greater concentrations of OC, EC and secondary inorganic ions (NO₃⁻, SO₄²⁻, NH₄⁺ and Cl⁻) at DBT than at WD, BD and BJ during the winter of 2015 indicated that the pollutants in the rural area were not due to transportation from its neighbor cities but dominated by local emissions. As the distinct source for atmospheric OC and EC in the rural area, the residential coal combustion also made contribution to secondary inorganic ions through the emissions of their precursors (NO_x, SO₂, NH₃ and HCl) as well as heterogeneous or multiphase reactions on the surface of OC and EC. The average mass proportions of OC, EC, NO₃⁻ and SO₄²⁻ at BD and WD were found to be very close to those at DBT, but evidently different from those at BJ, implying that the pollutants in the cities of WD and BD which are fully surrounded by the countryside were strongly affected by the residential coal combustion. The OC/EC ratios at the four sampling sites became the almost same value of 4.8 when the concentrations of PM_{2.5} were greater than 150 µg m⁻³, suggesting that the residential coal combustion could also make dominant contribution to atmospheric PM_{2.5} at BJ during the severe pollution period when the air parcels were usually from southwest-south regions where high density of farmers reside. The evident increase of the number of the species involved in significant correlations from the countryside to the cities further confirmed that residential coal combustion was preferentially dominant source for the key species in the rural area whereas the complex sources including local emissions and regional transportation were dominant for atmospheric species in the cities. The significant correlations among OC, EC, Cl⁻, NO₃⁻, and NH₄⁺ were found at the four sampling sites but only significant correlation between OC (or EC) and SO₄²⁻ was found at BJ, implying that the formation rate of

SO₄²⁻ via heterogeneous or multiphase reactions might be relatively slower than those of NO₃⁻, NH₄⁺ and Cl⁻. Based on the chemical mass closure (CMC) method, the contributions of the primary particle emission from residential coal combustion to atmospheric PM_{2.5} at BJ, BD, WD and DBT were estimated to be 32 %, 49 %, 43 % and 58 %, respectively.

1 Introduction

In recent years, the vast area in the North China is frequently suffering from severe haze pollution (Chan and Yao, 2008; Zhang et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2015), which has aroused great attention to the public (Guo et al., 2014; Huang et al., 2014; Cheng et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2016; J. Liu et al., 2016). The severe haze pollution is mainly due to the high level of fine particulate matters with dynamic diameter less than 2.5μm (PM_{2.5}) (Huang et al., 2014; P. Liu et al., 2016). PM_{2.5} can reduce atmospheric visibility by absorbing or scattering the incident light (Buseck and Posfai, 1999; Cheng et al., 2006) and increase morbidity and mortality by penetrating the human bronchi and lungs (Nel, 2005; Poschl, 2005; Peplow, 2014).

To alleviate the serious haze pollution problems, the Chinese government has performed a series of control measures for major pollution sources (Zhang et al., 2012; J. Liu et al., 2016; Li et al., 2016b; Wen et al., 2016). For example, coal-fired power plants have been forced to install flue gas desulfurization and denitration (Zhang et al., 2012; Chen et al., 2014), coal has been replaced with natural gas and electricity in megacities (Wang et al., 2009; Duan et al., 2012; Zhao et al., 2013a; Tan et al., 2016), stricter emission standards have been implemented for vehicles and industrial boilers (Zhang et al., 2012; Tang et al., 2016) and so on, resulting in the decrease trend of primary pollutants including PM_{2.5} in recent years (Ma et al., 2016; Wen et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2016). However, the PM_{2.5} levels still achieved to be above 1000 μg m⁻³ in some areas of Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei (BTH) region during the period of the red alert for haze in December 2016 (http://english.mep.gov.cn/News_service/media_news/201612/t20161220_369317.shtml) when

the stricter control measures (e.g. stop production for industries and construction, and the odd and even number rule) had been performed (Y. Li et al., 2016), implying that sources other than industries, construction and vehicles might make dominant contribution to atmospheric PM_{2.5} in the region. Residential coal combustion which is prevailing for heating during winter in the region was suspected to be a dominant source for atmospheric PM_{2.5}. Although annual residential coal consumption (about 4,200,000 kg) in BTH region only accounts for small fraction (about 11 %) of the total coal consumption (http://www.qstheory.cn/st/dfst/201306/t20130607_238302.htm), the emission factors of primary pollutants including PM_{2.5} from the residential coal combustion have been found to be about 1-3 orders of magnitude greater than those from coal combustion of industries and power plants (Revuelta et al., 1999; Chen et al., 2005; Xu et al., 2006; Zhang et al., 2008; Geng et al., 2014; Yang et al., 2016). In addition, annual residential coal consumption mainly focuses on the four months in winter. Although the Chinese government has implemented control measures for residential coal combustion (e.g. replacement of traditional coal stoves by new stoves, bituminous coal by anthracite, and coal by electricity and natural gas), the promotion strength of the control measures is still very limited. Additionally, the promotion new stoves are still with strong smoke emission due to lack of clean combustion technique, and the anthracite is not welcomed by farmers because of its extremely slow combustion rate in comparison with bituminous coal.

There were few studies focusing on the influence of residential coal combustion on atmospheric particles in the North China. W. Li et al. (2014) concluded that strong sources for PM₁₀ in rural residential areas were from household solid fuel combustion, based on annual mean PM₁₀ concentrations observed in urban regions ($180 \pm 171 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) and rural villages ($182 \pm 154 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$)

in the northern China. Duan et al. (2012) inferred that the lower OC/EC ratios at the rural site than at the urban site were ascribed to coal combustion prevailed in the rural area. Our previous study revealed that residential coal combustion made evident contribution to atmospheric water-soluble ions (WSIs) in Beijing (P. Liu et al., 2016). Based on Weather Research and Forecasting model coupled with Chemistry, J. Liu et al. (2016) recently estimated that the residential sources (solid fuel) contributed 32 % and 53 % of the primary PM_{2.5} emissions in the BTH region during the whole year and during the winter of 2010, respectively.

In this study, daily samples of PM_{2.5} were simultaneously collected at the four sampling sites (Beijing City, Baoding City, Wangdu County and Dongbaituo Countryside) during the winters and springs of 2014-2015, and the direct evidence for the influence of residential coal combustion on regional PM_{2.5} in the region was found based on the PM_{2.5} levels, the PM_{2.5} composition characteristics, the correlations among the key species in PM_{2.5}, the back trajectories and the chemical mass closure method.

2 Materials and methods

2.1 Sampling sites

The two sampling sites in Beijing City and Dongbaituo Countryside, which have been described in detail by our previous study (P. Liu et al., 2016), were selected on a rooftop (approximately 25 m and 5 m above ground, respectively) of the Research Center for Eco-Environmental Sciences, Chinese Academy of Sciences (RCEES, CAS) and a field station in the agricultural field of Dongbaituo village, Baoding, Hebei Province, respectively. Another two sampling sites in Baoding City and Wangdu County were both chosen on the rooftop of local environmental monitor station (about 30 m and 20 m above ground, respectively), which are both located in the

center of the cities and surrounded by some commercial and residential areas. The spatial locations of the four sampling sites are presented in Fig. 1 and the distances between Beijing and Baoding, Baoding and Wangdu, Wangdu and Dongbaituo are about 156 km, 36 km and 12 km, respectively. Thereafter, the sampling sites of Beijing, Baoding, Wangdu and Dongbaituo are abbreviated as BJ, BD, WD and DBT, respectively.

2.2 Sample collection and analysis

PM_{2.5} samples at BJ and DBT were collected simultaneously on PTFE filters (90 mm, Millipore) by medium-volume PM_{2.5} samplers (LaoYing-2034) at a flow rate of 100 L min⁻¹ from January 15, 2014 to May 31, 2015, in winter (January 15, 2014-February 25, 2014, November 18, 2014-January 20, 2015 and February 11, 2015-March 15, 2015) and spring (April 21, 2014-May 4, 2014 and March 20, 2015-May 31, 2015). An enhanced observation at BJ, BD, WD and DBT was carried out from January 21 to February 10, 2015 and PM_{2.5} samples were collected in the same way on the quartz fiber filters (90 mm, Munktell). The sampling duration was 24 h (from 15:00 p.m. to 15:00 p.m. of the following day in local time (UTC + 8)). All the samples were put in the appropriate dishes (90 mm, Millipore) after sampling and preserved in a refrigerator immediately until analysis.

As for the quartz fiber filters, half of each filter was extracted ultrasonically with 10 mL ultrapure water for half an hour. The solutions were filtered through a micro-porous membrane (pore size, 0.45 μm; diameter, 13 mm) before analysis and the WSI_s (Cl⁻, NO₃⁻, SO₄²⁻, Na⁺, NH₄⁺, Mg²⁺, Ca²⁺ and K⁺) in the treated filtrates were analyzed by Ion Chromatography (IC, WAYEE IC6200) which has been described in detail by our previous study (P. Liu et al., 2016). A quarter of each filter was cut into fragments and digested with 5 mL 65 % HNO₃ and 2 mL 30 % H₂O₂ (Li et al., 2015) by a

microwave digestion system (SINEO, MASTER-40). The digestion solution was diluted to 25 mL with ultrapure water to insure the solution acidity below 10 % and the trace elements (Al, Mn, Fe, Cu, Zn, As, Se, Sr, Tl and Pb) in the diluted solution were analyzed by a triple-quadrupole inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS/MS, Agilent 8800). The standard reference material (GBW07427) was also digested as the same way as the samples and the recoveries of the trace elements were within the allowable ranges of the certified values (100 ± 15 %). Another quarter of each filter was analyzed by a DRI thermal optical carbon analyzer (DRI-2001A) for carbon components (OC and EC). In addition, the PTFE filters were only used for analyzing the WSIs (P. Liu et al., 2016).

