1	Effect of biomass burning over the western North Pacific Rim: wintertime maxima of
2	anhydrosugars in ambient aerosols from Okinawa
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6 Abstract

7 Biomass burning (BB) largely modifies the chemical composition of atmospheric 8 aerosols on the globe. We collected aerosol samples (TSP) at Cape Hedo, subtropical 9 Okinawa Island from October 2009 to February 2012 to study anhydrosugars as BB tracers. 10 Levoglucosan was detected as the dominant anhydrosugar followed by its isomers, mannosan and galactosan. We found a clear seasonal trend of levoglucosan and mannosan 11 12 with winter maxima and summer minima. Positive correlation was found between levoglucosan and nss-K⁺ (r = 0.38, p < 0.001); the latter is another BB tracer. The analyses 13 14 of air mass trajectories and fire spots demonstrated that the seasonal variations of 15 anhydrsosugsars are caused by long-range transport of BB emissions from the Asian 16 continent. We found winter maxima of anhydrosugars, which may be associated with open 17 burning and domestic heating and cooking in north and northeast China, Mongolia and 18 Russia and with the enhanced westerly. The monthly averaged levoglucosan/mannosan 19 ratios were lower (2.1-4.8) in May–June and higher (13.3-13.9) in November–December. 20 The lower values may be associated with softwood burning in north China, Korea and 21 southwest Japan whereas the higher values are probably caused by agriculture waste 22 burning of maize straw in the North China Plain. Anhydrosugars comprised 0.22% of 23 water-soluble organic carbon (WSOC) and 0.13% of organic carbon (OC). The highest 24 values to WSOC (0.37%) and OC (0.25%) were found in winter, again indicating an 25 important BB contribution to Okinawa aerosols in winter. This study provides useful 26 information to better understand the effect of East Asian biomass burning on the air quality 27 in the western North Pacific Rim.

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29 Keywords: biomass burning, levoglucosan, burning substrates, aerosols, East Asia

30 1 Introduction

31 Biomass burning (BB) is a large source of atmospheric trace gases and aerosols. During 32 the burning, numerous organic and inorganic gases and particles are emitted to the 33 atmosphere (Andreae and Merlet, 2001; Mkoma et al., 2013). Most of the burning-emitted 34 organic compounds and inorganic ions are water-soluble (Graham et al.; 2002; Mayol-35 Bracero et al., 2002; Kundu et al., 2010). They can act as cloud condensation nuclei (CCN) 36 and ice nuclei (IN) (Penner et al., 1992; Lin et al., 2006; Prenni et al., 2012), affecting 37 climate by altering the hygroscopic properties of aerosols. Emissions of CO and NO_{r} during 38 BB affect O₃ formation and hence force the oxidation capability of the troposphere 39 (Galanter et al., 2000; Honrath et al., 2004; Tanimoto et al., 2009). Along with direct 40 emission of CO₂ (Goode et al., 2000; Konovalov et al., 2014), other greenhouse gases and 41 particles emitted from BB affect radiative forcing (Langenfelds et al., 2002). Moreover, 42 carbonaceous components and trace gases in the smoke contribute to respiratory diseases 43 (Laumbach et al., 2012). 44 There are different types of BB including open field fires in forest, savannas, peat lands, 45 burning and land cultivation practices, burning of agricultural wastes in the fields and 46 residential heating and cooking, as well as industrial biofuel burning (Akagi et al., 2011, 47 2014; Engling et al., 2014). The burning materials range from litters of forest trees and 48 grasses to biofuels such as crop residues, dung and charcoal (Yevich and Logan, 2003; Hays 49 et al., 2005; Yan et al., 2006). Emission parameters of burning materials are frequently 50 represented by emission ratios of a particular species to that of a reference species such as CO₂ or CO, or to the amount of fuel burned (emission factor) (Andreae and Merlet, 2001; 51 52 Akagi et al., 2011). It is difficult, however, to obtain either of these two emission indexes

because extensive measurements are needed with respect to different burning materials andemitted trace components.

55 Lots of tracers have been used for BB such as water-soluble non-sea salt potassium (nss-56 K⁺) (Sullivan et al., 2011; Urban et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2013), resin acids (Kawamura et 57 al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2013) and anhydrosugars (Engling et al., 2006, 2009; Fu et al., 2012; 58 Mochida et al., 2010). Levoglucosan (1, 6-anhydro-B-D-glucopyranose), one of 59 anhydrosugars, is exclusively generated by the thermal depolymerization of cellulose 60 (Simoneit, 2002; Simoneit et al., 1999). This compound is stable in the atmosphere with no 61 decay over 10 days in acidic conditions (Schkolnik and Rudich, 2006). It was proposed as 62 the most reliable tracer for BB (Simoneit et al., 1999, 2004). The isomers of levoglucosan, 63 mannosan and galactosan are generated from pyrolysis of and hemicelluloses and also used 64 as BB tracers (Engling et al., 2009; Fabbri et al., 2009). 65 Recent studies, however, demonstrated that degradation of levoglucosan occurred on the exposure to high levels of hydroxyl radicals (OH). Kinetic studies on the reactivity of 66 levoglucosan with OH, NO_3 , and SO_4^- radicals in aqueous phase and the model simulations 67 indicated that levoglucosan can be oxidized by OH radicals in daytime by the rates of 7.2 ng 68 $m^{-3} h^{-1}$ in summer and 4.7 ng $m^{-3} h^{-1}$ in winter for a polluted continental plume (Hoffmann 69 70 et al., 2010). Based on the chamber experiment on levoglucosan oxidation by OH, 71 Hennigan et al. (2010) reported that levoglucosan has an atmospheric lifetime of 0.7–2.2 days when BB particles are exposed to 1.0×10^6 molecules cm⁻³ of OH. A recent study by 72 73 flow reactor indicated that pure levoglucosan is degrading by OH with rate of $(9.17 \pm 1.16) \times 10^{-12}$ cm³ molecules⁻¹ s⁻¹ at 25 °C and 40% relative humidity (RH), and the 74 average atmospheric lifetime is 1.2–3.9 days (Lai et al., 2014). The effect of temperature on 75 76 levoglucosan degradation had been reported consistently positive (Bai et al., 2013; Lai et al., 2014), while the effect of RH is divergent (Hennigan et al., 2010; Lai et al., 2014; Slade et al., 2014). Nevertheless, the study by Bai et al. (2013) indicated that levoglucosan reacts with OH at a rate of 2.21×10^{-13} cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹ at 25 °C, resulting in an atmospheric lifetime of 26 days under the OH level of 2.0×10^6 molecule cm⁻³. Although these results are divergent, levoglucosan is subjected to degradation in BB aerosols during atmospheric transport.

