

1 **Sources of Humic-Like Substances in the Pearl River Delta, China: Positive matrix**
2 **factorization analysis of PM_{2.5} major components and source markers**

3 Bin Yu Kuang¹, Peng Lin^{1,#}, X. H. H. Huang², Jian Zhen Yu^{1,2,*}

4 ¹Department of Chemistry, Hong Kong University of Science & Technology, Clear Water Bay,
5 Kowloon, Hong Kong, China

6 ²Institute of Environment, Hong Kong University of Science & Technology, Clear Water Bay,
7 Kowloon, Hong Kong, China

8 #now at Environmental Molecular Sciences Laboratory, Pacific Northwest National
9 Laboratory, Richland, Washington, WA99532, USA

10 *Correspondence to: Jian Zhen Yu (jian.yu@ust.hk)

11
12 **Abstract**

13 HUmic-Like Substances (HULIS), the hydrophobic part of water soluble organic carbon
14 (WSOC), account for a significant fraction of PM_{2.5} mass. Their source studies are so far
15 largely qualitative. In this study, HULIS and WSOC were determined in 100 PM_{2.5} samples
16 collected in 2009 at an urban site (Guangzhou) and a suburban site (Nansha) in the Pearl
17 River Delta in South China. The annual average concentration of HULIS was 4.83 and 4.71
18 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, constituting 8.5% and 10.2% of the PM_{2.5} mass, while HULIS-C (the carbon
19 component of HULIS) contributed 48% and 57% of WSOC at the two sites, respectively.
20 HULIS was found to correlate with biomass burning (BB) tracers (i.e., levoglucosan and K)
21 and secondary species (e.g., SO_4^{2-} and NH_4^+), suggesting its association with BB emissions
22 and secondary formation processes. Sources of HULIS were investigated using positive
23 matrix factorization analysis of PM_{2.5} chemical composition data, including major
24 components and source markers. In addition to secondary formation process and BB
25 emissions, residual oil combustion related to shipping was identified for the first time as a
26 significant source of HULIS. Secondary formation process contributed the most, accounting
27 for 49-82% of ambient HULIS at the two sites in different seasons. BB emissions contributed
28 a seasonal average of 8-28%, with more contributions observed in the winter months
29 (November-February) due to crop residue burning during harvest season. Residual oil
30 combustion was revealed to be an important source at the suburban site in summer (44% of
31 HULIS-C) due to its proximity to one of the ports and the shipping lane in the region. Vehicle
32 emissions were found to contribute little to HULIS but had contributions to the hydrophilic
33 WSOC fraction. The contrast in contributions from different combustion sources to HULIS
34 and hydrophilic WSOC suggests that primary sources of HULIS are linked to inefficient
35 combustion. This source analysis suggests further study of HULIS be focused on secondary

36 formation process and source characteristics of HULIS from BB and residual oil combustion.

37

38 **1 Introduction**

39 HUmic-Like Substances (HULIS) is a mixture of organic species extracted from atmospheric
40 aerosol particles with characteristics similar to humic and fulvic acids (Graber and Rudich,
41 2006). It is operationally defined by procedures used for its isolation from the bulk
42 water-soluble aerosol components by removing inorganic salts and low-molecular weight
43 hydrophilic organic compounds (e.g., oxalate). HULIS is therefore the hydrophobic part of
44 water soluble organic carbon (WSOC). Solid phase extraction (SPE) methods have been
45 widely used to isolate HULIS (e.g., Varga et al., 2001; Lin et al 2010a, 2010b). The advantage
46 of SPE is the removal of inorganic ions and the collection of the organic fraction, facilitating
47 subsequent characterization of the chemical and physical properties of HULIS. Other methods
48 have also been utilized, such as capillary electrophoresis (Havers et al., 1998a), ultrafiltration
49 (Havers et al., 1998b), ion-exchange chromatography (Decesari et al., 2000), and
50 size-exclusion chromatography (Krivacsy et al., 2000; Samburova et al., 2005a; Samburova et
51 al., 2005b).

52 HULIS is a significant component of particulate matter (PM) (Lin et al., 2010a). It
53 accounted for around half or more of WSOC in previous studies (e.g., Krivacsy et al., 2008).
54 Due to its abundant presence and its affinity for water, HULIS plays an important role in the
55 atmosphere by affecting the hygroscopic growth of aerosols and reducing surface tension
56 (Kiss et al., 2005; Dinar et al., 2006; Graber and Rudich, 2006). HULIS could also be an
57 important contributor to light absorption by particles in the atmosphere (Hoffer et al., 2006;
58 Lukacs et al., 2007). More recently, HULIS has been demonstrated to be redox-active. It
59 catalyzes the generation of reactive oxygen species under simulated physiological conditions,
60 thereby likely contributing to PM-induced health effects (Lin and Yu, 2011; Verma et al.,
61 2012).

62 Previous studies have identified biomass burning (BB) (Mayol-Bracero et al., 2002;
63 Lukacs et al., 2007; Lin et al, 2010b) and secondary formation (Altieri et al., 2008; El Haddad
64 et al., 2011; Lin et al, 2010a) as important sources of HULIS. One study also reported that
65 HULIS could have a marine source (Cavalli et al., 2004). [The molecular composition of
66 HULIS was also studied using ultrahigh resolution mass spectrometer \(e.g. Wozniak et al.,
67 2008; Lin et al., 2012a; 2012b; Yassine et al., 2012\).](#) Through composition study, it was

68 confirmed that biomass burning and secondary formation process were sources of HULIS
69 (Lin et al., 2012a). However, to the best of our knowledge, there is not yet a quantitative
70 source apportionment study of HULIS.

71 Positive Matrix Factorization (PMF) is a multivariate factor analysis model that has been
72 widely used for source apportionment of ambient samples. There are a number of studies
73 using PMF to identify and apportion sources of ambient aerosols in Hong Kong (Lee et al.,
74 1999; Yuan et al., 2006a, 2006b; Hu et al., 2010) and many more studies in other locations
75 around the world (e.g., Maykut et al., 2003; Kim and Hopke, 2004; Liu et al., 2005;
76 Shrivastava et al., 2007; Wagener et al., 2012). The objective of this study is to identify major
77 sources of HULIS and quantify their contributions in PM_{2.5} samples in the Pearl River Delta
78 (PRD). The approach taken is through PMF analysis of PM_{2.5} chemical composition data
79 including inorganic and organic tracers for key sources. The tracers of the biomass burning,
80 vehicular emission, ship emission, and dust are included in PMF, because PMF relies on
81 source tracers to associate resolved factors with known sources or processes.

82

83 **2 Experimental Section**

84 **2.1 Aerosol sampling**

85 Ambient aerosol samples were collected at an urban site (GZ: Guangzhou) and a suburban
86 site (NS: Nansha) in PRD (Fig. 1). The GZ site (23° 7' 51.08" N, 113° 17' 51.19" E) is located
87 on the roof of the Guangdong Meteorology Bureau building in downtown Guangzhou. The
88 NS site (22° 45' 08.90" N, 113° 36' 09.17" E) is located in the middle of the PRD, 50 km south
89 of the GZ site and ~15 km north of Nansha Port. NS is situated at the estuary of the Pearl
90 River on the shipping lane from Hong Kong/Shenzhen to Guangzhou Downtown Port (Fig.
91 1).

92 Twenty-four-hour PM_{2.5} sampling was conducted at each site once every 6 days
93 throughout the year of 2009. A MetOne Speciation Air Sampling System (SASS) medium
94 volume sampler was used at each site to collect aerosols onto one Teflon, one Nylon and
95 three pre-baked quartz filters through five separate sampling channels. A high-volume aerosol
96 sampler (TE-6070V-BL, Tisch Environmental Inc., USA) was employed at each site to collect
97 PM_{2.5} samples on prebaked quartz filters. The Teflon, nylon, and quartz filters from the
98 mid-volume samplers were used for gravimetric measurement, water soluble ions, and EC/OC

99 (elemental carbon/organic carbon) analysis, respectively (Huang et al., 2014). Quartz filters
100 from the high-volume samplers were used for determination of HULIS, WSOC, and organic
101 source tracers.

102

103 **2.2 Chemical analysis**

104 Chemical species analysed in the PM_{2.5} samples include nine ionic species (Cl⁻, NO₃⁻,
105 SO₄²⁻, oxalate, Na⁺, NH₄⁺, K⁺, Mg²⁺, and Ca²⁺), EC, OC, elements (Al, Si, K, Ca, Ti, V, Mn,
106 Fe, Ni, Zn, Pb), HULIS, WSOC, three sugar compounds (levoglucosan, mannosan, and
107 galactosan), and hopanes. Ionic species were quantified using an ion chromatography (IC)
108 system (DX500, Dionex, Sunnyvale, CA, USA), and the experimental details were reported in
109 our earlier papers (Yang et al., 2005; Lin et al., 2010a). EC and OC were determined using a
110 thermal/optical transmittance aerosol carbon analyser (Sunset Laboratory, Tigard, OR, USA)
111 and the analysis protocol followed the ACE-Asia protocol, which is derived from the better
112 known NIOSH protocol (Wu et al., 2012). Elements were measured using an X-ray
113 fluorescence (XRF) spectrometer (Huang et al., 2014).

