ORIGINAL ARTICLE

Composition of wet deposition in the central Qilian Mountains, China

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Abstract A total of 90 individual precipitation samples have been collected in the central Qilian Mountains from August 2012 to November 2013. All samples were analyzed for major cations (Na⁺, K⁺, Ca²⁺ and Mg²⁺), anions $(Cl^-, NO_3^- \text{ and } SO_4^{2-})$ and conductivity. Precipitation EC ranged from 2.26 to 482 µc/cm with an average value of 41.9 μ s/cm. Precipitation was of SO₄²⁻-Mg²⁺-Ca²⁺ type, and these three ions contributed >70 % to the total ionic concentration. Precipitation events occurred around summer displayed lower concentrations, whiles it had higher concentrations in winter and spring with little precipitation and larger wind speed. The major sources for these ions are regional crustal aerosols and species from central Asia and northwestern China arid regions brought by the westerly, and some aerosols from human pollution are secondary sources. It is also interesting that precipitation chemistry is different under diversely atmospheric circulation in Hulugou basin: the monsoon precipitation, the interaction precipitation influenced both by monsoon and westerly, and the westerly precipitation events.

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Introduction

Atmospheric precipitation is an important means of scavenging pollutants from the atmosphere and this occurs either by wet or by dry deposition (Migliavacca et al. 2005), and so the chemical composition of precipitation or snow/firn is strongly affected by the chemical composition of the atmosphere (Al-Khashman 2005; Kang et al. 2002, 2003, 2004, 2007a, b). Studies on precipitation chemistry are important in evaluating air quality and understanding anthropogenic contributions to atmospheric chemistry/ environment. The change in chemical composition of precipitation can indirectly reflect the atmospheric quality of specific region, which is a particularly sensitive indicator of pollution emissions (Calvo et al. 2010). Knowledge of the chemical composition of precipitation can also provide information of the regional and long-range transport of anthropogenic aerosols and its impact on ecosystems through deposition processes (Mphepya et al. 2004; Li et al. 2007). Precipitation composition can be influenced by many factors, such as local emissions, regional-scale pollutants transport processes, meteorological conditions, and sea level elevation (Sickles and Grimn 2003; Calvo et al. 2010; Rocha et al. 2003; Tang et al. 2005; Zhao et al. 2008) and geographical characteristics; elevation difference may influence the chemical composition of rainwater at a particular point in time and in a particular location. Therefore, chemical composition of rainwater varies from site to site and region to region. Moreover, different climate conditions also influence trace substance concentrations in the rainwater (Baron and Denning 1993). Numerous studies

have been conducted on precipitation chemistry from different regions of the world (Zhang et al. 2003a, b; Ali et al. 2004; Basak and Alagha 2004; Mphepya et al. 2004; Lehmann et al. 2005; Tu et al. 2005; Zimmermann et al. 2006; Li et al. 2007, 2008, 2009a, b; Huang et al. 2008; Celle-Jeantonet al. 2009; Calvo et al. 2010; Dong et al. 2011).

Precipitation chemistry in background sites is of great interest and useful in the study of air pollution. The atmospheric composition of rainwater measured at sampling sites far from the direct impact of anthropogenic sources is useful as a reference level for the geographic area and, in addition, it can be to determine the extent of anthropogenic contamination even in these remote areas (Calvo et al. 2010). In recent decades, great efforts have been devoted to exploring the climatologic and hydrological signals of precipitation in Qilian Mountains and adjacent regions by way of stable isotope studies (Zhang and Wu 2007a, b, 2009; Wu et al. 2010; Zhao et al. 2011; Ma et al. 2012). However, few studies have focused on chemical composition of rainwater either in rural or in urban areas in Oilian Mountains. Thus, research on rainwater chemistry in this area is necessary to detect and evaluate air quality and the relative contribution of different sources of atmospheric pollutants. Based on the samples collected at the Qilian Alpine Ecology and Hydrology Research Station (Hulugou Station, 30°47'N, 90°58'E, 3260 m.a.s.l) (Fig. 1) during August 2012 to November 2013, central Qilian Mountains, here the chemical composition of individual precipitation events are reported. The purpose of this study is as follows: (1) to characterize the chemical composition in precipitation during wet season, and to identify the possible sources of the various constituents; (2) to investigate the seasonal variability of precipitation chemistry in this unique region, and to confirm whether the central Qilian Mountains as a representative background site for atmospheric precipitation. In addition, this study also made comparison with other researches in neighboring regions.

The study area, precipitation sampling and data analysis

Study area

Qilian Mountains (92–107°E, 36–43°N) lies in the northeastern edge of Tibetan Plateau of China. It is made up of several parallel mountains and valleys, stretching 850 km long from northwest to southeast and extending 200–300 km wide from south to north. The altitudes about 30 % of mountains are above 4,000 m in Qilian Mountains, and its highest peak is Tuanjie Peak with altitude of 5,826.8 m. There are 2,859 glaciers in Qilian Mountains, with an area of 1,972.5 km², and the total reserves of glacier are 954.38 × 10⁸ m³ (Wang et al. 2011). The temperature varies by the altitude fluctuation from valley to mountain. The annual precipitation, appearing a decreasing trend from east to west and from south to north, varies from 400 to 700 mm. The Qilian Mountains is very important to

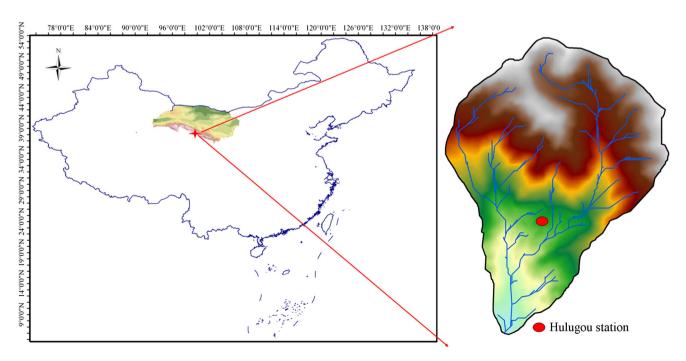


Fig. 1 The location of Hulugou basin

Hexi oasis because it is the sources of Shiyanghe, Heihe, Shulehe River coming from precipitation and melting water. The Hulugou basin is in the central Qilian Mountains, Qinghai Province, China, at 38°12′14″–38°16′23″N and 99°5′37″–99°53′54″E (Fig. 1) and has a catchment area of 23.1 km². It is the representative of Qilian Mountains, and is well suited for cold alpine catchment research. The altitude ranges from 2,960 to 4,820 m. The basin is very cold and has little evaporation (Yang et al. 2013). The basin is the water source of Heihe River. The terrain is complex and there is a clear vertical zonation of the vegetation: landscape zones include glacier/snow, alpine cold desert, marsh meadow, alpine shrub, and mountain grassland.

