



# Elevated Anthropogenic Contributions to Trace Elements in Marine Aerosols Compared to Coastal Qingdao in Eastern China

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**Abstract.** Trace elements (TEs) in aerosols over offshore eastern China originate from both terrestrial and marine emissions. However, their variations with source regions remain poorly understood. During spring and summer 2018, PM<sub>2.5</sub> samples were collected at Qingdao, a coastal city in eastern China, and adjacent Bohai and Yellow Seas. TEs were quantified and analyzed by source region, followed by source apportionment. In spring, TE concentrations were significantly higher over land. Crustal dust contributed 39.2–77.8% of Fe, Mn, Cr and Ni; while waste and industrial emissions contributed 29.4–70.1% of Cu, Zn and Pb. Westerly winds conveyed anthropogenic TEs offshore, with coal combustion contributing 25.9–61.4% to As, Cd, Pb, Zn and Cr, and oil combustion contributing 58.6–84.4% to V and Ni in marine aerosols, indicating efficient long-range pollutant transport. In summer, dust influence declined. Biomass burning contributed 38.2–46.3% of Zn, Cd, Pb and Cr, while vehicular emissions dominated As and Cu (41.7–57.3%) at Qingdao. Over marine areas, anthropogenic elements (Zn, As, and Cd) occasionally exceeded coastal levels, with coal combustion remaining dominant (40.8–75.5%). Ship emissions became especially prominent, contributing 79.3% of V and 63.3% of Ni offshore. Southeasterly winds transported ship-derived pollutants coastward, markedly increasing Fe (21.2%) and Mn (14.0%) compared to spring (1.9% and 1.8%, respectively). These results reveal distinct seasonal shifts in TE source across land-sea gradients, highlighting growing anthropogenic impacts, particularly from coal combustion and maritime shipping on marine aerosols. Quantifying these contributions helps assess marine biogeochemical impacts and supports targeted pollution control.

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## 1 Introduction

Atmospheric aerosols can significantly impact the local environment and global climate change through modifying the solar radiation balance in the atmosphere (Huang et al., 2014; Ramanathan et al., 2007) and supplying nutrients to ecosystems (Chooari et al., 2014). Anthropogenic activities release a profusion of pollutants that can engage in intricate physicochemical processes, resulting in the formation of atmospheric fine particulate matter ( $D_p \leq 2.5 \mu\text{m}$ ,  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ ). Distinct from large-diameter particles, these primary or secondary  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  usually possess long lifetimes, which are capable of undergoing long-range transport in the atmosphere and depositing into remote oceans. This process introduces substantial anthropogenic pollutants, thereby impacting ocean ecosystems (Mahowald, 2011; Xu et al., 2021).

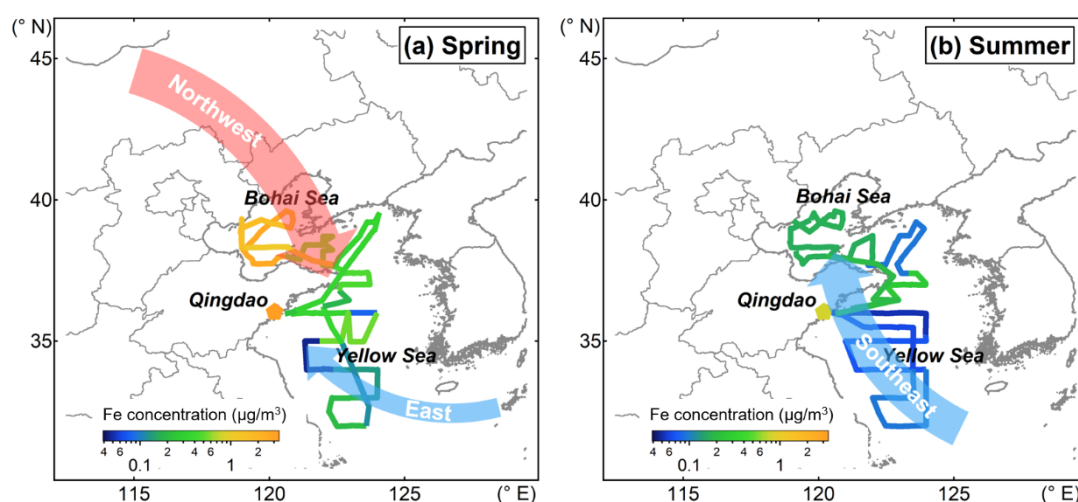
Despite trace elements constituting only a minor fraction of the  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  mass, their significant post-deposition impacts on downwind marine ecosystems have attracted considerable attention (Li et al., 2015; Morel and Price, 2003; Zhang et al., 2018). Some trace elements deposited in the open oceans, such as Mn, Fe, Ni, Cu, Zn, and Cd, have biological roles, generally as cofactors or part of cofactors of enzymes or as structural elements in proteins (Morel and Price, 2003). These elements can markedly influence the growth of phytoplankton taxa and the biological community structure of marine organisms, thereby affecting carbon sequestration and marine primary production (Boyd et al., 2000; Falkowski et al., 1998; Mann et al., 2002; Martin, 1990; Morel and Price, 2003; Yoon et al., 2018; Tang et al., 2021). The total fraction of trace elements cannot be fully utilized. In most cases, only the soluble fractions of elements are more likely to be bioavailable (Shi et al., 2012). The soluble fractions (i.e., solubility) of elements are closely associated with their sources (Baker et al., 2006; Sholkovitz et al., 2012). For instance, while mineral dust is the principal source of Fe, numerous studies have demonstrated that Fe emitted from anthropogenic sources has a higher solubility (López-García et al., 2017; Sholkovitz et al., 2012; Sun et al., 2024). Model results also suggest that the combustion-derived Fe tended to account for over 20% of the Fe deposition near the Asian continent, and the efficiency of pyrogenic Fe in enhancing marine productivity exceeds that of lithogenic sources (Ito et al., 2021; Luo et al., 2008). Fe from the combustion source is typically present in finer particles (Buck et al., 2010; Ito and Feng, 2011). Therefore, it is essential to evaluate both the nature and anthropogenic sources of  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  as well as these trace elements over marine regions.

The Bohai Sea (BS) and Yellow Sea (YS) are on the crucial transport pathway for aerosols originating from the heavily polluted East Asia area to the Northwest Pacific within the westerly belt. Qingdao (QD) is a coastal city adjacent to YS (Fig.1). Aerosol trace elements over the BS and YS likely exhibit distinct characteristics compared to those in coastal cities, necessitating synchronized land-sea observations to investigate these characteristics. However, as previously noted, the current knowledge regarding the source apportionment of trace elements in marine aerosols remains limited (Hilario et al., 2020). Prior field cruise investigations have focused on studying the particle characteristics of total suspended particulates (TSP) and  $\text{PM}_{10}$  ( $D_p \leq 10 \mu\text{m}$ ) (Hsu et al., 2010; Li et al., 2025; Peng et al., 2025; Qiu, 2015; Shi et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2013; Yang et al., 2020). In contrast, trace elements in  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  have been scarcely explored. Previous research at Qingdao revealed that the soluble Fe



concentration in fine particles is three-fold higher than that in coarse mode (Li et al., 2018). Moreover, the solubility of Fe was notably greater in fine particles compared to coarse particles (Zhang et al., 2022).