114 For the analysis of WSOC and HULIS, portions of the quartz filters were extracted by
115 sonication in ultrapure water (>18MΩ·cm, Barnstead NANOpure ultrapure water system,
116 APS Water Services Corp., USA) with the ratio of 1 mL water per 1cm² filter. The extracts
117 were filtered with a 0.45 μm Teflon filter (Millipore, Billerica, MA, USA) to remove
118 insoluble materials before analysis. The WSOC content was determined using a TOC analyser
119 equipped with a non-dispersive infrared (NDIR) detector (Shimadzu TOC-V_{CPH}, Japan). The
120 detector response was calibrated with authentic standard of sucrose (sucrose standard was
121 purchased from Fisher Scientific UK Limited, Loughborough, UK). Water-insoluble OC
122 (WISOC) is then calculated to be the difference between OC and WSOC. The quantification
123 of HULIS was described in detail in our previous studies (Lin et al., 2010a; Lin et al., 2010b).
124 Briefly, the aerosol water extract was acidified with HCl to pH≈2, then loaded to the SPE
125 cartridge (Oasis HLB, 30 μm, 60 mg/cartridge, Waters, USA). HULIS was retained on the
126 SPE cartridge while the majority of inorganic ions, low molecular weight organic acids, and
127 sugars were not retained. The sorbent was rinsed with 2 mL ultrapure water, and HULIS
128 fraction was then eluted from the SPE cartridge with 1.5 mL methanol containing 2% (w/w)
129 NH₃. The HULIS eluate was evaporated to dryness under a gentle stream of nitrogen gas and
130 re-dissolved in 1.0 mL of water, followed by detection using an evaporative light scattering

131 detector (ELSD). Routine calibration of ELSD was carried out using standard solutions of
132 SRFA (Suwannee River Fulvic Acid, International Humic Substances Society) up to 250 mg/L
133 (the upper limit of the ELSD dynamic range). Since HULIS is the hydrophobic part of WSOC,
134 we term the difference between WSOC and HULIS-C (the carbon content of HULIS) to be
135 hydrophilic WSOC, abbreviated as WSOC_h hereafter. HULIS-C was calculated from HULIS
136 mass divided by a factor of 1.9, as determined in previous studies (Kiss et al., 2002; Lin et al.,
137 2010b). We note that HULIS-C in concentration unit of $\mu\text{gC m}^{-3}$, instead of HULIS mass
138 concentration ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) was used as input in the PMF analysis and consequently the source
139 apportionment results are in reference to HULIS-C. Using HULIS-C allows the easy
140 derivation of WSOC_h data from WSOC and HULIS_C and subsequently the investigation of
141 WSOC_h sources.

142 The concentrations of levoglucosan, mannosan, and galactosan were measured by
143 high-performance anion-exchange chromatography (HPAEC) with a pulsed amperometric
144 detection (PAD) method (Engling et al., 2006). The measurement was carried out on a Dionex
145 DX-500 series ion chromatograph (Sunnyvale, CA, USA), consisting of a LC30
146 Chromatography Oven, a GP40 Gradient Pump, and an ED40 Electrochemical Detector (with
147 an Electrochemical Cell and a conventional gold electrode). The separation was achieved on a
148 Dionex CarboPac PA10 analytical column (4×250 mm) with aqueous sodium hydroxide
149 (NaOH) as eluent at a flow rate of 0.5 mL/min (Engling et al., 2006). The chromatographic
150 conditions were: 10% of aqueous solution containing 180 mM NaOH (A) and 90% of
151 ultrapure water (B) for 10 min; eluate A increased from 10% to 70% in 20 min, then from
152 70% to 100% in 0.1 min and maintained at 100% for 9 min to wash the electrode. At the end
153 of the analysis cycle, eluate A was decreased to 10% in 0.1 min and kept at 10% for 14 min to
154 condition the column for the next sample. The detector was operated in integrating
155 amperometric mode and its response was calibrated by authentic standards of the three sugars.
156 Levoglucosan was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich Inc. (St. Louis, MO, USA), mannosan from
157 Toronto Research Chemicals Inc. (North York, ON, Canada), and galactosan from J&K
158 Scientific (USA).

159 Hopanes, together with other nonpolar organic compounds (i.e., alkanes, polycyclic
160 aromatic compounds), were quantified using a method that couples in-injection port thermal
161 desorption with gas Chromatography/ mass spectrometric detection (TD-GC/MS) (Agilent
162 7890A GC/5975C MS). The experimental details and method evaluation through comparison

163 with solvent extraction GC-MS analysis are described in our previous papers (Ho and Yu,
164 2004; Ho et al., 2008). A 2-cm² filter punch from each filter collected with the high-volume
165 samplers was removed and used in the TD-GC/MS analysis. The separation was achieved
166 using an HP-5 ms capillary column (30 m×0.25 mm×0.25 μm, J&W Scientific, Folsom, CA,
167 USA). Two hopanes, C30αβ-hopane (abbreviated as hopane hereafter) and C29αβ-hopane
168 (norhopane), are used in this work as vehicular emission tracers.

169

170 **2.3 PMF analysis**

171 EPA PMF 3.0 (Norris et al., 2008; Kim and Hopke, 2007; Kim et al., 2010) was used in
172 this study. A total of 27 fitting species are used as input observable parameters, including
173 HULIS-C, WSOC_h, three sugar species (levoglucosan, mannosan, and galactosan), hopane,
174 norhopane, EC, OC, seven major ions (SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻, Cl⁻, oxalate, NH₄⁺, Na⁺, and Mg²⁺), and
175 eleven elements (Al, Si, K, Ca, Ti, V, Mn, Fe, Ni, Zn, Pb). Elements K and Ca measured by
176 XRF were used as PMF inputs because of better accuracy than ionic K⁺ and Ca²⁺ measured
177 with the IC system. Levoglucosan is a tracer highly specific for BB emissions (Simoneit et al.,
178 1999; Nolte et al., 2001; Engling et al., 2006). It has been widely used to estimate the
179 contributions of BB emission to ambient aerosols in source apportionment studies (e.g., Wang
180 et al., 2007; Holden et al., 2011; Harrison et al., 2012). Hopane and norhopane are specific
181 tracers for vehicle emissions (e.g., Simoneit et al., 1984). Sulfate is a marker species for
182 secondary formation processes (e.g. Yu et al., 2005; Huang et al., 2006). Na⁺ and Mg²⁺ are
183 tracers for sea salt aerosols. Ni and V are often used as tracers of ship emissions (Guo et al
184 2009; Mooibroek et al 2011). Al, Ca and Fe are components of crustal materials, tracking dust
185 aerosols (Zota et al 2009; Khan et al 2012).

186 The uncertainties for individual species were calculated as ($S_{ij} + DL/3$), where S_{ij} is the
187 analytical uncertainty of the species j in i^{th} sample and DL is method detection limit (Reff et
188 al., 2007). For data below their respective DLs, the concentration was set to be $0.5 \times DL$ and
189 the corresponding uncertainty was set at $(5/6) \times DL$ (Polissar et al., 1998; Norris et al., 2008).

190

191 **3 Results and discussion**

192 **3.1 Overview of the concentrations of aerosol speciation**

193 Table 1 shows the summary statistics for the concentrations of species measured for the

194 PMF analysis in a total of 100 samples collected in 2009. Among them, 51 were collected
195 from GZ and 49 were from NS. The individual sampling days are listed in Table S1, together
196 with the concentrations of PM_{2.5}, WSOC and HULIS in each sample.

197 **3.1.1 Major PM_{2.5} components**

198 Annual average PM_{2.5} concentration was higher in GZ (56 µg/m³) than NS (44 µg/m³).
199 They were lower than measurements obtained for the period of July 2007-August 2008 (GZ:
200 78 µg/m³, NS: 66 µg/m³) (Lin et al., 2010b). Seasonally, PM_{2.5} was higher in winter (GZ: 68
201 µg/m³, NS: 57 µg/m³) than summer (GZ: 39 µg/m³, NS: 25 µg/m³) (Fig. S5). Sulfate and
202 organic matter (OM) were the two most abundant components. OM accounted for 1/4 to 1/3
203 of PM_{2.5} mass in summer and winter (Fig. S5), indicating the importance of sources analysis
204 of OM. Sulfate, ammonium and oxalate are mainly from secondary formation processes.
205 Their average concentrations were comparable at GZ and NS. The average concentration of
206 EC was higher in GZ (2.89±1.66 µgC m⁻³) than in NS (2.12±1.11 µgC m⁻³). This is consistent
207 with the characteristics of the two sites and the fact that EC is mainly from vehicular
208 emissions in urban areas. GZ is an urban site and the influence of vehicular emissions is more
209 prominent than NS, the suburban site.

