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## High contribution of anthropogenic combustion sources to atmospheric inorganic reactive nitrogen in South China evidenced by isotopes

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Received: 29 January 2023 – Discussion started: 10 February 2023 Revised: 7 April 2023 – Accepted: 9 May 2023 – Published: 12 June 2023

**Abstract.** Due to the intense release of reactive nitrogen (Nr) from anthropogenic activity, the source layout of atmospheric nitrogen aerosol has changed. To comprehensively clarify the level, sources, and environmental fate of  $NH_4^+$  and  $NO_3^-$ , their concentrations and stable isotopes ( $\delta^{15}N$ ) in fine particulate matter ( $PM_{2.5}$ ) were measured in a subtropical megacity of South China. The inorganic nitrogen ( $NH_4^+$  and  $NO_3^-$ ) was an essential part of atmospheric nitrogen aerosol, and the N-NH\_4^+ and N-O\_3^- contributed 45.8 % and 23.2 % to total nitrogen (TN), respectively. The source contributions of  $NH_4^+$  and  $NO_3^-$  were estimated by  $\delta^{15}N$ , suggesting that the dominant sources were from anthropogenic combustion activities, including coal combustion, biomass burning, and vehicles, contributing 63.2 % and 88.3 % to  $NH_4^+$  and  $NO_3^-$ , respectively. In particular, biomass burning was the predominant source of  $NH_4^+$  (27.9 %), whereas coal combustion was the dominant source of  $NO_3^-$  (40.4 %). This study emphasized the substantial impacts of human activities on inorganic Nr. With the rapid development of industry and transportation, nitrogen emissions will be even higher. The promotion of clean energy and efficient use of biomass would help to reduce nitrogen emissions and alleviate air pollution.

## **1** Introduction

Nitrogenous aerosols are ubiquitous in environment and play an important role as nutrients in ecosystems (Bhattarai et al., 2019). With the massive combustion of fossil fuels and the development of livestock, the proportion of total nitrogen (TN) in particulate matter (PM) ranges from 1.2% to 17.0% and has shown a rapid increase in the last few decades (Bhattarai et al., 2019; Galloway et al., 2004; Holland et al., 1999). Mostly nitrogenous aerosols formed from atmospheric reactive nitrogen (Nr) will be deposited into terrestrial and aquatic ecosystems (Huang et al., 2015). Excessive external nitrogen deposition accelerates nitrogen loss in soil, decreases species diversity, disturbs terrestrial ecosystems, and leads to eutrophication in aquatic ecosystems (Breemen, 2002; Wedin and Tilman, 1996; Yang et al., 2015). Furthermore, nitrogenous aerosols have adverse impacts on the climate, air quality, and human health (Bhattarai et al., 2019; Song et al., 2021).

As inorganic Nr,  $N-NO_3^-$  and  $N-NH_4^+$  are dominant species in the deposition of nitrogen (Zhu et al., 2015);  $N-NH_4^+$  was the highest in nitrogen deposition, and  $NH_4^+$  was

gradually considered to be an important component of secondary inorganic aerosols (SIA) (Sun et al., 2021). Ammonia (NH<sub>3</sub>), the precursor of NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, is a vital atmospheric alkaline gas, which can participate in nucleation to promote new particle generation, and can react with acid gas to produce ammonium sulfate and ammonium nitrate (Dunne et al., 2016; Fu et al., 2017). The excessive NH<sub>3</sub> emission from anthropogenic sources will partially offset the benefits of reducing  $SO_2$  and  $NO_x$  and trigger urban haze in China (Sun et al., 2021; Meng et al., 2018; Pan et al., 2018a). In many urban environments, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> has replaced sulfate as the component with the highest proportion in SIA. Nitrogen oxides  $(NO_x)$ , precursors of  $NO_3^-$ , are also closely related to the formation of atmospheric oxidants and exert important effects on atmospheric oxidation. In addition, NH<sub>4</sub>NO<sub>3</sub> in PM plays an increasingly important role in promoting the formation of sulfate and organic matter, and it has profound effect on the physical and chemical properties of PM (Liu et al., 2021 2020; Hodas et al., 2014). Therefore, to mitigate nitrogen deposition and air pollution, the control of  $NH_4^+$  (NH<sub>3</sub>) and  $NO_3^-$  (NO<sub>x</sub>) should not be neglected.

Considerable efforts have been made to comprehensively understand the budget of atmospheric NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>;  $\delta^{15}$ N is effective to quantify source contributions of nitrogenous species (Elliott et al., 2007). The anthropogenic combustion sources (combustion of coal, biomass, and gasoline) play a key role in the emission of  $NO_3^-$  (NO<sub>x</sub>) in many regions of China, suggested by  $\delta^{15}$ N (Zong et al., 2020), which also have large effects on NH<sub>3</sub> (Chen et al., 2022b). Ammonia (NH<sub>3</sub>) is released by agricultural sources (agricultural activity and livestock) and non-agricultural sources (fossil fuel combustion and vehicles) (Bhattarai et al., 2019). A previous study showed that agricultural sources were the dominant source (80%–90%) of NH<sub>3</sub> in China (Kang et al., 2016). However, NH<sub>3</sub> emissions from agricultural sources have been reduced due to intensive farming and efficient fertilization (Wang et al., 2022). The incomplete burning of biomass leads to massive NH<sub>3</sub> emissions and is gradually becoming the second largest non-agricultural source of NH<sub>3</sub> (Yu et al., 2020), which may be responsible for the lag of the decline in the deposition of air pollutants behind the reduction in emission of precursors (Zhao et al., 2022b). Biomass burning in the suburbs also has a potential impact on urban NH<sub>3</sub> (Xiao et al., 2020). As for urban NH<sub>3</sub>, combustion sources (including coal combustion, vehicle emissions, and biomass burning) were gradually becoming dominant sources in recent years verified by  $\delta^{15}$ N–NH<sub>x</sub> (NH<sub>3</sub>+NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>) (Xiao et al., 2020; Pan et al., 2018b). In addition, the super clean emission of coal-fired power plants and strict emission standards of vehicles will change the source layout of  $NH_4^+$  and  $NO_3^-$ . Selective catalytic reduction technology equipped with vehicles and industrial boilers reduces NO<sub>x</sub> but increases NH<sub>3</sub> emissions (Meng et al., 2017; Pan et al., 2016). The occurrence of haze in North China was closely related to NH3 emissions from combustion sources (Pan et al., 2018a, b). As the main components of SIA,  $NH_4^+$  and  $NO_3^-$  play a vital role in the formation of secondary aerosol (Meng et al., 2017), so it is necessary to revisit their sources.

