

# Technical Note: A new approach to discriminate different black carbon sources by utilising Fullerene and metals in Positive Matrix Factorisation analysis of High-Resolution Soot Particle Aerosol Mass Spectrometer data

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**Abstract.** Atmospheric aerosol particles are known to have detrimental effects on human health and climate. Black carbon is an important constituent of atmospheric aerosol particulate matter (PM), emitted from the incomplete combustion process and cause significant effects on air quality and human health. Source apportionment of BC is very important, to identify the fraction of BC that has an anthropogenic origin and to evaluate the influence of different sources. The High-Resolution Soot Particle Aerosol Mass Spectrometer (HR-SP-AMS) instrument uses a laser vapouriser, which allows the real-time detection and characterisation of refractory BC and its internally mixed particles such as metals, coating species and rBC subcomponent in the form of Fullerene. In this case study, the soot data was collected by using HR-SP-AMS during Guy Fawkes Night on 5th November 2014. Positive matrix factorisation (PMF) was applied in order to positively discriminate between different wood-burning sources for the first time, in this case, BC from domestic wood burning and bonfires, which no existing black carbon source apportionment technique is currently able to do. Along with this, the use of the fullerene signals in differentiating between soot sources and the use of metals as a tracer for fireworks has also been investigated, which has not significantly contributed to the BC concentrations. The addition of fullerene signals and successful PMF application on HR-SP-AMS data apportioned BC into more than two sources. These bonfire sources are hydrocarbon-like Fullerene, biomass burning organic aerosol, HULIS (humic-like substance) and non-bonfire sources such as hydrocarbon-like OA and domestic burning. The result of correlation analysis between HR-SP-AMS data with previously published Aethalometer, MAAP and CIMS data provides an effective way of quickly gaining insights in relations between the variables and also provide a quantitative estimate of the source contributions to the BC budget during this period. This research study is an important demonstration of using HR-SP-AMS for the purpose of BC source apportionment.

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## 1 Introduction

35 Aerosol particles in the atmosphere are known to have very harmful effects on the air quality, human health and climate (Highwood and Kinnerson, 2006). One of the most important components of atmospheric aerosol particles is Black Carbon (BC), i.e. soot, which has extremely detrimental impacts on the human health and air quality (Janssen and Joint, 2012). BC's main emission source is through the incomplete combustion of fossil fuel and biomass, involving transportation, open biomass burning, power generation sources, and residential heating sources (Bond et al., 2011; Cooke et al., 1999; US EPA, 2012). In 40 the atmosphere, BC can be mixed with organic and inorganic aerosol species, either at the point of emission or gas-to-particle conversion processes in the atmosphere.

As well as harmful impacts on human health, BC can also absorb cancer-inducing pollutants such as volatile organic compounds (VOCs) and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) due to its carbonaceous nature and large surface area. As a result of its smaller size, can be deposited in weasands and lungs, leading to severe health problems (Cao et al., 2012; Dachs and Eisenreich, 2000). According to hypothesised mechanisms, the ultrafine BC is the cause of abnormal cardiovascular functions and endothelial senescence at the molecular level (Buchner et al., 2013). Along with being harmful on human health, it also affects the visibility, reduces agricultural productivity, harms ecosystems and exacerbates global warming (Graham and Schlesinger, 2010).

Most BC sources are of anthropogenic origin, but source apportionment is important to establish which specific sources are responsible. There are multiple measurement techniques available for this purpose but are subject to considerable uncertainties (Martinsson et al., 2014). Different techniques have been used for the source apportionment of BC. One of the most widely used techniques is the multiwavelength Aethalometer, which was first described by Hansen et al. (1984). Later Sandradewi et al (2008) described how Aethalometer can be used to apportion different sources of light-absorbing aerosols such as wood-burning, which in contrast to traffic emissions, absorbs additional light in the UV region, over what would be expected in the near-infrared region. Another source apportionment method is to measure the radiocarbon ( $^{14}\text{C}$ ) content (Hellborg et al., 2003). This method has not been used widely because it requires very specialist equipment (Barescut et al., 2005).

Positive Matrix Factorisation can in principle, identify multiple categories of soot; however, it needs a large data set and relevant chemical data of several species. Advancements in different measurement techniques has been deployed by the addition of Soot Particle Aerosol Mass Spectrometer (SP-AMS) for the online ambient measurements of refractory black carbon (rBC) (Onasch et al., 2012). In general, the SP-AMS can be operated with the both laser and tungsten vaporiser or with only laser vaporiser.

The current study aims to develop the source apportionment tool, which will subsequently improve our understanding of sources of atmospheric soot. For this purpose, Bonfire night 2014 in Manchester was taken as a case study because it is known that there were at least three sources of BC (traffic, domestic wood burning, bonfires and potentially fireworks) and weather conditions that night favoured the high concentrations of primary emissions. This event has been described in previous studies (Liu et al. 2017; Priestley et al. 2018a; Reyes et al. 2018). In this study, the HR-SP-AMS used was not the same as the C-ToF-

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AMS (Compact Time-of-Flight Aerosol Mass Spectrometer) described in Reyes et al., (2018). The HR-SP-AMS was operated under an intracavity, CW laser vaporiser (with the tungsten vaporiser removed), which vaporises the refractory BC (rBC) and its associated non-refractory particulate species along with metal nanoparticles (Onasch et al., 2012; Carbone et al., 2015).

70 In terms of air quality, it has been recognised that Bonfire night is one of the most polluted days in the UK. Every year, this event is celebrated on 5th November, (or on a weekend day near this date) where open fires are lit and fireworks are set off at individual households, as well as large community events. These bonfire activities have a strong flaming segment which roughly start during the evening and lasts for up to 2 hours. The fires after flaming are not refuelled, therefore leading to an extended phase of smouldering as the fires are left to completely burn and die down (Dyke et al., 1997; Mari et al., 2010; Pongpiachan et al., 2015).