The relative abundance of anhydrosugar isomers is used as diagnostic parameter for 83 84 different BB substrates (Fu et al., 2012; Mkoma et al., 2013). Levoglucosan to mannosan 85 (L/M) ratio differs from smoke generated by burning of hardwood and softwood (Engling et 86 al., 2009; Iimuma et al., 2007; Schmidl et al., 2008a, b). L/M ratios derived from softwood 87 combustion are frequently low, e.g., 3.4 for ponderosa pine, 3.9 for white spruce, 4.4 for 88 Douglas fir and 6.7 for pinyon pine (Fine et al., 2004), or 2.6–5.0 for ponderosa pine 89 (Engling et al., 2006), or 3.6–3.9 for spruce and larch (Křůmal et al., 2010). On the other hand, L/M ratios for hardwood combustion are much higher, e.g., 12.9 for white oak, 19.8 90 91 for sugar maple, 23.4 for black oak, 16.9 for American beech, 19.6 for black cherry and 92 14.5 for quaking aspen (Fine et al., 2004), or 14.4–14.8 for oak and beech (Křůmal et al., 93 2010). L/M ratios from agricultural waste burning are even higher (25-40) (Engling et al., 94 2006, 2009; Fu et al., 2012; Sheesley et al., 2003). However, as the observed tracers in the 95 ambient air often comprise a mixture of emissions from different burning substrates, it is 96 still challenging to accurately qualify the burning substrate based on aerosol observations. 97 East Asia is one of the most active BB regions in the world with high aerosol loadings 98 (van der Werf et al., 2006). Forest burning resulting from both natural and man-made fires 99 for land clearing or other purposes comprises 16%, crop residue burning in the agriculture 100 field comprises 12%, grassland and savanna burning arising from prescribed burning,

101	natural fires, and grassland conversion comprises 7%, and biofuel consumption of fuelwood,
102	agricultural residues, and dried animal waste for cooking and heating comprises 64% of the
103	total burnt biomass across the Asian continent (Streets et al., 2003). Regionally, the largest
104	contributions to BB emissions are from Southeast Asian countries (Philippines, Thailand,
105	Loas, Malaysia, Myanmar, Vietnam and Indonesia), China and Mongolia, and boreal Asia
106	(Russia) (Streets et al., 2003; van der Werf et al., 2006, 2010). On the other hand, open
107	burning (mostly of forest) is a dominant source in Southeast Asia and boreal Asia, while
108	burning of crop residues is dominant in China and of grassland in Mongolia (Streets et al.,
109	2003). A recent estimate of 2.33 Tg y^{-1} for nonmethane volatile organic compounds
110	(NMVOCs) is obtained from the burning of crop residues in China (Kudo et al., 2014).
111	Emissions from such burning may be submitted to long distance transport affecting regional
112	air quality and climate (Mochida et al., 2010; Kawamura et al., 2012; Chen et al., 2013).
113	In this work, we use anhydrosugars in aerosols as tracers to investigate the influence of
114	BB on regional air quality in East Asia. We collected aerosol samples at Okinawa from
115	October 2009 to February 2012 and analyzed for anhydrosugars as well as water-soluble
116	inorganic ions, water-soluble organic carbon (WSOC), organic carbon (OC) and elemental
117	carbon (EC). We are aiming to clarify the seasonality of burning in East Asia and its effects
118	on aerosol properties in the Asian outflow region in the western North Pacific.

120 2 Experimental methods

121 2.1 Site and sampling

122 We collected total suspended particle (TSP) samples from October 2009 to February

- 123 2012 at Cape Hedo Atmosphere and Aerosol Monitoring Station (CHAAMS) (26.9°N,
- 124 128.2°E) in the northwestern edge of Okinawa Island (Fig. 1). TSPs were collected on pre-

125 combusted (450 °C, 3 h) quartz filters (Pallflex 2500QAT, 20 cm × 25 cm) using a highvolume air sampler (Kimoto AS-810B) at a flow rate of 60 m³ h⁻¹ on a weekly basis (n = 126 127 112). Each of the aerosol-loaded filter was placed in a pre-combusted (450 °C, 6 h) glass jar 128 with a Teflon-lined screw cap and stored in darkness at -20 °C. Before weighing and 129 analysis, each filter was placed in a desiccator for 24-72 h at ~ 20 °C until constant weight 130 to remove water. Two field blanks following all the collection procedures except for 131 running sampling pump were collected on November 2009 and March 2011, respectively. 132 OC levels in field blanks were consistently low (1.16 and 1.54 µg per measured unit of 1.54 cm^2 , < 5% of OC levels in most samples), indicating negligible contamination of the 133 134 samples. 135 Regions near CHAAMS are covered by subtropical evergreen broadleaf forest. There are 136 industrial practices of biomass recycling to make biofuel pellet and apply to power plants in 137 the southern part of the island, which is 70-80 km from CHAAMS. However, as the mass of burning is guite limited (biomass production amounted to 3.05 Mt y^{-1} in the whole 138 139 prefecture over 2000–2003) (Okinawa prefecture, 2005), the influence of local biomass 140 burning on anhydrosugars in aerosols at Cape Hedo is negligible. 141 142 2.2 Measurement of anhydrosugars 143 2.2.1 Extraction and derivatization A small filter section (ca. 10 cm^2) was sonicated three times for 10 min in a mixture (7 144 145 ml) of dichloromethane/methanol (2:1; v/v). The solvent extracts were filtered through 146 quartz wool packed in a Pasteur pipette to remove particles. The filtrate was concentrated in 147 a pear-shape flask by a rotary evaporator under vacuum down to 1 ml, and then dried with

148 pure nitrogen gas in a 1.5 ml glass vial. Compounds in the extracts were then converted to

their trimethylsilyl (TMS) derivatives by reacting with 50 µl of N, O-bis-

150 (trimethylsilyl)trifluoroacetamide (BSTFA) containing 1% trimethyl chloride and 10 µl of

151 pyridine for 3 h at 70 °C. OH groups of anhydrosugars in the extracts were derivatized to

trimethylsilyl (TMS) ethers before GC/MS quantification (Medeiros and Simoneit, 2007; Fu

153 et al., 2008).

154

155 2.2.2 Gas chromatography-mass spectrometry

156 A small fraction (2 µl) of derivatized extracts was quantified using gas chromatography-

157 mass spectrometry (GC/MS): Agilent 7890A GC interfaced with Agilent 5975C mass-

selective detector (MSD). An HP-5ms Ultra Inert capillary column ($30 \text{ m} \times 0.25 \text{ mm} \times 0.25$

159 μ m) was used with helium as a carrier gas at a flow rate of 1.0 ml min⁻¹. The sample was

160 injected on a splitless mode at 280 °C. The column temperature was programed from 50 °C

161 (2 min) to 120 °C at 15 °C min⁻¹ and then to 305 °C at 5 °C min⁻¹, followed by a final

162 isothermal hold at 305 °C for 15 min. The mass spectrometer was operated on electron

163 inoization (EI) mode at 70 eV and scanned over the m/z range of 50–650 Da.

