1	Title
2	Characterization and aerosol mass balance of PM _{2.5} and PM ₁₀ collected in Conakry,
3	Guinea during the 2004 Harmattan period
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18	Abstract
19.	Background PM _{2.5} and PM ₁₀ levels were determined during Harmattan (West African
20	wind blown dust) at a background site in Conakry, Guinea. The study was conducted
21	from January to February, 2004 when Harmattan dust appeared to be most pronounced.
22	PM _{2.5} concentrations at the Nongo American housing compound ranged from 38 μg m ⁻³
23	to 177 μg m ⁻³ , and PM ₁₀ ranged from 80 μg m ⁻³ to 358 μg m ⁻³ , exceeding standards set by
24	EPA and European Commission Environment Directorate-General. PTFE filter samples
25	were analyzed for insoluble and soluble inorganic constituents by XRF and IC,

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respectively. Sulfur and associated SO₄²⁻ concentrations were notably consistent among 26 27 PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀ samples which marked a relatively stable S background signal from anthropogenic sources. Enrichment factor (EF) analysis and aerosol mass reconstruction 28 29 (AMR) techniques were used to isolate potential PM source contributors. The EF's for 30 SiO₂, TiO₂, Al₂O₃, Fe₂O₃, and MnO were near unity which suggests a crustal origin for 31 these elements. EF's for Na₂O and K₂O were above unity and highly variable, these 32 elements were elevated due to widespread mangrove wood combustion as a fuel source in 33 Conakry. The EF's for Cr were notably high with a median of 7 and interquartile range 34 from 5 to 16, the elevated levels were attributed to unregulated point source and mobile 35 source emitters in and around Conakry. 36 37 Keywords 38 Conakry, Guinea, Harmattan, Particulate matter, Enrichment factor, Mass reconstruction 39 40 1. Introduction 41 The United States EPA conducted a six week air quality screening survey of the city 42 of Conakry, Guinea, West Africa in 2004 at the request of the U.S. Embassy in Conakry. 43 The study was conducted to assess the background levels of anthropogenic and natural 44 particulate matter (PM) and to investigate the local and regional sources of those 45 pollutants. This paper presents the first reported concentrations of airborne particulate 46 from one of the world's dirtiest cities (Luck, 2008). 47 The air quality survey was conducted from January 11 through February 22, 2004. 48 This period was selected because Conakry was in the middle of the dry season when

visible air pollution appears to be most pronounced. The survey period overlaps with the

00	Trainiatian dust season where cool, dry trade winds blow from the Sanata Desert toward
51	the southwest from November to March every year (Breuning-Madsen and Awadzi,
52	2005).
53	Conakry has a wide range of environmental and public health problems including
54	respiratory illnesses due to elevated levels of air pollution (World Health Organization,
55	2006a). Local pollution sources include: unregulated combustion and processing
56	emissions from industrial point sources, unregulated emissions from leaded gasoline
57	vehicles, widespread open pit burning of household and vegetative waste, and residential
58	wood burning cooking ovens. The local industrial point source emitters include: an
59	asphalt manufacturing plant, cement manufacturing plant, diesel and fuel oil combustion
50	electric power plants, brick manufacturing operation, fish processing and smoking
51	facilities, brewery, soft drink bottling plant, soap manufacturing facility, plastic injection
52	molding facility, steel smelter, paint formulation plant, medical waste incinerator, and
53	major bauxite, alumina, and cement operations (Fig. 1; Bermudez-Lugo, 2006).
64	This paper presents concentrations of PM _{2.5} integrated and real-time samples and
65	PM ₁₀ integrated samples. The integrated samples were chemically characterized by XRF
66	for inorganic constituents, ion chromatography (IC) for soluble species, and a limited
67	number of elemental carbon (EC) and organic carbon (OC) measurements using a
68	thermo-optical method. The paper explores the relative contributions of local pollution
69	sources, the influence of Harmattan dust influx, and the possible sea salt aerosol
70	contribution.
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72 2. Methods

73 2.1. Study Area 74 Guinea is located on the Atlantic coast of West Africa and is bordered by Guinea-75 Bissau, Senegal, Mali, Cote d'Ivoire, Liberia, and Sierra Leone. The country is divided 76 into four geographic regions: a narrow coastal belt (Lower Guinea), the pastoral Fouta 77 Djallon highlands (Middle Guinea), the northern savannah (Upper Guinea), and a 78 southeastern rain forest region (Forest Guinea). Lower Guinea has a tropical climate with 79 a rainy season lasting from April to November, relatively high and uniform temperatures, 80 and high humidity. The dry season spans November to March and features a cool, dry, 81 dust-laden trade wind originating from the Sahara Desert, termed Harmattan wind 82 (Adepetu et al., 1988). 83 The capital of Guinea, Conakry, is located on the west coast of the country on a 84 peninsula extending into the Atlantic Ocean. Conakry has a population of approximately 85 2 million people located on the peninsula and partially on the mainland toward the east with a total area of approximately 135 km⁻² (The World Bank Sub-Saharan Africa 86 87 Transport Policy Program, 2004). Conakry's year round average high temperature is 29 88 °C and the low is 23 °C with an average annual rainfall of 430 cm. During Harmattan, 89 Conakry is uniquely situated on the Inclined Meteorological Equator (IME) which forms 90 the west-east boundary between the northeast trade winds and the southwest monsoon in 91 the West African region (Giresse, 2008). The IME migrates seasonally which establishes 92 the wet and dry seasons in West Africa; the northerly migration establishes the rainy 93 season and southerly migration establishes the dry season (Dupont et al., 1996). 94 95 2.2. Sampling and analysis 96 The bulk of the air quality monitoring was conducted at a secure background site 97 located at the northeast corner of the Nongo American housing compound. The