75 Different research case studies have previously been published about the Bonfire night around the UK. For example, Clark (1997) studied the PM<sub>10</sub> concentrations emitted during the Bonfire night event in different parts of UK. In Oxford, dioxins measurements in the ambient air were conducted by Dyke et al (1997), Colbeck and Chung (1996) targeted the particle size distribution. The polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) were measured in Lancaster (Farrar et al., 2004), while in 2018, Reyes et al. (2018), studied insights into nitrate chemistry during the bonfire night by applying the chemical ionisation mass spectrometry measurements and aerosol mass spectrometry simultaneously. Observations of the Nitro-compounds including nitrate, amide and isocyanate were studied during the bonfire night in Manchester (Priestley et al., 2018a). In previous studies, specifically during the bonfire event and general aerosol measurements, several different source apportionment techniques have been performed. Aethalometer AE31 model was performed to do the source apportionment analysis and successfully apportion the rBC into BC from wood-burning and BC from the traffic emissions (Reyes et al., 2018). During the same study, Multilinear Engine-2 and PMF tools were also used over the AMS data through the source apportionment interface (SoFi version 4.8 as presented by (Canonaco et al., 2013) in order to find the organic aerosol sources according to proposed strategies by Reyes et al., (2016) and recommendations made by Crippa et al. (2014). Liu et al., (2019) also studied the BC sources from wood-burning and diesel traffic emissions using an SP2 to examine the BC particles' mixing state and optical properties.

80 In order to test the ability of HR-SP-AMS to apportion rBC (with multiple BC types) the data was collected during bonfire night from 29<sup>th</sup> Oct-11<sup>th</sup> Nov 2014 at the University of Manchester. As a result of strong meteorological conditions, very high and mixed concentrations of pollutants were observed. Traditionally the PMF tool is applied to conventional AMS data (as with Reyes et al., 2018) but the objective of this study is to demonstrate a new way to source apportion black carbon based on highly time resolved mass spectrometric composition data of the population of particles that contain black carbon and uses information on the composition of black carbon and information on internally mixed Fullerene and condensed material.

85 Fullerene are a class of exclusively high molecular weight carbon clusters (C60 and C70 etc.) having a unique hollow cage-like structure, which were discovered by Kroto et al., (1985) for the first time. They were identified as ionised particles in low-pressure fuel rich flat premixed acetylene and benzene-oxygen flames by molecular-beam sampling combined with mass

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studies (Liu et al. 2017; Priestley et al. 2018; Reyes et al. 2018).

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spectrometer analysis (Gerhardt, Löffler and Homann, 1988). These have been reported previously in HR-SP-AMS data but whether they are formed in the flame or during the vaporisation process is not clear (Fortner et al., 2012).

## 2 Methodology

### 2.1 Sampling site overview

Measurements were conducted at the South Campus University of Manchester (53.467°N, 2.232°W) before, during and after the bonfire night event on 5th November as described in the previous publications (Liu et al., 2017; Reyes et al., 2018). The sampling station is surrounded by the nine public parks. Different instruments were set up for the online measurement of ambient aerosols and gases. A Compact Time-of-Flight Aerosol Mass Spectrometer (cTOF-AMS) was used to measure all PM1 components as described by Reyes et al., 2018. A Time-of-Flight Chemical Ionisation Mass Spectrometer (ToF-CIMS) was used to measure the gas phase concentrations of aerosols (Priestley et al., 2018b). BC source apportionment was performed by using Aethalometer, AE31, which measured the absorption of light at seven different wavelengths (Reyes et al., 2018) while a MAAP was used to measure the concentrations of BC emitted during the bonfire event and inform the corrections needed to process the AE31 data (Collaud Cohen et al., 2010).

### 2.2 Instrument Overview:

In this case study, the High-Resolution Soot Particle Aerosol Mass Spectrometer (HR-SP-AMS) was used, which is a combination of Single Particle Soot Photometer (SP2) and High-Resolution Time-of-Flight Aerosol Mass Spectrometer (HR-ToF-AMS). Based on the design used in SP2, the SPAMS is equipped with an intracavity laser vaporiser, Nd:YAG (1064 nm), that heats up and vaporise both core and coating particles, which was collected before, during and after the Bonfire night event in UK, concurrent with the previous measurements. In order to vaporise the refractory particles types that are not detected by the standard AMS, the new vaporiser is designed to detect the vaporised species through electron ionisation for the generation of chemical ion, thus keeping the vaporisation and ionisation steps separate. The intracavity laser vaporiser allows AMS to characterising the refractory chemical components of ambient aerosol species (organics and inorganics), particularly, including light absorbing refractory Black Carbon (rBC) particles (Onasch et al., 2012; 2015). A catalytic stripper was also attached to the aerosol sampling lines, which switched between catalytic stripper and direct measurements after every 30 minutes (Liu et al., 2017). In our case, the results have been analysed by using the direct measurements only. During the experiment, a measurement of the ionisation efficiency was not obtained owing to technical difficulties associated with generating a suitable test aerosol, however, this only affects absolute quantification and not the ability of the instrument to apportion fractions of the signal, which is the subject of investigation here. Therefore, this dataset should still serve as a technical proof-of-concept for factorisation. The HR-SP-AMS data were analysed using the data analysis toolkit TOF-AMS HR Analysis 1.200 (DeCarlo et al., 2006). The high-resolution feature of toolkit allow the direct separation of most ions from the organic and inorganic

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In this case study, the High-Resolution Soot Particle Aerosol Mass Spectrometer (HR-SP-AMS) used was not the same as the Compact Time of Flight AMS featured in

