

Multi-Site Non-Methane Hydrocarbon Source Apportionment and Ozone Insights in Southern Taiwan Using Positive Matrix Factorization

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Abstract

Ozone pollution remains a persistent challenge in Taiwan's Kaoping region due to dense industrial and urban emissions. Using high-resolution, hourly observations from three Photochemical Assessment Monitoring Stations (PAMS) combined with Positive Matrix Factorization (PMF), this study resolved eight distinct sources of non-methane hydrocarbons (NMHCs), key precursors of ozone formation. The time-resolved PMF output captured source-specific temporal patterns—as shown by the acetylene factor at Linyuan ($R^2 = 0.99$ with observations)—providing an intrinsic check on model performance and facilitating spatial interpretation of sources. Petroleum-related emissions dominate NMHC mass at all sites but are more prominent at Xiaogang, while aged air masses substantially enhance ozone pollution at downwind locations such as Linyuan and Chaozhou, underscoring the role of regional transport and atmospheric aging. Although mixed sources from vehicular and solvent emissions contributed less mass, they dominated ozone formation potential (OFP) due to higher chemical reactivity. Notably, their influence persisted even under moderate ozone conditions, indicative of a VOC-limited regime. Overall, these results emphasize that effective ozone mitigation in southern Taiwan requires coordinated control of petroleum, mobile, and solvent emissions, and demonstrate the value of multi-site, year-round, high-time-resolution NMHC measurements for constraining ozone precursors.

1 Introduction

Volatile organic compounds (VOCs) are key precursors in atmospheric chemistry and play a substantial role in determining air quality (Guan et al., 2020; Guo et al., 2017; Finlayson-Pitts and Pitts Jr, 1993). In the presence of nitrogen oxides (NO_x) and sunlight, VOCs undergo photochemical reactions that lead to the formation of ground-level ozone (O_3), while their oxidation products contribute to secondary organic aerosol formation (Wu et al., 2024; Mcfiggans et al., 2019). These processes are particularly intensified in rapidly industrializing and urbanizing regions, where elevated emissions and complex atmospheric interactions amplify air pollution (Zhang et al., 2022). The resulting decline in air quality poses substantial risks to both human health and ecosystems (Ramírez et al., 2019; Xu et al., 2022). Given their complex roles and diverse emission sources, a detailed characterization of ambient VOCs is essential to advance our understanding of their source origins, chemical behavior, and contributions to air pollution.

39 The impact of VOCs on ozone formation critically depends on the local chemical regime—whether
40 ozone production is VOC-limited or NO_x-limited (Kleinman et al., 2002; Sillman, 1999). In VOC-limited
41 environments, common in densely industrialized and urbanized areas, ozone levels are more responsive
42 to changes in reactive VOC concentrations, whereas in NO_x-limited conditions, ozone formation is
43 constrained by nitrogen oxide availability. Several studies in East and Southeast Asia have emphasized
44 this spatial heterogeneity of ozone sensitivity (Li et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2021; Ren and Xie, 2022). In
45 Taiwan, both modeling and observational evidence indicate that southern and western regions typically
46 exhibit VOC-limited or transition regimes, while rural and downwind areas are more NO_x-limited (Chang
47 et al., 2022; Chen et al., 2021b). This regime dependence underscores the need for region-specific
48 precursor management and highlights the importance of identifying the dominant reactive VOC sources
49 that most effectively drive ozone formation. Understanding these sensitivities provides an essential
50 framework for interpreting ozone formation potential (OFP) derived from NMHC source contributions.