2.3 Chemical mass closure

Chemical mass closure (CMC) method was adopted by considering secondary inorganic aerosols (SIA, the sum of SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^- and NH_4^+), sea salt & coal combustion (derived from Cl^- and Na^+), biomass burning (characterized by K^+), mineral dust, EC, primary organic carbon (POC), secondary organic carbon (SOC) and trace element oxide (TEO) (Hsu et al., 2010b; Zhang et al., 2013; Mantas et al., 2014; Tian et al., 2014; Kong et al., 2015).

Atmospheric Na^+ and Cl^- were considered to be from sea salt (Brewer, 1975; van Eyk et al., 2011), coal combustion (Bläsing and Müller, 2012; Yu et al., 2013; Wu et al., 2014; He et al., 2015; P. Liu et al., 2016) and biomass burning (Zong et al., 2016; Yao et al., 2016). However, biomass burning in the NCP region is mainly focusing on the harvest seasons in summer and autumn (Zong et al., 2016), and few farmers are currently combusting crop straws for household cooking and heating because of the inconvenience of biomass with respect to coal and liquid gas. Thus, only sea salt and coal combustion were considered for the estimation of mass concentrations for atmospheric

Na⁺ and Cl⁻ in this study based on the following equations:

$$[Cl_{cc}^-] + [Cl_{ss}^-] = [Cl^-] \quad (1)$$

$$[Na_{cc}^+] + [Na_{ss}^+] = [Na^+] \quad (2)$$

$$\frac{[Cl_{cc}^-]/35.5}{[Na_{cc}^+]/23} = 1.4 \quad (3)$$

$$\frac{[Cl_{ss}^-]/35.5}{[Na_{ss}^+]/23} = 1.18 \quad (4)$$

where [Cl_{ss}⁻] and [Na_{ss}⁺] are the mass concentrations of Cl⁻ and Na⁺ from sea salt, and [Cl_{cc}⁻] and [Na_{cc}⁺] are the mass concentrations of Cl⁻ and Na⁺ from coal combustion. The molar ratio of Cl_{ss}⁻ to Na_{ss}⁺ was adopted to be 1.18 which represented the typical ratio from sea salt (Brewer, 1975). The molar ratio of Cl_{cc}⁻ to Na_{cc}⁺ was chosen to be 1.4 in this study according to our preliminary measurements from the raw bituminous coal prevailed in the North China and the value of 1.4 has been recorded by the previous study (Bläsing and Müller, 2012). If the molar ratios of atmospheric Cl⁻ to Na⁺ in PM_{2.5} were greater than the value of 1.4 or lower than the value of 1.18, atmospheric Cl⁻ and Na⁺ would be considered to be totally from coal combustion or sea salt.

Because the average Al content accounts for about 7 % in mineral dust (Zhang et al., 2003; Ho et al., 2006; Hsu et al., 2010a; Zhang et al., 2013), the mineral dust was estimated based on the follow equation:

$$[Mineral\ dust] = \frac{[Al]}{0.07} \quad (5)$$

POC and SOC were calculated by the EC-tracer OC/EC method (Cheng et al., 2011; Zhao et al., 2013b; G. J. Zheng et al., 2015; Cui et al., 2015) as follows:

$$[POC] = [EC] \times \left(\frac{[OC]}{[EC]} \right)_{pri} = K[EC] + M \quad (6)$$

$$[SOC] = [OC] - [POC] \quad (7)$$

The values of K and M are estimated by linear regression analysis using the data pairs with the lowest 10 % percentile of ambient OC/EC ratios. It should be mentioned that POC could be underestimated and SOC could be overestimated by the EC-tracer OC/EC method, because the lowest 10 % percentile of OC/EC ratios measured were usually less than those from dominant sources of coal combustion and biomass burning in autumn and winter (Ding et al., 2012; Cui et al., 2015).

To estimate the contribution of heavy metal oxide, the enrichment factors (EF) of various heavy metal elements were calculated by the following equation (Hsu et al., 2010b; Zhang et al., 2013):

$$EF = \frac{([Element]/[Al])_{aerosol}}{([Element]/[Al])_{crust}} \quad (8)$$

where $([Element]/[Al])_{aerosol}$ is the ratio of the element to Al in aerosols and $([Element]/[Al])_{crust}$ is the ratio of the element to Al in the average crust (Taylor, 1964). According to the method developed by Landis et al. (2001), the atmospheric concentrations of elements were multiplied by a factor of 0, 0.5 and 1 if their EFs were less than 1, between 1 and 5, and greater than 5, respectively. Based on the EFs (Fig. 2), the equation for estimating TEO was derived as following:

$$[TEO] = 1.3 \times ([Cu] + [Zn] + [Pb] + [As] + [Se] + [Tl] + 0.5 \times [Mn]) \quad (9)$$

The value of 1.3 was the conversion factor of metal abundance to oxide abundance. It should be mentioned that some other elements such as Cd and Ba were not measured in this study, probably resulting in underestimating the proportion of TEO. Nevertheless, the biases are probably insignificant because the proportion of TEO only accounted for less than 2 % in $PM_{2.5}$.

2.4 Meteorological, trace gases and back trajectory

Both the meteorological data, including wind speed, wind direction, relative humidity (RH), temperature, barometric pressure and air quality index (AQI) of $PM_{2.5}$, SO_2 , NO_2 , CO, O_3 at BJ,

BD and WD were obtained from Beijing urban ecosystem research station in RCEES, CAS (<http://www.bjurban.rcees.cas.cn/>), environmental protection bureau of Baoding City (<http://bdhb.gov.cn/>) and environmental monitoring station of Wangdu County (<http://www.wdx.gov.cn/>), respectively. The meteorological data at BJ and BD are shown in Fig. 3 and the average concentrations of SO₂ and NO₂ at BJ, BD and WD are listed in Table 2 during the sampling period in the winter of 2015, which will be discussed in section 3.2 and 3.3.

The air mass backward trajectories were calculated for 24 h through the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) Hybrid Single-Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory Version 4 model (HYSPLIT 4 model) with National Centers for Environmental Prediction's (NCEP) global data. The backward trajectories arriving at 500 m above sampling position were computed at 0:00 h, 6:00 h, 12:00 h and 18:00 h (UTC) for each sampling day, respectively. A K-means cluster method was then used for classifying the trajectories into several different clusters and suitable clusters were selected for further analysis.

3 Results and discussion

3.1 Comparison of atmospheric WSIs between the two sampling sites of BJ and DBT

The daily variations of atmospheric WSIs during the sampling periods at BJ and DBT are shown in Fig. 4. It is evident that the variations of the WSIs between the two sampling sites of BJ and DBT exhibited similar trend, but the mass concentrations of the WSIs were remarkably greater at DBT than at BJ during the two winter seasons. As listed in Table 1, the average concentrations of the typical WSIs were a factor of 1.5-2.0 greater at DBT than at BJ during the two winter seasons, whereas they were approximately the same at the two sampling sites during the two spring seasons. To clearly reveal the differences, the daily D-values (the concentrations of WSIs at DBT minus

those at BJ) of several typical WSIs as well as the total WSIs between the two sampling sites of DBT and BJ are individually illustrated in Fig. 5. With only the exception for Ca^{2+} (typical mineral dust component), the D-values of NH_4^+ , NO_3^- , SO_4^{2-} and Cl^- between the two sampling sites of DBT and BJ exhibited obviously positive values during the most sampling days in the two winter seasons, implying that the sources related to mineral dust could be excluded for explaining the obviously higher concentrations of the WSIs at DBT than at BJ. The sampling site of DBT is adjacent to Baoding city where the AQI during the winter always ranked the top three among Chinese cities in recent years (<http://113.108.142.147:20035/emcpublish/>), and hence the relatively greater concentrations of the WSIs at DBT might be due to the regional pollution. However, the emissions of pollutants from industries, power plants and vehicles are usually relatively stable, which could not account for the remarkable differences of the D-values between the winters and the springs (Fig. 5). If the relatively high concentrations of the WSIs at DBT during the winter were ascribed to the regional pollution, there would be additional strong sources for them in the area of Baoding. To explore whether the regional pollution was responsible for the relatively high concentrations of the WSIs at DBT in winter, the various species in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ collected simultaneously at DBT and its neighbor cities of WD, BD and BJ in the winter of 2015 were further investigated in the following section.