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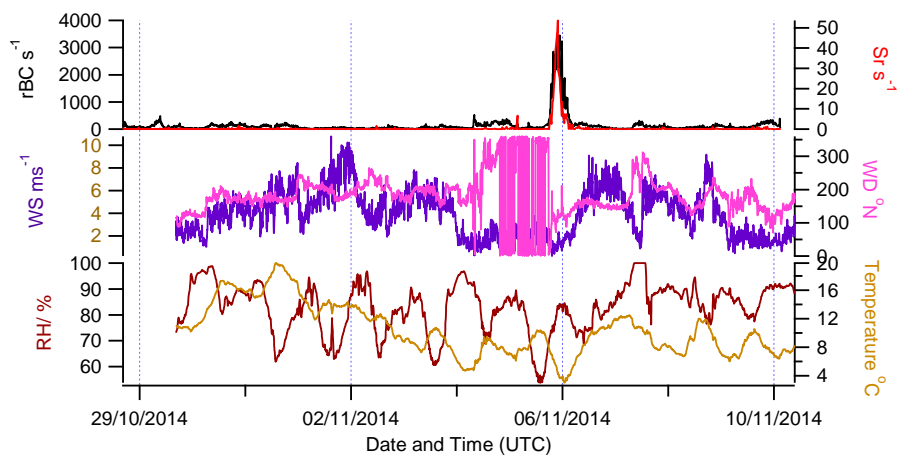
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### 3 Results

#### 3.1 Weather measurements and overview of highly polluted time-period:

The weather data is as presented by Reyes et al., (2018), and results showed quiet stagnant conditions with the low temperature of 4°C, high relative humidity of 85% alongside the wind speed of 1.5 m s<sup>-1</sup> and varying wind directions. This type of weather condition facilitates the increasing amount of pollution in the atmosphere. During the periodic stagnation weather phenomenon, the very high concentrations of BC was also observed with the signal of 3400 s<sup>-1</sup> during the bonfire event at 10:20 pm as compared to (100 s<sup>-1</sup> – 500 s<sup>-1</sup> before Bonfire and 250 s<sup>-1</sup> – 300 s<sup>-1</sup> after bonfire night) fig 1. The time-period of the bonfire night when the pollutants were very high is called as high pollutant concentration time-period.



**Figure 1: Meteorological measurements** Relative humidity (RH), Temperature, Wind direction (WD) and Wind speed (WS) along with the time series of BC and Strontium (Sr), a firework tracer emitted during the bonfire night.

#### 3.2 Time Series of different variables concentrations observed during the BF event:

##### 3.2.1 Firework burning tracer: \_\_\_

To attempt to identify a unique tracer for fireworks, the HR-SP-AMS data was analysed for metals. Reyes et al., (2018) concluded that fireworks were not a major factor in the overall mass concentrations but could not directly support this assertion with the data available. However, HR-SP-AMS can potentially offer insight through its ability to detect metals. Fireworks release several pollutants such as manganese, cadmium, strontium, aluminium, and other suspended particles, carbon

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180 monoxide, carbon dioxide and sulphur dioxide etc. (Lemieux et al., 2004; Shi et al., 2011). These metal compounds are in the  
form of metal salts such as potassium chlorates, perchlorates, strontium nitrates, potassium nitrates, barium nitrates, sodium  
oxalate, manganese, sulphur, iron, aluminium etc. These metals are mainly used to give different bright colours; for example  
Sr can be used for giving red colour to the fireworks (McLain, 1980). During the analysis, different metal peaks, such as Iron  
(Fe), Strontium (Sr), Caesium (Cs) and Titanium (Ti), that could be associated with the fireworks were detected (fig 2a). The  
185 Sr was most unambiguously associated with the fireworks due to the fact that there is no other signal present in the atmosphere  
outside of Bonfire night. Other metals may have other sources, such as mineral or brake dust in the case of iron, may be  
receiving signal interference from other mass spectral peaks. The highest peak of Sr concentrations i.e.  $53.6 \text{ s}^{-1}$  was detected  
as compared to the concentrations of Sr, before and after Bonfire event ( $1.6 \text{ s}^{-1}$  and  $0.9 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ).

### 3.2.2 HR Time series of BC and its coating species

190 Figure 2b shows that the signals associated with refractory BC (rBC) and its coating species (Org,  $\text{SO}_4$ ,  $\text{NO}_3$ , Chl and  $\text{NH}_4$ )  
were particularly very high during the bonfire night. The HR-time-series of the whole sampling time-period shows that the  
majority of non-refractory  $\text{PM}_{\text{BC}}$  signal was mainly organic matter, having very high concentrations, followed by Chl,  $\text{SO}_4$ ,  
 $\text{NH}_4$  and  $\text{NO}_3$ . It has been worth mentioning that the signals of these aerosols were very high during the bonfire night as  
compared to before and after time period except the  $\text{NO}_3$  signal which was  $0.8 \text{ s}^{-1}$  before bonfire event on 30<sup>th</sup> October at 8:30  
195 am and  $1.8 \text{ s}^{-1}$  after bonfire night on 7<sup>th</sup> November, at 4:15 pm. The high Chl peak was strongly related with the open fire  
burning that happened on the Bonfire night. Wood burning is an important source of chloride in the atmosphere (Lobert et al.,  
1999). Fireworks can also be a likely source of Chl, because chlorates and perchlorates can provide oxygen for the combustion  
of fireworks. Also, the high peak of nitrate can be linked with the combustion sources such as wood burning and biomass  
burning emissions (Reyes et al., 2018). The concentrations of organic aerosol started increasing at 8:30 pm to 9:00 pm (highest),  
200 while concentrations of rBC were increasing after 1:50 hour later.

### 3.2.3 Correlation analysis of rBC with other pollutants

The HR-SP-AMS data was compared against those of other instruments such as AE31, CIMS, MAAP and AMS presented in  
the previous studies (Reyes et al., 2018; Priestley et al., 2018a) and a statistically significant correlation (see table S2, S3, S4  
in supplementary information) was found between the black carbon, measured by three different instruments, i.e. rBC from  
HR-SP-AMS, eBC from MAAP and eBC and BrC from AE31. The BC measured by AE31 and MAAP was named as eBC  
(equivalent BC) according to (Petzold et al., 2013) recommendations. Reyes et al., 2018 measured eBC<sub>wb</sub> and eBC<sub>tr</sub> at 470  
205 nm and 950 nm with the mass absorption cross-section (MAC) of  $31.1 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$  and  $15.4 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$  while eBC from MAAP was  
measured at 630 nm with MAC of  $6.67 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ . A very high concentration of rBC and eBC was measured from all instruments  
that could detect these. The peak of Brown Carbon (BrC), measured by AE31 was also very high during the event night and  
210 indicates a wood-burning source (details found at Reyes et al., 2018).