Reactive nitrogen (Nr) emissions from densely populated subtropical areas increased rapidly with the high development of industry and transportation (Wang et al., 2013). Guangzhou is the core megacity in the South subtropical region of China, where the atmospheric environment is complex and the atmospheric oxidation level is high (Tan et al., 2019). The high emissions of inorganic nitrogen from anthropogenic combustion sources have serious and profound impacts on the environment. In this study, we aimed to comprehensively clarify the level of inorganic Nr and revisit the source layout of atmospheric inorganic Nr.

## 2 Experimental and theoretical methods

#### 2.1 Sampling and chemical concentration analysis

Fine particulate matter (PM<sub>2.5</sub>) samples (n = 66) were collected from May 2017 to June 2018 in Guangzhou (23.13 °N, 113.27 °E). Details of the sample collection can be found in our previous study (Jiang et al., 2021a). The chemical components including water-soluble ions (i.e., NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, K<sup>+</sup>, Na<sup>+</sup>, Ca<sup>2+</sup>, Mg<sup>2+</sup>, Cl<sup>-</sup>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, and SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>), organic carbon (OC), element carbon (EC), and organic molecular markers (e.g., levoglucosan) were analyzed in our previous studies (Sect. S1 in the Supplement) (Jiang et al., 2021a, b). Moreover, meteorological parameters (temperature, relative humidity (RH), atmospheric pressure, and wind speed) and the concentration of trace gases (CO, SO<sub>2</sub>, NO, NO<sub>2</sub>, and O<sub>3</sub>) were acquired by online instruments (details shown in Sect. S1). A circular punch (r = 1 cm) of the sample filter was wrapped in a tin boat and then measured in an elemental analyzer to determine the concentrations of TN.

### 2.2 Isotope analysis

The  $\delta^{15}$ N–NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and  $\delta^{18}$ O–NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> values in PM<sub>2.5</sub> were analyzed by methods of nitrous oxide (N<sub>2</sub>O), which was described in a previous study in detail (Zong et al., 2017). Briefly, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> was reduced to NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> using cadmium powder and an imidazole solution, and N<sub>2</sub>O was made by adding NaN<sub>3</sub> to a NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> solution. The production of 75 nmol N<sub>2</sub>O gas was needed for measurement. The N<sub>2</sub>O gas produced by above processes was measured by the MAT253 stable isotope mass spectrometer. The values of  $\delta^{18}$ O and  $\delta^{15}$ N were expressed in per mil (%) shown in Eqs. (1) and (2), relative to the international oxygen and nitrogen isotope standard, respectively.

$$\delta^{15} N = \left[ \frac{({}^{15}N/{}^{14}N)_{sample}}{({}^{15}N/{}^{14}N)_{standard}} - 1 \right] \cdot 1000$$
(1)

$$\delta^{18} O = \left[ \frac{({}^{18} O/{}^{16} O)_{\text{sample}}}{({}^{18} O/{}^{16} O)_{\text{standard}}} - 1 \right] \cdot 1000$$
(2)

The  $\delta^{15}$ N–NH<sup>+</sup><sub>4</sub> was measured by methods of hypobromite oxidation coupled with the reduction of hydroxylamine hydrochloride (Sun et al., 2021). Briefly, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> was oxidated to NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> using alkaline hypobromite (BrO<sup>-</sup>), and N<sub>2</sub>O was made by adding sodium arsenite and hydrochloric acid to a  $NO_2^-$  solution. The production of 120 nmol  $N_2O$  gas was needed for measurement. The N2O gas produced by above processes was measured by the MAT253 stable isotope mass spectrometer. The values of  $\delta^{15}N$  were expressed in per mil (%) in Eq. (1). To ensure the stability of the instrument, standard samples were tested for every 10 samples. The standard deviation of replicates was generally less than 0.4%, 0.8%, and 0.5% for  $\delta^{15}N-NO_3^-$ ,  $\delta^{18}O-NO_3^-$ , and  $\delta^{15}N-NH_4^+$ , respectively. The instrumental values of  $\delta^{15}N-NO_3^$ and  $\delta^{18}O-NO_3^-$  were corrected by multi-point correction  $(\delta^{18}O r^2 = 0.99, \delta^{15}N r^2 = 0.999)$  based on international standards (IAEA-NO-3, USGS32, USGS34, and USGS35). The measured values of  $\delta^{15}$ N–NH<sup>+</sup><sub>4</sub> were also corrected by multi-point correction  $(r^2 = 0.999)$  based on international standards (IAEA-N1, USGS25, and USGS26). In addition, <sup>7</sup>Be and <sup>210</sup>Pb were acquired and details were shown in Sect. S1.

## 2.3 IsoSource and Bayesian mixing model

#### 2.3.1 IsoSource model

The IsoSource model, released by the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA), could calculate ranges of source contributions to a mixture based on the conservation of isotopic mass when the number of sources is too large to permit a unique solution and provide the distribution of source proportions (Phillips et al., 2005). The IsoSource model coupled with  $\delta^{15}$ N–NH<sub>3</sub> of atmospheric initial and potential sources (shown in Table 1) were applied to quantify the contribution of various sources to NH<sub>3</sub>. Nitrogen fertilizer applications, livestock, human waste, biomass burning, coal combustion, and vehicles were considered as sources of NH<sub>3</sub> in this study (details shown in Sect. S2). Atmospheric initial  $\delta^{15}$ N–NH<sub>3</sub> was calculated by following Eq. (3).

$$\delta^{15} \mathrm{N} - \mathrm{NH}_{3-\mathrm{initial}} = \delta^{15} \mathrm{N} - \mathrm{NH}_{4}^{+} - \varepsilon \left( \mathrm{NH}_{4}^{+} - \mathrm{NH}_{3} \right) \times (1 - f), \tag{3}$$

where  $\delta^{15}N-NH_4^+$  and  $\delta^{15}N-NH_{3-initial}$  represent the  $\delta^{15}N$  of particulate  $NH_4^+$  and atmospheric initial  $NH_3$ , respectively;  $\varepsilon$  ( $NH_4^+-NH_3$ ) represents the isotope fractionation factor in the gaseous  $NH_3$  conversion to particulate  $NH_4^+$  in the atmosphere. The *f* value represents the proportion of the initial  $NH_3$  converted to  $NH_4^+$ , referring to  $NH_3$  and  $NH_4^+$  observed in Guangzhou (Liao et al., 2014).