Precipitation sample collection and laboratory analysis

Precipitation samples were collected for each precipitation event at Hulugou basin in the altitude of 3,260 m. Samples collector was placed on the rooftop (8 m above the ground and 1 m from the floor of the roof) away from the surface soil and any specific pollutant sources. Sampling was done manually on event basis using wet collector, which was fitted with a 5-L polyethylene collecting flask (at the bottom) and polyethylene funnel 26 cm in diameter. The collected rainwater or snow was then loaded into the precleaned polyethylene sample bottles after each precipitation event. The collectors (flasks and funnels) were deployed at the onset of each precipitation event and were retrieved immediately after the flasks were filled up or after the rainfall stopped. Prior to installation of collectors, the funnels and flasks were carefully cleaned and dried before use. In addition, stringent sampling protocols were followed at all times during sample collection and handling to assure samples was not contaminated at the 0.1 µeq/L level (Al-Khashman 2005). Precautions were taken in both collection and analysis processes to avoid the possible contamination of rainwater samples. A total of ninety eventbased precipitation samples were collected at Hulugou station from August 2012 to November 2013 (Fig. 1). After collection, all samples were immediately sealed in plastic bags and stored in a cold laboratory at -18 °C. Before analysis, they were stored at 4 °C in a refrigerator, so that they could melt gradually without evaporation. During sample collection, precipitation amount, air temperature, wind speed and humidity were recorded at the Hulugou automatic meteorological station. Cations were analyzed with a Dionex-600 Ion Chromatograph and anions with a Dionex-2500 Ion Chromatograph in Gansu Hydrology and Water Resources Engineering Research Center, Cold and Arid Region Environment and Engineering Research Institute, Chinese Academy of Sciences. The analytical precision reached 10^{-9} g/mL and the standard deviation is less than 5 %.

Evaluation of ion source from weathering

According to Gibbs' diagram (Gibbs 1970), solutes in terrestrial water are from two primary sources of rainfall and rock weathering. To evaluate the importance of rock weathering source for ions in precipitation, a reputed enrichment factor (EF), using Ca^{2+} as the reference element for soil sources and Na⁺ as the reference element for marine sources, was calculated (Vermette et al. 1988; Okay et al. 2002; Ma et al. 2012) such that:

$$EF_{soil} = \left[X/Ca^{2+} \right]_{watersample} / \left[X/Ca^{2+} \right]_{soil}$$
(1)

$$EF_{marine} = [X/Na^+]_{precipitation} / [X/Na^+]_{marine}$$
(2)

where X is concentration of interested ion, and water sample can be precipitation, river water, or groundwater. In this study, the ratio $[X/Ca^{2+}]_{soil}$ of respective interested ion is derived from Okay et al. (2002), and the $[X/Na^+]_{marine}$ ratio of respective interested ion is based on the seawater composition (Keene et al. 1986). Generally, $EF \le 1$ indicates that the interested ion in water is diluted by sea salt, and $EF \ge 1$, enrichment of interested ion by soil (Zhang et al. 2007). All concentrations' units used in Eqs. (1) and (2) are mol/L.

Furthermore, the contribution of non-sea salt part of ionic concentration (P) in precipitation can be calculated with Eq. (3) (Li et al. 2009a) such that:

$$P = [A - (R \times M)]/A \tag{3}$$

where A is the ionic concentration, M is the concentration of tracer ion, and R is the ratio of X (other ions)/Na⁺ in standard seawater, such as Cl⁻/Na⁺ = 1.165 and Mg²⁺/Na⁺ = 0.227. Na⁺ was determined as the sea salt tracer ion in this study.

Trajectory analysis and water vapor flux

Although trajectories indicate the general, rather than the exact, flow of air parcels, they have proved of considerable value in many studies of the transport of atmospheric components (Asaf et al. 2005; Eneroth et al. 2007; Barras and Simmonds 2008; Li et al. 2009a, b; Theakstone 2011). The HYSPLIT4 model (http://www.arl.noaa.gov/ready/ hysplit4.html), a complete system for computing trajectories, can be used to carry out complex dispersion and deposition simulations. The 10-days backward trajectories with a daily resolution have been used to investigate the pathways of the air masses arriving at the sampling site (38.25°N, 99.88°E, 5,500 m.a.s.l.) at 12:00 Beijing time (04:00 UTC). Monthly mean geopotential height, wind fields, relative humidity and air temperature at 700 hPa were obtained from the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration-Cooperative Institute for Research in

Environmental Sciences (NOAA-CIRES) Climate Diagnostics Center reanalysis R1 dataset (available from http://www.cdc.noaa.gov/) (Kalnay 1996; Kistler et al. 2001). To quantify changes in large-scale atmospheric circulation, mean circulation composites from spring to winter during 2012–2013 were obtained. The details about the calculation for water vapor flux were shown in the previous studies (Li et al. 2011, 2012).

