



## 1      Exploration of PM<sub>2.5</sub> sources on the regional scale in the 2      Pearl River Delta based on ME-2 modeling

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### 13     **Abstract:**

14     The Pearl River Delta (PRD) of China, which has a population of more than 58 million people, is  
15     one of the largest agglomerations of cities in the world and ever experienced severe PM<sub>2.5</sub>  
16     pollution at the beginning of this century. Due to the implementation of strong pollution control in  
17     recent decades, PM<sub>2.5</sub> in the PRD has continuously decreased to relatively lower levels in China.  
18     To comprehensively understand the current PM<sub>2.5</sub> sources in the PRD to support future air  
19     pollution control strategy in similar regions, we performed regional-scale PM<sub>2.5</sub> field observations  
20     coupled with a state-of-the-art source apportionment model at six sites in four seasons in 2015.  
21     The regional annual average PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentration was determined to be 37 µg/m<sup>3</sup>, which is still  
22     more than three times the WHO standard, with organic matter (36.9%) and SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> (23.6%) as the  
23     most abundant species. A novel multilinear engine (ME-2) model was then applied to the PM<sub>2.5</sub>  
24     dataset in the PRD to perform source apportionment with predetermined constraints, which  
25     produced more environmentally meaningful results compared to those obtained using traditional  
26     positive matrix factorization (PMF) modeling. The regional annual average PM<sub>2.5</sub> source structure  
27     was retrieved to be secondary sulfate (21%), vehicle emissions (14%), industrial emissions (13%),  
28     secondary nitrate (11%), biomass burning (11%), secondary organic aerosol (SOA, 7%), coal  
29     burning (6%), fugitive dust (5%), ship emissions (3%) and aged sea salt (2%). Analyzing the  
30     spatial distribution of PM<sub>2.5</sub> sources under different weather conditions clearly identified the  
31     central PRD area as the key emission area for SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>x</sub>, coal burning, biomass burning, industrial  
32     emissions and vehicle emissions. It was further estimated that under the polluted northerly air flow  
33     in winter, local emissions in the central PRD area accounted for approximately 45% of the total  
34     PM<sub>2.5</sub>, with secondary nitrate and biomass burning being most abundant; in contrast, the regional  
35     transport from outside the PRD accounted for more than half of PM<sub>2.5</sub>, with secondary sulfate  
36     representing the most abundant transported species.

37

38     **Keywords:** source apportionment; ME-2; local emissions; regional transport; Pearl River Delta.



39 **1 Introduction**

40 With China's rapid economic growth and urbanization, air pollution has become a serious  
41 problem in recent decades. Due to its smaller size, fine particulate matter (PM<sub>2.5</sub>) can carry toxic  
42 chemicals into human lungs and bronchi, causing respiratory diseases and cardiovascular diseases  
43 that can harm human health (Sarnat et al., 2008; Burnett et al., 2014). In particular, long-term  
44 exposure to high concentrations of fine particulate matter can also lead to premature death  
45 (Lelieveld et al., 2015). The Chinese government has attached great importance to improving air  
46 quality and issued the "Air Pollution Prevention and Control Action Plan" in September 2013,  
47 clearly requiring the concentrations levels of fine particulate matter in a few key regions,  
48 including the Pearl River Delta (PRD), to drop by 2017 from 15 to 25% of their values in 2012.  
49 The Pearl River Delta is one of the fastest-growing regions in China and the largest urban  
50 agglomeration in the world; it includes Guangzhou, Shenzhen, Zhuhai, Dongguan, Foshan,  
51 Huizhou, Zhongshan, Zhaoqing and Jiangmen provinces and contains more than 58 million people.  
52 The PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentration in this region reached a high level of 58 µg/m<sup>3</sup> in 2007 (Nanfang Daily,  
53 2016); however, the air quality has significantly improved due to the implementation of strict air  
54 pollution control measures, which occurred here earlier than in other regions in China. The annual  
55 average concentration of PM<sub>2.5</sub> in the PRD dropped to 34 µg/m<sup>3</sup> in 2015 (Ministry of  
56 Environmental Protection, 2016).

57 In recent years, the receptor model method (commonly, positive matrix factorization) in the  
58 PRD was applied to perform the source apportionment of PM<sub>2.5</sub>, which was carried out in several  
59 major cities, including Guangzhou (Gao et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2016),  
60 Shenzhen (Huang et al., 2014b), Dongguan (Wang et al., 2015b; Zou et al., 2017) and Foshan  
61 (Tan et al., 2016). However, the above source apportionment studies only focused on part of PM<sub>2.5</sub>  
62 (e.g., organic matter) or lacked the extensive representation of the PRD. Since the lifetime of  
63 PM<sub>2.5</sub> in the surface layer of the atmosphere is days to weeks and the cities in PRD are closely  
64 linked, the transport of PM<sub>2.5</sub> between cities should be specifically noteworthy (Hagler et al.,  
65 2006). On the other hand, although the positive matrix factorization (PMF) model has been  
66 successfully applied to source apportionment in the PRD, the apportionment with PMF has high  
67 rotational ambiguity and can output non-meaningful or mixed factors. Under such conditions, the  
68 multilinear engine (ME-2) model can guide the rotation toward a more objective optimal solution  
69 by utilizing a priori information (i.e., predetermined factor profiles). In recent years, ME-2,  
70 initiated and controlled via the Source Finder (SoFi) written by the Paul Scherrer Institute, was  
71 successfully developed to apportion the sources of organic aerosols (Canonaco et al., 2013). The  
72 novel ME-2 model has become a widely used and successful source analysis technique (e.g.  
73 Crippa et al., 2014; Fröhlich et al., 2015; Visser et al., 2015; Elser et al., 2016; Reyes-Villegas et  
74 al., 2016).

75 Accurately understanding the regional characteristics of PM<sub>2.5</sub> sources in the PRD can  
76 certainly guide the regional joint prevention and control of PM<sub>2.5</sub> in this region and provide useful  
77 references for future air pollution control strategies in China. Thus, in this study, the PM<sub>2.5</sub> mass  
78 and chemical compositions were measured during four seasons in 2015 at six sites in the PRD,  
79 which basically represent the pollution level of the PRD on a regional scale rather than on a city  
80 scale. The novel ME-2 model via the SoFi was applied to identify the sources of PM<sub>2.5</sub> in the PRD;  
81 then, the spatial locations of the sources were systematically explored using the analysis of  
82 weather conditions.



83 **2 Experimental methodology**

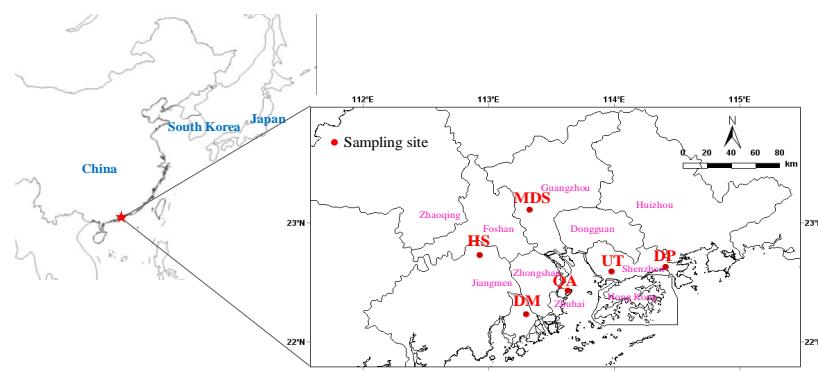
84 **2.1 Sampling and chemical analysis**

85 The PRD is located in south central Guangdong Province. Based on the layout of the cities in  
86 the PRD, six sampling sites were selected to represent urban, suburban, and background sites.  
87 Detailed descriptions of these sampling sites are listed in Table 1, and their locations are shown on  
88 the regional map in Fig. 1.

89 **Table 1.** Description of the sampling sites in the PRD.

Site	Site code	Coordinates	Site description	
Doumen	DM	Lat: N 22.23 Lon: E 113.30	Suburban	Contains industrial areas
Qi-Ao island	QA	Lat: N 22.43 Lon: E 113.63	Background	An area for eco-tourism
Heshan	HS	Lat: N 22.73 Lon: E 112.93	Suburban	Contains industrial areas and farmlands
Modiesha	MDS	Lat: N 23.11 Lon: E 113.33	Urban	Contains dense urban traffic
University Town	UT	Lat: N 22.59 Lon: E 113.98	Urban	Contains urban traffic
Dapeng	DP	Lat: N 22.63 Lon: E 114.41	Background	An area for eco-tourism

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91

92 **Fig. 1.** Spatial distribution of the sampling sites in the PRD.