210 **3.1.2 WSOC and HULIS**

211 The concentrations of OC and WSOC were both higher at GZ than NS (Table 1). Annual
212 average concentrations of OC were 12.22 and 9.13 µgC m⁻³ in GZ and NS, and average
213 concentrations of WSOC were 4.86 and 3.94 µgC m⁻³ in GZ and NS, respectively. Figure 2
214 shows the temporal variation of the three sub-components of OC (i.e., WSOC_h, HULIS-C,
215 and WISOC) and the fraction of WSOC in OC. WSOC was a significant fraction of OC. On
216 annual average, WSOC made up 41.1±9.3% of OC in GZ and 47.1±15.6% of OC in NS. The
217 slightly higher WSOC proportion at NS than GZ was consistent with their suburban and urban
218 location characteristics, respectively. **NS as a suburban site is a receptor site for urban
219 pollution. Aerosols arriving at NS have undergone a certain degree of atmospheric processing,
220 thus OC in the aerosols would be more oxidized and more of the OC fraction would become
221 water-soluble. As such, WSOC/OC would be expected to be higher at NS than the urban site
222 GZ.** Seasonal variation of WSOC was observed for both sites, as shown in the time series
223 plots of the two components of WSOC (i.e., HULIS-C and WSOC_h) (Fig. 2): WSOC was
224 generally higher in autumn and winter (GZ seasonal averages, 5.95 and 6.01 µgC m⁻³; and NS,
225 5.32 and 4.96 µgC m⁻³) than spring and summer (GZ seasonal averages, 4.34 and 3.56 µgC

226 m^{-3} ; and NS, 3.95 and 2.52 $\mu\text{gC m}^{-3}$). Two winter days (16 November and 16 December) were
227 exceptional, with lower concentrations of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$, OC and WSOC as a result of rain events.
228 The variation of WSOC_h and WISOC among different samples will be discussed later in this
229 paper (Sect 3.2.4).

230 Unlike OC and WSOC that exhibit a concentration gradient between GZ and NS, the
231 concentrations of HULIS were similar at both sites (Table 1). Annual average concentrations
232 of HULIS were 4.83 and 4.71 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ in GZ and NS, respectively. The lack of an
233 urban-suburban gradient in HULIS concentration indicates that nonurban sources dominated
234 ambient HULIS. This finding was consistent with results from our previous study (Lin et al.,
235 2010a), where the annual average HULIS concentration in the suburban site NS was higher
236 than Tsuen Wan (an urban site in Hong Kong) in year 2007-2008. The difference in spatial
237 variation of HULIS and WSOC indicates HULIS and the rest of WSOC may differ in their
238 major contributing sources.

239 The annual contribution of HULIS to $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ was significant, $8.5\pm 3.5\%$ and $10.2\pm 4.5\%$ in
240 GZ and NS, respectively. In our previous study (Lin et al., 2010a), the annual average
241 HULIS/ $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ ratio was $\sim 10\%$ at both NS and Tsuen Wan for a one-year period from July
242 2007 to August 2008. The similar results obtained in this work confirm that HULIS is
243 abundant in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$. The fraction of HULIS-C in WSOC was fairly stable across all the samples
244 at these two sites: $48\pm 13\%$ for GZ and $57\pm 16\%$ for NS. These results are in broad agreement
245 with other studies showing that HULIS-C accounts for about half of WSOC (Krivacsy et al.,
246 2008 and references therein).

247

248 3.1.3 Biomass burning tracer compounds

249 The yearly average concentrations of levoglucosan were 115 and 75 ng m^{-3} in GZ and NS,
250 respectively, which means that the influence of BB emissions was more intense in GZ.
251 Similar temporal variations were observed in both locations (Fig. 3). January to March and
252 November to December were the periods when biomass burning was intense, with
253 levoglucosan concentration usually higher than 50 ng m^{-3} and the average concentration was
254 216 ng m^{-3} at GZ, and 166 ng m^{-3} at NS. The levoglucosan concentrations were high because
255 during the harvest season, BB in the form of agricultural waste combustion emits large
256 amount of aerosols into the atmosphere (Wang et al., 2007). From April to August, BB
257 activities were reduced, and levoglucosan concentration was usually around 50 ng m^{-3} in GZ,

258 and below 25 ng m^{-3} in NS. Wash-out of particles by increased precipitation in summer may
259 also be an important reason for decrease of levoglucosan concentration. Ding et al (2012)
260 reported similar temporal variation of levoglucosan in the PRD region in 2008, with a
261 summer average of 81.0 ng m^{-3} and an average of 310 ng m^{-3} in autumn and winter.

262 Two samples of very high levoglucosan concentration ($>800 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$) were observed: 827
263 and 814 ng m^{-3} in GZ and NS respectively on January 26. The two isomers, mannosan and
264 galactosan, were also higher on that day than all the other samples (Fig. S1). In addition,
265 elemental K was 3.19 and $5.25 \text{ } \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ in GZ and NS respectively, the highest among all
266 sampling days. High concentrations of all these BB tracers suggest that there may be local BB
267 activities on that day. That day was Chinese New Year, and we suspect festival-related
268 activities (e.g., fireworks) could also make significant contributions to $\text{PM}_{2.5}$.

269 The concentration level of levoglucosan was strongly influenced by air mass origin. For
270 all the sampling days, 96-hour air mass back trajectories were calculated using the NOAA
271 HYSPLIT model (<http://www.arl.noaa.gov/HYSPLIT.php>). They were classified into three
272 categories: marine, continental, and transitional, according to whether their routes traveled
273 over the South China Sea, the continent, or in-between. A total of 25 sampling days fell in the
274 marine air mass category, 12 sampling days in the continental air mass category and 16
275 sampling days in the transitional air mass category. The average concentration of
276 levoglucosan was generally lower on “marine days” (51 and 19 ng m^{-3} in GZ and NS,
277 respectively) than “continental days” (222 and 179 ng m^{-3} in GZ and NS, respectively).

278 Levoglucosan, mannosan and galactosan are isomers co-emitted from biomass burning.
279 The obvious correlations of these three species ($R^2 > 0.80$, Fig. S1) confirm similar sources of
280 the three isomers.

281

282 **3.2 Source identification and apportionment**

283 **3.2.1 Interspecies relationships between HULIS and other $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ constituents**

284 Interspecies relationships between HULIS and other $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ constituents were examined to
285 facilitate identification of HULIS sources and the coefficients of correlation (R^2) are listed in
286 Table S2. HULIS shows moderate positive correlation ($R^2 \geq 0.4$) with the BB tracers and with
287 the secondary inorganic species (i.e., SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^- , and NH_4^+). The correlations of HULIS with
288 levoglucosan and sulfate are also displayed in Fig. 4. Such positive correlation relationships

289 are consistent with the similar temporal variation trends seen in the time series plots of
 290 HULIS, levoglucosan and sulfate (Fig. 3). The temporal variation trend of HULIS is roughly
 291 similar to, but not exactly the same as, that of levoglucosan (Fig. 3). In winter, the trends of
 292 levoglucosan and HULIS were similar; when levoglucosan increased, HULIS also increased,
 293 indicating biomass burning was an important source for HULIS in winter. But throughout the
 294 summer when levoglucosan was continuously low, HULIS increased significantly on Jun 1
 295 and rose again in mid-August and maintained at an elevated level at both GZ and NS. In
 296 comparison, HULIS tracked sulfate well in summer as well as in winter. This indicates that
 297 secondary formation process is an important source of HULIS, especially in summer when
 298 biomass burning emissions were very low. In contrast, HULIS has low correlation with
 299 vehicle emission tracers (norhopane and hopane, R^2 are 0.19~0.38), dust elements (e.g. Al, Si,
 300 Ca, Fe, R^2 are 0.01~0.28), and ship emission tracers (V and Ni, R^2 are 0.01~0.11), suggesting
 301 that they may be less important sources of HULIS.

302 3.2.2 Determination of factors and source identification in PMF analysis

303 The PMF analysis was based on the combined data set of 100 samples at GZ and NS. The
 304 day, January 26th, when levoglucosan was over 800 ng m⁻³ at both sites, was excluded from
 305 the PMF input in order not to distort the result of source apportionment.

306 Two methods were used to determine the number of factors (source profiles). First, the IM
 307 value (maximum Individual column Mean), i.e., the maximum mean of the scaled residual of
 308 each species, was calculated for all the n samples (Lee et al., 1999):

$$309 \quad \text{IM} = \max_{j=1,\dots,m} \left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{e_{ij}}{s_{ij}} \right) \quad (1)$$

310 where e_{ij} is the residual of the concentration of j^{th} species in the i^{th} sample and s_{ij} is the input
 311 uncertainty of the j^{th} species' concentration of the i^{th} sample. IM indicates the least fit species.
 312 If IM drops dramatically when the number of factors is increased by 1, it indicates that the
 313 larger number of factors is more appropriate. For our data set, IM dropped dramatically when
 314 the number of factors increased from 5 to 6, and dropped slightly when the factor number was
 315 further increased from 6 to 9 (Fig. S2). Thus, the more suitable number of factors should be
 316 higher than 5.

