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Day-night variation and size distribution of water-soluble inorganic ions in particulate matter in Ulsan, South Korea



Tien Van Do, Quang Tran Vuong, Sung-Deuk Choi*

School of Urban and Environmental Engineering, Ulsan National Institute of Science and Technology (UNIST), Ulsan, 44919, Republic of Korea

ABSTRACT

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Keywords: Ion Day–night variation Size distribution Particulate matter Ulsan In the present study, 11 size classes of particulate matter were collected from a semi-rural site in the industrial city of Ulsan, South Korea in 2019 to investigate the size distribution and day-night variation of water-soluble inorganic ions (WSIIs). Approximately 70% of the detected WSIIs were found in fine particles, with Na⁺, Ca²⁺, Cl⁻, and NO₃⁻ dominant (\sim 70%) in coarse particles and SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻, and NH₄⁺ (SNA) dominant (\sim 70%) in fine particles. Monthly variation in total WSIIs was observed, with the highest average concentration found in April for both coarse $(2.71 \ \mu g/m^3)$ and fine particles $(5.75 \ \mu g/m^3)$. Given that this month is characterized by prevailing southeasterly winds, these high levels may represent the adverse effects of industrial activity. Coefficients of divergence for individual WSIIs exhibited large variability, which is indicative of significant day-night differences in meteorology, chemistry, and source contributions. The size distributions of Na⁺, K⁺, F^- , Cl^- , NO_3^- , and SO_4^{2-} were bimodal, while Mg^{2+} , Ca^{2+} , and NH_4^+ were unimodal. Peaks were generally found at 1.8-5.6 µm and 0.18-0.56 µm for coarse and fine particles, respectively. By plotting the linear relationship between the mole charge ratios of SNA, we found that coarse NO_3^- particles were mainly the result of heterogeneous reactions between HNO3 and sea salts or crustal species, while the homogeneous reaction of HNO₃ and NH₃ played a crucial role in the formation of fine NO₃⁻ particles. In conclusion, though day-night variation in WSIIs was apparent, especially in SNA, the formation pathways for both coarse and fine particles were similar for day and night. Based on the verification of the formation mechanisms for WSIIs at this semirural site, the influence of industrial activity on the secondary formation of PM in urban and industrial areas can be investigated further.

1. Introduction

Recently, because of rapid economic growth and the increasing speed of urbanization and industrialization, particulate matter (PM) pollution has emerged as a serious environmental issue in Northeast Asia (Byun and Choi 2019; Kwon et al. 2019; Xing et al. 2020; Xu et al. 2020). PM has many damaging effects, such as reducing visibility, scattering and absorbing solar radiation, and infiltrating the lungs through inhalation, thus endangering human health (Kang et al. 2013; Tie and Cao 2009; Zhang et al. 2015). Aerosol particles, especially fine particles (PM_{2.5}, i.e., PM with 2.5 μ m or less in aerodynamic diameter, d_a), can be derived from both primary sources, in which they are directly emitted from anthropogenic activity (e.g., vehicles, construction, and industry) into the atmosphere, and secondary aerosol formation, which involves gas condensation, heterogeneous reactions between particles, and in-cloud processes (Chan and Yao 2008; Matsuki et al. 2005; Shi et al. 2014; Sun et al. 2006).

The negative impact of PM depends on the characteristics of the aerosols, such as their size distribution, physical properties, and chemical composition. PM is a complex mixture of many chemical compounds (e.g., elemental species and carbonaceous species). Of these species, water-soluble inorganic ions (WSIIs), especially sulfate (SO₄²⁻), nitrate (NO₃⁻), and ammonium (NH₄⁺), which are collectively referred to as SNA, are generally reported to be the dominant ionic species in PM2.5, accounting for 60-70% of the total mass concentration (Ali-Mohamed 1991; Guo et al. 2014; Huang et al. 2014; Liu et al. 2018). SNA is mainly detected as ammonium salts such as NH_4NO_3 and $(NH_4)_2SO_4$ that form through the neutralization of ammonia (NH₃) and acidic species such as nitric acid (HNO₃) and sulfuric acid (H₂SO₄) (Squizzato et al. 2013; Stockwell et al. 2003). In addition, in coastal areas with high levels of sodium chloride (NaCl), sodium nitrate (NaNO₃) can be generated in the reaction between NaCl and HNO₃ (Eldering et al. 1991; Hu et al. 2008), while the reaction between NH₃ and hydrochloric acid (HCl) can produce ammonium chloride

* Corresponding author.

E-mail address: sdchoi@unist.ac.kr (S.-D. Choi).

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Fig. 1. Locations of the air monitoring station, automatic weather station, sampling site, and four major industrial complexes in Ulsan, South Korea. The yellow dashed line illustrates the distance between the air monitoring station or automatic weather station and the sampling site.

(NH₄Cl) (Matsumoto and Okita 1998; Walker et al. 2006).

Previous research has reported that SNA, the dominant component of secondary inorganic aerosols (SIA), plays a crucial role in the generation of haze and reduces visibility during serious pollution episodes (Sudheer et al. 2014; Sun et al. 2004; Tian et al. 2016). The characteristics of atmospheric aerosols, including their formation mechanisms and potential sources, can be investigated based on their chemical composition and size distribution in relation to weather conditions and local emission sources (Contini et al. 2014; Xiu et al. 2004). Some studies have proposed that there are three dominant aerosol size modes Aitken nuclei mode ($d_a < 0.1 \mu m$), accumulation mode $(d_a = 0.1-2 \mu m)$, and coarse mode $(d_a > 2 \mu m)$ (Xiu et al. 2004; Zhang et al. 2018) - but that the size distribution varies under different conditions (Huang et al. 2016; Sun et al. 2013). Many studies have emphasized the complexity of SIA formation and have recommended further in-depth investigation, especially regarding the formation mechanisms for variously sized SIA particles. In recent years, although the ionic composition of coarse and fine particle fractions in South Korea has been reported (Kim et al. 2006; Park et al. 2016; Shon et al. 2012; Song et al. 2017), few studies have investigated the aerosol size distribution of WSIIs in South Korea (Park and Lee 2015; Park et al. 2019; Park et al. 2004). Furthermore, most previous research in South Korea has involved short-term measurements and focused on urban areas such as Seoul and Busan (Kim et al. 2006; Shon et al. 2012) or background areas such as Jeju Island and Baengnyeong Island (Kim et al. 1998; Lee et al. 2015).