- 65 Atmospheric processes that occurs during long-range transport from the continent to ocean can significantly enhance the solubility of trace elements and influence the ecosystems of the surface ocean by dry and wet deposition (Schroth et al., 2009; Sholkovitz et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2021; Luo et al., 2020; Xu et al., 2023; Zhang et al., 2024). Understanding how and to what degree these processes alter the sources of trace elements during transport is crucial for assessing the impact of anthropogenic pollution on the marine ecosystem. This study conducted simultaneous observations in
- 70 Qingdao and during BS and YS research cruises in the spring and summer of 2018 (Fig.1), investigating the characteristics and source apportionment of trace elements. This work contributes to a more comprehensive understanding of the distribution and sources of trace elements in fine particles from coastal to marginal sea areas in eastern China and complicated spread of aerosols.



- 75 **Figure 1: Schematic diagram of regional maps with dominant air mass transport pathways (arrows). The solid lines indicate cruise tracks for (a) springtime and (b) summertime cruises over BS and YS during 2018 and the star indicates the location of Qingdao, with the color-filled indicating Fe concentration.**

## 2 Methodology

### 2.1 Sample collection

- 80  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  samples were collected to measure fine particle components over the BS, YS, and Qingdao during the spring and summer of 2018. In the cruise missions, the samples were collected over the BS and YS from 28 March to 17 April and from 24 July to 10 August 2018. These areas are located in the downwind areas of the Asian dust source regions and northern China city groups being significantly influenced by dust and anthropogenic pollution (Fig.1). Eighteen and nine samples were collected



during non-rainy periods in spring and summer, respectively. During the collection of marine aerosols, samples were  
 85 exclusively collected while the ship was underway to avoid contamination from the exhaust emissions.

The samples in Qingdao were collected in the same period as the cruise missions. The sampling site was located at the  
 Baguanshan Atmospheric Research Observatory (BARO, 36.03° N, 120.20° E; 74 m above sea level) in the Shinan District  
 Qingdao (Fig.1), with a approximately 600 m straight-line distance from the coastline (Li et al., 2024; Yang et al., 2024).  
 Thirty-seven and twenty-five samples were collected during non-rainy periods in spring and summer, respectively.  
 90 High-volume particle samplers (Tisch Environmental, Inc., USA and Qingdao Jinshida Electronic Technology Co., Ltd., China)  
 were applied to collect the particles onto Whatman® 41# filters (Whatman Limited, Maidstone, UK) for trace element analysis,  
 and onto PALL® quartz filters (Pall Gelman, Inc., USA) for analysis of water-soluble ions, organic carbon (OC), and elemental  
 carbon (EC). The 41# filters were washed with diluted acid prior to sampling following Chance et al. (2015) to remove  
 background trace elements. Quartz filters were pre-baked at 450 °C for 6 hours before the sample collection to eliminate  
 95 background organic contaminants. Blank filters were collected for quality assurance and control. All samples were sealed in  
 plastic bags and stored at -20 °C until subsequent analysis.

## 2.2 Chemical analysis

**Trace elements:** An 8.0 cm<sup>2</sup> section of both the sample and blank filters was digested with an acid mixture (2.0 mL of 69%  
 HNO<sub>3</sub> and 0.5 mL of 40% HF) in closed Teflon vessels and heated at 180 °C for 48 h. After cooling to room temperature, the  
 100 solutions were evaporated to near dryness at 180 °C using an electric heating plate. Then, the residue was diluted to 50 mL  
 with 2% HNO<sub>3</sub> and stored at ~4 °C until analysis.

The concentrations of elements in the extracts were measured using an inductively coupled plasma-mass spectrometry (ICP-  
 MS, iCAP Qc, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Germany) with internal standards of Rh, Sc, and Th to eliminate matrix interference.  
 A standard solution was analyzed as a quality control sample for every 10 samples.

105 **Water-soluble ions:** Sample sections and blank filters were extracted with 10 mL Milli-Q water (≥18.0 MΩ·cm) using  
 ultrasonication for 40 min at 0 °C followed by filtration through a 0.45 μm pore diameter filter, then stored at ~4 °C until  
 analysis in 3 days. Water-soluble ionic species, including Na<sup>+</sup>, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, K<sup>+</sup>, Mg<sup>2+</sup>, Ca<sup>2+</sup>, Cl<sup>-</sup>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> and C<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>, were  
 analyzed using a Dionex ICS-3000 ion chromatography. Blank filter solution and standard solution were analyzed for every  
 10 samples to control the quality.

110 **OC and EC:** 2.0 cm<sup>2</sup> section of samples and blank filters were analyzed by Sunset OC/EC analyzer using NIOSH protocol  
 (Wu et al., 2016). The data obtained were calibrated with a standard curve.

## 2.3 Other data and backward trajectories

Meteorological parameters during the sample collection periods, including relative humidity (RH), wind speed (WS) and wind  
 direction, were obtained from the shipboard measurements and Qingdao Meteorological Bureau, and monitoring data of



gaseous pollutants, including SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>3</sub>, and CO, were from China National Environmental Monitoring Centre (<http://www.cnemc.cn/>, <https://quotsoft.net/air/>).

The Hybrid Single-Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory (HYSPLIT) model (PC v4.8) developed by the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration Air Resources Laboratory (NOAA-ARL) (Draxler and Rolph, 2014) was employed to reconstruct the three-dimensional 72-h backward trajectories. This was done to identify distinct air mass source regions and their transport paths. The starting point for the trajectory calculations was set at an altitude of 300 m above the ground level. The calculations were performed with the vertical velocity calculation method and archived Global Data Assimilation System (GDAS) meteorological data.

## 2.4 Positive matrix factorization receptor model

The Positive Matrix Factorization (PMF) model is a widely used receptor model to resolve pollution sources and quantify the source contributions to ambient particulate matter concentrations (Paatero and Tapper, 1994). It decomposes the measured data matrix into factor profile, contribution, and residual matrix. In this study, the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) PMF version 5.0 was utilized for analysis (Norris et al., 2014).

In this study, the mass concentrations of 13 elements (Al, V, Cr, Mn, Fe, Ni, Co, Cu, Zn, As, Cd, Ba and Pb), 9 water-soluble ions (Na<sup>+</sup>, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, K<sup>+</sup>, Mg<sup>2+</sup>, Ca<sup>2+</sup>, Cl<sup>-</sup>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> and C<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>), and OC/EC from both coastal and cruise campaigns (81 samples) were input to the PMF analysis. Multiple factors ranging from 6 to 10 were thoroughly evaluated to determine the optimal solution. The stability and reliability of the factor solutions were assessed using the displacement (DISP) and bootstrap (BS) uncertainty estimation methods (Norris et al., 2014). Ultimately, an 8-factor solution emerged as the most robust and interpretable. In contrast, the 7-factor solution failed to distinguish the industrial emissions from dust (Fig.S1a), while the 9-factor solution tended to resolve an additional factor with an extremely low BS mapping value of 58% (Fig.S1b and Table S1). The 8-factor solution demonstrated the highest stability. The mapping percentages using the BS uncertainty method exceeded 75% for all factors (Table S2), surpassing the performances of the 7-factor and 9-factor solutions (Table S3 and S1). Moreover, the DISP analysis showed no occurrences of factor swapping and no reduction in the model fit statistic Q (both %dQ and the error code were 0), further validating the stability and interpretation of the 8-factor solution.