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Figure 2. Timeseries of different variables observed during bonfire event. 2a. Time series of various metal pollutant concentrations, 2b. Time series of High Resolution rBC concentrations and its coating species (Organics and Inorganics), 2c. Time series of Black Carbon measured by different instruments i.e HR SP-AMS (rBC), AE31 (eBC and BrC) and MAA (eBC), 2d. Time series of rBC, primary (pPON) and secondary (sPON) organic nitrate.

### 3.3 BC Source apportionment analysis

#### 3.3.1 PMF factorisation result

Firstly, the factorisation was performed without the inclusion of fullerene signals in the data matrix, in order to explore the factorisation without fullerene data. And the results showed five factors solution (fig S1a and S1b) which are BC and HULIS, SV-OOA, BBOA, Hydrocarbon-like OA and domestic burning. In that case, only two unambiguously bonfire night sources of BC were identified, with a degree of 'mixing' between the bonfire night factor and traffic noted in the HOA factor. Also, the SV-OOA and domestic burning factors also exhibit mixing in their timeseries as well. As such, the factorisation without fullerene signals was judged to be poor.

Later, PMF was performed with the inclusion of Fullerene data and for the selection of optimum number of factors, a stepwise approach was used, beginning with a 2-factor model and successively adding factors up to a maximum of six. In our case, five-factors gave the best solution based on the criteria of  $Q/Q_{exp}$  near 1, the squares of scaled residuals' total sum and all the matrix points fitted within their expected error (Paatero et al., 2002). The rotational ambiguity of the five-factors solution was explored by varying the f-peak between -2.0 and +2.0 with fpeak interval of 0.2. Along with that the changes in the fractional contribution of the PMF factors was very small for all the factors, indicating that changing f-peak value over a range of 2 and -2, (away from 0) did not affect the overall results of PMF analysis. The solution for fpeak=0 was used for all subsequent work, as also recommended by Paatero et al. (2002).

The results in Fig 3 shows the results obtained after adding the fullerene signals, 5 factors were resolved, that are plotted separately as Bonfire night factors and non-bonfire night factors. Factor 1 (BC and HULIS), Factor 5 (HOA-like Fullerene) and factor 2 (Biomass Burning OA) are the bonfire night factors having very high peaks detected only during the bonfire night while factor 4 (Hydrocarbon-Like OA) and factor 3 (domestic wood burning), are the two non-bonfire night factors, which are behaving completely independently, as their peaks have been observed before, during and after the bonfire night. While there is still activity in HOA associated with the night, this is much reduced compared to the PMF without Fullerene included, giving confidence that this resolved the traffic source more successfully. The domestic burning source can be related to activities such as household wood combustion.

In order to test whether any of the factors could be associated with fireworks, PMF analysis was also performed to force the inclusion of Sr in the factorisation. For this purpose, the Sr concentrations were upweighted by multiplying the total

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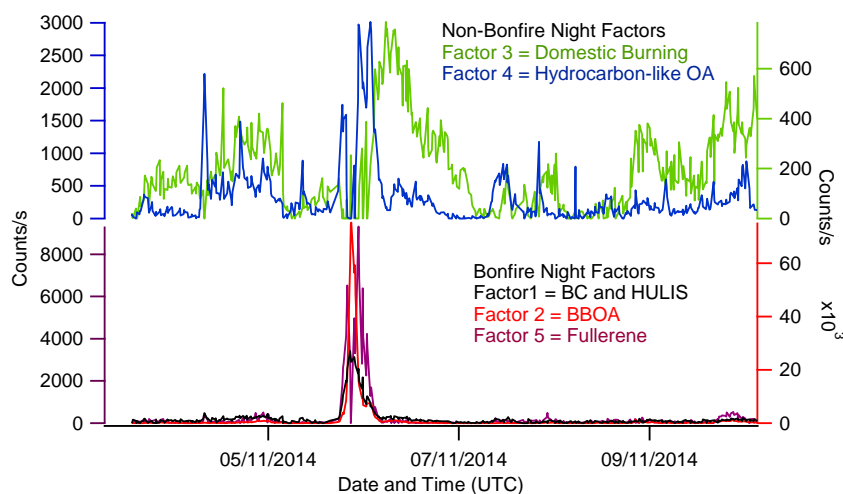
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concentrations of Sr (but not the associated error) by 10, 100 and 1000, but despite this, a factor containing Sr was not found. This implies that none of the HR-SP-AMS factors could be associated with fireworks.

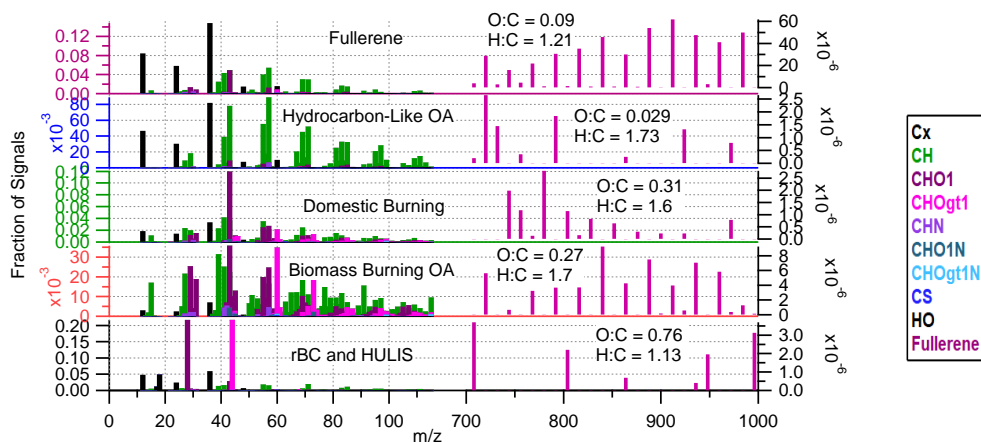


**Figure 3:** The time series of (a) non-Bonfire night factors and (b) bonfire night factors obtained by PMF analysis of the HR-SP-AMS data.