51 Traditional VOC source analysis often relies on passive sampling techniques, such as using
52 canisters at strategic locations to capture spatial and temporal variations in ambient concentrations
53 (Dumanoglu et al., 2014; Mo et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2018; Dong et al., 2024). While effective for
54 regional assessments, these methods lack the high temporal resolution required for detailed source
55 apportionment. To overcome this limitation, automated gas chromatograph (auto-GC) systems have been
56 developed, offering continuous, high-frequency VOC measurements that better support the analysis of
57 dynamic emission patterns (Wernis et al., 2022; Su et al., 2016; Chen et al., 2014; Henry, 2013). In
58 Taiwan, the Environmental Protection Administration (EPA) has established a Photochemical
59 Assessment Monitoring Stations (PAMS) network to provide real-time NMHCs monitoring data—a
60 subset of VOCs—forming a technical foundation for evidence-based air quality management and
61 research. These sophisticated monitoring techniques form a foundation for detailed source apportionment
62 studies (Chen et al., 2021a; Gu et al., 2020; Languille et al., 2020), enabling more accurate evaluation of
63 emission contributions and their temporal variations. Initially, this network lacked a standardized
64 approach for identifying specific NMHC sources, with only one of the nine stations incorporating
65 targeted source-tracking capabilities in 2007 (Chen et al., 2014). However, since 2013, the network has
66 expanded to track emissions from major industrial zones, growing to a total of 15 stations to better
67 support the EPA’s regulatory and scientific objectives (Nguyen et al., 2025).

68 The Kaoping region, located in southern Taiwan, is home to one of the country's largest industrial
69 complexes, situated near Kaohsiung Port—an important maritime trade hub in East Asia (Yeh et al.,
70 2022). This region faces persistent air quality challenges due to intensive industrial activity, including
71 petrochemical manufacturing, steel production, and power generation, which collectively represent
72 dominant sources of anthropogenic NMHC emissions (Huang and Hsieh, 2019). In addition to the
73 industrial activities, multiple emission sources —including vehicular traffic, ships in ports, urban
74 development, biogenic activity, and long-range transport of pollutants further burden the area's air quality
75 (Chou et al., 2022; Lin et al., 2007). Vehicular emissions, particularly those associated with gasoline
76 combustion and fuel evaporation, are recognized as significant contributors to ambient NMHC levels in

77 **urbanized environments**. These sources are commonly characterized by elevated concentrations of light
78 alkanes and related gasoline-associated species (Shao et al., 2016; Mo et al., 2017). **At the same time**, the
79 presence of isoprene from vegetation and meteorological **processes**—such as sea-land breeze circulations
80 and seasonal monsoons—complicates the chemical transformation and transport of NMHCs across the
81 region (Li and Wang, 2012; Cheng et al., 2016). The local EPA authority has implemented emission
82 control strategies targeting major industrial zones to address these environmental concerns. These
83 measures include stricter emission standards, technical support for pollution reduction, and mandatory
84 installation of factory gas recovery and treatment systems. Despite these efforts, residents adjacent to
85 industrial parks continue to express concerns about air quality issues (Ko, 1996; Deng et al., 2022),
86 suggesting that current measures have not fully mitigated the impact of VOC emissions on surrounding
87 communities. Given these complex and intertwined emission sources, high-resolution NMHC
88 monitoring from the PAMS network in the Kaoping region offers a valuable database for investigating
89 source contributions and understanding their influence on regional air quality to improve air pollution
90 management and air quality.

91 To quantitatively determine the contribution of different emission sources, receptor models such
92 as Chemical Mass Balance (CMB) and PMF are widely applied in atmospheric research (Su et al., 2019;
93 Na and Kim, 2007; Liu et al., 2008b; Lingwall and Christensen, 2007). Each approach has its strengths
94 and limitations. CMB requires detailed and well-characterized source profiles and is sensitive to
95 collinearity among input species, which can limit its applicability in complex source environments. In
96 contrast, PMF is a data-driven technique that extracts source profiles and their contributions directly from
97 ambient measurements, making it more flexible in situations where comprehensive source profiles are
98 unavailable but depend on a sufficiently large and high-quality dataset (Su et al., 2016). Recent advances
99 allow PMF to incorporate auxiliary information (e.g., known marker species or source profiles),
100 improving source identification accuracy (Yang et al., 2022). In this context, the continuous, speciated
101 NMHC data provided by the PAMS network create an ideal foundation for applying PMF to source
102 apportionment in the Kaoping region, where emission sources are diverse. However, identifying sources
103 is only one part of the broader picture of air quality. To fully understand pollution dynamics in this region,
104 it is also essential to consider meteorological factors that influence the dispersion, accumulation, and
105 transport of NMHCs.