background site was located north of the geographic center of Conakry and had no major

99 emission sources within 100 m, as such, it meteorologically and geographically 100 represented typical ambient PM in the Conakry area. The PM sampling devices were 101 located on scaffolding 4.3 m above the ground per the U.S. Code of Federal Regulations 102 40 CFR 58, Appendix E for ambient air quality monitoring (U.S. Code of Federal 103 Regulations, 2002). 104 Point source air quality monitoring was conducted at fifteen sites in addition to the 105 background PM sampling effort at Nongo. A variety of sampling technologies and 106 techniques were employed during the air quality survey. This paper presents the 107 quantitative results from the most robust sampling techniques, namely, the 24 h PM filter 108 samples. One 24 h filter sample was collected at a home in the Sangoyah district of 109 Conakry to measure PM from prolific residential outdoor cooking. Another 24 h filter 110 sample was collected at the Guinean government's Presidential Palace site which is in 111 strikingly close proximity to the alumina, bauxite, and cement ship loading operations 112 (Fig. 1). 113 Two MiniVol (Airmetrics) portable, battery-powered samplers were used to collect 114 24 h PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀ (particle equivalent aerodynamic diameter less than or equal to 115 2.5 µm and 10 µm, respectively) on 47 mm polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE) and quartz 116 filters at the Nongo background site (Hill et al., 1999). The MiniVol samplers were 117 subject to the following field QC procedures: leak and zero flow check, rotameter adjustment to 5 L min⁻¹, and flow rate recording before and after each run. Field and 118 119 transportation blank filters were collected for contamination assessment. An EPAM-120 5000 (Environmental Devices Corporation) real-time aerosol nephelometer provided 10 s 121 continuous PM_{2.5} measurement data in conjunction with a 47 mm backup PTFE filter at 122 three sampling sites. EPAM-5000 measurements were scaled to the corresponding 123 gravimetric mass results from the MiniVol filter samples. Gravimetric results from the

124 MiniVol filters were considered more representative of the actual PM levels than those 125 measured by nephelometry. The field sampling matrix is described in Table 1. 126 PTFE filter (Whatman 2 µm pore size) samples were pre- and post-weighed in a 127 temperature and humidity controlled chamber using a Mettler ME22 balance with a BE22 128 control unit and BA25 electronic display. 47 mm quartz fiber filters were punched from 129 20 cm x 25.4 cm sheets of Pallflex Tissuquartz sheet, heated overnight at 500 °C, and 130 sealed in Petri dishes for transport to the field. 131 The inorganic constituents of the PTFE filters were determined by energy-dispersive 132 X-ray fluorescence (XRF) using a Kevex EDX-771 spectrometer. The instrument sample 133 chamber maintained a positive flow of helium gas to minimize the loss of volatile 134 species. The XRF procedures are listed in the EPA Compendium of Methods for the 135 Determination of Inorganic Compounds in Ambient Air Method IO-3.3 (U.S. 136 Environmental Protection Agency, 1999). NIST SRM 1833 and SRM 1832 standards 137 were analyzed immediately before and after the unknown filter samples and the QC 138 results were within the NIST certified value range. PTFE filter samples were 139 subsequently extracted in deionized water using a heated ultrasonic bath for 15 min and 140 analyzed for major ions using a Dionex DX-500 IC. The IC procedures are listed in 141 Method A of the EPA Method 300.0 Determination of Inorganic Anions by Ion 142 Chromatography (Pfaff, 1993). 143 Elemental carbon (EC) and organic carbon (OC) analyses were performed on five 144 PM_{2.5} quartz filters collected with the MiniVol sampler at the Nongo background site. One quartz filter was analyzed in duplicate with two 1.45 cm² punch samples and the 145 146 resulting analytical precision was 0.25%. The EC/OC analysis was performed with a 147 custom made thermo-optical transmission instrument by Sunset Laboratory Inc. per the 148 NIOSH Standard Method 5040 (Birch, 1999).

The sampling equipment and filter samples were transported from the U.S. to

Conakry and back to the U.S. via standard passenger airline transport methods. The filter

samples were individually labeled and sealed in sterilized 49mm molded polystyrene

petri dishes (Millipore Corp., product number: PD1004700).

