

## ***Interactive comment on “Temporal evolution of main ambient PM<sub>2.5</sub> sources in Santiago, Chile, from 1998 to 2012” by Francisco Barraza et al.***

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### General comments

The authors give thanks to the reviewer for all the comments and questions that made it possible to vastly improve the manuscripts and the robustness of the results. The main changes to the new manuscript are focused in three areas: i) an appropriate description of the sampling and the quality assurance/quality control of the chemical data, ii) new comparative discussion of our results with other Latin American studies, but mostly with other cities abroad with similar multi-year data and methodology to ours, iii) more discussion about meteorological and climatic phenomena that play an important role on Santiago's air quality. More detail about the changes and answers to the reviewer are described below

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## Response to comments by Reviewer 1

1) Overall Assessment This study involved a very large number of samples and for a long time series: 1243 24-hour filter samples of ambient PM<sub>2.5</sub> collected between April-1998 to August-2012. It was used two different source-receptor models (PMF 5.0 and Unmix 6.0). The detailed study shows that the main aerosol sources for PM<sub>2.5</sub> were: motor vehicles (37%), industrial sources (19%), copper smelters (14%), wood burning (12%), coastal sources (10%), and urban dust (3%).

For a very dry region, it is surprising that urban dust is only 3% of aerosol mass, even considering that the analysis is for PM<sub>2.5</sub>. Some of the dust factor must have gone in the vehicular source of other factors.

### Answer and comment:

The reviewer has pointed out that our estimated urban dust is low for an arid region. However, Santiago is rather a semi-arid zone, for 1998-2012, the annual precipitation had a mean of 320 mm, a low of 110 mm (in 1998) and a high of 620 mm (in 2002). If we compare our concentrations of PMF-resolved soil factor in Santiago (average: 1.1  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ ) with those estimated in several cities in California, USA (a region with a very similar climate) we find that: a) Schauer et al (1996) have reported urban dust between 0.5 and 0.9  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  (6.8 – 14.3%) in Pasadena, Downtown LA, West LA and Rubidoux, CA, as an annual average for 1982, using CMB as receptor model. b) Wang and Hopke (2013) have reported a 10-year source apportionment (PMF) at San Jose, CA and have found an average road dust of 0.58  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  (5.1%) for 2002-2012 c) Hasheminassab et al (2014) have analyzed ambient PM<sub>2.5</sub> at Central Los Angeles and Rubidoux, CA for the period 2002-2013. They have found, using PMF, an average soil contribution of 0.8 – 1.1  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  at both sites (5 and 6%, respectively). d) Kim et al (2010) have analyzed data between 2003 and 2005 at the two sites above, using PMF. They have found that the soil contribution varies between 1.5 and 2.0  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  (6.9 and 9.8%) for Central Los Angeles and 1.6-1.9  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  (6.0-7.6%) for Rubidoux, CA.

Furthermore, in other long term source apportionment studies carried out using PMF, the PMF resolved soil contribution (in  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ ) is similar in magnitude: 0.6 for the Sidney Basin between 1998 – 2009 (Cohen et al, 2011), 1.6 for Hanoi, Vietnam between 2001-2008 (Cohen et al, 2010), 0.5 and 0.8 in Detroit and Chicago for 2001-2014 (Milando et al, 2016).

Therefore, our results, on a mass basis, are within the values reported at urban sites with a similar Mediterranean climate as well as in other cities. Nonetheless, we agree with the reviewer that some urban dust may be mixed in with the motor vehicle source.

In the revised manuscript, we have added section 1.1 and two tables (1 and 2):

1.1 Source apportionment data analyses Receptor models (see below) are state-of-the-art computational tools that allow researchers to identify and quantify the major sources that contribute to ambient PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations in a given region and over a given period. Within the Latin American region, several source apportionment studies have been carried out in the largest cities such as Mexico City (Mugica et al., 2002), Sao Paulo, Brazil (Andrade et al., 2012), Rio de Janeiro, Brazil (Andrade et al., 2012; Godoy et al., 2009), and Santiago, Chile (Jorquera and Barraza, 2012; Villalobos et al., 2015). However, all these studies spanned only 1 - 2 years, were carried out using different receptor models, and differed in the time period analyzed, so it is difficult to quantitatively compare among them. Nonetheless, traffic and industrial sources are the typical major contributors to ambient PM<sub>2.5</sub> as shown in Table 1, while biomass burning is relevant only in some cities. The 'other' category source is relevant in most Latin American cities and it may be due to processes leading to organic and inorganic PM<sub>2.5</sub>, plus smaller unresolved sources such as meat cooking, combustion of natural gas, coal, liquefied petroleum gas, etc. (WHO, 2017). Although these studies provide a quantitative assessment of ambient PM<sub>2.5</sub> sources, we are aware of no long-term urban source apportionment studies in Latin America. Long-term studies provide a quantitative estimation of the temporal evolution of major contributing sources, so an evaluation of the effectiveness of sector regulations can be performed. This information