The  $\varepsilon$ (NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>–NH<sub>3</sub>) value is temperature dependent (Huang et al., 2019), which can be deduced from Urey (1947), as shown in Eq. (4). The atmospheric average temperature was 24.5 °C in our sampling period, and the corresponding  $\varepsilon$ (NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>–NH<sub>3</sub>) value was 34.2% calculated by Eq. (4). In addition, the  $\varepsilon$ (NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>–NH<sub>3</sub>) in Guangzhou was estimated to be 32.4% according to Eq. (8). Equation (8) was deduced by Eqs. (5)–(7). According to Eq. (8), a linear fitting equation was observed between fNH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> and  $\delta$ <sup>15</sup>N–NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> (Fig. S1), and the absolute value of the slope (32.4%) was equal to  $\varepsilon$ (NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>–NH<sub>3</sub>). The  $\varepsilon$ (NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>–NH<sub>3</sub>) average of the two methods (34.2% and 32.4%) was 33.3% and approximated to the experimental isotope enrichment factor (33%) (Heaton et al., 1997). Therefore, 33% was used for deducing the  $\delta$ <sup>15</sup>N of the initial NH<sub>3</sub>.

$$\varepsilon_{(\mathrm{NH}_4^+ - \mathrm{NH}_3)} = 12.4678 \cdot \frac{1000}{T + 273.15} - 7.6694 \tag{4}$$

$$\delta^{15}N - NH_4^+ - \delta^{15}N - NH_3 = \varepsilon_{(NH_4^+ - NH_3)}$$
(5)

$$fNH_4^+ + fNH_3 = 1 (6)$$

$$\delta^{15}N - NH_4^+ \cdot fNH_4^+ + \left(\delta^{15}N - NH_4^+ - \varepsilon_{(NH_4^+ - NH_3)}\right) \\ \cdot \left(1 - fNH_4^+\right) = \delta^{15}N$$
(7)

$$\delta^{15} \mathrm{N} - \mathrm{NH}_{4}^{+} = -\varepsilon_{(\mathrm{NH}_{4}^{+} - \mathrm{NH}_{3})} \cdot f \mathrm{NH}_{4}^{+} + \left(\delta^{15} \mathrm{N} + \varepsilon_{(\mathrm{NH}_{4}^{+} - \mathrm{NH}_{3})}\right)$$
(8)

Here, *T* represents the atmospheric temperature (°C);  $\delta^{15}N$ –NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> and  $\delta^{15}N$ –NH<sub>3</sub> represent the  $\delta^{15}N$  of particulate NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> and atmospheric NH<sub>3</sub>, respectively;  $\delta^{15}N$  represents the sum of  $\delta^{15}N$ –NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> and  $\delta^{15}N$ –NH<sub>3</sub>; *f*NH<sub>3</sub> and *f*NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> represent the proportion of atmospheric NH<sub>3</sub> and particulate NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, respectively.

## 2.3.2 Bayesian mixing model

The  $\delta^{15}$ N were used for tracing sources based on the conservation of isotopic mass. The Bayesian mixing model improved upon linear mixing models by explicitly considering uncertainty in prior information and isotopic equilibrium fractionation. Recently, the Bayesian mixing model was applied to trace the sources of atmospheric pollutants (Zong et al., 2017, 2020). The model coupled with  $\delta^{15}$ N–NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and  $\delta^{18}$ O–NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> was used to identify the formation process and quantify the source contributions of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>.

In the central Pearl River Delta (PRD), NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> formed through ·OH and N2O5 pathways contributed to 94 % simulated by the Community Multiscale Air Quality (CAMQ) model (Qu et al., 2021). In this study, only  $\cdot$ OH and N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> formation pathways were considered. Details of the NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> formation pathway were also shown in Sect. S2. The atmospheric  $\delta^{18}O-NO_3^-$  can be expressed by Eq. (9). The [ $\delta^{18}O-$ HNO<sub>3</sub>]<sub>OH</sub> can be further expressed by Eq. (10), assuming no kinetic isotope fractionation (Walters and Michalski, 2016), and  $[\delta^{18}O-HNO_3]_{H_2O}$  can be estimated by Eq. (11) (Walters and Michalski, 2016). The  $\delta^{18}$ O values in tropospheric  $H_2O$ ,  $NO_x$ ,  $O_3$ , and OH were within a certain range. The tropospheric  $\delta^{18}$ O–H<sub>2</sub>O,  $\delta^{18}$ O–NO<sub>x</sub>,  $\delta^{18}$ O–O<sub>3</sub>, and  $\delta^{18}$ O–OH ranged from -25% to 0% (Baskaran et al., 2011; Walters and Michalski, 2016), 112% to 122% (Michalski et al., 2014; Walters and Michalski, 2016), 90% to 122%, and -15% to 0%, respectively (Fang et al., 2011; Johnston and Thiemens, 1997). Therefore, the  $\gamma$  (the contribution of the ·OH formation pathway) can be estimated by  $f NO_2$  and the oxygen isotope fractionation i.e.,  $\alpha NO_2/NO$ ,  $\alpha OH/H_2O$ , and  $\alpha N_2 O_5 / NO_2$ . The oxygen isotope fractionations are temperature dependent and can be estimated by Eq. (13) and Table S1. The  $f NO_2$  varied from 0.20 to 0.95 (Zong et al., 2017; Walters et al., 2016). Based on  $\delta^{18}O-NO_3^-$ ,  $\delta^{18}O-$ H<sub>2</sub>O,  $\delta^{18}$ O–NO<sub>x</sub>,  $\delta^{18}$ O–O<sub>3</sub>, and temperature (Eqs. 9–13),  $\gamma$  (maximum  $\gamma$  and minimum  $\gamma$ ) was estimated by Monte Carlo simulation nested in the Bayesian mixing model (Zong et al., 2017). Assuming no kinetic isotope fractionation, the nitrogen isotope fractionation value in the formation process of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> ( $\varepsilon$ N) was calculated by Eqs. (13)–(16) combined with  $\gamma$  and temperature (Zong et al., 2017; Walters and Michalski, 2016; Walters et al., 2016). The  $\varepsilon N$  value in our sampling period was  $5.1 \pm 2.5\%$ , which was comparable to that in Beijing(average 6.5%) (Fan et al., 2020). The contributions of different sources to atmospheric  $NO_x$ were quantified by the Bayesian mixing model coupled with  $\varepsilon N$ ,  $\delta^{15}N$ -atmospheric-NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, and  $\delta^{15}N$ -NO<sub>x</sub> endmembers shown in Table 1. We considered coal combustion, mobile traffic sources, biomass burning, and soil microbial process as dominant atmospheric  $NO_x$  sources in Guangzhou (details shown in Sect. S2). The specific details of the Bayesian mixing model were reported by our previous studies (Zong et al., 2017, 2020).