317 The interpretability of the source profile and explained variation (EV) was another
 318 criterion, and this criterion was regarded as a key basis for determining the number of factors

319 (Liu et al., 2005; Shrivastava et al., 2007; Wang et al., 2012). Five to nine factors were tested
 320 and the six-factor solution was found to be optimum, yielding the most reasonable source
 321 profiles. The six-factor solution was verified to be stable through performing 100 bootstrap
 322 runs, as more than 88% of the runs produced the same factors. The EV profiles of the six
 323 factors are shown in Fig. 5. They are associated with the following six sources: (1) dust as
 324 signified by the dominant presence of Al, Si, Ca, Fe, and Ti; (2) chloride and nitrate dominant
 325 source; (3) mixed ship emissions & sea salt, indicated by the dominance of Na^+ , Mg^{2+} , V, and
 326 Ni; (4) secondary sulfate formation process indicated by the dominant presence of SO_4^{2-} ,
 327 NH_4^+ , and oxalate; (5) biomass burning source indicated by the three anhydrosugars and K; (6)
 328 vehicle emissions identified by EC, hopane, and norhopane. For the chloride and nitrate
 329 dominant source, 37% of NH_4^+ is present in this factor. In this data set, chloride is moderately
 330 correlated with NH_4^+ ($R^2 = 0.31$ at GZ and 0.30 in NS). Considering this, we suggest that this
 331 factor is possibly associated with the following partitioning reaction:



333 The interpretability of the resolved PMF factors is also examined by inspecting the
 334 apportionment of the major $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ components (EC, OC, SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^- , and NH_4^+) in the six
 335 resolved factors. The factor contributions to individual major $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ components were
 336 averaged for each site and presented and compared with the observed concentrations in Table
 337 S3. The modeled average concentrations of these major species deviate less than 7% from the
 338 measured values. The apportioned source categories for the different major components are
 339 overall reasonable. Take EC as an example, the EC concentrations are mostly accounted for
 340 by the three combustion factors, i.e., vehicular emissions (GZ: 45%, NS: 14%), biomass
 341 burning (GZ: 22%, NS: 23%), and ship emissions (GZ: 18%, NS: 43%). We also note that the
 342 HULIS-C/OC ratio in the BB factor was 0.16, in excellent agreement with the measured ratio
 343 (0.19 ± 0.03) reported for emissions of rice straw burning in a number of field and chamber
 344 experiments (Lin et al., 2010b).

345 **3.2.3 Source apportionment of HULIS-C**

346 HULIS is present in three of the six factors resolved by PMF, that is, secondary process,
 347 biomass burning, and ship emissions and sea salt aerosols. The other three factors did not
 348 contribute to HULIS. Table 2 shows the average factor contributions of HULIS-C. Figure 6
 349 shows the spatial and temporal variation of individual factor contributions to HULIS-C.

350 Overall, secondary formation process was the most important source of HULIS
351 throughout the year. On annual average, this factor contributed 69% ($1.76 \mu\text{gC m}^{-3}$) and 55%
352 ($1.37 \mu\text{gC m}^{-3}$) to HULIS-C in GZ and NS, and the seasonal average was in the range of
353 49-82% at the two sites, consistent with the high correlation between HULIS and the
354 secondary inorganic species shown earlier. Several secondary formation processes, such as
355 aqueous-phase oxidation and heterogeneous reactions, have been demonstrated in laboratory
356 or smog chamber studies to produce HULIS (e.g., Hoffer et al., 2004; Holmes and Petrucci,
357 2006; Surratt et al, 2008). Sulfation processes involving heterogeneous reactions of oxidation
358 products of biogenic volatile organic compounds (BVOCs) (e.g., isoprene, α -pinene, β -pinene,
359 and limonene, etc) with sulfate aerosol have been shown in both chamber and field studies to
360 form organosulfates e.g., Surratt et al., 2008), which are an important class of compounds in
361 the HULIS fraction (e.g., Lin et al., 2012b). Both sulfate aerosol and BVOCs are abundant in
362 PRD, a subtropical and economically more developed region in China. The higher emissions
363 of BVOCs in summer could possibly contribute to the higher HULIS concentrations in this
364 season. In addition to organosulfates, numerous other oxygenated or nitrated organic
365 compound formulas are reported to be HULIS constituents (Lin et al., 2012a), but their
366 formation processes or precursors are much less understood.

367 Biomass burning was also a significant contributor to HULIS-C with strong seasonal
368 variation. Its percent contributions in winter (GZ: 28%, NS: 20%) were roughly 2-3 times
369 those in summer (GZ: 11%, NS: 8%) while the mass contributions in winter (GZ: 1.02, NS:
370 $0.68 \mu\text{gC m}^{-3}$) were 5-6 times those in summer (GZ: 0.17, NS: $0.10 \mu\text{gC m}^{-3}$). The seasonal
371 contrast of BB contributions was a reflection of the seasonal patterns of BB activities in this
372 region. BB contributions were also significant in spring 2009 (GZ: 25%, NS: 21%).

373 The above source apportionment results are consistent with qualitative evidence by other
374 studies reporting that secondary formation process and BB were important HULIS sources
375 (Altieri et al., 2008; El Haddad et al., 2011; Lin et al, 2010a). However, it is an unexpected
376 result that this PMF analysis identifies ship emissions and sea salt factor as a source for
377 HULIS-C. There were no prior studies reporting such a HULIS source. Nor was this hinted by
378 the interspecies correlation analysis (Table S2).

379 The PMF analysis apportioned a seasonal average of HULIS-C in the range of 0.21-0.35
380 $\mu\text{gC m}^{-3}$ (7-19%) at GZ and 0.52-0.84 $\mu\text{gC m}^{-3}$ (21-44%) at NS to the ship emissions and sea
381 salt aerosols factor. The factor contributions at NS were consistently higher than those at GZ

382 in all seasons. As marked in Fig.1, a shipping lane links the few large coastal ports (Kwai
383 Chung Port in Hong Kong, Yantian and Shekou Ports in Shenzhen, Nansha Port in the estuary
384 of the Pearl River) and extends along the Pearl River to the further inland ports (Xinsha Port,
385 Huangpu Port and the Guangzhou Downtown Port). Ocean-going vessels usually stop at the
386 coastal ports in Hong Kong and Shenzhen while river vessels travel along the Pearl River to
387 deliver goods between the coastal and inland ports. Ng et al. (2012) examined SO₂ emissions
388 from shipping industries in PRD and found Kwai Chung, Yantian and Shekou to be the key
389 ship emissions spots, as the ocean-going vessels are much more significant emitters of PM
390 than river vessels due to their larger size and numbers. The closer proximity of the NS site to
391 the shipping lane supports the finding of the higher contributions of shipping emissions at this
392 site.

393 Chemical information also confirms that ship emissions contributed to HULIS when
394 summer NS sampling days under marine air mass influence were pooled together for
395 examination. This subset of sampling days were chosen as they were least influenced by the
396 other two sources of HULIS (i.e., secondary formation and BB activities). This can be seen in
397 Fig. 7, which shows the average factor contributions to HULIS-C under influence of different
398 air masses. The contribution from secondary formation process was much lower on ‘marine’
399 days (GZ: 1.05 μg m⁻³, NS: 0.44 μg m⁻³) than on ‘continental’ days (GZ: 2.35 μg m⁻³, NS: 2.22
400 μg m⁻³). BB contribution was also much lower on ‘marine’ days (GZ: 0.13 μg m⁻³, NS: 0.06
401 μg m⁻³) than on ‘continental’ days (GZ: 0.69 μg m⁻³, NS: 0.58 μg m⁻³). Both results could be
402 explained as a result of the clean marine air mass low in secondary aerosol precursor and in
403 pollution from BB sources. For the summer ‘marine’ days at NS, the correlation coefficient
404 (R²) of HULIS-C vs V (a tracer of residual oil combustion that is characteristic of ship
405 emissions (Kowalczyk et al., 1982; Chow and Watson, 2002)) was 0.51 while the correlation
406 between HULIS-C and Na⁺ was very weak (R² = 0.16) (Fig. 8). We note that the HULIS-C vs.
407 V correlation was nearly zero when the whole data set was considered, as contribution of
408 shipping emissions was masked by the other samples due to more significant contributions
409 from the secondary process and BB source. [The positive correlation between HULIS-C and V](#)
410 [and lack of correlation between HULIS-C and Na⁺ in the subset of the NS samples \(n = 16\)](#)
411 [implicates shipping emissions, not sea salt, as a source of HULIS. Since the number of data](#)
412 [points collected on the “marine” days in NS site is small, further studies are needed to collect](#)
413 [more ambient samples affected by ship emissions to confirm the link between residual oil](#)
414 [combustion emissions and HULIS.](#)

415 The contribution from the ship emissions and sea salt source in GZ, was higher under the
416 influence of marine air masses ($0.29 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) than under continental air masses ($0.15 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$).
417 But in NS, the average HULIS-C from ship emissions on ‘marine’ and ‘continental’ days were
418 similar (both were $0.36 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$). The significant difference between ‘marine’ and ‘continental’
419 days in GZ while no difference in NS are reasonable in light of their relative distance to the
420 container ports and the shipping lane.