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is critical for policy-makers and stakeholders, to provide feedback and suggest new initiatives to further reduce pollution levels. Table 2 below summarizes several long-term studies carried out in developed and developing countries within a similar period. Motor vehicles and industrial source contributions are clearly higher in developing countries (including most Latin American cities - Table 1), whereas in developed countries those sources have been controlled and their contributions are lower.

See attached table 1 and 2

2) After analyzing the 15 years time series, the results show that over the 15 years, the emissions from motor vehicles, industrial sources, copper smelters, and coastal sources declined by about 21, 39, 81, 59, and 59% respectively, while wood burning didn't change and urban dust increase by 72%. Do you have an estimate for the standard deviation of this important result? The significance of these values depends on the standard deviations that are not reported. Are these reduction numbers all statistically significant at the 95% confidence interval? Another point is that it is not correct you say that the EMISSIONS were reduced, because you have not measure the emissions, but atmospheric concentrations. I think the best term would be: "The reduction of the impact of the different sources to atmospheric concentrations were". Also important is that there is a lack overall in the whole manuscript of standard deviation for the reported values. Even mean concentrations for PM2.5 do not report their standard deviation. The standard deviation is as important as the average value.

Answer and comment:

We certainly agree with the reviewer on this, so now we quote uncertainties for all reported results. Likewise, the trends that come from robust linear regression of model source contributions against time are now reported with their 95% confidence intervals; in this way, we can conclude about the significance of each one. On the other hand, the standard deviation is not the best parameter to describe dispersion of non-normally distributed data, so we have used the MAD (median absolute deviations) in the revised

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[Discussion paper](#)



manuscript. In discussing our results, we now refer to ‘impacts’ or contributions rather than to ‘emissions’.

For example, the following paragraph is from the abstract in the revised manuscript:

PMF resolved six sources that contributed to ambient PM<sub>2.5</sub>, with UNMIX producing similar results: motor vehicles (37.3±1.1%), industrial sources (18.5±1.3%), copper smelters (14.4±0.8%), wood burning (12.3±1.0%), coastal sources (9.5±0.7%), and urban dust (3.0±1.2%). Our results show that over the 15 years analyzed here, four of the resolved sources significantly decreased [95% Confidence Interval]: motor vehicles 21.3% [2.6, 36.5], industrial sources 39.3% [28.6, 48.4], copper smelters 81.5% [75.5, 85.9], and coastal sources 58.9% [38.5, 72.5], while wood burning didn’t significantly change, and urban dust increased by 72% [48.9, 99.9].

3) I feel that in the overall manuscript and also in the reference list, there are very few references to similar studies in other cities. It looks as the study has no connections to other urban areas in Latin America and other places. It looks too isolated in the context on urban aerosol source apportionment. It is important to set the manuscript in a broader context of similar studies done in other urban areas, such as Mexico City, Sao Paulo, La Paz, Quito, etc, as well as some Indian cities that could share similar sources. There is an excess of Chilean studies reported, and a lack of other studies worldwide.

Answer and comment:

We agree with the reviewer. We have now included a revised Table 1 that summarizes source apportionment studies conducted in Latin American cities (WHO, 2017). We have commented on the similarities among them in the introductory section.

We did not find any long-term source apportionment studies in Latin American cities. Therefore, we have summarized long-term source apportionment studies carried out abroad, with an emphasis on California because of the similarities with Santiago’s cli-

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[Discussion paper](#)



mate. We have added a new Table 2 with comparisons with the following long-term PM<sub>2.5</sub> source apportionment studies (all carried out using PMF) that we have found in the literature:

a) 2002-2012 in San Jose, CA (Wang and Hopke, 2013) b) 2002-2013 in Central Los Angeles and Rubidoux, CA (Hasheminassab et al., 2014) c) 2002-2011 in Detroit and Chicago (Milando et al., 2016) d) 1998-2009 in Sidney, Australia (Cohen et al., 2011) e) 2002-2011 in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia (Rahman et al., 2015) f) 2001-2008 in Hanoi, Vietnam (Cohen et al., 2010)

We have also commented upon these studies in the introduction section (see answer to question 1 above).