3.2 Daily variations of the species in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ at the four sampling sites

The daily variations of the species in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ at the four sampling sites also exhibited similar fluctuation trends (Fig. 6), but there was obvious difference ($p < 0.01$) in the concentrations of OC, EC, NH_4^+ , NO_3^- , SO_4^{2-} , Cl^- and K^+ among the four sampling sites, ranked in order as $\text{BJ} < \text{WD} < \text{BD} < \text{DBT}$. The meteorological conditions, especially wind speed and planetary boundary layer

(PBL), play pivotal roles in the dispersion and accumulation of atmospheric pollutants (Xu et al., 2011; Tao et al., 2012; Sun et al., 2013; Chen et al., 2015; Gao et al., 2016), which can cause spatial and temporal difference of pollutants. As for the sampling sites of BD, WD and DBT, the meteorological conditions could be considered as the same because of the short distances (< 36 km) among them, and hence the spatial difference of $PM_{2.5}$ and the major components at the three sampling sites was rationally ascribed to the different source strengths. Although the distance between the sampling sites of BJ and BD is about 156 km, there was no significant difference of the wind speeds between the two sampling sites during the sampling period (1.4 ± 1.4 m/s for BJ and 1.7 ± 1.1 m/s for BD, Fig. 3). Therefore, the spatial difference of $PM_{2.5}$ and the major components between the sampling sites of BJ and the other three could not be ascribed to the difference of the wind speeds. Because the information of PBL was not available in the region of Baoding, it is difficult to discuss the impact of PBL on the spatial difference of the pollutants. As listed in Table 2, the average concentration of the total species at DBT was about a factor of 2.7, 1.8 and 1.4 higher than those at BJ, WD and BD, respectively. The largest levels of the key species in $PM_{2.5}$ at DBT among the four sampling sites implied that the pollutants at the rural site were not through the air parcel transportation from its neighbor cities but mainly ascribed to the local emissions or formation. Vehicles and industries could be rationally excluded for explaining the largest levels of the key species in $PM_{2.5}$ at DBT, because these sources are very sparse in the rural area around DBT (See section 3.4). Compared with the cities, the distinct source for atmospheric pollutants at DBT in winter is the residential coal combustion which is prevailingly used for heating and cooking in rural areas of the Northern China. The emissions of various pollutants from residential coal combustion were very serious due to lack of any control measures, strong smoke

could be seen in the chimney of the residential coal stoves. The emission factors of OC and EC from residential coal combustion were reported to be 0.47-7.82 g kg⁻¹ coal and 0.028-2.75 g kg⁻¹ coal, respectively (Chen et al., 2005; Zhang et al., 2008). The emission factors of various pollutants from a typical residential coal stove fueled with raw bituminous coal were also investigated in our group (Du et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2017) according to farmers' customary uses of coal stoves under the alternation cycles of flaming and smoldering. The emission factors of OC and EC under the entire combustion process could achieve to be 10.99 ± 0.95 g kg⁻¹ coal and 0.84 ± 0.06 g kg⁻¹ coal, respectively (Table 3). Considering the high density of farmers in the rural area, the largest levels of atmospheric OC and EC at DBT could be rationally ascribed to residential coal combustion. However, the proportion of the WSIs from residential coal combustion (Fig. 7a) were extremely low with respect to that of the atmosphere. Therefore, the largest levels of the key WSIs in PM_{2.5} at DBT were suspected to the secondary formation via the heterogeneous or multiphase reactions which might be accelerated by the OC and EC particles (Han et al., 2013; Zhao et al., 2016) emitted from residential coal combustion.

Although the three sampling sites of DBT, WD and BD are closely adjacent, the lowest concentrations of the key species in PM_{2.5} were observed at WD, which was probably ascribed to the replacement of coal with natural gas for the central heating in the county of WD (a main pipe of natural gas is just across the county), e.g., the average concentration of NO₂ was higher at WD than at BD, whereas the average concentration of SO₂ was on the contrary (Table 2).

The city of BD and the county of WD are fully surrounded by high density of countryside, whereas the city of BJ is only neighbored with high density of countryside in the south-southeast-southwest directions, and thus the residential coal combustion was also suspected

to be responsible for the remarkably higher concentrations of the key species in PM_{2.5} at BD and WD than at BJ. To confirm the above assumptions, the chemical composition and source characteristics of the species in PM_{2.5} were further analyzed in the following section.

3.3 Chemical composition of PM_{2.5} at the four sampling sites

The average mass proportions of the species in PM_{2.5} during the sampling period at the four sampling sites are illustrated in Fig. 7b. OC, EC, NH₄⁺, NO₃⁻ and SO₄²⁻ were found to be the principal species, accounting for about 82 %-88 % of the total species in PM_{2.5} at each sampling site, which were in line with previous studies (Zhao et al., 2013a; X. J. Zhao et al., 2013; Tian et al., 2014; Huang et al., 2014). As for the proportions of individual species, there were obvious differences between the sampling site of BJ and the sampling sites of BD, WD and DBT. The average mass proportions of OC and EC at BD, WD and DBT were very close, accounting for about 45.7 %-47.1 % and 9.0 %-10.4 % of the total species in PM_{2.5}, respectively, which were about 8 % for OC and 2 % for EC greater than those at BJ. In contrast to OC and EC, the average mass proportions of NO₃⁻ (10.1 %-10.8 %) and SO₄²⁻ (11.2 %-11.7 %) at BD, WD and DBT were about 5 % and 3 % less than those (15.1 % for NO₃⁻ and 14.0 % for SO₄²⁻) at BJ, respectively. The obvious differences of the mass proportions of OC, EC, NO₃⁻ and SO₄²⁻ between the sampling site of BJ and the sampling sites of BD, WD and DBT indicated that the sources for the principal species at BJ were different from the other three sampling sites. The mass proportions of OC, EC, NO₃⁻ and SO₄²⁻ at BD and WD were very close to those at DBT, implying that residential coal combustion might also be the dominant source for the species in PM_{2.5} at BD and WD. Residential sector (dominated by residential coal combustion) in the region of BTH during winter has been recognized as the dominant source for atmospheric OC and EC (Chen et al., 2017), which was

306 estimated to contribute 85% and 65% of primary OC and EC emissions, respectively (J. Liu et al.,
 307 2016). Because the sampling sites of DBT, BD and WD are located in or fully surrounded by high
 308 density of countryside, the contribution of residential coal combustion to atmospheric OC and EC
 309 at DBT, BD and WD must evidently exceed the regional values estimated by J. Liu et al. (2016).
 310 Although the mass proportions of NO_3^- and SO_4^{2-} were evidently lower at BD, WD and DBT than
 311 at BJ, the average mass concentrations of NO_3^- and SO_4^{2-} were on the contrary (Table 2).
 312 Atmospheric NO_3^- and SO_4^{2-} are mainly from secondary formation via heterogeneous, multiphase
 313 or gas-phase reactions which are depended on the concentrations of their precursors (NO_2 and SO_2)
 314 and OH radicals, the surface characteristics and areas of particles, and RH (Ravishankara, 1997;
 315 Wang et al., 2013; Quan et al., 2014; Nie et al., 2014; He et al., 2014; Yang et al., 2015; B. Zheng
 316 et al., 2015). The remarkably higher concentrations of NO_2 , SO_2 and $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ at BD, WD and DBT
 317 (Liu et al., 2015) than at BJ (Table 2) favored secondary formation of NO_3^- and SO_4^{2-} , resulting in
 318 the relatively high concentrations of NO_3^- and SO_4^{2-} .
 319 As shown in Fig. 8, the serious pollution episodes at BJ usually occurred during the periods with
 320 the air parcel from the southwest-south directions where farmers with high density reside, and thus
 321 residential coal combustion might also make evident contribution to atmospheric pollutants at BJ.
 322 Because the species in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ at BJ during the serious pollution episodes accounted for very large
 323 weight of their average concentrations, the proportions of the species in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ were dominated by
 324 the serious pollution events. The highest NO_3^- and SO_4^{2-} proportions and the lowest OC and EC
 325 proportions at BJ among the four sampling sites might be partly ascribed to the conversions of
 326 NO_2 and SO_2 to NO_3^- and SO_4^{2-} during the air parcel transportation from the south-southwest
 327 directions. The contribution of the transportation to atmospheric OC and EC at BJ could be

verified by the correlations between the OC/EC ratios and the PM_{2.5} levels (Fig. 9). The OC/EC ratios (about 4.9 ± 0.7) at WD and DBT were almost independent of the PM_{2.5} levels, whereas the OC/EC ratios at BJ and BD remarkably decreased with increasing the PM_{2.5} levels and reached the almost same value (about 4.8 ± 0.5) as those at WD and DBT when the concentrations of PM_{2.5} were above $150 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (the serious pollution events). Because there were relatively sparse emissions from vehicles and industries at WD and DBT, the almost constant of OC/EC ratios under the different levels of PM_{2.5} at WD and DBT further revealed that atmospheric OC and EC were dominated by the local residential coal combustion. The almost same OC/EC ratios at the four sampling sites with the concentrations of PM_{2.5} greater than $150 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ indicated that the residential coal combustion also made dominant contribution to atmospheric OC and EC in the two cities during the severe pollution period. Our previous study (C. Liu et al., 2016) also found that the contribution from residential coal combustion to atmospheric VOCs increased from 23 % to 33 % with increasing pollution levels in Beijing.

It should be mentioned that the OC/EC ratios observed at DBT and WD were about a factor of 2.7 less than that (13.1) of the emission from the residential coal combustion, whereas at BJ and BD were too high to be explained by direct emissions from diesel (0.4-0.8) and gasoline (3.1) vehicles (Shah et al., 2004; Geller et al., 2006). The OC emitted from the residential coal combustion might be easily degraded or volatilized in the atmosphere, resulting in the relatively low OC/EC ratios observed at DBT and WD. In China, aromatic compounds as typical pollutants from vehicle emissions are very reactive to make contribution to secondary organic aerosols (SOA) (Zhang et al., 2017), which was suspected to make evident contribution to the OC/EC ratios at BJ and BD when the atmospheric EC concentrations were relatively low. For example, the extremely high

OC/EC ratios (> 6.0) at BJ and BD only occurred when the atmospheric EC concentrations were less than $3.2 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ at BJ and $5.4 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ at BD. Because the atmospheric EC concentrations at BJ and BD were about a factor of 4-6 greater during the serious pollution events than during the slight pollution events, the effect of SOA formation on the OC/EC ratios would become less during the serious pollution events if the SOA formation rate kept constant.