106 To address this, many studies have coupled PMF with the Conditional Probability Function (CPF),
107 which integrates PMF-resolved source contributions with wind direction data to infer the likely directions
108 of pollution sources (Pekney et al., 2006; Zhou et al., 2018; Pallavi and Sinha, 2019). CPF analyses
109 typically rely on the time series of factor contributions generated by PMF to calculate conditional
110 probabilities of wind directions associated with elevated contributions (e.g., using the 75th percentile
111 threshold). While CPF enhances the spatial interpretation of PMF outputs, it **primarily focuses on wind**
112 **direction patterns and does not fully exploit the rich temporal variability captured** in the PMF-resolved
113 **factor** time series. **Consequently**, these temporal features are rarely used to further investigate source
114 behavior, **even though they** contain valuable **information**, such as peak events, seasonal trends, or

115 episodic spikes in individual sources. Importantly, high-contribution events in specific time windows
116 provide an opportunity to integrate PMF with air mass back-trajectory analysis, linking these peaks to
117 possible upwind source regions. This approach enhances the interpretability of PMF beyond statistical
118 association and opens new avenues for spatiotemporal source identification.

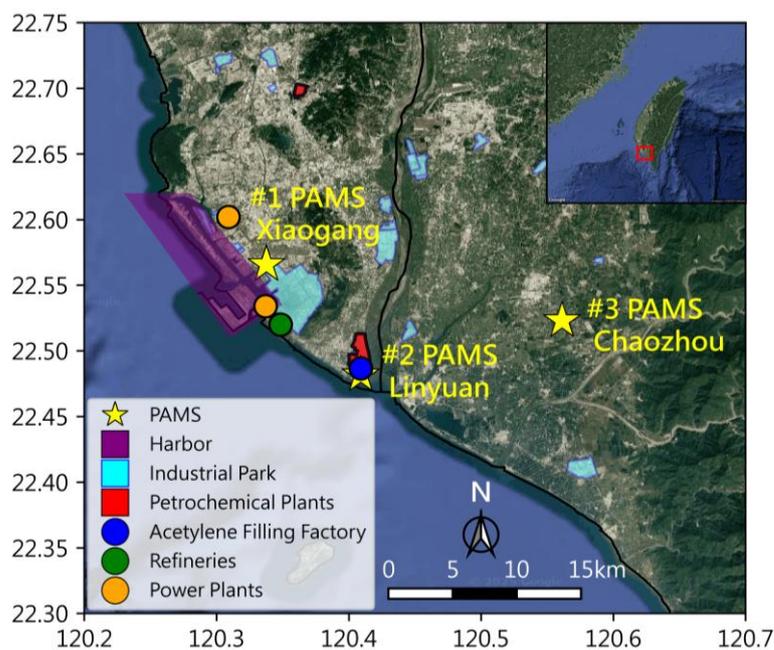
119 In Taiwan, PMF has been widely applied to support evidence-based air-quality policymaking;
120 however, most studies have concentrated on northern (Kuo et al., 2014; Liao et al., 2017; Liao et al.,
121 2024) and central regions (Su et al., 2019). Applications of CPF in conjunction with PMF have also been
122 largely limited to central Taiwan (Huang and Hsieh, 2019; Chen et al., 2019), leaving the Kaoping region
123 comparatively understudied—particularly in terms of combining PMF, CPF, and trajectory analyses to
124 identify industrial and transported NMHC sources. Thus, this study aims to bridge this gap by applying
125 PMF and CPF to identify and characterize NMHC sources in the Kaoping region and analyze the
126 temporal features of PMF factor contributions to guide trajectory-based source tracking. By identifying
127 high-contribution episodes for source factor and performing back-trajectory analyses during those
128 episodes, we can confidently infer the likely geographic origins of the emissions. In addition, the OFP
129 associated with each source was estimated to evaluate its relative impact on ozone production. Compared
130 to most PMF studies that rely on data from a single receptor site and limited time resolution, our study
131 leverages three PAMS sites with year-round hourly data and distinct source–receptor characteristics,
132 allowing for a more robust source apportionment and regional representation. This multi-PAMS
133 framework offers insights into NMHC dynamic emissions and transport in one of the most industrialized
134 areas in Southern Taiwan.