4) Figure 2 shows that PMF has not separated residual oil combustion that UNMIX attributes 7%. There is no discussion on why the two models provided such different results. Of course residual oil combustion must be present in Santiago. In PMF, where Vanadium and Nickel was attributed? This is an important issue that was not discussed in the manuscript.

Answer and comment:

UNMIX resolved the oil combustion as a unique source, apportioning 85% of Ni concentration to that source profile. The PMF solution apportions 56.5 and 19.5% of Ni concentration to the motor vehicles and industrial source profiles, respectively; in other words, PMF mixes sources that come together at the receptor site, transported by winds. This is a consequence of the different methodologies used by PMF and UNMIX to compute source profiles.

We acknowledge that vanadium and nickel are good tracers for oil industrial combustion, but we removed vanadium from the model, because we couldn't obtain a PMF solution using this element. This was due to prolonged periods with vanadium values below LOD between 2002 and 2006. During that period, Santiago's industry used

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natural gas as industrial fuel, explaining those low vanadium records.

We have added the above two paragraphs in the discussion section.

5) Figures 3 to 9 shows boxplots that are difficult to read, and provide limited information with the outliers. I suggest only shows 50, 75 and 25 percentile, and forget about the outliers, to improve the readability of the figures.

Answer and comment:

We agree with the reviewer. We have improved those figures. As an example, we show below two of those figures

See attached figures 3 and 4 from the revised manuscript.

6) You discussed the impact of sources to PM<sub>2.5</sub>. What about the meteorology? Did it rain less? more? Cloud cover has changed? Wind direction has changed? Inversions got stronger? Since aerosol concentrations are a function of sources and meteorology, you need to discuss the possible changes in meteorology in detail. I think that the study needs important improvements before it could be considered for publication in ACP. There are several important specific comments that needs to be addressed as well as the general comments discussed above.

Answer and comment:

We do agree, and we have completed the discussion on meteorology. In fact, Central Chile is characterized by significant inter-annual variability in connection with El Niño Southern Oscillation (ENSO) (Garreaud et al., 2009) This characteristic inter-annual variability is illustrated in Supplementary figure 5 that shows monthly anomalies in precipitation (mm) registered in Santiago downtown since 1960 (Data available at <http://explorador.cr2.cl/>).

See Figure S5

We can see from figure S5 that there was a downward trend in annual precipitation be-

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Discussion paper



tween 1998 and 2012. Furthermore, since 2007, central and southern Chile has been affected by an extended and persistent drought, partly caused by natural variability and partly linked to a global warming trend ((CR2), 2015; Boisier et al., 2016). We think this drought is a contributing factor in explaining the increase in soil dust contribution in our PMF solution. Likewise, the above downward trend in precipitation implies a worsening of ventilation in Santiago's basin along the period analyzed. However, our trend analysis shows four major PM<sub>2.5</sub> sources decreasing their contributions in the same period. The fact that all our trend estimates for those four sources were negative and significant means that they are conservative estimates, because we did not adjust them for meteorological conditions. The latter computation is beyond the scope of this study because it would require inverse modeling to estimate source strengths.

Regarding mixing height observations, the Chilean Meteorological Service does not launch radiosondes in Santiago, except for limited, short-term campaigns. The only data available are collected with a ceilometer since 2008 (Muñoz et al., 2010; Muñoz and Alcañaz, 2012); these data have significant diurnal, day-to-day, seasonal and possibly inter-annual variability. The following figure illustrates boundary layer height (BLH) retrieved at the Geophysics Department in downtown Santiago between January 1st, 2007 and December 31st 2013 (data kindly provided by Prof. Muñoz). The methodology for the retrievals is described in Muñoz and Undurraga (2010), and considers cloud-free data between 10 and 15 local time (UTC-4). Figure A6 shows a clear seasonality in BLH, with peak values in the austral summer season and lowest values during the austral winter. We see no apparent temporal trend on BLH, so we think this meteorological variable played no role in the temporal trends estimated for all sources resolved by the receptor model analysis.

Figure A6

We have added these new comments to the introduction and discussion sections.

