



Sources of humic-like substances in the Pearl River Delta

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Sources of humic-like substances in the Pearl River Delta, China: positive matrix factorization analysis of PM_{2.5} major components and source markers

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Abstract

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

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1 Introduction

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

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

Previous studies have identified biomass burning (BB) (Mayol-Bracero et al., 2002; Lukacs et al., 2007; Lin et al., 2010b) and secondary formation (Altieri et al., 2008; El Haddad et al., 2011; Lin et al., 2010a) as important sources of HULIS. One study also reported that HULIS could have a marine source (Cavalli et al., 2004). However, to the

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2.2 Chemical analysis

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

For the analysis of WSOC and HULIS, portions of the quartz filters were extracted using ultrapure water (> 18 MΩ cm) with the ratio of 1 mL water per 1 cm² filter. The extracts were filtered with a 0.45 μm Teflon filter (Millipore, Billerica, MA, USA) to remove insoluble materials before analysis. The WSOC content was determined using a TOC analyser equipped with a non-dispersive infrared (NDIR) detector (Shimadzu TOC-V_{CPH}, Japan). The detector response was calibrated with standard solutions of sucrose. Water-insoluble OC (WISOC) is then calculated to be the difference between OC and WSOC. The quantification of HULIS was described in detail in our previous studies (Lin et al., 2010a, b). Briefly, the HULIS fraction was isolated from the bulk aerosol water extract using a SPE cartridge (Oasis HLB, 30 μm, 60 mg/cartridge, Waters, USA). HULIS was retained on the SPE cartridge while the majority of inorganic ions, low molecular weight organic acids, and sugars were not retained. The HULIS fraction was then eluted from the SPE cartridge with methanol containing 2% (w/w) NH₃, followed by detection using an evaporative light scattering detector (ELSD). Since HULIS is the hydrophobic part of WSOC, we term the difference between WSOC and HULIS-C (the carbon content of HULIS) to be hydrophilic WSOC, abbreviated as WSOC_h hereafter.

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HULIS-C was calculated from HULIS mass divided by a factor of 1.9, as determined in previous studies (Kiss et al., 2002; Lin et al., 2010b). We note that HULIS-C in concentration unit of $\mu\text{g C m}^{-3}$, instead of HULIS mass concentration ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) was used as input in the PMF analysis and consequently the source apportionment results are in reference to HULIS-C.

The concentrations of levoglucosan, mannosan, and galactosan were measured by high-performance anion-exchange chromatography (HPAEC) with a pulsed amperometric detection (PAD) method (Engling et al., 2006). The measurement was carried out on a Dionex DX-500 series ion chromatograph (Sunnyvale, CA, USA), consisting of a LC30 Chromatography Oven, a GP40 Gradient Pump, and an ED40 Electrochemical Detector (with an Electrochemical Cell and a conventional gold electrode). The separation was achieved on a Dionex CarboPac PA10 analytical column (4×250 mm) with aqueous sodium hydroxide (NaOH) as eluent at a flow rate of 0.5 mL min^{-1} (Engling et al., 2006). The chromatographic conditions were: 10 % of aqueous solution containing 180 mM NaOH (A) and 90 % of ultrapure water (B) for 10 min; eluate A increased from 10 to 70 % in 20 min, then from 70 to 100 % in 0.1 min and maintained at 100 % for 9 min to wash the electrode. At the end of the analysis cycle, eluate A was decreased to 10 % in 0.1 min and kept at 10 % for 14 min to condition the column for the next sample. The detector was operated in integrating amperometric mode and its response was calibrated by authentic standards of the three sugars.

Hopanes, together with other nonpolar organic compounds (i.e., alkanes, polycyclic aromatic compounds), were quantified using a method that couples in-injection port thermal desorption with Gas Chromatography/Mass Spectrometric (TD-GC/MS) detection (Ho and Yu, 2004; Ho et al., 2008). A 2 cm^2 filter punch from each filter collected with the high-volume samplers was removed and used in the TD-GC/MS analysis. Two hopanes, C30 $\alpha\beta$ -hopane (abbreviated as hopane hereafter) and C29 $\alpha\beta$ -hopane (norhopane), are used in this work as vehicular emission tracers.