164 Mass spectral data were acquired and processed using the HP-Chemstation software.

165 Individual anhydrosugars were identified by comparison with the retention times and mass

166 spectra of authentic standards and the mass spectral library of HP-Chemstation (Medeiros

and Simoneit, 2007). Relative response factor of levoglucosan was obtained by comparing

168 the peak area differences of the authentic standards to the internal standard (tridecane in n-

169 hexane, ca. 1 ng μ l⁻¹ in the extracts before injection). Concentration of levoglucosan in each

170 of the ambient samples was determined by comparing its relative response factor with that

171 of the authentic standard. The relative response factor for levoglucosan was also applied in

172 mannosan and galactosan. Recoveries for levoglucosan were 83–97% for four replicates as

173	obtained by spiking standards to pre-combusted quartz filters following the extraction and
174	derivatization described above. No peaks were found for anhydrosugars in the laboratory
175	and field blank filters. The analytical errors by duplicate sample analyses were less than
176	15%. The limit of detection (LOD) of levoglucosan was 520 pg μl^{-1} , under a mean signal to
177	noise ratio (S/N) of 84 in three replicate injections (279 pg per injection), which
178	corresponds to 0.005 ng m^{-3} for ambient aerosols under a typical sampling volume of 9000
179	m^3 , and an aliquot of 10 cm ² of the used filter. LODs of mannosan and galactosan are
180	considered the same with that of levoglucosan, because levogucosan was used as surrogate
181	standard for mannosan and galactosan.
182	
183	2.3 Water-soluble inorganic ions and carbonaceous components
184	Major water-soluble inorganic ions were determined using an ion chromatograph (IC)
185	(761 Compact IC, Metrohm, Switzerland) following Kunwar and Kawamura (2014). The
186	detection limits for anions and cations were ca. 0.1 ng m ^{-3} . Based on IC-determined K ^{$+$} ,
187	$\mathrm{SO_4}^{2-}$ and $\mathrm{Na^+}$, we estimated the fractions of K ⁺ ion derived from sea salt (ss) and none-sea-
188	salt (nss-) sources following the method of George et al. (2008). The results of $nss-K^+$,
189	$\mathrm{NH_4}^+$ and nss -SO ₄ ²⁻ were discussed in this study. We also investigated K ⁺ components
190	using a tracer-based method (Pio et al., 2008) and positive matrix factorization (PMF)
191	model (Paatero and Tapper, 1994) (Supplementary materials). Water-soluble organic carbon
192	(WSOC) was measured using a Shimadzu carbon/nitrogen analyzer (TOC– V_{CSH}). following
193	Miyazaki et al. (2011). The analytical errors for water-soluble inorganic ions and WSOC in
194	duplicate analyses of laboratory standards were both within 5%. The concentrations of ions
195	and WSOC in the samples were corrected for field blanks.

196	Organic carbon (OC) and elemental carbon (EC) were determined using a
197	thermal/optical carbon analyzer (Sunset Laboratory Inc., USA) (Birch and Cary, 1996),
198	following the Interagency Monitoring Protected Visual Environments (IMPROVE) thermal
199	evolution protocol. Details on the determination were described elsewhere (Wang et al.,
200	2005). The analytical errors in replicate analyses were within 8% for OC and 5% for EC.
201	The OC and EC concentrations in the samples were corrected for field blanks. The data of
202	inorganic ions, WSOC and OC/EC for the first year are from Kunwar and Kawamura
203	(2014).
204	
205	2.4 Backward trajectories and fire counts
206	In order to investigate the influence of biomass burning in different part of East Asia on
207	anhydrosugars in aerosols at Cape Hedo, Okinawa, 5-day backward trajectory starting at
208	500 m above ground level at 0900 local time was calculated every day from December 2009
209	to November 2011 using HYSPLIT4 (Draxler and Rolph, 2013). Six-hourly archived
210	Global Data Assimilation System (GDAS) $(1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ})$ from the National Centers for
211	Environmental Prediction (NCEP) (http://ready.arl.noaa.gov/gdas1.php, accessed July 8,
212	2014) were used as meteorology data. Cluster analyses were then applied to better illustrate
213	the characteristic air mass origins, in which three seed clusters (centroids) were generated in
214	each month. Cluster trajectories were also generated for typical anhydrosugar events (three
215	seed clusters in each event), where hourly trajectories were obtained for each event period.
216	Burning activities in East Asia were illustrated by fire spot, whose data were obtained from
217	Fire Information for Resource Management System (FIRMS) operated by National
218	Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) of the United States (available at
219	https://earthdata.nasa.gov/data/near-real-time-data/firms, accessed July 8, 2014).

221 3 Results and discussions

222 3.1 Air mass origins and fire counts

223 Monthly backward trajectories and fire spots in 2010–2011 (December 2009 to 224 November 2011) are plotted in Figure 2. In December and January, air masses are 225 exclusively originating from the Asian continent (Fig. 2a-b). These are the months of the 226 strongest influence of Asian outflow dominated by winter Asian monsoon. Specifically, 65-227 70% of air masses originated from west to middle Russia, passed through Mongolia, north 228 and northeast China, en route the East China Sea to Okinawa, while another 30-35% of air 229 masses originating from north and northeast China had shorter transport distances. These 230 areas generally locate in 30-60 °N, 80-130 °E, and will be termed as Middle to North Asia 231 (MNA) in this study. In December and January, fire spots were observed in north and 232 northeast China. However, few fire spots were observed in the winter months in Mongolia 233 and Russia.

234 As season changed from winter to summer, the influence of continental outflow from 235 MNA was weakened, whereas the influence of maritime air masses was strengthened. In 236 June–August, 75–85% of the air masses were originating from the western Northern Pacific, 237 while the remaining 15–25% were originating from the East China Sea, South China Sea 238 and Philippine islands (Fig. 2g-i). Interestingly, there are very few air mass trajectories 239 passing through Southern China throughout the year, where dense fire spots were observed. 240 From summer to winter, air masses shifted reversely to that of continental origin, until the 241 highest influence of continental outflow from MNA in December-January. 242 Based on satellite observation and model simulation, Van der Werf et al. (2006) reported 243 that BB emissions in boreal East Asia (most of Russia) maximized in summer, whereas in

244	central Asia (Mongolia, China and Japan) they showed bimodal pattern with two maxima in
245	spring and autumn. Monthly total fire counts in MNA indicated consistent pattern with a
246	major peak in May (total counts 45020) and secondary peak in October (total counts 17838)
247	(Fig. S1). In Southeast Asia, they maximized in spring. Furthermore, Van der Werf et al.
248	(2010) reported that the dominant type was forest fire in Russia and part of northeast China,
249	savanna in Mongolia and Inner Mongolia of China, agricultural wastes in north and
250	northeast China, and deforestation in south China and Southeast Asia. With considerations
251	of such seasonality and fire types, the biomass burning types that affect Okinawa aerosols
252	could be summarized as follows: both indoor and open field burning of woods and
253	agricultural wastes in MNA in winter, open burning of wheat straw in north China in spring,
254	and open burning of maize straw in north and northeast China in autumn. There is little
255	influence of BB on Okinawa aerosols from South China and Southeast Asia where
256	deforestation is the main BB source.