Fig 4 shows the profile concentrations and mass spectra of five different factors. Three of them (BC and HULIS, biomass burning OA and Fullerene) are directly linked with the bonfire night while HULIS and other two (domestic burning and traffic emissions) are referred to as non-bonfire night sources. HULIS is a class of organic molecules that can be formed by photochemical oxidation and oligomerisation of volatile organic compounds in the atmosphere (Aiken et al., 1985; Hoffer et al., 2004) and biomass burning (Lin et al., 2010), with a characteristic peak at  $m/z$  44 (McFiggans et al., 2005). Potential origins of HULIS in the atmosphere are diverse, including (primary) biomass burning (Graber and Rudich, 2006; McFiggans et al., 2005; Mukai and Ambe, 1986; Zappoli et al., 1999; Graham et al., 2002; Mavol-Bracero et al., 2002), terrestrial (Simoneit, 1980) and marine sources (Cini et al., 1994; Cini et al., 1996; Calace et al., 2001; Cavalli et al., 2004), and secondary organic aerosol formation (condensation, reaction, oligomerisation, etc.) (Gelencser et al., 2002; Jang et al., 2002; Jang et al., 2003; Tolocka et al., 2004; Hung et al., 2005). Moreover, HULIS as an atmospheric aerosol has already been reported in previous literature (Decesari et al., 2000, 2007). Along with this the work of Havers et al. (1998), wherein the term HULIS was coined. Examining a standard reference air dust as well as airborne particulate matter, Havers et al. (1998) attributed 10% or more of aerosol organic carbon to macromolecular substances HULIS similar to humic and fulvic acids.

Although it is not clear why fullerene signals are sometimes observed, it does seem to differentiate between biomass burning during the bonfire event and biomass burning from domestic burning. In fig 4, Factor 5 was heavily weighted by hydrocarbon like Fullerene having a peak at  $m/z$  720 ( $C_{60}^+$ ), implying polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons can transform into soot containing Fullerene during combustion (Wang et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2016; Reilly et al., 2000). This was typically not associated from the traffic source (diesel), so depended on the different type of combustion. Factor 4 resembled Hydrocarbon like organic aerosols (HOA) and is related to the traffic emissions (fossil fuel combustion), presenting the high signals at  $m/z$  55 and  $m/z$  57 typically aliphatic hydrocarbons (Canagaratna et al., 2004). Diesel exhaust is typically dominated by re-condensed engine lubricating oil and consists mainly of *n*-alkanes, branched alkanes, cycloalkanes, and aromatics (Canagaratna et al., 2004; Chirico et al., 2010), leading to high signal at the ion series  $C_nH_{2n+1}^+$  and  $C_nH_{2n-1}^+$ . In particular,  $m/z$  57 is a major mass fragment and often used as a tracer for HOA (Zhang et al., 2005).

Factor 3 presented a relatively mixed factor source having the high loading of signals at  $m/z$  43,  $m/z$  55,  $m/z$  57 and  $m/z$  60. Therefore, this factor was mainly related to the domestic wood-burning sources because of its high peaks observed before and after the event night. Factor 2 was specifically loaded at  $m/z$  60 and  $m/z$  73 (levoglucosan), indicating the typical source profile of by wood-burning organic aerosols (Alfarra et al., 2007). In previous AMS studies, cooking could be one of the important sources of  $PM_{2.5}$  (Sun et al., 2013), but in this study cooking was not identified by PMF because it is not co-emitted with rBC and so is not vaporised by the HR-SP-AMS. The factor 1 having signals at  $m/z$  36 related to BC (the main bonfire emission source) and  $m/z$  44 is highly related to HULIS, showing its contributions from bonfire night as well as secondary sources. The reason for representing HULIS at  $m/z$  44 was its high concentration observed during the event night only (fig 3).



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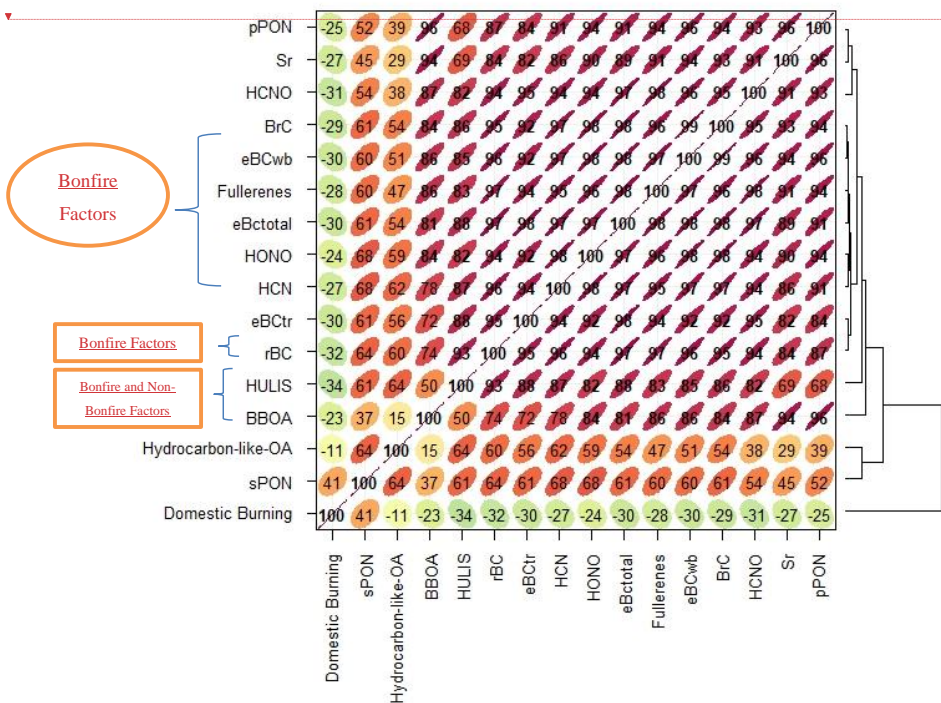
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Figure 4: PMF five factors source profile (factor 1 = BC and HULIS, factor 2 = BBOA, factor 3 = Domestic burning OA, factor 4 = Hydrocarbon-Like OA, factor 5 = Fullerene). Note the difference in scales of the fullerene signals (right hand axes).