3.4 Correlations among the species in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$

The correlations among the WSIs, OC and EC in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ at the four sampling sites are listed in [Table 4](#). The number of the species involved in significant correlations evidently increased from the countryside to the cities and was 18, 28, 30 and 36 at DBT, WD, BD and BJ, respectively. The significant correlations among the species could be classified as three types: 1) associated with OC and EC; 2) associated with Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} ; and 3) associated with K^+ . Three types of significant correlations at DBT were independent of each other, whereas they were involved in interrelation more and more from WD to BJ. The independence for the three types of significant correlations at DBT further confirmed that residential coal combustion was preferentially dominant source for atmospheric OC and EC. The significant correlations among OC, EC, NO_3^- , NH_4^+ and Cl^- at DBT indicated that the OC and EC emitted from the residential coal combustion could quickly accelerate secondary formation of NO_3^- , NH_4^+ and Cl^- via heterogeneous or multiphase reactions of NO_x , NH_3 and HCl which have been verified to be emitted from the residential coal combustion (Wang et al., 2005; Shapiro et al., 2007; Blasing and Müller, 2010; Meng et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2013; Gao et al., 2015; Li et al., 2016a; Huang et al., 2016). The interrelation for the three types of significant correlations at WD, BD and BJ implied that complex sources including local emissions and regional transportation were dominant for atmospheric species in the cities. The species

associated with Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} from construction and road dust (Liang et al., 2016) as well as the species associated with K^+ from biomass (municipal solid waste) burning (Gao et al., 2011; J. Li et al., 2014; Yao et al., 2016) in the cities would accumulate under stagnant air conditions at the earth surface, meanwhile the OC and EC concentrations could also increase due to the air parcel transportation with abundant OC and EC in the upper layer from the south-southwest directions (Fig. 8). It is interesting to note that the significant correlations among OC, EC, NO_3^- , NH_4^+ and Cl^- were found at the four sampling sites, whereas the significant correlation between OC (or EC) and SO_4^{2-} was only found at BJ. Because the sampling sites of DBT, WD and BD are close to the source of OC and EC from the residential coal combustion, the significant correlations among OC, EC, NO_3^- , NH_4^+ and Cl^- but the insignificant correlation between OC (or EC) and SO_4^{2-} implied that the formation rate of SO_4^{2-} via heterogeneous or multiphase reactions might be relatively slower than those of NO_3^- , NH_4^+ and Cl^- . The reactive uptake coefficients of SO_2 oxidation by O_3 were reported to be from 4.3×10^{-8} to 7×10^{-7} on different mineral aerosols and from 1×10^{-6} to 6×10^{-6} on soot particles (Wu et al., 2011; Song et al., 2012), which were at least one order of magnitude less than those of NO_2 (1.03×10^{-2} - 3.43×10^{-3} on soot particles and 1.03×10^{-6} - 1.2×10^{-5} on mineral aerosols) (Underwood et al., 2001; Esteve et al., 2004; Ma et al., 2011; Ma et al., 2017). The OC, EC and SO_2 emitted from the residential coal combustion experienced the relatively long period of excursion to be transported to Beijing, resulting in the significant correlation between OC (or EC) and SO_4^{2-} at BJ.

As listed in Table 5, the pronounced correlations for [As] vs. [Se] and [Cu] vs. [Zn] at the four sampling sites indicated that the two pairs of elements were from the common sources. Based on the remarkable elevations of As and Se near a coal-fired power plant with respect to the

background site, Jayasekher (2009) pointed out that their significant correlation can be used as the tracer for coal combustion. Because Cu and Zn have been found to be mainly released from the additives of vehicle lubricating oils, brake and tire wear during transportation activities (Yu et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2013; Tan et al., 2016), their significant correlation has been used as the tracer for vehicle emissions. Both coal combustion and vehicle emissions could make contribution to atmospheric Pb (Zhang et al., 2013; Gao et al., 2016), and thus the correlations for [Pb] vs. [Cu+Zn] and [Pb] vs. [As+Se] could reflect their local dominant sources. As shown in Fig. 10, the significant correlation between [Pb] and [Cu+Zn] but no correlation between [Pb] and [As+Se] were found at BJ, whereas the correlations at the rural site of DBT were on the contrary, indicating that atmospheric Pb, Cu and Zn at BJ were mainly related to the vehicle emissions and atmospheric Pb, As and Se at DBT were dominated by residential coal combustion. Because the sampling sites of BD and WD were affected by both vehicle emissions and residential coal combustion, the significant correlations between [Pb] and [Cu+Zn] as well as [Pb] and [As+Se] were found at the two sampling sites. Although there was no correlation between [Pb] and [As+Se] at BJ, the contribution of residential coal combustion to atmospheric PM_{2.5} in the city of BJ could not be excluded because the trace elements from coal combustion are mainly present in relatively large particles (0.8-2.5 μm) which might quickly deposit near their sources (Wang et al., 2008).

3.5 Source apportionment of PM_{2.5} at the four sampling sites

The source characteristics of PM_{2.5} at the four sampling sites were analyzed by the CMC method which has been described in detail in section 2.3. The average proportions of the species from different sources in PM_{2.5} during the sampling period at the four sampling sites are comparatively shown in Fig. 11. It is evident that secondary aerosols (SIA + SOC) accounted for the largest

proportion (about 32-41 %) in $PM_{2.5}$, followed by POC (about 24-28 %), EC (about 6-8 %),
 mineral dust (about 2-8 %) and Cl_{cc}^- (about 2-5 %) at the four sampling sites. The proportion of
 mineral dust was the highest at BJ and the lowest at DBT among the four sampling sites, whereas
 the proportion of Cl_{cc}^- was on the contrary. Because the concentrations of the mineral dust
 compounds were much higher under stagnant weather condition than under clean days at BJ, the
 remarkably high proportion of mineral dust at BJ was mainly ascribed to the emissions from road
 dust and construction (Liang et al., 2016) during the sampling period. The obviously high
 proportion of Cl_{cc}^- at DBT was ascribed to the emission from residential coal combustion (Shen et
 al., 2016). In addition, the proportions of TEO, K_{bb}^+ and Cl_{ss}^- were less than about 2 %, which
 were insignificant to the sources of $PM_{2.5}$ at the four sampling sites during the sampling period.
 Atmospheric Primary Organic Matters (POM) and Cl_{cc}^- at the four sampling sites could be
 estimated based on $POM \approx POC \times 1.6$ (Cheung et al., 2005; Hsu et al., 2010b; Han et al., 2015)
 and the formulas (1)-(4), respectively. The sum of POM, EC and Cl_{cc}^- at DBT was assumed to be
 solely from residential coal combustion, accounting for about 58% in $PM_{2.5}$ (Fig. 12). Assuming
 that the ratio of Cl_{cc}^- to the sum of POM, EC and Cl_{cc}^- was constant for coal combustion at the four
 sampling sites, the primary contribution of coal combustion to atmospheric $PM_{2.5}$ at BJ, BD and
 WD could be estimated to be 32 %, 49 % and 43 % (Fig. 12), respectively. The annual residential
 coal consumption mainly focused on the four months in winter, accounting for about 11 % of the
 total coal consumption in the region of BTH. Because the emission factor of $PM_{2.5}$ from
 residential coal combustion (about 1054-12910 mg kg^{-1}) was about 1-3 orders of magnitude
 greater than those from industry boilers or coal power plants (about 16-100 mg kg^{-1}) (Chen et al.,
 2005; Zhang et al., 2008), the estimated proportions of the contribution of coal combustion to

atmospheric PM_{2.5} at the four sampling sites during the winter were mainly ascribed to residential coal combustion. If only the primary PM_{2.5} was considered, the contribution of residential coal combustion to the primary PM_{2.5} at BJ would achieve to be about 59 % which was in line with the value of 57 % estimated by J. Liu et al. (2016) for the winter of 2010 in Beijing.

4 Conclusions

Based on the comprehensive analysis of the levels, composition characteristics, the correlations of the key species in PM_{2.5} and the back trajectories, residential coal combustion in the North China during winter was found not only to be the dominant source for atmospheric OC, EC, Cl⁻, NO₃⁻, SO₄²⁻ and NH₄⁺ in rural areas but also to make evident contribution to the species in cities. According to the CMC method, the contributions of the primary particle emission from residential coal combustion to atmospheric PM_{2.5} at BJ, BD, WD and DBT during winter were estimated to be 32 %, 49 %, 43 % and 58 %, respectively. Therefore, strict control measures should be implemented for the emissions from residential coal combustion to mitigate the currently serious PM_{2.5} pollution during the winter in the North China.

Author contribution

Y. J. Mu designed the experiments and prepared the manuscript. **P. F. Liu** and **C. L. Zhang** carried out the experiments and prepared the manuscript, and contributed equally to this work. **C. Y. Xue** carried out the experiments. **J. F. Liu**, **Y. Y. Zhang**, **D. Tian** and **C. Ye** were involved in part of the work. **H. X. Zhang** provided the meteorological data and trace gases in Beijing. **J. Guan** provided the meteorological data and trace gases in Baoding and Wangdu.

