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FACTORS, ORIGIN AND SOURCES
AFFECTING PM ₁ CONCENTRATIONS
AND COMPOSITION AT AN URBAN
BACKGROUND SITE
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ABSTRACT

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PM ₁ is widely believed to provide better information on the anthropogenic fraction of particulate
matter pollution than $PM_{2.5}$. However, data on PM_1 are still limited in Europe as well as
comprehensive information about its chemical composition and source apportionment and this gap
is more evident in the pollution hot-spots still remaining in Europe, such as the Po Valley (Northern
Italy). Elemental and organic carbon, 7 water soluble inorganic ions and 17 elements were
quantified in 117 PM ₁ samples collected at an urban background site in Venice-Mestre, a large city
located in the eastern Po Valley, during winter (December 2013 - February 2014) and summer
(May-July 2014) periods.
Results show a strong seasonality for PM ₁ mass concentration (averages ranging from 6±2 in
summer to $34\pm24~\mu g~m^{-3}$ in winter) and for most of the analyzed species. Components mainly
related to road traffic, residential heating, biomass burning and secondary inorganic aerosol
(ammonium nitrate) reached their highest levels in winter, while mineral dust and marine
components were elevated in summer. PMF analysis revealed 7 potential sources. Secondary
inorganic aerosol (33%) and biomass burning (33%) are the major contributor in winter followed by
EC-primary emissions (16%), aged sulphate (6%), road traffic (7%), fossil fuel combustion (%) and
marine aerosol (3%). During summer, these sources account for 12%, 14%, 20%, 22%, 8%, 14%
and 10%, respectively.
Some PM_1 sources are located near the sampling site (residential area, traffic road, industrial area)
but a major contribution of long range transport is observed when high pollution events occur. The
results give useful insights into PM1 composition in an urban area and chemical profiles of sources

Keywords: PM₁, water soluble inorganic ions, carbonaceous materials, mass closure, PMF

1. INTRODUCTION

helpful in the interpretation of receptor model results.

In recent decades, the characterisation of airborne particulate matter (PM) has become an increasingly important topic of research since the epidemiological data have showed that PM has negative effects upon human health (Anderson et al., 2012; Rohr and Wyzga, 2012). Fine particles (with aerodynamic diameters of less than 2.5 µm, PM_{2.5}, and 1 µm, PM₁) may play an important role in affecting human health for a number of reasons: (i) they penetrate more effectively into the deep lung; (ii) they can penetrate more readily into indoor environments; (iii) they can remain suspended for longer periods of time in the atmosphere than coarse particles; (iv) they may be transported over long distances; (v) they tend to carry higher concentrations of the more toxic compounds, including acids, heavy metals and organic compounds and (vi) they have a larger surface area per unit mass compared to larger particles and, thus, can absorb larger amounts of semi-volatile compounds (e.g., Pope and Dockery, 2006). Consequently, the study of levels, composition and emission sources of fine particles in densely populated areas is very important for health protection and to improve PM control strategies.

Fine particles are typically mainly composed of elemental carbon (EC), organic carbon (OC), inorganic ions and metals. Among these major components, some studies have associated carbonaceous particles with health effects (Rohr and Wyzga 2012). These consist of compounds from combustion exhaust, soil, paved road dust, cooking and other sources (Harrison and Yin, 2008). EC comprises small (mainly sub-micrometre) graphitic particles which arise from primary emissions from combustion of various fuels, e.g., coal, wood, fuel oil and motor fuel, especially diesel. Organic carbon (OC) can be directly emitted into the atmosphere in the particulate phase or can originate in the atmosphere from gas-to-particle conversion processes (forming the so-called secondary organic aerosol, SOA) (Seinfeld and Pandis, 2006). Generally, EC lies in the submicrometre range, whereas OC exhibits wider size distributions (Pio et al., 2007).

Inorganic ions can be emitted from various primary sources, such as combustion, sea salt and

crustal material. However, the main source of sulphate, nitrate and ammonium is the generation of

secondary inorganic aerosol (SIA) through (photo-) chemical reactions of gaseous precursors (NO_x , SO_2 , NH_3) and O_3 with atmospheric oxidants to form mainly ammonium nitrate (NH_4NO_3) and ammonium sulphate ($(NH_4)_2SO_4$)) (Seinfeld and Pandis, 2006).

Although metals generally represent a small fraction of PM₁ mass, their contribution to the overall toxicity of particles cannot be disregarded. The chemical and physical properties of some elemental species is size-dependent: for example, the solubility of Pb, Co and Cd increase in fine particles, making those elements more bioavailable (Birmili et al., 2006). The characterisation of elemental composition is also very important for source apportionment studies: the variable proportion of some well known elemental markers can help in the identification of potential sources using receptor modelling techniques.

Although it has been suggested that PM₁ can provide a better estimation of anthropogenic particles than PM_{2.5} (Perrone et al., 2013), PM₁ source apportionment studies are still limited in Europe as well as comprehensive information about its composition (e.g. Perez et al., 2008; Vecchi et al., 2008; Theodosi et al., 2011; Perrone et al., 2013). Moreover, PM₁ is not yet regulated in Europe and this is a major reason why there is a lack of available data and studies upon it. This is a serious gap, as some air pollution hotspots still remain in highly populated areas of Europe. Among others, the Po Valley (Northern Italy) deserves particular attention because of the frequent exceedance of guidelines and Limit Values fixed by EC Directives and international organizations such as WHO (Larsen et al., 2012). The present paper aims to investigate the composition of PM₁ in Mestre-Venice, a large city on the eastern border of the Po Valley. Here, the highest concentrations of particulate matter and nitrogen oxides (NO+NO₂=NO_x) are commonly recorded in winter, while high levels of ozone are measured in summer due to photochemical processes involving precursors of natural and anthropogenic origin (Masiol et al., 2014a;b).

PM₁-bound elemental and organic carbon, water soluble inorganic ions and elements, have been analysed to determine the major contributors to PM₁ mass and were then processed to (i) determine the seasonal cycles, (ii) estimate secondary inorganic and organic aerosol, (iii) assess the major components applying a mass closure model, (iv) identify and quantify the most probable sources by using a receptor modelling technique (positive matrix factorization, PMF) and (v) hypothesize their location applying a conditional probability function.

2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

2.1 Measurement Site

Venice is located between the eastern edge of the Po Valley and the Adriatic Sea. Along with the city of Mestre, they form a large coastal urban municipality hosting 270,000 inhabitants (~ 628 inhabitants km⁻²) (ISTAT, 2011). The local emission scenario includes some major potential sources of PM: high density residential areas; heavily trafficked roads mostly congested during peak hours; a motorway and a motorway-link which are part of the main European routes E55 and E70; an extended industrial area (Porto Marghera) and an international airport.