93 Samples were collected every other day during the months of January–February (winter),  
94 April (spring), July (summer) and October–November (fall) in 2015. Each sampling period lasted  
95 for 24 h at each site. The sampling sites of University Town (UT) and Dapeng (DP) used Thermo  
96 2300 PM<sub>2.5</sub> samplers (Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., Waltham, Massachusetts, USA, with a  
97 flowrate of 16.7 L/min for two channels and a flowrate of 10.0 L/min for the other two channels),  
98 while those in Modiesha (MDS), Heshan (HS), Qi-Ao Island (QA) and Doumen (DM) used  
99 TH-16A PM<sub>2.5</sub> samplers (Tianhong Corp., Wu Han, China, with a flow rate of 16.7 L/min for four



100 channels). Prior to the sampling campaigns, two different types of samplers sampled in parallel  
101 yielded a relative deviation of less than 5% for  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  mass concentrations. The  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  mass can be  
102 obtained based on the difference in the weight of the Teflon filter before and after sampling in a  
103 cleanroom at conditions of 20°C and 50% relative humidity. Teflon filters were analyzed for their  
104 major ion contents ( $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-$ ,  $\text{NH}_4^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$ ) via an ion chromatography system (ICS-2500,  
105 Dionex; Sunnyvale, California, USA), and their metal element contents (23 species) were  
106 analyzed via an inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometer (ICP-MS, auroraM90; Bruker,  
107 Germany). Quartz filters were analyzed for their organic carbon (OC) and elemental carbon (EC)  
108 contents using an OC/EC analyzer (Desert Research Institute, Reno, Nevada, USA). The overall  
109 organic mass (OM) was estimated as  $1.8 \times \text{OC}$  (He et al., 2011).

110 The meteorological conditions during the observation period, shown in Table 2, indicated  
111 that the PRD region experienced a hot and humid summer and a cool and dry winter, while spring  
112 and fall were two transition seasons. Furthermore, the back trajectories of the air masses obtained  
113 using the NOAA HYSPLIT model (Fig. S1) revealed that the air masses originated from the  
114 northern inland in winter, from the northern inland and the South China Sea in spring, from the  
115 South China Sea in summer, and from the northeast coast and the northern inland in fall.

116 **Table 2.** General meteorological conditions during the observation period in the PRD.

	Mean (°C)	Temp. (mm)	Rainfall (%)	Mean RH	Mean wind speed (m/s)	Predominant wind direction
Winter(Jan.10-Feb.9)	17	35	63%	2.1		ENE
Spring(Apr.2-Apr.30)	23	61	72%	1.8		SSW
Summer(Jul.1-Jul.29)	29	244	74%	2.1		SW
Fall(Oct.11-Nov.10)	25	92	68%	1.7		NNE

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## 118 **2.2 Input data matrices for source apportionment modeling**

119 PMF is a multivariate factor analysis tool widely used for aerosol source apportionment. The  
120 PMF algorithm groups the measured matrix  $\mathbf{X}$  (Eq. (1)) into two non-negative constant matrices  $\mathbf{G}$   
121 (factor time series) and  $\mathbf{F}$  (factor profiles), and  $\mathbf{E}$  denotes the model residuals (Paatero and Tapper,  
122 1994). The entries in  $\mathbf{G}$  and  $\mathbf{F}$  are fitted using a least-squares algorithm that iteratively minimizes  
123 the object function  $Q$  in Eq. (2), where  $e_{ij}$  are the elements of the residual matrix  $\mathbf{E}$ , and  $u_{ij}$  are  
124 the errors/uncertainties of the measured species  $x_{ij}$ .

$$125 \quad \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{G} \bullet \mathbf{F} + \mathbf{E} \quad (1)$$

$$126 \quad Q = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m (e_{ij}/u_{ij})^2 \quad (2)$$

127 The multilinear engine (ME-2) was later developed by Paatero (1999) based on the PMF  
128 algorithm. In contrast to an unconstrained PMF analysis, ME-2 can utilize the constraints (i.e.,  
129 predetermined factor profiles) provided by the user to enhance the control of rotation for a more  
130 objective solution. One or more factor profiles can be expediently input into ME-2, and the output  
131 profiles are allowed to vary from the input profiles to some extent. When using ME-2 modeling,  
132 the “mixed factors” can usually be better resolved.



133 In this study, both PMF and ME-2 models were run for the datasets observed in the PRD. We  
134 first need to determine the species input into the models. Species that may lead to high species  
135 residuals or lower  $R^2$  values between measured and model-predicted or non-meaning factors were  
136 not included, such as those that fulfilled the following criteria: (1) species that were below  
137 detection in more than 40% of samples; (2) species that yielded  $R^2$  values of less than 0.4 in  
138 inter-species correlation analysis; and (3) species that had little implication for pollution sources  
139 and lower concentrations. Therefore, 18 species were input into the models; these species  
140 accounted for 99.6% of the total measured species and included OM, EC,  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-$ ,  $\text{NH}_4^+$ ,  $\text{Cl}^-$ ,  
141 K, Ca, Na, Mg, Al, Zn, Fe, Cd, V, Ni, Ti and Pb.

142 The application of PMF or ME-2 also depends on the estimated realistic uncertainty ( $u_{ij}$ ) of  
143 the individual data point of an input matrix, which determines the  $Q$  value in Eq. (2). Therefore,  
144 the estimation of uncertainty is an important component of the application of these models. There  
145 are many sources of uncertainty, including sampling, handling, transport, storage, preparation, and  
146 testing (Leiva et al., 2012). In this study, the sources of uncertainty that contributed little to the  
147 total uncertainty could be neglected. Therefore, we first considered the uncertainties introduced by  
148 sampling and analysis processes, such as sampling volume, repeatability analysis and ion  
149 extraction. The species uncertainties  $u_{ij}$  are estimated using Eq. (5), where  $\bar{u}_c$  is the error  
150 fraction of the species, which is estimated using the relative combined error formula Eq. (6)  
151 (Vazquez et al., 2008).

$$152 \quad u_{ij} = \bar{u}_c \times x_{ij} \quad (5)$$

$$153 \quad \bar{u}_c = \sqrt{\bar{u}_f^2 + \bar{u}_r^2 + \bar{u}_e^2} \quad (6)$$

154 where  $\bar{u}_f$  is the relative error of the sampling volume;  $\bar{u}_r$  is the relative error of the repeatability  
155 analysis of the standard species; and  $\bar{u}_e$  is the relative error of the ion extraction of multiple  
156 samples. When the concentration of the species is below the detection limit (DL), the  
157 concentration values were replaced by 1/2 of DL, and the corresponding uncertainties were set at  
158 5/6 of DL. Missing values were replaced by the geometric mean of the species with corresponding  
159 uncertainties of 4 times their geometric mean (Polissar et al., 1998). To account for other  
160 uncertainties, the estimated uncertainties ( $\bar{u}_c$ ) of all species were further increased by a factor of 2.

### 161 2.3 Constraint setup in ME-2 modeling

162 In this study, USEPA PMF (v5.0) was first applied with the concentration matrix and  
163 uncertainties matrix described above to identify the  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  sources. After examining a range of  
164 factor numbers from 3 to 12, the nine-factor solution output by PMF (base run,  $Q_{\text{true}}/Q_{\text{exp}}=2.5$ ) was  
165 found to be the optimal solution, since the factor of biomass burning was not extracted in the  
166 eight-factor solution while the factor of fugitive dust was separated into two non-meaningful  
167 factors when more factors were set to run PMF. For the nine-factor solution, the source judgement  
168 based on tracers for each factor was identical to that of the ME-2 results detailed in Section 3.2.  
169 However, in Fig. S2, some factors seemed to be mixed by some unexpected components and were  
170 thus overestimated. For example, the secondary sulfate and secondary nitrate factors of PMF had  
171 certain species from primary particulates, such as EC, Zn, Al, K and Fe, among which EC had  
172 obvious EV values of 18.7% and 9.7%, respectively; the EV value of OM in the sea salt factor



173 (which was theoretically negligible) had a high value of 6.4%, and OM accounted for 37% of the  
 174 total mass of this factor; the EV value of  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  in the fugitive dust factor (which was theoretically  
 175 negligible) had a high value of 8.6%, and the  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  concentration accounted for 26% of the total  
 176 mass of this factor.