258 3.2 Effect of biomass burning in East Asia on anhydrosugars at Okinawa

259 3.2.1 Seasonal variation of anhydrosugars

260 Temporal and monthly means of anhydrosugars are plotted in Figure 3, and the annual 261 and seasonal means and ranges are shown in Table 1. Among three isomers, levoglucosan is most abundant with the mean concentration of 3.09 ± 3.70 ng m⁻³ (mean $\pm 1 \sigma$). Mannosan 262 263 and galactosan are 1 order of magnitude less abundant than levoglucosan. Seasonally, levoglucosan clearly indicates winter maximum $(5.30 \pm 4.88 \text{ ng m}^{-3})$ and summer minimum 264 $(0.57 \pm 0.84 \text{ ng m}^{-3})$. Specifically, monthly mean of levoglucosan in December (7.21 ± 7.14) 265 ng m⁻³) is > 20 times higher than that in July $(0.34 \pm 0.20 \text{ ng m}^{-3})$ (Fig. 2). Similar seasonal 266 trend was observed for mannosan (0.47 ± 0.38 ng m⁻³ in winter and 0.08 ± 0.12 ng m⁻³ in 267

summer). However, galactosan did not show such a clear seasonal trend. This is likely associated with changes in the relative content of cellulose and hemicellulose in varying BB fuel types along with changes in seasons and source regions. The second possible reason may be the different degradation rate of galactosan with those of levoglucosan and mannosan. Following the trend of levoglucosan, total anhydrosugars maximized in December $(7.91 \pm 7.63 \text{ ng m}^{-3})$ and minimized in August $(0.71 \pm 0.52 \text{ ng m}^{-3})$, with a mean of $3.53 \pm 3.91 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$ over the sampling period.

The primary cause of the seasonality of three anhydrosugars in Okinawa aerosols is the shift of air mass source regions. The highest levels of levoglucosan and mannosan in winter months are associated with the most strengthened continental outflow from MNA (Fig. 2a–c, 3). The decreases of these anhydrosugars in summer months co-occur with the weakening of continental outflow. As a result, the lowest levels in summer were caused by the transport of air masses from the ocean, where there was no source of biomass burning. The

winter and the summer cases are discussed separately as follows.

282

283 3.2.2 Effect of continental outflow on high anhydrosugars in winter

284 Under the enhanced continental outflow in winter, higher abundances of anhydrosugars 285 in Okinawa aerosols are likely caused by two sources of biomass burning in MNA as 286 follows: open field burning and domestic burning for space heating and cooking. Fire spots 287 in north and northeast China indicate the large scale burning in the open fields (Fig. 2 a-e, l). 288 Most of the air masses arriving at Okinawa passed through such regions. One example is the 289 high anhydrosugar event observed in November 2–9, 2010 (see Fig. 3, Event I). During this 290 period, air masses originated from or passed through north to northeast China, where high 291 loadings of fire spots were observed (Fig. 4a).

292 Domestic burning for heating and cooking in winter is another source of anhydrosugars, 293 as such practice is common in MNA. Yan et al. (2006) reported that satellite observation 294 detected less than 1% of the burning of total crop residues recorded by ground observation 295 survey, due to a large portion of indoor burning or small sizes of field burning that could not 296 be detected by satellite. Therefore, domestic burning for heating and cooking in MNA may 297 have largely contributed to anhydrosugars in aerosols at Okinawa although relatively small 298 amount of fire spots were observed in winter. Another example is the highest anhydrosugar 299 level of the sample collected in December 28, 2010–January 4, 2011, (Fig. 3, Event II). 300 Backward trajectory clusters indicate that 63% of the air masses were originated from the 301 southeastern edge of Russia, and transported over northeast China, whereas the remaining 302 37% were transported longer distances from western Russia (Fig. 4b). However, only few 303 fire spots were detected in such region, implying that major burning activities leading to the 304 elevated emissions of anhydrosugars are not in the open field, but may have been associated with indoor biofuel burning. Zhang et al. (2008) also reported that, of 9.6×10^7 kg crop 305 306 residues in northeast China (Heilongjiang, Liaoning, Jilin provinces and Inner Mongolia 307 district) in 2004, about half was burned in the open field (22%) and indoor (26%).

308

309 3.2.3 Anhydrosugar levels in summer

There is little air mass delivery from the Asian continent that directly affects
anhydrosugars in Okinawa aerosols during summer (Fig. 2g–i, 3). Air masses from the

312 western North Pacific in summer are expected to bring "clean" air without the contribution

313 of anhydrosugars. Moreover, the summer minimum of levoglucosan at Okinawa (0.32 ng

- m^{-3} was 78% higher than that at Chichijima, a remote oceanic site in the western North
- 315 Pacific, ca. 1400 km east of Okinawa (Mochida et al., 2010). Other than the dilution and

deposition during long-range transport, the gradient of anhydrosugars from Okinawa to
Chichijima suggests that levoglucosan may undergo photochemical degradation in the
troposphere. Higher level of OH in the troposphere is expected in summer as a result of
higher temperature and stronger ultraviolet light (Stone et al., 2012), which would lead to
the degradation of levoglucosan (Hennigan et al., 2010; Hoffmann et al., 2010; Mochida et
al., 2010).

322 Clear diurnal cycle of OH was observed at Okinawa showing daytime maximum of around 4×10^6 radicals cm⁻³ in summer (Kanava et al., 2001). In light of literature reports 323 324 on levoglucosan degradation by OH (Hennigan et al., 2010; Lai et al., 2014), the average 325 atmospheric lifetime of levoglucosan could be roughly estimated as 1 day in summer and 3 326 days in winter. The corresponding transport distances of levoglucosan in summer and 327 winter are estimated by weighted arithmetic means of trajectory clusters as represented in 328 July and January, respectively. In July, air masses traveled 564 km for 1 day before arriving 329 at Cape Hedo, where these regions were mostly ocean with no BB sources. Therefore, the 330 observed low levels of anhydrosugars in summer represent a regional background level, 331 incorporating atmospheric deposition and degradation. Similarly, Hu et al. (2013) reported 332 that levoglucosan was detected in marine aerosols from the Arctic in boreal summer to the Antarctic in austral summer at ng m^{-3} levels. In comparison, air masses traveled 2480 km 333 334 for 3 days before arriving at Cape Hedo in January, a distance in which MNA was broadly 335 passed through. It can be inferred that degradation plays a minor role in winter during 336 strengthened continental outflow under low temperature and high wind speed conditions. 337 On the contrary to our expectation, there was little influence of biomass burning in Southeast Asia to anhydrosugars in Okinawa aerosols (Fig. 2). In August 26% of the air 338 339 masses originated from the Philippine islands, however very few fire spots were detected by 340 satellite (84 and 9 counts in the whole Philippines and close to the trajectory centroid, 341 respectively). Previous studies indicated that biomass burning in the Philippine islands 342 control the levels of anhydrosugars in the northwest aerosols at Hok Tsui, Hong Kong and 343 Hainan in coastal southeast China in spring (Zhang et al., 2012). However, the biomass 344 burning in the Philipines did not seriously affect the aerosols in the northeast region where 345 Okinawa locates. Anhydrosugars emitted from the Philippine region are likely decomposed 346 and/or scavenged from the atmosphere by dry/wet deposition in summer before arriving at 347 Okinawa, given the long travel distance of ~2000 km, more frequency of precipitation and 348 short lifetime of levoglucosan (roughly 1 day, corresponding to 663 km in the trajectory 349 cluster).