The sampling site (Via Lissa-Mestre, Lat. 45.4871 N –Long. 12.2229 E) is located in a highly populated residential zone of Mestre surrounded by several heavily trafficked roads (distance \sim 450 m) (Fig. 1). The site was categorized as urban background by the local environmental agency (ARPAV). It lies about 200 m from an important motorway and few meters from the railway. Moreover, Via Lissa was chosen considering the background of information on PM_{2.5} composition

2.2 Experimental

- PM₁ samples were collected daily (117 samples) at an urban background site in Venice (Via Lissa-
- Mestre) during winter (December 2013 February 2014) and summer (May-July 2014) periods

(Masiol et al., 2014b) that can help in the interpretation of PM₁ data.

using a low volume sampler (Skypost PM, Tecora, Milan) on quartz fiber filters. Sampling time was 24 h, from 0:00 to 24:00 and the flow rate was 2.3 m³ h⁻¹. PM₁ masses were measured by gravimetric determination (microbalance with 0.1 µg sensitivity) on filters preconditioned for 48 h at constant temperature (20°C) and relative humidity (50%). Half of each sample was digested for elemental determination. Acid digestion was performed using 4 mL of 69% HNO₃, 1 mL H₂O₂ and 0.3 mL 48.9% HF in a microwave oven using the protocol proposed by Karthikeyan et al. (2006). An ICP-OES (Optima 5300 DV, Perkin Elmer) was used to determine the mass concentration of Mg, Al, S, K, Ca, Ti, Mn, Fe, Zn, Ba while an ICP-MS (Elan 6100, Perkin–Elmer) was used for V, Ni, Cu, As, Cd, Sb, Pb. For the analysis of ion components an aliquot (16 mm Ø disc) was punched from the filter. Punches were extracted in vials with 10 mL MilliQ water (resistivity= 18.2 MΩ•cm at 25°C, Millipore) and sonicated for 50 min. Extracts were pre-filtered on microporous (0.45 µm) PTFE membranes and injected in two Metrohm (Switzerland) ion chromatographic systems with conductivity detectors to quantify the concentrations of three anions (Cl⁻, NO₃⁻, SO₄²⁻) and five cations (Na⁺, NH₄⁺, K⁺, Mg²⁺, Ca²⁺). The analytical ion chromatography method is reported elsewhere (Masiol et al., 2015a). Finally, an aliquot of filter (1 cm²) was analysed for elemental and organic carbon by using a Thermal–Optical Carbon Aerosol Analyser (Sunset Laboratory, Forest Grove, OR, USA) following the EUSAAR2 protocol (Table SI1). The carbon analyzer employs a programme of temperature and gas composition to evolve carbon species and a laser at a wavelength of 680 nm to monitor the filter transmittance (Birch and Cary, 1996).

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Field blanks were prepared and analyzed together with the samples and the values obtained were

routinely subtracted. Limits of detection (LODs) were calculated as three times the standard

deviation of field blanks (Table SI2): data below the LODs were substituted by LOD/2 for the statistical processing.

Gaseous pollutants data were provided by ARPAV (local environmental protection agency for Veneto region) whereas meteorological data refer to station 5 of the monitoring network of Ente Della Zona Industriale di Porto Marghera.

2.3 QA/QC and Uncertainties

The quality of the analytical procedures was checked by blank controls, by evaluating detection limits (DLs), recoveries, accuracy, and repeatability. The accuracies of quantitative analyses were assessed by analyzing certified liquid standards (TraceCERT, Fluka) for standard reference materials for elements (SRM 1648, NIST). OC and EC analyses were routinely checked by reanalysing sucrose calibration standards (relative standard deviation <4%). The recoveries of ions and elements were in the range of 80–110%. The relative standard deviation of each ion and elemental recoveries was < 5%.

2.4 PMF Settings

USEPA PMF 5.0 was used in this study. PMF was performed strictly following the main rules and suggestions found in the user manual (USEPA, 2014) and in Reff et al. (2007). Details of PMF settings and regression diagnostics are provided as supplementary materials (SI1 and Table SI3).

Data and uncertainties were handled according to Polissar et al. (1998): (1) data < DLs were set as DL/2, with an uncertainty of 5/6 of the corresponding DL; (2) data > DLs were matched with uncertainties determined by compounding errors from the most uncertain components with the addition of 1/3 of the DLs.

183 **3.** RESULTS AND DISCUSSION Overview on PM₁ Levels and Composition 184 3.1 185 3.1.1 PM levels and main components 186 Table 1 summarizes the average seasonal concentrations of PM₁ and its components, gaseous 187 pollutants and meteorological variables. The average PM₁ concentration over the whole period was 21±22 ug m⁻³. PM1 concentrations show the typical pattern of the study area, lower in warmer 188 seasons and higher in the colder period (6.4±2.2 µg m⁻³ and 34±24 µg m⁻³ mean, respectively). 189 190 Measured levels are comparable with those observed by Perez et al. (2008) (19 µg m⁻³ annual mean) 191 at an urban background site in Barcelona (Spain) (5.8 µg m⁻³, summer time) and with those 192 previously detected in Venice by Valotto et al. (2014) (26.6 µg m⁻³, winter time). Moreover, similar 193 194 concentrations during winter were observed at other sites in Italy whereas summer concentrations in 195 this study tend to be lower (Vecchi et al., 2004; Vecchi et al., 2008) but comparable with those 196 observed in Birmingham (UK) (Harrison and Yin, 2008) (Table 2). This may be due to the higher 197 wind speeds experienced in the summer period that tend to favour PM dispersion resulting in a drop 198 of concentration. Furthermore in the study area PM₁ is strongly associated with mixed combustion 199 processes dominating in winter including domestic heating (Valotto et al., 2014). 200 201 During winter the PM₁ fraction makes a major contribution to PM₁₀, averaging about 60% of PM₁₀ 202 mass. On the contrary, the coarse fraction prevails in summer when the PM₁ contribution to PM₁₀ 203 tends to be lower (40% on average). Similarly, PM₁ represents about 60% of PM_{2.5} with the highest 204 percentage in winter and the lowest in summer (67 and 43% of mean, respectively) (Table 2). 205

Chemical composition measurements of PM₁ showed that total carbon (TC) and secondary inorganic aerosol (SIA) represent the main components reaching 34% and 22% of the annual mean, respectively. During winter these components make up about 68% of PM₁, on the contrary during the summer the elemental contribution increases and reaches 24%, whereas TC and SIA contribute 25% and 18% of PM₁ mass, respectively.