Ulsan, the largest industrial city in South Korea, contains automobile, photochemical, non-ferrous, shipbuilding, and heavy industries. The influence of industrial activity on aerosol formation via the emission of massive volumes of gaseous precursors (e.g., SO_2 and NO_2) into the atmosphere has been reported (Clarke et al. 2014; Wu et al. 2009). In particular, SO_2 emissions from the petrochemical and non-ferrous industries in Ulsan have been found to have a significant impact on surrounding areas, while combustion associated with the energy industry, manufacturing combustion, transportation, and nonroad mobile sources have been identified as sources of NO₂ in this study area (Clarke et al. 2014). Ulsan also has a long eastern coastal line that is strongly influenced by sea spray and meteorological conditions such as low temperatures during winter, characteristics that promote aerosol formation. However, few studies have characterized the ionic components of PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀ in Ulsan (Park et al. 2019), nor have day–night differences in ionic composition been investigated. Therefore, a comprehensive analysis of the day–night difference and size distribution of WSIIs in Ulsan is necessary.

In this study, 11 different size classes of aerosol particles were collected from a semi-rural site in Ulsan, South Korea from January to November 2019 to better understand day–night variation in the ionic composition and size distribution of WSIIs. Meteorological data were also obtained to investigate their association with the ionic composition of both fine and coarse particles. From this analysis, the potential sources and formation mechanisms for the WSIIs found in the study area were identified. To date, this study represents the first comprehensive analysis of day–night variation in the ionic composition of individual WSII size groups in South Korea.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Collection of size-segregated aerosol particles

Atmospheric aerosol samples were collected (n = 572) on January 21–28, April 15–22, September 16–21, and November 11–18, 2019 both during the day (from 6:00 AM to 5:30 PM) and at night (from 6:00 PM on the first day to 5:30 AM the following day). A Micro-Orifice Uniform Deposit Impactor (120 MOUDI-IITM, MSP Corp., USA) was installed on the rooftop of a three-story building at the Ulsan National Institute of Science and Technology (UNIST; 35°33'37.15″N, 129°22'15.76″E; 47 m above sea level), which is about 15 m above ground level (Fig. 1). The MOUDI sampler was operated with a flow



Fig. 2. Daily variation in the (a) wind direction (WD) and wind speed (WS), (b) temperature (T) and relative humidity (RH), and nine WSIIs detected in (c) coarse (1.8–18 µm) and (d) fine (0.056–1.8 µm) particles in 2019. The major and minor ticks on the x-axis represent the day and night, respectively.

rate of 30 L/min and 11 cut sizes (18.0, 10.0, 5.60, 3.20, 1.80, 1.00, 0.56, 0.32, 0.18, 0.10, and 0.056 μ m). Aluminum foil filters (47 mm, TSI Incorporation, USA) were used to collect the atmospheric aerosol particles. To measure the PM concentration, all aluminum foil filters were stored in a controlled chamber (25 ± 1 °C and 40 ± 5% relative humidity) for 24 h and then weighed three times using a microbalance (MSE 3.6P–000–DM, Sartorius Weighing Technology GmbH, Germany) with a readability of 10⁻⁶ µg before and after sampling. The filters were intermediately transported back to the laboratory and stored at – 20 °C prior to pretreatment and analysis.

2.2. Meteorological conditions and gaseous precursor data

Hourly meteorological data, including precipitation, wind direction, wind speed, relative humidity, and temperature were obtained from an automatic weather station ($35^{\circ}37'13.08''N$, $129^{\circ}8'36.60''E$) operated by the Korea Meteorological Administration (KMA, https://data.kma.go.kr). A summary of the meteorological data is provided in Table S1 in the Supplementary Information. The temperature was highest ($23.6^{\circ}C$) in September and lowest ($-2.78^{\circ}C$) in January, with an average temperature over the entire sampling period of 11.4 °C. The wind was generally stronger during the day than during the night, with northwesterly winds in January and November, southeasterly winds in April, and northeasterly winds in September (Fig. S1). Because sampling was conducted to avoid specific meteorological events, e.g., rain and snow, precipitation was not a confounding factor during the sampling period.

The average relative humidity was 51.8% and 67.5% during the day and at night, respectively. More detailed information on the meteorological conditions during the sampling period is presented in Table S1.

Gaseous precursor data (SO₂ and NO₂) were also obtained at an air monitoring station (Samnam, $35^{\circ}33'29.41''N$, $129^{\circ}6'49.54''E$) in Ulsan (Fig. 1) via the Air Korea website (https://www.airkorea.or.kr).

2.3. Analysis of WSIIs and QA/QC

Each filter was transferred into a 15-mL conical tube (high-clarity polypropylene, 17 mm in diameter \times 120 mm in length, Falcon, Mexico). Deionized water (18.2 M Ω cm, 6 mL) was used for extraction for 45 min at room temperature in an ultrasonic bath (39 kHz). After extraction, a polytetrafluoroethylene single-use syringe filter (pore size 0.22 µm, Whatman, Germany) was used to filter the extract before instrumental analysis using an ion chromatography system (ICS–3000, Thermal Fisher Scientific Inc., USA). IONPAC CS17 (4 mm \times 250 mm) and IONPAC AS16 (4 mm \times 250 mm) analytical columns were employed in the analysis of five cations (Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺, K⁺, NH₄⁺, and Na⁺) and four anions (SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻, Cl⁻, and F⁻), respectively. Detailed specifications for the instruments used in ion analysis are reported in Table S2.