350

351 3.3 Relations between anhydrosugars with inorganic ions and EC

352 Linear correlations among anhydrosugars and with major ions that possibly related to BB

353 were investigated (Table 2). Positive relations were found between levoglucosan and

mannosan over the whole observation period (r = 0.34, p < 0.001) as well as in each season

355 (Table 3), indicating that they were derived from similar emission sources. Galactosan did

at not co-vary with other anhydrosugars, probably due to different BB types that vary with

357 time and source region and/or different degradation rate.

358 nss-K⁺ is another typical tracer of BB (Sullivan et al., 2011). Positive correlations were 359 found between nss-K⁺ and levoglucosan (r = 0.38, p < 0.001) and mannosan (r = 0.36, p <

360 0.001), supporting that these components are derived from BB. Using levogucosan as a

361 representative BB tracer, the correlations between anhydrosugars and nss-K⁺ were further

362 investigated for seasonal profiles (Table 3). Levoglucosan significantly correlates with nss-

363 K⁺ in winter (r=0.49, p < 0.001), spring (0.59, p < 0.001) and summer (0.86, p < 0.001). No

364 correlation in autumn may suggest other sources of nss-K⁺, possibly derived from soil

365 resuspension during agricultural plowing practices before winter wheat planting in the

366 North China Plain. Previous studies also indicated that soil dust could be another source of

367 water-soluble nss-K⁺ in Asian aerosols (Arimoto et al., 2004; Duvall et al., 2008; Shen et al.,

368 2009).

To further account for the fraction of BB-derived K^+ (bb- K^+), K^+ balance was

370 investigated using a tracer-based method and PMF model (Supplementary materials). Pio et

al. (2008) reported that $bb-K^+$ could be calculated by subtracting ss-K⁺ and dust-related K⁺

372 (dust-K⁺) from total K⁺, using a typical K⁺/Ca²⁺ ratio of 0.12 for soil dust in Europe. In East

373 Asia, K^+/Ca^{2+} ratios during dust storm periods are reported as 0.012 in Zhenbeitai, northern

374 China (Arimoto et al., 2004), 0.07 in Xi'an, northwestern China (Shen et al., 2009), and

375 0.12 in Tongliao, northeastern China (Shen et al., 2007). We estimated the K⁺ component

using an average K^+/Ca^{2+} ratio of 0.07 for Asian dust, following the method of Pio et al.

377 (2007, 2008). We found that $bb-K^+$ accounted for 23% of total K^+ . This result is similar to

that (24%) obtained by PMF model (Fig. 5). Interestingly, relation between levoglucosan

and tracer-based $bb-K^+$ was not strong, although positive relation was found between

1380 levoglucosan and nss-K⁺. This phenomenon, as well as the seasonal difference of the

relations between levoglucosan and nss- K^+ , might be caused by the following reasons: (1)

during open field burning, a large amount of dust- K^+ is mixed with bb- K^+ ; (2) dust- K^+ and

383 bb-K⁺ are mixed during atmospheric transport. Being consistent with previous studies, these

results suggest that a combined analysis of K⁺ and other tracers is recommend to

385 characterize BB activities (Zhang et al., 2010).

386 On the other hand, positive relations were found between NH_4^+ and levoglucosan (r =

387 0.39, p < 0.001) and mannosan (r = 0.20, p < 0.05). These results imply that BB in MNA

could be an important direct source of NH₄⁺ (Andreae and Merlet et al., 2001; Akagi et al., 388 2011). NH_4^+ could also be formed in the atmosphere by the protonation of NH_3 , which was 389 390 abundantly emitted from livestock excreta, fertilizer application, agricultural soil and plants, 391 biomass burning, and so on (Asman et al., 1998; Huang et al., 2012; Paulot et al., 2014; 392 Sutton et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2010). The seasonal relations between levoglucosan and 393 NH_4^+ showed no correlation in summer and autumn although there is a weak positive 394 correlation in winter and spring. This may be caused by the enrichment of NH₃-derived 395 NH₄⁺ from agricultural activities, and transformation and wet scavenging during atmospheric transport. Levoglucosan did not correlate with nss-SO₄²⁻ (r=0.12), indicating 396 397 that sulfur emission from BB may not be significant. 398 Biomass burning is frequently accompanied by elevated emission of EC (Akagi et al., 399 2011). Positive relations of EC with levoglucosan (r = 0.31, p < 0.05) and mannosan (r = 0.31) and mannosan 0.52, p < 0.001) were obtained (Table 2). These results indicate that EC in Okinawa 400 aerosols are partly derived from BB. Meanwhile, air masses with mixed sources from 401 402 emissions of BB and fossil fuel would also result in such relations. Observation of black 403 carbon (BC) by aethalometer at Rishiri Island, northern Japan indicated outflow of high 404 level BC from fossil fuel combustion from the Asian continent (Zhu et al., 2015). Fossil fuel 405 combustion in the Asian continent is probably a more significant source of EC in Okinawa 406 aerosols compared to BB sources. Seasonally, levoglucosan correlates significantly with EC 407 in summer, autumn and winter. No correlation in spring may be associated with higher EC 408 source from fossil fuel combustion in the upwind Asian continent. 409