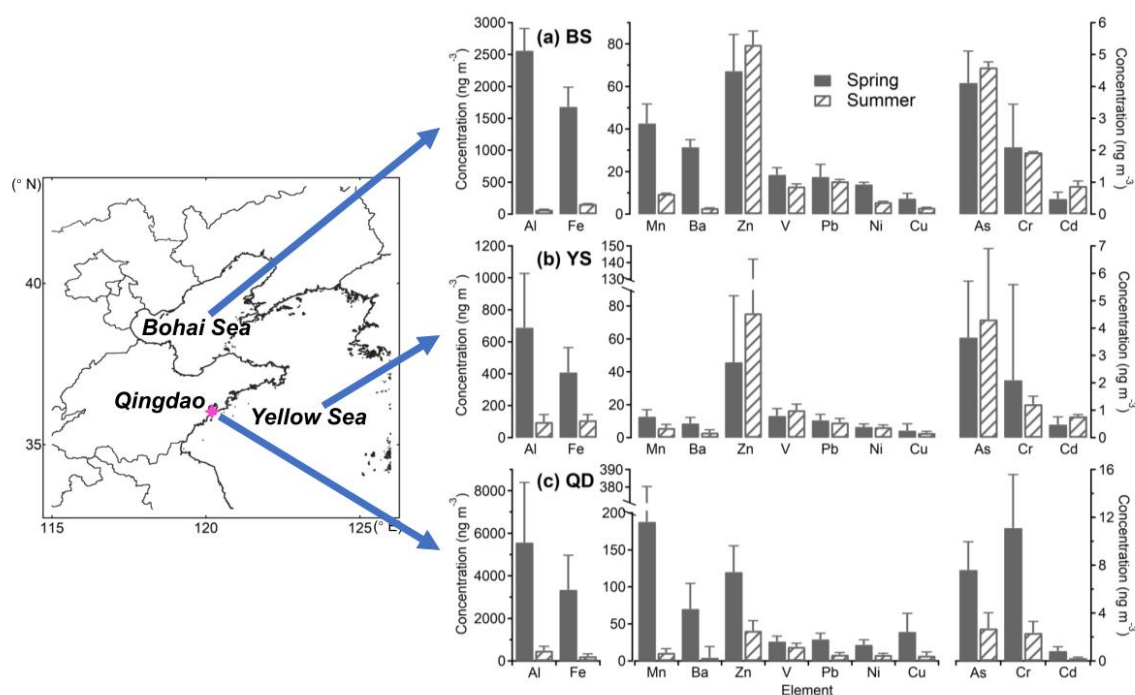
## 3 Spatiotemporal distributions of trace elements

Figure 2, Tables S4 and S5 summarize the overall average concentrations of elements. Over the BS and YS, the predominant trace elements were Al, Fe, and Zn, with concentrations (average ± standard deviation) of 1043.2 ± 1031.0 ng m<sup>-3</sup>, 648.6 ± 654.8 ng m<sup>-3</sup>, and 49.9 ± 75.0 ng m<sup>-3</sup> in spring, and 93.2 ± 81.8 ng m<sup>-3</sup>, 122.0 ± 65.7 ng m<sup>-3</sup>, and 76.6 ± 117.6 ng m<sup>-3</sup> in summer, followed by Mn (spring) and V (summer) respectively. In the coastal city, the dominant trace elements were Al and Fe, with average concentrations of 5573.5 ± 5641.1 and 3347.3 ± 3249.3 ng m<sup>-3</sup> in spring and 493.8 ± 395.4 and 228.3 ± 211.7 ng m<sup>-3</sup> in summer, followed by Mn in spring and Zn in summer, respectively (Fig.2c). Zn was the most abundant anthropogenic



element in both marine and coastal environments. Except for V, element concentrations during summer in Qingdao were lower than those reported by Li et al. (2018) during summer 2016. In this study, V and Ni, as representative tracers of emissions from heavy oil combustion, indicated a higher influence from ship emissions during the campaigns (Li et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2019b; Zhao et al., 2013).

- 150 All elements displayed notably higher concentrations in Qingdao compared to the marine area in spring. However, the discrepancy in concentrations of V, As, and Cd between land and sea was relatively smaller than those of other elements (Fig.2). The region with the lowest recorded concentrations was observed over YS in both spring and summer. Conversely, Zn, As, and Cd exhibited elevated levels over the ocean during summer, particularly in the highly polluted sample SU005, which was caused by a severe pollution event, will be discussed in detail in another manuscript on case studies.
- 155 Seasonally, concentrations of Al, Fe, Mn, and Ba over the BS and YS in spring were 4–35 times and 2–7 times higher than those in summer, respectively. This distinct seasonality can be attributed to dust storms, a frequent phenomenon in northern China during spring (Li et al., 2019). In contrast, Zn, As, and Cd displayed even higher concentrations in summer than in spring, likely related to heavily polluted samples collected. Conversely, V, Pb, and Ni exhibited no discernible seasonal variations, likely due to the consistent anthropogenic emissions such as industrial or traffic emissions (Wu et al., 2017). In
- 160 Qingdao, concentrations of all these elements were notably higher in spring compared to summer (Fig.2c).



**Figure 2: Concentrations of trace elements (ng m<sup>-3</sup>) over the (a) BS, (b) YS, and (c) Qingdao during the campaigns in 2018. Error bars represent half of standard deviation.**