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2.3 PMF analysis

PMF has been used to identify and apportion sources of ambient aerosols in Hong Kong (Lee et al., 1999; Yuan et al., 2006a, b; Hu et al., 2010) and other locations around the world (e.g., Maykut et al., 2003; Kim and Hopke, 2004; Liu et al., 2005; Shrivastava et al., 2007; Wagener et al., 2012). EPA PMF 3.0 (Norris et al., 2008; Kim and Hopke, 2007; Kim et al., 2010) was used in this study. PMF relies on source tracers to associate resolved factors with known sources or processes. A total of 27 fitting species are used as input observable parameters, including HULIS-C, WSOC_h, three sugar species (levoglucosan, mannosan, and galactosan), hopane, norhopane, EC, OC, seven major ions (SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^- , Cl^- , oxalate, NH_4^+ , Na^+ , and Mg^{2+}), and eleven elements (Al, Si, K, Ca, Ti, V, Mn, Fe, Ni, Zn, Pb). Elements K and Ca measured by XRF were used as PMF inputs because of better accuracy than ionic K^+ and Ca^{2+} measured with the IC system. Levoglucosan is a tracer highly specific for BB emissions (Simoneit et al., 1999; Nolte et al., 2001; Engling et al., 2006). It has been widely used to estimate the contributions of BB emission to ambient aerosols in source apportionment studies (e.g., Wang et al., 2007; Holden et al., 2011; Harrison et al., 2012). Hopane and norhopane are specific tracers for vehicle emissions (e.g., Simoneit et al., 1984). Sulfate is a marker species for secondary formation processes (e.g. Yu et al., 2005; Huang et al., 2006). Na^+ and Mg^{2+} are tracers for sea salt aerosols. Ni and V are often used as tracers of ship emissions (Guo et al., 2009; Mooibroek et al., 2011). Al, Ca and Fe are components of crustal materials, tracking dust aerosols (Zota et al., 2009; Khan et al., 2012).

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

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3 Results and discussion

3.1 Overview of the concentrations of aerosol speciation

Table 1 shows the statistic summary for the concentrations of species measured for the PMF analysis in a total of 100 samples collected in 2009. Among them, 51 were collected from GZ and 49 were from NS. The individual sampling days are listed in Supplement Table S1, together with the concentrations of PM_{2.5}, WSOC and HULIS in each sample.

3.1.1 Major PM_{2.5} components

Sulfate, ammonium and oxalate are mainly from secondary formation processes. Their average concentrations were comparable at GZ and NS. The average concentration of EC was higher in GZ ($2.89 \pm 1.66 \mu\text{g C m}^{-3}$) than in NS ($2.12 \pm 1.11 \mu\text{g C m}^{-3}$). This is consistent with the characteristics of the two sites and the fact that EC is mainly from vehicular emissions in urban areas. GZ is an urban site and the influence of vehicular emissions is more prominent than NS, the suburban site.

3.1.2 WSOC and HULIS

The concentrations of OC and WSOC were both higher at GZ than NS (Table 1). Annual average concentrations of OC were 12.22 and $9.13 \mu\text{g C m}^{-3}$ in GZ and NS, and average concentrations of WSOC were 4.86 and $3.94 \mu\text{g C m}^{-3}$ in GZ and NS, respectively. Figure 2 shows the temporal variation of the three sub-components of OC (i.e., WSOC_h, HULIS-C, and WISOC) and the fraction of WSOC in OC. WSOC was a significant fraction of OC, accounting for as high as 61 % of OC at GZ and 96 % at NS. On annual average, WSOC made up $41.1 \pm 9.3\%$ of OC in GZ and $47.1 \pm 15.6\%$ of OC in NS. The slightly higher WSOC proportion at NS than GZ was consistent with their suburban and urban location characteristics, respectively. Obvious seasonal variation of WSOC was observed for both sites, as shown in the time series plots

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of the two components of WSOC (i.e., HULIS-C and WSOC_h) (Fig. 2): WSOC was higher in autumn and winter (GZ seasonal averages, 5.95 and 6.01 $\mu\text{g C m}^{-3}$; and NS, 5.32 and 4.96 $\mu\text{g C m}^{-3}$) than spring and summer (GZ seasonal averages, 4.34 and 3.56 $\mu\text{g C m}^{-3}$; and NS, 3.95 and 2.52 $\mu\text{g C m}^{-3}$). The variation of WSOC_h and WSOC among different samples will be discussed later in this paper (Sect 3.2.4).