The standard calibration curves (range of 0.005–5 µg/mL) for individual ionic species had high coefficients of determination ($r^2 > 0.995$). Field blanks were regularly sampled for each batch (n = 52). The pretreatment and analytical processes for the blank samples were the same as those used for the real samples. The concentration of all real samples was then corrected using the blank samples (no greater than 0.004 μ g/m³). The recovery rates of the WSIIs (81–106%) were calculated by analyzing seven spiked samples of 0.01 μ g/mL multi-component cation (IC–MCA–02–01, AccuStandard, Inc., USA) and anion (IC–MAN–10–R1–1, AccuStandard, Inc., USA) standards using the same process as for the real samples. The method detection limit (MDL) for the individual inorganic species was given by Eq. (1):

$$MDL = SD \times t_s \tag{1}$$

where SD is the standard deviation for seven replicates of the spiked samples, and t_s is the Student's *t*-statistic (3.14) for a 99% confidence interval. The MDLs were 0.002, 0.003, 0.002, 0.006, 0.004, 0.020, 0.004, 0.020, and 0.003 µg/m³ for Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺, K⁺, NH₄⁺, Na⁺, SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻, Cl⁻, and F⁻, respectively. Values below these MDLs were replaced with 1/2 MDL in the calculation of the mean.

2.4. Coefficient of divergence

The coefficient of divergence (COD), a self-normalizing parameter, was used to quantify day–night variation and was calculated as follows:

$$\text{COD}_{t_1 t_2} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{P} \sum_{i=1}^{P} \left(\frac{x_{it_1} - x_{it_2}}{x_{it_1} + x_{it_2}} \right)^2}$$
(2)

where x_{it_1} and x_{it_2} are the average concentrations of component *i* at sampling times t_1 and t_2 , respectively, and *P* is the number of observations (Wilson et al. 2005).

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Temporal variation in PM and WSIIs

3.1.1. Daily variation in PM and WSIIs

Fig. 2 illustrates the daily variation in key meteorological parameters and the ionic composition of coarse and fine particles during the sampling period. In this study, because there was no cut-off at 2.5 µm in the MOUDI sampler, the cut size at 1.8 µm was used to separate the particles by size; particles with a d_a smaller than 1.8 µm were classified as fine and those with a d_a of 1.8–18 µm were classified as coarse. Daily mass concentrations of total WSIIs in coarse mode ranged from 0.17 to 9.86 µg/m³ (average: 1.88 µg/m³), thus accounting for 0.97–28.8% of the concentration of all coarse particles (1.84 to 47.2 µg/m³; average: 22.8 µg/m³) (Fig. 2c). During the sampling period, peaks for daily Na⁺ (0.08–3.13 µg/m³; average: 0.56 µg/m³) and Cl⁻ (0.02–4.26 µg/m³; average: 0.45 µg/m³) in the coarse particles were found on April 19–20, September 16–19, and November 11–12, which may be associated with the southeasterly winds generated by sea-breeze circulation (Fig. 2a). Other WSIIs did not exhibit any obvious peaks in coarse mode, and no significant correlations between WSIIs and coarse particles were found (Table S3).

For fine particles, the daily mass concentration of total WSIIs varied from 0.30 to 10.6 μ g/m³ (average: 4.04 μ g/m³) compared to a total concentration of 1.26 to 42.8 μ g/m³ (average: 14.9 μ g/m³), thus accounting for 9.22-67.2% (Fig. 2d). The positive correlations between fine particles and most WSIIs (Table S4) except for Cl⁻ highlighted the crucial role of ionic composition in the formation of fine PM in the atmosphere. Daily SO_4^{2-} in fine particles varied from 0.02 to 5.05 µg/ m^3 (average: 1.37 µg/m³), though there were noticeable peaks in each of the four months during the sampling campaign except in September. This is likely due to the influence of industrial sources in the vicinity that emit the gaseous precursor SO₂. It is obvious that northwesterly winds were dominant during all of fine SO_4^{2-} -peak days. In order to evaluate the influences of air pollutant transport by northwesterly winds, the relationships between fine SO_4^{2-} , WD, and WS are demonstrated in Fig. S2. In January, the higher concentrations of SO₄²⁻ were related to higher WS of northwesterly winds (Fig. S2a), which indicates the crucial role of air pollutant transport. In contrast, the higher levels of SO42- in April and November were more associated with lower WS of northwesterly winds (Figs. S2b, c). Therefore, SO_4^{2-1} might originate from local sources because higher WS would normally dilute the pollutants. The daily concentration of fine NO₃⁻ varied from 0.07–3.36 μ g/m³ (average: 0.65 μ g/m³) and had a negative correlation with temperature (r = -0.595, p < 0.01), which could be explained by the temperature-dependent equilibrium of NH4NO3 (discussed in more detail in Section 3.1.2). Thus, the only obvious peak in fine NO_3^- was observed in January. Daily NH4⁺ levels varied from 0.08-3.21 µg/m³ (average: 0.95 μ g/m³) and tracked NO₃⁻ (r = 0.761, p < 0.01) and SO_4^{2-} (*r* = 0.824, *p* < 0.01) levels closely in fine mode, which explains the presence of NH₄NO₃ and/or (NH₄)₂SO₄ in fine particles. Other WSIIs varied by a factor of 100, which might be due to differences in the meteorological conditions (Figs. 2a, b) and potential sources over the four-month sampling period.

3.1.2. Monthly variation in WSIIs

Monthly variation in the nine WSIIs and their fractions during the sampling campaign is presented in Fig. 3. Monthly variation in total fine WSIIs was evident (Fig. 3a), with the average concentration higher in January (5.29 μ g/m³) and April (5.75 μ g/m³) and lower in September (1.68 μ g/m³) and November (2.78 μ g/m³) (Table S5), accounting for 26.6%, 30.2%, 31.7%, and 22.2% of the fine particles, respectively. Approximately 70% of the WSIIs were found in fine



Fig. 3. Monthly variation in (a) nine WSIIs and (b) their fractions during the sampling period.

particles, with SNA the largest contributors, accounting for 50% of the total detected inorganic ions and about 70% of the total ionic species in fine mode (Fig. 3b).