$$\delta^{18} O - NO_3^- = \gamma \times \left[ \delta^{18} O - NO_3^- \right]_{OH} + (1 - \gamma)$$
$$\times \left[ \delta^{18} O - NO_3^- \right]_{H_2O} = \gamma \times \left[ \delta^{18} O - HNO_3 \right]_{OH}$$
$$+ (1 - \gamma) \times \left[ \delta^{18} O - HNO_3 \right]_{H_2O}$$
(9)

$$\begin{split} \left[ \delta^{18} \mathrm{O} - \mathrm{HNO}_{3} \right]_{\mathrm{OH}} &= \frac{2}{3} \left[ \left( \delta^{18} \mathrm{O} - \mathrm{NO}_{2} \right) \right]_{\mathrm{OH}} + \frac{1}{3} \\ \left[ \delta^{18} \mathrm{O} - \mathrm{OH} \right]_{\mathrm{OH}} &= \frac{2}{3} \left[ \frac{1000 \times \left( {^{18} \alpha_{\mathrm{NO}_{2}/\mathrm{NO}} - 1 \right) \left( 1 - f_{\mathrm{NO}_{2}} \right)}{\left( 1 - f_{\mathrm{NO}_{2}} \right) + \left( {^{18} \alpha_{\mathrm{NO}_{2}/\mathrm{NO}} \times f_{\mathrm{NO}_{2}} \right)} \\ &+ \left[ \delta^{18} \mathrm{O} - \mathrm{NO}_{X} \right] \right] + \frac{1}{3} \left[ \left( \delta^{18} \mathrm{O} - \mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O} \right) \\ &+ 1000 \times \left( {^{18} \alpha_{\mathrm{OH}/\mathrm{H}_{2}\mathrm{O}} - 1 \right) \right] \end{split}$$
(10)

$$\left[\delta^{18}O - HNO_3\right]_{H_2O} = \frac{5}{6} \left(\delta^{18}O - N_2O_5\right) + \frac{1}{6} \left(\delta^{18}O - H_2O\right)$$
(11)

$$\delta^{18}O - N_2O_5 = \delta^{18}O - NO_2 + 1000 \times ({}^{18}\alpha_{N_2O_5/NO_2} - 1)$$
 (12)

$$1000 ({}^{m}\alpha_{X/Y} - 1) = \frac{A}{T^{4}} \times 10^{10} + \frac{B}{T^{3}} \times 10^{8} + \frac{C}{T^{2}} \times 10^{6} + \frac{D}{T} \times 10^{4}$$
(13)

$$\varepsilon \mathbf{N} = \gamma \times \varepsilon \left( \delta^{15} \mathbf{N} - \mathbf{NO}_{3}^{-} \right)_{OH} + (1 - \gamma)$$
$$\times \varepsilon \left( \delta^{15} \mathbf{N} - \mathbf{NO}_{3}^{-} \right)_{H_{2}O} = \gamma \times \varepsilon \left( \delta^{15} \mathbf{N} - \mathbf{HNO}_{3} \right)_{OH}$$
$$+ (1 - \gamma) \times \varepsilon \left( \delta^{15} \mathbf{N} - \mathbf{HNO}_{3} \right)_{H_{2}O}$$
(14)

$$\varepsilon \left( \delta^{15} \mathrm{N} - \mathrm{HNO}_{3} \right)_{\mathrm{OH}} = \varepsilon \left( \delta^{15} \mathrm{N} - \mathrm{NO}_{2} \right)_{\mathrm{OH}}$$
  
= 1000 ×  $\left[ \frac{\left( {}^{15} \alpha_{\mathrm{NO}_{2}/\mathrm{NO}} - 1 \right) \left( 1 - f_{\mathrm{NO}_{2}} \right)}{\left( 1 - f_{\mathrm{NO}_{2}} \right) + \left( {}^{15} \alpha_{\mathrm{NO}_{2}/\mathrm{NO}} \times f_{\mathrm{NO}_{2}} \right)} \right]$ (15)

$$\varepsilon \left( \delta^{15} \mathrm{N} - \mathrm{HNO}_3 \right)_{\mathrm{H}_2\mathrm{O}} = \varepsilon \left( \delta^{15} \mathrm{N} - \mathrm{N}_2\mathrm{O}_5 \right)_{\mathrm{H}_2\mathrm{O}}$$
$$= 1000 \times \left( {}^{15} \alpha_{\mathrm{N}_2\mathrm{O}_5/\mathrm{NO}_2} - 1 \right)$$
(16)

Here,  $\gamma$  is the contribution of the ·OH formation pathway to NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, and  $\varepsilon$ N is the nitrogen isotope fractionation value. In the total NO<sub>x</sub>, fNO<sub>2</sub> is the fraction of NO<sub>2</sub>; <sup>18</sup> $\alpha$ NO<sub>2</sub>/NO, <sup>18</sup> $\alpha$ OH/H<sub>2</sub>O, and <sup>18</sup> $\alpha$ N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>/NO<sub>2</sub> are the oxygen isotope equilibrium fractionation factors between NO<sub>2</sub> and NO, ·OH and H<sub>2</sub>O, and N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub>, respectively. The nitrogen isotope equilibrium fractionation factors between NO<sub>2</sub> and NO and N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> are <sup>15</sup> $\alpha$ NO<sub>2</sub>/NO and <sup>15</sup> $\alpha$ N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>/NO<sub>2</sub>, respectively.



**Figure 1.** (a) The concentration and  $\delta^{15}$ N of NH<sup>+</sup><sub>4</sub> and (b) the concentration and  $\delta^{15}$ N and  $\delta^{18}$ O of NO<sup>-</sup><sub>3</sub>.