Unlike OC and WSOC that exhibit a concentration gradient between GZ and NS, the concentrations of HULIS were similar at both sites (Table 1). Annual average concentrations of HULIS were 4.83 and 4.71 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ in GZ and NS, respectively. The lack of an urban-suburban gradient in HULIS concentration indicates that nonurban sources dominated ambient HULIS. This finding was consistent with results from our previous study (Lin et al., 2010a), where the annual average HULIS concentration in the suburban site NS was higher than Tsuen Wan (an urban site in Hong Kong) in year 2007/08. The difference in spatial variation of HULIS and WSOC indicates HULIS and WSOC may differ in their major contributing sources.

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

The time series of HULIS concentration in GZ and NS are shown in Fig. 3, together with those of levoglucosan and sulfate. The temporal variation trend of HULIS is roughly similar to, but not exactly the same as, that of levoglucosan (Fig. 3). In winter, the trends of levoglucosan and HULIS were similar; when levoglucosan increased, HULIS also increased, indicating biomass burning was an important source for HULIS in winter. But throughout the summer when levoglucosan was continuously low, HULIS increased significantly on June 1 and rose again in mid-August and maintained at an elevated

level at both GZ and NS. In comparison, HULIS tracked sulfate well in summer as well as in winter. This indicates that secondary formation process is an important source of HULIS, especially in summer when biomass burning emissions were very low.

3.1.3 Biomass burning tracer compounds

5 The yearly average concentrations of levoglucosan were 115 and 75 ng m⁻³ in GZ and NS, respectively, which means that the influence of BB emissions was more intense in GZ. Similar temporal variations were observed in both locations (Fig. 3). January to March and November to December were the periods when biomass burning was intense, with levoglucosan concentration usually higher than 50 ng m⁻³ and the average concentration was 216 ng m⁻³ at GZ, and 166 ng m⁻³ at NS. The levoglucosan concentrations were high because during the harvest season, BB in the form of agricultural waste combustion emits large amount of aerosols into the atmosphere (Wang et al., 2007). From April to August, BB activities were reduced, and levoglucosan concentration was usually around 50 ng m⁻³ in GZ, and below 25 ng m⁻³ in NS. Wash-out of particles by increased precipitation in summer may also be an important reason for decrease of levoglucosan concentration. Ding et al. (2012) reported similar temporal variation of levoglucosan in the PRD region in 2008, with a summer average of 81.0 ng m⁻³ and an average of 310 ng m⁻³ in autumn and winter.

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

25 The concentration level of levoglucosan was strongly influenced by air mass origin. For all the sampling days, 96 h air mass back trajectories were calculated using the

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NOAA HYSPLIT model (<http://ready.arl.noaa.gov/HYSPLIT.php>). They were classified into three categories: marine, continental, and transitional, according to whether their routes traveled over the South China Sea, the continent, or in-between. A total of 25 sampling days fell in the marine air mass category, 12 sampling days in the continental air mass category and 16 sampling days in the transitional air mass category. The average concentration of levoglucosan was generally lower on “marine days” (51 and 19 ng m⁻³ in GZ and NS, respectively) than “continental days” (222 and 179 ng m⁻³ in GZ and NS, respectively).

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

3.2 Source identification and apportionment

3.2.1 Interspecies relationships between HULIS and other PM_{2.5} constituents

Interspecies relationships between HULIS and other PM_{2.5} constituents were examined to facilitate identification of HULIS sources and the coefficients of correlation (R^2) are listed in Supplement Table S2. HULIS shows moderate positive correlation ($R^2 \geq 0.4$) with the BB tracers and with the secondary inorganic species (i.e., SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻, and NH₄⁺). The correlations of HULIS with levoglucosan and sulfate are also displayed in Fig. 4. Such positive correlation relationships are consistent with the similar temporal variation trends seen in the time series plots of HULIS, levoglucosan and sulfate (Fig. 3). They implicate secondary formation process and BB as significant sources of HULIS. In contrast, HULIS has low correlation with vehicle emission tracers (norhopane and hopane), dust elements (e.g. Al, Si, Ca, Fe), and ship emission tracers (V and Ni), suggesting that they may be less important sources of HULIS.