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3. Results and discussion

3.1. Particulate mass concentration

Table 1 gives a summary of the concentrations of PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀ collected with the MiniVol and EPAM-5000 samplers. PM2.5 concentrations at the Nongo site ranged from 38 μg m⁻³ to 177 μg m⁻³, and PM₁₀ ranged from 80 μg m⁻³ to 358 μg m⁻³. Concentrations of PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀ increased markedly on February 6 through February 13 which coincided with field observations of unusually strong Harmattan winds during that period. As shown in Fig. 2, real-time measurements of PM2.5 at the Nongo background site indicate baseline levels of approximately 20 µg m⁻³ to 40 µg m⁻³ with pronounced spikes into the mg m⁻³ range from 0200 to 0600 Coordinated Universal Time (UTC±0). On February 6, the baseline concentrations of PM_{2.5} began to rise at approximately 1400 UTC±0 which corresponded with the onset of a strong Harmattan wind event that lasted several days. The origin of the pronounced PM_{2.5} concentration spikes is unknown, one plausible explanation is the initiation of a major industrial activity or set of activities from the port of Conakry or land-based point source polluters (Fig. 1). The PM_{2.5} filter sample collected at the Sangoyah residential cooking site had an integrated concentration of 187 µg m⁻³. The real-time analysis at that location marked a PM_{2.5} baseline of approximately 200 μg m⁻³ with substantial spikes during the majority of the daylight hours (Fig. 2). The PM_{2.5} filter sample collected at the Presidential Palace site had an integrated concentration of 76 µg m⁻³. The real-time analysis showed a

jagged PM_{2.5} baseline centered on 30 μg m⁻³ and there were pronounced PM_{2.5} 174 175 concentration spikes at several times throughout the day and night with a sustained PM 176 spike at approximately 1300 UTC±0 (Fig. 2). 177 Overall, sustained PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀ levels were high and spike levels were extremely 178 high in comparison to PM regulations promulgated by the U.S. EPA, the European Union 179 Directorate-General (DG Environment), and guidelines adopted by the World Health 180 Organization (WHO). The EPA National Ambient Air Quality Standards (NAAQS) established a 24 h average concentration of 35 µg m⁻³ for PM_{2.5} and 150 µg m⁻³ for PM₁₀ 181 182 (U.S. Code of Federal Regulations, 2008). The European Commission and the WHO established a 24 h average concentration of 25 µg m⁻³ for PM_{2.5} and 50 µg m⁻³ for PM₁₀ 183 (World Health Organization, 2006; European Parliament and the Council of the European 184 185 Union, 2008). Further, the EPA and DG Environment set the annual arithmetic mean for PM_{2.5} at 15 μg m⁻³ and 25 μg m⁻³, respectively. DG Environment specifies a 40 μg m⁻³ 186 187 annual arithmetic mean for PM₁₀. Every PM_{2.5} filter sample collected during the study 188 period exceeded the standards set by EPA and DG Environment; every PM₁₀ filter 189 sample exceeded 24 h and annual mean standards set by DG Environment. 191 3.2. Elemental concentrations

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The average concentrations of inorganic chemical species at three sampling sites are given in Table 2. Elemental concentrations at the Nongo background site were highly variable for most major elements (Cl⁻, NO₃, Na, Mg, Al, Si, K, Ca, and Fe) in both the PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀ modes. The sulfur and associated sulfate concentrations are notably consistent among all sample modes and sampling locations. The source for ambient sulfur was likely the unregulated combustion of fossil fuels in motor vehicles and

industrial point sources. The Conakry area contained over 90% of the vehicles on the road in the entire country and field observations during the sampling period indicated that a vast majority of motor vehicles had visible smoke emanating from the tailpipe (The World Bank Sub-Saharan Africa Transport Policy Program, 2004). Industrial point sources including electric power generation, public works, and the mining industry generated unregulated emissions from the combustion of diesel and fuel oil (International Monetary Fund, 2008). Lead was detected in PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀ at the Nongo background site and the Presidential Palace site which was likely due to the use of leaded gasoline in motor vehicles. All filter samples had Pb levels below ambient exposure regulatory standards set by the EPA (U.S. Code of Federal Regulations, 2008). Significant elemental concentration differences were observed between the Nongo background site, the Sangoyah residential cooking site, and the Presidential Palace site. The Sangoyah residential cooking site was an effective source marker for the combustion of mangrove wood and charcoal in outdoor residential cooking. Field observations indicated that residential cooking fires are routinely ignited with plastic. Mangrove wood is an abundant and easily obtained fuel source in Conakry as it grows in the estuarine environments surrounding the city. Mangrove wood combustion emissions are relatively enriched in K, Na, Ca, Mg, Cl, and SO₄²⁻ (Loto and Fakankun, 1989). The ambient concentrations of K, Na, and Cl at Sangoyah were 2 to 10 times higher than those at the Nongo background site due to the combustion of mangrove wood. The Presidential Palace site was an effective source marker for the aerosolization of alumina (Al₂O₃) and Portland cement (65% CaO, 20% SiO₂) dust due to the short distance and geographic proximity to major ship loading operations handling those materials (Ilyasov et al., 2008). The Presidential Palace PM_{2.5} Al concentration was 1.8 times higher than the median

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PM_{2.5} background concentration measured at Nongo, Si was 1.63 times higher, and Ca was over 12 times higher. The relatively high Ca signal was due to the widespread cement dust fallout from the port operations. Ground observations noted that a white dust perpetually covered grass, plants, vehicles, roads, and buildings near the port and surrounding neighborhoods.