177 Therefore, using the same species concentration matrix and uncertainties matrix, we ran the  
 178 ME-2 model via SoFi for 9-12 factors with the four factors constrained as described above, as  
 179 shown in Table 3. The following considerations were used. Secondary sulfate and secondary  
 180 nitrate factors should theoretically not contain species from primary particulates, but they may  
 181 contain secondary organic matter related to the secondary conversion process of  $\text{SO}_2$  and  $\text{NO}_x$  (He  
 182 et al., 2011; Yuan et al., 2006b; Huang et al., 2014b). Therefore, the contributions of the species  
 183 from primary particulates were constrained to zero in the input secondary aerosol factors, while  
 184 others were not constrained. In addition, the factors of sea salt and fugitive dust in primary  
 185 aerosols could be understood based on the abundance of species in seawater and the upper crust  
 186 (Mason, 1982; Taylor and McLennan, 1995). As seen in Table S1, the abundances of  $\text{Cl}^-$ ,  $\text{Na}^+$ ,  
 187  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ,  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  and  $\text{K}^+$  in sea salt were relatively high, as were the abundances of Al, Fe, Ca,  
 188 Na, K, Mg and Ti in fugitive dust. Therefore, these high-abundance species were not constrained  
 189 in the sea salt and fugitive dust factors, while the other species (with abundances of less than 0.1%  
 190 in the particulates) were constrained to zero (Table 3). In addition,  $\text{HNO}_3$  might react with sea salt  
 191 to displace  $\text{Cl}^-$  (Huang et al., 2006); thus,  $\text{NO}_3^-$  was also not constrained in the sea salt factor.

192 **Table 3.** The constraints of factor species for ME-2 modeling.

Factors	OM	EC	$\text{Cl}^-$	$\text{NO}_3^-$	$\text{SO}_4^{2-}$	$\text{NH}_4^+$	Ca	Ti	V	Ni	Zn	Cd	Pb	Na	Mg	Al	K	Fe
Secondary sulfate	0	0	0				0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Secondary nitrate	0	0		0			0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Sea salt	0	0			0		0	0	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	0
Fugitive dust	0	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	0	0						

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### 194 **3 Results and discussion**

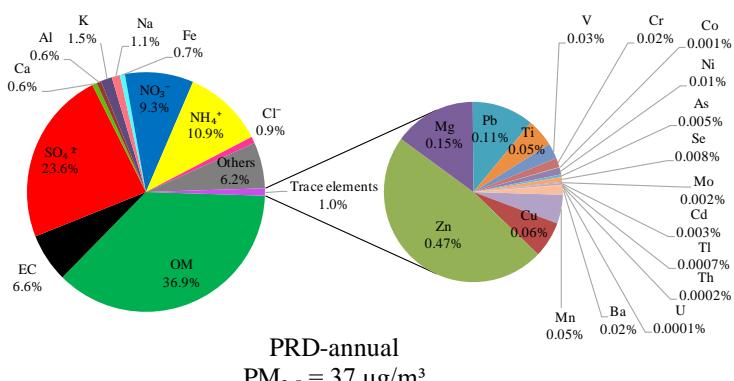
#### 195 **3.1 Tempo-spatial variations of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ in the PRD**

196 The 4-month average  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  concentration for all six sites in the PRD was  $37 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ , which was  
 197 slightly higher than the Grade II national standards for air quality (with an annual mean of  $35 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ ). The chemical compositions of  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  in the PRD are shown in Fig. 2. OM had the highest  
 198 contribution of 36.9%, suggesting severe organic pollution in the PRD. Other important  
 199 components included  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  (23.6%),  $\text{NH}_4^+$  (10.9%),  $\text{NO}_3^-$  (9.3%), EC (6.6%) and  $\text{Cl}^-$  (0.9%).  
 200 The major metallic components included K (1.5%), Na (1.1%), Fe (0.7%), Al (0.6%), and Ca  
 201 (0.6%), and trace elements accounted for 6.2%. Fig. 3a shows the spatial distribution of the  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$   
 202 and chemical components between six sites. The  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  pollution level in the PRD was distinctly  
 203 higher in the northwestern hinterland (HS and MDS) and lower in the southern coastal areas (DM  
 204 and DP). The much lower  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  concentration at the background DP ( $28 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ ) indicated that the  
 205 central PRD area was characterized by large contributions of pollution transported from outside  
 206 this region. At the background DP site, the fractions of  $\text{Cl}^-$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  in  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  were the lowest of  
 207 the six sites, i.e., 0.3% and 3.9%, respectively, suggesting that they had dominantly local sources  
 208 in the PRD. The highest concentration level of  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  was observed at HS (suburban), which was  
 209

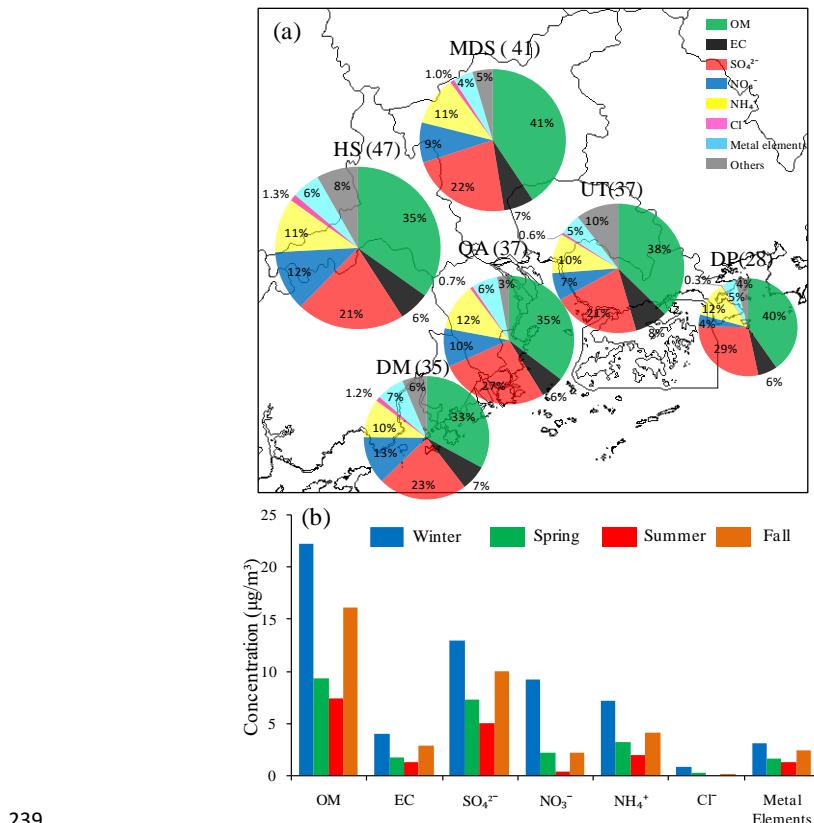


210 influenced by the pollution transport of Foshan (industrial city) and Guangzhou (metropolis) under  
211 the dominant northeastern wind the year. Fig. 3b shows that the seasonal variations in the major  
212 components of  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  in the PRD were evidently higher in winter and lower in summer and that  
213 they were correlated with monsoon characteristics. The back trajectories of the air masses (Fig. S1)  
214 show that the northern monsoon prevails in winter and the southern monsoon prevails in summer  
215 in the PRD. Under the northeast monsoon, the air masses mostly came from the inland and carried  
216 higher concentrations of air pollutants. However, under the southwest monsoon, the air masses  
217 largely originated from the South China Sea and were relatively clean. In addition, the frequent  
218 rainfall and higher planetary boundary layer (PBL) in summer in the PRD also favored the  
219 dispersion and removal of air pollutants (Huang et al., 2014b).