3.2.2 Determination of factors and source identification in PMF analysis

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

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

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

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

The interpretability of the source profile and explained variation (EV) was another criterion, and this criterion was regarded as a key basis for determining the number of factors (Liu et al., 2005; Shrivastava et al., 2007; Wang et al., 2012). Five to nine factors were tested and the six-factor solution was found to be optimum, yielding the most reasonable source profiles. The six-factor solution was verified to be stable through performing 100 bootstrap runs, as more than 88 % of the runs produced the same factors. The EV profiles of the six factors are shown in Fig. 5. They are associated with the following six sources: (1) dust as signified by the dominant presence of Al, Si, Ca, Fe, and Ti, (2) chloride and nitrate dominant source, (3) mixed ship emissions and sea salt, indicated by the dominance of Na^+ , Mg^{2+} , V, and Ni, (4) secondary sulfate formation process indicated by the dominant presence of SO_4^{2-} , NH_4^+ , and oxalate, (5)

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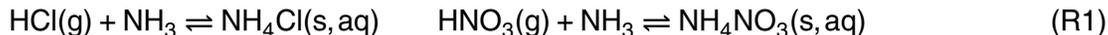
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biomass burning source indicated by the three anhydrosugars and K, (6) vehicle emissions identified by EC, hopane, and norhopane. For the chloride and nitrate dominant source, 37 % of NH_4^+ is present in this factor. In this data set, chloride is moderately correlated with NH_4^+ ($R^2 = 0.31$ at GZ and 0.30 in NS). Considering this, we suggest that this factor is possibly associated with the following partitioning reaction:



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

3.2.3 Source apportionment of HULIS-C

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

Overall, secondary formation process was the most important source of HULIS throughout the year. On annual average, this factor contributed 69 % ($1.76 \mu\text{g C m}^{-3}$)

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and WSOC_h among samples influenced by air masses of the same origin, with the contributions much higher on “continental” days (GZ: $\sim 0.69 \mu\text{g C m}^{-3}$ and NS: $\sim 0.58 \mu\text{g C m}^{-3}$) and “transitional” days (GZ: $\sim 0.70 \mu\text{g C m}^{-3}$ and NS: $\sim 0.56 \mu\text{g C m}^{-3}$) than on “marine” days (GZ: $\sim 0.13 \mu\text{g C m}^{-3}$ and NS: $\sim 0.06 \mu\text{g C m}^{-3}$). The WSOC_h from secondary formation process was ~ 0.7 at NS and $\sim 0.74 \mu\text{g C m}^{-3}$ at GZ on “continental”/“transitional” days and 0.14 at NS and $0.33 \mu\text{g C m}^{-3}$ at GZ on “marine” days. Secondary formation process produced more WSOC as HULIS-C than WSOC_h, with HULIS-C approximately three times WSOC_h for all three types of sampling days. This finding was in agreement with the observation by Miyazaki et al. (2009). They reported that when aerosols aged for 10 h (the age was based on the NO_x/NO_y ratio), hydrophobic WSOC (roughly equivalent to HULIS-C in this work) increased by a factor of 5, while hydrophilic WSOC increased by only a factor of 2 to 3.

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

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

4 Summary and conclusions

This study is the first of its kind to apportion sources contributing to HULIS through PMF modelling of PM_{2.5} major constituents and key source tracers. The observation sites are one urban (GZ) and one suburban location (NS) in the Pearl River Delta, one of the economically most developed region in China and also a region home to an active shipping industry. Six source factors were identified. Among them, secondary process, biomass burning and residual oil combustion (ship emissions) were found to contribute to HULIS. The secondary process factor contributed most to HULIC-C, with an average seasonal contribution of 49–82 % or an average of ~ 70 % on sampling days under influences of continental or transitional air masses. Biomass burning was an important contributor in winter, contributing 20 and 28 % of HULIS-C in Nansha and Guangzhou, respectively. Residual oil combustion from shipping was for the first time identified to be an important primary source for HULIS, its contributions comparable or exceeding those from BB at NS site due to its proximity to the container ports and shipping lane in the region.