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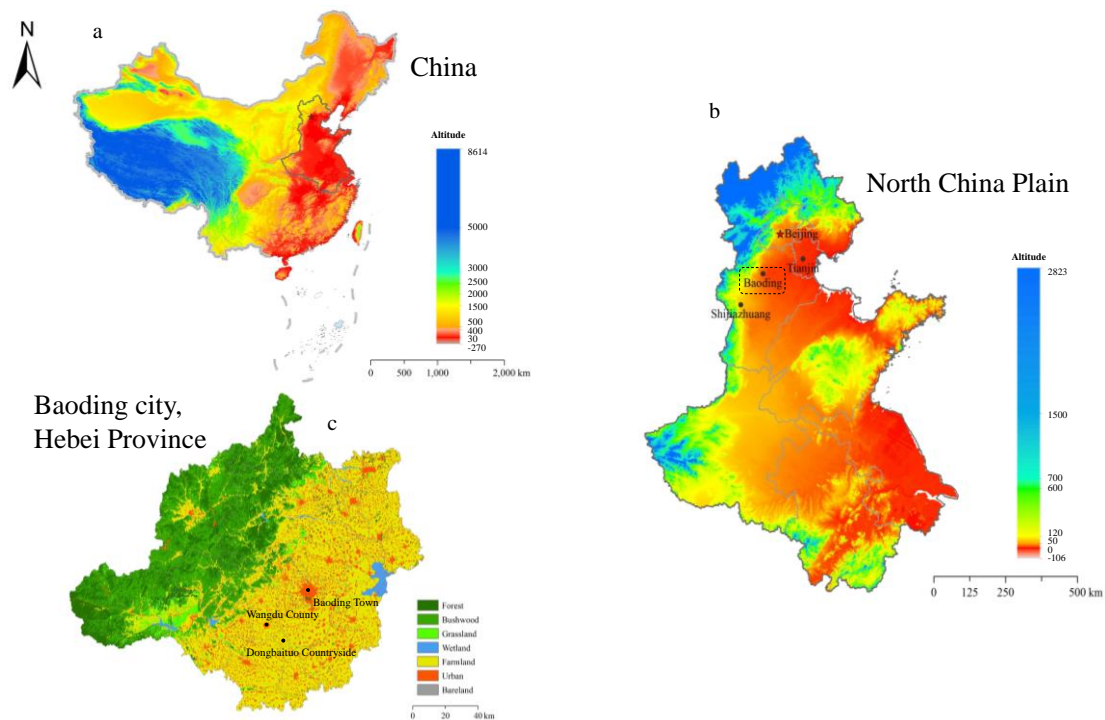


Figure 1. China (a), the North China Plain (b) and Baoding city in Hebei Province (c). The locations of sampling sites (BJ, BD, WD and DBT) as well as Tianjin municipality and Shijiazhuang as provincial capital of Hebei are marked.

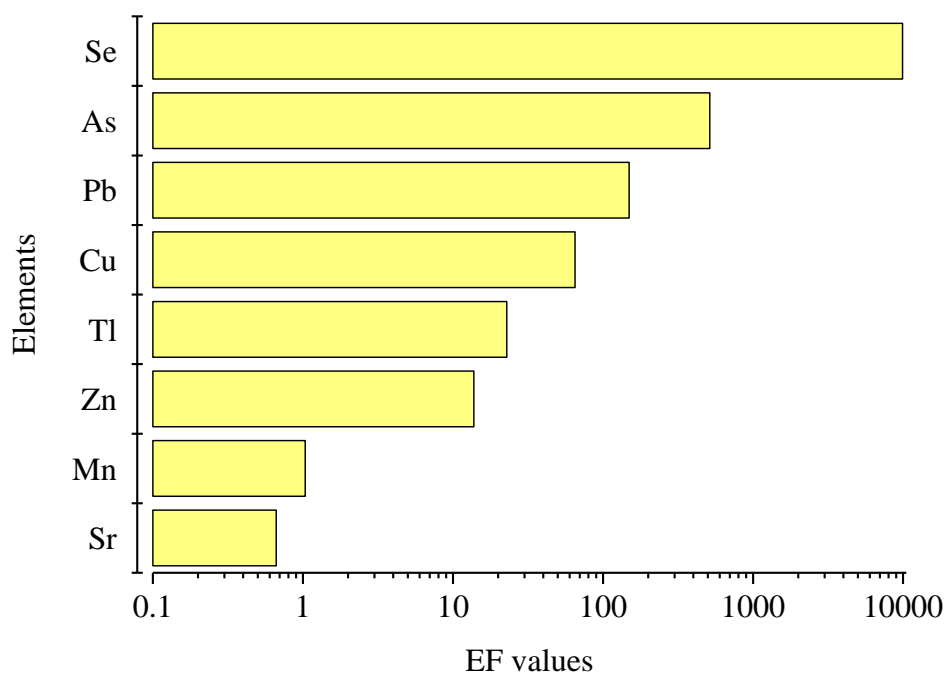


Figure 2. Enrichment factor values for trace elements in PM_{2.5}.

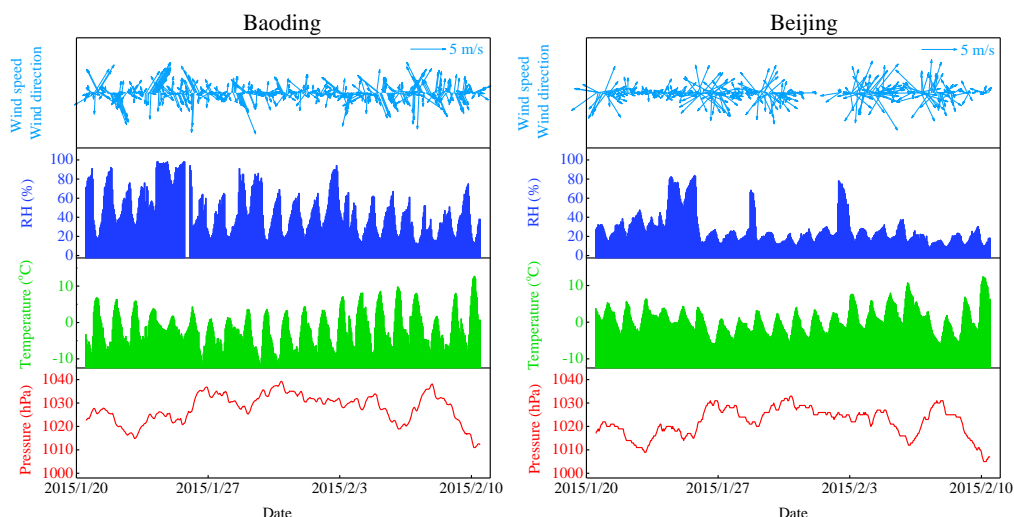


Figure 3. The wind speed, wind direction, RH, temperature and barometric pressure at BD and BJ during the sampling period in the winter of 2015.

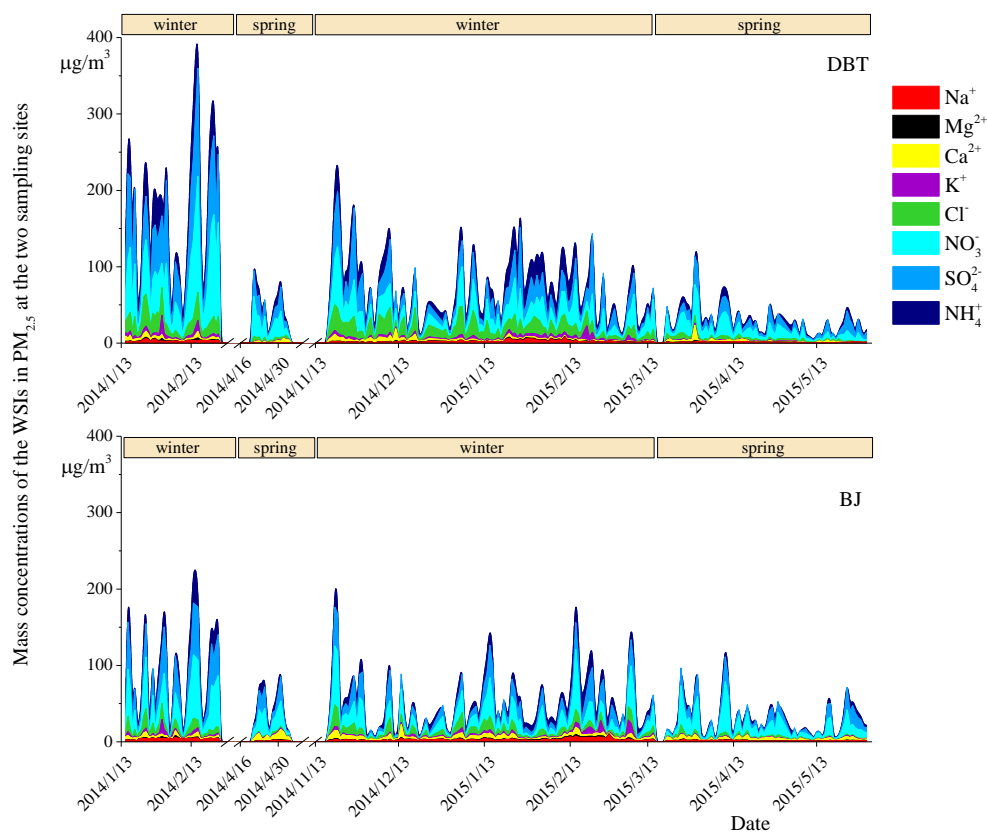


Figure 4. The mass concentrations of the WSIs in $PM_{2.5}$ at DBT and BJ during the sampling period in the winters and springs of 2014-2015.