220 In 2002–2003, Hagler et al. (2006) also conducted observations and analysis of  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  in the  
221 PRD and Hong Kong region, nearly 12 years before this study, as shown in Table 4. Compared  
222 with Hagler's results, the  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  concentrations in this study decreased by 42% in Guangzhou  
223 (MDS) and 21% in Shenzhen (UT), especially OC, EC and  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ , which decreased significantly  
224 by 20%–47%, indicating that the measures taken to desulfurize coal-fired power plants, improve  
225 the fuel standards of motor vehicles and phase-out yellow label vehicles have played important  
226 roles in improving the air quality in the PRD region (People's Government of Guangdong  
227 Province, 2012). Compared with the  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  concentrations reported by other cities in China in  
228 recent years, the  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  concentrations in urban Guangzhou and Shenzhen in this study were  
229 63%–75% lower than those in Beijing and Tianjin in northern China, Hainan in eastern China, and  
230 Deyang in western China. However, the  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  concentrations in urban Guangzhou and Shenzhen  
231 observed in this study were clearly higher than those in famous mega-cities in developed countries,  
232 such as Paris, London, and Los Angeles, while they were similar to those of Santiago and Incheon.  
233 It should be highlighted that the higher concentration of  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  in the urban atmosphere of the  
234 PRD is one of the major reasons leading to the higher degree of  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  pollution in the PRD  
235 compared to those in developed cities.



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238  
**Fig. 2.** Chemical composition of annual average  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  in the PRD region.



239

240 **Fig. 3.** The spatial distributions (a) and seasonal variations (b) of the PM<sub>2.5</sub> chemical compositions in the PRD  
241 (unit in brackets:  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ ).

242

243 **Table 4.** The comparison of the major chemical compositions of PM<sub>2.5</sub> in typical cities (unit:  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ ).

Cities	Periods	PM <sub>2.5</sub>	OC	EC	SO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup>	NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup>	NH <sub>4</sub> <sup>+</sup>	References
Zhuhai (DM)	2015.1–2015.11	35	6.4	2.3	8.1	4.4	3.6	This study
Zhuhai (QA)		37	7.2	2.2	9.9	3.5	4.4	
Jiangmen (HS)		47	9.0	2.8	9.8	5.6	5.0	
Guangzhou (MDS)		41	9.3	2.7	9.2	3.7	4.6	
Shenzhen (UT)		37	7.8	3.0	8.0	2.6	3.7	
Shenzhen (DP)		28	6.2	1.8	8.0	1.1	3.3	
Hong Kong (Urban)	2002.10–2003.6	34.3	6.6	1.9	9.3	1.0	2.5	Hagler et al., 2006
Shenzhen (Urban)		47.1	11.1	3.9	10.0	2.3	3.2	
Guangzhou (Urban)		70.6	17.6	4.4	14.7	4.0	4.5	
Beijing	2012.6–2013.4	112	17	6	24	20	16	Wang et al., 2015a
Wuqing/Tianjin	2012.11–2013.7	148.9	14.1	0.6	24.2	19.6	8.5	Zhou et al., 2016
Haining/Zhejiang		109.6	9	1.4	16.5	13.9	6.1	
Deyang/Sichuan		121.5	13.8	1.4	21.6	10.2	6.3	
Paris/France	2009.9–2010.9	14.8	3.0	1.4	2.0	2.9	1.4	Bressi et al., 2013



London/United Kingdom	2003.12–2005.4	31.0	5.6	1.6	2.8	3.5	2.1	Rodríguez et al., 2007
Los Angeles/United States	2002–2013	17.1	2.2	1.3	2.7	4.9	0.1	Hasheminassab et al., 2014
Santiago/Chile	2013.3–2013.10	40	12.1	4.3	1.9	7.1	3.3	Villalobos et al., 2015
Incheon/Korea	2009.6–2010.5	42	7.9	1.7	5.1	4.6	3.7	Choi et al., 2012

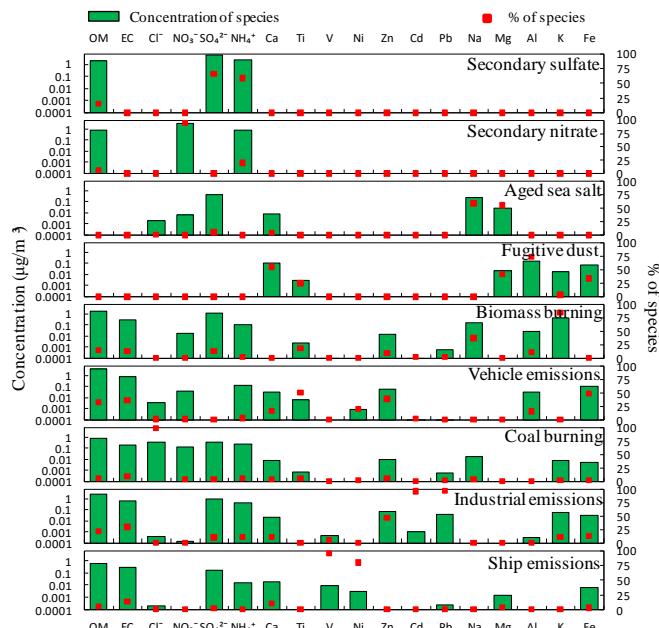
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245 **3.2 Source apportionment of PM<sub>2.5</sub> using ME-2**

246 The solutions of 9–12 factors of the ME-2 were modeled with the four factors constrained in  
 247 Table 3, using the SoFi tool, an implementation of ME-2 (Canonaco et al., 2013). Again, the  
 248 nine-factor solution provided the most reasonable source profiles, since non-interpretable factors  
 249 were produced (e.g., a Ti-high factor) when more factors were set to run ME-2. Based on the  
 250 percentage explained variations (EV) and the contributed concentrations of species in each factor  
 251 shown in Fig. 4, the sources of PM<sub>2.5</sub> can be judged as follows: (1) the first factor was explained  
 252 as secondary sulfate, which had large EV values of SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>. The high OM concentration  
 253 was considered to represent low-volatile oxygenated organic aerosol (LV-OOA, Jimenez et al.,  
 254 2009; He et al., 2011). (2) The second factor was explained as secondary nitrate, which had  
 255 significant EV values of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, and its high OM concentration was considered to  
 256 represent semi-volatile oxygenated organic aerosol (SV-OOA, Jimenez et al., 2009; He et al.,  
 257 2011). (3) The third factor was related to sea salt due to the large EV values and concentrations of  
 258 Na and Mg. However, the low Cl<sup>-</sup> concentration and high SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> concentration implied that SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>  
 259 replaced Cl<sup>-</sup> during the sea salt aging process. Therefore, this factor was identified as aged sea salt  
 260 (Yuan et al., 2006a). (4) The fourth factor was identified as fugitive dust due to its significant EV  
 261 values of Al, Ca, Mg and Fe. In this study, the undetermined mass of O and Si in this factor was  
 262 compensated using the elemental abundance in dust particles in Table S1 (Taylor and McLennan,  
 263 1995). (5) The fifth factor was identified as biomass burning due to its significant characteristic  
 264 value of K (Yamasoe et al., 2000). (6) The sixth factor had high concentrations and large EV  
 265 values of OM and EC, as well as a certain range of EV values of Fe and Zn, which were related to  
 266 tires and the brake wear of motor vehicles (Yuan et al., 2006a; He et al., 2011). Therefore, this  
 267 factor was identified as vehicle emissions. (7) The seventh factor had a high EV value of Cl<sup>-</sup> and  
 268 certain concentrations of OM, EC, SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, implying a combustion source. This factor  
 269 was identified as coal burning, which was a major source of Cl<sup>-</sup> in the PRD (Wang et al., 2015b).  
 270 (8) The eighth factor had large EV values of Zn, Cd and Pb, and certain concentrations of OM and  
 271 EC. Zn, Cd and Pb had high enrichment factors (Table S2) of 821, 4121 and 663, respectively, and  
 272 were thus considered to be related to industrial emissions (Wang et al., 2015b). (9) The last factor  
 273 had large EV values of V and Ni. V and Ni were predominantly derived from heavy oil  
 274 combustion, and they had high enrichment factors (Table S2) of 64 and 89, respectively. Heavy oil  
 275 was related to ship emissions in the PRD (Chow et al., 2002; Huang et al., 2014b). In this study,  
 276 secondary organic aerosol (SOA), which was not resolved as a single factor, can be extracted from  
 277 the factors of secondary sulfate and secondary nitrate in the forms of LV-OOA and SV-OOA,  
 278 respectively. Therefore, in terms of the mass balance of PM<sub>2.5</sub>, SOA can be calculated as the sum  
 279 of LV-OOA and SV-OOA (Yuan et al., 2006b). It is easy to see that, in comparison with the PMF  
 280 modeling (Fig. S2), the ME-2 modeling indeed provided a better Q<sub>true</sub>/Q<sub>exp</sub> (1.2) than the PMF  
 281 modeling (Q<sub>true</sub>/Q<sub>exp</sub> = 2.5), and the EV values of tracers (e.g., SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, OM, EC, Cl<sup>-</sup>, V, Ni,  
 282 Pb and Cd) were assigned more intensively. Therefore, it is concluded that the source  
 283 apportionment results of ME-2 in this study were more environmentally meaningful and