#### 4 Discussion

##### 4.1 Correlation between different pollutants

Correlation analysis gives an effective way of quickly gaining an idea of how variables are related with one another. The data analysis software 'openair' was used to generate the hierarchical cluster analysis chart (Carslaw and Ropkins, 2012) using the 'corplot' function on the bonfire night data only. Hierarchical cluster analysis (HCA) provides an effective way of understanding of the order how different variables appear due to their similarity in one another. A dendrogram was plotted to provide additional information to help visualising how groups of variables are related to one another. The explanation of all these time series names and how do they measured is given in table 1.



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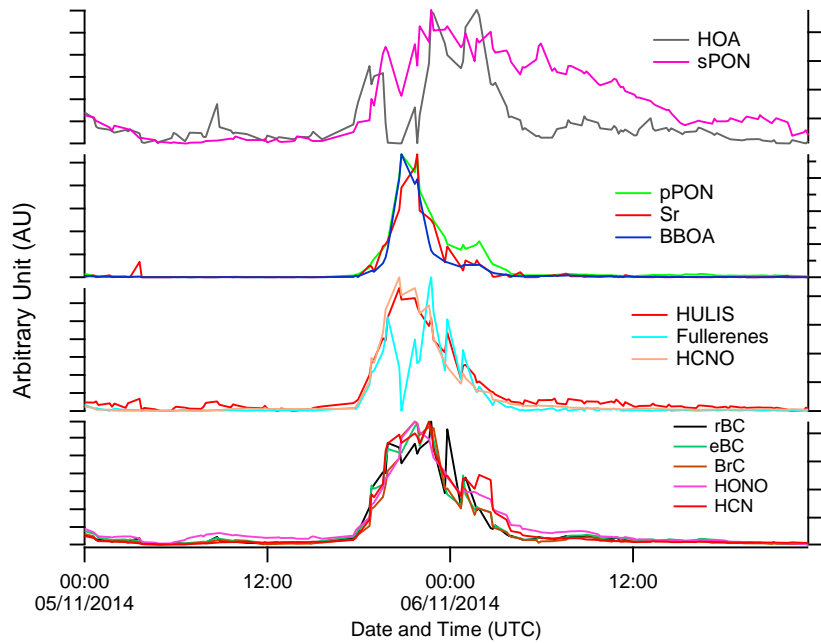
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**Figure 5: The similarity between different pollutant time series through hierarchical cluster analysis (HCA).**

In fig 5, a significant correlation was observed between Fullerene, eBC<sub>total</sub>, HONO, HCN, rBC. The reason is that all of these are primary pollutants and directly released from the bonfire emissions. HCN and HONO are nitrogen containing gases that were released during the bonfire night from the wood fires (Le Breton et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2016). eBC<sub>tr</sub> (Black Carbon emission from traffic) has also shown a strong correlation with the rBC because it is also contributed to by primary pollutants and is also influenced by the bonfires. HULIS and BBOA have a very close relationship, which indicates that both are bonfire factors, but on the other hand HULIS also has some relationship with the secondary sources, as discussed previously. Hydrocarbon-like OA and sPON have a close similarity because, just like sPON, the peak of Hydrocarbon-like OA has been observed before and after the event night, Sr and pPON and HCNO show some similarity, but as discussed previously, 'Sr' is behaving as a separate factor, when subject to PMF analysis. Upon closer inspection, it can be seen that while having a high degree of correlation, the peak of Sr occurs at a slightly different time. A correlation was seen between BrC and eBC<sub>wb</sub> (Black carbon emissions from wood burning) which is expected, as BrC is normally associated with wood-burning. And the last factor i.e. domestic burning is behaving as a separate factor and showing no or very less correlation with any sources.

Based on HCA plot, a time series graph was also plotted to investigate the timings of all pollutants having strong relationship among one another (fig 7). The second group which showed the strong correlation was HCNO and factor 5 (hydrocarbon-like Fullerene) with the r<sup>2</sup> value of 0.96. Isocyanic acid (HNCO) is another highly toxic, long-lived gas (lifetime of days to decades; (Borduas et al., 2016) emitted from biomass burning (BB) with similar anthropogenic and biogenic sources as HCN. Alternative urban sources of HNCO are attributed to primary activity such as automotive emission (Jathar et al., 2017), residential heating (BB) (Woodward-Massey et al., 2014), and industrial processes (Sarkar et al., 2016), although is clearly related to the bonfire event here. A reason for the close but not perfect relationship between the groups could be due to their same emission sources but at different stages of the burn during the bonfire night, or possibly different bonfires in the region whose plumes arrived at the site at different times.

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355 **Figure 6:** Time series of the pollutants, grouped according to the Hierarchical Cluster Analysis in figure 9.

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**Table 1: Explanation of the time series used in figure 5 and 6.**