7) Specific comments

[Printer-friendly version](#)

[Discussion paper](#)





Page 1 – line 18: the word WERE was missing

Answer: This has been corrected in the revised manuscript Page 2 line 4 – instead of “impeding horizontal air movements”, maybe it is better making it difficult the air mass transport over the metropolitan region.

Answer: This has been corrected in the revised manuscript Page 2 Line 7 – It would be great to have more information on mixing layer heights than only the expression: The mixing layer shows a marked diurnal cycle (Saide et al., 2011).””. How much is the mixing layer height over winter and summer at midday? Frequency of thermal inversions? Etc. . .

Answer: This has been corrected in the revised manuscript. Please see the above response regarding meteorological variables in Santiago.

Page 3 line 5 –uperscript for ug/m3.

Answer: This has been corrected in the revised manuscript Page 4 – Line 33: The detection limit is an important variable, because of the phrase: “We decided to keep only those elements for which more than 70% of the samples contained valid measurements above the detection limit.”. There are many ways to derive detection limits in XRF analysis. How were these derived? Blank variability was included? It was derived using 3 sigma? It was derived using multiple analysis of the same filter? How much was the average detection limit in ng/m3 for each element?.

Answer: A new section on Laboratory and QA/QC analysis was added with this information. For each species LOD was calculated as 3 times the standard deviation of field blanks. Page 4 – Which filter were used? I guess were 37 mm Teflon filters, but this needs to be explicitly mentioned. The same filter was used over the 12 years of sampling?

Answer: A new section on Laboratory and QA/QC analysis was added with this information. 37 mm Teflon filter were used and the methodology was the same throughout

[Printer-friendly version](#)[Discussion paper](#)

the 15 years.

Page 4 The XRF methodology is described under the sampling station section, which is not correct. Suggestion: Open a new section to describe the XRF methodology.

Answer: A new section on Laboratory and QA/QC analysis was added with this information.

Below we present the section on QA/QC included in the revised manuscript that answers the above three specific comments.

2.2 Laboratory and QA/QC analysis Filters were inspected before being used, and the particles' concentration were determined gravimetrically using a microbalance, with a resolution of 0.01 mg. All filter (blank and filter samples) were stored at constant temperature ( $22\pm 3^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) and relative humidity (40% HR  $\pm 3\%$ ) for a least 24-hours before being weighed. Those filters were analyzed using X-ray fluorescence (XRF) at the Desert Research Institute, Reno, NV, USA. The Ministry for the Environment provided the database containing the elemental analyses of those filters. In order to build statistical models based on robust chemical signals, we decided to keep only those elements selected in other studies that used the same data (CMM-MMA, 2011; Koutrakis et al., 2005; Sax et al., 2007; Valdes et al., 2012), for which more than 75% of the samples contained valid measurements above the detection limit. The limit of detection (LOD) was calculated for each element as three times the standard deviation of the blank (blanks represented approximately 10% of the samples). This public database (gravimetry and elemental analysis) has been used in several studies and all of them have already described the laboratory and QA/QC methodology (CMM-MMA, 2011; Jhun et al., 2013; Koutrakis et al., 2005; Sax et al., 2007). Thus, out of the 49 elements reported, we only kept 22: Na, Mg, Al, Si, S, Cl, K, Ca, Ti, V, Cr, Mn, Fe, Ni, Cu, Zn, As, Se, Br, Sr, Ba and Pb.

Page 5 – Treatment of missing values: Again: This is described under the section sampling, and this is not appropriate. The treatment of missing values (up to 30% of

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Discussion paper



the samples) is important and needs better description. Substitute the missing values by the median is certainly not appropriated, and I am surprised to see that the results using this wrong procedure and interpolation using better algorithms provide similar results. I really do not believe that this is the case. As up to 30% of data for some variables was artificially introduced in the analysis, a much better discussion on the effects must be provided in the manuscript.