 SO_4^{2-} is generally known to be mainly present in secondary fine particles formed through the chemical reaction of gaseous precursors (e.g., dimethyl sulfide and SO₂), including heterogeneous transformation processes (e.g., the H_2O_2/O_3 or metal-catalyzed oxidation of SO_2) and the homogeneous reaction between gaseous SO₂ and OH radicals (Meng et al. 2016; Zhou et al. 2016). Therefore, the dominance of $SO_4^{2^-}$ in fine particles may be associated with high levels of SO_2 (average: 3.18, 4.10, 2.50, and 3.70 ppb in January, April, September, and November, respectively), and the peak in SO_4^{2-} in April (2.19 µg/ m^{3}) (Table S5) is likely due to the high temperature and relative solar radiation, which facilitate the transformation of the SO₂ emitted from industrial areas into SO_4^{2-} . In addition, the high RH in April (Fig. 2b) might favor the formation of fine SO_4^{2-} through the aqueous or heterogenous transformation processes, which is related to the peak in SO_4^{2-} in April. Although the concentrations of SO_2 in Ulsan have generally been reported to be highest during warm periods, especially during summer (Clarke et al. 2014), the average concentration of SO_4^{2-} (0.66 µg/m³) in fine mode was lowest in September (Table S5). This can be explained by the northeasterly winds in September (Fig. S1). As a rough comparison, the average level of SO_4^{2-} found in this research was slightly higher than that observed at a residential site in Ulsan, while it was lower than that reported for other sites in South Korea (Table S6). This could be explained by the lower concentration of SO₂ at this semi-rural site compared to urban sites in Seoul, Daegu, and Busan and industrial sites in Ulsan. Most other studies conducted in South Korea have focused on very short-term measurements during significant events, such as periods of high PM pollution and/or Asian dust, making a direct comparison with the present study difficult (Table S6).

In fine mode, $\mathrm{SO_4}^{2-}$ was found to be the dominant contributor in all months, while NO_3^- and NH_4^+ were obviously higher during the cold periods. A negative correlation between temperature and both NH4⁺ (r = -0.364, p < 0.01) and NO₃⁻ (r = -0.595, p < 0.01) in fine mode was observed (Table S4), indicating the volatilization of NH₄NO₃ under high temperatures. In addition, the average concentration of gaseous NO₂ was also found to be the highest in January (14.1 ppb) and the lowest in September (7.70 ppb). These could explain why the highest average concentration of NH_4^+ (1.32 µg/m³) and $NO_3^ (1.43 \ \mu g/m^3)$ was in January and why the lowest $(0.19 \ \mu g/m^3)$ and 0.20 μ g/m³, respectively) was in September (p < 0.01, Mann-Whitney rank sum test, Table S5). The presence of NO_3^- in both fine and coarse particles has been reported in past research, while NH₄⁺ and SO₄²⁻ are mainly found in fine mode (Huang et al. 2016; Li et al. 2014; Zhang et al. 2018). Because of differences in the mechanisms underlying the formation of coarse and fine NO3⁻ particles, their size distribution is strongly associated with geographical location, meteorological conditions, and potential sources. A comprehensive discussion is presented later in this section.

Na⁺ mainly originates from sea sources and was observed in fine particles across the entire sampling period, while Cl⁻ in fine mode had a much higher average concentration in April (0.34 μ g/m³) and September (0.23 μ g/m³) than in January (0.14 μ g/m³) and November (0.02 μ g/m³) (Table S5). This may be the result of the transport on southeasterly winds of Cl⁻ emitted from the industrial burning of coal (Fig. S1) (Yudovich and Ketris 2006). K⁺ in fine mode is generally known as a marker of biomass burning events (Deshmukh et al. 2012; Zhao and Gao 2008); in the present study, it was highest in November (0.15 μ g/m³), followed by January (0.12 μ g/m³), April (0.04 μ g/m³), and September (0.01 μ g/m³) (Table S5).

The monthly variation in the ionic composition of coarse particles differed considerably to that observed for fine particles. The average concentration of total WSIIs was $1.27 \ \mu g/m^3$, $2.71 \ \mu g/m^3$, $2.58 \ \mu g/m^3$, and $1.16 \ \mu g/m^3$ (Fig. 3a) in January, April, September, and November,

respectively, representing 5.34%, 9.44%, 13.5%, and 15.0% of all coarse particles. Of the nine detected WSIIs, NO_3^- , CI^- , and Na^+ were dominant, accounting for up to 72.1% and 84.6% in April and September, respectively, while Ca^{2+} , NO_3^- , and Na^+ were largest contributors (~70%) to total WSIIs in coarse particles in January and November (Fig. 3b). Fine NO_3^- is generated by the homogeneous reaction of gaseous NH_3 and HNO_3 shown in Reaction (1), whereas NO_3^- in coarse particles can arise from the heterogeneous reaction between gaseous HNO_3 and sea-salt particles, as shown in Reaction (2) (Feng and Penner 2007; Ocskay et al. 2006).

 $HNO_{3 (g)} + NH_{3 (g)} \leftrightarrow NH_4NO_{3 (s,aq)}$ (1)

 $HNO_{3 (g)} + NaCl_{(s)} \rightarrow NaNO_{3 (s)} + HCl_{(g)} (2)$

 $NH_4NO_{3 (s,aq)} + NaCl_{(s)} \rightarrow NaNO_{3 (s)} + NH_4Cl_{(g)} (3)$

On hot summer days, HNO₃ does not easily react with NH₃ due to the reverse direction of Reaction (1). Previous studies have reported that NH₄NO₃ aerosols are not stable under low relative humidity and high temperatures (Mozurkewich 1993; Pio and Harrison 1987; Zhang et al. 2008). This can explain why the levels of fine NO₃⁻ in winter were generally higher than in the other seasons. In addition, Ulsan is a coastal city; thus, sea-salt particles are expected to be the dominant coarse particle due to sea-breeze circulation. When the sea-salt concentration is sufficiently high, HNO₃ gas tends to react with NaCl to form NaNO₃ (Reaction 2), and NaNO₃ generally accumulates in particles with a size of 3.2–6.0 µm (Xiu et al. 2004).