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

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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	NS
(µg C m ⁻³ for WSOC, WSOC_h, WISOC, OC, and EC and µg m ⁻³ for other species)		
PM _{2.5}	55.5 ± 29.8 (8.5–131.9) ^a	44.3 ± 26.6 (3.82–103.0)
OC	12.22 ± 7.12 (2.73–39.58)	9.13 ± 6.01 (1.36–21.43)
WSOC	4.86 ± 2.53 (0.96–10.71)	3.94 ± 2.50 (0.99–10.43)
HULIS	4.83 ± 3.39 (0.12–14.38)	4.71 ± 3.64 (0.59–14.47)
WSOC_h	2.31 ± 0.98 (0.88–4.63)	1.46 ± 0.80 (0.10–3.66)
WISOC ^b	7.36 ± 5.01 (1.76–28.87)	5.20 ± 3.92 (0.23–13.36)
EC	2.89 ± 1.66 (1.03–11.91)	2.12 ± 1.11 (0.19–4.58)
Na ⁺	0.39 ± 0.25 (BD–1.26) ^c	0.39 ± 0.21 (0.10–1.02)
NH ₄ ⁺	6.81 ± 4.23 (0.59–19.42)	5.55 ± 3.59 (0.49–13.19)
Mg ²⁺	0.06 ± 0.06 (BD–0.34)	0.04 ± 0.03 (BD–0.14)
Cl ⁻	1.24 ± 1.04 (BD–4.38)	1.23 ± 1.19 (BD–5.18)
NO ₃ ⁻	6.71 ± 6.25 (0.60–29.25)	4.85 ± 4.43 (0.41–18.95)
SO ₄ ²⁻	13.39 ± 6.79 (1.41–27.35)	12.15 ± 7.21 (2.35–30.55)
C ₂ O ₄ ²⁻	0.37 ± 0.17 (BD–0.81)	0.41 ± 0.17 (BD–0.78)
Al	0.49 ± 0.63 (0.06–4.68)	0.37 ± 0.35 (0.05–2.25)
Si	0.92 ± 1.54 (0.14–11.35)	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	0.04 ± 0.05 (0.01–0.35)	0.03 ± 0.03 (0.00–0.17)
V	0.02 ± 0.01 (BD–0.04)	0.02 ± 0.01 (0.01–0.05)
Mn	0.05 ± 0.03 (BD–0.12)	0.03 ± 0.02 (BD–0.09)
Fe	0.49 ± 0.48 (0.09–3.54)	0.30 ± 0.26 (0.03–1.63)
Ni	0.01 ± 0.00 (BD–0.02)	0.01 ± 0.00 (0.00–0.02)
Zn	0.38 ± 0.20 (0.07–1.01)	0.27 ± 0.17 (BD–0.67)
Pb	0.13 ± 0.07 (0.02–0.36)	0.09 ± 0.07 (BD–0.31)
Biomass burning and vehicle emission organic tracers (ng m ⁻³)		
Levogluconan	115.4 ± 89.6 (17.90–366.5)	75.0 ± 79.1 (2.64–336.2)
Mannosan	14.9 ± 12.9 (2.79–55.9)	10.7 ± 10.5 (BD–43.4)
Galactosan	6.68 ± 6.10 (BD–26.25)	5.63 ± 5.03 (BD–21.5)
Norhopane	1.48 ± 1.03 (0.26–4.24)	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)

^a mean ± standard deviation (min–max). 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;

^b WISOC: water-insoluble organic carbon;

^c BD: below detection limit.

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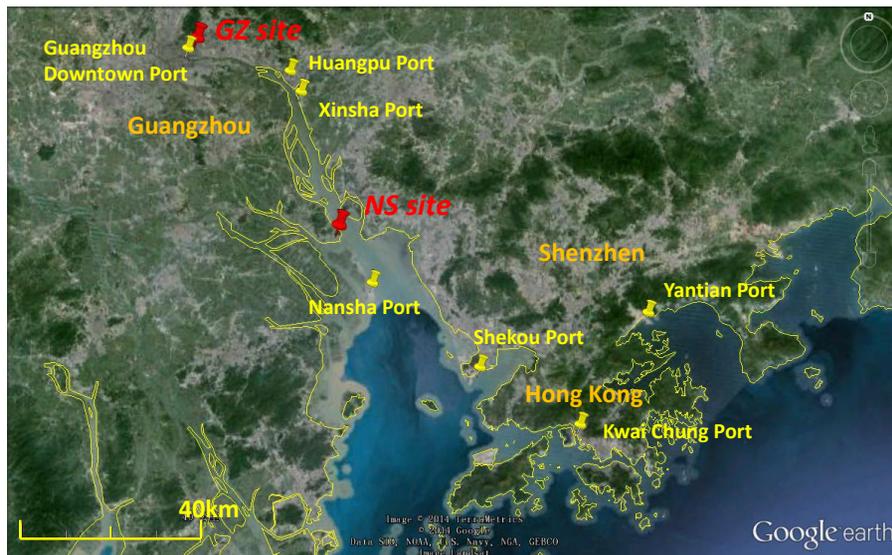


Figure 1. Location of the Guangzhou (GZ) and Nansha (NS) sampling sites.