Results

EC and chemical composition

The average value for total anions, 137.2 μ eq/L and the average value for total cations, 281.5 μ eq/L showed larger gap each other in Hulugou basin. In Fig. 2a, the slope, 2.0, suggesting at least one major anion is missed. Since the soil around the sources region of Heihe River is calcareous and alkaline, the observed anion deficiency is more likely due to the exclusion of HCO₃⁻ from the measurements. Also,

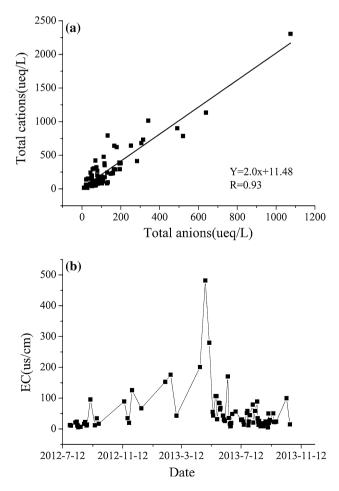


Fig. 2 Linear regression of total cations and anions (a) and the temporal variation of EC in precipitation samples (b)

the regression (R = 0.84) showed a relative high correlation between total anions and total cations, suggesting that the main cations, Na^+ , Mg^{2+} , Ca^{2+} , K^+ and main anions Cl^- , NO_3^- , SO_4^{2-} , were a general balance. The conductivity ranged from 5.26 to 482 µs/cm with a mean value of 41.9 µs/cm. EC was correlated with all ions but not including NO₃⁻, and mainly showed positive correlation with SO_4^{2-} , Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} (r = 0.82, 0.88 and 0.9, respectively). This indicated that the EC was controlled by alkaline earth elements and could explain why precipitation in this region was not acidic. As shown in Fig. 2b, it is intuitively clear that high precipitation alkalinity was generally associated with winter and spring days, when sandstorm activities were also frequent, whereas lowquantity sandstorms in turn lead to low EC values during the wet season (May-October). The mean EC values for spring, summer, autumn and winter are 105, 29, 43 and 130 µs/cm, respectively. As a consequence of this variability, the highest alkalinity was observed on 30 April 2013 with an EC of 482 µs/cm, and the lowest alkalinity on 5 September of 2013 with an EC of 5.26 µs/cm.

The average ionic concentrations for Cl^- , SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^{-} , Na⁺, K⁺, Mg²⁺ and Ca²⁺ were 42, 67.3, 27.9, 32.1, 13.3, 44.4 and 191.7 μ eq/L. Among them, Cl⁻ and SO₄²⁻ dominated anions and accounted for 79.6 % of total anions composition, while Mg²⁺ and Ca²⁺ dominated cations with a contribution of 83.8 % (Fig. 3). Precipitation was of $SO_4^{2-}-Mg^{2+}-Ca^{2+}$ type, and these three ions contributed >70 % to the total ionic concentration. SO₄²⁻, Mg²⁺ and Ca^{2+} accounted for 16, 11 and 46 % of the total ionic concentration, respectively. The order of cations' concentrations for precipitation $(Ca^{2+} > Na^+ > K^+ > Mg^{2+})$ in Hulugou basin was the same as that of standard crustal materials ($Ca^{2+} > Mg^{2+} > Na^+ > K^+$), while the order of concentrations in precipitation (SO_4^{2-}) anions' $Cl^- > NO_3^-$) differed from that of standard seawater $(Cl^- > SO_4^{2^-} > NO_3^-)$, which indicated the control exerted by crustal materials on the chemical composition of precipitation in study region. High Cl⁻ and Na⁺ concentration was due to the rainfall scavenging of desert dust aerosols (nearby the Badain Jaran Desert and Kumtag Desert). However, Ca^{2+} and SO_4^{2-} concentrations vary

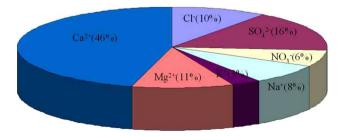


Fig. 3 Percentage of ions to total ion mass in precipitation

widely with various individual precipitation events. Concentrations of the two ions (Fig. 4, taking Ca^{2+} as an example) were the highest following dry periods or during the periods with little precipitation, but it also showed the lowest values during the continuous precipitation events. This suggested that precipitation amount may affect their concentrations since heavy precipitation can wash crustal aerosols out of the air. The large contribution of Ca^{2+} is mainly due to the influence of continental dust rich in calcium (Li et al. 2007; Zhang et al. 2003b).

Seasonal variations of precipitation chemistry

As shown in Fig. 5, the cations and anions' concentrations showed great seasonal variation in the central Oilian Mountains. Precipitation events occurred around summer displayed lower concentrations, while it had higher concentrations in winter and spring with little precipitation and larger wind speed (Table 1; Fig. 5). All ions exhibited absolutely higher concentrations in precipitation events after October. During the dry season (the dry season is the period from October to April of the following year), precipitation was characterized by higher ion concentrations and a gradual build-up of pollutants relative to wet season. Furthermore, higher amounts of particulate matters in suspension in the air are usually expected during dry season, resulting in higher concentrations of these ions in precipitation (Fan et al. 1999; Hontoria et al. 2003; Migliavacca et al. 2005). However, sporadic high ion concentrations during wet season indicated frequent precipitation events with occasional dust campaigns and anthropogenic activities. This reveals that the soil-derived crust particulates in atmosphere were deposited with the less rainfall events occurring around winter and spring under the frequent sandstorms. Strongly elevated ion concentrations during sandstorm rainfall were also observed in adjacent areas, such as the Tengger Desert and the central

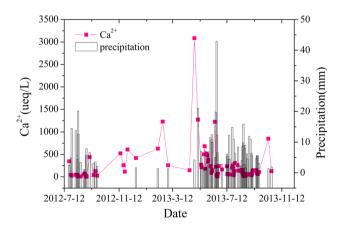


Fig. 4 Comparison between Ca^{2+} concentrations and precipitation amount

reaches of Heihe River (Feng et al. 2004). It is also obvious that the month occurred in the maximum and minimum is different among ions. Cl^- and SO_4^{2-} showed two peaks in February and April of 2013, and the minimum is occurred in June and July. NO_3^- had the highest concentrations in April 2013 and two higher values in November 2012 and October 2013. The maximum for Na⁺, K⁺ and Ca²⁺ also happened in April 2013, while Mg²⁺ occurred in February and April of 2013.