NO3⁻ was found to be one of the most abundant species in coarse particles in April and September but was not detected in high quantities in fine particles. This suggests that, although NH₄NO₃ is volatile under high temperatures during warm periods, the formation of NO_3^{-1} in coarse particles via Reaction (2) might also be enhanced at high temperatures in April and September (Galindo and Yubero 2017; Zhang et al. 2018). This is consistent with our finding that Na⁺ was more abundant than secondary aerosol species (i.e., SNA) in coarse mode, whereas SNA was dominant in fine particles. The concentration of Na⁺ in coarse particles found in the present study is similar to that in reported for Busan, lower than that found in Jeju Island, and higher than the levels at most other sites (Table S6). The relatively low concentration of NH₄⁺ in coarse particles could be explained by a negative artifact involving NaCl and NH₄NO₃ (Reaction 3) in the filters during sampling (Nicolás et al. 2009; Querol et al. 2004). This also suggests that NH4⁺ mainly accumulates in fine particles.

Ca²⁺ was one of the dominant WSIIs in coarse mode in January (14.6%) and November (17.0%) (Fig. 3b), originating from falling dust and soil particles. Previous studies have found that marine and crustal species can react with gaseous H₂SO₄ and HNO₃ or their gaseous precursors on pre-existing coarse particles via heterogeneous condensation (Galindo and Yubero 2017). A positive correlation between Ca²⁺ and both NO₃⁻ (r = 0.643, p < 0.01) and SO₄²⁻ (r = 0.362, p < 0.01) in coarse mode was observed (Table S3), suggesting that the high levels of coarse Ca²⁺ can be explained by these reactions. The average concentration of Cl⁻ was 0.10 μ g/m³, 0.60 μ g/m³, 1.16 μ g/m³, and $0.14 \,\mu\text{g/m}^3$ in January, April, September, and November, respectively, accounting for 8.06%, 22.1%, 44.9%, and 11.8% of total WSIIs in coarse particles (Figs. 3a, b). The higher levels of Cl⁻ in April and September than in January and November (Table S5) may possibly be due to marine sources from the East Sea (Fig. S1). Mg²⁺ in coarse particles had a higher average concentration in April (0.24 μ g/m³) and September (0.11 μ g/m³) than in January (0.03 μ g/m³) and November $(0.03 \ \mu g/m^3)$ (Table S5), which may be due to blowing and construction-derived dust. The concentration of F⁻ in coarse particles was relatively low and did not exhibit any clear temporal patterns.

3.2. Day-night variation in WSIIs in fine and coarse particles

A summary of the average concentration of coarse and fine particle concentrations and their chemical composition during the day and at night over the sampling period is presented in Table S7. A statistically



Fig. 4. COD analysis for day-time and night-time concentrations of nine WSIIs in (a) coarse and (b) fine particles during the four-month sampling period in Ulsan.

significant difference between day and night was only observed for K⁺ in coarse mode in January (p < 0.01, Mann-Whitney rank sum test) and November (p < 0.05, Mann-Whitney rank sum test) with a higher average concentration during the day than at night (Table S7). This may be because dust sources are more influential during the day as a result of transportation and stronger wind patterns (Table S1).

The temporal variation in individual WSIIs between day and night was also assessed using the COD. The COD is a useful parameter for comparing the degree of uniformity among selected chemical components for both short- and long-term measurements (Li et al. 2013; Wongphatarakul et al. 1998; Yang et al. 2005). If there is no considerable difference between two sampling periods, the COD approaches zero. In contrast, a COD approaching unity is indicative of a significant difference between two sampling periods (Wang et al. 2005). A COD of 0.27 was used in this study to differentiate between homogeneity and heterogeneity for day–night in accordance with other studies (Chandra et al. 2019; Wilson et al. 2005).

Fig. 4 presents the monthly average COD for PM and the nine WSIIs in both coarse and fine mode during the sampling period. Generally, the COD in this study ranged from 0.09–0.95 and 0.11–0.85 for coarse and fine particles, respectively. The CODs were 0.21, 0.12, 0.26, and 0.20 for coarse PM and 0.15, 0.12, 0.22, and 0.21 for fine PM in January, April, September, and November, respectively, indicating that the PM sources during the day and night were similar. In terms of the WSIIs, the CODs exhibited large variability for both coarse and fine particles, suggesting that there were significant differences in meteorological conditions, chemistry, and source contributions between the day and night.

The calculated CODs for Na⁺ in coarse particles were 0.21, 0.17, 0.42, and 0.26 in January, April, September, and November, respectively, which may be associated with the northeasterly winds during the day in September (Fig. S1). The higher average concentration of Na⁺ during the day (0.82 μ g/m³) than at night (0.72 μ g/m³) in September may be due to the formation of NaNO3 in coarse particles at high daytime temperatures (Galindo and Yubero 2017). This is consistent with our finding that the COD for NO₃⁻ was higher than 0.27 in September (0.33), and November (0.32), with a higher average concentration during the day than at night (Table S7). The CODs of Cl⁻ were higher than 0.27 (Fig. 4a), and the average concentrations of Cl⁻ during the day were higher than those at night in all months (Table S7). This could be explained by differences in the prevailing winds during the day and at night over the sampling period, leading to greater marine source contributions to coarse particles during the day (Fig. S1). SO₄²⁻, F⁻, and NH4+, which were minor contributors to coarse mode, did not exhibit any obvious day-night differences, with relatively low CODs (Fig. 4a). The CODs of Mg^{2+} and Ca^{2+} were higher than 0.27 in all months except April, with a higher average concentration during the day (Table S7), possibly because soil particles and falling dust were more influential sources during the day due to the stronger winds (Table S1). K^+ in coarse mode had CODs of 0.80 and 0.95 in January and November, respectively, which again may be the result of dust sources being more influential during the day.