## 3 Results and discussion

## 3.1 Concentration and seasonal variation of $NH_4^+$ and $NO_3^-$

The concentration of  $NH_4^+$  and  $NO_3^-$  in  $PM_{2.5}$  was  $1.6 \pm$  $1.3\,\mu g\,m^{-3}$  and  $2.8\pm3.4\,\mu g\,m^{-3},$  contributing 18.7 % and 32.6% to SIA. The concentration of N-NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> and N-NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> was  $1.2 \pm 1.0 \,\mu\text{g}\,\text{m}^{-3}$  and  $0.6 \pm 0.8 \,\mu\text{g}\,\text{m}^{-3}$ , contributing 45.8 % and 23.2 % to TN, respectively. Thus,  $NH_4^+$  and  $NO_3^$ were an essential part of nitrogen aerosols;  $NH_4^+$  and  $NO_3^$ showed similar seasonal variations with higher concentrations in winter than in summer (Fig. 1). During winter, the air mass was often dry and cold with low wind speed, which meant the decrease of the atmospheric self-purification capability. In addition, primary combustion sources related to fossil fuel and biomass burning always showed significant increase in North China during winter, which greatly increased the concentration of atmospheric pollutants in Guangzhou by long-range transportation. However, during summer, the air mass from the sea was relatively clean with high wind speed facilitating the diffusion of pollutants. Moreover, high temperature in summer was conducive to the decomposition of  $NH_4NO_3$  (Song et al., 2008). Thus, the levels of  $NH_4^+$  and  $NO_3^-$  were lower in summer. In addition, concentrations of  $NH_4^+$  and  $NO_3^-$  in our study were lower than in North China (Beijing - Wu et al., 2019; Fan et al., 2022; Tianjin - Xiang et al., 2022; Shijiazhuang - Xiang et al., 2022; and Harbin -Sun et al., 2021), East China (Nanchang – Xiao et al., 2020), and Central China (Wuhan and Changsha – Xiao et al., 2020; Zong et al., 2020), suggesting that the level of air pollution in Guangzhou has been alleviated to a certain extent. Therefore, it is necessary to conduct a comprehensive study on the emission sources of  $NH_4^+$  and  $NO_3^-$  to take more effective measures to mitigate air pollution.

## 3.2 Characteristic and seasonal variation in $\delta^{15}$ N–NH<sup>+</sup><sub>4</sub> and source apportionment of NH<sup>+</sup><sub>4</sub>

The  $\delta^{15}$ N–NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> values over Guangzhou ranged from 2.1% to 45.5%, with an annual mean of 20.2% ± 10.1%. In our study, the  $\delta^{15}$ N–NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> values were comparable to those at suburban sites (Fig. S2) such as sites in Japan (22.1% ± 8.3%, 16.1% ± 6.6%; Kawashima and Kurahashi, 2011) and Korea (Jeju Island, 17.4% ± 4.9%; Kundu et al., 2010) but heavier than those in polluted regions, such as Guangzhou during the summer haze (average 7.17%; Liu et al., 2018) and Beijing (-37.1% to 5.8%; Pan et al., 2016). The  $\delta^{15}$ N–NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> values were lower in autumn (17.3%) and winter (14.4%) than in spring (22.5%) and summer (25.7%), which was similar to the trends in Japan (Kawashima and Kurahashi, 2011).

The seasonal differences in  $\delta^{15}$ N–NH<sup>+</sup><sub>4</sub> values were significant between warm (summer and spring) and cold seasons (winter and autumn) (p < 0.05). The  $\delta^{15}$ N–NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> was affected by the ratio of  $NH_4^+ / (NH_3 + NH_4^+)$  (Eq. 8 and Fig. S1). A linear fitting equation was observed between  $NH_{4}^{+}/(NH_{3}+NH_{4}^{+})$  and  $\delta^{15}N-NH_{4}^{+}$ , and the absolute value of the slope (32.4) approximated the isotope equilibrium fractionation value (33%) between atmospheric NH<sub>3</sub> and  $NH_4^+$  (Fig. S1). The linear fitting suggested that the lower the  $NH_4^+$  proportion was, the heavier the  $\delta^{15}N-NH_4^+$  value was. The lower  $NH_4^+$  level was in accordance with the higher  $\delta^{15}$ N–NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> in summer, which was the opposite of winter. In addition, a previous study suggested that the marked variation in  $\delta^{15}$ N–NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> values was largely controlled by the emission sources of NH3, the precursor gas of NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> (Liu et al., 2018). According to the  $\delta^{15}$ N–NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> results, the source of NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> was assigned as biomass burning  $(27.9\% \pm 16.4\%)$ , coal combustion  $(16.0\% \pm 3.9\%)$ , vehicles  $(19.8\% \pm 5.3\%)$ , fertilizer  $(10.9\% \pm 6.1\%)$ , livestock (12.7  $\% \pm 5.8 \%$ ), and urban waste (11.9  $\% \pm 6.1 \%$ ) as shown in Fig. 2a.

In our study, non-agriculture sources were the dominators of  $NH_{4}^{+}$  (75.6%). Unexpectedly, the contribution of biomass burning was the highest. In particular, from late June to July, the contribution of biomass burning enhanced, which possibly resulted from sugarcane leaf burning. The  $\delta^{15}$ N in sugarcane leaves was as high as 38 % (Martinellia et al., 2002). The  $\delta^{15}$ N of NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> formed from NH<sub>3</sub> released by sugarcane leaf burning was 44.1 % (Sect. S3), which was consistent with the highest  $\delta^{15}$ N–NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> values (45.5% and 45.1%) in July. In PRD, south winds prevail in July and the sampling site is located downwind of sugarcane planting area. Therefore, the air mass to the sampling site might carry the pollutants related to sugarcane leaf burning. K<sup>+</sup> is a typical biomass burning tracer (Cui et al., 2018). Considering the impact of primary emission intensity,  $[NH_4^+ / EC]$  and  $[K^+ / EC]$  were used to calculate the correlation coefficient (r=0.435, p<0.01), which verified that NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> was influenced by biomass burning. In recent years, biomass burning

Source	$\delta^{15}N - NH_3$ (%)	References
Biomass burning	$17.5 \pm 7.8$	Kawashima and Kurahashi (2011), Xiao et al. (2020)
Coal combustion	$-2.5 \pm 6.4$	Felix et al. (2013), Pan et al. (2016)
Urban traffic	$6.6 \pm 2.1$	Walters et al. (2020)
Fertilizer	$-28.3\pm5.8$	Bhattarai et al. (2021, 2020), Chang et al. (2016), Felix et al. (2013)
Livestock	$-18.3 \pm 7.7$	Bhattarai et al. (2021, 2020), Chang et al. (2016), Felix et al. (2013)
Urban waste	$-22.8\pm3.6$	Bhattarai et al. (2021), Chang et al. (2016)
Source	$\delta^{15}$ N – NO <sub>X</sub> (%o)	References
Biomass burning	$1.04 \pm 4.13$	Zong et al. (2017), Fibiger and Hastings (2016), Zong et al. (2022)
Coal combustion	$13.72 \pm 4.57$	Zong et al. (2017), Felix et al. (2015, 2012)
Mobile source	$-7.25\pm7.80$	Zong et al. (2017), Walters et al. (2015)
Soil microbial process	$-33.77 \pm 12.16$	Zong et al. (2017), Felix and Elliott (2013)

**Table 1.** The estimation of  $\delta^{15}$ N–NH<sub>3</sub> and  $\delta^{15}$ N–NO<sub>x</sub> from various sources.



Figure 2. The source apportionment results of atmospheric  $NH_4^+$  (a) and  $NO_3^-$  (b) in Guangzhou, and the comparison of sources results between  $NH_4^+$  and  $NO_3^-$  (c).