Based on the metrological observation, the precipitation in dry season (the period from October to April of the following year) only accounted for 3.1 % of total precipitation during the sampling period, whereas the concentration for Cl⁻, SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻, Na⁺, K⁺, Mg²⁺ and Ca²⁺ is 4.2, 5.93, 2.94, 1.47, 2.93, 2.11 and 3.79 times higher in dry season than that in wet season, respectively, which is also higher than that of average values during sampling period. The ionic concentration in precipitation varied seasonally due to the influence of precipitation amount, and the largest composition generally occurred at less precipitation amount (Table 2). The ionic concentrations decreased exponentially with increasing precipitation (Fig. 6, taking Cl⁻ as an example). This suggested that precipitation may affect their concentration through a dilution effect, which can also be reflected by the decreased ionic concentration during the constituent precipitation events. For example, the total cations and anions decreased from 97.41 to 132.81 µeq/L in 10 August 2012 to 10.0 µeq/L and 117.08 µeq/L in 13 August 2012, and the similar phenomenon also occurred in precipitation events during 29-31 May 2013, 7-9 June 2013, 14-27 July 2013 and 16-19 September 2013. This also confirmed that the heavy precipitation can wash crustal aerosols out of the air.

Correlations among different components

Three factors (principal components, PCs) with eigenvalues >0.6 explained 92 % for the precipitation chemistry (Table 3). The PC1 value (65 %) had high loadings of all ions but not including NO₃⁻; these are mainly related to soil sources. The significantly positive correlations among these ions and their high concentration may result from a large contribution by terrigenous sources, which contain large amounts of CaSO₄ and MgSO₄. Ca²⁺ and Mg²⁺ probably originated from natural sources (soil and dusts) and they contribute to the neutralization reactions that occurred in the atmospheric precipitation. The Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} are also frequently found in the areas rich in limestone, which might explain the association of both species in the same factor. The PC2 value accounts for 23 % of the variance; it is loaded for NO₃⁻, which is mainly associated with anthropogenic sources and local biogenic sources came from regional activities such as dung combustion for

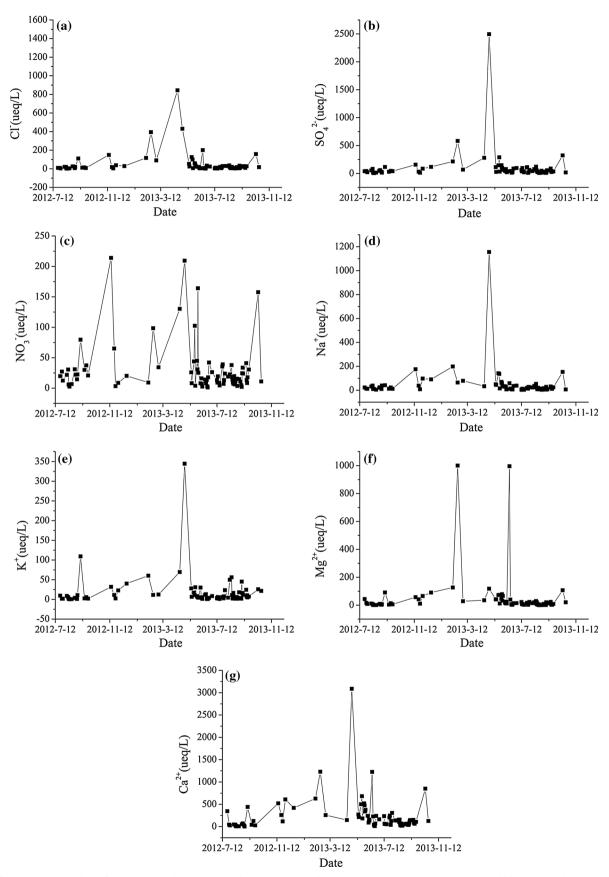


Fig. 5 Seasonal variation of cation and anion concentration in atmospheric precipitation samples in the central Qilian Mountains

heating and cooking and the excretion of yaks and horses. PC3 value accounts for 7 % of the variance; it is loaded for Na^+ , which may reflect the influence of marine or desert sources.

The significantly positive correlation of Cl⁻ with K⁺ and Na⁺ suggested a common origin (Table 4), and three ions were probably influenced by both local soil and the marine source. In addition, the positive correlations among Cl⁻, Mg²⁺ and Ca²⁺ also reflected the influence of terrestrial weathering on Cl⁻: on the one hand, Na⁺ and Cl⁻ may also be dominated by local soil sources with the highest values; on the other hand, some Na⁺ and Cl⁻ may originate from soil dust aerosols that contain a large component of halite (NaCl, an important component of sand in the surrounding desert areas). The average Na^+/Cl^- ratio was 0.21, much lower than that in seawater (0.86), suggesting that precipitation was enriched in Cl⁻. Thus, the data may indicate that the Cl⁻ in precipitation at the central Oilian Mountains had complex sources (including marine, soil dusts and anthropological sources). The K^+/Cl^- ratio (0.32) is much higher than that of sea water (0.061), suggesting that K^+ may not originate from the ocean. Generally, there are three main sources for the dissolved solids in precipitation: sea salt aerosols, terrestrial aerosols (soil dust, biological emissions) and anthropogenic sources (such as industrial and agricultural activities, burning of vegetation and fossil fuel). However, human activities around the research site are minimal. So K⁺ mainly came from local or regional mineral aerosols. Some studies have also suggested that desert dusts on Hexi corridor are an important source of precipitation by means of convective precipitation (Ma et al. 2012).

The positive correlation between SO₄²⁻ and NO₃⁻ can be found (Table 4), which indicated the contribution from human pollution on the concentration of SO_4^{2-} . High positive correlation has also been found between SO_4^{2-} and Ca^{2+} because local soil is rich in sulfates such as gypsum and mainly contains Ca^{2+} , Mg^{2+} and SO_4^{2-} (Table 4). This suggested that Ca^{2+} and SO_4^{2-} are the result of the dissolution of gypsum aerosol, so that the ionic composition of precipitation was chiefly derived from the dissolution of gypsum aerosols, and the dissolution of dolomite aerosols was the second dominant. So sulfate minerals dominated the precipitation chemistry in the central Oilian Mountains. In addition, there is no correlation between Mg^{2+} and SO_4^{2-} (Table 4), which reflected that the Mg²⁺ is not dominated by MgSO₄, while mainly contributed by carbonate aerosols. The NO₃⁻ only displayed the positive correlation with K^+ and Ca^{2+} (Table 4), and this also reflected that it mainly sourced from atmospheric pollutants. The significantly positive correlation of Na⁺ with Mg²⁺ and K⁺ indicated a contribution of crustal materials to magnesium and potassium (Table 4). The contribution by crustal sources on the concentration of K^+ with Mg^{2+} and Ca^{2+} can be also indicated by the statistically positive correlation (Table 4). A significant correlation was also found between Mg^{2+} and Ca^{2+} , similar to the temporal trend found during the sampling period (Fig. 5), suggesting a common crustal source species.