In fine particles, the COD of SO_4^{2-} was consistently higher than 0.27 (Fig. 4b). The average concentration of fine SO_4^{2-} during the day was higher at night in January and September (Table S7), which is likely to be associated with high levels of SO₂ and/or the stronger relative solar radiation/temperature during the day (Table S1). In contrast, the average concentration of fine SO_4^{2-} was higher at night in April and November. This could be explained by large volumes of SO₂ being emitted from another source, such as short-range transport on northwesterly winds from areas surrounding Ulsan at night in April and November (Fig. S1). The CODs of NO_3^- (0.21) and NH_4^+ (0.19) were only lower than 0.27 in January, possibly because the difference in meteorological conditions between day and night was smaller in January than in the other months (Table S1). The concentrations of fine NH_4^+ and NO_3^- during the day were slightly lower than those at night in April, September, and November (Table S7), with the higher daytime temperatures enhancing the volatilization of NH₄NO₃ in fine particles. The CODs of Cl⁻ in fine mode were 0.24, 0.44, 0.52, and 0.16 in January, April, September, and November, respectively, with an average concentration that was higher during the day than at night in April and September (Table S7). This could represent the influence of industrial sources that employ coal combustion during working hours. Indications of biomass burning were observed in January (COD = 0.48) and November (COD = 0.85), with a higher average concentration of K^+ in fine mode during the day than at night (Table S7). Na⁺, Mg²⁺, Ca^{2+} , and F^- in fine particles showed patterns similar to those in coarse mode (Figs. 4a, b).

3.3. Size distribution of individual WSIIs

The potential sources and physicochemical properties of aerosols can be explained by the size distributions of their chemical components (Cabada et al. 2004; Contini et al. 2014; Liu et al. 2008). Fig. 5 illustrates the size distributions of nine WSIIs. In general, the size distributions of Na⁺, K⁺, F⁻, Cl⁻, NO₃⁻, and SO₄²⁻ were bimodal in nature, with fine particles peaking at 0.18–0.56 µm and coarse particles peaking at 1.8–5.6 µm. NH₄⁺ was mainly found with peaks in the size range of 0.18–0.56 µm, thus demonstrating a unimodal distribution of fine particles. Similarly, both Mg²⁺ and Ca²⁺ were unimodal, peaking at 1.8–5.6 µm.

3.3.1. Sulfate, nitrate, and ammonium

SNA, the most common SIA components, were found to be the dominant species, contributing up to 70% of the mass concentration of fine particles. In agreement with previous research (Huang et al. 2016;



Fig. 5. Size distribution of nine WSIIs (a) during the day and (b) at night for the four sampling months. dC is the average concentration of the ions in each cut size. Dlogdp is the difference in the log between two consecutive cut sizes.

Zhao and Gao 2008), SO_4^{2-} was detected primarily in fine mode, with peaks around 0.18–0.56 µm. SO_4^{2-} is emitted from primary sources such as meat cooking and wood burning, accumulating in PM with a d_a

of 0.1 μ m (Kleeman et al. 1999), and secondary processes via the oxidation of gaseous precursors to H₂SO₄ (Yamasoe et al. 2000). In the present study, SO₄²⁻ within the 0.1–0.18 μ m size range accounted for

20.0% and 17.3% of the PM_{1.8} SO₄²⁻ mass concentration during the day and at night, respectively. According to previous reports (Kleeman et al. 1999; Yamasoe et al. 2000), K⁺ is known as an indicator of biomass burning, and the ratio of K⁺/SO₄²⁻ is close to 1 in fine mode when emitted from this source. In the present study, the average ratio of K⁺ to SO₄²⁻ was 0.12. 0.03, 0.04, and 0.14 during the day and 0.11, 0.02, 0.03, and 0.09 at night in January, April, September, and November, respectively, indicating that biomass combustion was not a major contributor to fine SO₄²⁻. In addition, SO₄²⁻ exhibited a small peak within the 3.2–5.6 µm size range in April, September, and November, which could be associated with sea salts and/or secondary SO₄²⁻ generated in the reaction between SO₂ or H₂SO₄ and pre-existing Ca²⁺ and/or Na⁺ particles (Pakkanen 1996; Sievering et al. 1995). More detailed discussion of this is provided later in this section. A similar result, with two peaks in both coarse and fine particles, has been observed for SO₄²⁻ in Ulsan, South Korea (Park et al. 2019).

As with SO_4^{2-} , the size distribution of NH_4^+ was unimodal, peaking at 0.18–0.56 µm with more than 95% found in fine particles. This indicates that gas-to-particle condensation reactions may be the dominant process in the formation of NH_4^+ . Gaseous NH_3 in the atmosphere can neutralize HNO_3 and H_2SO_4 to form ammonium salts. At high NH_3 concentrations, NH_4NO_3 tends to form under high relative humidity and low temperatures, while the generation of $(NH_4)_2SO_4$ is favored at low NH_3 concentrations (Pathak et al. 2009a; Salvador et al. 2004a; Salvador et al. 2004b; Stockwell et al. 2000).

Of the SIA species, NO₃⁻ exhibited an obvious day–night difference in size distribution across the entire sampling period. NO₃⁻ had a bimodal distribution both during the day and at night in January, peaking at 0.18-0.56 µm and 3.2-5.6 µm in fine and coarse particles, respectively. This result is in direct accordance with previous studies conducted in South Korea (Park and Lee 2015; Park et al. 2019; Park et al. 2004). The peak in the fine particles may arise from gas-to-particle conversion, while that for coarse particles may be the result of the heterogeneous reaction between HNO₃ and crustal species or sea salts (Kawamura et al. 2007; Ocskay et al. 2006). During the day, NO₃⁻ has a unimodal distribution in April, September, and November, peaking at 3.2-5.6 µm (Fig. 5a). This again is indicative of the temperature-dependent equilibrium of NH₄NO₃ in fine mode under high temperatures during the day in April, September, and November. The temperature is lower at night, which is beneficial for the generation of fine particulate NO₃⁻ via gas-to-particle conversion. The loss of the fine NO₃⁻ peak in September (Fig. 5b) may be because the highest temperatures of the sampling period occurred during this month, even at night. These findings agree closely with previous studies that have reported coarse NO₃⁻ dominating during warm periods and fine NO₃⁻ dominating during cold periods (Kadowaki 1976; Yoshizumi and Hoshi 1985).