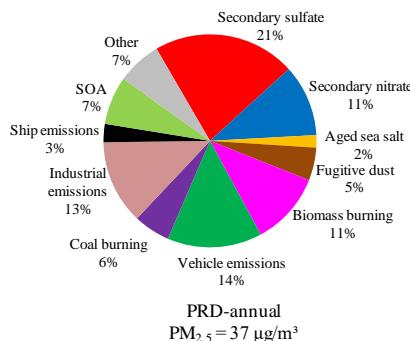
284 statistically better than those of PMF modeling.



285

286 **Fig. 4.** The factor profiles and explained variations of the ME-2 modeling.

287 Fig. 5 shows the 4-month average contributions of the  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  sources in the PRD in 2015  
288 based on the source apportionment of ME-2. The total secondary aerosols accounted for 39% of  
289  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  in the PRD, which were secondary sulfate (21%), secondary nitrate (11%) and SOA (7%).  
290 However, the identified primary particulates contributed 54% of  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ , which comprised vehicle  
291 emissions (14%), industrial emissions (13%), biomass burning (11%), coal burning (6%), fugitive  
292 dust (5%), ship emissions (3%) and aged sea salt (2%). Unidentified sources accounted for 7%.



293

294 **Fig. 5.** The annual average contributions of  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  sources in the PRD.

### 295 3.3 Tempo-spatial variations of sources in the PRD

296 The spatial distributions of the  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  sources between six sites are shown in Fig. 6a.  
297 Secondary sulfate represented the largest fraction (31%) of  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  at DP, indicating that it was a  
298 major air pollutant in the air mass transported to the PRD. Vehicle emissions also contributed

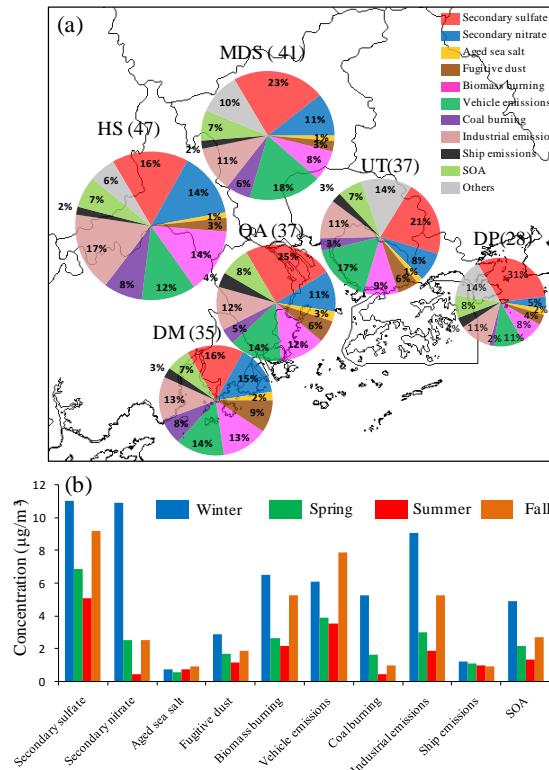


299 relatively highly to urban sites (18% in MDS and 17% in UT). Industrial emissions, biomass  
300 burning, secondary nitrate, and coal burning contributed larger fractions of  $PM_{2.5}$  at HS, which  
301 could be attributed to both strong local sources (e.g., the surrounding township factories and  
302 farmlands) and regional transport from upwind cities at this site. Fugitive dust, which is primarily  
303 related to construction activities, was relatively high at DM (9%). The contributions of ship  
304 emissions and aged sea salt were the highest at QA due to its being located on Qi-Ao Island in the  
305 Pearl River Estuary, which records the greatest impact from the sea. SOA contributed similar  
306 amounts (7%–8%) at all sites. It should be noted that, although QA was a background site without  
307 local anthropogenic sources, its  $PM_{2.5}$  level was moderate in the PRD, indicating that QA was  
308 impacted by severe regional transport from the surrounding cities.

309 Fig. 6b shows the seasonal variations of the major sources of  $PM_{2.5}$  in the PRD. The  
310 contributions of most sources were higher in winter and lower in summer, e.g., secondary sulfate,  
311 secondary nitrate, fugitive dust, biomass burning, vehicle emissions, coal burning, industrial  
312 emissions and SOA; these sources were correlated with monsoon characteristics and rainfall and  
313 PBL variations. In contrast, the contributions of aged sea salt and ship emissions displayed little  
314 seasonal variations, which could be attributed to the fact that they played more important roles  
315 only when the wind came from the sea in the south, when the background levels of other air  
316 pollutants were lower.

317 Previous studies of the source apportionment of bulk  $PM_{2.5}$  in the PRD have mainly focused  
318 on Guangzhou, Dongguan and Shenzhen, as seen in Table 5. It can be seen that in those studies,  
319  $PM_{2.5}$  was apportioned to 6–9 sources and that secondary sulfate was the prominent source,  
320 although the results of different studies exhibited certain differences due to the use of different  
321 models or data inputs. Compared with the study of Huang et al. (2014b) in Shenzhen in 2009, the  
322 contributions of secondary sulfate and vehicle emissions in Shenzhen in this study were obviously  
323 lower due to power plant desulfurization and motor vehicle oil upgrades in recent years (People's  
324 Government of Shenzhen Municipality, 2013). Compared with previous studies in Guangzhou,  
325 this study attained more  $PM_{2.5}$  sources, which can more clearly describe the source structure of  
326  $PM_{2.5}$  in this region, especially industrial emissions (11%). The PRD region has experienced a  
327 high degree of industrialization; thus, industrial sources should be a major source, contributing 8.1%  
328 of  $PM_{2.5}$  reported by the Guangzhou Environmental Protection Bureau (2017), similar to our  
329 results. Tao et al. (2017) apportioned  $PM_{2.5}$  to 6 sources using PMF in Guangzhou, including some  
330 mixed sources. For example, ship emissions in Tao's study may not actually represent a primary  
331 source due to the significant existence of some secondary inorganics and sea salt in the source  
332 profile; thus, they obtained a significantly higher contribution (17%) than that in our study. Ship  
333 emissions were unidentified in Huang's study (2014a) in Guangzhou.

334



335

336 **Fig. 6.** The spatial distributions (a) and seasonal variations (b) of PM<sub>2.5</sub> sources in the PRD (unit in brackets:  
337 µg/m<sup>3</sup>).