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| <b>FamilyCx (rBC<sup>1</sup>)</b>   | Refractory Black Carbon                                    | Measured from HR-SP-AMS  |
| <b>eBC<sup>2</sup></b>              | Black Carbon   | Measured from MAAAP  |
| <b>BrC<sup>2</sup></b>              | Brown Carbon   | Measured from Aethalometer AE31  |
| <b>BC<sub>total</sub></b>           | Total BC from AE31 (eBC <sub>tr</sub> +eBC <sub>wb</sub> ) |  |
| <b>eBC<sub>tr</sub></b>             | Black Carbon (traffic emissions)                           | Measured from Aethalometer AE31  |
| <b>eBC<sub>wb</sub></b>             | Black Carbon (Wood-Burning)                                | Measured from Aethalometer AE31  |
| <b>HONO<sup>3</sup></b>             | Nitrous Acid   | Measured from ToF-CIMS   |
| <b>HCN<sup>3</sup></b>              | Hydrogen Cyanide   | Measured from ToF-CIMS   |
| <b>HCNO<sup>3</sup></b>             | Isocyanic Acid   | Measured from ToF-CIMS   |
| <b>Fullerene<sup>1</sup></b>        | Fullerene  | Measured from HR-SP-AMS from HR-SP-AMS   |
| <b>BC and HULIS<sup>1</sup></b>     | HULIS  | Measured from HR-SP-AMS from HR-SP-AMS   |
| <b>pPON<sup>2</sup></b>             | Primary Particulate Organic Nitrate                        | Measured by Aerosol Mass Spectrometer (AMS) by using 46:30 ratio (Reyes et al. 2018) |
| <b>sPON<sup>2</sup></b>             | Secondary Particulate Organic Nitrate                      | Measured by Aerosol Mass Spectrometer (AMS) by using 46:30 ratio.                    |
| <b>HOA<sup>1</sup></b>              | Hydrocarbon-like Organic Aerosol                           | Factor derived by PMF analysis from HR-SP-AMS  |
| <b>BBOA<sup>1</sup></b>             | Biomass Burning Organic Aerosol                            | Factor derived by PMF analysis from HR-SP-AMS  |
| <b>Sr<sup>1</sup></b>               | Strontium Metal  | Measured from HR-SP-AMS  |
| <b>Domestic Burning<sup>1</sup></b> | Domestic burning   | Factor derived by PMF analysis from HR-SP-AMS  |

<sup>1</sup>rBC, Sr, Fullerene, Hydrocarbon-like OA, Domestic burning, BBOA, BC and HULIS (Current Case study) derived by PMF from HR-SP-AMS

<sup>2</sup>pPON, sPON, eBC and BrC, (AE31), eBC (MAAP) (Reyes et al. 2018)

<sup>3</sup>HCN, HCNO, HONO (Priestley et al. 2018a)

Another close correlation was factor 1 (HULIS) with an  $r^2$  of 0.82 with Fullerene. The reason for this high correlation is because of the very high concentration released during the bonfire event. In terms of sPON and factor 4 (traffic emissions), both are showing moderate correlation i.e.  $r^2=0.64$ . The  $r^2$  in this case is much lower than the other grouping because traffic emissions are the primary source, not a secondary source, so their relationship is likely coincidental, maybe modulated by the

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boundary layer. The last group of pollutants having close correlation included pPON, Sr and factor 2 (biomass burning OA). In a previous research study (Reyes et al., 2018), ME-2 analysis indicated the presence of two different types of PON, in which particularly pPON are primarily emitted along with BBOA concentrations. According to Zhang et al., (2016), PON are related mainly to the primary sources of combustion. The firework tracer, Sr, has shown some correlation with pPON and BBOA, but their peaks occurred at slightly different times. So, in spite, of the high correlation, this implies that they're not identical. It could be that if the firework display occurred at the beginning of the bonfire event their emissions maybe coincident with the pyrolysis emissions on bonfire begin to be lit, as distinct from the smouldering emissions later (Haslett et al., 2017), however, without specific knowledge of the timings of the events that contribute to these emissions, it is difficult to conclude this. Coupled with the fact that Sr could not be incorporated with any of the factors in this study, this would be consistent with the notion that fireworks are not the soot sources reported here or in Reyes et al. (2018).

#### 4.2 Relative contributions of the different factors to the HR-SP-AMS signal and the BC budget:

This data can be used to estimate the relative contributions of the different sources to the overall signal and the black carbon assuming that the divergence of the aerosol in the beam is the same for all particle types and hence the efficiency is same for all particle types. Fig 8(a) illustrates the total signal fraction of BC accounted by each BC sources released during the Bonfire event. The total mass fraction was obtained directly by the PMF analysis. The five factors have been divided into two different categories i.e. Bonfire factors and non-Bonfire factors. The Bonfire factors are HOA-like-Fullerene and BBOA, while HOA and domestic burning are the non-bonfire sources and HULIS having contributions from both. The biggest contribution from the event was BBOA, contributing 54% out of total signal fraction followed by traffic emissions (13%), HOA-like-Fullerene (11%), HULIS (9%) and domestic burning (8%). Fig 8(b) shows the mass fraction of only black carbon from each PMF factor profile. The BC only mass fraction was calculated by multiplying the total signal fraction with the fraction of rBC in each factor and then renormalise to 1. According to analysis, HOA-like-Fullerene, contributed the highest fraction i.e. 42% followed by the non-bonfire factor HOA (traffic emissions) with 27% contribution. The HULIS and BBOA have 13% and 10% contribution respectively while domestic burning has the least part with 7% only. Therefore, it has been clearly found that the two major sources of BC are HOA-like-Fullerene, and traffic emissions. While in fig 9 shows the quantitative data of BC signals in  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  after scaling them to the AE31 eBC<sub>950</sub> data. This time series was generated by following the same procedure for BC signal fraction out of total signal fraction and normalising to the total BC signal. According to the time series, BC from Fullerene and BBOA showed the highest signals during the bonfire night-time period followed by HULIS, domestic burning and traffic emissions.