has been gradually identified as an important source of  $NH_4^+$ (Meng et al., 2017; Xiao et al., 2020). The results based on emission inventories showed that the contribution of residential biomass combustion to  $NH_3$  ranged from 33 % to 53 %in China (Meng et al., 2017). According to  $\delta^{15}$ N, biomass burning contributed 18 % (Harbin, Northeast China - Sun et al., 2021), 46 % (Wuhan, Central China), 40 % (Changsha, South Central China – Xiao et al., 2020), 35 % (Nanchang, East China - Xiao et al., 2020), and 23 % (Guangzhou, South China – Chen et al., 2022a) to NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>. Particularly, in Guangzhou, the contribution of biomass burning in the ground was higher than that in the Guangzhou tower with a height of 488 m, suggesting the influence of regional biomass burning (Chen et al., 2022a). Furthermore, <sup>7</sup>Be mainly originates from upper atmosphere, whereas <sup>210</sup>Pb is derived from terrestrial surface (Jiang et al., 2021b). High levels of <sup>7</sup>Be observed in the ground suggested the sink influence of the upper atmosphere; <sup>7</sup>Be and <sup>210</sup>Pb are chemically stable and with unique sources, which can effectively reflect the transport of continental air mass and the air exchange between stratosphere and troposphere. In our study, the correlation coefficient between NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> and <sup>210</sup>Pb (r = 0.701, p < 0.01) was higher than that between NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> and <sup>7</sup>Be (r = 0.432, p < 0.01), suggesting that NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> was mainly affected by regional emission. Therefore, biomass burning exerted essential influence on NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> levels, which should no longer be ignored.

In addition, with the acceleration of urbanization, combustion sources related to fossil fuels have become the main sources of NH<sub>3</sub>. In previous studies, the source of NH<sub>x</sub> (NH<sub>3</sub>+NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>) was mainly from agricultural activity due to the rough way of farming (Chang et al., 2016; Pan et al., 2020). However, with the improvement of efficient fertilization practices, agricultural NH<sub>3</sub> decreased significantly (Wang et al., 2022). Fossil fuels, such as coal and gasoline, are major energies for production and domestic use, and their contribution to NH<sub>3</sub> has become increasingly important. In North China, fossil fuel combustion contributed 92 % to NH<sub>3</sub> during hazes (Zhang et al., 2020; Pan et al., 2016). In a previous study of Guangzhou, the contribution of NH<sub>3</sub> from fossil sources in ground observations (43 %) was higher than that observed in the Guangzhou tower (18 %), indicating the importance of locally related fossil fuel combustion sources (Chen et al., 2022a). In our study, vehicle emission and coal combustion contributed 19.8  $\% \pm 5.3 \%$  and 16.0  $\% \pm 3.9 \%$ of  $NH_{4}^{+}$ , respectively, which was lower than that in North China but higher than agricultural sources. The share of NH<sub>3</sub> from vehicle exhaust emissions was estimated to be 18.8 % based on the emission factor of NH3 from on-road vehicles in Guangzhou, which was similar to our results (Liu et al., 2014). The selective catalytic reduction process for vehicles can reduce  $NO_x$  but increase the emission of  $NH_3$ , which has been confirmed as an important source of NH3 (Heeb et al., 2006; Meng et al., 2017). Despite the efforts of government to promote electric vehicles in recent years, their share is still relatively low (about 5%). As car ownership increases, this has an important impact on atmospheric NH<sub>3</sub>. Coal combustion was the second most important source of fossil combustion after vehicle emissions in our study, although the contribution was lower than in North China (Wu et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2020; Pan et al., 2016). The absence of heating in Guangzhou may explain the lower contribution of coal combustion compared to North China. On an annual basis, the contribution of fossil-fuel-related combustion sources in our study (35.8%) was comparable to that in North China (37 %–52 %) (Pan et al., 2018a).

The source contributions of NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> in our study were compared to other regions (shown in Fig. S3). The combustionrelated sources (biomass burning, coal combustion, and vehicle) have gradually become the dominant source of urban atmospheric NH<sub>3</sub>. Biomass burning and vehicle emissions could emit massive carbon monoxide (CO) (Li and Wang, 2007; Wang et al., 2005). In Guangzhou,  $NH_4^+$  was positively related to CO (r = 0.637, p < 0.01), which confirmed that combustion sources played a key role in  $NH_4^+$ . From a historical perspective, NH3 emissions from anthropogenic combustion and industry have been steadily increasing since 1960 (Meng et al., 2017). The optimization of energy structure and encouragement of the development of new energy vehicles would be hopeful to reduce NH<sub>3</sub>. The results of this study would be conducive to reducing NH<sub>3</sub> scientifically and effectively and would relieve the pressure on the reduction from agricultural sources.

## 3.3 Characteristic and seasonal variation in $\delta^{18}O-NO_3^$ and $\delta^{15}N-NO_3^-$ and source apportionment of $NO_3^-$

## 3.3.1 Seasonal variation of $\delta^{18}O-NO_{2}^{-1}$

The  $\delta^{18}$ O–NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> in Guangzhou was 68.1 ± 9.7 ‰ (44.9 ‰ to 90.5 ‰) comparable to that in precipitation (66.3 ‰, ranging from 33.4 ‰ to 86.2 ‰) (Fang et al., 2011), but lower than those regions with weak light intensity, such as Beihuangcheng Island (ranging from 49.4 ‰ to 103.9 ‰) (Zong et al., 2017) and the Bermuda islands (cold season 76.9 ‰ ± 6.3 ‰) (Hastings et al., 2003). In this study,  $\delta^{18}$ O–NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> was higher in winter and spring than in summer and autumn,