421 Formation of HULIS during combustion of residual oil could be broadly envisioned as a
422 result of incomplete combustion, similar to formation of HULIS during BB. The
423 HULIS-C/OC ratios in these two combustion sources as resolved by the PMF analysis were
424 similar (~ 0.16), suggesting the HULIS contents in OC from these two types of combustion
425 aerosols are similar. It is interesting to note that vehicular emissions, the other combustion
426 source, had little contribution to HULIS. This could be explained as a result of much more
427 complete combustion and more advanced emission controls in vehicles. HULIS presence in
428 coal combustion source samples is also detected (unpublished result from our group),
429 supporting the suggestion that HULIS is commonly formed as a result of incomplete
430 combustion. *We note that sulfate appears in the ship emission source factor. This could be a
431 result of primary emissions from sulfur-containing fuel constituents in the residue oil or that
432 some of the primary ship emissions have been processed. As such, HULIS in the ship
433 emission factor could be partly secondary products of ship emissions atmospheric aging.*

434 **3.2.4 Source apportionment of WSOC_h and WISOC**

435 In the PMF analysis, WSOC_h and OC were included as input and consequently their
436 source apportionment can be derived. The source apportionment of WSOC and WISOC are
437 indirectly computed from individual factor source contributions of HULIS-C, WSOC_h, and
438 OC. Figure 7 shows the source apportionment results for HULIS-C, WSOC_h, WSOC, and
439 WISOC averaged for samples categorized by influencing air mass origins.

440 Hydrophilic WSOC was apportioned to all but one (the Cl^- and NO_3^- dominated factor)
441 factors resolved by PMF. Unlike HULIS-C, vehicular emissions were identified to be a
442 significant source to WSOC_h. The mass contribution of this source had little dependence on
443 air mass origins while significant urban-suburban gradient was recorded, with its levels at
444 GZ ($0.81\text{-}0.83 \mu\text{gC m}^{-3}$, 31-47%) much higher than at NS ($0.17\text{-}0.23 \mu\text{gC m}^{-3}$, 9-18%),
445 consistent with the site characteristics. The source contribution contrast of vehicular
446 emissions to HULIS-C and WSOC_h may reflect that high combustion efficiencies in

447 vehicles more likely produce smaller and therefore more hydrophilic WSOC. Ship emissions
448 and sea salt aerosol factor contributed similar amounts of WSOC_h (GZ: 0.21-0.43; NS:
449 ~0.55 $\mu\text{gC m}^{-3}$) and HULIS-C (GZ: 0.14-0.29; NS: ~0.36 $\mu\text{gC m}^{-3}$). BB also contributed
450 similar amounts of HULIS-C and WSOC_h among samples influenced by air masses of the
451 same origin, with the contributions much higher on ‘continental’ days (GZ: ~0.69 $\mu\text{gC m}^{-3}$
452 and NS: ~0.58 $\mu\text{gC m}^{-3}$) and ‘transitional’ days (GZ: ~0.70 $\mu\text{gC m}^{-3}$ and NS: ~0.56 $\mu\text{gC m}^{-3}$)
453 than on ‘marine’ days (GZ: ~0.13 $\mu\text{gC m}^{-3}$ and NS: ~0.06 $\mu\text{gC m}^{-3}$). The WSOC_h from
454 secondary formation process was ~0.7 at NS and ~0.74 $\mu\text{gC m}^{-3}$ at GZ on
455 ‘continental’/‘transitional’ days and 0.14 at NS and 0.33 $\mu\text{gC m}^{-3}$ at GZ on ‘marine’ days.
456 Secondary formation process produced more WSOC as HULIS-C than WSOC_h, with
457 HULIS-C approximately three times WSOC_h for all three types of sampling days. This
458 finding was in agreement with the observation by Miyazaki et al (2009). They reported that
459 when aerosols aged for 10 hours (the age was based on the NO_x/NO_y ratio), hydrophobic
460 WSOC (roughly equivalent to HULIS-C in this work) increased by a factor of 5, while
461 hydrophilic WSOC increased by only a factor of 2 to 3.

462 WSOC, the sum of HULIS-C and WSOC_h, was more frequently measured in past studies
463 (e.g., Huang et al., 2006; Kondo et al., 2007; Duong et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2012; Li et al.,
464 2013). Secondary formation and BB are two commonly recognized sources for WSOC
465 through field measurements. Our results confirm this consensus, with 32-56% of WSOC
466 accounted for by secondary formation and 6-25% by BB on sampling days under influence
467 of different air masses (Fig. 7).

468 WISOC was apportioned to all factors resolved by PMF. The dust factor was a very minor
469 contributor (<3%). The contributions from the other five factors were roughly comparable on
470 ‘continental’/‘transitional’ days while more varied on ‘marine’ days (Fig. 7). WISOC had
471 moderate correlations with EC, with $R^2 = 0.51$ at GZ and 0.74 at NS (Fig. S4), suggesting
472 primary combustion sources as the main suppliers of WISOC in PM_{2.5}. We note that a sizable
473 portion of WISOC was apportioned to the Cl⁻ and NO₃⁻ dominated factor. We are unclear
474 about the underlying source or formation processes.

475

476 **4 Summary and Conclusions**

477 This study is the first of its kind to apportion sources contributing to HULIS through PMF
478 modelling of PM_{2.5} major constituents and key source tracers. The observation sites are one

479 urban (GZ) and one suburban location (NS) in the Pearl River Delta, one of the economically
480 most developed region in China and also a region home to an active shipping industry. Six
481 source factors were identified. Among them, secondary process, biomass burning and residual
482 oil combustion (ship emissions) were found to contribute to HULIS. The secondary process
483 factor contributed most to HULIC-C, with an average seasonal contribution of 49-82% or an
484 average of ~70% on sampling days under influences of continental or transitional air masses.
485 Biomass burning was an important contributor in winter, contributing 20% and 28% of
486 HULIS-C in NS and GZ, respectively. Residual oil combustion from shipping was for the first
487 time identified to be an important primary source for HULIS, its contributions comparable or
488 exceeding those from BB at NS site due to its proximity to the container ports and shipping
489 lane in the region.

490 Vehicular emissions, unlike the other two combustion sources (i.e., residual oil
491 combustion and BB), was not a contributor to HULIS while this source was a supplier of the
492 hydrophilic WSOC. The contrast in contributions to HULIS by different combustion sources
493 led us to postulate that HULIS is a common group of products of inefficient combustion
494 processes while more efficient combustion processes (such as internal combustion in vehicles)
495 produces little HULIS. Future studies are suggested to focus on the mechanism of HULIS
496 formation and chemical characteristics from the three identified sources.

497

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506

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Table 1 Statistic summary for the ambient concentrations of major aerosol constituents, HULIS, elements and organic tracer compounds used in the PMF analysis.

Species name	GZ	GZ	NS	NS
	mean±standard variation	min-max	mean±standard variation	min-max
PM _{2.5} (µg m ⁻³) and carbon fractions (µgC m ⁻³)				
PM _{2.5}	56±30	8-132	44±27	4-103
OC	12.2±7.1	2.7-39.6	9.1±6.0	1.4-21.4
WSOC	4.9±2.5	1.0-10.7	3.9±2.5	1.0-10.4
HULIS	4.8±3.4	0.1-14.4	4.7±3.6	0.6-14.5
WSOC _h	2.31±0.98	0.88-4.63	1.46±0.80	0.10-3.66
WISOC ²	7.4±5.0	1.8-28.9	5.2±3.9	0.2-13.4
EC	2.9±1.7	1.0-11.9	2.1±1.1	0.2-4.6
Ions (µg m ⁻³)				
Na ⁺	0.39±0.25	BD-1.26 ³	0.39±0.21	0.10-1.02
NH ₄ ⁺	6.8±4.2	0.6-19.4	5.5±3.6	0.5-13.2
Mg ²⁺	0.061±0.060	BD-0.336	0.043±0.027	BD-0.142
Cl ⁻	1.2±1.0	BD-4.4	1.2±1.2	BD-5.2
nitrate	6.7±6.3	0.6-29.3	4.8±4.4	0.4-18.9
sulfate	13.4±6.8	1.4-27.3	12.2±7.2	2.4-30.5
oxalate	0.37±0.17	BD-0.81	0.41±0.17	BD-0.78
Trace elements (µg m ⁻³)				
Al	0.49±0.63	0.06-4.68	0.37±0.35	0.05-2.25
Si	0.9±1.5	0.1-11.4	0.68±0.83	0.06-5.50
K	0.91±0.57	0.22-2.89	0.78±0.62	0.05-2.22
Ca	0.23±0.25	0.03-1.85	0.15±0.13	0.03-0.70
Ti	0.036±0.047	0.005-0.351	0.031±0.029	0.002-0.166
V	0.0154±0.0092	BD-0.0383	0.0232±0.0096	0.0069-0.0545
Mn	0.048±0.027	BD-0.124	0.033±0.019	BD-0.091
Fe	0.49±0.48	0.09-3.54	0.30±0.26	0.03-1.63
Ni	0.0085±0.0041	BD-0.0204	0.0099±0.0038	0.0036-0.0189
Zn	0.38±0.20	0.07-1.01	0.27±0.17	BD-0.67
Pb	0.126±0.070	0.019-0.363	0.090±0.068	BD-0.313
Organic Tracers (ng m ⁻³)				
levoglucosan	115±90	18-366	75±79	3-336
mannosan	15±13	3-56	11±11	BD-43
galactosan	6.7±6.1	BD-26.3	5.6±5.0	BD-21.5
norhopane	1.5±1.0	0.3-4.2	0.43±0.26	0.06-1.48
hopane	1.62±0.94	0.36-4.47	0.68±0.35	0.16-2.17

¹ A total of 100 samples were included for the calculation of the statistic summary, excluding 2 samples (GZ Jan 26, NS Jan 26) not used in the PMF due to extremely high concentration of biomass burning tracers.