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228 3.3. IC versus XRF

IC results were compared with XRF results as a QC check between the analytical methods and to assess the soluble components of PM. Sulfate, as measured by IC, was

- converted to sulfur $(S_{IC} = \frac{[SO_4^{2-}]_{IC}}{2.995})$ in order to compare with elemental S by XRF.
- Good inter-method agreement was observed for S (r = 0.91), Na (r = 0.95), Cl (r = 0.95),
- and K (r = 0.90). The recovery rate, PM_r, for each soluble species was estimated using
- 234 Eq. (1),

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$$235 PM_r = \sum E_i \left(\frac{IC_{Ei}}{XRF_{Ei}} \right) (1)$$

where Ei is the element of interest, IC_{Ei} is the individual elemental concentration as

measured by IC, and XRF_{Ei} is the individual elemental concentration as measured by XRF. Eq. (1) includes both PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀ samples and PM_r showed a mean and standard deviation as follows: $S_{mean} 0.823 \pm 0.114$, $Na_{mean} 0.816 \pm 0.364$, $Cl_{mean} 0.667 \pm 0.324$, and $K_{mean} 0.785 \pm 0.201$. The high recovery rates suggest that these elements are largely unassociated with the local or regional deposition of insoluble Harmattan dust; rather, they are associated with anthropogenic emissions, aerosolized sea salt, or both. In

this study, the sea salt component in measured PM could not be estimated due to the

pervasive open vegetative burning for residential cooking and waste disposal in Conakry;

these burning activities contributed substantially to the overall soluble Na and Cl
 signature as seen in the Sangoyah residential cooking site PM_{2.5} sample (Table 2). In

247 contrast to other well known air sheds characterized in the literature, it cannot be

248 assumed that the soluble Na and Cl are solely due to sea salt (Cheng et al., 2005).

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3.4. Enrichment factor analysis

The enrichment factor (EF) for each measured element was calculated to understand
the relative contribution of Harmattan dust and anthropogenic emissions in the Conakry
air shed. Typically, Al is used as a reference element because it has no significant
anthropogenic source (Petaloti et al., 2006). However, Conakry had many potential
sources of anthropogenic Al from the mining and refinement of bauxite ore. Further,
Guinea featured the world's largest bauxite reserves which comprised the bulk of
exposed soil in Lowland-Guinea (Boulange et al., 1996; Plunkert, 2002). Titanium was

259 (Eltayeb et al., 2001). The EF for each elemental component in PM was calculated using

used a reference element for Saharan-blown desert sand comprising the Harmattan dust

260 Eq. (2),

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$$EF = \frac{[E]_{PM} / [Ti]_{PM}}{[E]_{soil} / [Ti]_{soil}}$$
 (2)

where $[E]_{PM}$ and $[Ti]_{PM}$ are normalized XRF concentrations, in $\mu g g^{-1}$, of the elemental

263 component of interest and Ti in the PM sample; $[E]_{soil}$ and $[Ti]_{soil}$ are the average

264 concentrations of the elemental component and Ti in Harmattan dust.

The PM airborne concentration data were converted to µg g⁻¹ according to Eq. (3),

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$$[E]_{PM} = \sum \frac{Ei (1 \times 10^{-3} DF)}{M}$$
 (3)

where Ei is the element of interest in ng m⁻³, D is the sampling duration in min, F is the 267 268 sampler flow rate in L min⁻¹, and M is the total measured PM mass on the filter in mg. Eq. (3) values were converted to their corresponding element oxide forms for the most 269 270 abundant elements: SiO2, TiO2, Al2O3, Fe2O3, MnO, MgO, CaO, Na2O, and K2O. The 271 trace elements Cr and Zn were left in their elemental form. The summation of the 11 272 elements of interest for each sample was normalized to 100% to facilitate the EF 273 calculation for each element. 274 A composite Harmattan dust profile was created using instrumental neutron activation 275 analysis (INAA) data from Adepetu et al. (1988), and XRF data from Eltayeb et al. 276 (2001). The INAA method does not routinely include Si and Ca; the absolute 277 concentrations of these elements were estimated from the 2.6 µm tick line in Figure 2 278 from Eltayeb et al. (2001). The major elements Si, Ti, Al, Fe, Mn, Mg, Ca, Na, and K 279 were converted to their crustal oxide forms and the results added to the reported 280 concentrations of the trace elements As, Au, Ba, Br, Ce, Co, Cr, Cs, Eu, Ga, Hf, La, Rb, 281 Sb, Sc, Se, Sm, Th, U, V, and Zn. The resulting summation of absolute concentrations 282 was normalized to 100%, and the results of the Harmattan dust profile are given in Table 283 3. 284 The PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀ elemental concentrations were first converted to µg per filter, then converted to weight percent (wt%) for major element oxides and µg g-1 for trace 285 286 elements, and finally converted to the crustal oxide forms for major elements. The EF 287 analysis results are presented in Fig. 3. The TiO₂ EF median and interquartile range is 288 close to unity which suggests the valid application of this element as a reference. EF's for SiO2, Al2O3, Fe2O3, and MnO are also close to unity which suggests a crustal origin 289 290 for these elements. The EF's for Na₂O, and K₂O show a wide range which suggests 291 variable sources for these elements. Calcium oxide is relatively depleted compared to the