3.1.2 Water soluble inorganic ions

Ammonium, nitrate and sulphate contribute about 76 % of the total inorganic ionic species mass (83% and 69% in winter and summer periods, respectively). As previously observed in PM_{2.5} samples (Squizzato et al., 2013), sulphate dominates over nitrate in summer whereas in winter nitrate dominates over sulphate. This behaviour can be explained by the semi-volatility of ammonium nitrate. Other anions and cations contribute a minor fraction of the water-soluble species (17 and 31% in winter and summer, respectively). All concentrations of Ca⁺⁺ were below the detection limit.

Ammonium and sulphate are correlated both in the winter and summer periods (r=0.79 and r=0.78, respectively). Nitrate, whose concentrations strongly depend on the meteorological conditions, shows a strong correlation with both ammonium and sulphate during winter (r=0.97 and r=0.75, respectively), but during summer the correlation with ammonium is lower (r=0.53) and practically absent with sulphate (r=0.24).

As proposed by Cheng et al. (2011), a comparison between the calculated and observed NH_4^+ concentrations was conducted to evaluate the formation of secondary ions (Figure 2). The NH_4^+ concentration can be calculated based on the stoichiometric ratios of the major compounds (i.e. ammonium sulphate $[(NH_4)_2SO_4]$, ammonium bisulphate $[NH_4HSO_4]$ and ammonium nitrate $[NH_4NO_3]$); assuming that NO_3^- is in the form of NH_4NO_3 and that $SO_4^{2^-}$ is in the form of either $(NH_4)_2SO_4$ or NH_4HSO_4 . During winter, the slope is 0.98 when $(NH_4)_2SO_4$ is assumed and 0.88 when NH_4HSO_4 is assumed. This suggests that aerosol is fully neutralized by available ammonia. Summer samples present different relationships: the slope was 2.86 and 1.70 assuming $(NH_4)_2SO_4$

and NH_4HSO_4 , respectively. In this case, the aerosol may be acidic (i.e., not fully neutralized with available NH_4^+) and mainly in the form of NH_4HSO_4 . However, the pronounced scatter in the summer data in Figure 2 suggests that other forms of sulphates and nitrates may be present. Despite this, the anion/cation balance shows neutral conditions (Figure SI1) and no significant differences can be observed between winter and summer with slopes of 0.90 (r^2 =0.98) and 0.93 (r^2 =0.80), respectively.

Ammonium nitrate is a semi-volatile species and exists in reversible phase equilibrium with nitric acid in the gas phase. At higher temperatures and lower relative humidity, ammonium nitrate will evaporate. At temperatures exceeding 25° C (as in our summer conditions) evaporation is almost complete (Schaap et al., 2004) and this can lead to a deficiency of ammonium in the summer samples. The volatilised nitrate, in the form of nitric acid, can react with other cations. Na⁺ is the second most abundant cation presents in PM₁ samples; hence the relationship between sodium, nitrate and chloride (considering NaCl as the main form of sodium in the study area due to the proximity of the sea) was investigated by using a multiple regression analysis. During winter, Na⁺ is mainly present in the form of NaCl (Na⁺= 0.31 +1.03[Cl⁻] - 0.47[NO₃⁻]; r^2_{adj} =0.68), while during summer Na⁺ can also be present as NaNO₃ (Na⁺= 0.93[Cl⁻] +0.15[NO₃⁻]; r^2_{adj} =0.94), maintaining the neutral conditions previously observed.

3.1.3 Elements

On an annual basis nitrate, sulphate, ammonium, potassium and calcium represent the main inorganic components of PM_1 . The Kruskal-Wallis test was applied to evaluate intra-seasonal differences. Among the analysed elements only Ti, Ba, Ni, Cd and Sb do not show a statistically significant seasonal difference (p>0.05). The others present a marked seasonal difference, with the higher concentration in winter, except for Ni and V.

Ni and V show the highest mean concentration during summer. This behaviour has been observed in a previous study (Masiol et al. (2014b); fossil fuel emissions (identified by Ni-V association) reached their highest levels in spring and summer in PM_{2.5} and showed a significant drop in winter. These elements are strongly associated with combustion of fuel oil, and increased shipping traffic in the cruise harbour.

Sulphur is present mainly as sulphate in both the winter and summer period, and shows a higher average concentration in winter. Potassium is mainly present in the ionic form probably linked to wood combustion for residential heating (McDonald et al., 2000). Scatterplots between element and ionic form are provided as supplementary material (Figure SI2). Considering the uncertainties associated with low concentrations, LODs and concentration of total Ca and soluble Ca (Ca⁺⁺), it could be stated that almost all calcium is in insoluble form.

Average elemental concentrations have been computed for working days (from Monday to Friday) and week-end days (Saturday, Sunday and holidays) to highlight which elements are mainly associated with working cycles. The largest differences were observed in winter. Among the determined elements, Mn and Ni increase strongly during working days (Mn +105%; Ni +65%) and Ca, Mg, Zn and V show a slight enrichment (+27%, +15%, +26% and +22%, respectively). These elements are associated with road traffic emissions due to tyre wear, brake wear and resuspension (Pant and Harrison, 2013 and references therein). Moreover all these elements are often present predominantly in the finer fraction (<0.61 μ m) and in intermediate fractions (0.61 -4.9 and 1 - 4 μ m) (Fernandez Espinosa et al., 2001; Masiol et al., 2015b; Samara and Voutsa, 2005).

Compositional data have been compared with those observed at the same site for a previous PM_{2.5} campaign (Masiol et al., 2014b) (Table 2). NO₃-, Mn, Cu, V, Ni, As and Cd appear to be enriched in the finest fraction whereas Ti, Fe, S and Pb are mainly distributed in the PM_{1-2.5} fraction. Table 2

also reports a comparison of PM elemental composition with other studies. Generally, higher concentrations have been observed for Ca, Mg, Al in our study. Other elements present comparable concentrations or are slightly lower than other studies.

3.1.4 Carbonaceous aerosol

Over the whole period OC ranged from 0.4 to 45.0 µg m⁻³ and EC ranged from 0.1 to 9.6 µg m⁻³. Both components show a marked seasonal pattern with the higher concentrations in winter and the lower in summer (Table 1). As EC is a primary pollutant, derived from ground-level combustion processes, this behaviour is expected due to less effective dispersion processes in the cold period. Measured concentrations are of the same order of those observed in other Italian cities and lower than those detected in Barcelona (Spain) and Birmingham (United Kingdom) (Table 2).