² WISOC: water-insoluble organic carbon

³ BD: Below detection limit

Table 2 Contribution to HULIS-C from individual sources and percentage of the total modelled HULIS-C

	Site	Average HULIS-C measured $\mu\text{gC m}^{-3}$	biomass burning $\mu\text{gC m}^{-3}$	Secondary sulfate formation process $\mu\text{gC m}^{-3}$	ship emissions & sea salt $\mu\text{gC m}^{-3}$
Mar-Apr	GZ	2.17±0.77	0.54 (25±20%)	1.36 (63±16%)	0.27 (12±14%)
	NS	2.45±0.65	0.52 (21±15%)	1.41 (58±14%)	0.52 (21±9%)
May-Aug	GZ	1.60±0.99	0.17 (11±10%)	1.12 (70±21%)	0.30 (19±12%)
	NS	1.32±1.37	0.10 (8±11%)	0.64 (49±25%)	0.58 (44±21%)
Sep-Oct	GZ	2.98±1.39	0.33 (11±7%)	2.44 (82±7%)	0.21 (7±8%)
	NS	3.62±2.22	0.32 (9±6%)	2.50 (69±16%)	0.80 (22±21%)
Nov-Feb	GZ	3.63±2.44	1.02 (28±14%)	2.26 (62±13%)	0.35 (10±13%)
	NS	3.32±2.02	0.68 (20±14%)	1.80 (54±25%)	0.84 (25±32%)
whole year	GZ	2.54±1.78	0.45 (18±15%)	1.76 (69±17%)	0.33 (13±13%)
	NS	2.44±1.92	0.33 (13±13%)	1.37 (55±23%)	0.77 (31±25%)

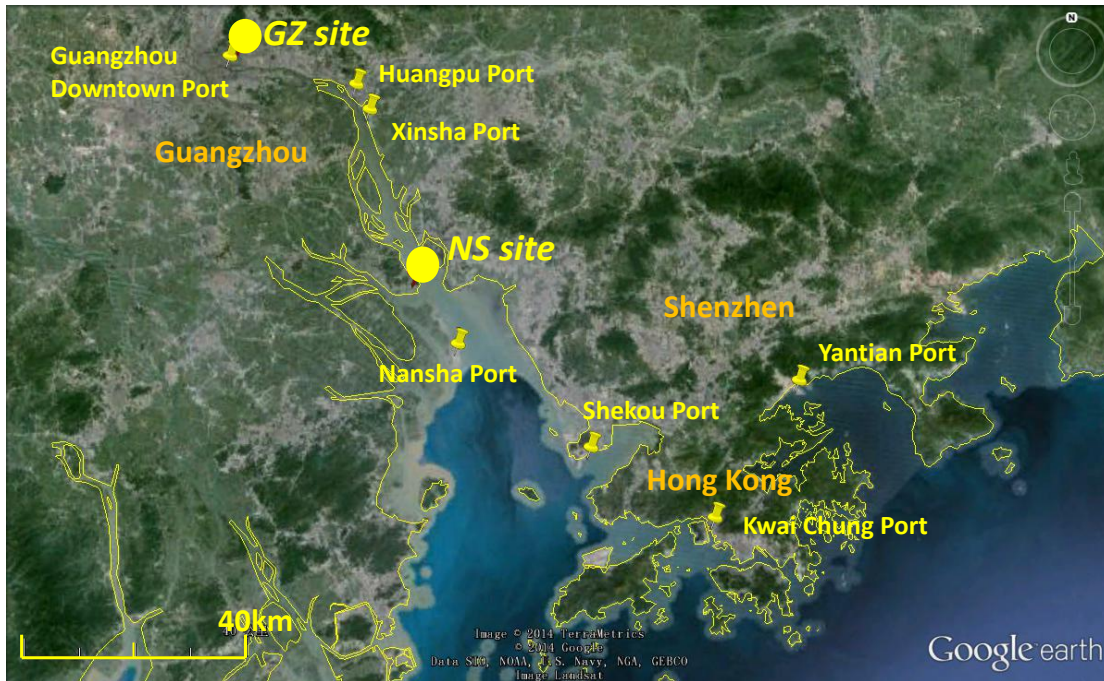


Fig.1. Location of the Guangzhou (GZ) and Nansha (NS) sampling sites

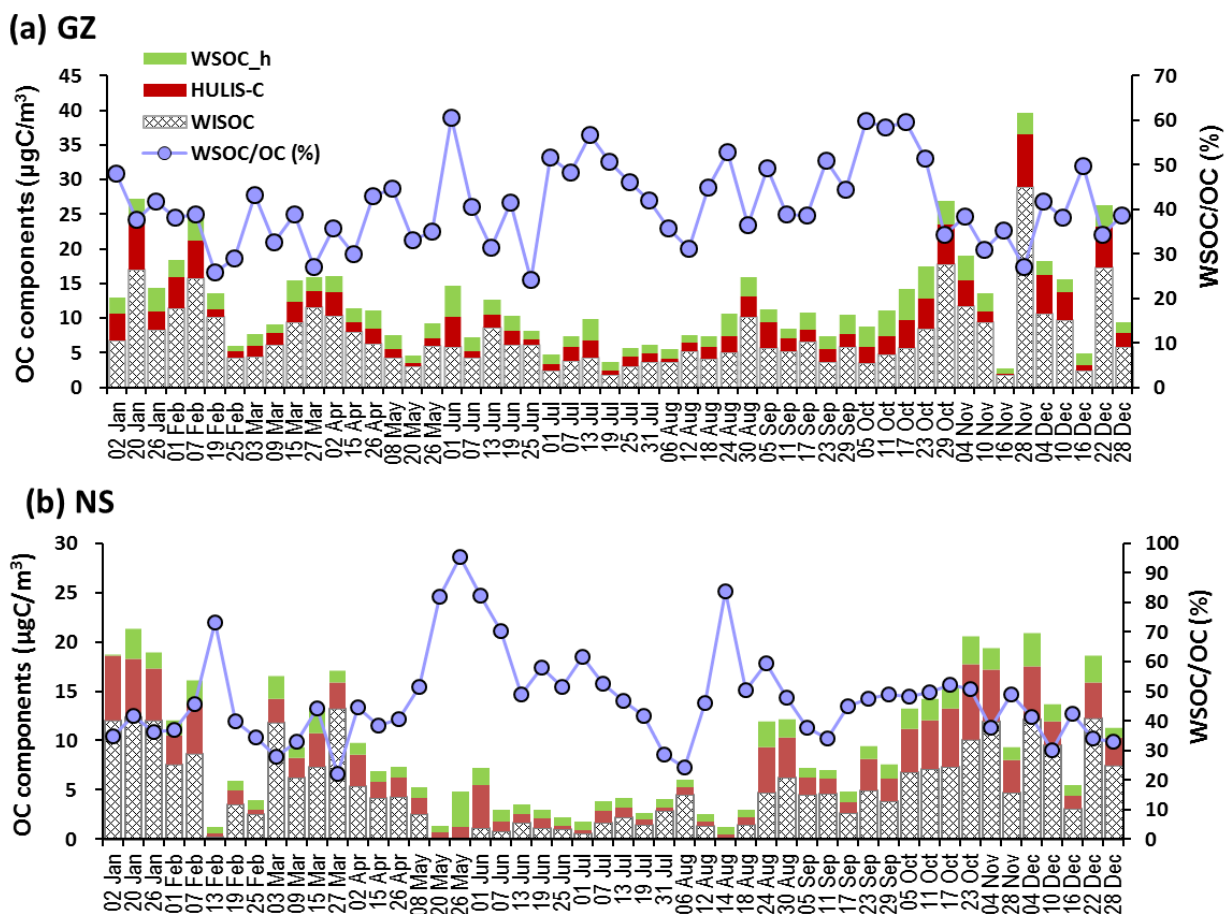


Fig. 2 Spatial and temporal variation of OC fractions (i.e., HULIS-C (HULIS-carbon), WSOC_h (hydrophilic water-soluble organic carbon), WISOC (water-insoluble organic carbon)) shown as stacked bars throughout the sampling year 2009. Data of the percent of WSOC in OC are shown as line curves.