Table 1 Seasonal values of major ion (μ eq/L) concentrations and conductivity (μ s/cm) in the central Qilian Mountains

	5 (1 1 /				2 (1)							
	Temperature (°C)	Relative humidity (%)	Precipitation (mm)	Wind speed (m/s)	EC	Cl ⁻	NO ₃ ⁻	SO4 ²⁻	Na ⁺	K ⁺	Mg ²⁺	Ca ²⁺
Spring	-1.83	62.86	21.98	2.12	105.23	328.87	153.58	71.50	59.14	31.73	38.44	266.80
Summer	9.14	77.35	102.09	1.64	29.17	19.98	47.09	18.17	22.59	8.77	34.16	132.30
Autumn	-1.57	73.17	17.71	1.74	42.89	50.49	83.81	59.91	48.39	20.61	34.89	259.52
Winter	-11.49	56.61	2.55	2.76	130.40	144.50	249.84	34.16	112.84	33.73	320.79	721.84

Table 2 The mean values ofionic concentrations ($\mu eq/L$) indifferent precipitation ranks

Precipitation ranks (mm)	Cl^{-}	NO_3^-	SO_4^{2-}	Na ⁺	K^+	Mg^{2+}	Ca ²⁺
>20	6.34	29.40	8.85	11.02	8.22	13.29	77.79
10-20	11.74	39.22	12.34	16.99	7.35	9.22	83.38
5-10	20.17	43.02	21.89	20.22	13.03	16.47	130.54
2–5	48.99	166.43	31.81	79.48	25.56	65.20	324.12
1–2	50.47	102.82	37.43	63.26	16.71	44.08	298.25
<1	82.72	130.15	59.02	52.84	18.88	139.28	390.56

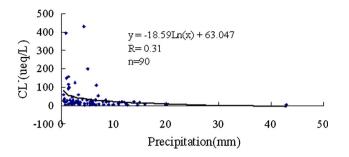


Fig. 6 The chloride concentration in precipitation, showing the influence of the amount of precipitation

 Table 3 Factors loading for major ion concentrations in precipitation at the central Qilian Mountains

	Component							
	1	2	3	4	5			
Cl ⁻	0.880	-0.277	0.252	-0.072	-0.279			
SO_4^{2-}	0.739	0.580	-0.297	-0.060	-0.082			
NO_3^-	0.448	0.703	0.011	-0.024	0.104			
Na ⁺	0.821	-0.511	0.541	-0.142	0.172			
K^+	0.936	-0.024	-0.166	-0.267	0.070			
Mg^{2+}	0.778	-0.523	0.094	0.320	0.043			
Ca ²⁺	0.828	0.422	-0.207	0.286	0.023			
% of variance	62 %	23 %	7 %	4 %	2 %			

 Table 4
 The correlation coefficients for the species in precipitation collected from the central Qilian Mountains

Correlation	Cl^{-}	$\mathrm{SO_4}^{2-}$	NO_3^-	Na ⁺	K^+	${\rm Mg}^{2+}$	Ca ²⁺
Cl ⁻	1.000						
$\mathrm{SO_4}^{2-}$	0.44	1.000					
NO_3^-	0.31	0.57	1.000				
Na ⁺	0.83	0.31	0.04	1.000			
K^+	0.79	0.72	0.33	0.81	1.000		
Mg^{2+}	0.82	0.23	0.03	0.86	0.65	1.000	
Ca ²⁺	0.54	0.89	0.55	0.43	0.73	0.49	1.000

Boldfaced values are statistically significant (n = 90, P < 0.05)

Discussion

Enrichment factors

Possible sources of constituent ions in precipitation have been identified by enrichment factors (EF) (Vermette et al. 1988; Okay et al. 2002). Most of the chlorine in Hulugou Basin was influenced both by the sea and soil. Cl^- EF(sea) values were much lower than one but the EF(soil) values were much higher than ten (Table 5). EF(sea) values of Ca^{2+} ranged between 18 and 293, suggesting that most of

 Table 5
 The EF enrichment factor values in precipitation collected from the central Qilian Mountains

Relative to the sea (EF)sea	Cl ⁻	SO4 ²⁻	Na⁻	+ K⁻	F	Mg ²⁺	Ca ²⁺
Spring		418.76		73	.63	94.35	768.55
Summer		39.62		6	.89	24.42	112.95
Autumn		71.66		18	.87	30.83	257.68
Winter		221.52		29	.66	311.31	717.55
Relative to the soil (EF)soil	Cl-	SO	2- 4	Na ⁺	K ⁺	Mg ²⁺	Ca ²⁺
Spring	125	.12		1.03	0.23	3 0.52	
Summer	62	.30		0.51	0.14	4 2.33	
Autumn	63	.12		0.33	0.10	5 1.29	
Winter	64	.58		0.27	0.09	9 5.08	

the calcium came from the soil, whereas Mg^{2+} appears to be dominated by soil indicated by the fact that EF(sea) values and the EF(soil) values were much higher than one (Table 5). K^+ appears to be mainly influenced both by the sea and soil owing to the lowest EF(soil) values but the higher EF(sea) values. These EF values also confirmed the weak anthropogenic contributions in Hulugou basin. EF(sea) values of SO_4^{2-} were between 44 and 336, implying that the sea was not the main source for it. Na⁺ exhibited a clearly marine origin with EF(soil) values between 0.1 and 0.9 with a mean value of 0.55. For seasonal variation, $Cl^{-} EF(sea)$ and $Ca^{2+} EF(sea)$ showed the increasing trend from spring to winter with the maximum in February and June of 2013, respectively, while K⁺ EF(sea) is higher in summer and autumn. For Mg^{2+} EF(sea), the maximum and minimum occurred in winter and spring, respectively (Table 5). For EF(soil) values, the Cl⁻, Na⁺ and K⁺ showed decreasing trend from spring to winter, and vice versa for Ca^{2+} . These variations may be influenced by precipitation amount. It is interesting that the Cl⁻ EF(value) and Na⁺ EF(value) values have no correlation with metrological elements at sampling site, whereas the positive correlation for K^+ EF(value) with the relative humidity (R = 0.45) and the vapor pressure (R = 0.41)confirmed the influence from local weather conditions. However, the $Ca^{2+}EF(sea)$ had the negative correlation with wind speed, which also reflected the great contribution from local terrigenous sources (R = -0.35). In addition, the influence from continental crusts can be also confirmed by the correlation: between K^+ EF(sea) and wind speed (R = -0.3), between K⁺ EF(soil) and temperature.