During winter EC is strongly correlated with carbon monoxide (r=0.89) and NO_x (r=0.85), and similarly OC shows a strong correlation with carbon monoxide (r=0.93) and NO_x (r=0.86). On the other hand, during summer both components present weaker correlations with CO and NO_x (r_{EC_CO}=0.61, r_{OC_CO}=0.49; r_{EC_NOx}=0.53, r_{OC_NOx}=0.39). It is not clear if CO and NO_x are mainly associated with traffic or with domestic heating emissions in the study area. Considering the recently released emissions inventory (ISPRA, 2015), CO emissions are mainly due to non-industrial combustion plant (39% and the greatest part linked to emissions from residential plant), road transport (36%) and other mobile sources (21%). As regards NO_x emissions, 40% was attributed to road transport, 27% to other mobile sources and only 7% to non-industrial combustion plant. However, weak correlation of both EC and OC with primary gaseous pollutants during the summer period suggests that combustion processes for domestic heating could be the principal source of EC and primary OC in winter and the secondary organic component may dominate in summer.

In the literature, the ratio between organic carbon and elemental carbon may be a first indication of the nature of the aerosol, namely if they are primary (POC) or secondary (SOC) organic carbon. Ratios greater than 2.0 - 2.5 may indicate the presence of secondary, therefore "aged" aerosols (Turpin and Huntzinger, 1995; Bougiatiati et al., 2013). Organic carbon concentrations are expected to be higher in such aerosols because of secondary aerosol formation via condensation of lower-volatility organic compounds onto particles as a result of photochemical reactions and oxidation rendering the organic species less volatile and enabling their partition to the particulate phase (Donahue et al., 2006). On this basis, SOC concentrations might be expected to be higher in summer than in winter period arising from enhanced photochemical formation (Harrison and Yin, 2008), but the lower temperatures in winter favour partitioning into the condensed phase.

To better understand the relative amounts of POC and SOC, the EC-tracer method proposed by Castro et al. (1999) as used by Harrison and Yin (2008) have been applied to winter and summer data, separately to limit the influence of atmospheric conditions. In the EC-tracer method, EC is used as a tracer for POC. These methodologies aim to determine the primary OC-EC ratio by identifying the periods where ambient concentrations are dominated by primary emissions, with SOA simply appearing as an increase in the OC/EC ratio relative to that of the primary OC/EC ratio (Turpin and Huntzinger, 1991).

The approach proposed by Cabada et al. (2004) consists of three main steps, briefly: (i) removal from the original dataset of the points where rain causes significant changes to the OC/EC ratio; (ii) identify days characterised by high probability of SOA formation by using ozone concentrations, in this study SIA has been used as indicator of secondary formation processes and days with both a high SIA concentration and high OC/EC ratio have been removed; (iii) identify periods where combustion-related sources dominated by using CO concentration; days when the OC/EC ratio drops in correspondence with high CO concentration are used to estimate the primary OC/EC ratio.

bound of the data points is generally taken to represent a constant mixture of EC with primary OC.

Points lying above that minimum ratio line contain additional OC, which is interpreted as being

secondary.

Assuming that OC primary can be defined by,

 $[POC] = [OC/EC]_p * [EC] + b,$

the contribution of secondary OC can be estimated as

[SOC] = [OC] - [POC],

Where [POC] is the primary organic aerosol concentration, [OC/EC]_p is the ratio of OC to EC for

the primary sources affecting the site of interest, and b is the non-combustion contribution to the

Harrison and Yin (2008) propose to plot OC concentration as a function of EC, then the lower

primary OC and sampling artefact (Cabada et al., 2004 and references therein). In the method

proposed by Harrison and Yin (2008) b has been set to zero.

Despite the OC/EC ratio presenting higher values during winter than in summer (3.1 and 1.6 means,

respectively) indicating a greater contribution of secondary aerosol during the winter, the

percentage contribution of SOC to total OC is higher in summer (54%) than in winter (39.5%) for

both methods used (Table 3). This is in agreement with the enhanced photochemical formation due

to the increase of solar radiation during summer.

In order to gain further insights, POC was compared with K^+ concentrations, considering soluble potassium as a marker of biomass burning and thus of primary emission from this combustion source. Similarly, SOC was compared with NO_3^- and SO_4^{2-} representing the secondary inorganic aerosol. During winter K^+ shows high correlations with calculated POC and SOC. On the other hand, during summer when wood combustion is less prevalent and the secondary inorganic aerosol formation is less favoured with respect to winter, the correlation is lower between K^+ and POC and absent between SOC, NO_3^- and SO_4^{2-} (Table 3).

3.2 Mass closure for PM₁

A mass closure model has been constructed by using previously developed conversion factors for PM_{2.5}. The conversion factors adopted are reported in Table 4. As such, PM reconstructed mass (RM) equation takes the following form:

 $RM = Secondary inorganic ions + OM (Organic Matter) + EC + Mineral dust + Salts + Heavy elements + <math>K^+$

On the basis of previous observed relationships, some specific conversion factors have been applied to summer data: sulphate has been considered as NH₄HSO₄ and nitrate has been assumed as NH₄NO₃ and NaNO₃ according to the relation Na⁺= 0.93[Cl⁻] +0.15[NO₃⁻].

Although the selected conversion factors have been usually applied to PM_{10} and $PM_{2.5}$ data (Harrison et al., 2003; Chow et al., 2015), good results were obtained. A good model fit is demonstrated by three factors: high r^2 , gradient close to 1.0 and a near-zero intercept (Yin and Harrison, 2008). According to these criteria, a very good mass closure fit was found in winter: high r^2 (0.96), gradient close to 1 (0.96) and near-zero intercept (0.17 μ g m⁻³). In summer, the mass closure fit can be considered good (r^2 = 0.65, gradient 1.39 and intercept -1.27 μ g m⁻³) indicating a

lower reconstructed mass than that measured. Results are consistent with those observed by Yin and Harrison (2008) on PM₁ samples. Regression equations are reported in Table 4 and the average composition of winter and summer samples appears in Fig. 3.

During winter OM and secondary components dominate the PM mass. On the other hand, in summer the major contributor to PM is mineral dust and the marine component (NaCl) increases linked to the sea-land wind regime that enhances the movement of air masses from the sea to the land during the daytime. When high pollution events occur ($PM_1 > 50 \mu g m^{-3}$, 17 days) no significant differences were observed in PM_1 composition, including a simultaneous increase of all components. Meteorological conditions can partially explain the enhanced concentration: a relatively lower temperature ($7^{\circ}C$) and wind speed ($1 m s^{-1}$) with respect to the mean of the winter favour the condensation of secondary compounds and the accumulation of PM components. Furthermore, as observed for $PM_{2.5}$ samples (Squizzato et al., 2012), long range transport should contribute to the increase of PM concentrations.