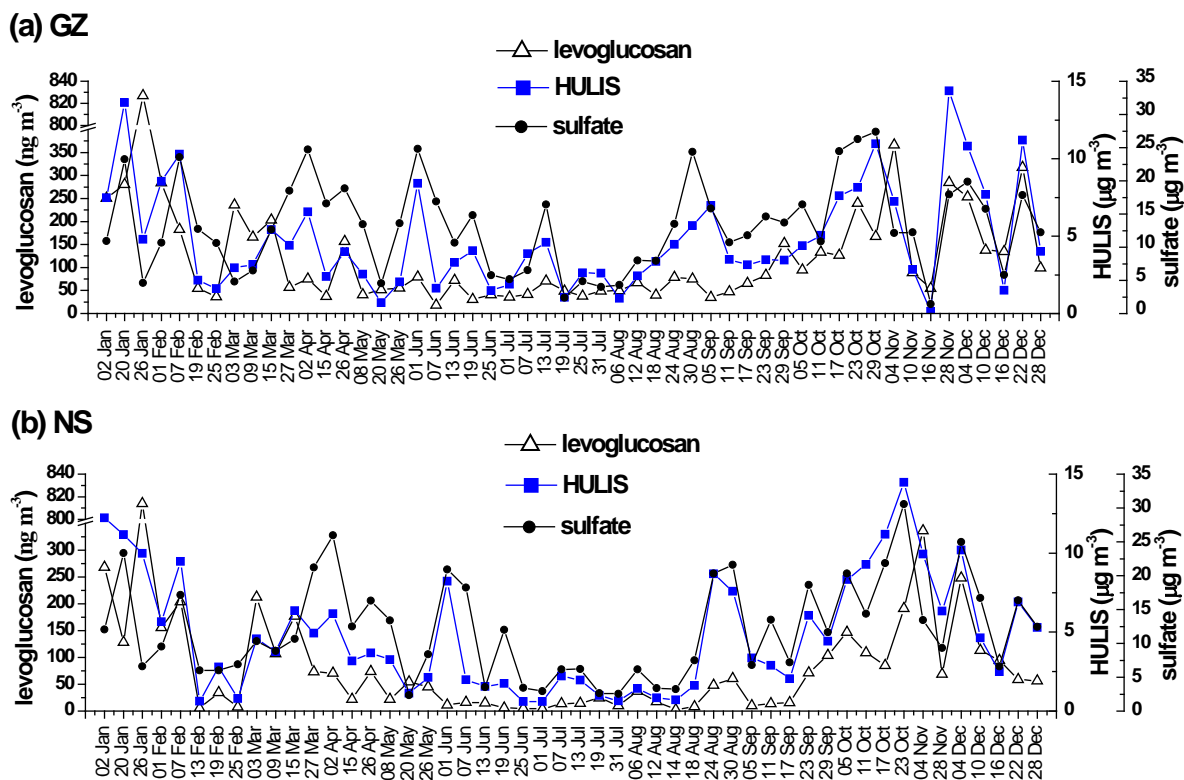


Fig. 3 Spatial and temporal variation of HULIS, levoglucosan, and sulfate throughout the sampling year 2009

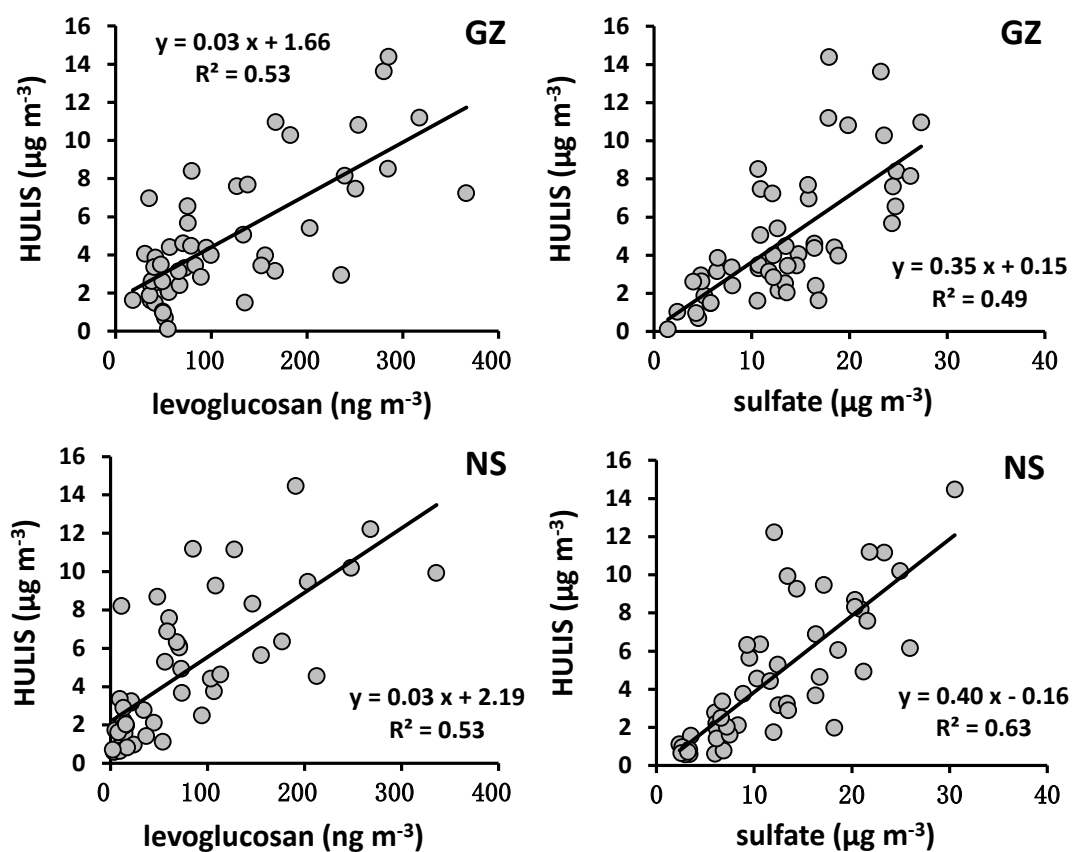


Fig. 4 Correlation of HULIS with levoglucosan and sulfate.

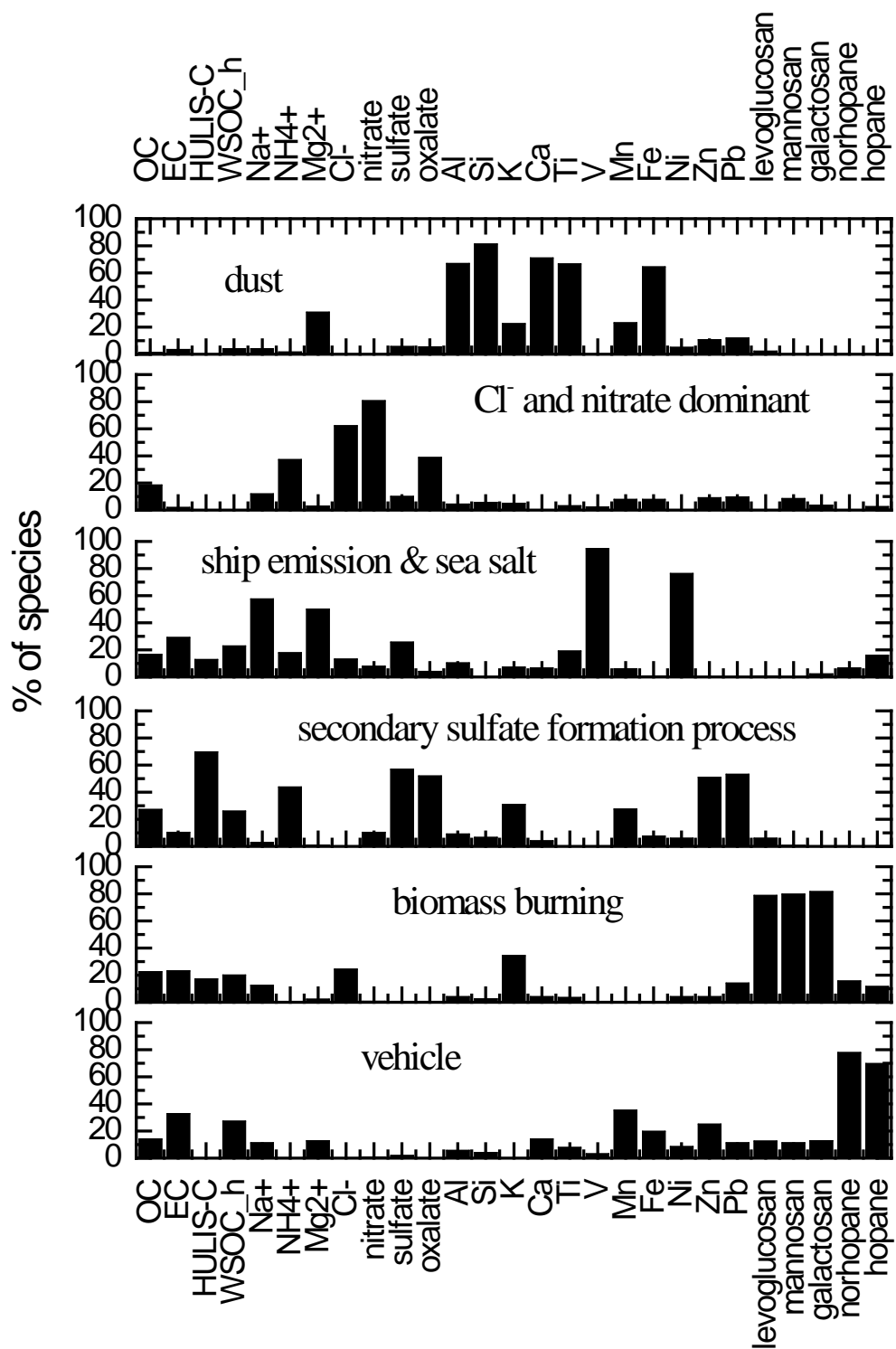


Fig. 5 Explained variation of the factors apportioned by PMF.