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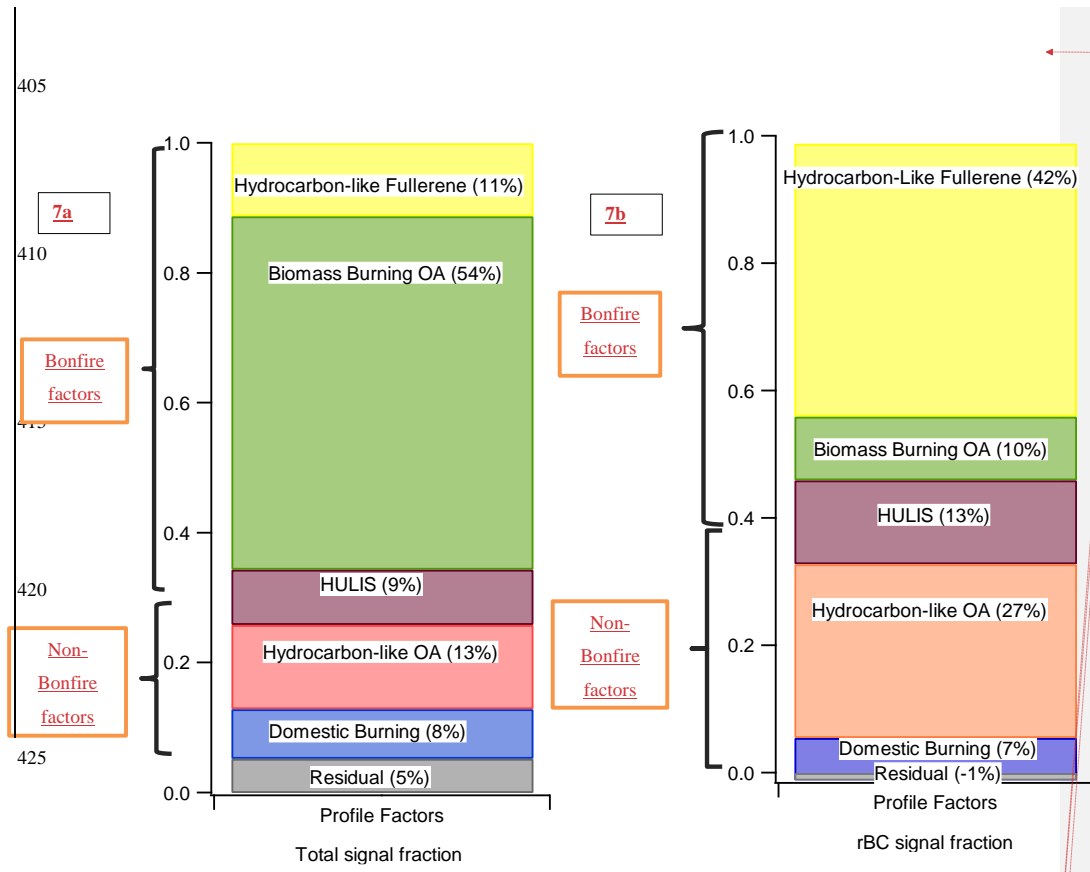


Figure 7(a) shows the relative contributions of total mass fraction to HR-SP-AMS signal and Fig 7(b) shows rBC mass fraction accounted for by each PMF factors.

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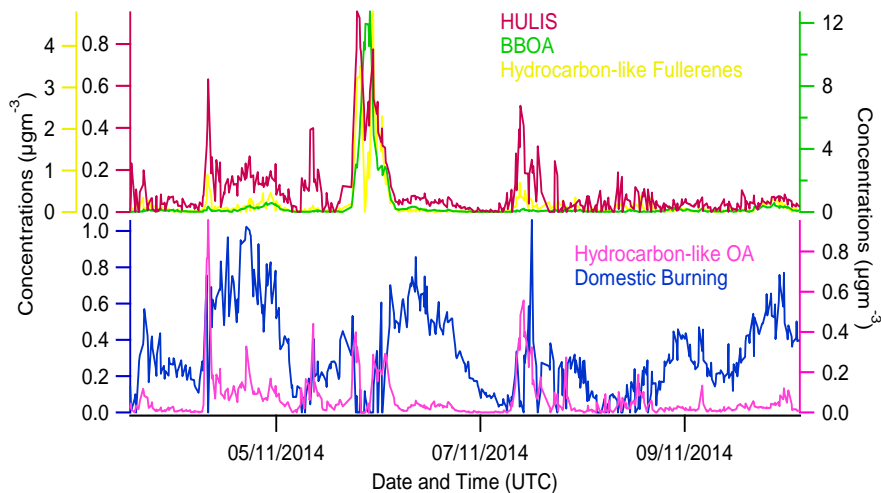


Figure 3: The contributions of BC signals in  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  after normalising it to the concentrations of  $\text{eBC}_{950}$  from aethalometer (AE31) (Reyes et al, 2018).

### 5 Conclusion

This study has shown that for the first time, the inclusion of fullerene data in PMF applied to HR-SP-AMS data can be used to apportion soot into five sources during an even superimposing emissions from a bonfire event on urban pollution. The five soot sources can be divided into bonfire night factors (HOA-like Fullerene, HULIS, BBOA) and non-bonfire night factors (i.e. domestic wood burning, hydrocarbon-like organic aerosol and some HULIS). Metals were also observed at the time of fireworks display such as Fe, Ti and Cs and Sr. But Sr was most unambiguously associated with the fireworks, due to the fact that there is no other source of Sr signal present outside of Bonfire night, metal was taken as a tracer for the fireworks. The addition of fullerene signals and increasing the model error value from 0 to 0.10 reduces the uncertainty/error in the PMF factor solution and provides the best factorisation results. The fullerene data was successfully incorporated into rBC signals and linked with the bonfire emissions directly while Sr metal signals did not incorporate into rBC or any other factors, implying it was not contributing as a source. Also, the inclusion of Fullerene signals also helped to differentiate between different factors. The results correlate well with the other BC and soot proxies provided by other instruments presented in previous papers and can be used to estimate the relative contributions of the different sources to total BC. This technique will be useful in the future studies to better differentiate between the different soot sources in complex polluted environments.

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#### 7 Authors Contribution

Zainab Bibi performed the data analysis and wrote the paper. James D. Allan and Paul I. Williams designed the experiment and operated the SP-AMS, Ernesto Reyes Villegas, Michael Priestley and Carl Percival provided measurements and data from other instruments. Zainab Bibi was supervised by James D. Allan and Hugh Coe, with Ernesto Reyes Villegas and James Brooks assisting with PMF analysis.

#### 8 Data Availability

Data is archived at the University of Manchester and available on request'. It will be posted publicly before submission of the final manuscript.

#### 9 Acknowledgement

This work was supported by NERC grant COM-PART (NE/K014838/1) for data collection. Zainab Bibi's PhD was funded by a Dean's Award Scholarship from the University of Manchester Faculty of Science and Engineering.



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