which was similar to the seasonal variation in  $\delta^{18}O-NO_3^$ in previous studies (Fang et al., 2011; Gobel et al., 2013). On the one hand, the  $\delta^{18}O-NO_3^-$  value was associated with the formation pathways of  $NO_3^{\frac{3}{2}}$ . The results simulated by the Bayesian mixing model suggested that the contributions of the  $N_2O_5$  channel to  $NO_3^-$  were 56.8%, 58.9%, 29.2%, and 27.0% in winter, spring, autumn, and summer, respectively. The  $\delta^{18}O$  value of  $NO_3^-$  formed by the  $N_2O_5$  channel is higher than that by the OH pathway (Sect. S2). The nights in cold seasons were longer than those in warm seasons, which favored  $NO_3^-$  formation through the  $N_2O_5$  channel. In addition, the illumination intensity was weakened in cold seasons compared with that in warm seasons, which constrained the production of ·OH (Zong et al., 2020; Tan et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2017). Thus, the contribution of the  $N_2O_5$  channel in cold seasons was higher than that in warm seasons. Furthermore, concentration of  $NO_3^-$  was high when contribution of the N2O5 channel enhanced (Fig. 3), suggesting that  $NO_2^-$  pollution was related to the N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> hydrolysis pathway. The air mass to Guangzhou was derived from the South China Sea in summer and the North Continental Region in winter. The higher  $\delta^{18}O-NO_3^-$  and  $NO_3^-$  concentration might be affected by long-range and high-altitude transport from North China, which might carry abundant precursors. Massive NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> could be formed by N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> hydrolysis at high altitude and transported to the ground. The index of f (<sup>7</sup>Be,<sup>210</sup>Pb) was expressed in Sect. S1 and could reflect the influence of atmospheric dynamic transport on aerosol pollutants (Jiang et al., 2021b). Generally, air masses with low values of  $f(^{7}\text{Be},^{210}\text{Pb})$  suggested that pollutants were associated with continental surface emission, whereas high  $f(^{7}\text{Be}, ^{210}\text{Pb})$  were influenced by long-range transport from upper air masses. The contribution of the N2O5 channel was positively correlated with  $f(^{7}\text{Be},^{210}\text{Pb})$  (r = 0.319, p < 0.05), indicating the long-range transport influence of upper air mass on the N2O5 channel. For example, on 25 January 2018, the contribution of the N2O5 channel (nitrate) was  $81.1 \% (3.6 \,\mu g \,m^{-3})$  when the upper air mass was from North China. However, on 7 July 2017, the N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> channel (nitrate) contributed only 5.7 % (0.5  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup>), corresponding to the air mass mainly from the South China Sea transported at low altitude (Fig. S4).

The  $\delta^{18}$ O–NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> decreased from 76.7% in 2014 to 68.1% in 2017–2018 (Zong et al., 2020), which indicated that the ·OH channel became more important in Guangzhou. The enhanced contribution of the ·OH pathway indicated the increasing atmospheric oxidation capacity. In recent years, although the concentration of PM<sub>2.5</sub> in Guangzhou has significantly decreased, the photochemical pollution caused by high O<sub>3</sub> concentrations was not optimistic (Tan et al., 2019). The O<sub>3</sub> concentration in the PRD showed a fluctuating upward trend from 2013 to 2020; especially in 2017–2018, O<sub>3</sub> concentrations were at high levels (Environmental Status Bulletin of Guangdong Province Fig. S5). In our study, the



**Figure 3.** (a) The contribution of the OH radical oxidation and  $N_2O_5$  hydrolysis pathway to  $NO_3^-$ . (b) The vertical position of dots corresponded to the contribution of  $N_2O_5$  pathway and the size of the dots corresponded to the concentration of  $NO_3^-$ .

 $NO_3^-$  formation pathway inferred from  $\delta^{18}O-NO_3^-$  proved the enhancement of the atmospheric oxidation capacity.

# 3.3.2 Seasonal variation of $\delta^{15}N-NO_3^-$ and source apportionment of $NO_3^-$

Seasonal variation of  $\delta^{15}N-NO_{2}^{-1}$ 

The  $\delta^{15}$ N–NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> in Guangzhou was  $4.9\% \pm 2.2\%$  (-0.4%) to 10.8%), which was similar to the wet deposition (Fang et al., 2011). The  $\delta^{15}N-NO_3^-$  was comparable to that from the northeastern United States (6.8%) (Elliott et al., 2009) and lower than regions in China, where  $NO_3^-$  was predominantly derived from anthropogenic sources, such as Heshan in Guangdong  $(7.50\% \pm 3.30\%)$  (Su et al., 2020), Beihuangcheng Island  $(8.2\% \pm 6.2\%)$  (Zong et al., 2017), and Beijing (12.1% ± 3.3%) (Fan et al., 2022). Nevertheless, the  $\delta^{15}$ N–NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> in this study was significantly higher than those from clean background regions, where  $NO_3^-$  was mainly from natural sources, such as the coast of Antarctica (-12.0% ±15.6%) (Savarino et al., 2007) and Bermuda  $(-2.1\% \pm 1.5\%$  warm season,  $-5.9\% \pm 3.3\%$  cold season) (Hastings et al., 2003). The values of  $\delta^{15}$ N–NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> in winter, spring, summer, and autumn were 5.6%, 5.3%, 4.4%, and 4.5 %, respectively. The  $\delta^{15}$ N–NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> in winter and summer showed significant difference (p < 0.05). The values of  $\delta^{15}$ N–NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> were influenced by atmospheric processes and emission sources (Elliott et al., 2009). For the N2O5 channel, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> is characterized by higher  $\delta^{15}$ N values (Freyer et al., 1993; Elliott et al., 2009). The N2O5 channel was the predominant formation pathway of  $NO_3^-$  in winter, which was in accordance with the seasonal variation in  $\delta^{15}$ N–NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>. In addition, the difference in  $\delta^{15}$ N–NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> reflected the variation in the emission source of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>. The  $\delta^{15}$ N–NO<sub>x</sub> from coal combustion was relatively high. In winter, the higher  $\delta^{15}$ N–NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>

was probably related to long-range transport from North China, where coal combustion enhanced during winter.

## Source apportionment of NO<sub>3</sub>

Based on the Bayesian mixing model coupled with  $\delta^{15}N$ - $NO_3^-$ ,  $NO_3^-$  sources were assigned as coal combustion  $40.4\% \pm 8.7\%$ , biomass burning  $25.6\% \pm 2.1\%$ , mobile sources (vehicles)  $22.3\% \pm 3.1\%$ , and microbial process 11.7 %  $\pm$  3.8 %. Figures 2b and S6 showed the source contribution of  $NO_3^-$  in Guangzhou and other regions in China, respectively. Compared to earlier periods (2013–2014), the concentration of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> from vehicles and coal combustion decreased significantly (Zong et al., 2020), which resulted from the stricter vehicle emission standard, promotion of new energy electric vehicles, and ultraclean transformation of coal combustion (Guangdong Province, 2014; http://www.gd.gov. cn/gkmlpt/content/0/142/5mpost 142687.html, last access: 14 February 2014; Tang et al., 2019). However, almost all production and domestic segments rely on energy generated from coal combustion, which was still the dominant source of  $NO_3^-$  in 2017–2018. Coal combustion was affected not only by local emissions but also external air mass transmission. The contribution of coal combustion was higher in winter than in summer, which probably related to the long-range transportation from North China. Taking 10 January 2018 as an example, the contribution of coal combustion sources to  $NO_3^-$  was 67.5 %, and the corresponding air mass was from North China and transmitted to Guangzhou through high altitude. However, the air mass on 26 July 2017 was mainly from the South China Sea, which was transmitted through low altitude to Guangzhou. The contribution of coal burning to NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> on 26 July 2017 was 28.5 % lower than that on 10 January 2018.