Non-sea salt contribution

Using Eq. (3), the calculated non-sea salt source percentages for SO_4^{2-} , K^+ , Mg^{2+} and Ca^{2+} were 99.8, 97.4, 96.6

and 98.9 %, respectively, and non-sea sources played an important role in determining the ionic composition. There are four explanations for this. (1) Marine moisture contributed little to ions inputs, while dusts imported from the central Asia and Northwestern China regions by the westerly making great contribution to ion concentrations, which can be also supported by the higher composition in winter and spring. (2) The study area is located at the northeastern margin of Tibetan plateau and the plateau monsoon has some influence on regional climate in spring and winter. (3) The sampling site is nearby the Badain Jaran Desert and Tenger desert, so that these desert dusts can be also imported by local circulation. (4) There is some dust from human pollution because Hexi corridor is an important industrial base of Gansu Province, especially for SO_4^{2-} and NO_3^{-} . Owing to the longest linear distance from study region to the nearest coast exceeding 1,000 km, consequently, when the vapor is transported, continuous exchanges and reactions between terrestrial material and the atmosphere alter the chemical composition, such that the precipitation composition was different from that in sea water. For example, the reaction between sea salt particles and H₂SO₄ can cause the enrichment of Cl⁻ in precipitation and depletion in aerosol (Hitchcock 1980; Shrestha et al. 1997). This can be also explained the Cl⁻ enrichment in Hulugou basin.

Due to the very low concentration for NO_3^- in sea water, the NO_3^{-} detected in precipitation is considered to have been only from soil and anthropogenic sources. According to Safai et al. (2004) and Huang et al. (2008), SO₄²⁻ is also derived from sea water, soil and anthropogenic sources. The ratios of NO_3^- , SO_4^{2-} and Cl^- to Na^+ were used as the index to make a distinction between rock weathering and human activities as the sources of the precipitation ions in this study (Fig. 7). It was also shown that positive correlations have existed between Na⁺ normalized NO_3^- and SO_4^{2-} values in precipitation, suggesting their same source. The precipitation had NO₃^{-/}Na⁺ (1.08) and SO_4^{2-}/Na^+ (2.67) ratios higher than 1, indicating the influence from anthropogenic input on these two ions (Fig. 7). The contribution of $\mathrm{NO_3}^-$ and $\mathrm{SO_4}^{2-}$ from soil can be calculated using the ratio of NO_3^- or SO_4^{2-} to Ca^{2+} . In our study, about 61.9 % of the NO_3^- was contributed by anthropogenic sources. Approximately, 38.1 % of the SO₄²⁻ was originated from anthropogenic sources, while 62.7 % was from soil sources and only 0.2 % from marine sources. For seasonal contribution, the anthropogenic input has accounted for 83.2, 30.5, 71.9 and 96.1 % in spring, summer, autumn and winter for NO₃⁻, and the value for SO_4^{2-} is 56.1, 4.7, 57.2 and 69.1 %, respectively. The results indicated that: (1) the contribution from soil source on SO_4^{2-} was higher than that of anthropogenic sources, in contrast to previous reports (Zhang et al. 2007;

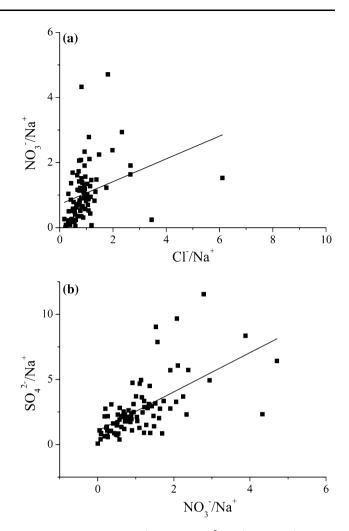


Fig. 7 Plots of NO_3^-/Na^+ versus SO_4^{2-}/Na^+ , Cl^-/Na^+ versus NO_3^-/Na^+ molar ratios in wet season

Huang et al. 2008); (2) SO_2 from anthropogenic input could have formed SO_4^{2-} which reacted with crustal components like Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} to form sulfates, explaining the significant correlation between SO_4^{2-} with Ca^{2+} ; (3) the contribution from anthropogenic source on NO_3^{-} is much larger than the soil source; and (4) the great influence from anthropogenic input mainly occurred in winter and spring.

Back trajectories and water vapor transportation

Back trajectories indicated that the westerly mainly crossed the arid regions of central Asia and then to the central Qilian Mountains (Fig. 8). In addition, some trajectories also were from the Indian Ocean or the Pacific Ocean by monsoon circulation, across industrial areas during wet season. Air masses bringing dusts to study region in dry season generally traveled from one of the three directions: from the dust sources region in Asia: Central/West Asia, from Northwestern China or from the Hexi corridor (Fig. 8). The monthly water vapor also confirmed precipitation mainly sourced from the westerly in winter, spring and autumn at 700 hPa, so it also confirmed that the dusts from arid regions mainly dominated the precipitation chemistry in Hulugou basin (Fig. 9). However, the monsoon also can arrive at the study region in summer, which

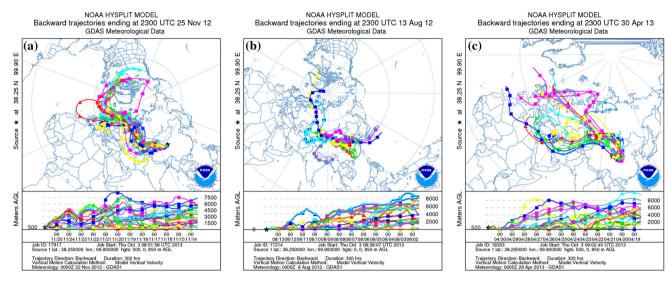


Fig. 8 Back trajectories of the air masses in 25 November 2012, 13 August 2012 and 30 April 2013