Harmattan dust profile for PM_{2.6} presented in Eltayeb et al. (2001), this relationship is likely the result of a poor estimate of the Ca concentration in the composite profile due to widely variable levels of Ca as a function of PM cut point in the original measurements. The relatively large range observed between the 5th and 95th percentile box plot whiskers for Zn suggests a widely variable source in Conakry (Fig. 3). The median Zn EF value is significantly below unity which indicates a weakness in the EF analysis for Zn. The original Harmattan dust profile data sources reported unusually high Zn concentrations which they attributed to possible anthropogenic contributions for Zn. The Harmattan PM concentration data obtained from the literature for Si, Al, Fe, Mn, Na, K, and Cr were reported as representative values for wind blown dust originating from the Saharan region of Nigeria and Sudan (Adepetu et al., 1988; Eltayeb et al., 2001). The EF for Cr is notably high with a median greater than 7 and an interquartile range from 5 to 16. All PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀ samples have Cr EF values that are moderately to significantly higher than the Harmattan dust profile which suggests an anthropogenic source influence for Cr (Sutherland, 2000). Anthropogenic emissions of Cr are well documented in the combustion of fuel oil and coal for power generation, cement production, refractory brick production, and refuse incineration (Nriagu and Nieboer, 1988). All of these known Cr emitting point source types were present in the greater Conakry area. Additionally, the point source and mobile source emitters in and around

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3.5. Mass reconstruction

toxic metals.

An aerosol mass reconstruction (AMR) analysis was conducted to explore the relative contributions of the measured inorganic and organic chemical species and their

Conakry had no emission control devices to reduce probable emissions of Cr and other

relationship to the total measured gravimetric mass. On five sampling days the two

MiniVol samplers were collocated at the Nongo background site and PM_{2.5} was collected

on both PTFE and quartz filters for inorganic and organic analysis, respectively (Table

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The AMR was performed using the method from Edgerton et al. (2005). The

calculation differed slightly in that no nylon filters were collected during this study. The

volatilized component of NO₃⁻ and NH₄⁺ on the PTFE filters was therefore not

quantified. The mass reconstruction for the sample collected on February 7, 2004 was

omitted from further discussion due to a malfunction detected on the MiniVol sampler

with the PTFE filter, the AMR recovery rate was erroneously calculated at 152% of

measured mass.

The total recovery rate, $R_{\%}$, is calculated according to Eq. (4),

$$R\% = \left(\frac{\sum E_{i}}{M_{\text{grav}}}\right) \times 100 \tag{4}$$

where $\sum E_i$ is the sum of the mass concentrations of the individual species and M_{grav} is the measured gravimetric mass on the PTFE filter. Overall, the recover rates were very good with values of 92%, 71%, 92%, and 95% (Fig. 4).

The AMR analysis shows that the organic matter and metal oxide components comprise the vast majority of the sample, yet these components vary significantly among the samples. In contrast, the EC, sulfate, nitrate, and ammonium values represent a consistently small portion of each sample (Fig. 4). The relatively large organic matter values, low EC/Total carbon ratios, and low sulfate values strongly suggest a significant wood burning source contribution in the PM_{2.5} samples (Hays et al., 2002). Further, the relatively high EF's for K in the Nongo background site samples coupled with the high

concentrations of K, Cl, and Na measured at the Sangoyah residential cooking site and the results of the AMR analysis indicate wood burning was a significant source of air pollution in Conakry (Khalil et al., 2003). The significant wood burning contribution to the local pollution inventory is consistent with the 2 x 10⁶ kg of mangrove wood that is burned in Conakry per year, based on conservative estimates (International Monetary Fund, 2008). The local meteorological conditions during the study period support the assertion that wood burning was partly responsible for elevated PM_{2.5} concentrations in Conakry. The 24 h mean wind speed for all sampling days, as measured at Gbessia international airport, was relatively calm with a range from 7.96 km h⁻¹ to 13.15 km h⁻¹ (National Weather Service AWIPS NDW, 2009).