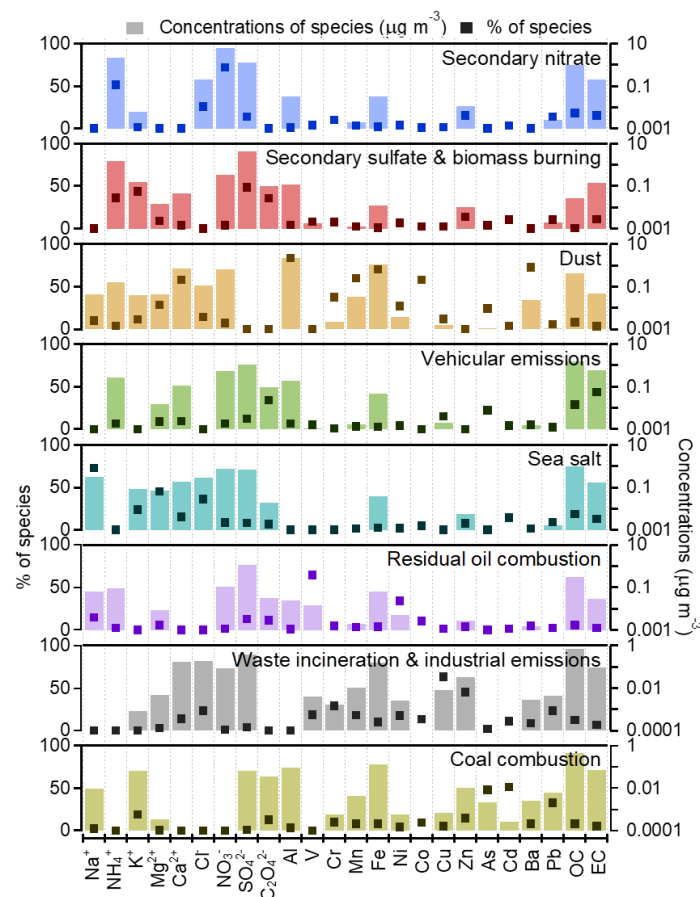
We compared our results to other literature data on the concentrations of selected elements in various oceanic regions and typical megacities in China (Tables S4 and S5) (Qi and Zhou, 2021). Notably, elemental concentrations over the YS in this study were significantly lower than those observed during spring 2011 (Zhao et al., 2015), likely reflecting the effectiveness of emission control policies and environmental remediation measures. When comparing with spring 2018 ECS sampling data (Sun et al., 2022), a distinct north-to-south decline in the concentrations of mineral elements (Al, Fe, Mn, Ba) and anthropogenic heavy metals (e.g., Zn, Pb) was observed. This spatial pattern suggests that both dust-derived and anthropogenic pollutants, transported via the westerly winds, exert progressively weaker influences on marine aerosols from northern to southern coastal regions (Zhao et al., 2015). Only a few measurements in island were collected in summer (Yuan et al., 2023), and among all these data, extremely high Zn and Cd pollution over the BS and YS was observed and attributed to anthropogenic emissions in the Circum-Bohai-Sea (CBS) region (A geographic area encompassing the land and coastal zones surrounding the BS in China) (Polissar et al., 2001).

In Qingdao, most crustal elements, such as Fe and Mn, exhibited higher concentrations in spring and lower concentrations in summer than the annual average concentrations reported in Beijing, Shanghai, and Guangzhou, the typical megacities in China (Table S5) (Chen et al., 2008; Yang et al., 2011). Anthropogenic elements such as Zn, Pb, As, Cr, and Cd were consistently at lower levels in Qingdao than in the three megacities, indicating less anthropogenic pollution. V concentrations in Qingdao were 2–3 times higher than those in Shanghai (Chen et al., 2008), suggesting more severe pollution from ship emissions or other residual oil combustions. However, the differences in sampling times need consideration. Sect. 4.2.3 explores the impact of vessel emission control policies on the ship emission aerosols.

## 4 Discussions

### 4.1 Source apportionment of PM<sub>2.5</sub>

Eight factors were identified by PMF. The resolved factor profiles are presented in Fig.3. The mean concentrations and the relative contributions of each factor are displayed in Fig.4. The characteristics of the determined aerosol sources are as follows. Factor 1 was identified as the secondary nitrate factor, characterized by high loadings of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> and Cl<sup>-</sup> (Fig.3) (Wu et al., 2017; B. Xu et al., 2023). This factor contributed a significant proportion of fine particles in both coastal and marine environments, accounting for 30.5% and 15.7% of PM<sub>2.5</sub> mass respectively (Fig.4b). Notably, Factor 1 displayed an enhanced influence during nighttime (Fig.S4) and a significant correlation with NO<sub>2</sub> ( $r = 0.47$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) and CO ( $r = 0.37$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ; Table S6). This could potentially be indicative of the nocturnal heterogeneous reaction formation or subsequent regional transport (Wang et al., 2018).



**Figure 3: PMF resolved source profiles (dark points represent the percentages and light rectangles represent the concentrations of each species in each factor) of the 8-factor solution.**

Factor 2 was recognized as the secondary sulfate and biomass burning (sulfate & BB) factor, marked by high  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ,  $\text{K}^+$ ,  $\text{NH}_4^+$  and oxalate (Wu et al., 2017; B. Xu et al., 2023). This factor accounted for 19.3% and 26.6% of the  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  mass in coastal and marine regions respectively. The notable presence of  $\text{K}^+$ , oxalate, and some EC and Zn in this factor suggested the possible mixing with emissions from biomass burning (Wang et al., 2018; Zhu et al., 2022). Factor 2 exhibited significant correlations with CO ( $r = 0.55$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) and RH ( $r = 0.39$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). CO serves as a key tracer of primary incomplete combustion processes (Zhang et al., 2017). The strong interconnection between sulfate and oxalate can be ascribed to their similar liquid phase formation mechanisms (Yu et al., 2005; Zhou et al., 2015).

Factor 3, identified as the dust factor, was characterized by high loadings of crustal species, including Al, Ba, Fe, Mn and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  (Fig.3) (Amil et al., 2016; Gugamsetty et al., 2012; Mustaffa et al., 2014). A significant portion of Co was also apportioned to Factor 3, denoting its crustal and anthropogenic origins. The mass ratios of Fe/Ca and Mn/Ca were 1.57 and 0.05, respectively, aligning with the typical ranges found in natural soil and paved road dust (0.8–2.6 for Fe/Ca and 0.01–0.08 for Mn/Ca) (Ho et al., 2003; Wang et al., 2018). In Qingdao, the time series of Factor 3 exhibited distinct peaks on 29–30





March, 3, 6, 10–11, and 15 April 2018 (Fig.S5a), each coinciding with documented springtime Asian dust events (Li et al., 2023; Li et al., 2019). Diurnally, Factor 3 exhibited a positive correlation with WS ( $r = 0.42$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ) and displayed an inverse  
 210 correlation with RH ( $r = -0.72$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ; Table S6) at the coastal site in spring. These correlations suggested the influence of meteorological conditions, consistent with the inherently arid nature of dusty air masses. Factor 3 accounted for 17.8% of the total PM<sub>2.5</sub> mass at coastal site and diminished to 4.0% within the marine environments (Fig.4b).

Factor 4 was identified as the vehicular emissions factor, characterized by significant apportionments for EC and OC, contributing 11.9% to the total coastal aerosol mass and 18.5% to the marine aerosols. OC and EC are major pollutants  
 215 stemming from gasoline and diesel combustion (Liu et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2020). The presence of Cu and Zn was likely due to additives in motor oil, fuel/lubricant combustion, brake linings and tire wear (Lee et al., 2006; Pant and Harrison, 2013). During summertime, vehicular emissions demonstrated a positive correlation with NO<sub>2</sub> ( $r = 0.82$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) and CO ( $r = 0.32$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ), along with a negative correlation with O<sub>3</sub> ( $r = -0.35$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). These relationships underscored the chemical interplay where O<sub>3</sub> is reduced by NO to generate NO<sub>2</sub>.