3.3 PM₁ Sources

- Seven factors were extracted from the PMF model. Modelled PM₁ mass concentrations successfully predicted PM₁ ($r^2 = 0.97$) and all scaled residuals were normally distributed.
- The source profiles obtained are given in Fig. 4 while time series and apportioned mass contributions on a seasonal basis are given in Fig. SI3. Results were interpreted on the basis of the presence of known tracers for the specific sources and considering seasonal variations:
 - EC characterises the first extracted factor: this factor can represent the primary contribution to PM₁ considering EC as a marker of primary emissions from combustion processes (combustion of coal, fuel oil and motor fuel, especially diesel). Seasonally it contributes 6 and 2 μg m⁻³ (16% and 20%) of PM₁ concentrations in winter and summer, respectively. Despite

- the marked meteorological difference between winter and summer, the primary contribution appears to represent a rather invariant percentage of total mass.
- The second factor accounts for a large proportion of K⁺ and OC: this association well
 describes the biomass burning combustion source (Reche et al., 2012). The high percentage
 contribution to PM₁ reached in winter (33%) confirms this hypothesis. The close relationship
 between K⁺ and OC has been already been discussed in the previous section.

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- Fe, Mn, Zn, Ni, Cu and Sb are the main markers of the third factor: they represent a mix of elements related to traffic as non-exhaust particle emissions. It has been shown that even with zero tail pipe emissions, traffic will continue to contribute to fine particles through non-exhaust emissions and it is estimated that nearly 90% of the total emissions from road traffic will come from non-exhaust sources by the end of the decade. These elements arise from tyre wear, brake wear and resuspension (Pant and Harrison, 2013 and references therein). As with the EC primary emission, this source does not show a seasonal difference, contributing 7% and 9% of PM₁ in winter and summer, respectively.
- The fourth factor explains more of 80% of vanadium concentration and 40% of cadmium: this 428 429 association can represent a mixed contribution of fossil fuel combustion, petrochemical plant 430 (V) and industrial activities such as steel production and zinc metallurgy (Cd) (Querol et al., 2007) probably related to the proximity (about 6 km) of the industrial area of Porto Marghera. 431 432 Usually, V-Ni is the typical pair of elements indicative of fuel oil combustion, however Moreno et al. (2007) observed that this relationship is stronger in the coarse particles than in 433 434 the fine particles. In this case, PMF is not able to split this factor into two different sources. This factor contributes to 3% and 14% of PM₁ in winter and summer, respectively. 435
- The marine component is highlighted in the fifth factor (Na⁺, Cl⁻ and Mg): despite sea-salt

 particles being mainly distributed in the coarse fraction, some particles, are also present in the

 fine fraction. Marine contributions increase during summer (10%, 1 μg m⁻³) due to the sea
 land breeze wind regime.

- In the sixth factor, sulphate and Mg are associated: this factor is interpreted as aged sulphate due to the ageing of sea-salt aerosols i.e. to heterogeneous reactions with atmospheric S(VI), from the oxidation of S(IV) species. Similar to the previous factor, the highest contribution can be observed in summer (22%, 2 μ g m⁻³) due to the advection of air masses from the Adriatic Sea and the Venice Lagoon.
 - The last factor represents the secondary inorganic component of PM₁: it links NH₄⁺, NO₃⁻ and SO₄²- to a lesser extent. These secondary ions derive from gas-to-particle conversion processes involving (photo-) chemical reactions of gaseous precursors such as NO_x, SO₂ and NH₃. The highest contribution is reached in winter (33%, 12 μg m⁻³) when the meteorological conditions (low temperature and high relative humidity) and the higher concentration of NO_x tend to favour the formation and stability of ammonium nitrate.

In order to evaluate the possible location of each identified source and to confirm PMF results, CPF (conditional probability function) analysis has been applied to PMF source contributions. To minimize the effect of atmospheric dilution and seasonal behaviour, the daily fractional contributions from each source relative to the total of all sources were used rather than the absolute source contributions (Kim et al., 2003). The CPF estimates the probability that a given source contribution from a given wind direction will exceed a predetermined threshold criterion. CPF is defined as:

$$CPF = \frac{m_{\Delta\theta}}{n_{\Delta\theta}}$$

where $m_{\Delta\theta}$ is the number of occurrences from wind sector $\Delta\theta$ (11.25 degree) that exceeded the threshold criterion, and $n_{\Delta\theta}$ is the total number of data from the same wind sector. Calm winds (< 1 m s⁻¹) were excluded from this analysis due to the isotropic behaviour of the wind vane under calm winds. The threshold criterion has been fixed to the upper 25th percentile of the fractional

contribution of each source. The sources are likely to be located in the directions that have high conditional probability values (Kim et al., 2005).

CPF values for each source that apportion to PM_1 are plotted in polar coordinates in Fig. 5. Lowest directional probabilities are seen for biomass burning and secondary inorganic aerosol sources: this should reflect a widespread pollution over the study area. Other sources show specific directions associated with the highest probabilities. The highest probabilities for primary aerosol are reached towards the north probably due to vehicle emission from the motorway link and urban traffic.

Road traffic shows high probabilities towards the north-west and south-east in correspondence with a heavy trafficked road and railway close to the sampling site confirming that this source is mainly associated with the resuspension of road dust rather than exhaust emissions.

Marine aerosol and aged sulphate show similar patterns with the highest probabilities towards the south-east in correspondence with the Venice Lagoon and the Adriatic Sea about 5 km and 15 km distant, respectively, supporting PMF source interpretation.

The high probabilities associated with fossil fuel combustion occur for wind blowing from the south where the industrial area of Porto Marghera is located, confirming that this source should be related to industrial activities.

4. CONCLUSIONS

PM₁ samples have been collected at an urban background site in Venice (Po Valley, Italy), within one of the most polluted areas in Europe. The main components of PM were determined: water soluble inorganic ions, elements, elemental and organic carbon. Collected data have been processed to (i) determine seasonal behaviour, (ii) estimate secondary inorganic and organic aerosol, (iii) estimate major components applying a mass closure model and (iv) identify and quantify most

probable sources by using positive matrix factorization (PMF) and hypothesize their location by
 using CPF. Therefore, the main findings can be summarized as follows:

- During the winter PM₁ fraction makes the highest contribution to PM₁ reaching about 60% of mass.
- Total carbon (TC) and secondary inorganic aerosol (SIA) represent the main components of PM₁ reaching 34% and 22% of the annual mean, respectively. During winter these components make up about 68% of PM; on the contrary during summer the elemental contribution increases and reaches 24%.
- Ammonium, nitrate and sulphate contribute about 76 % of the total inorganic ionic species mass (83% and 69% in winter and summer period, respectively).
- On an annual basis nitrate, sulphate, potassium and calcium represent the main inorganic component of PM₁. Among the analysed elements only Ti, Ba, Ni, Cd and Sb do not show a statistically significant seasonal difference. The others present a marked seasonal difference, with the highest concentration in winter, except for Ni and V. This indicates that different processes and sources are involved in PM₁ formation and emission and these are strongly influenced by weather conditions.
- Over the whole period OC ranged from 0.4 to 45.0 μg m⁻³ and EC ranged from 0.1 to 9.6 μg m⁻³. Despite the OC/EC ratio presenting higher values during winter than in summer (3.1 and 1.6 μg m⁻³ mean, respectively) indicating a greater contribution of secondary aerosol during the winter, the percentage contribution of SOC to total OC is higher in summer (54%) than in winter (39.5%). This is in agreement with enhanced photochemical formation due to the increase of solar radiation during summer, and exceeds the influence of lower temperatures upon partitioning of semi-volatiles.
- During winter OM and secondary components dominate the PM mass. On the contrary, in summer the major contributor to PM is mineral dust and increased marine components

313	(NaC1). When highly polluted events occur (PM ₁ > 50 μg m ⁻ , 17 days) no significant
516	differences can be observed in PM_1 composition. Therefore, the increase in PM_1
517	concentration appears to be due to a simultaneous increase of all components.
518	• Seven PM ₁ sources have been identified, among these biomass burning (33%) and
519	secondary inorganic aerosol (33%) are the major contributors in winter, while in summer the
520	aged sulphate contribution increases (22%) as well as fossil fuels (14%) and marine aerosol
521	(10%) due to the decrease of the typical winter sources.
522	
523	Although PM ₁ is not regulated at European level, it could represent a better indicator of
524	anthropogenic PM sources; in winter it represents the greatest part of PM_{10} and $PM_{2.5}$.
525	
526	ACKNOWLEDGMENTS
527	The authors would to thank Prof. E. Argese, L. Gobbo for the analytical support. Ente della Zona
528	Industriale di Porto Marghera supplied weather data.
529	
530	DISCLAIMER
531	The views expressed in this study are exclusively of the authors and may not reflect those of
532	ARPAV.
533	

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Figure 1. Study area and sampling site location (images from Google Earth).

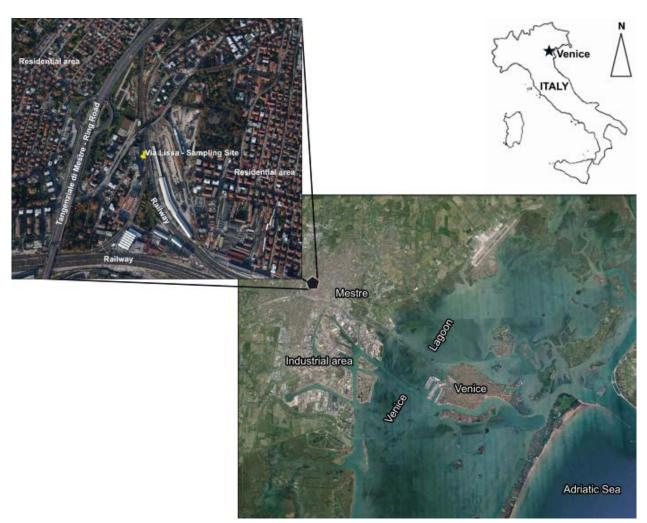


Figure 2. Comparison between calculated and measured ammonium in PM₁ (ammonium sulphate: calculated NH₄⁺ = 0.38* [SO₄²⁻] + 0.29*[NO₃⁻]; ammonium bisulphate: calculated NH₄⁺ = 0.192* [SO₄²⁻] + 0.29*[NO₃⁻]).

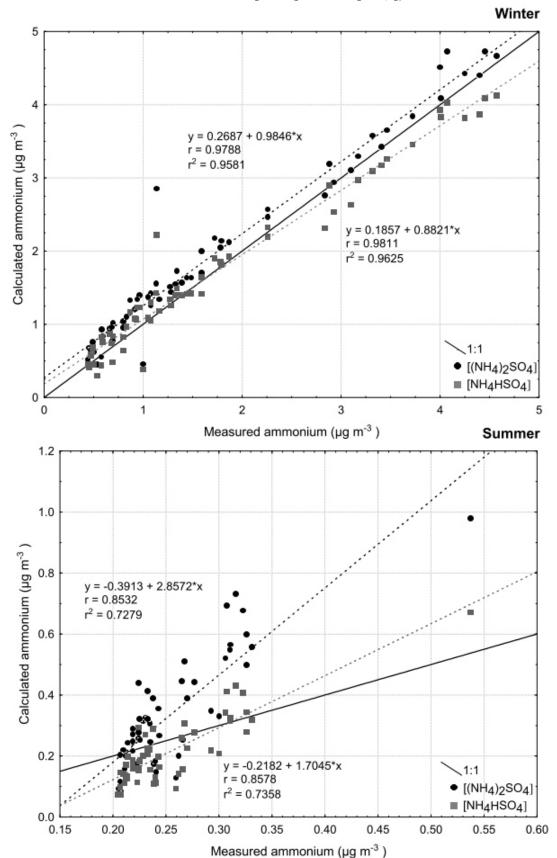


Figure 3. Comparison of mean composition of PM1 in winter, summer and during high pollution events ($PM_1 > 50 \mu g \text{ m}^{-3}$).

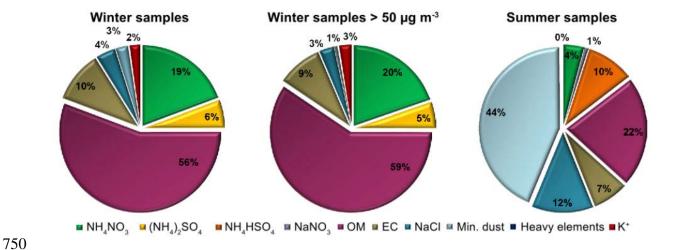


Figure 4. Factor profiles obtained by PMF analysis.

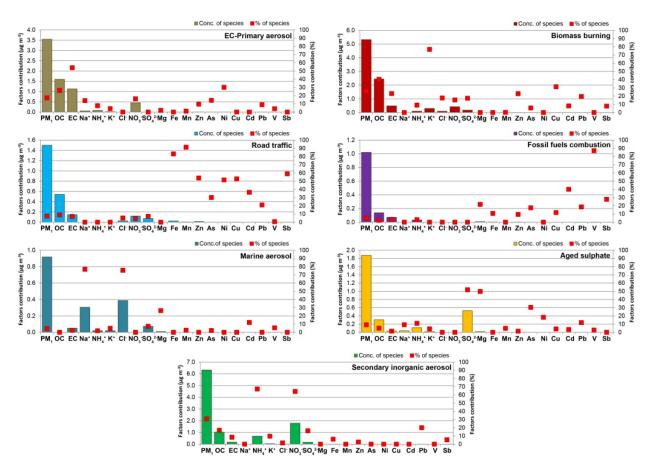


Figure 5. CPF plots for the highest 25% of the mass contributions.