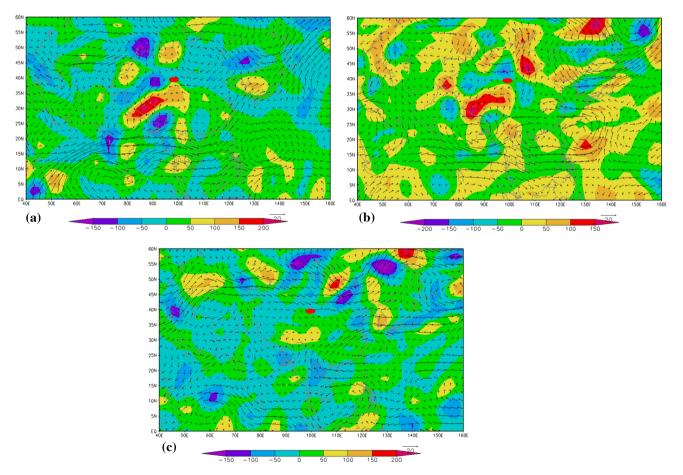


Fig. 9 The water vapor transportation vector in 13 August 2012 (taking as an example for monsoon precipitation events), 19 August 2013 (as an example for the interaction precipitation events) and 9

September 2013 (as an example for the westerly precipitation events) at 700 hPa (the *red tetragon* is Hulugou station)

Table 6 Comparison of major ions (μ eq/L) and meteorological data for monsoon precipitation, the interaction precipitation and the westerly precipitation events

	Temperature (°C)	Relative humidity (%)	Precipitation (mm)	Wind speed (m/s)	Cl ⁻ /Na ⁺	Cl ⁻	NO ₃ ⁻	SO4 ²⁻	Na ⁺	K ⁺	Mg ²⁺	Ca ²⁺
The monsoon	n precipitation	events										
2012-8-10	12.90	83.23	5.60	3.50	0.52	20.23	81.97	30.62	38.86	5.90	8.45	44.19
2012-8-11	12.40	78.22	4.40	1.90	0.34	3.83	16.50	5.62	11.23	1.84	2.07	13.87
2012-8-12	12.10	84.07	20.10	2.30	0.48	5.90	8.74	6.27	12.17	1.75	2.21	16.11
2012-8-13	10.80	80.72	12.60	1.70	0.17	1.73	5.69	2.60	9.87	0.38	0.68	6.16
The interaction	on precipitation	events										
2013-8-15	11.06	78.20	2.35	1.58	0.75	17.00	59.53	18.39	22.70	11.02	9.40	105.71
2013-8-16	7.07	87.88	8.55	1.30	0.85	17.94	46.52	13.90	21.13	3.79	20.55	156.68
2013-8-17	6.52	93.34	9.81	1.07	0.77	6.02	26.30	9.61	7.87	2.21	4.56	61.40
2013-8-18	11.47	81.05	15.91	1.06	1.07	8.21	23.95	7.25	7.70	16.52	2.84	25.11
2013-8-19	11.19	86.13	8.95	1.27	1.06	20.57	23.24	13.50	19.38	6.67	3.70	45.31
2013-8-20	10.38	86.50	2.77	1.00	1.38	18.42	18.68	19.75	13.35	3.67	6.80	69.56
2013-8-21	11.57	80.73	8.10	1.21	0.64	6.33	13.34	6.20	9.95	3.07	0.00	19.60
2013-8-22	10.71	87.96	9.01	0.96	0.81	5.71	7.64	6.34	7.05	1.87	0.00	25.34
2013-8-23	10.98	86.05	1.60	0.90	0.90	10.00	14.14	12.17	11.11	3.28	1.39	33.36
The westerly	precipitation e	vents										
2013-9-5	2.68	77.14	6.39	1.57	1.09	5.76	10.37	4.70	5.31	1.99	1.02	36.88
2013-9-6	4.81	66.83	5.60	1.82	1.20	33.50	11.03	2.11	27.98	45.24	20.28	55.58
2013-9-7	4.14	75.59	1.35	1.67	1.81	9.42	33.41	24.50	5.20	16.57	11.37	88.58
2013-9-8	4.14	68.39	0.40	1.80	2.34	26.81	56.59	33.70	11.47	15.91	17.43	131.31
2013-9-9	3.93	69.46	0.60	1.54	1.98	19.93	57.52	23.93	10.05	11.72	14.53	145.78

may be resulted in some influence from marine sources (Fig. 9).

To explore the influence from large-scale atmospheric circulation, the precipitation events can be divided into three types based on the water vapor transportation vector: the monsoon precipitation events, the interaction precipitation events (influenced both by monsoon and westerly) and the westerly precipitation events (Fig. 9). As shown in Table 6, the ionic concentration showed decreasing trend, and the composition ratio between the starting date and ending date for Cl⁻, SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻, Na⁺, K⁺, Mg²⁺ and Ca²⁺ is 0.09, 0.07, 0.09,0.25, 0.06,0.08 and 0.14, respectively, and precipitation and relative humidity had increased but temperature and wind speed decreased in the monsoon precipitation events. For the interaction precipitation events, chemical composition displayed the fluctuation from decrease to increase under the increasing temperature and relative humidity with the decreasing wind speed, while precipitation also firstly increased and then decreased. The composition of ending date for Cl^{-} , SO_4^{2-} , NO₃⁻, Na⁺, K⁺, Mg²⁺ and Ca²⁺ is 3.46, 5.54, 5.09,1.89, 5.90,14.21 and 3.95 times higher than the starting date for the westerly precipitation events, respectively, while precipitation and relative humidity had decreased. So it can be deduced that the differences in precipitation chemistry

were partially due to the strength of the precipitation leaching under the different atmospheric circulation, which also made some influence on wet deposition in the central Qilian Mountains.