410 3.4 Implication for burning substrates based on L/M ratios

411 Levoglucosan/Mannosan (L/M) ratio has been used to differentiate the burning substrates 412 (Table 1, Fig. 6). Monthly L/M ratios ranged from 2.1 to 4.8 in May–June and from 12.3 to 413 13.9 in November–January. Higher ratios were found in late autumn to winter whereas 414 lower ratios in late spring to early summer (Fig 6b). Previous biomass burning studies 415 showed that L/M ratios from crop residues are often > 40, whereas those from hard wood 416 are in a range of 15–25, and those of soft wood to be 3–10 (Schmidl et al., 2008a, b; 417 Engling et al., 2009; Fu et al., 2012; Mkoma et al., 2013; Engling et al., 2014). Higher 418 monthly means of L/M ratios in November–January suggest that the burning substrates 419 were hardwood, mixture of softwood and hardwood, or mixture of softwood and plant 420 straws in NMA. The lower L/M ratios in May–June suggest that Okinawa aerosols are 421 influenced by the burning of softwood, possibly from north China, Korea or southwest 422 Japan, as supported by backward trajectories (Fig 2 f-g). It is worthy noting that the 423 possible different degradation rates between levoglucosan and mannosan would contribute 424 to L/M variations. With respect to this point, the low L/M ratios in May–June may imply 425 that levoglucosan is degrading faster than mannosan during atmospheric transport. 426 Sporadically high L/M ratio events were observed. The highest ratio of 38.9 was 427 observed in the sample collect on October 27-November 3, 2009. Elevated concentrations 428 of OC, EC and water-soluble ions were also observed for this sample. On these days, 44% 429 of air masses originated from the North China Plain, while another 28% originated from 430 west Siberia, en route Mongolia and north China to Okinawa (Fig. 7). October-November 431 are the harvest season of maize in the North China Plain where fire spots were observed. 432 This event indicates that emissions of particulate matter from burning of maize straw residues were transported to the western North Pacific. High L/M ratios had been reported 433 434 for smoke from chamber burning of rice straw (40–42) and ambient aerosols affected by

436 L/M ratio of 55 was obtained for the burning of rice straw, wheat straw and maize straw by 437 chamber experiment (Zhang et al., 2009). These results implied that maize straw smoke 438 may have higher L/M ratio. Our results gave a relatively high L/M ratio of 38.9 even after 439 long-range transport to Okinawa, supporting the above proposition. 440 Nevertheless, two high L/M ratios (24.7 and 22.4) were observed on July 15–27, 2010 441 and June 30–July 12, 2011, respectively. During July 15–27, 2010, air masses traveled short 442 distances originating from the western North Pacific where little source of anhydrosugars is 443 present. The high L/M ratios might be related to local burning events from industrial biofuel 444 production/consumption or open field cooking for barbeque. On the other hand, on June 30-445 July 12, 2011, 44% of air masses originated from east Indonesia, en route Philippines to

burning of wheat straw (40–46) (Engling et al., 2009; Fu et al., 2008). A higher average

446 Okinawa. Burning of agricultural residues, as well as burning of wood and peat might

447 contribute to high L/M ratios (Sheesley et al., 2003; Engling et al., 2014).

448

435

449 3.5 L/OC and L/EC ratios

450 Levoglucosan to OC (L/OC) ratio has been used to evaluate the contribution of different 451 BB sources (Sullivan et al., 2008; Mkoma et al., 2013; Ho et al., 2014), and possible aging 452 of levoglucosan (Mochida et al., 2010). Clear seasonal trends were found for L/OC, with a maximum in winter (4.6×10^{-3}) and minimum in May (0.3×10^{-3}) (Fig. 6 c–d. Table 1). 453 454 This seasonal trend is consistent with those reported for coastal Asian continental site in 455 Changdao, China (Feng et al., 2007), four cities in the Pearl River Delta Region in South 456 China (Ho et al., 2014), and remote maritime site (Chichijima) in the western North Pacific 457 (Mochida et al., 2010).

459 Chichijima in the context of the Asian outflow. It is worth noting that, in comparison to the 460 other two sites (2001–03), the data of Okinawa aerosols were obtained in different years 461 (2009–12) when the tropospheric oxidizing capability was likely enhanced (Itahashi et al., 462 2014). However, such comparison is still helpful for understanding atmospheric processes 463 in terms of deposition and degradation of levoglucosan. Interestingly, L/OC ratios at Okinawa are in between those of Changdao and Chichijima in winter $(10.0 \times 10^{-3}, 4.6 \times 10^{-3})$ 464 ³ and 3.8×10^{-3} for Changdao, Okinawa and Chichijima, respectively), spring (9.3×10^{-3}) . 465 1.6×10^{-3} and 1.3×10^{-3}) and autumn (5.4×10^{-3} , 1.5×10^{-3} and 1.1×10^{-3}). This 466 467 longitudinal gradient suggests that levoglucosan may be degraded during the atmospheric 468 transport. Alternative interpretations for this difference include the formation of OC during 469 transport and/or the enrichment of OC from local terrestrial/maritime biosphere of Okinawa and Chichijima. In summer when L/OC ratio at Changdao (1.2×10^{-3}) is the highest among 470

Here, we discuss the longitudinal gradient of L/OC in Changdao, Okinawa and

471 the three sites, L/OC ratio at Okinawa (0.3×10^{-3}) is lower than that of Chichijima (0.6×10^{-3})

472 10⁻³). This may be caused by elevated local biogenic sources of OC in summer at Okinawa
473 Island, where subtropical forests emit large amount of primary organic aerosols (Zhu and

474 Kawamura, 2014).

458

475 EC is emitted primarily via coal combustion, motor vehicle exhaust and BB (Cao et al.,

476 2005; Waked et al., 2014, Yttri et al., 2014). The ratio between levoglucosan to EC (L/EC)

477 was also investigated (Fig. 5 e–f, Table 1). Being similar to L/OC, L/EC ratios indicate a

478 clear seasonal trend with winter maximum (14.5×10^{-3}) and summer minimum (3.3×10^{-3}) .

479 Moreover, L/EC ratios in Okinawa and Chichijima are one order of magnitude lower than

that of Changdao in winter, spring and autumn (Feng et al., 2007; Mochida et al., 2010). As

there was little source of EC in the ocean, this result may imply a degradation of

482	levoglucosan during atmospheric transport. In summer, L/EC ratios in Okinawa (3.3×10^{-3})
483	and Chichijima (6.5×10^{-3}) were in the same order with that of Changdao (4.0×10^{-3}). This
484	is likely related to the different EC sources at these sites. As long as the majorities of air
485	masses are from the ocean for all these three sites, there is higher emission of EC from local
486	fossil fuel combustion at Changdao, whereas EC at Okinawa and Chichijima might
487	represent a regional background level in summer.
488	
489	3.6 Contributions of biomass burning to WSOC, OC and TSP
490	Positive linear relations were found between total and each anhydrosugar component and
491	WSOC (Table 2), as well as between levoglucosan and WSOC in each season (Table 3).
492	Although the relations between levoglucosan and OC in most of the seasons are not
493	significant (Tables 2, 3), clear seasonal trend of L/OC ratios indicates that the contribution
494	of anhydrosugars to OC varied depending on seasons (Fig. 6 c-d). We further investigated
495	the contributions of anhydrosugars to WSOC and OC, and total anhydrosugars mass to TSP
496	(Table 4). Anhydrosugars account for 0.22% of WSOC and 0.13% of OC annually. The
497	highest contributions of anhydrosugars to WSOC (0.37%) and OC (0.25%) were obtained in
498	winter, indicating a strong influence of BB on winter aerosols. The contribution of
499	anhydrosugars to WSOC in Okinawa is lower than those of the Amazon rainforest sites
500	(levoglucosan-C/WSOC of 2–7%) where the burning happened in situ (Graham et al., 2002).
501	These values are also lower than those of the Pearl River Delta sites in China
502	(levoglucosan-C/WSOC of 0.59–3.12%) that are directly affected by biomass burning in
503	South China (Ho et al., 2014). Anhydrosugars accounted for 0.006% of TSP on annual basis
504	in Okinawa aerosols with maximum (0.01%) in winter.