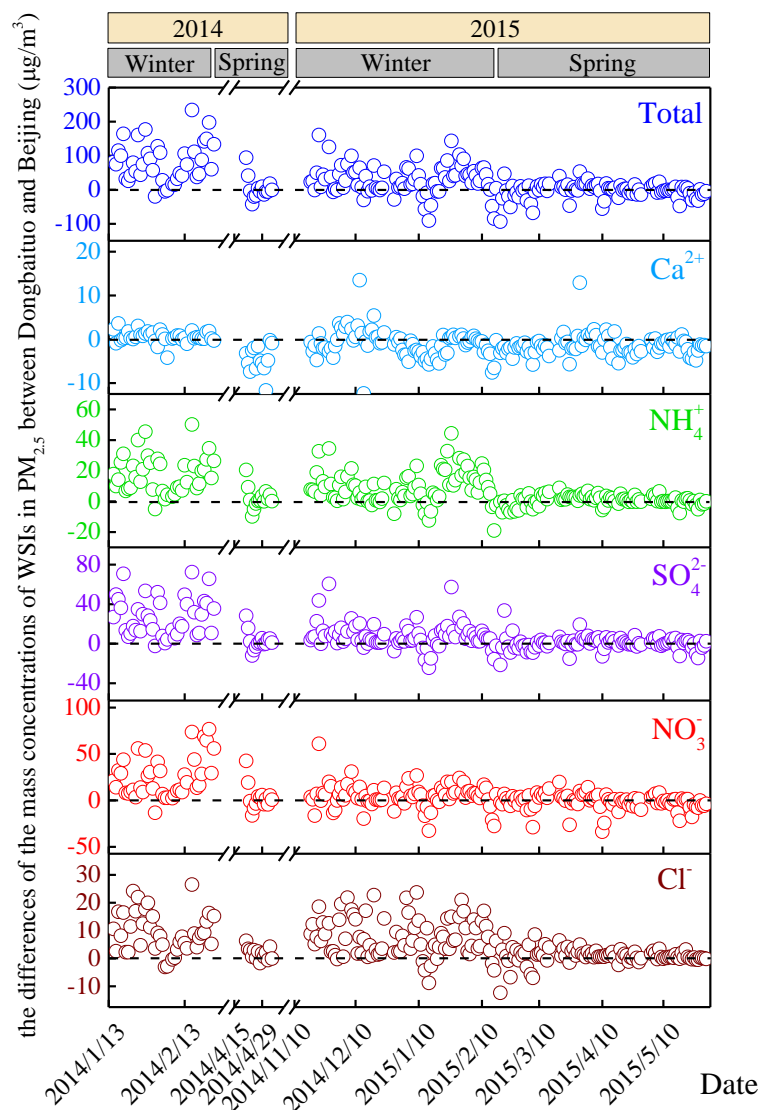


Figure 5. The D-values of the mass concentrations of WSIs in $PM_{2.5}$ between DBT and BJ during the sampling period in the winters and springs of 2014-2015.

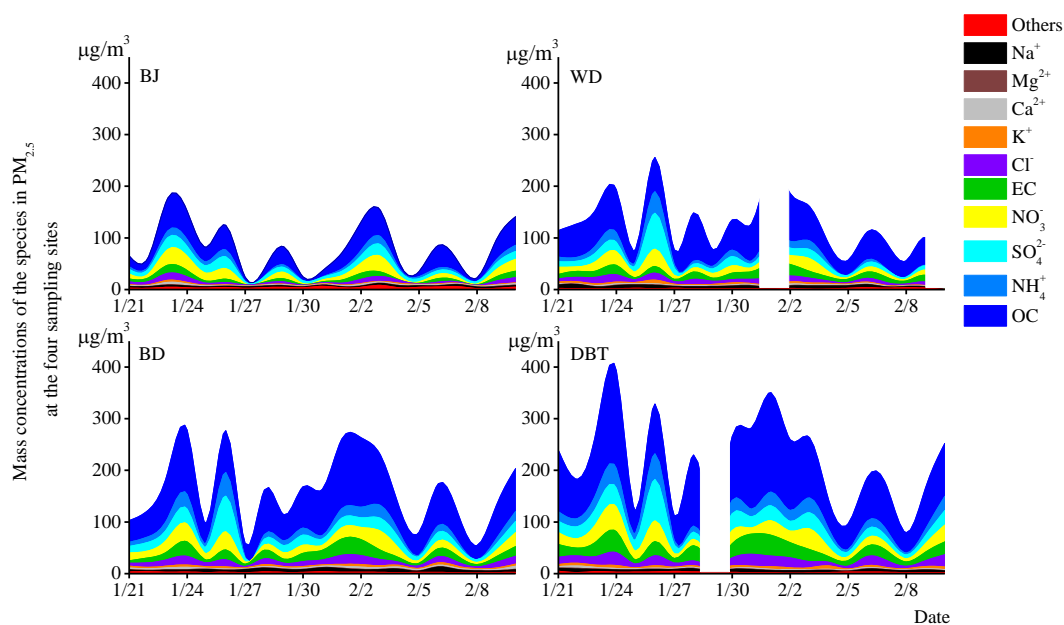


Figure 6. Daily variation of the species in PM_{2.5} at the four sampling sites during the sampling period in the winter of 2015.

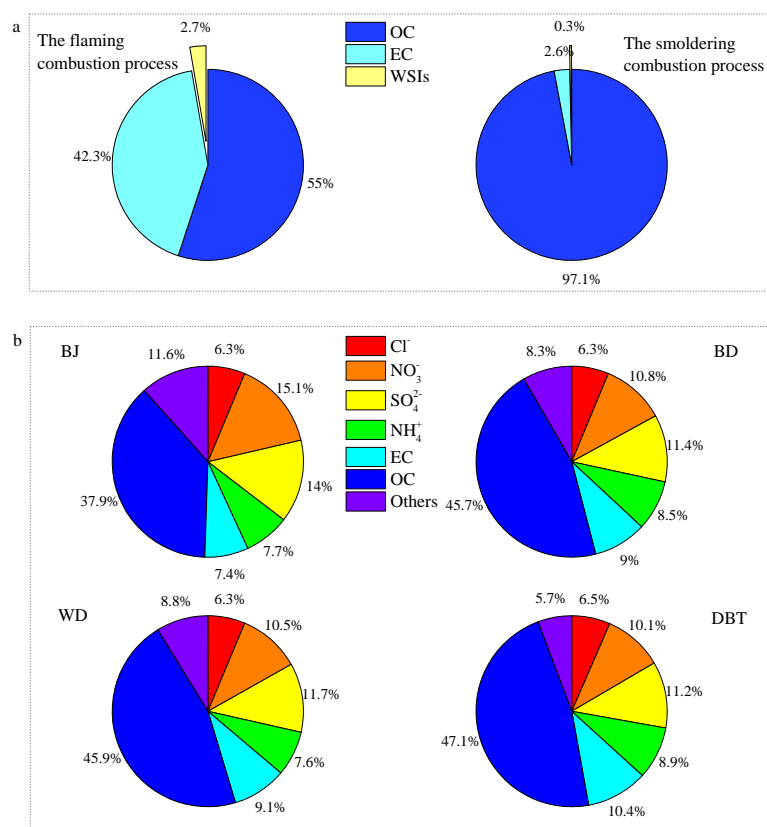


Figure 7. The mass proportions of OC, EC and WSIs from residential coal combustion under the flaming and smoldering combustion processes (a), and the average mass proportions of the typical

824 species in PM_{2.5} at the four sampling sites during the sampling period in the winter of 2015 (b).

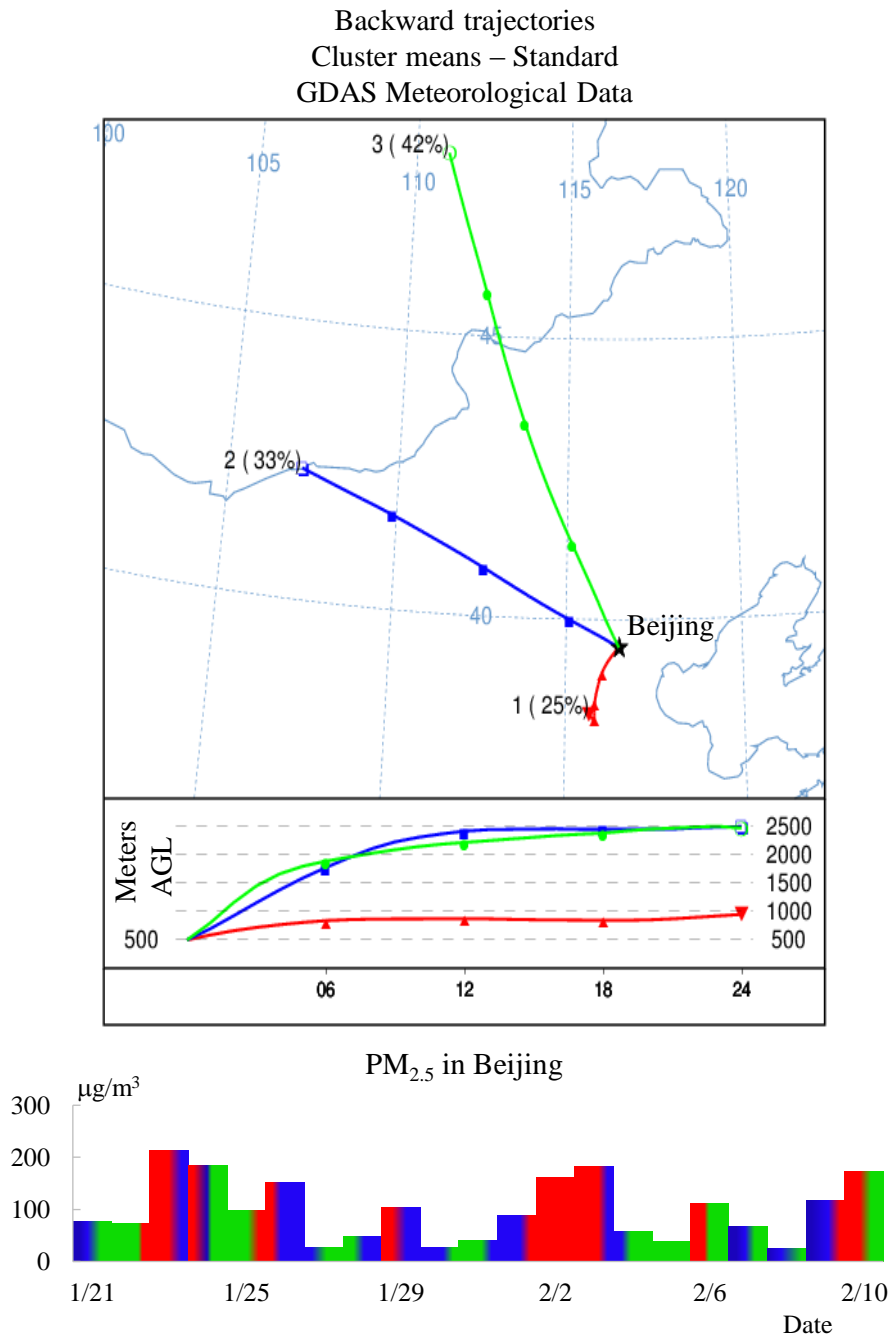


Figure 8. The back trajectory cluster analysis and the corresponding PM_{2.5} concentrations in Beijing during the sampling period in the winter of 2015.