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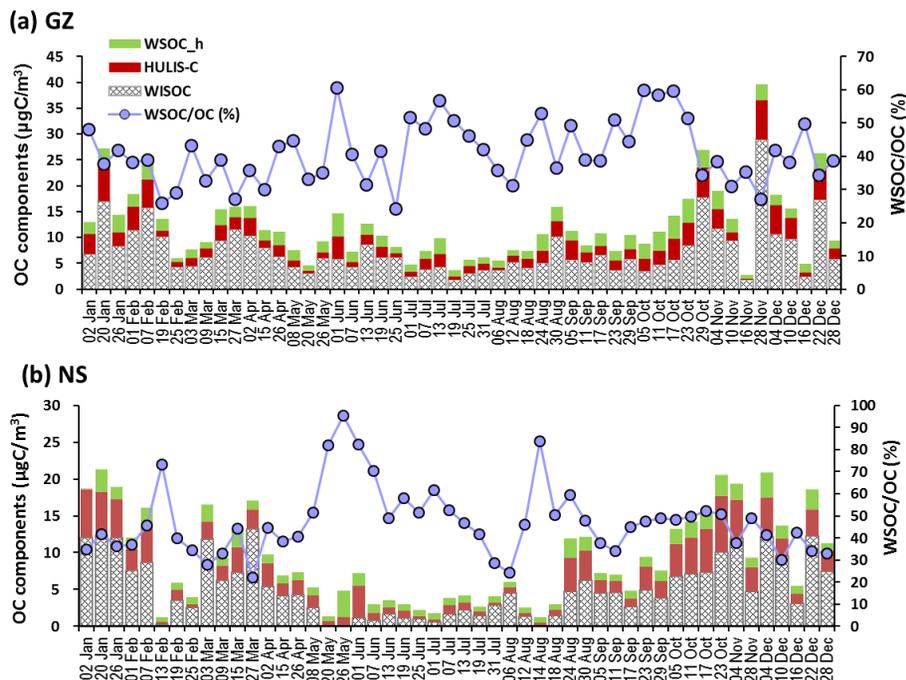


Figure 2. Spatial and temporal variation of OC fractions: HULIS-C (HULIS-carbon), WSOC_h (hydrophilic water-soluble organic carbon), WISOC (water-insoluble organic carbon) throughout the sampling year 2009.

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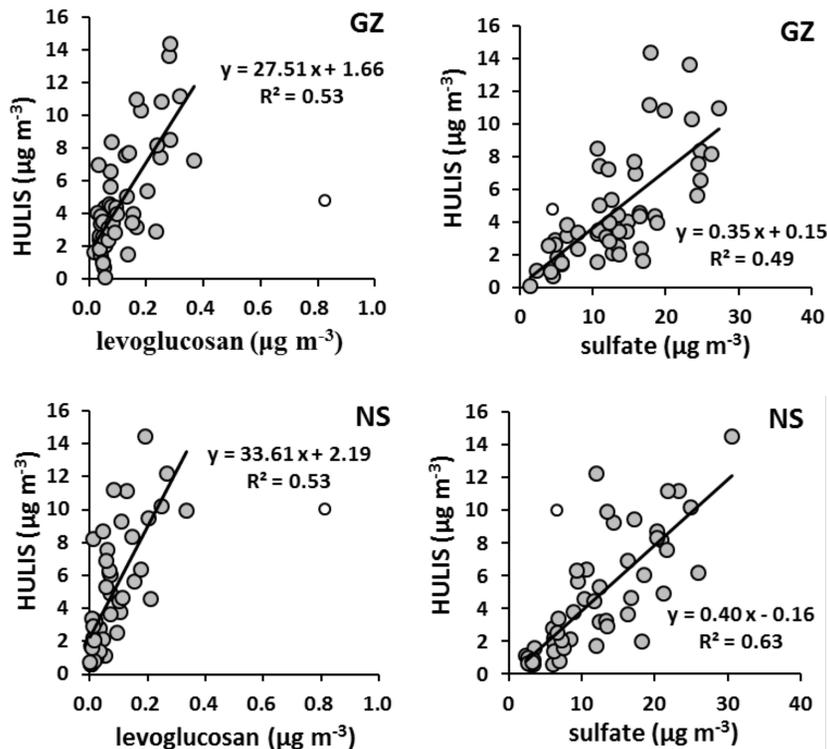