4. Conclusions

A unique air quality study was conducted during Harmattan in Conakry, Guinea in 2004. A combination of integrated and real-time PM sampling instruments collected samples over a one month period. Real-time PM_{2.5} measurements indicated high baseline levels of PM coupled with markedly high PM spikes from 0200 to 0600 UTC±0. The origin of the PM_{2.5} spikes is uncertain; however, the source was likely a local or regional industrial point source emitter with substantial stack emissions. Every integrated PM_{2.5} filter sample exceeded ambient air quality standards set by EPA and DG Environment and every PM₁₀ filter sample exceeded 24 h and annual mean standards set by DG Environment.

A series of mass balance calculations were used to assess the relative contributions of unregulated industrial point source and mobile source emissions, widespread municipal and industrial burning emissions, and the Harmattan dust influx. Results suggest that the majority of the background $PM_{2.5}$ and PM_{10} originated from a

smaller contribution from fossil fuel combustion sources. The contribution from the wide variety of unregulated fossil fuel combustion sources was not insignificant. The majority of filter samples contained Pb in both the PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀ mode. Chromium in all filter samples substantially exceeded levels seen in wind blown dust from the Sahara desert region. Overall, this study highlighted the composite effects of an expansive, diverse, and largely unregulated emissions suite coupled with the seasonal Harmattan dust events and Conakry's geographic position on the IME.

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1 **Tables**

2 Table 1

Sampling	Sample	Filter	Instrument	Location	Sampler	PM
date	type	type			flow	concentration
					rate	$(\mu g m^{-3})$
					$(L m^{-1})$	(1-8)
2004-01-19	PM _{2.5}	PTFE	MiniVol	Nongo	5.15	73
2004-01-19	PM_{10}	PTFE	MiniVol	Nongo	5.10	84
2004-01-19	$PM_{2.5}$	PTFE	EPAM-	Nongo	4.00	62
			5000	J		
2004-01-21	$PM_{2.5}$	PTFE	MiniVol	Nongo	5.25	57
2004-01-21	PM_{10}	PTFE	MiniVol	Nongo	5.25	85
2004-01-21	$PM_{2.5}$	PTFE	EPAM-	Nongo	4.00	52
			5000	C		
2004-01-23	$PM_{2.5}$	PTFE	MiniVol	Nongo	5.25	45
2004-01-23	PM_{10}	PTFE	MiniVol	Nongo	5.20	92
2004-01-24	$PM_{2.5}$	PTFE	MiniVol	Nongo	5.20	55
2004-01-24	PM_{10}	PTFE	MiniVol	Nongo	5.10	80
2004-01-26	$PM_{2.5}$	PTFE	MiniVol	Nongo	5.15	77
2004-01-26	$PM_{2.5}$	Quartz	MiniVol	Nongo	5.20	s =
2004-01-28	$PM_{2.5}$	PTFE	MiniVol	Nongo	5.30	44
2004-01-28	PM_{10}	PTFE	MiniVol	Nongo	5.05	100
2004-01-30	PM _{2.5}	PTFE	MiniVol	Nongo	5.30	53
2004-01-30	PM_{10}	PTFE	MiniVol	Nongo	5.20	94
2004-01-31	$PM_{2.5}$	PTFE	MiniVol	Nongo	5.30	38
2004-01-31	PM_{10}	PTFE	MiniVol	Nongo	5.15	90
2004-02-02	$PM_{2.5}$	PTFE	MiniVol	Nongo	5.30	50
2004-02-02	$PM_{2.5}$	Quartz	MiniVol	Nongo	5.30	
2004-02-02	$PM_{2.5}$	PTFE	EPAM-	Nongo	4.00	46
			5000			
2004-02-04	$PM_{2.5}$	PTFE	MiniVol	Nongo	5.30	48
2004-02-04	PM_{10}	PTFE	MiniVol	Nongo	5.20	126
2004-02-06	$PM_{2.5}$	PTFE	MiniVol	Nongo	5.30	177
2004-02-06	$PM_{2.5}$	Quartz	MiniVol	Nongo	5.30	-
2004-02-07	$PM_{2.5}$	PTFE	MiniVol	Nongo	4.80	79
2004-02 - 07	$PM_{2.5}$	Quartz	MiniVol	Nongo	5.25	=
2004-02-09	$PM_{2.5}$	PTFE	MiniVol	Nongo	5.20	126
2004-02-09	PM_{10}	PTFE	MiniVol	Nongo	5.10	344
2004-02-11	$PM_{2.5}$	PTFE	MiniVol	Nongo	5.20	116
2004-02-11	PM_{10}	PTFE	MiniVol	Nongo	5.08	358
2004-02-11	$PM_{2.5}$	PTFE	EPAM-	Sangoyah	4.00	187
			5000	cooking	(2000)00000	romen#ERIO
2004-02-13	$PM_{2.5}$	PTFE	MiniVol	Nongo	5.20	67
2004-02-13	$PM_{2.5}$	Quartz	MiniVol	Nongo	5.20	2000 200
2004-02-15	$PM_{2.5}$	PTFE	EPAM-	Presidential	4.00	76
			5000	palace		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·

Concentrations^{a,b,c} of PM and associated elemental compositions at three sampling sites 7