The mole charge ratio of $[NH_4^+]$ to that of both $[SO_4^{2-}]$ and $[SO_4^{2^-}] + [NO_3^-]$ in coarse mode is presented in Fig. S3. Overall, 37.5% of the individual samples taken during the day had a $[NH_4^+]/$ [SO₄²⁻] ratio higher than 1, compared to 36.8% at night, suggesting that SO_4^{2-} was not completely neutralized by NH_4^+ or that there was not enough NH4⁺ to neutralize H₂SO₄ in coarse mode (Figs. S3a, c). In this case, the formation of coarse SO_4^{2-} could be explained by the reaction of SO₂ or H₂SO₄ with pre-existing Ca^{2+} and/or Na⁺ particles. In addition, almost all samples had $[NH_4^+]/([SO_4^{2-}] + [NO_3^-])$ ratios that were lower than 1 in coarse mode during the day (96.2%) and at night (100%), suggesting that not all NO₃⁻ was neutralized by NH₄⁺ (Figs. S3b, d). These results indicate that these samples were ammonium-poor and that the aerosols were acidic. As mentioned in Section 3.1.2, coarse NO₃⁻ can arise from heterogeneous reactions between HNO3 and/or gaseous precursors of NO3⁻ and sea salts or crustal species. Thus, the formation pathway for NO₃⁻ in coarse mode can be examined further. Under the assumption that SO_4^{2-} is preferably neutralized by NH4⁺ compared to NO3⁻, excess [NO3⁻] can be calculated using Eq. (3):

of coarse NO_3^- in this study (Dasch and Cadle 1990; Pakkanen et al. 1996; Wolff 1984). This result is consistent with previous research conducted on Jeju Island, South Korea (Park et al. 2004). Fig. S5 presents scatter plots of the mole charge ratio of $[NH_4^+]$ to

 Mg^{2+} except in January (Fig. S4) indicates the presence of $Mg(NO_3)_2$

The strong correlation between excess $[NO_3^{-}]$ and Ca^{2+} and/or

 $[SO_4^{2^-}]$ and to $[SO_4^{2^-}] + [NO_3^-]$ in fine mode during the sampling period. In general, a similar formation mechanism during the day and at night was observed. Almost all of the [NH4⁺]/[SO4²⁻] ratios were higher than 1 (Figs. S5a, c), suggesting that these samples were ammonium-rich (Squizzato et al. 2013). In this case, two moles of NH_4^+ are removed by one mole of SO_4^{2-} , meaning that SO_4^{2-} is completely neutralized by NH_4^+ to produce $(NH_4)_2SO_4$. The mole charge ratio of $[NH_4^+]$ to $[SO_4^{2-}] + [NO_3^-]$ is used to determine aerosol acidity. An aerosol is considered acidic if the ratio of [NH4+] to $[SO_4^{2^-}] + [NO_3^-]$ is close to 1 and alkaline if it is greater than 1 (Li et al. 2014; Meng et al. 2016). In this study, almost all of the samples had mole ratios of $[NH_4^+]$ to $[SO_4^{2-}] + [NO_3^-]$ that were higher than 1, indicating that the aerosols were alkaline and that almost all NO_3 could be neutralized by NH4⁺ (Figs. S5b, d). In the ammonium-poor samples $([NH_4^+]/([SO_4^{2^-}] + [NO_3^-]) < 1)$, $SO_4^{2^-}$ is mainly neutralized by NH_4^+ to form NH_4HSO_4 , suggesting that SO_4^{2-} is not completely neutralized by NH_4^+ (Li et al. 2014).

To better understand NH₄NO₃ formation, the $[NO_3^-]/[SO_4^{2-}]$ ratio as a function of the normalized NH₄⁺ concentration (i.e., the $[NH_4^+]/[SO_4^{2-}]$ molar ratio) is presented in Figs. S6a, c. Because of the clear change in the slope observed at a $[NH_4^+]/[SO_4^{2-}]$ molar ratio of 1.5, this was used as the threshold in the present study to define ammonium-rich (i.e., $[NH_4^+]/[SO_4^{2-}] > 1.5$) samples (Arsene et al. 2011; Huang et al. 2011; Pathak et al. 2009b), in which NO₃⁻ is stabilized by NH₄⁺. In comparison, in ammonium-poor samples (i.e., $[NH_4^+]/[SO_4^{2-}] < 1.5$), NO₃⁻ formation is driven by the (a) homogeneous gasphase reaction of HNO₃ and NH₃ and sea salts or fine crustal species and (b) heterogeneous hydrolysis of N₂O₅ on the wet surface of pre-existing aerosols (Zhao and Gao 2008). Previous studies have indicated that a normalized NH₄⁺ concentration of 1.5 may be a fixed limit for excess ammonium, as shown in Eq. (4):

Excess $[NH_4^+] = ([NH_4^+]/[SO_4^{2-}] - 1.5) \times [SO_4^{2-}]$ (4)

In this study, as seen in the plot of the mole charge ratio of NO_3^- as a function of excess $[NH_4^+]$, the concentration of NO_3^- rose as the levels of excess $[NH_4^+]$ increased in ammonium-rich samples, indicating that the homogeneous reaction of HNO_3 and NH_3 plays a crucial role in the formation of fine particulate NO_3^- (Figs. S6b, d). In contrast, the formation of NO_3^- in ammonium-poor samples may not be explained by this homogeneous gas-phase reaction, but rather by crustal species in fine mode and the night-time heterogeneous hydrolysis of N_2O_5 on the wet surface of pre-existing aerosols (Pathak et al. 2009a). These results indicate that NH_4^+ plays a significant role in the formation and size distribution of SIA components in fine particles.

3.3.2. Magnesium, calcium, and potassium

 Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} exhibited a similar unimodal distribution, accumulating at a size of around 1.8–5.6 µm, which agrees with most published studies (Park and Lee 2015; Park et al. 2019; Park et al. 2004). In the atmosphere, these species are believed to mostly derive from natural sources (e.g., soil particles or falling dust), with minor contributions from sea salts. Many published studies have reported extremely high PM₁₀ concentrations in spring because of the influence of large particles in dust storms arriving in Korea from the deserts of China and Mongolia (Chung 1992; In and Park 2002; Kim and Park 2001). Therefore, the air quality in South Korea in spring might be greatly affected by dust storms, and further in-depth investigation is essential. According to a report from the KMA, South Korea experienced two Asian dust events on April 05–06, 2019, which led to increased levels of coarse particles in the days following due to dust being blown

Excess $[NO_3^{-}] = [NO_3^{-}] - [NH_4^{+}] - [SO_4^{2-}]$ (3)

from the ground into the atmosphere. This could account for the high concentrations of Mg^{2+} and Ca^{2+} in April. In addition, sea-salt particles, which are enhanced by the prevailing northeasterly winds in September, could be a source contributor to Mg^{2+} in coarse mode (Zhang et al. 2018; Zhao et al. 2011) due to the geographical position of this study area. As discussed in the previous section, Mg^{2+} played an important role in the formation of coarse NO_3^{-} in this study, and thus it could explain for the peak of Mg^{2+} in September.