Comparison with other researches in neighboring regions

The mean concentrations of major ions in Hulugou basin compared with data from Tibetan Plateau, Brazil, India, Okinawa, Jordan, Turkey and other remote areas are presented in Table 7. Firstly, similar to our findings, Ca^{2+} and SO_4^{2-} in precipitation from Brazil, rural areas in India, Jordan, Okinawa, and Turkey accounted for the majority of the major ions. Therefore, the precipitation chemistry in these regions has a typical continental characteristics (Al-Khashman 2005) and partly anthropogenic disturbance (Jain et al. 2000; Ming et al. 2007). The higher Ca^{2+} and SO_4^{2-} in precipitation from study region may be due to the existence of CaSO4, similar to the scenario reported for Nam Co region, indicated by Li et al. (2007). To some extent, precipitation chemistry in the central Qilian Mountains is predominantly controlled by local/regional dusts. However, concentrations of all ions in precipitation at Hulugou basin are lower than those in precipitation from

Table 7 Major ion concentrations and conductivity	Study region		Cl ⁻	NO ₃ ⁻	SO4 ²⁻	Na ⁺	K ⁺	Mg ²⁺	Ca ²⁺
(EC) at the central Qilian	The central Qilian mountains	41.9	42	27.9	67.3	32.1	13.3	44.4	191.7
Mountains compared with other sites (ion concentration is in	Yulong Mountains ^k	10.3	1.96	4.0	28.3	3.72	2.46	3 44.4 191 5 5.68 37.' 5 7.43 301 3 5.72 150 4 5 21.' 5 3.42 16.' 12.1 34 5 37.4 22.' 5 11.5 39.' 6 62.3 163 9.3 71.4'	37.7
μeg/L,EC is in us/cm)	Central-TP ^a	19.7	19.2	10	15.5	18.1	14.5	7.43	301
	Lhasa ^b		21.7	2	2.5	89	14.8	5.72	150
	Brazil ^c	10.8	13.8	4	23.1	15.1	5.81	8.85	21.5
	Tianshan ^d	31.3	0.52	0.4	1.9	0.98	0.16	3.42	16.3
^a Li et al. (2007), ^b Zhang et al.	Waliguan ^e	14.6	6.1	8.3	24	8.7	3.8	12.1	34
(2003b), ^c Migliavacca et al.	Okinawa ^f	34.8	188	14	25.8	180	10.6	37.4	22.2
(2005), ^d Dong et al. (2011), ^e Tang et al. (2000), ^f Mkadam	Ru.India ^g		15.8	7.6	19.7	11.9	9.66	11.5	39.8
et al. (2008) , ^g Jain et al. (2000) ,	Jordan ^h	160	80.6	35.7	53.2	75.6	26.3	62.3	163.1
^h Al-Khashman (2005), ⁱ Topcu	Turkey ⁱ	28.1	20.4	29.2	48	15.6	9.8	9.3	71.4
et al. (2002), ^J Ma et al. (2012), ^k Li et al. (2009b)	The eastern Qilian Mountains (Jiutiaoling) ^j		87.6	40.6	243.9	132.7	28.3	55.8	532

Jiutiaoling Station (the eastern Qilian Mountains).One cause for this may be that Hulugou basin is covered by alpine meadows, resulting in the weakening local sources relative to the region around Jiutiaoling. Secondly, it is interesting that ionic concentration in this study is higher than that of both Lhasa and Waliguan, which may be due to the existence of desert dusts as discussed above in Hexi corridor. Thirdly, it is obviously that the data from Hulugou station (3,260 m.a.s.l) are far lower than in Jiutiaoling because the effects of the continental dusts are weak at such high elevation (3,260 m) and all the ions have experienced heavy depletion in the former and, what is more, the Jiutiaoling is more nearby the dust source regions, located in the south of Tengger Desert. These comparisons further supported the conclusion that the precipitation chemistry in the central Qilian Mountains is predominantly controlled by local/regional dusts. When compared with precipitation chemistry studies from other remote areas, the concentrations of Ca^{2+} and SO_4^{2-} on Qilian Mountains are much higher due to both low precipitation and relatively large contributions of crustal aerosols. In addition, concentrations of sea salt ions (e.g., Cl⁻ and Na⁺) in Hulugou basin are also much higher than monsoonal climate region (Yulong Mountains, Okinawa), reflecting a weak contribution of sea salts on precipitation chemistry with long distance transport from the ocean.

Conclusions

The precipitation conductivity was controlled by alkaline earth elements ranging from 5.26 to 482 μ s/cm with a mean value of 41.9 μ s/cm in the central Qilian Mountains, and the high values were generally associated with winter and spring days, when sandstorm activities were also frequent. The average ionic concentrations for Cl⁻, SO₄²⁻, NO_3^- , Na^+ , K^+ , Mg^{2+} and Ca^{2+} are 42, 67.3, 27.9, 32.1, 13.3, 44.4 and 191.7 µeq/L, and precipitation was of SO_4^{2-} - Mg^{2+} - Ca^{2+} type. Precipitation events occurred around summer displayed lower chemical concentrations, while it also had higher concentrations in winter and spring with little precipitation and larger wind speed. Although the precipitation during the sampling period, the concentration for Cl⁻, SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^- , Na^+ , K^+ , Mg^{2+} and Ca^{2+} is 4.2, 5.93, 2.94, 1.47, 2.93, 2.11 and 3.79 times higher than that in wet season, respectively. The main ionic sources are local dust aerosols and the dust from central Asia and northwestern China arid regions brought by the westerly, and the back trajectories and water vapor transportation also supported it.

The non-sea sources played an important role in determining the ionic composition, and its contribution percentages for SO_4^{2-} , K^+ , Mg^{2+} and Ca^{2+} were 99.8,97.4, 96.6 and 98.9 %, respectively. The precipitation events can be divided into three types: the monsoon precipitation, the interaction precipitation and the westerly precipitation events based on the water vapor transportation vector. For the first type, the ionic concentration showed the decreasing trend, and precipitation and relative humidity had increased but temperature and wind speed decreased. For the interaction precipitation events, chemical composition displayed the fluctuation from decrease to increase under the increasing temperature and relative humidity, and the decreasing wind speed. The composition of ending date is 3.46, 5.54, 5.09, 1.89, 5.90, 14.21 and 3.95 times higher than that of the starting date for Cl⁻, SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻, Na⁺, K⁺, Mg^{2+} and Ca^{2+} in the westerly precipitation events, respectively, while precipitation and relative humidity had decreased. It can be concluded that the different atmospheric circulation also made some influence on wet deposition in the central Qilian Mountains.

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