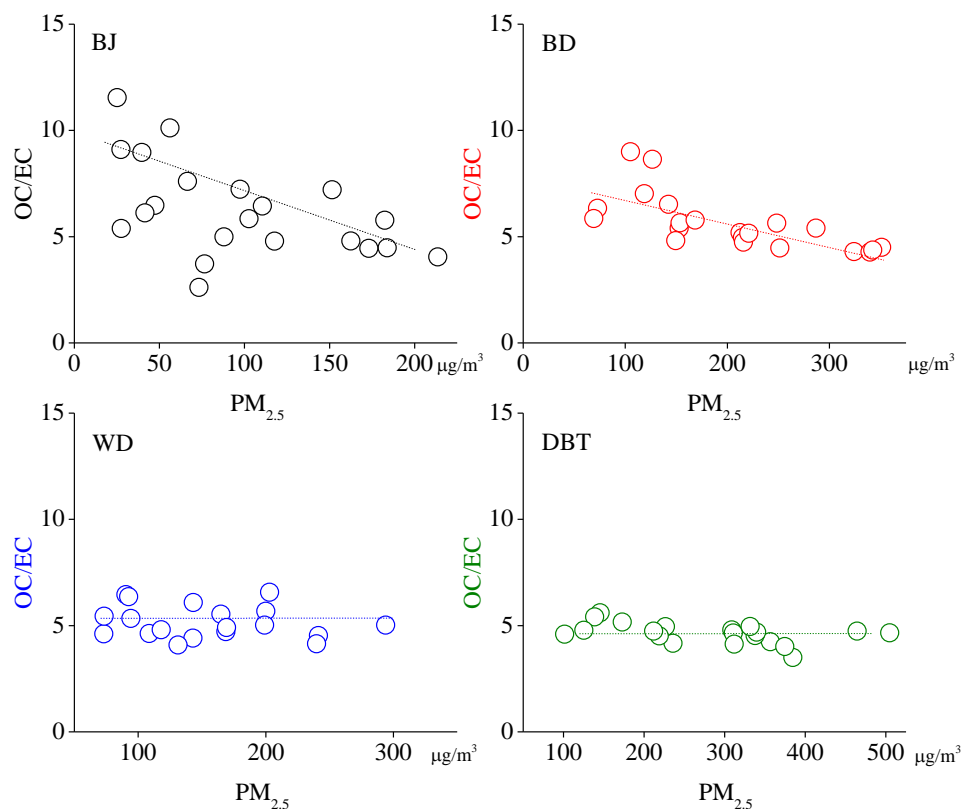


Figure 9. The correlations between the OC/EC ratios and the PM_{2.5} concentrations at the four sampling sites during the sampling period in the winter of 2015.

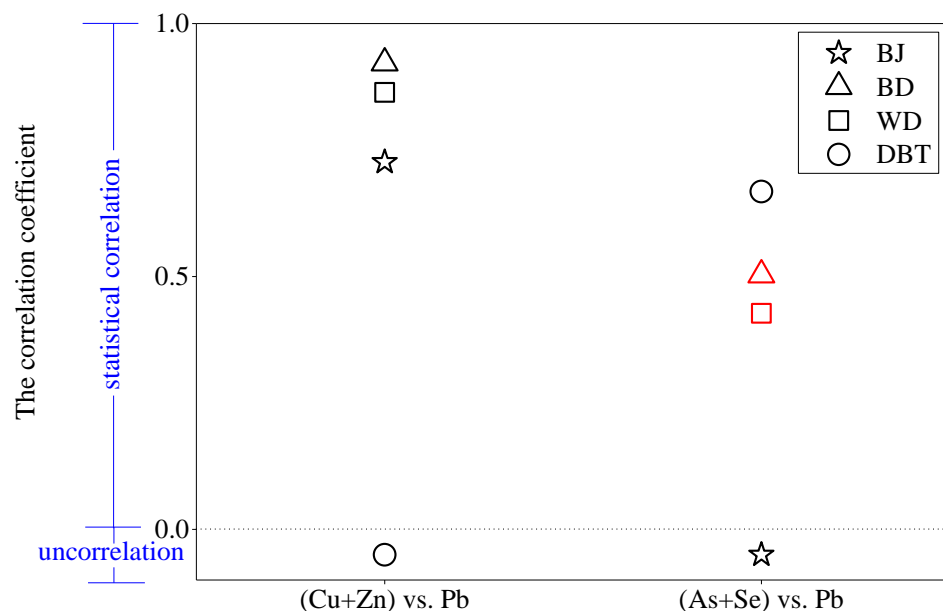


Figure 10. The statistical correlations for [Cu+Zn] vs. [Pb] and [As+Se] vs. [Pb] in PM_{2.5} at the four sampling sites during the sampling period in the winter of 2015. The uncorrelated results are

also marked below zero of Y axis. The red and black symbols represent for $p < 0.05$ and $p < 0.01$, respectively.

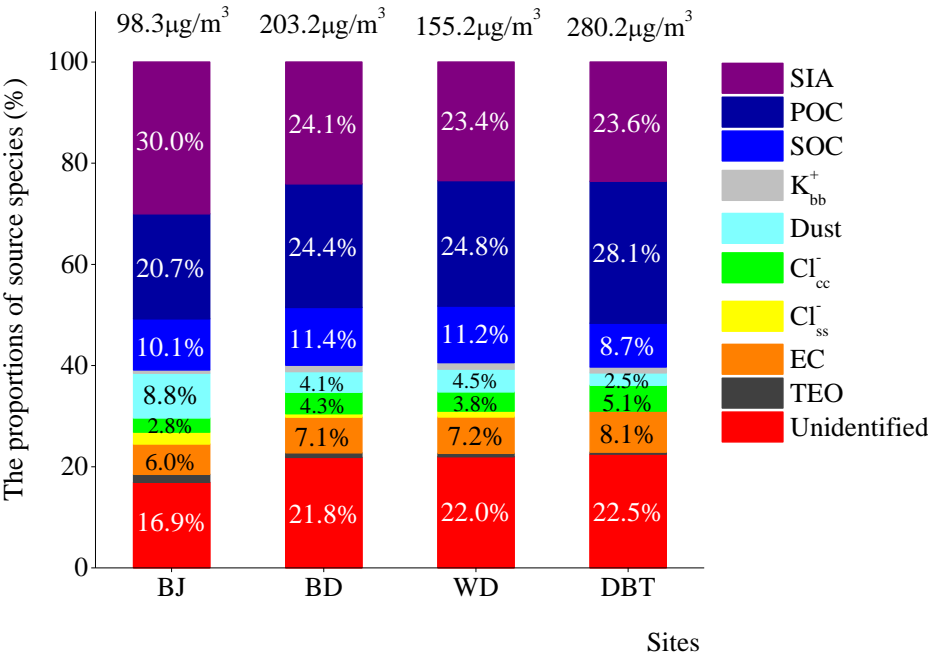


Figure 11. The proportions of source species under the constructed chemical mass closures for PM_{2.5} at the four sampling sites during the sampling period in the winter of 2015. Average mass concentrations of PM_{2.5} at each sampling site, including all of source species and unidentified fractions, are also marked at the top of bar charts.

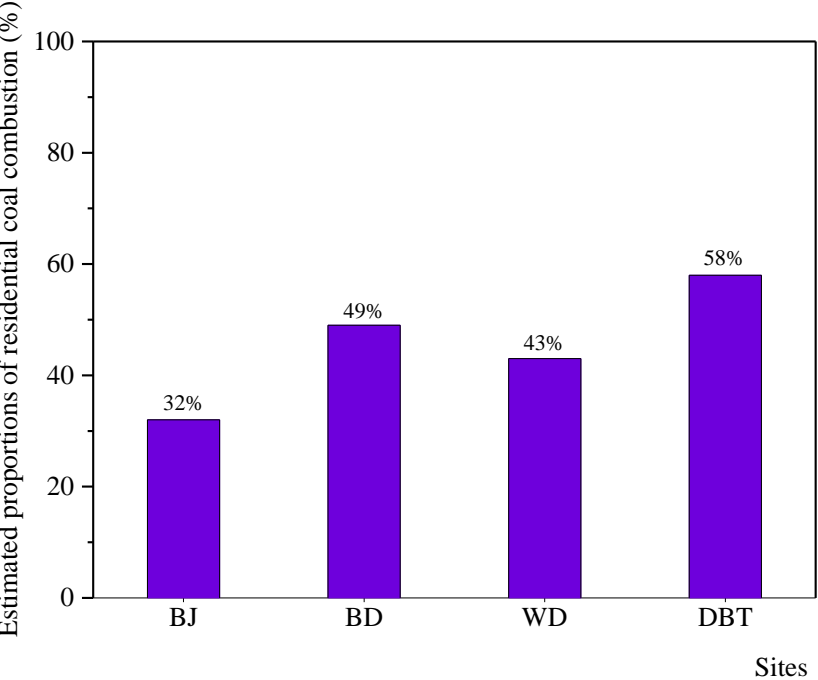


Figure 12. The estimated contributions of coal combustion to the PM_{2.5} at the four sampling sites during the sampling period in the winter of 2015.