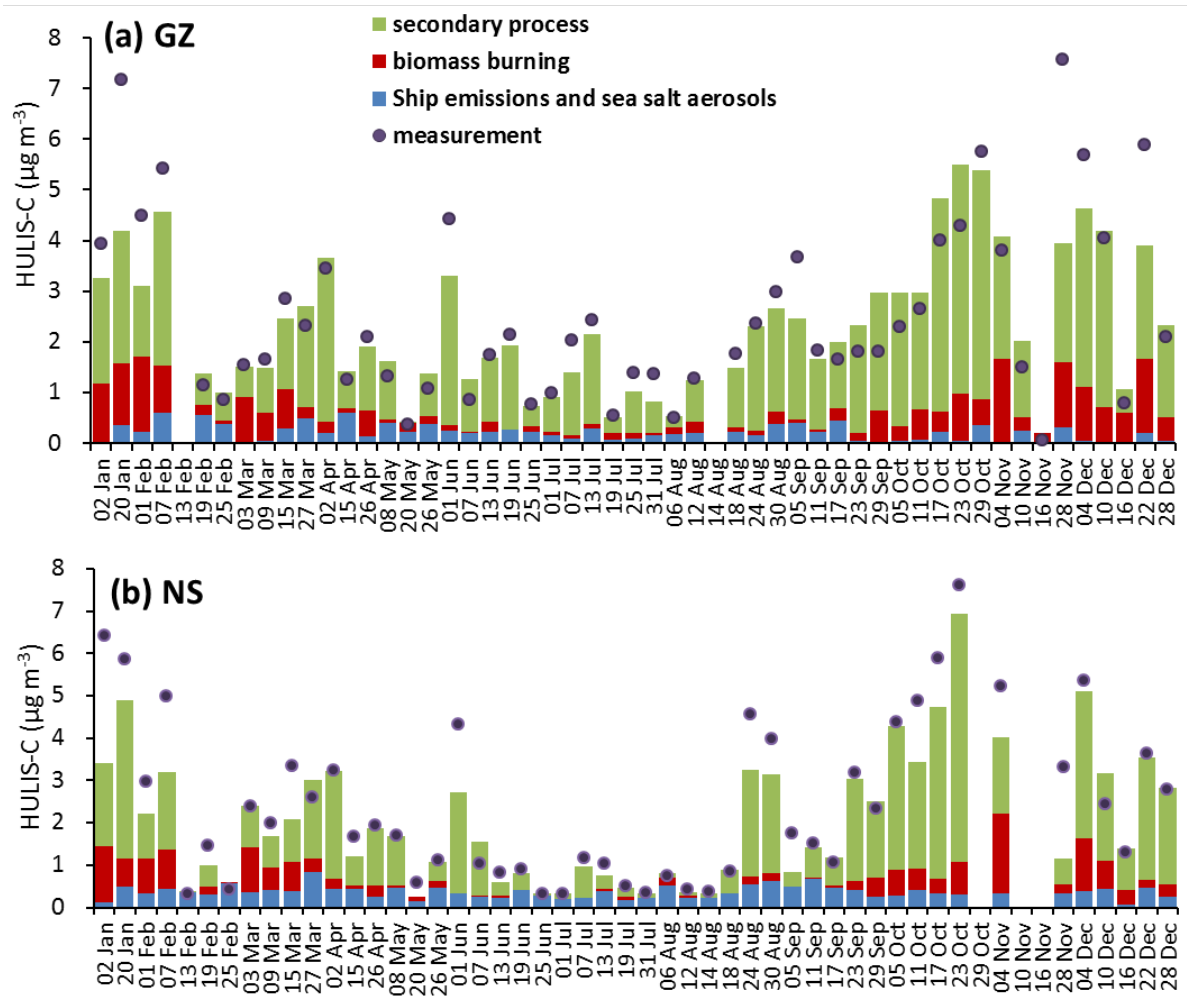


Fig. 6 Spatial and temporal variation of source contributions by each factor for HULIS-C

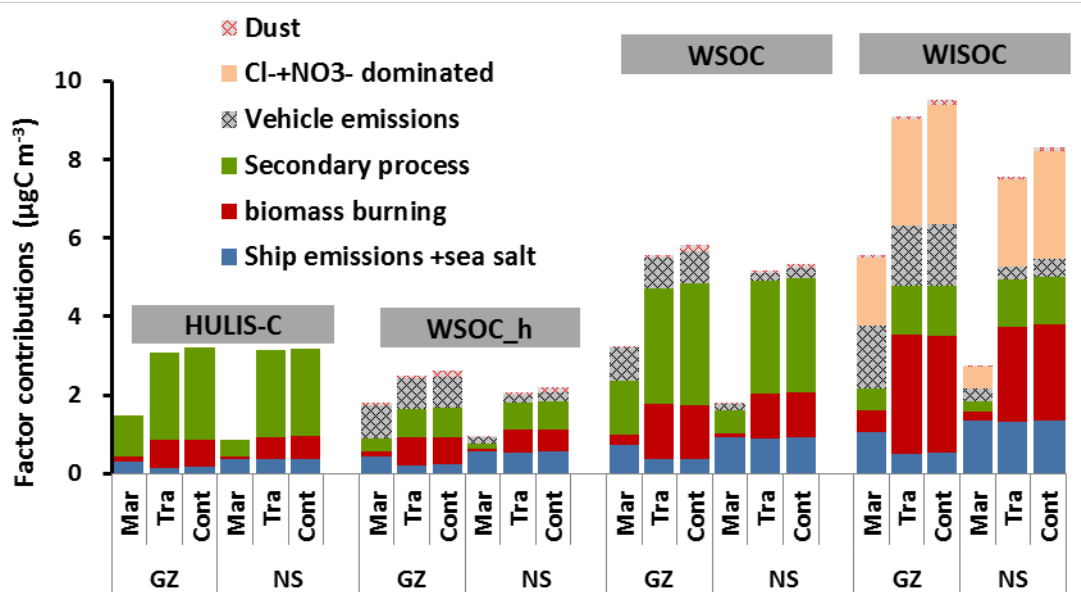


Fig. 7 Average source factor contributions to HULIS-C, hydrophilic WSOC (WSOC_h), WSOC, and water-insoluble organic carbon (WISOC) in samples under influence of different air masses (Mar=marine; Tra=transitional; Cont=continental).

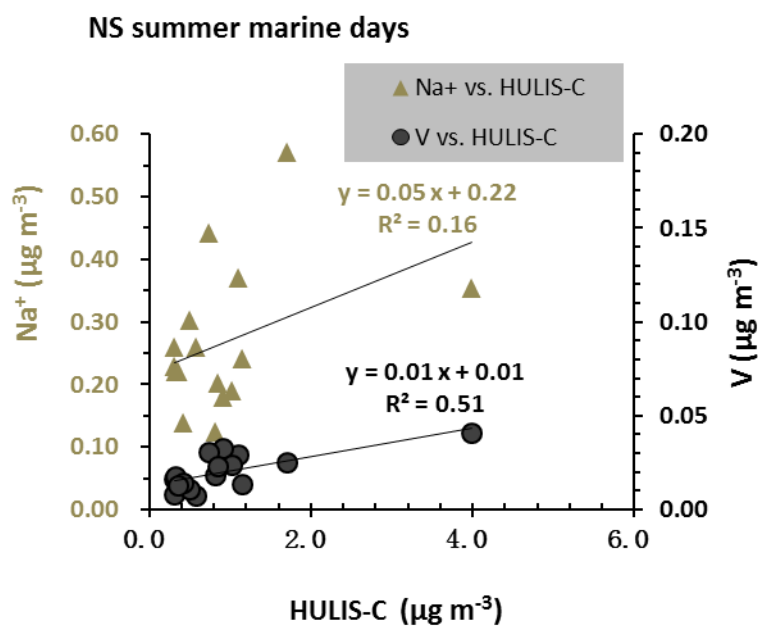


Fig. 8 Correlations of Na^+ and V with HULIS-C at NS on summer days under influences of air masses of marine origin