505 L/OC ratio has been used to estimate the contributions of BB to OC in aerosols as stated 506 above. L/OC ratios ranged from 8.0 to 8.2% in the burning of savanna and grassland, 507 tropical and extratropical forest, biofuel and agricultural residues (Andreae and Merlet, 508 2001). Moreover, the mean emission factor of L/OC during the burning of wheat, corn and 509 rice straws in China was derived as 8.27% (Zhang et al., 2007). Although L/OC ratios in the 510 BB source emissions vary among different types of biomass fuels and burning conditions 511 (e.g., Mochida et al., 2010), the value of ~8.2% have been widely used to estimate BB 512 contributions to OC (Fu et al., 2014; Graham et al., 2002; Ho et al., 2014; Mkoma et al., 513 2013; Sang et al., 2011). Using the L/OC of 8.2% from the source of biomass burning, we 514 estimated that biomass burning in East Asia contributes 2.9% of OC in Okinawa aerosols on 515 annual basis (Table 4). This is lower than the contribution of BB to OC in the Pearl River 516 Delta in China (13.1%) (Ho et al., 2014). However, in winter, the mean contribution from 517 biomass burning was 5.6%, although the highest contribution became as large as 30%. A 518 further estimation on the OC components by PMF analysis may provide more information, 519 which would be our future work. These results indicate that BB, especially from MNA in 520 winter, may significantly affects the regional air quality in Okinawa in winter, especially 521 during Asian outflow episodes.

522

523 4 Conclusions

Anhydrosugars were studied in aerosols from Okinawa, Japan for their abundances, seasonal variations and relations to biomass burning in East Asia. We found that the dominant anhydrosugar is levoglucosan, which showed a clear seasonal cycle with winter maximum and summer minimum. The degradation of anhydrosugars during atmospheric transport may contribute to the summer low levels, while in winter the observed levels of 529 anhydrosugars are less influenced by degradation. In winter, biomass-burning emissions 530 either from open field or domestic heating and cooking in north and northeast China, 531 Mongolia, and Russia affect the abundances of anhydrosugars in Okinawa aerosols via 532 long-range atmospheric transport. On the contrary, there is little influence of biomass 533 burning from Southeast Asia to Okinawa in summer. Moreover, there is little influence of 534 biomass burning in South China throughout the year. High L/M ratios of 11.5–13.5 were 535 obtained in autumn to spring when continental outflow dominated over Okinawa, indicating 536 that the burning substances in north China, Mongolia and middle to eastern Russia are 537 hardwood, mixture of softwood and hardwood, or mixture of softwood and plant straws. 538 Clear seasonal trends of the contributions of anhydrosugars to WSOC and OC were 539 obtained with winter maxima and summer minima. This study demonstrates that biomass 540 burning plays an important role in regulating chemical and physical properties of aerosols in 541 the western North Pacific Rim in winter.

542

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-	annual (r	n = 112)	winter ($n = 36)^{a}$	spring (n	1 = 23)	summer (n = 23)	autumn (i	n = 30)
Compounds	Mean \pm sd. ^b	Range	Mean \pm sd.	Range	Mean \pm sd.	Range	Mean \pm sd.	Range	Mean \pm sd.	Range
Levoglucosan	3.09 ± 3.70	nd-27.18 °	5.30±4.88	0.78-27.18	2.87±2.15	nd-7.43	0.57±0.84	nd-3.89	2.12±2.34	nd-11.28
Mannosan	$0.30 {\pm} 0.31$	nd -1.76	$0.47 {\pm} 0.38$	0.06 - 1.76	$0.31{\pm}0.24$	nd-0.97	$0.08{\pm}0.12$	nd-0.57	0.23 ± 0.23	nd-0.83
Galactosan	$0.39 {\pm} 0.25$	nd -1.27	0.27 ± 0.23	0.03 - 1.27	$0.54{\pm}0.25$	nd-1.17	0.43 ± 0.24	nd-1.16	$0.40{\pm}0.20$	nd-0.92
Anhydrosugars	3.53 ± 3.91	nd -29.20	6.04 ± 5.22	0.87-29.20	$3.44{\pm}2.32$	nd-8.22	$0.93{\pm}1.09$	nd-5.62	2.58 ± 2.55	nd-12.72
L/M	10.7 ± 6.1	0.3 - 38.9	11.9 ± 3.9	3.7 - 18.4	9.9 ± 6.7	0.3 - 24.3	$7.9{\pm}4.8$	2.1 - 20.0	11.5 ± 8.1	0.8-38.9
L/OC, $\times 10^{-3}$	$2.4{\pm}3.0$	0.04 - 24.6	$4.6{\pm}4.0$	1.0 - 24.6	$1.6{\pm}1.2$	0.04-5.4	$0.3{\pm}0.3$	0.05 - 1.3	1.5 ± 1.4	0.1-5.8
1 /EC ×10-3	8.6 ± 7.4	0.2 - 31.3	14.5 ± 8.1	3.5 - 31.3	$6.1{\pm}4.8$	0.2 - 16.8	3.3 ± 2.2	0.2-7.2	6.5 ± 5.2	0.7-23.8

998 Table 1. Annual and seasonal means of anhydrosugars and the ratios of levoglucosan with mannosan (L/M), OC (L/OC) and EC

869 ^b sd. denotes standard deviation (1 σ).

870 ^c nd denotes not detected.