A bimodal distribution for K^+ was found, with both coarse and fine peaks. K^+ has been reported to derive from multiple sources, such as vegetation, soils, sea salts, coal combustion, and the burning of biomass (e.g., forest fires and bio-fuel consumption), with the fine mode peak possibly related to the burning of biomass and coal combustion, and the coarse peak arising from sea salts and/or dust sources (Li et al. 2013; Zhang et al. 2018). In addition, long-range atmospheric transport from the neighboring countries affects the air quality in South Korea during the cold periods (Thang et al. 2020; Vuong et al. 2020). Thus, the higher concentrations of fine K⁺ in January and November than in other months may be a consequence of coal and/or biomass combustion transported from the outside of Ulsan by prevailing northwesterly winds.

3.3.3. Sodium, chloride, and fluoride

It is obvious that the ocean was the main source of Na⁺ and Cl⁻ in the aerosols. We found that Na⁺ and Cl⁻ both had bimodal distributions in January, while a single peak in coarse mode was observed in the other months. Fig. S7 shows that Na⁺ always had a very strong correlation with Cl⁻ in coarse mode except in January, which is indicative of the influence of the East Sea, with most Na⁺ and Cl⁻ present as NaCl in coarse particles in April, September, and November. Coarse Cl⁻ mainly derives from sea spray, while fine Cl⁻ originates from coal combustion (Sun et al. 2006). This could explain the small peak in fine Cl⁻ in January, which might be related to coal combustion for heating in the areas surrounding Ulsan, especially at night.

Despite being very harmful to the health, there have been very few studies to date focusing on F^- because of its very low concentration in the atmosphere (Zhang et al. 2018). In this study, F^- was only found in January, peaking at 0.32–0.56 and 3.2–10 µm in fine and coarse mode, respectively, with a relatively low concentration in April. The F^- in fine particles mainly arises from photochemical reactions on the surface of particles, while the F^- in coarse particles may derive from the decomposition of living organisms and soil (Xiu et al. 2004; Zhang et al. 2018)

4. Summary and conclusion

A comprehensive analysis of WSIIs in 11 size classes of PM was conducted to investigate day-night differences and size distributions at a semi-rural site in Ulsan, South Korea. Monthly variation in individual WSIIs was evident, which is likely due to the differences in meteorology, chemistry, and source contributors throughout the four-month field campaign. The highest level of fine SO_4^{2-} in April (2.19 μ g/m³) was likely due to the high loading of SO₂ emitted from industrial areas and carried to the site on the prevailing southeasterly winds during this month, with the SO_2 converted into SO_4^{2-} under strong solar radiation and high temperatures. Fine NO₃⁻ and NH₄⁺ were highest in January and lowest in September, which could be explained by their negative correlation with temperature. NO3⁻ was not only the dominant contributor to fine particles but was also one of the most abundant species detected within coarse particles. This may be the result of reactions involving the gaseous precursors of NO₃⁻ or HNO₃ and sea salts, which is expected to be the dominant species in coarse particles in a coastal city such as Ulsan. Na⁺, Cl⁻, and Ca²⁺ were the largest contributors (~70%) to total WSIIs in coarse particles, deriving mainly from sea salts, falling dust, and soil particles.

The calculated COD was lower than 0.27 for both coarse and fine

PM over the four months, while the CODs of individual WSIIs varied, indicating significant differences in meteorology, chemistry, and sources between day and night. The CODs of coarse NO_3^- , Na^+ and Cl^- were higher than 0.27 in April and/or September, with a higher average concentration during the day than at night, illustrating the strong influence of the southeasterly winds in April and the north-easterly winds in September during the day arising from sea-breeze circulation. In fine mode, the CODs for SO_4^{2-} were always higher than 0.27, highlighting the importance of meteorology during the day and at night to the source contribution of the gaseous precursors of SO_4^{2-} over the sampling period. NO_3^- and NH_4^+ levels were associated with the temperature-dependent equilibrium of NH_4NO_3 with a COD lower than 0.27 in January and a higher average level at night than during the day in other months.

The size distributions of Na⁺, K⁺, F⁻, Cl⁻, NO₃⁻, and SO₄²⁻ were bimodal, with fine particles peaking at 0.18–0.56 µm and coarse particles peaking at 1.8–5.6 µm. NH₄⁺ was mainly found within the 0.18–0.56 µm size range, thus exhibiting a unimodal distribution in fine mode, while both Mg²⁺ and Ca²⁺ had a unimodal peak in coarse mode at 1.8–5.6 µm. We also found that NO₃⁻ was mainly generated from the heterogeneous reaction of HNO₃ or gaseous precursors of NO₃⁻ with sea salts or crustal species on pre-existing coarse particles, while the homogeneous reaction between HNO₃ and NH₃ was dominant in the generation of fine NO₃⁻ in Ulsan.

Although a significant difference in the concentration and size distribution of WSIIs was observed in the present study, their formation pathways were similar between day and night, especially for SNA. Therefore, to reduce PM pollution episodes due to secondary formation in Ulsan, a reduction in the emission of the gaseous precursors (i.e., SO_2 , NO_x , and NH_3) of SIA components is necessary. This study also clarifies the influence of meteorological conditions on day–night variation in WSIIs in both coarse and fine particles. Furthermore, it provides an in-depth insight into the formation mechanisms for atmospheric aerosols at a semi-rural site in a multi-industrial city, and the results of this study can be used as the foundation for further studies in urban and industrial areas.

Declaration of Competing Interest

None.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosres.2020.105145.

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