Factor 5 was characterized by high concentrations of sea salt components, including Na<sup>+</sup>, Mg<sup>2+</sup> and Cl<sup>-</sup>, and showed good correlations with WS ( $r = 0.39$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) and an inverse relationship with RH ( $r = -0.58$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) (Sharma et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2018). This factor aligned with the generation of sea salt aerosols via wind-induced disturbance on the ocean surface (Prijith et al., 2014). At the coastal site, the augmented concentrations during the daytime aligned with the sea-land breeze patterns (Fig.S4). Time series analysis indicated that Factor 5 had a prevalent influence over the marine area (Fig.S5). The  
 225 peaks in the Factor 5 time series, paralleled to those of Factor 3, may imply the mixing of sea salt and dust or the influence of reverse-transport dust passing over the YS and BS (Li et al., 2023). On average, the sea salt factor contributed 8.3% to coastal PM<sub>2.5</sub> and 20.1% to marine PM<sub>2.5</sub>.

Factor 6, the residual oil combustion factor, was characterized by high apportionments of V and Ni (Wu et al., 2020), contributing 4.5% and 9.0% to the total PM<sub>2.5</sub> mass at the coastal site and marine areas, respectively. The cargo handling  
 230 capacity of Qingdao port reached 542.5 million tons in 2018, ranking fourth among the main ports of China (data obtained from China Statistical Yearbook, 2018, <https://data.stats.gov.cn/easyquery.htm?cn=C01>). The contributions of Factor 6 highlighted the significant influence of shipping traffic on both the coastal city and the offshore areas. A positive correlation with SO<sub>2</sub> ( $r = 0.40$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) (Table S6) further validated its association with ship emissions (Zhang et al., 2019b).

Factor 7 was defined as the waste incineration & industrial emissions factor (WI & IE). It exhibited substantial loadings of  
 235 heavy metals such as Cu, Zn, Cr, Pb, along with some Cl<sup>-</sup>, which are tracers of waste incineration and industrial activities, including metallurgical smelting, oil mining, and the production of cement, plastic, pigment, chemical and building materials (Borai et al., 2002; Karar et al., 2006; Li et al., 2012; Tian et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2018). Its strong correlations with NO<sub>2</sub> ( $r = 0.52$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) and SO<sub>2</sub> ( $r = 0.29$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ) underscored its industrial origins, although it is a minor contributor to total PM<sub>2.5</sub> (5.5% at coastal and 0.9% in the marine area, as shown in Table S6).

Factor 8 was identified as the coal combustion factor, characterized by abundances of As, Pb and Cd (Chang et al., 2018; Li et al., 2020; Rai et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2008), contributing merely 2.1% and 5.0% to the total PM<sub>2.5</sub>



mass at coastal and marine areas, respectively. A notable correlation with  $\text{SO}_2$  ( $r = 0.39$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) confirmed its association with coal combustion-related activities (Lin et al., 2022).

## 4.2 Variation in source contributions of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ between coastal and marine environments

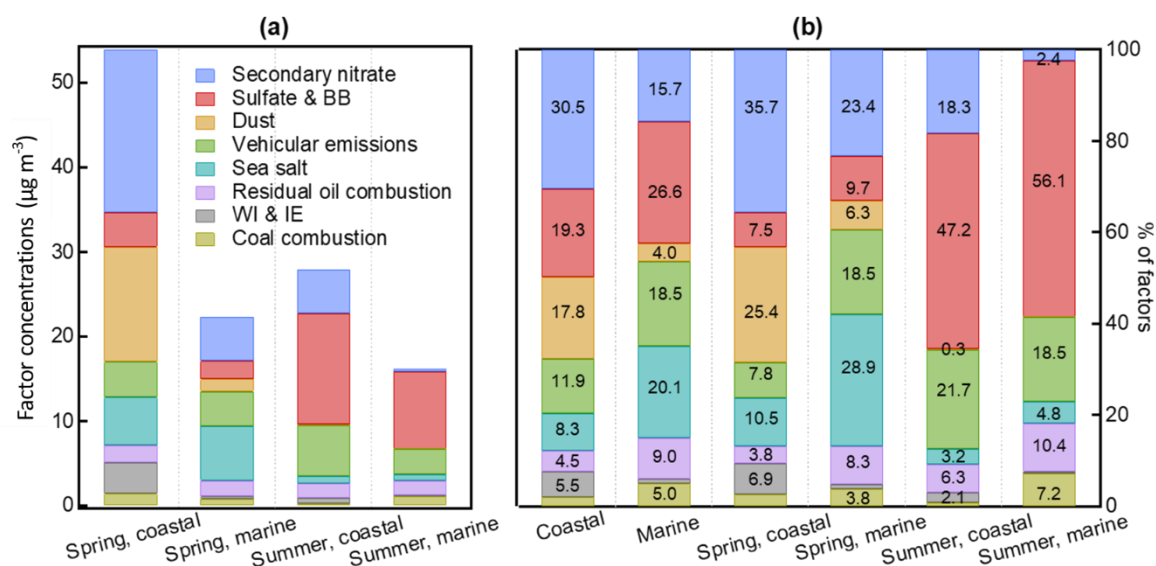
### 245 4.2.1 Spring westerly transport enhances anthropogenic inputs in marine areas

Distinct differences in  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  source apportionment were observed between the coastal and marine environments during spring. Secondary nitrate, dust, and WI & IE exhibited significantly lower concentrations and relative contributions in marine environments compared to the coastal site. Specifically, secondary nitrate was the predominant contributor at the coastal site, accounting for 35.7% ( $19.2 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) of  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  mass. In contrast, its contribution was notably lower, at 23.4% ( $5.2 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ), in  
 250 the marine area (Fig.4). This disparity was driven by the divergence in the air masses transport pathways. Air masses arriving at the coastal site (spring clusters E, S, W and summer cluster L) contained higher concentrations of secondary components like  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  (land-based species), which did not fully extend to marine areas (Fig.S6a and c, and Table S7). As  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  are primarily associated with terrestrial sources, their influence is more significant in coastal areas.

Dust, the second largest contributor in spring, accounted for 25.2% ( $13.6 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) at the coastal site but sharply reduced to 6.3%  
 255 ( $1.4 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) over the marine area. Dust particles with larger diameters are more likely to be removed through inertial and gravitational settling processes during transport (Gu et al., 2011; Vu et al., 2015; Zhao et al., 2015), leading to the rapid sedimentation and reduced concentration in remote marine environments (Baker & Jickells, 2006; Ma et al., 2023). The WI & IE factor also showed lower contributions in the marine area (1.2%) compared to the coastal site (6.9%), with time series peaks closely resembling those of the dust factor (Fig.S5a). It is hypothesized that during dust events, WI & IE pollutants from the  
 260 Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei (BTH) region may mix with the transported dust and deposit on land, causing only a minor portion of WI & IE to reach the marine area. In contrast, sea salt was the only factor with higher relative contributions and absolute concentrations in the marine area (28.9%;  $6.46 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) compared to the coastal site (10.5%;  $5.66 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ), reflecting its marine origin.