338

339

**Table 5.** Comparison of the results of source apportionment of PM<sub>2.5</sub> in the PRD.

Cities	Periods	Model	Results	References
Guangzhou	2015.1—2015.11	ME-2	Secondary sulfate (23%), secondary nitrate (11%), SOA (7%), vehicle emissions (18%), industrial emissions (11%), biomass burning (8%), coal burning (6%), fugitive dust (3%), ship emissions (2%) and aged sea salt (1%).	This study
Guangzhou	2015.1—2015.2	ME-2	Secondary sulfate (20%), secondary nitrate (16%), SOA (8%), vehicle emissions (11%), industrial emissions (13%), biomass burning (6%), coal burning (9%), fugitive dust (2%), ship emissions (1%) and aged sea salt (1%).	This study
Shenzhen	2015.1—2015.11	ME-2	Secondary sulfate (21%), secondary nitrate (8%) and SOA (7%), vehicle emissions (17%), industrial emissions (11%), biomass burning (9%), coal burning (3%), fugitive dust (6%), ship emissions (3%) and aged sea salt (1%).	This study
Guangzhou	2014.1—2014.12	PMF	Secondary sulfate and biomass burning (38%), ship emissions (17%), coal combustion (15%), traffic emissions (10%), secondary nitrate and chloride (12%), soil dust (7%).	Tao et al. (2017)
Guangzhou	2013.1	ME-2	Secondary inorganic-rich (59.0%), secondary organic-rich (18.1%), traffic (8.6%), coal burning (3.4%), biomass burning (6.7%), cooking (0.8%), dust related (3.4%).	Huang et al. (2014a)



Dongguan	2013.12—2014.11	PMF	Secondary sulfate (20%), secondary nitrate (8%), SOA (10%), vehicle emissions (21%), industrial emissions (7%), biomass burning (11%), coal burning (5%), fugitive dust (8%), ship emissions (6%).	Zou et al. (2017)
Dongguan	2010.2—2012.12	PMF	Secondary sulfate (27%), secondary nitrate (19%), industrial emission (15%), biomass burning (9%) and coal combustion (9%); ship emissions/sea salt, vehicle exhaust, plastic burning and dust no more than 7%.	Wang et al. (2015b)
Shenzhen	2009.1—2009.12	PMF	Secondary sulfate (30.0%), vehicular emission (26.9%), biomass burning (9.8%), secondary nitrate (9.3%), high chloride (3.8%), heavy oil combustion (3.6%), sea salt (2.6%), dust (2.5%), metallurgical industry (2.1%).	Huang et al. (2014b)

340

### 341 3.4 Identification of high-emission areas in the PRD in typical meteorological conditions

342 Changes in meteorological conditions with the seasons have significant influences on the air  
 343 quality in the PRD (Hagler et al., 2006). The same type of weather is often repeated. Physick et al.  
 344 (2001) classified the weather over the region surrounding Hong Kong into seven categories based  
 345 on surface pressure patterns, i.e., as northerly (winter monsoon), northeasterly (winter monsoon),  
 346 easterly or southeasterly, trough, southerly or southwesterly (summer monsoon), cyclonic 1 and  
 347 cyclonic 2 weather types. The PRD region, including Hong Kong, has nearly the similar weather  
 348 patterns and similar meteorological conditions. In this study, the daily weather types during the  
 349 observation period (excluding rainy days) were also classified into seven categories based on  
 350 surface pressure patterns. However, according to the surface horizontal wind vectors, the PRD was  
 351 mostly impacted by two types of airflow, i.e., southerly flow and northerly flow. Southerly flow,  
 352 including the southeasterly and southerly or southwesterly (summer monsoon) weather types, was  
 353 relatively clean and originated from the ocean (e.g., Fig. S3 and Fig. S5). Northerly flow,  
 354 including the northerly (winter monsoon) and northeasterly (winter monsoon) weather types, was  
 355 relatively polluted and originated from the north mainland (e.g., Fig. S4 and Fig. S6). Southerly  
 356 flow and northerly flow appeared with the highest frequency in the PRD (i.e., above 80%). In this  
 357 study, southerly flow days ( $PM_{2.5} \leq 17 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ , see Table 6) were selected to better reflect the local  
 358 source regions in the PRD, and northerly flow days ( $PM_{2.5} \geq 75 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ , see Table 6) were selected  
 359 to better understand the pollution accumulation process and regional transport characteristics of  
 360 pollutants in the PRD. The sampling days for southerly flow and northerly flow are listed in Table  
 361 6.

362 **Table 6.** Sampling days categorized as southerly flow and northerly flow days.

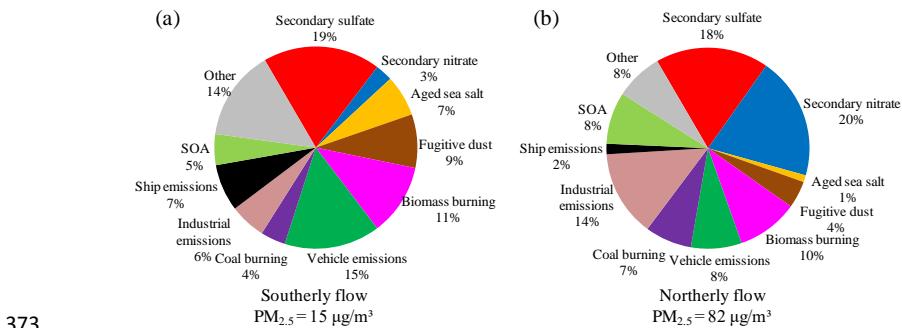
Southerly flow	Wind speed (m/s)	PM <sub>2.5</sub> ( $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ )	Northerly flow	Wind speed (m/s)	PM <sub>2.5</sub> ( $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ )
2015.07.01	2.6	16	2015.01.18	2.3	78
2015.07.03	3.6	17	2015.01.20	1.5	82
2015.07.15	1.9	17	2015.02.03	2	75
2015.07.23	2.6	12	2015.02.07	1.7	101
2015.07.25	2	13	2015.02.09	2.2	75
2015.07.29	1.3	12			

363

364 Fig. 7 shows the contributions of PM<sub>2.5</sub> sources under southerly flow and northerly flow  
 365 conditions in the PRD. Southerly flow primarily originated from the South China Sea and carried  
 366 clean ocean air masses to the PRD with overall PM<sub>2.5</sub> values of 15  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ . As shown in Fig. 7(a),  
 367 secondary sulfate (19%), vehicle emissions (15%) and biomass burning (11%) had higher



368 contributions under southerly flow. In contrast, in northerly flow, the level of  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  was 4.5 times  
 369 higher than that of southerly flow due to the transport of polluted air masses southward from the  
 370 north mainland. Under northerly flow, secondary sulfate (18%) and biomass burning (10%) were  
 371 still the major sources, but secondary nitrate became the dominant source of  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ , accounting for  
 372 20% of  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ . In addition, industrial emissions also exhibited a relatively high contribution (14%).



373  
 374 **Fig. 7.** Source structures of  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  in the PRD: that in southerly flow (a) and that in northerly flow (b).  
 375

376 The spatial distributions of the  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  sources under southerly flow and northerly flow are  
 377 shown in Fig. 8. The average concentrations of aged sea salt were similar in the summer southerly  
 378 flow and winter northerly flow, reflecting the local release of surrounding sea salt. Moreover, a  
 379 relatively high level of aged sea salt was observed at Qi-Ao Island (QA), which was consistent  
 380 with the geographical features of the area, which faces the sea.

381 The influences of ship emissions exhibited large differences between six sites, showing  
 382 significant local characteristics. The concentrations of ship emissions were the highest at DP under  
 383 southerly flow, mainly due to the impact of vessels in the upwind Yantian Port, while they were  
 384 the highest at QA under northerly flow, primarily due to the effects of the upwind Nansha Port, as  
 385 shown in Fig. 9. Yantian Port and Nansha Port are among the ten largest ports in the world (Hong  
 386 Kong Marine Department, 2012).

387 The contributions of fugitive dust also exhibited significant differences between six sites,  
 388 which is consistent with local construction activities. DM is located in a newly developed zone  
 389 that has experienced relatively high levels of fugitive dust during southerly flow and northerly  
 390 flow due to active construction activities. Sample records indicate that the high value of fugitive  
 391 dust at UT under southerly flow maybe related to its surrounding short-term road construction  
 392 project, while the high value at QA under northerly flow maybe related to the operations of the  
 393 adjacent Nansha Port.

394 Motor vehicles are a common source of air pollution in the highly urbanized and  
 395 industrialized PRD region. The average concentration of vehicle emissions during northerly flow  
 396 was nearly 3-fold that during southerly flow. Under southerly flow, MDS, HS and UT, which are  
 397 located in the hinterland of the PRD, had much higher levels of vehicle emissions than the other  
 398 three sites; in particular, the highest level at the urban MDS site was caused by the high density of  
 399 motor vehicles in Guangzhou. Under northerly flow, the highest concentration of vehicle  
 400 emissions was still at the urban MDS site, while QA also recorded the prominent contribution of  
 401 vehicle emissions, which was probably closely related to the container trucks in the neighboring



402 Nansha Port. It should be noted that the concentration of vehicle emissions at the background DP  
403 site exceeded half the regional average value, approaching  $4 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ , thus indicating that vehicle  
404 emissions had a significant impact on the regional transport of air masses from the north.