135 **2 Methodology**

136 **2.1 Study site description**

137 This study focuses on source apportionment of ambient NMHCs in the highly industrialized
138 Kaoping region of southern Taiwan, approximately one-third the size of the New York metropolitan
139 region, based on measurements from three PAMS monitoring sites: Xiaogang, Linyuan, and Chaozhou.
140 The distinct locations of three sites and environmental settings provide a comprehensive view of source–
141 receptor relationships across the region. Xiaogang, located in southern Kaohsiung, is a mixed urban–
142 industrial area heavily influenced by emissions from multiple industrial activities. These include large
143 petrochemical complexes, a regional airport, steel mills, metallurgical processing plants, shipyards, and
144 power stations. In addition, maritime operations from Kaohsiung Harbor—one of the busiest ports in
145 Asia—contribute significantly to local NMHC levels. Linyuan, situated along the southwestern coast and
146 downwind of Kaohsiung’s industrial corridor, is situated next to a large petrochemical complex
147 frequently receiving high-concentration plumes from nearby facilities under the influence of coastal
148 meteorology. Chaozhou, by contrast, is more inland and characterized by agricultural and vegetative land
149 use, with minimal influence from industrial and urban anthropogenic sources. However, due to its
150 geographic position downwind of the Kaohsiung industrial corridor, Chaozhou is susceptible to the
151 regional pollution transported from neighboring urban and industrialized areas. As such, it serves as a
152 receptor site for background air quality conditions with intermittent influence from upwind

153 anthropogenic emissions. Together, the three sites offer spatial and environmental contrasts that support
154 robust source apportionment and allow for evaluation of both local emission characteristics and regional
155 transport dynamics in the Kaoping region.



156
157 **Figure 1: Study region with marked industrial facilities. Base map from Google Maps (Map data**
158 **©2025 Google)**

159 2.2 Data collection

160 All three sites are equipped with PAMS, enabling high-temporal-resolution measurements of
161 speciated NMHCs (Fig. S1). Each station employs an automated gas chromatograph system (Clarus 500
162 GC, PerkinElmer), configured with dual flame ionization detectors (FIDs) and thermal desorption units
163 (TM-TD1, PerkinElmer). This TD-GC/FID setup allows for hourly quantification of 54 NMHC species
164 ranging from C₂–C₁₁. Ambient air is sampled at a flow rate of 15 mL/min over 40 minutes, yielding
165 approximately 600 mL of air per sample, and then passes through a Nafion dryer (500 sccm counter-flow)
166 to eliminate excess humidity during sample collection. No ozone scrubber is needed, as the system
167 features short, inert-coated sampling tubing, effectively minimizing the likelihood of ozone reactions.
168 Samples are pre-concentrated at –30 °C and desorbed at 325 °C for GC injection. A two-column
169 separation strategy with a Deans switch is implemented to improve chromatographic resolution.
170 Following desorption, analytes are first transferred to the BP-1 column. The Deans switch is then route
171 lighter hydrocarbons (C₂–C₅) from the BP1 column to an Al₂O₃ PLOT column (50 m × 0.32 mm i.d.,
172 5.0 μm, Varian), while heavier compounds (C₆–C₁₁) are directed through an uncoated column. Instrument
173 calibration is conducted every three days using certified standard gas mixtures containing the 54 target
174 species (Spectra Gases, Branchburg, USA), ensuring data quality with a measurement precision (1σ)
175 maintained below 4%.