Sulfate & BB, coal combustion, vehicular emissions and residual oil combustion showed higher contributions in the marine  
 265 area, despite having lower or comparable absolute concentrations to the coastal site (Fig.4). On the one hand, increased RH in marine atmosphere favored the formation of sulfate and oxalate through liquid-phase reactions (Zhang et al., 2019a; Zhou et al., 2015), enhancing their contribution in the marine atmosphere (3.8–18.5%) compared to the coastal site (2.6–7.8%). On the other hand, small-sized particles from biomass burning and coal combustion are more effectively transported to marine areas (Gu et al., 2011; Vu et al., 2015). The vehicular emissions, accounting for 18.5% in marine areas (Fig.4b), had nearly identical  
 270 average concentrations in both coastal and marine environments ( $4.14$  and  $4.19 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ , respectively) (Fig.4a). Characterized by small EC-rich particles, these vehicular emissions can be easily transported to remote areas (Gu et al., 2011; Vu et al., 2015). As shown in Figs.S2 and S5a, time series peaks of this factor over the ocean coincided with the samples collected from air masses originating in northern and central China, i.e., samples SP010, SP014, and SP017. Residual oil combustion exhibited

similar average concentrations in marine ( $1.84 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) and coastal ( $2.03 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) areas, indicating the influence of ships and  
 ports emissions on coastal urban areas. Unlike the WI & IE factor, these four anthropogenic factors demonstrated that varying  
 transport paths and potential mixing with dust could affect deposition rate and land-sea distribution of anthropogenic pollutants.



**Figure 4: The averaged (a) concentrations and (b) relative percentage contributions (volume-weighted, hereafter) of identified source factors to PM<sub>2.5</sub> as determined by PMF analysis. Sulfate & BB refers to sulfate & biomass burning. WI & IE denotes waste incineration & industrial emissions.**

#### 4.2.2 Summer biomass burning and coal combustion dominate marine emissions

Similar spatial land-sea distribution patterns were observed for secondary nitrate, dust, WI & IE, as well as sulfate & BB in summer. However, the dominant contributor shifted from secondary nitrate in spring to sulfate & BB in summer, indicating decreased nitrate contributions during the warmer season. This reduction was attributed to the thermal decomposition of  
 $\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3$  under high summer temperatures and enhanced secondary sulfate facilitated by photochemical reactions with the  
 high temperature and sufficient light (Wu et al., 2017).

Unlike in spring, summer data revealed higher concentrations and contributions of vehicular emissions at the coastal site ( $6.05 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ , 21.7%) compared to the marine areas ( $3.00 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ , 18.5%) (Fig.4). This difference could be ascribed to the seasonal variations in pollutants transport direction, driven by the summer southeasterly winds, altering typical land to sea trajectories.  
 Similarly, sea salt concentrations were slightly higher at the coastal site ( $0.88 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) compared to marine areas ( $0.78 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ), suggesting that summer southeasterly winds facilitate marine aerosol transfer inland, thereby influencing the air quality of coastal urban areas (Fig.S6c and d).

The coal combustion factor also showed a more pronounced contribution over the marine area ( $1.17 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ , 7.2%) than at the coastal site ( $0.26 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ , 0.9%). This variation was attributed to significantly elevated concentrations of trace elements in marine aerosols during summer, with one particularly polluted sample (SU005) collected over the YS (Fig.S3b). As shown in



Fig.S6d, the air mass corresponding to this sample mainly originated from the vicinity of the CBS region, indicating that the pollution could be traced to local or regional sources, which led to elevated pollution levels in the marine area for this air mass type, as depicted by the light blue bar in Fig.S6d.

### 4.2.3 Changes over the past decade

300 Comparative analysis of particulate matter source apportionment in Qingdao over the past decade reveals notable shifts in source contributions (Wu et al., 2017). The fraction attributed to secondary nitrate increased from 25.2% to 30.5%, suggesting a growing influence of this factor. Conversely, the sulfate (& BB) factor declined from 25.7% to 19.3%, whereas vehicular emissions demonstrated a moderate increase from 10.0% to 11.9%, accompanied by an elevation in the mass concentrations of Ni and V. These changes reflect the impacts of evolving environmental regulations and the transformation in the energy  
 305 structure over the past decade.

Another interesting trend is the contribution from residual oil combustion. As a coastal city, Qingdao experiences heavy shipping traffic. Results from a PMF analysis conducted from August 2018 to May 2019 near the Qingdao Port indicated that marine vessel emissions were the primary contributor (25.1%), with the YS and BS as potential source regions (Bie et al., 2021). In this study, residual oil combustion accounted for 4.5% at the coastal background site and 9.0% over the marine area.

310 The cargo handling capacity of Qingdao ports in 2017 was approximately double that of 2007 (China Statistical Yearbook, 2018 and 2008, <https://data.stats.gov.cn/easyquery.htm?cn=C01>), underscoring the significant impact of ship emissions. The implementation of “domestic emission control areas” (DECAs) in China signified a significant regulatory shift to address air quality concerns. Commencing on January 1, 2017, ships berthed at core ports in three designated regions (the Pearl River Delta, the Yangtze River Delta, and the Bohai Rim) were mandated to use fuel with a sulfur content not exceeding 0.5%  
 315 (DECA 1.0) (Zhang et al., 2019b). This regulation was further expanded on January 1, 2019 to require vessels operating within 12 nautical miles of the coastline to adhere to the same low sulfur criteria (DECA 2.0) (Yu et al., 2021). The transition to low-sulfur fuels led to a significant increase in the Ni/V ratio of emitted aerosols. In Shanghai, the Ni/V ratio in ship emitted particles derived from PMF increased from 0.34 to 0.45 between DECA 1.0 and DECA 2.0, reaching 2.14 in 2020 (Yu et al., 2021). In the present study, the measured Ni/V ratios averaged 0.83 in spring and 0.43 in summer PM<sub>2.5</sub>, with an estimated  
 320 value of 0.35 for ship-emitted aerosols by PMF. The measured Ni/V ratio observed in spring may be attributed to atmospheric dust serving as a source of Ni, whereas the estimated ratio of 0.35 aligns with the range observed during DECA 1.0. Notably, Bie et al. (2021) reported a Ni/V ratio as high as 2.17 in 2019 near the Qingdao Port, providing evidence of the effectiveness of DECA policy measures. Furthermore, stricter emission controls onshore compared to those implemented at sea could explain the observed variations in Ni/V ratios, highlighting the importance of comprehensive emission management strategies  
 325 to address regional air quality challenges.



### 4.3 Source contributions of individual elements

This study revealed clear disparities in the source contributions to the ten essential elements across terrestrial and marine regions, mirroring the spatial distribution patterns seen in PM<sub>2.5</sub> (Fig.5 and Table S8). The influence of dust and WI & IE sources decreased, whereas coal combustion, vehicular emissions and sea salt exhibited enhanced contributions to elements over the marine area.

#### 4.3.1 Fe, Mn and Cr

Atmospheric aerosols containing Fe and Mn are crucial for marine biogeochemistry and ecosystem dynamics. As a limiting nutrient, Fe is closely coupled with sulfur cycles in both the atmosphere and ocean, triggering phytoplankton blooms, and enhancing carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) sequestration through the global carbon cycle (Shi et al., 2012; Zhuang et al., 1992). Similarly, Mn serves as an essential cofactor for enzymes involved in photosynthesis and other biochemical processes, making it vital for marine organisms, and its deficiency directly impacts the growth rate of phytoplankton (Morel & Price, 2003; Hawco et al., 2022).