Figure 4. Correlation of HULIS with levoglucosan and sulfate. The open circles represent the points which were not used as input for the PMF analysis (GZ January 26, NS January 26, because of extremely high levoglucosan). The R^2 were calculated excluding these 2 points.

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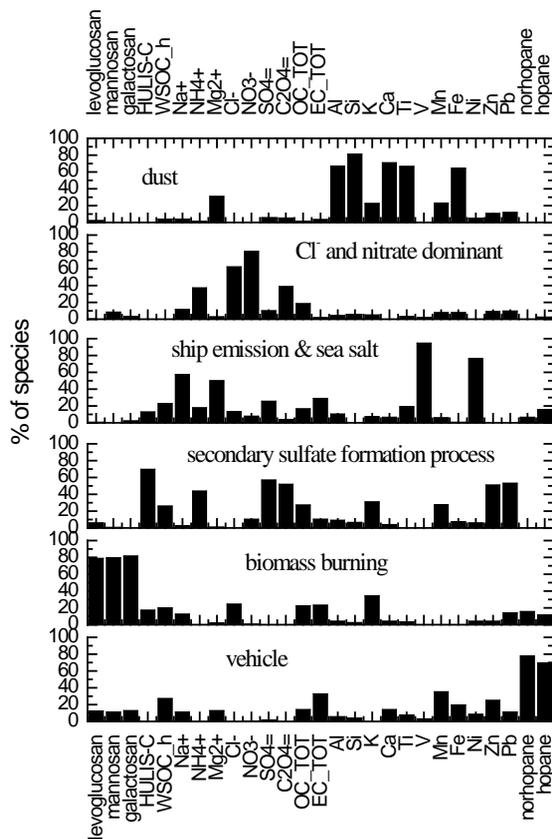


Figure 5. Explained variation of the factors apportioned by PMF.

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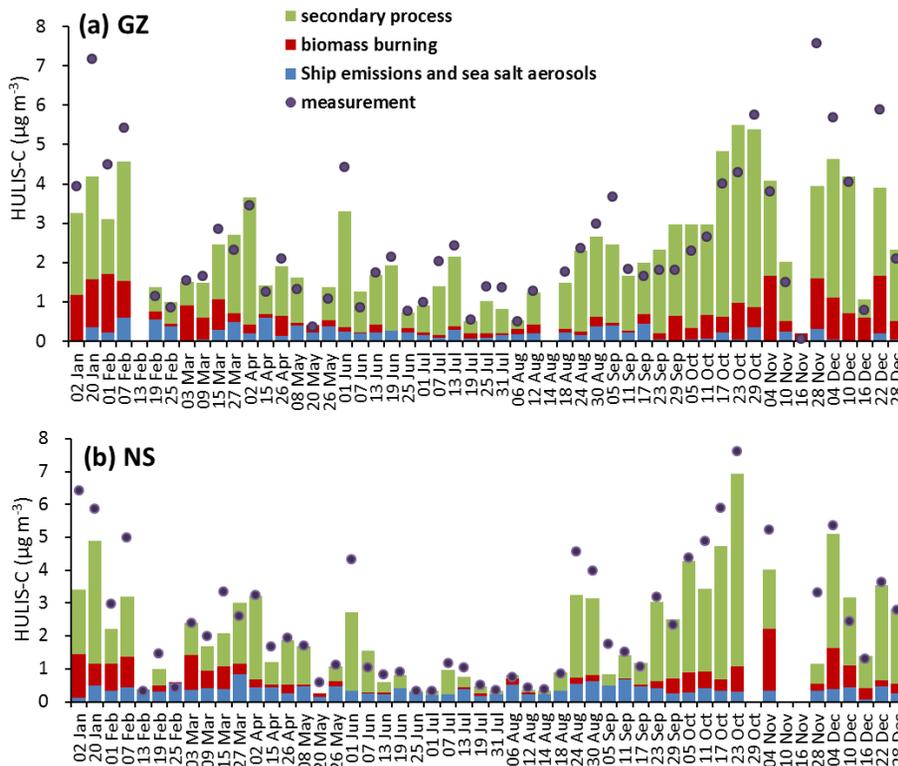


Figure 6. Spatial and temporal variation of source contributions by each factor for HULIS-C.