Table 1. The average mass concentrations of WSIs in PM_{2.5} at DBT and BJ during the sampling period in the winters and springs of 2014-2015 ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$).

WSIs	spring		winter	
	DBT	BJ	DBT	BJ
Na ⁺	1.0 \pm 0.5	1.4 \pm 0.5	2.4 \pm 1.3	3.1 \pm 1.4
Mg ²⁺	0.2 \pm 0.2	0.3 \pm 0.2	0.7 \pm 0.5	0.8 \pm 0.7
Ca ²⁺	1.7 \pm 2.4	3.4 \pm 2.5	2.6 \pm 2.1	3.4 \pm 2.3
K ⁺	0.5 \pm 0.5	0.7 \pm 0.4	3.2 \pm 3.0	3.0 \pm 6.0
NH ₄ ⁺	6.1 \pm 5.1	4.8 \pm 4.7	23.1 \pm 17.9	13.2 \pm 11.6
NO ₃ ⁻	12.5 \pm 11.2	13.6 \pm 13.2	28.4 \pm 28.0	19.0 \pm 20.0
SO ₄ ²⁻	10.5 \pm 8.2	9.2 \pm 8.6	29.0 \pm 28.1	17.4 \pm 16.5
Cl ⁻	2.9 \pm 2.2	1.8 \pm 1.6	14.1 \pm 9.4	7.2 \pm 6.0
Total	35.3 \pm 26.7	35.1 \pm 28.7	103.3 \pm 81.3	67.0 \pm 55.2

Table 2. The average mass concentrations (Mean \pm SD) of PM_{2.5} species, NO₂ and SO₂ at the four sampling sites during the sampling period in the winter of 2015 ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$).

Species	BJ	BD	WD	DBT
Na ⁺	2.5 \pm 0.7	4.8 \pm 2.0	4.5 \pm 1.7	4.3 \pm 1.2
Mg ²⁺	0.3 \pm 0.1	0.4 \pm 0.1	0.3 \pm 0.1	0.4 \pm 0.2
Ca ²⁺	1.8 \pm 0.9	2.6 \pm 0.8	1.7 \pm 0.6	2.0 \pm 0.8
K ⁺	0.7 \pm 0.8	2.5 \pm 1.0	2.0 \pm 1.4	3.1 \pm 1.3
NH ₄ ⁺	6.0 \pm 5.0	13.3 \pm 11.0	9.3 \pm 9.5	18.7 \pm 11.7
NO ₃ ⁻	11.7 \pm 10.1	16.6 \pm 10.3	13.0 \pm 8.2	21.0 \pm 12.2
SO ₄ ²⁻	11.2 \pm 6.5	18.1 \pm 14.1	14.5 \pm 14.5	24.1 \pm 16.1
Cl ⁻	5.0 \pm 3.6	9.5 \pm 4.2	7.8 \pm 3.5	13.4 \pm 6.0
OC	28.6 \pm 19.6	70.2 \pm 31.2	57.2 \pm 21.3	100.0 \pm 42.9
EC	5.5 \pm 4.5	13.5 \pm 7.8	11.4 \pm 4.7	21.6 \pm 10.2
Al	0.6 \pm 0.8	0.6 \pm 0.1	0.5 \pm 0.2	0.5 \pm 0.1
Mn	0.1 \pm 0.1	0.1 \pm 0.1	0.1 \pm 0.1	0.2 \pm 0.3
Fe	2.1 \pm 0.8	0.6 \pm 0.2	0.8 \pm 0.6	1.3 \pm 0.6
Cu	0.6 \pm 0.3	0.3 \pm 0.1	0.2 \pm 0.1	0.1 \pm 0.1
Zn	0.1 \pm 0.1	0.2 \pm 0.1	0.1 \pm 0.1	0.1 \pm 0.1
As	0.1 \pm 0.1	0.3 \pm 0.1	0.2 \pm 0.1	0.1 \pm 0.1
Se	0.1 \pm 0.0	0.1 \pm 0.1	0.1 \pm 0.0	0.1 \pm 0.0
Sr	0.0 \pm 0.0	0.1 \pm 0.0	0.0 \pm 0.0	0.0 \pm 0.0
Tl	0.0 \pm 0.0	0.0 \pm 0.0	0.0 \pm 0.0	0.0 \pm 0.0
Pb	0.2 \pm 0.2	0.4 \pm 0.3	0.2 \pm 0.1	0.3 \pm 0.1
The total	80.1 \pm 47.7	159.5 \pm 70.3	121.7 \pm 51.8	218.4 \pm 87.1
NO ₂	36.5 \pm 17.4	60.4 \pm 23.4	76.1 \pm 19.2	-
SO ₂	63.9 \pm 31.7	181.7 \pm 62.4	101.3 \pm 39.4	-

Table 3. The emission factors (Mean \pm SD) (g kg⁻¹ coal) of OC and EC from residential coal combustion during the flaming combustion process, the smoldering combustion process and the entire combustion process.

Emission factors	the flaming combustion process	the smoldering combustion process	the entire combustion process
OC	1.83 \pm 1.19	17.11 \pm 0.79	10.99 \pm 0.95
EC	1.40 \pm 0.11	0.46 \pm 0.03	0.84 \pm 0.06

Table 4. The correlations of several typical species in PM_{2.5} at the four sampling sites during the sampling period in the winter of 2015.

n=21	BJ								
	Mg ²⁺	Ca ²⁺	K ⁺	Cl ⁻	NO ₃ ⁻	SO ₄ ²⁻	NH ₄ ⁺	OC	EC
Mg ²⁺	1								
Ca ²⁺	0.895**	1							
K ⁺	0.634**	0.862**	1						
Cl ⁻	0.856**	0.899**	0.791**	1					
NO ₃ ⁻	0.803**	0.768**	0.637**	0.905**	1				
SO ₄ ²⁻	0.679**	0.660**	0.590**	0.804**	0.950**	1			
NH ₄ ⁺	0.718**	0.667**	0.543*	0.834**	0.971**	0.959**	1		
OC	0.845**	0.751**	0.560**	0.848**	0.919**	0.838**	0.895**	1	
EC	0.849**	0.851**	0.679**	0.932**	0.877**	0.769**	0.823**	0.936**	1
n=21	BD								
	Mg ²⁺	Ca ²⁺	K ⁺	Cl ⁻	NO ₃ ⁻	SO ₄ ²⁻	NH ₄ ⁺	OC	EC
Mg ²⁺	1								
Ca ²⁺	0.805**	1							
K ⁺	0.697**	0.556**	1						
Cl ⁻	0.714**	0.659**	0.789**	1					
NO ₃ ⁻	0.554**	0.560**	0.675**	0.757**	1				
SO ₄ ²⁻	0.022	0.107	0.491*	0.499*	0.764**	1			
NH ₄ ⁺	0.315	0.331	0.659**	0.721**	0.920**	0.941**	1		
OC	0.743**	0.576**	0.705**	0.936**	0.674**	0.369	0.614**	1	
EC	0.698**	0.560**	0.702**	0.939**	0.660**	0.410	0.633**	0.984**	1
n=19	WD								
	Mg ²⁺	Ca ²⁺	K ⁺	Cl ⁻	NO ₃ ⁻	SO ₄ ²⁻	NH ₄ ⁺	OC	EC
Mg ²⁺	1								
Ca ²⁺	0.897**	1							
K ⁺	0.226	0.457*	1						
Cl ⁻	0.532*	0.663**	0.598**	1					
NO ₃ ⁻	0.468*	0.677**	0.712**	0.796**	1				
SO ₄ ²⁻	0.097	0.358	0.874**	0.552*	0.770**	1			
NH ₄ ⁺	0.306	0.563**	0.906**	0.735**	0.901**	0.945**	1		
OC	0.463*	0.543*	0.372	0.816**	0.471*	0.222	0.581*	1	
EC	0.553*	0.638**	0.339	0.763**	0.510*	0.214	0.565*	0.925**	1

n=20	DBT								
	Mg ²⁺	Ca ²⁺	K ⁺	Cl ⁻	NO ₃ ⁻	SO ₄ ²⁻	NH ₄ ⁺	OC	EC
Mg ²⁺	1								
Ca ²⁺	0.721**	1							
K ⁺	0.191	0.407	1						
Cl ⁻	-0.061	0.316	0.519*	1					
NO ₃ ⁻	-0.241	0.161	0.579**	0.642**	1				
SO ₄ ²⁻	-0.133	0.109	0.458*	0.482*	0.744**	1			
NH ₄ ⁺	-0.223	0.125	0.558*	0.697**	0.928**	0.914**	1		
OC	0.067	0.159	0.419	0.772**	0.570**	0.293	0.557*	1	
EC	0.051	0.169	0.419	0.838**	0.585**	0.400	0.624**	0.977**	1

*, ** represent for $p < 0.05$ and $p < 0.01$, respectively.

Table 5. The correlations between [Zn] vs. [Cu] and [As] vs. [Se] in PM_{2.5} at the four sampling sites during the sampling period in the winter of 2015.

Elements	BJ (n=21)	BD (n=21)	WD (n=19)	DBT (n=20)
[Zn] vs. [Cu]	0.607**	0.479*	0.620*	0.659**
[As] vs. [Se]	0.662**	0.664**	0.959**	0.871**

*, ** represent for $p < 0.05$ and $p < 0.01$, respectively.