In spring, dust was the dominant source of Fe and Mn at the coastal city, contributing 77.8% and 67.9% to the total Fe and Mn, respectively (Fig.5a and b). However, marine aerosols exhibited significantly increased contributions from vehicular emissions (6.7% and 7.9% for Fe and Mn, respectively) and coal combustion (19.7% and 20.3%). In summer, coal combustion became the primary contributor to marine Fe and Mn (58.3% and 51.2%, respectively), exceeding coastal contributions by 4–5 times. This shift highlights the long-range transport of fine anthropogenic particles to marine regions, enriching aerosols with pollution-derived elements. These findings align with previous studies: Chen et al. (2024) reported dust as the predominant source of Fe (88%) in Qingdao during spring (Chen et al., 2024), while Zhang et al. (2024) observed substantial contributions from both dust (68.6%) and coal combustion (21.2%) in the YS, ECS, and Northwest Pacific. The findings regarding Mn in Beijing align with our analysis for Qingdao, where dust served as the primary source during spring, but shifted to industrial emissions in summer (Yang et al., 2022). Notably, anthropogenic Fe typically exhibited higher solubility (Sun et al., 2024), which may enhance its bioavailability in marine aerosols. Furthermore, sea salt contributed 11.3% to Fe and 7.9% to Mn in marine aerosols during spring, suggesting mixing between crustal species or Fe/Mn from other sources with sea spray aerosols (SSAs) (Geng et al., 2014; Hilario et al., 2020). Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) analysis by Geng et al. (2014) confirmed the blending of dust and SSAs, supporting this mechanism. This mixing phenomenon may also accelerate the dissolution of Fe in the particles.

Cr followed a similar source pattern to Fe and Mn in spring (Fig.5c), with secondary nitrate and sulfate & BB contributing more significantly in both seasons. However, marine aerosols exhibited a pronounced increase in coal combustion contributions (25.6% in spring and 42.9% in summer) compared to coastal particles, likely due to emissions from coastal power plants transported seaward. WI & IE was the second most significant contributor to Cr in Qingdao, consistent with



Yang et al. (2022), who reported industrial emissions contributions of 41%–77% in Beijing, slightly higher than our findings (31.0% in spring, 25.6% in summer).

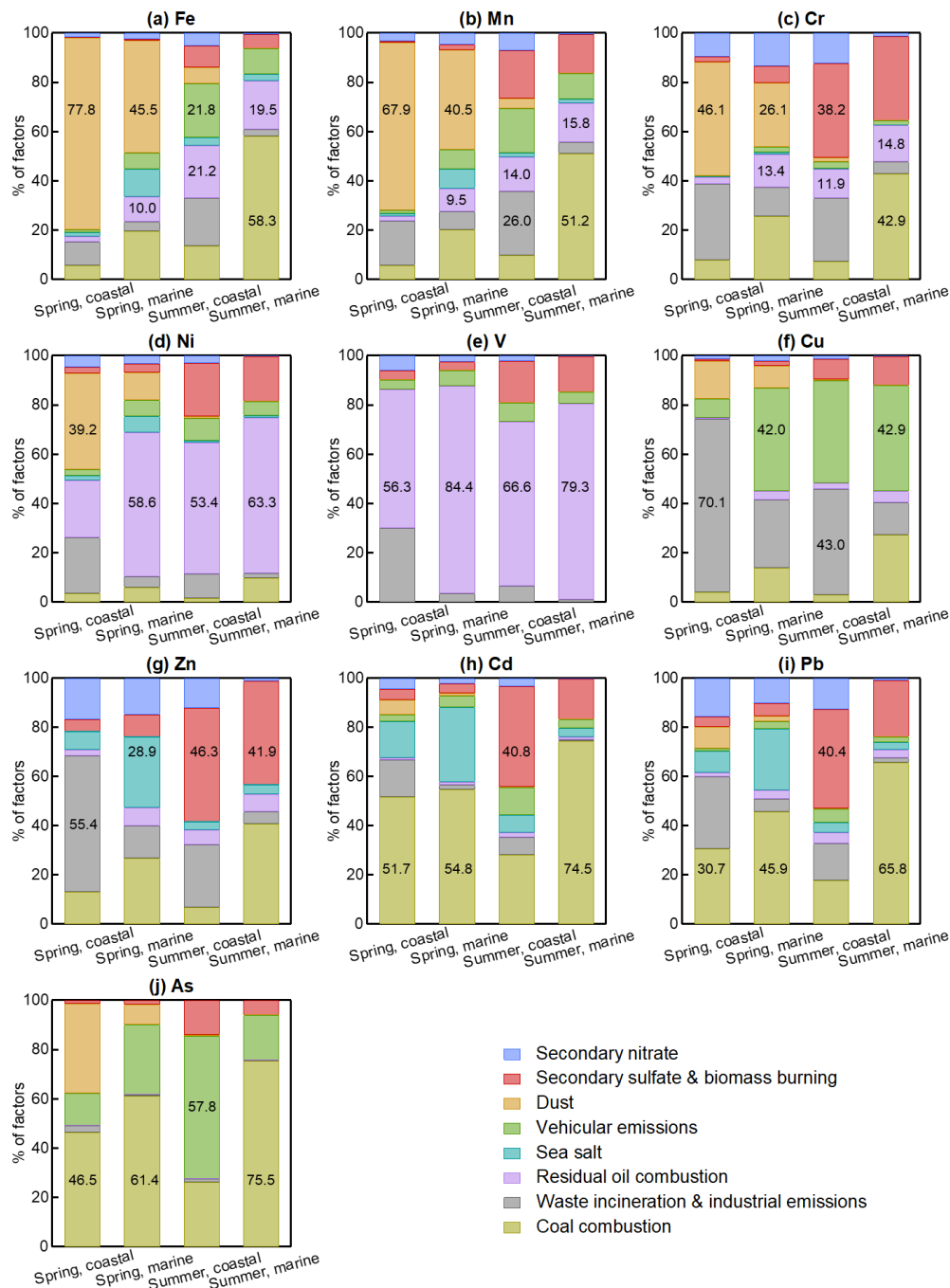
#### 4.3.2 Ni, Cu, Zn, V and Cd

360 Ni, Cu, Zn, and Cd can influence phytoplankton growth dynamics, modify marine biotic community structure, and affect carbon sequestration processes, functioning either as enzyme cofactors or structural elements in proteins (Jickells et al., 2005; Morel and Price, 2003; Shelley et al., 2015). Notably, Ni and V primarily originated from residual oil combustion, with contributions being markedly higher over the marine area (58.6–84.4%) compared to the coastal site (23.3–66.6%) (Fig.5d and e). Over the marine area, sulfate & BB (2.0–11.8%), coal combustion (14.1–27.4%) and industrial emissions (42.0–42.9%)  
 365 contributed more significantly to Cu (Fig.5f). In Qingdao, WI & IE was the predominant source of Cu, which is consistent with observations in Beijing (Yang et al., 2022). Apart from the contributions of sea salt, Zn originated from various anthropogenic sources including waste incineration, industrial emissions, coal combustion and secondary aerosol formation. In the marine area, coal combustion dominated Zn contributions, accounting for 26.9% and 40.8% of total Zn during spring and summer, respectively (Fig.5g).