176 In addition to VOC measurements, this study incorporates hourly ancillary data from the Taiwan
177 Air Quality Monitoring Network (TAQMN), including O₃ and meteorological parameters such as wind

178 speed and wind direction. This integrated dataset supports a comprehensive analysis of photochemical
179 activity, emission dynamics, and pollutant transport mechanisms across the three monitoring
180 environments: urban-industrial-port (Xiaogang), coastal-industrial (Linyuan), and inland-rural
181 (Chaozhou). Data cleaning was performed prior to analysis to ensure consistency across datasets.
182 TAQMN measurements were first screened to remove invalid entries, including missing values,
183 instrument flags, any non-numeric values associated with routine maintenance, calibration events, power
184 outages, or temporary instrument shutdowns. After this quality-control procedure, the TAQMN 2024
185 dataset achieves approximately 98% data coverage across the three sites.

186 2.3 NMHC source apportionment model

187 PMF is a receptor-based modeling technique widely used for identifying and quantifying
188 contributions of pollution sources to ambient air quality. Originally developed by Paatero and Tapper
189 (1994) and refined in subsequent work (Paatero, 1997), PMF has been extensively applied to NMHCs
190 source apportionment in various urban and industrial environments (Guo et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2015).
191 The method decomposes the observed concentration matrix (X) into two non-negative matrices: the
192 source contribution matrix (G) and the source profile matrix (F), along with a residual matrix (E). The
193 model accounts for measurement uncertainty and identifies latent factors representing individual sources,
194 each characterized by a distinct chemical profile and temporal pattern. Detailed mathematical
195 formulations are described in prior studies (Su et al., 2019; Han et al., 2023; Huang and Hsieh, 2019).

196 In this study, we applied the U.S. EPA's PMF 5.0 software to perform source apportionment of
197 NMHCs measured at the three PAMS sites in the Kaoping region. The input to the model consisted of
198 concentration and uncertainty matrices constructed from hourly NMHC measurements. Uncertainty (U_{ij})
199 was calculated based on species concentrations (X_{ij}) and minimum detection limits (MDL) as follows:

$$200 U_{ij} = \sqrt{(0.5 \times MDL_j)^2 + (error\ fraction \times X_{ij})^2} \quad (1)$$

201 For concentrations below MDL, the value was substituted with half MDL with uncertainty set at $\frac{5}{6}$
202 MDL, and an error fraction (10%). Missing values were excluded from the input dataset to maintain
203 model reliability. To ensure a consistent and robust dataset across the three sites and four seasons, species
204 selection was based on signal-to-noise (S/N) ratios and detection frequency following EPA PMF
205 guidance. Specifically, species with S/N ratios < 0.1 or missing data with occurrences more than 4
206 instances were classified as "bad" and excluded, while those with $0.1 \leq S/N < 2$ were down-weighted as
207 weak species. This screening process resulted in a final set of 22 out of the 54 species that were
208 consistently detectable and quantitatively reliable across all sites and seasons (Table S1). Model stability
209 was then evaluated through multiple diagnostic procedures. First, factor numbers from 3 to 8 were tested,
210 each with 100 independent runs using random seed initialization. The optimal number of factors was
211 selected based on $Q_{(robust)}/Q_{(true)}$ values that were close to 1.0, reproducibility of factor profiles across runs
212 assessed via Bootstrap (BS) analyses (>95% matching), and the interpretability and physical plausibility
213 of the resulting source profiles. Together, these procedures confirm that the PMF solution provides a
214 robust and well-constrained representation of NMHC sources in the study region, while the consistent
215 selection of 22 species ensures comparability across all seasonal and site-specific analyses.