Species	Nongo (N=18)	Nongo (N=10)	Sangoyah (N=1)	Palace (N=1)
Туре	PM _{2.5}	PM_{10}	PM _{2.5}	PM _{2.5}
Mass	70309 ± 35792	145256 ± 109194	186717	76198
F	16 ± 17	100 ± 118	81	
C1 -	545 ± 536	1455 ± 996	5198	462
Br -	27 ± 21	10 ± 2	12	
NO ₃	955 ± 710	3412 ± 1605	1425	616
PO ₄ 3-		351 ± 342		
SO ₄ ²⁻	1470 ± 459	2209 ± 421	1599	2140
Na ⁺	258 ± 182	780 ± 377	2503	291
NH ₄ +	527 ± 193	658 ± 214	243	291
K ⁺	931 ± 527	1406 ± 661	2155	890
Na	343 ± 158	936 ± 362	2399	445
Mg	405 ± 350	1252 ± 1046	659	302
Al	3062 ± 3102	12613 ± 12355	4870	4197
Si	6537 ± 6980	24971 ± 27848	10847	7172
P	131 ± 1	187 ± 82	109	118
S	633 ± 162	831 ± 163	547	764
C1	941 ± 850	1753 ± 1123	6672	496
K	1200 ± 676	2231 ± 1530	2490	745
Ca	537 ± 487	2542 ± 1979	1489	4445
Ti	184 ± 173	821 ± 781	289	197
V	14 ± 6	22 ± 15		11
Cr	24 ± 13	144 ± 52	60	13
Mn	35 ± 27	113 ± 115	46	21
Fe	1868 ± 1558	9248 ± 5767	3364	1531
Ni	8 ± 2	18 ± 6		
Cu	179 ± 264	10 ± 3		19
Zn	69 ± 132	37 ± 16	28	22
Br	23 ± 10	27 ± 10	60	33
Mo	36 ± 12	35 ± 8	30	45
Te	70 ± 18	172 ± 115		204
Pb	36 ± 9	42 ± 13		64

^a Concentrations in ng m⁻³.
^b Mean ± standard deviation.

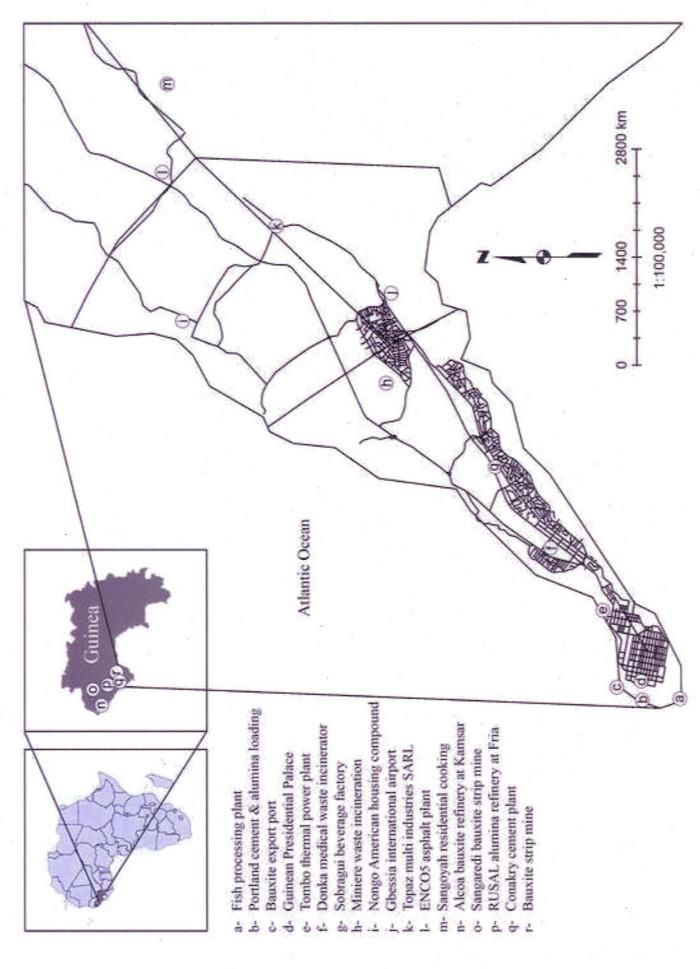
¹⁰

 $^{^{\}text{c}}$ Data were filtered to include individual elemental concentrations > 2σ uncertainty to 11 minimize type I errors. 12

- Table 3 14
- Average concentration of chemical species in the 15
- 16
- composite Harmattan dust 17
- 18 profile (Adepetu et al., 1988;
- 19 Eltayeb et al., 2001)

Species	Concentration ^a
Na ₂ O	1.3
MgO	2.2
Al_2O_3	17.3
SiO_2	57.8
K_2O	2.8
CaO	7.4
TiO_2	1.2
MnO	0.1
Fe_2O_3	9.3
Sc	15
V	123
Cr	179
Co	31
Zn	3304
Ga	33
As	10
Se	10
Br	293
Rb	124
Sb	49
Cs	4
Ba	1044
La	81
Ce	183
Sm	10
Eu	2
Hf	12
Au	0.2
Th	21
U	9 rations of element