#### 370 4.3.3 Pb, Cd and As

Pb, Cd, and As, which are biologically toxic, pose potential non-carcinogenic or carcinogenic risks to human health and cause considerable detriment upon marine ecosystems (Nagajyoti et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2018). Source apportionment revealed that coal combustion was the dominant contributor of Pb and Cd in marine areas, particularly during summer, accounting for 65.8% of Pb and 74.5% of Cd (Fig.5h and i). In Beijing, the predominant sources of Pb were coal combustion in spring and  
 375 industrial emissions in summer (Yang et al., 2022), mirroring our coastal observations. Similarly, coal combustion was identified as the primary source of As (26.4–75.5%), with its influence increasing over the marine areas during spring (61.4%) and summer (75.5%) (Fig.5j). The emission inventory also indicates that 74.2% of As emissions can be ascribed to coal combustion in China (Tian et al., 2015). Furthermore, vehicular emissions also contributed significantly to As (13.0–57.8%). Notably, the remarkably elevated levels of Zn, Pb, Cd and As in the summer sample SU005 were attributed to the enhanced  
 380 contributions from coal combustion across the BS and YS, accounting for 54.3% of Zn, 76.8% of Pb, 83.2% of Cd and 78.6% of As in this sample (Fig.S5b). Another interesting finding was the significant contribution of sea salt to Zn, Pb and Cd in marine environments during spring, indicating the mixing between SSAs and anthropogenic aerosols. The time series suggested that the peaks in sea salt contributions coincided with the high concentrations of Pb, Cd and Zn (Figs.S3a and S5a).





385 **Figure 5: Percentage contributions of various source factors to individual elements based on PMF results.**



## 5 Conclusions

This study investigated the spatial and seasonal distributions in  $PM_{2.5}$  sources and associated trace elements in Qingdao and its adjacent offshore areas of the Bohai and Yellow Seas during spring and summer 2018, delving into land-sea contrasts and the influence of anthropogenic activities on the offshore marine air. Eight aerosol sources were identified in coastal and offshore regions, including secondary nitrate, the mixture of secondary sulfate and biomass burning, dust, vehicular emissions, sea salt, residual oil combustion, coal combustion, and the mixture of waste incineration and industrial pollutants.

We observed distinct terrestrial-marine gradients in aerosol sources driven by atmospheric processes. Secondary nitrate, primarily derived from terrestrial anthropogenic activities, declined sharply from land to marine areas by 35.7% to 18.3% in spring, and by 23.4% to 2.4% in summer. In contrast, secondary sulfate and biomass burning contributions increased in marine environments from 7.5% and 9.7% over land to 47.2% and 56.1% over the ocean in spring and summer, respectively, which are attributable to enhanced sulfur precursor availability and long-range transport. Natural terrestrial sources, including dust and dust-anthropogenic mixtures, demonstrated pronounced attenuation over marine areas due to size-dependent particle settling. For example, dust contributions declined from 25.2% on land to 6.3% over the marine areas in spring. In contrast, finer anthropogenic particulates, such as vehicular emissions, exhibited enhanced offshore transport (18.5% marine vs. 7.8% coastal in spring). Summer southerly winds moderated this marine-land contrast. Marine-derived aerosols, particularly sea salt and ship emissions, dominated oceanic sectors, with ship emissions contributing up to 8.3% in spring and 10.4% in summer. In terms of the trace elements, all exhibited notably higher concentrations in Qingdao compared to marine areas in spring. In contrast, Zn, As, and Cd levels were higher in oceanic regions in summer. Elemental transport reflected aerosol behavior but exhibited source-specific nuances. Springtime terrestrial dominance (Fe, Mn, Cr, Ni: 39.2–77.8% land vs. 11.2–45.5% offshore, primarily from dust) shifted to summer marine coal combustion dominance (Fe: 58.3%, Mn: 51.2%, Cr: 42.9%), reflecting enhanced anthropogenic influence. Springtime marine environments also showed elevated sea salt contributions to Fe, Mn, Zn, Cd, and Pb (7.9–30.2%), suggesting synergistic dust–anthropogenic interactions. This interplay may facilitate mineral dissolution, particularly for Fe and Mn, amplifying their biogeochemical reactivity in marine ecosystems. Ship emissions enriched oceanic Ni and V, with contributions of 58.6% and 84.4% in spring and 63.3% and 79.3% in summer, respectively, compared to terrestrial levels (23.3% and 56.3% in spring and 53.4% and 66.3% in summer), highlighting maritime anthropogenic impacts.

These findings underscore the complex interplay of natural and anthropogenic drivers in shaping coastal aerosol composition, emphasizing the critical role of atmospheric transport and source-receptor dynamics in influencing aerosol-borne element distributions and interactions between continental and marine aerosols.



**Data availability.** The backward trajectories were calculated using the Hybrid Single-Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory (HYSPLIT) transport model (<https://www.ready.noaa.gov/HYSPLIT.php>). The data associated with the figures in this manuscript, including Supporting Materials, are available in the in-text data citation reference Zhou (2025).

#### Author contribution.

420 **Yuxuan Qi:** formal analysis, writing-original draft, validation, writing-review & editing; **Wenshuai Li:** investigating, formal analysis, validation; **Wen Qu:** methodology; **Haizhou Zhang:** methodology; **Wenqing Zhu:** investigating, formal analysis, validation; **Jinhui Shi:** writing-review & editing, methodology; **Daizhou Zhang:** validation, writing-review & editing; **Yanjing Zhang:** investigation, validation; **Lifang Sheng:** validation, writing-review; **Wencai Wang:** validation, writing-review; **Yunhui Zhao:** investigation, validation; **Yuanyuan Ma:** investigation, validation; **Danyang Ren:** investigation, validation; **Guanru Wu:** investigation, validation; **Xinfeng Wang:** methodology; **Xiaohong Yao:** validation, methodology; **Yang Zhou:** conceptualization, writing-review & editing, validation, funding acquisition, supervision, project administration.

**Competing interests.** The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

#### Acknowledgments.

This research was sponsored by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (NSFC) (No. 42475119 and 41605114) and  
 430 Shandong Provincial Natural Science Foundation (No. ZR2024MD016). The authors would like to thank all the colleagues who participated in these campaigns for their support. Data acquisition and sample collections were supported by NSFC Open Research Cruise (Cruise No. NORC2018-001), funded by Shiptime Sharing Project of NSFC. This cruise was conducted onboard R/V *DONGFANGHONG 2* by Ocean University of China. The authors gratefully acknowledge the NOAA-ARL for providing the HYSPLIT transport and dispersion model.

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