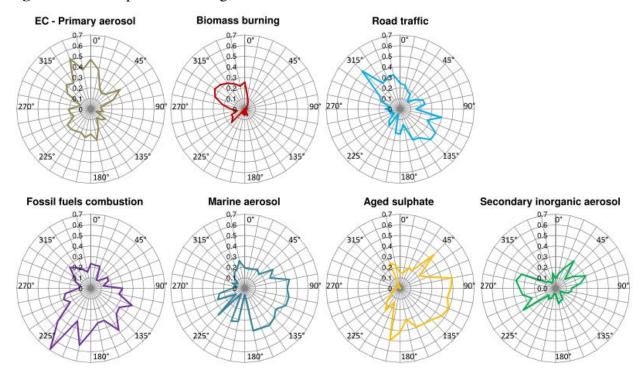


Table 1. Basic statistics of experimental values of PM_1 , PM_{10} , organic and elemental carbon, inorganic ions, elements, gaseous pollutants and meteorological conditions for each season and whole sampling period. Analytical data refer to PM_1 fraction of particles.

			All		Winter ^a	S	Summer ^b
		Valid N	Mean ± S.D.	Valid N Mean ± S.D.		Valid N	Mean ± S.D.
PM ₁	μg m ⁻³	117	21±22	61	34±24	56	6.4±2
PM_{10}	$\mu g m^{-3}$	117	37±32	61	57±33	56	16±7
PM_1/PM_{10}	$\mu g m^{-3}$	117	0.5 ± 0.2	61	0.6 ± 0.1	56	0.4 ± 0.1
OC	$\mu g m^{-3}$	117	7±9	61	11.6±10	56	1.1±1
EC	$\mu g m^{-3}$	117	2.1±2.2	61	3.5±2.2	56	0.6±1
OC/EC		117	2.5±1	61	3.1±1	56	1.6±1
TC	%	117	34±14	61	42.5±11.5	56	25±10
Na ⁺	$\mu g m^{-3}$	85	0.5 ± 0.3	37	0.7 ± 0.3	48	0.4 ± 0.3
$\mathrm{NH_4}^+$	$\mu g m^{-3}$	115	1±1.2	60	1.8±1	55	0.3±0.1
K ⁺	$\mu g m^{-3}$	75	0.6 ± 0.7	58	0.8 ± 1	17	0.1±0.1
Mg^{++}	$\mu g m^{-3}$	40	0.1 ± 0.1	33	0.1±0	7	0.1±0.1
Cl ⁻	$\mu g m^{-3}$	79	0.7 ± 0.5	48	0.8±1	31	0.6 ± 0.4
NO_3	$\mu g m^{-3}$	117	2.8±3.4	61	5±3	56	0.3±0.2
SO_4^{2-}	$\mu g m^{-3}$	116	1±0.8	61	1.4±1	55	0.6 ± 0.4
SIA^{c}	%	117	22±7	61	25.3±7	56	18±4
Ca	ng m ⁻³	74	669±366	30	421±203	44	839±357
Mg	ng m ⁻³	78	384±262	37	176±140	41	572±196
Al	ng m ⁻³	79	327±243	32	124±62	47	465±222
Fe	ng m ⁻³	49	81±103	30	101±114	19	51±76
K	ng m ⁻³	111	457±611	59	772±699	52	99±59
S	ng m ⁻³	110	487±336	57	603±396	53	362±192
Ti	ng m ⁻³	95	2.4±1.2	48	2.2±1	47	2.5±1
Mn	ng m ⁻³	113	5±12	57	8.8±16	56	1.9±1
Zn	ng m ⁻³	101	28±30	60	39.6±34	41	10.7±7
Ba	$ng m^{-3}$	39	10±30	4	53±90.9	35	4.7±3
As	ng m ⁻³	110	1.2±1.3	59	1.5±2	51	0.8 ± 1
Ni	ng m ⁻³	67	2.5±1.9	42	1.9±2	25	3.5±1
Cu	ng m ⁻³	89	8±25	53	12.7±32	36	1.6±1
Cd	ng m ⁻³	100	1.1±1.1	51	1.2±1	49	1.1±1
Pb	ng m ⁻³	116	7±7	60	10.5±8	56	3.2 ± 2
V	ng m ⁻³	107	2.4±2.1	53	1.9±2	54	2.8 ± 2
Sb	ng m ⁻³	95	1.6±2.1	44	2.5±3	51	0.9±1
Σ elements ^d	%	117	13±17	61	2.5±3	56	24±18
Total accounted	%	117	76±15	61	75±9	56	76±20
CO	$mg m^{-3}$	117	0.7 ± 0.5	61	1.0±0.5	56	0.3±0.1
NO	$\mu g m^{-3}$	117	37±53	61	68±59	56	4±4
NO_2	$\mu g m^{-3}$	117	34±12	61	40±12	56	26±6

NO_x	$\mu g m^{-3}$	117	90±92	61	143±100	56	32±10
SO_2	$\mu g m^{-3}$	117	1.6±1.1	61	1.4±0.9	56	1.7±1
Solar radiation ^e	W m ⁻²	117	3270±2702	61	828±461	56	5930±1159
Temperature	°C	117	15±7	61	8±2	56	22±3
Relative humidity	%	117	82±13	61	93±6	56	71±9
Wind speed	$m s^{-1}$	117	2.1±1	61	1.7±1	56	2.6±1
Rain ^f	mm	117	345	61	248	56	98

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Note:

^aWinter: December 7, 2013 –February 5, 2014.

^bSummer: May 7, 2014 – July 1, 2014.

 c SIA (secondary inorganic aerosol) is expressed as sum of NH_4^+ , NO_3^- and SO_4^{-2} . d Delements represents the sum of all elements except K and S which are included as K⁺ and SO_4^{-2} .

^eSolar radiation is presented as the mean of the daily total radiation during the reporting period.

^fRain is presented as the total precipitation during the reporting period.

Table 2. Comparison with previous studies available in the literature for similar sampling sites. PM, OC, EC and ions are in μg m⁻³, elements in ng m⁻³.