- 20 ^a Concentrations of element
- 21
- oxides in wt% and trace elements in $\mu g g^{-1}$. 22



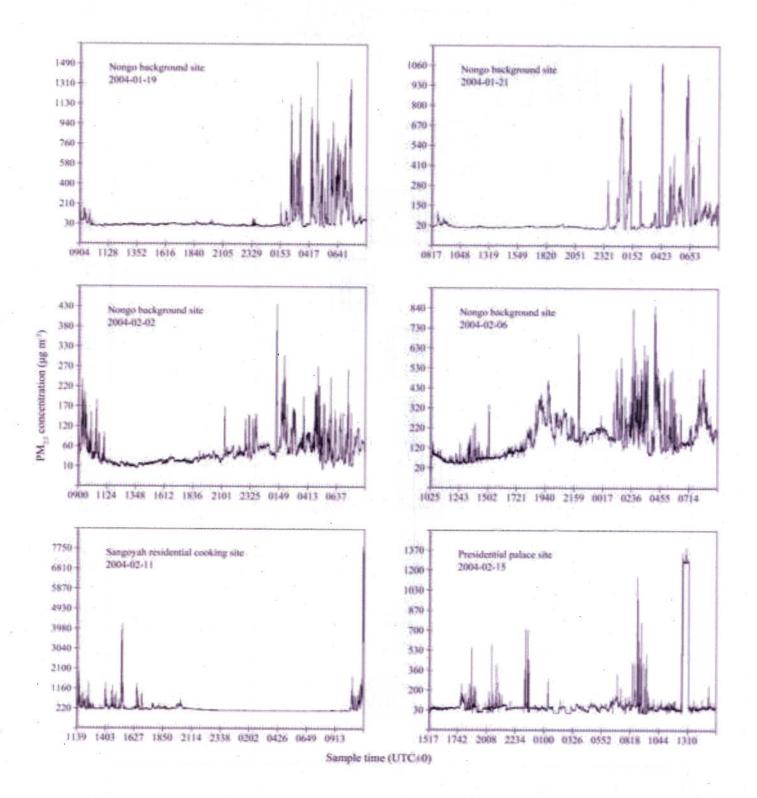


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Figure
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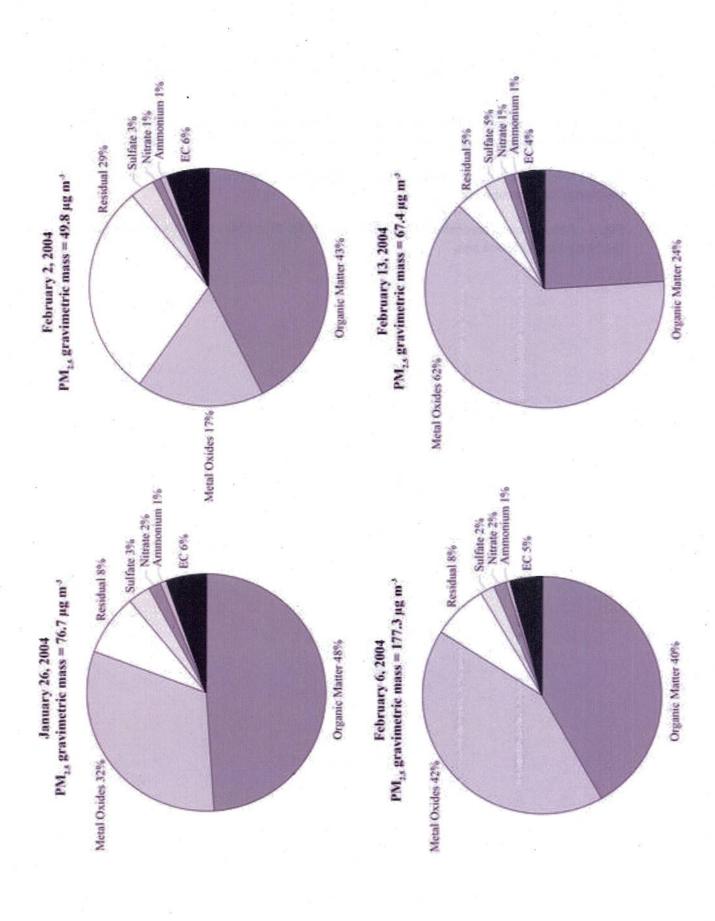


Figure captions

- Fig. 1. Map of Conakry, Guinea, West Africa with monitoring sites and local points of interest.
- Fig. 2. Concentrations of $PM_{2.5}$ at the Nongo background site measured with the EPAM-5000 nephelometer. Sample times are presented in coordinated universal time UST±0.
- Fig. 3. Average enrichment factor (EF) results for $PM_{2.5}$ and PM_{10} samples collected at the Nongo background site.
- Fig. 4. Aerosol mass reconstruction (AMR) results for four PM_{2.5} samples collected at the Nongo background site.