Answer: Indeed, the interpolation procedure provided better results. We have included a more detailed description of that algorithm in the revised manuscript, as follows:

The missing data in those twenty-two species were dealt with as follows. First, we let the receptor models' (PMF5, UNMIX6) internal algorithms deal with them, which consists of replacing missing values with the median of the complete time-series for each species. Since replacing missing data with the median can lead to severe distortions in the data, we have also used a custom-written algorithm. This method interpolates up to three consecutive missing values using MATLAB's piecewise cubic interpolation algorithm. Sections of four or more consecutive missing values are filled in by summing up a mirrored copy of equal data length on both sides of the missing records, weighted by a cos2 function, thus ensuring that no artificial frequencies or discontinuities are introduced in the signal - the data filling algorithm is a MATLAB code that is available upon request to F. Lambert. We ensured that only relatively small missing data gaps were filled by using this method, so no large data sections were artificially created. The original and interpolated data are shown in Supplementary figure S1. Since our custom algorithm does not introduce discontinuities in the time series, we used this method for our analysis. In contrast, the receptor model results using the median-based missing data replacement can lose the seasonal signal of some species. Accordingly, the model results using the median-based filling algorithm yielded more variability in Cl, Ti Cr, Ni and As (species with important number of blanks). See supplementary figure S1

Page 5 Line 17: You need to define very precisely what you mean by BEST Model in the phrase: "We considered 13 species that yield the best model: Al, Si, S, Cl, non-soil

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K (Kns), Ti, Cr, Mn, Fe, Ni, Cu, Zn and As”.

Answer: The “best model” means the model that has the best regression parameters and at the same time the highest number of resolved sources (statistically significant regression coefficients). We have added the next sentence:

“This model had the most robust regression parameter and the highest number of statistically significant source factors”

Page 5 lines 25-27. The factor 0.3 relating K to Fe as in the methodology of Lewis et al., can change a lot from site to site. You mentioned that you have done a regression, but you certainly needs much better explanation.

Answer: Indeed, the factor 0.3 is specific for the sampling site and was calculated with the data collected therein. We have added a supplementary figure with the K-Fe scatter plot showing a lower edge with a 0.3 slope (see figure in our next answer below).

You added a new variable that is not statistically independent from the others. This can bring problems in multivariate models. This needs to be much better discussed and explained.

Answer: We knew about this problem, so we have added Kns in and removed K from the model. We have added the following sentence to the manuscript:

To provide a tracer associated with wood burning, we have added the non-soil potassium parameter Kns calculated as  $Kns=(K-0.3 \times Fe)$  and removed K from the model. The 0.3 coefficient was obtained from a K-Fe edge plot (supplementary figure 2)”

See Supplementary Figure S2

Page 6 line 3: Even with a very high number of samples, you have NOT explained the origin of 25% of the variance of the PM2.5. Why you only explained 75% of the variance? This is a low value for multivariate analysis from urban areas. This is mentioned as ” PMF 5.0 produces a six factors solution that explained 74% of the variance

Printer-friendly version

Discussion paper



in ambient PM<sub>2.5</sub> “ You have not discussed this important point. It is strange that the unexplained PM<sub>2.5</sub> is only 5-7% in Figure 2, and you explained only 75% of the variability.

Answer: The average source contributions must add up to the average PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentration by design (except by an intercept value). On the other hand, model variability stands for the scatter of individual (daily) model estimates compared with the actual observed (daily) PM<sub>2.5</sub>. These are different parameters. It is difficult to find receptor models that explain more than 90% of the variance. In our case, the unexplained 25% may be ascribed to the following causes:

i) Actual source profiles do not stay constant over the whole modeling period, adding uncertainty to the model results. ii) We could not include organic/elemental carbon into the model. The lack of these two components may increase uncertainty in the resolved source profiles. For instance, the ratio OC/EC is helpful in discriminating motor vehicles from wood burning. iii) We only had inorganic tracer species in the dataset, which put a limitation on our analysis. We knew that secondary organic aerosols (SOA) may be relevant in the warm season (October - April), as shown by Villalobos et al (2015) for Santiago in 2013 (application of CMB with organic molecular markers); these authors estimated that nearly 30% of total PM<sub>2.5</sub> was identified as SOA.

We have added these new comments in the discussion section.

Page 7 – Line 13: There is a very important lack overall in the whole manuscript of standard deviation for the reported values. Even mean concentrations for PM<sub>2.5</sub> do not report their standard deviation. This is unacceptable in science: All reported average values needs to have their standard deviation reported together with the mean value. For instance in the phrase: “Over the whole study period, the daily mean (24 h) concentration of PM<sub>2.5</sub> was 35.60  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  and the median 24.19  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ ”

Answer: We agree with this comment. Since data have a non-normal distribution, we have used the median absolute deviation (MAD) as a measure of dispersion for each

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reported median and mean value.