405 During southerly air flow, the background DP and QA sites and the urban UT site all  
406 recorded similar concentrations of secondary sulfate, suggesting that the secondary sulfate at these  
407 sites was dominated by regional transport from the southern ocean with heavy vessel transport and  
408 had little to do with the urban emissions at UT. Kuang et al. (2015) also found that ship emissions  
409 could be a major source of secondary sulfate in the PRD in summer. HS and MDS had  
410 significantly higher concentrations than their upwind site, DM, suggesting that the area between  
411 MDS and HS could be a high- $\text{SO}_2$ -emission area, which is consistent with the fact that this area is  
412 an intensive industrial area. During northerly air flow in winter, HS and DM had lower  
413 concentrations than the four upwind sites, i.e., MDS, QA, UT, and especially DP (the background  
414 site), indicating that secondary sulfate could mainly be derived from regional transport from  
415 outside the PRD in this season. Although the industrial area between HS and MDS could emit  
416 significant amounts of  $\text{SO}_2$ , the lower temperatures and dry air in winter did not appear to favor  
417 the quick conversion of  $\text{SO}_2$  to secondary sulfate. On the other hand, the spatial distributions and  
418 source characteristics of secondary sulfate also reflected the corresponding characteristics of  
419 LV-OOA.

420 The spatial distributions of coal burning were significantly different between the six sites  
421 during periods of both south wind and north wind, thus showing conspicuous local characteristics.  
422 The contribution of coal burning was higher at MDS under southerly flow and higher at HS under  
423 northerly flow. Most of the coals in the PRD were consumed by thermal power plants, but there  
424 were no coal-fired power plants near the urban MDS and background DP sites. Therefore, it is  
425 speculated that the high-emission areas of coal burning sources mainly exist in the region between  
426 HS and MDS, as shown in Fig. 9. The distributions of coal-fired power plants in Guangdong  
427 (Wang et al. 2017) reveal that some important coal-fired power plants are distributed in this region.  
428 Additionally, DM also exhibited relatively obvious contributions of coal burning during southerly  
429 flow and northerly flow, which is also consistent with the distribution of coal-fired power plants in  
430 the vicinity.

431 The average concentration of secondary nitrate during northerly flow in winter was 40 times  
432 greater than that during southerly flow in summer; this occurred not only because of the  
433 unfavorable conditions of atmospheric diffusion in winter but also due to the high semi-volatility  
434 of ammonium nitrate, which cannot stably exist in fine particles in the PRD during hot summer  
435 (Huang et al. 2006). Under southerly flow conditions, the concentrations of secondary nitrate  
436 presented prominent differences between six sites, showing local characteristics. Moreover, the  
437 relatively low concentrations at the background DP site during northerly flow also indicated that  
438 secondary nitrate mainly originated from the interior of the PRD. The spatial distribution  
439 characteristics of secondary nitrate were very similar to those of coal burning, with the highest  
440 occurring at MDS under southerly flow, the highest occurring at HS under northerly flow and  
441 significantly high values occurring at DM under southerly and northerly flow, displaying that the  
442  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions produced by coal burning maybe the main reason for the high nitrate levels in  
443 those areas. In addition, the spatial distributions and source characteristics of secondary nitrate  
444 also reflected the corresponding characteristics of LV-OOA.

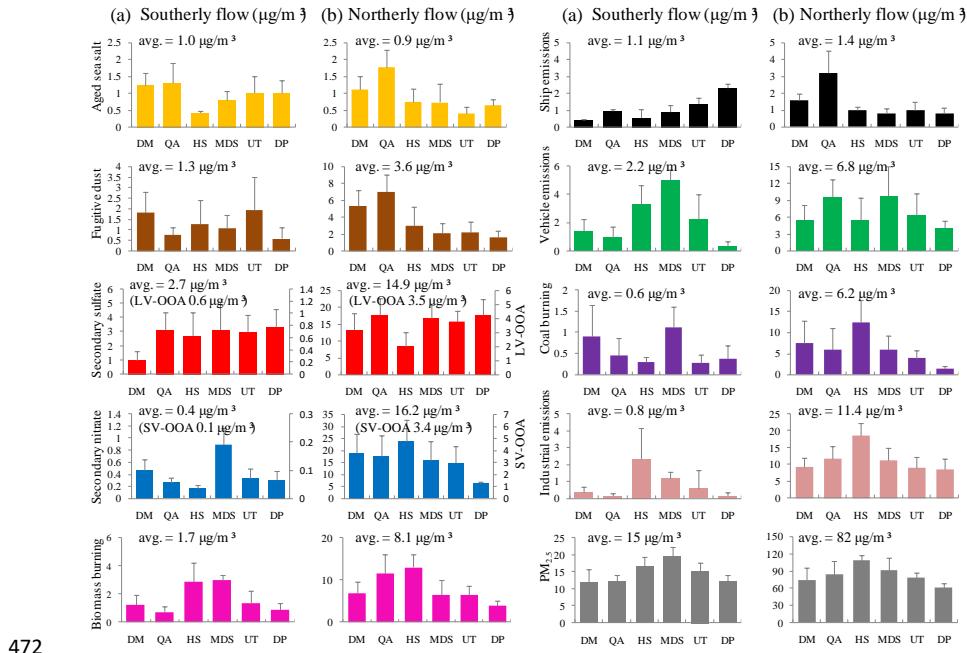
445 Under southerly flow, the influence of industrial emissions differed vastly between six sites,



446 showing obvious local characteristics. Under northerly flow, the average concentration of  
447 industrial emissions reached 14-fold that of southerly flow, and the high contributions at  
448 background DP suggested that regional transport probably dominated the industrial sources of fine  
449 particulate matter in the PRD in winter. HS had the highest concentration of industrial emissions  
450 during southerly flow and northerly flow conditions, which is consistent with the dense factories  
451 present in the surrounding area (Hu, 2004; Environmental Protection Agency of Jiangmen City,  
452 2017). In addition, the contribution of industrial emissions was relatively high at MDS during  
453 southerly flow and relatively high at QA during northerly flow, which supports the inference that a  
454 high-emission region of industrial sources was located between MDS and QA, as seen in Fig. 9.

455 The impacts of biomass burning exhibited relatively large differences between six sites  
456 during both south and north wind conditions, presenting somewhat local characteristics. Suburban  
457 HS had relatively high biomass burning levels during southerly flow and northerly flow, which  
458 were related to the presence of more farmland in its vicinity and the frequent open-burning of crop  
459 residues. The concentrations of biomass burning were relatively high at the urban MDS site during  
460 southerly flow and relatively high at the background QA site during northerly flow, implying that  
461 there was a high-emission area of biomass burning between MDS and QA, as shown in Fig. 9.  
462 Those spatial distribution characteristics of biomass burning were similar to those of industrial  
463 emissions in the PRD, suggesting that not only the combustion of open-air biomass but also the  
464 use of industrial biomass-boilers could make important contributions to  $PM_{2.5}$  in the PRD.

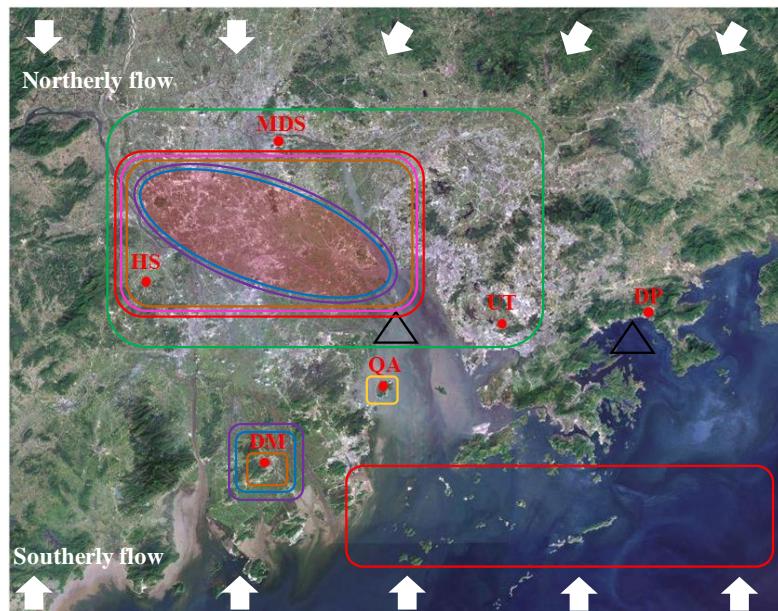
465 As a summary, the central PRD area, i.e., the middle region between MDS, HS and QA (the  
466 shaded region in Fig. 9), represents the most important pollutant emissions area in the PRD; these  
467 emissions include  $SO_2$ ,  $NO_x$ , coal burning, biomass burning, industrial emissions and vehicle  
468 emissions, thus leading to high pollution levels in the PRD. Therefore, this area is a key area for  
469 pollution control in the PRD. Primary fine particulate matter and  $SO_2$  from ship emissions had  
470 significant impacts on  $PM_{2.5}$  in the southern coastal area of the PRD during summer southerly  
471 flow, and special attention must be paid to them.