	ŗ	This study		Valotto	et al., 2014	Squizzato Masiol et	et al., 2013; al., 2014b	Perez et al., 2008	Vecchi o	et al., 2004			Vecchi e	et al., 2008			Harrison a	and Yin, 2008		
	Via Lissa (UB)		Via Lissa (UB)		Via Lissa (UB)		Polo Airport enice)	Via Lis	ssa (UB)	Barcelona (UB+traffic)	Milano (UB+traffic)	Milar	no (UB)	Firen	ze (UB)	Geno	va (UB)	Birming	gham (UB)
	Winter	Summer	Mean	Winter	Summer	Winter	Summer	Mean	Winter	Summer	Winter	Summer	Winter	Summer	Winter	Summer	Winter	Summer		
PM_{10}	56.9	16.3	37.5	45.2	19.3															
$PM_{2.5}$						51.0	15.0													
PM1	34.3	6.4	20.9	26.6	5.8			19	41.0	16.4	48.8	19.4	25.3	11.8	11.5	17.4	12.6	9.2		
PM_1/PM_{10}	0.6	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.3															
OC	11.8	1.1	6.7					4.3	17.8	6.1	14.80	4.80	12.00	2.70	5.00	3.40	2.8	2		
EC	3.5	0.6	2.1					1.8	2.3	1.3	1.80	1.10	0.90	0.60	0.90	0.90	1.8	0.9		
OC/EC	3.4	1.9	2.7					2.4	7.6	4.7	8.2	4.4	13.3	4.5	5.6	3.8				
NO_3	5.0	0.3	2.8			6.1	0.5	1.5			13.6	0.9	3.2	0.1	1.1	0.2	1.8	0.4		
SO_4^{2-}	1.4	0.6	1.0			3.8	2.7	3.3			4.7	3.9	1.7	3.2	1.7	3.8	1.3	2.0		
$\mathrm{NH_4}^+$	1.8	0.3	1.0			3.3	1.0	1.2			4.2	1.8	1.6	1.3	1	1.4				
SIA	8.0	1.2	4.6			13.1	4.0	6			22.5	6.6	6.5	4.6	3.8	5.4				
Ti	2.2	2.5	2.4	2.7	9.9	5.7	15.4	1.8	7	4	4	4	4	4	4	4				
Mn	8.8	1.9	5.4	2.8	0.9	11.3	3.8	4	9	4	9	5	2	2	1	3				
Zn	39.6	10.7	27.9	22.1	3.4	50.8	20.1	48	66	32	59	34	20	9	13	9				
Cu	12.7	1.6	8.2	3	0.5	18.7	6.1	12	7	3	7	4	4	4	2	7				
Ba	53.0	4.7	9.6	1.3	9.9	17.8	5.3	9												
Fe	100.7	51.1	81.4	36.8	11.2	255.0	164.0				86	42	41	26	24	37	100	20		
K	771.9	98.8	456.6	528.5	31.4	967.0	134.0		257	81	300	98	270	94	91	59				
Ca	420.6	838.8	669.3	60	297.3	211.0	354.0		24	17	27	22	28	34	18	56	40	50		
Mg	176.2	572.1	384.3	34.7	37.5	115.0	73.0													
Al	124.4	465.1	327.1	19.6	9.3	97.0	220.0		16	14	16	11	12	19	14	16				
S	602.7	362.2	486.8	586.6	523.3	1267.0	1340.0		1297	1445	1200	1500	560	1100	550	1000				
V	1.9	2.8	2.4	8	8.5	2.4	5.4	6	5	4	4	4	3	4	4	15				
Ni	1.9	3.5	2.5	1.7	0.6	2.3	4.7	3	7	2										
Pb	10.5	3.2	7.0			18.5	7.7	17	35	15										
As	1.5	0.8	1.2			2.1	1.7	0.6	2	1										
Cd	1.2	1.1	1.1	0.7	0.3	1.3	1.3	0.3												

778 UB: urban background site.

Table 3. Estimate of primary and secondary organic carbon (average concentrations) during winter and summer period and relationship with K^+ , NO_3^- and SO_4^{-2} .

EC-tracer method		[OC/EC]p	Non-combustion primary OC, <i>b</i> (µg m ⁻³)	R^2	SOC µg m ⁻³	POC μg m ⁻³	POC vs K ⁺	SOC vs NO ₃	SOC vs SO ₄ ²⁻
Cabada et al. (2004)	Winter	1.87	0.173	0.92	5.4 (37%)	6.7	r=0.77	r=0.73	r=0.75
	Summer	1.49	-0.0161	0.81	0.6 (55%)	0.9	r=0.58	r=-0.23	r=-0.14
Harrison and Yin (2008)	Winter	1.78		0.99	5.8 (42%)	6.2	r=0.77	r=0.74	r=0.76
	Summer	1.04		0.93	0.6 (53%)	0.6	r=0.57	r=0.04	r=0.31

Table 4. Conversion factors used in mass closure and regression results (y, mass reconstructed using mass closure model and x, gravimetrically measured mass).

Season	Secondary inorganic ions	Organic	Elemental	Geological minerals/road	Salt	Trace elements	Others	Regression
		mass	carbon	dust				
Winter	1.375 SO ₄ ²⁻ as (NH ₄) ₂ SO ₄ ^a	1.6 OC ^b	1 EC ^a	1.89Al+2.14Si+1.4Ca+	1.65Cl as NaCla	1.25 Cu + 1.24 Zn + 1.08 Pb ^c	K ⁺	y = 0.96x + 0.17
(n = 61)	1.29 NO_3^- as $\text{NH}_4 \text{NO}_3^{a}$			1.43Fe*+1.67Ti+1.2K* ^{c,d}				
Summer	1.29 SO ₄ ²⁻ as NH ₄ HSO ₄ ^a	1.6 OC ^b	1 EC ^a	1.89Al+2.14Si+1.4Ca+	1.65Cl as NaCla	1.25 Cu + 1.24 Zn + 1.08 Pb ^c	K ⁺	y = 1.39x - 1.27
(n = 56)	1.29*(0.85 NO ₃ ⁻) as NH ₄ NO ₃ ^a			1.43Fe*+1.67Ti+1.2K* ^{c,d}				
	$1.37*(0.15 \text{ NO}_3^-)$ as NaNO ₃ ^a							

^a Harrison et al., 2003.

^b Marcazzan et al., 2001.

^c Chow et al., 2015 and references therein.

^d Si concentration has been obtained from the Al/Si ratio (0.46); Fe* and K* indicate the part of iron and potassium concentration considered of crustal origin. As the first approximation: for Fe this fraction has been evaluated dividing the total concentration of this element for its EF_{Al} ; for K this fraction has been calculated subtracting the K⁺ to K total considering K⁺ as a marker of biomass combustion.