										1
	Levoglucosan	Mannosan	Galactosan	Anhydrosugars	$nss-K^+$	$\mathrm{NH_4}^+$	$nss-SO_4^{2-}$	WSOC	OC	-
Levoglucosan	1									
Mannosan	0.34^{***}	1								
Galactosan	-0.19 ^a	0.17	1							
Anhydrosugars	0.42	0.80	-0.06	1						
nss-K ⁺	0.38^{***}	0.36^{***}	0.08	0.35^{***}	1					
$\mathrm{NH_4}^+$	0.39^{***}	0.20^{*}	-0.10	0.32^{***}	-0.03	1				
$nss-SO_4^{2-}$	0.12	-0.05	-0.19	0.04	-0.18	0.21^{*}	1			
WSOC	0.21^*	0.59^{***}	0.32^*	0.50^{***}	0.57***	0.03	-0.18	1		
00	-0.04	0.12	0.33^{***}	0.09	0.32^{***}	-0.09	-0.17	0.67***	-	
EC	0.31^*	0.52^{***}	0.02	0.54^{***}	0.40^{***}	016	0 16	0 64***	***80 0	

871 Table 2. Linear correlation coefficients (r) among anhydrosugars, major ions and carbonaceous components in Okinawa aerosols from

a Negative values indicate negative correlations.

		and carbonaceous	s components in Ol	kinawa aerosols in
Components	Winter $(n = 36)^a$	Spring $(n = 23)$	Summer $(n = 23)$	Autumn $(n = 30)$
Mannosan	0.82***	0.50^{*}	0.90^{***}	0.61***
Galactosan	0.07	-0.31 ^b	0.73***	0.22
$nss-K^+$	0.49^{**}	0.59^{**}	0.86***	-0.03
$\mathrm{NH_4}^+$	0.23	0.31	0.02	-0.21
$nss-SO_4^{2-}$	0.26	0.25	-0.19	-0.04
WSOC	0.47**	0.47*	0.95^{***}	0.48^{*}
00	0.26	0.43	0.65**	0.16
EC	0.61***	0.17	0.68^{**}	0.65***

Table 3. Linear correlation coefficients (r) between levoglucosan and other parameters including other two anhydrosugars, major ions

878 ^a Seasons are divided as December-February in winter, March-May in spring, June-August in summer, and September-November in autumn.

879 ^bNegative values indicate negative correlations.

881					biomass	burning (BB)	to OC.				
	Contributions	Annual (n =	= 112)	Winter ($n = 36)^{a}$	Spring (n =	= 23)	Summer (n	= 23)	Autumn (n	= 30)
		Mean	Range	Mean	Range	Mean	Range	Mean	Range	Mean	Range
	to WSOC (%)	$0.22{\pm}0.19$	0-1.5	$0.37 {\pm} 0.24$	0.09–1.5	$0.17{\pm}0.1$	0-0.44	$0.09{\pm}0.05$	0-0.17	$0.19{\pm}0.13$	0-0.54
	to OC (%)	$0.13{\pm}0.19$	0-0.51	$0.25 {\pm} 0.29$	0.07-0.51	$0.09{\pm}0.06$	0-0.27	$0.03{\pm}0.02$	0-0.08	$0.09{\pm}0.07$	0-0.3
	to TSP (%)	$0.006 {\pm} 0.006$	0-0.03	$0.01 {\pm} 0.006$	0.004-0.03	$0.005 {\pm} 0.003$	0 - 0.01	$0.003{\pm}0.002$	0-0.007	$0.005 {\pm} 0.005$	0-0.023
	BB to OC (%)	2.9±3.7	0-30	5.6±4.9	1.2 - 30	2±1.5	0-6.5	$0.4{\pm}0.4$	0-1.6	1.8±1.7	0-7.1
882	^a Seasons are divi	ded as Decembe	vr_Fehniary	, in winter Ma	rch_Mav in sni	ring Tune_Augu	et in summe	er and Sentemb	>r_Novemb	or in autumn	

088 Table 4. Annual and seasonal means of contributions of total carbon in anhydrosugars to WSOC and OC, total mass to TSP, and

700 Seasons are divided as December-February in winter, March-May in spring, June-August in summer, and September-November in autumn.

883 Figure captions

884

Fig. 1. Location of Cape Hedo, Okinawa in East Asia where total suspended particles (TSP)were collected.

- Fig. 2. Monthly distribution of air mass origins to Cape Hedo, Okinawa shown by clusters of
 5-day backward trajectories arriving at 500 m above ground level during December
 2009-November 2011. The numbers in each panel indicate the percentages of daily
 trajectories in the month with such origins. Fire spots in East Asia in each month of the
 same period are also shown.
- Fig. 3. Temporal variation (a, c, e, g) and monthly means (b, d, f, h) of anhydrosugars in
 aerosols at Cape Hedo, Okinawa from October 2009 to February 2012. Typical elevation
- 894 events of anhydrosugars are marked I and II and analyzed in details.
- Fig. 4. Air mass origins for the events of elevated anhydrosugars corresponding to I and II in
 Figure 3 in (a) November 2–9, 2010 and (b) December 28, 2010–January 4, 2011,
- 897 respectively. Clusters of 5–day backward trajectories arriving at 500 m above ground
- level at Cape Hedo, Okinawa are given. The numbers in each panel indicate the
- percentages of hourly trajectories in the events with such origins. Fire spots in East Asia
 during (a) October 28–November 9, 2010 and (b) December 23, 2010–January 4, 2011
- are also shown.
- Fig. 5. Components of water-soluble K⁺ derived by (a) tracer-based method (Pio et al., 2008)
 and (b) PMF analysis. Details on PMF analysis can be found in the supplementary
 material.
- Fig. 6 Temporal variations (a, c, e) and monthly means (b, d, f) of ratios of levoglucosan with
 mannosan (L/M), OC (L/OC) and EC (L/EC) in aerosols at Cape Hedo, Okinawa from
 October 2009 to February 2012.
- Fig. 7 Air mass origins for the event of elevated ratio of levoglucosan with mannosan (L/M) in
 October 27–November 3, 2009. Clusters of 5–day backward trajectories arriving at 500
 m above ground level at Cape Hedo, Okinawa are given. The numbers in the panel
 indicate the percentages of hourly trajectories with such origins. Fire spots in East Asia
- 912 over October 22–November 3, 2009 are also shown.



913

914 Fig. 1. Location of Cape Hedo, Okinawa in East Asia where total suspended particles (TSP)

915 were collected.



916

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November 2011. The numbers in each panel indicate the percentages of daily trajectories in
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923 Fig. 3. Temporal variation (a, c, e, g) and monthly means (b, d, f, h) of anhydrosugars in

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930 Okinawa are given. The numbers in each panel indicate the percentages of hourly trajectories

931 in the events with such origins. Fire spots in East Asia during (a) October 28–November 9,

932 2010 and (b) December 23, 2010–January 4, 2011 are also shown.



Fig. 5. Components of water-soluble K⁺ derived by (a) tracer-based method (Pio et al., 2008)





936

937 Fig. 6 Temporal variations (a, c, e) and monthly means (b, d, f) of ratios of levoglucosan with

- 938 mannosan (L/M), OC (L/OC) and EC (L/EC) in aerosols at Cape Hedo, Okinawa from
- 939 October 2009 to February 2012.



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941 Fig. 7 Air mass origins for the event of elevated ratio of levoglucosan with mannosan (L/M) in

942 October 27–November 3, 2009. Clusters of 5–day backward trajectories arriving at 500 m

943 above ground level at Cape Hedo, Okinawa are given. The numbers in the panel indicate the

944 percentages of hourly trajectories with such origins. Fire spots in East Asia over October 22-

945 November 3, 2009 are also shown.