472

473 **Fig. 8.** The average contributions of PM<sub>2.5</sub> sources at six sites in the PRD: (a) those in southerly flow, (b) those in  
474 northerly flow.

475



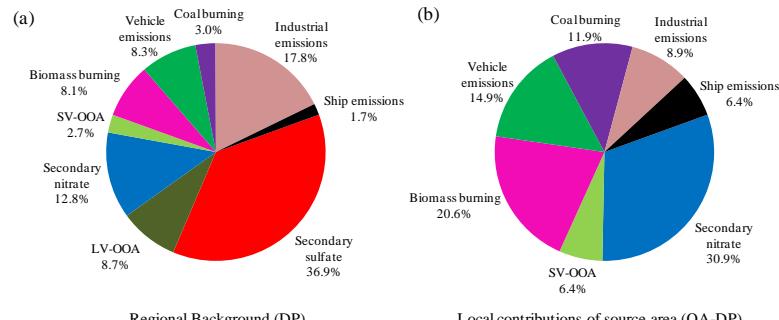
476

477 **Fig. 9.** The schematic diagram of high-emission areas in the PRD (box colors correspond to those in Fig. 8, and  
478 shaded area indicates the key emission area).



479 **3.5 Distinguishing local and regional PM<sub>2.5</sub> pollution in the PRD**

480 The analyses presented in Section 3.4 indicate that the secondary sulfates at the four southern  
 481 coastal sites (DM, QA, UT and DP) in the PRD were almost entirely derived from the conversion  
 482 of SO<sub>2</sub> from the emissions of ships in the southern ocean during southerly flow, contributing  
 483 approximately 20% of the average PM<sub>2.5</sub> (13 µg/m<sup>3</sup>) at the four sites. Considering that the ship  
 484 emissions directly contributed approximately 10% of the average PM<sub>2.5</sub> at the four sites, the total  
 485 ship emissions contributed approximately 30% of PM<sub>2.5</sub> in the southern coastal PRD area and  
 486 acted as the largest source of PM<sub>2.5</sub>. Under northerly flow conditions, the background DP site,  
 487 which was barely affected by pollution emissions within the PRD, reflected regional transport  
 488 from the north air mass outside the PRD, while the background QA site reflected the superposition  
 489 effect of regional background pollution and the input of the most serious pollution area in the PRD.  
 490 The consistency of the secondary sulfate concentrations at the background QA and DP sites was  
 491 interpreted to reflect almost the same regional background effect during northerly flow; thus, the  
 492 differences in the six anthropogenic sources between the two background sites, including  
 493 secondary nitrate (and SV-OOA), biomass burning, industrial emissions, coal burning, vehicle  
 494 emissions and ship emissions, could be used to trace the internal inputs from the most serious  
 495 pollution area within the PRD to the downwind area. The internal inputs of six anthropogenic  
 496 sources to the corresponding sources of PM<sub>2.5</sub> at the background QA site were 66%, 67%, 28%,  
 497 76%, 59% and 75%, respectively, and the total internal input of 37.7 µg/m<sup>3</sup> accounted for 45% of  
 498 PM<sub>2.5</sub> at the background QA site, showing that the local contributions of anthropogenic pollution  
 499 emissions in the key source area of the PRD were still crucial in winter but lower than the  
 500 contribution of the regional background. Ignoring natural sources, such as aged sea salt and  
 501 fugitive dust, under northerly flow, the contributions of other anthropogenic sources to DP were  
 502 considered to represent regional background pollution, and the differences in their corresponding  
 503 source concentrations between QA and DP were expected to represent the local emissions of  
 504 source areas in the PRD. Therefore, the source structures in the regional background air mass and  
 505 local emissions of heavy pollution sources area in the PRD are shown in Fig. 10a and b.  
 506 Secondary sulfate and LV-OOA occupied the vast majority (45.6%) of the regional background air  
 507 mass from the northern mainland, followed by industrial emissions (17.8%), secondary nitrate and  
 508 SV-OOA (15.5%). However, the major sources between the sources output by local emissions  
 509 from the heavy pollution source area of the PRD were secondary nitrate and SV-OOA (37.3%),  
 510 biomass burning (20.6%), vehicle emissions (14.9%) and coal burning (11.9%). Therefore,  
 511 measures implemented for the effective control of PM<sub>2.5</sub> in the PRD should focus on local controls  
 512 and regional joint prevention and control under winter northerly flow conditions.





514 **Fig. 10.** The PM<sub>2.5</sub> source structures: (a) those in regional background air and (b) locally produced  
515 pollution of the central PRD area under northerly flow.

516

#### 517 **4 Conclusions**

518 The PRD is one of the largest agglomeration of cities in the world, and its air quality has  
519 largely improved in recent decade. To reveal the current PM<sub>2.5</sub> pollution characteristics on a  
520 regional scale in the PRD, six sampling sites were selected to conduct 4 months of sampling and  
521 chemical analysis in 2015; then, the source exploration of PM<sub>2.5</sub> was performed using a novel  
522 method. The conclusions are described below.

523 (1) The 4-month average PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentration for all six sites in the PRD was 37  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ , of which  
524 OM, SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, EC, metal elements and Cl<sup>-</sup> contributed 36.9%, 23.6%, 10.9%, 9.3%,  
525 6.6% and 0.9%, respectively. The tempo-spatial PM<sub>2.5</sub> variations were generally  
526 characterized as being higher in the north inland region and higher in winter.

527 (2) This study revealed that theME-2 model produced more environmentally meaningful and  
528 statistically robust results of source apportionment than the traditional PMF model. Secondary  
529 sulfate was found to be the dominant source of PM<sub>2.5</sub> in the PRD, at 21%, followed by vehicle  
530 emissions (14%), industrial emissions (13%), secondary nitrate (11%), biomass burning (11%),  
531 SOA (7%), coal burning (6%), fugitive dust (5%), ship emissions (3%) and aged sea salt (2%).  
532 Only aged sea salt and ship emissions did not show obvious seasonal variations.

533 (3) Based on the spatial distribution characteristics of PM<sub>2.5</sub> sources under typical southerly and  
534 northerly airflow conditions, the central PRD area between MDS, HS and QA is identified as a  
535 key area for source emissions, including SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>x</sub>, coal burning, biomass burning, industrial  
536 emissions and vehicle emissions, and thus deserves more attention when implementing local  
537 pollution control in the PRD. In addition, ship emissions should be controlled more strictly during  
538 summer due to its contribution of approximately 30% of PM<sub>2.5</sub> in the southern coastal area of the  
539 PRD under southerly air flow.

540 (4) Under typical winter northerly flow, the contributions of anthropogenic pollution emissions in  
541 the central PRD area contributed 37.7  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  (45% of PM<sub>2.5</sub>) to the regional background air.  
542 Secondary sulfate (36.9%), industrial emissions (17.8%), and secondary nitrate SV-OOA (12.8%)  
543 were the major PM<sub>2.5</sub> sources for the PM<sub>2.5</sub> transported in the regional background air mass, while  
544 secondary nitrate (30.9%), biomass burning (20.6%), vehicle emissions (14.9%) and coal burning  
545 (11.9%) were the major sources for the PM<sub>2.5</sub> produced in the central PRD area. Therefore,  
546 effective control measures of PM<sub>2.5</sub> in the PRD in the future should pay more attention to both  
547 local controls and regional joint prevention.

548

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