Page 8 line 20: Very strange that the reduction in industrial sources was attributed to decrease in sulfur in the DIESEL, used in the transportation. This needs to be correctly explained. This is on the phrase: “In Figure 5 we show temporal evolution of the source identify by PMF as industrial sources. This source reduced its 20 contributions from 1998 to 2012 by 2.63  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  (39.23%,  $p=0.11\times 10^{-8}$ ). This improvement can be explained by the reduction policies for sulfur in diesel fuel”.

Answer: The quality of industrial diesel fuel was also improved. We put in the page 8 (3.3.2 section) the following new sentence: “[. . .], that can be explained by a reduction of sulfur in industrial diesel, which was reduced from 1000 to 300 ppm in 2001 [. . .]”

#### New references

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Interactive comment on *Atmos. Chem. Phys. Discuss.*, doi:10.5194/acp-2017-18, 2017.

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Table 1 Comparison of source apportionment studies in Latin American cities<sup>(a)</sup>. Total PM<sub>2.5</sub> and its sources are expressed in µg/m<sup>3</sup>.

Site Location	Country	Population	Model used	Reference	Study year	PM <sub>2.5</sub>	Sea salt	Dust	Traffic	Industry	Biomass burning	Other
Cordoba	Argentina	1,272,000	PMF	Lopez <sup>46</sup>	2009/2010	71		39.1	22.7	9.2		0.0
Curitiba	Brazil	2,751,907	APCA	Andrade <sup>1</sup>	2007/2008	12	0.0	0.0	6.6	1.9	0.0	3.5
Porto Alegre	Brazil	1,409,351	APCA	Andrade <sup>1</sup>	2007/2008	16	0.0	0.0	5.6	0.5	0.0	9.9
Belo Horizonte	Brazil	2,375,151	APCA	Andrade <sup>1</sup>	2007/2008	17	0.0	7.5	3.1	2.0	0.0	4.4
Recife	Brazil	1,537,704	APCA	Andrade <sup>1</sup>	2007/2008	18	4.3	1.4	6.7			5.6
Rio de Janeiro	Brazil	6,320,000	APCA	Andrade <sup>1</sup>	2007/2008	20		2.8	10.2	3.6		3.4
Sao Paulo	Brazil	11,235,503	APCA	Andrade <sup>1</sup>	2007/2008	28		3.6	11.2	3.6		9.5
Rio de Janeiro	Brazil	6,320,000	APFA	Godoy <sup>5</sup>	2003/2005	10		3.5	2.8	3.4		0.0
Santiago	Chile	5,278,000	PMF	Jorquera <sup>45-48</sup>	2004	32	3.2	1.3	10.0	3.1	9.3	5.3
Santiago	Chile	6,000,000	CMB	Villalobos	2013	33	1.0	2.5	11.0	4.6	5.2	8.9
Moravia	Costa Rica	56,919	PMF	Murillo <sup>47</sup>	2010/2011	18	2.0	3.9	5.2			6.9
San Jose	Costa Rica	288,054	PMF	Murillo <sup>47</sup>	2010/2011	26	2.0	3.5	4.8	6.9		8.9
Heredia	Costa Rica	20,191	PMF	Murillo <sup>47</sup>	2010/2011	37	2.4	5.1	5.8	10.3		13.4
Tijuana	Mexico	1,301,000	PMF	Minguillon <sup>50</sup>	2010	19	2.9		2.6	0.4	7.1	5.6
Mexico City	Mexico	8,851,000	CMB	Mugica <sup>51</sup>	2006	50		13.3	21.0	5.0		10.7
Salamanca	Mexico	152,048	PMF	Murillo <sup>52</sup>	2006/2007	45		7.3	5.8	8.2		23.7

(a) Adapted from WHO, [http://www.who.int/quantifying\\_ehimpacts/global/source\\_apport/en/](http://www.who.int/quantifying_ehimpacts/global/source_apport/en/).

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Table 2 Comparison of long-term source apportionment studies carried out in urban areas.

Location, period	PM2.5 mass	Motor vehicles	Sulfates + nitrates + ammonia	Biomass burning	Soil	Industry <sup>(c)</sup>
Los Angeles, CA, US, 2002-2013	17.5	3.3	9.6	1.1	1.0	-
Rubidoux, CA, US, 2002-2013	19.5	3.7	12.2	0.8	0.9	0.1
Detroit, US, 2003-2014	11.8	2.5	5.1	0.8	0.9	0.5
Chicago, US, 2006-2014	10.3	2.2	4.8	0.9	0.4	1.1
Sidney, Australia, 1998-2009	9.3	2.1	1.8 <sup>(a)</sup>	2.7	0.3	-
Hanoi, Vietnam, 2001-2008	54.0	21.6	15.7 <sup>(a)</sup>	7.0	1.8	10.3
Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia, 2002-2011	25.1	8.9	12.1 <sup>(b)</sup>	2.3	0.8	12.0

(a) Only ammonium sulfate is reported.