As a non-fossil combustion source, biomass burning was also an important source of  $NO_3^-$  and accounted for 25.6 %. The contribution of biomass burning and vehicles was stable throughout a year. Generally, high intensity biomass burning occurred in winter in the Guangdong province (dry season, i.e., from November to March) (Xu et al., 2019); K<sup>+</sup> is a typical tracer of biomass burning. The concentration of  $K^+$  enhanced in winter (0.4 µg m<sup>-3</sup>) was higher than that in summer  $(0.2 \,\mu\text{g m}^{-3})$  and autumn  $(0.2 \,\mu\text{g m}^{-3})$ , respectively, indicating enhancement of biomass burning intensity. Also, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> concentration of biomass burning remarkably enhanced in winter  $(1.2 \,\mu g \, m^{-3})$  and was higher than that in summer  $(0.4 \,\mu g \, m^{-3})$  and autumn  $(0.3 \,\mu g \, m^{-3})$ , respectively. However, coal combustion also enhanced in winter due to the demand for heating in North China. Our sampling site was influenced by the air mass with a high coal combustion contribution from the north by long-range transportation, which may relatively reduce the contribution of biomass burning. Thus, the contribution of biomass burning showed stability compared with coal combustion. Another non-fossil source is related to soil microbial activity and only contributed 11.7 %

to  $NO_3^-$ , which was unexpectedly lower than the results in earlier periods (2013-2014). Generally, the microorganisms in soil emit NO through nitrification or denitrification, which was affected by the amount of carbon and nitrogen nutrients in soil (Hall and Matson, 1996). In earlier periods, due to the higher level of aerosols, the amount of nutrients settling in soil was also higher, which was exemplified by the observation of dry and wet deposition in Guangzhou (He et al., 2022; Zheng et al., 2020). In addition, the reduction of cultivated land from 2013 to 2018 might also reduce the contribution of microbial source emissions. Therefore, emissions from natural sources were also influenced by human activities to some extent. The contribution of microbial processes was higher in summer than in winter. In summer, higher RH and temperature were favorable for the intense activity of soil microorganisms (Zong et al., 2017). The contributions of microbial processes to NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> also decreased in winter compared with summer at regional background sites and five Chinese megacities, including Guangzhou (Zong et al., 2017, 2020).

The source comparisons between  $NO_3^-$  and  $NH_4^+$  were shown in Fig. 2c. Coal combustion, biomass burning, and vehicles were three significant sources of  $NO_3^-$  and  $NH_4^+$ . Coal combustion and biomass burning were the dominant sources of  $NO_3^-$  and  $NH_4^+$ , respectively. The vehicles were also an important source of atmospheric inorganic Nr that contributed to 22.3 % and 19.8 % of  $NO_3^-$  and  $NH_4^+$ , respectively. Recently, the government has actively taken many measures to reduce the pollution from vehicles, such as stricter automobile emission standards and the promotion of new energy vehicles. However, due to the large vehicle ownership base, the pollutants emitted from vehicles are not optimistic. In addition, vehicle emissions could contribute half of the fresh secondary organic aerosol in urban environments (Zhang et al., 2022; Zhao et al., 2022a).

## 4 Conclusions

A year-long field observation was conducted in Guangzhou to clarify the atmospheric fate of inorganic nitrogen aerosol. Inorganic nitrogen species were the most essential component of TN including  $NH_4^+$  (45.8%) and  $NO_3^-$  (23.2%), which are also dominant components of SIA and play a key role in China hazes. The  $\delta^{15}N$  is a powerful tool to quantify the source contribution of  $NH_4^+$  and  $NO_3^-$ , which suggested that anthropogenic combustion sources (coal combustion, biomass burning, and vehicles) were the dominant sources.

Anthropogenic combustion sources contributed 63.2 % to  $NH_4^+$ , which is more than the 23.6 % contribution from agricultural sources. Ammonia (NH<sub>3</sub>) largely facilitates the formation of sulfate and nitrate. Meanwhile, sulfate and nitrate promote each other with the positive feedback effect, which could trigger hazes. In megacities of China, the focus of NH<sub>3</sub> reduction should be on anthropogenic combustion sources,

especially on biomass burning, which might be responsible for the lag of the decline in the deposition of air pollutants behind the reduction in emission (Zhao et al., 2022b). In addition, anthropogenic combustion sources accounted for 88.3 % of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>. Coal combustion and vehicles contributed 40.4 % and 22.3 % to NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, respectively. Despite a series of measures to reduce emissions of NO<sub>x</sub>, fossil fuels, as the main energy source for production and living, will still inevitably emit a large amount of NO<sub>x</sub>. Our results emphasized that the emission of atmospheric inorganic nitrogen is largely related to anthropogenic combustion sources. The development and promotion of clean energy and efficient use of biomass are conducive to the deep reduction of atmospheric nitrogen.

**Data availability.** The original data of this research (stable nitrogen isotopes and inorganic nitrogen concentrations) are available at Mendeley data (https://doi.org/10.17632/yck5xy22w2.1; Li and Li, 2023). The IsoSource model was downloaded from the Environmental Protection Agency via their website: https://www.epa.gov/ sites/default/files/2015-11/isosourcev1\_3\_1.zip (last access: 24 August 2022; Phillips and Gregg, 2003).

**Supplement.** The supplement related to this article is available online at: https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-23-6395-2023-supplement.

Author contributions. Funding acquisition: JL. Investigation: TL, ZS, and HJ. Methodology: TL, ZS, HJ, JL, and CT. Project administration: JL. Resources: JL, CT, and GZ. Software: TL, ZS, and CT. Validation: TL and JL. Writing – original draft: TL. Writing – review and editing: JL.

**Competing interests.** The contact author has declared that none of the authors has any competing interests.

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**Financial support.** This study was supported by the Natural Science Foundation of China (NSFC; grant no. 41977177), the Basic and Applied Basic Research Foundation of Guangdong Province (grant no. 2021A1515011456), and the Guangdong Science and Technology Innovation Foundation (grant nos. 2017BT01Z134 and 2020B1212060053).

**Review statement.** This paper was edited by Katye Altieri and reviewed by Xueyan Liu and one anonymous referee.

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