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Sources of humic-like substances in the Pearl River Delta

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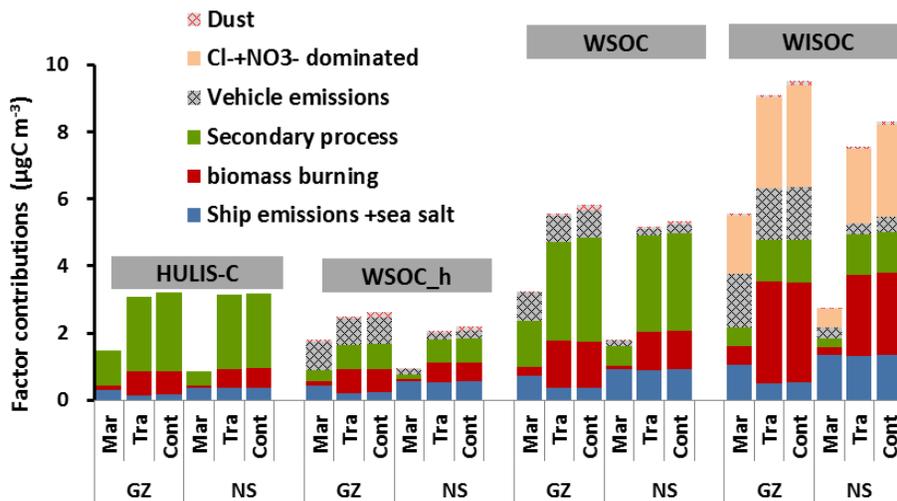


Figure 7. Average source factor contributions to HULIS-C, hydrophilic WSOC (WSOC_h), WSOC, and water-insoluble organic carbon (WISOC) in samples under influence of different air masses (Mar = marine; Tra = transitional; Cont = continental).

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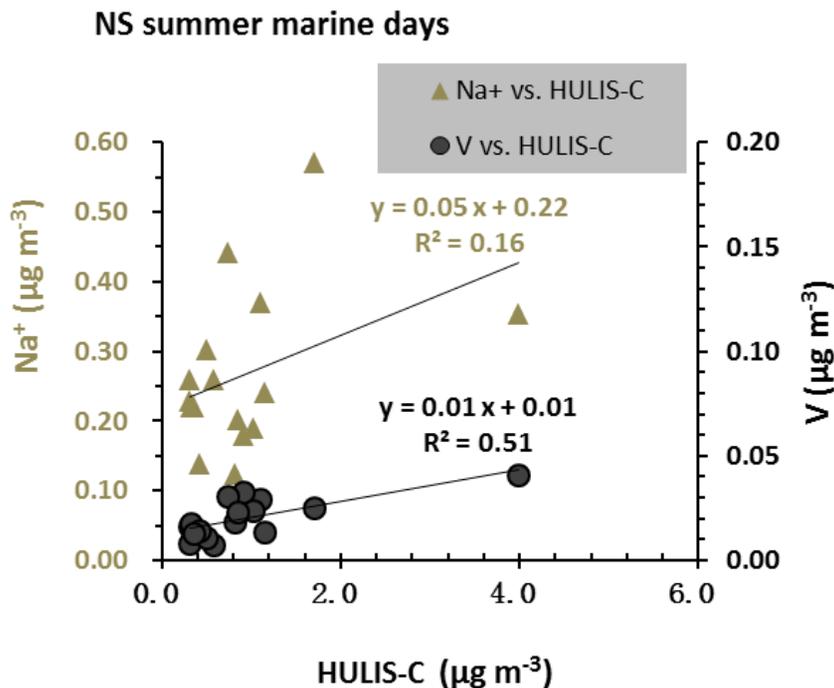


Figure 8. Correlations of Na⁺ and V with HULIS-C at NS on summer days under influences of air masses of marine origin.