(b) Sulfate was expressed as ammonium sulfate.

(c) Whenever more than one type of industrial source has been resolved, they have been lumped together in a single industrial category.

Fig. 2.

Figure 3 Temporal evolution of  $PM_{2.5}$  concentrations in Parque O'Higgins monitoring station in central Santiago. The red line shows the annual median.

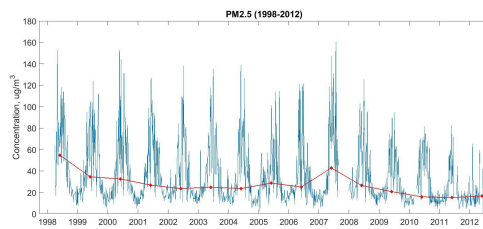


Figure 4 Top panel: Time series of motor vehicles contribution to  $PM_{2.5}$ . Bottom panel: p-value from a hypothesis test comparing the medians of both halves of a sliding window, repeated for 3 different window lengths (320, 480 and 640 days for blue, red and yellow, respectively).

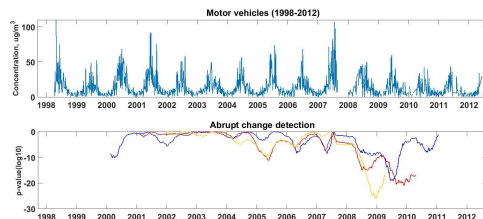
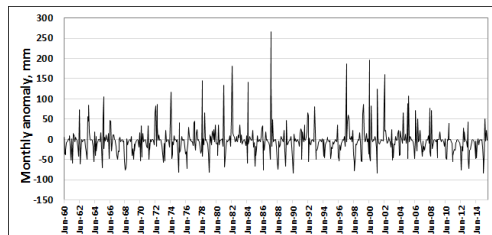


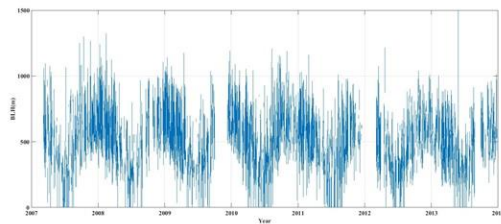
Fig. 3.

Figure S5 Monthly precipitation anomalies from the mean in downtown Santiago, 1960-2015. Source: <http://explorador.cr2.cl/>



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Fig. 4.



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Fig. 5.

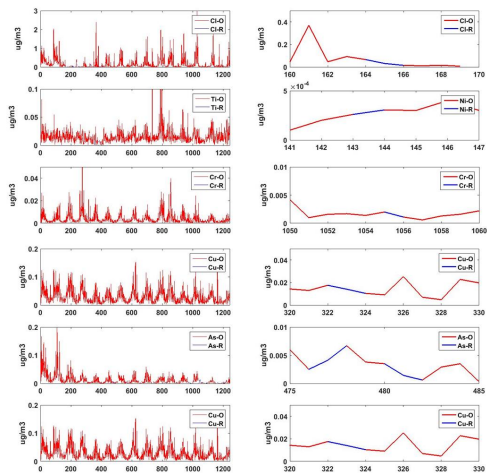
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Figure S1 Replacement of missing data. Original data (red line) with missing data filled using a custom-written algorithm (blue line) for Cl, Ti, Cr, Ni, Cu and As are shown on the left. The right hand side of the figure shows a zoom of the left panels for selected periods.



5

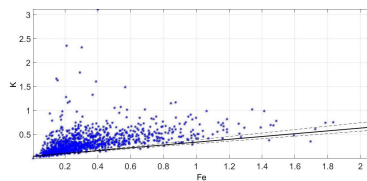
1

Fig. 6.

C21

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Figure S2 K-Fe edge plot. To provide a tracer associated with wood burning we added the non-soil potassium parameter  $K_{ns}$  calculated as  $K_{ns} = K - 0.3 \cdot Fe$ , from the K-Fe edge plot



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1

**Fig. 7.**

C22

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