216 2.4 Directional analysis with CPF and trajectory modeling

217 The CPF was employed to identify the likely directional origins of pollution sources by analyzing
218 the relationship between elevated PMF factor timeseries contributions and wind direction. First, source
219 contribution timeseries obtained from PMF output were used, with each factor representing a distinct
220 emission source (e.g., petrochemical, solvent usage, aged air mass). Wind speed and wind direction data
221 were integrated with PMF output to determine directional influence.

$$222 \text{CPF}_{\Delta\theta} = n_{\Delta\theta} / m_{\Delta\theta} \quad (2)$$

223 CPF was computed as the ratio of the number of times the factor contributions exceeded the
224 threshold within a given wind sector ($n_{\Delta\theta}$) to the total number of valid observations in that sector ($m_{\Delta\theta}$).
225 Wind direction was divided into 16 equal intervals (22.5° per sector) to ensure robust analysis. For each
226 PMF-resolved factor, the 70th percentile was the threshold to isolate the plume events, **as it effectively**
227 **filtered out moderate events while retaining sufficient data for statistically stable and interpretable CPF**
228 **results (Table S2)**. Higher CPF values in specific wind sectors indicated stronger contributions from
229 sources in that direction. CPF plots were generated for each PMF factor to visualize dominant source
230 directions and assess consistency with known emission source locations, meteorological patterns, and
231 local topography.

232 Our developed trigger back-trajectory is employed to further utilize the time series features from
233 PMF factor contribution, particularly their episodic spikes or peak events. Unlike traditional Lagrangian
234 models such as HYSPLIT, which simulate long-range air mass transport using synoptic meteorological
235 fields, the trigger back-trajectory model is optimized for short-range, near-surface pollution episodes
236 using high-resolution wind observations from receptor sites. Each trajectory is then visualized and
237 mapped using GIS tools layered onto spatial imagery via the Google Maps API. By aggregating multiple
238 trajectories associated with similar high-concentration events, a trajectory ensemble analysis is
239 conducted to identify convergence zones, which are likely source regions. This hybrid approach improves
240 the spatial interpretability of PMF results by complementing factor profiles and CPF with spatiotemporal
241 back-tracing, providing a robust framework for identifying not just what the sources are, but when and
242 where they likely originated.

243 2.5 Ozone formation potential and uncertainty consideration

244 The OFP of each NMHC species was estimated using the Maximum Incremental Reactivity (MIR)
245 coefficients developed by (Carter, 2010). The OFP for compound i was calculated as:

$$246 \text{OFP}_i = C_i \times \text{MIR}_i \quad (3)$$

247 Where C_i (ppb) is the measured mixing ratio of the species, and MIR_i ($\text{g O}_3 \text{ g}^{-1} \text{ VOC}$) is its
248 reactivity coefficient (Table S1). The MIR scale represents ozone yield under low VOC/ NO_x (i.e., high-
249 NO_x or VOC-limited) conditions, where ozone formation is primarily sensitive to changes in VOC
250 abundance. This assumption aligns with previous photochemical studies indicating that ozone formation
251 in southern Taiwan is predominantly VOC-limited (Chang et al., 2022).

252 The uncertainty associated with OFP estimation was inherently accounted for during the PMF
253 analysis. These uncertainties were used to construct the PMF input uncertainty matrix, which determines
254 the weighting of each data point in the model fitting. As the OFP was calculated from the PMF-resolved

255 factor contribution time series, the measurement uncertainties are inherently reflected in the factor
256 contributions. While this approach propagates measurement uncertainty into OFP estimates, it is
257 important to note that OFP represents a photochemical potential, not realized ozone formation, and does
258 not capture the nonlinear interactions that govern actual ozone production.

259 3 Results and discussion

260 3.1 PAMS data overview

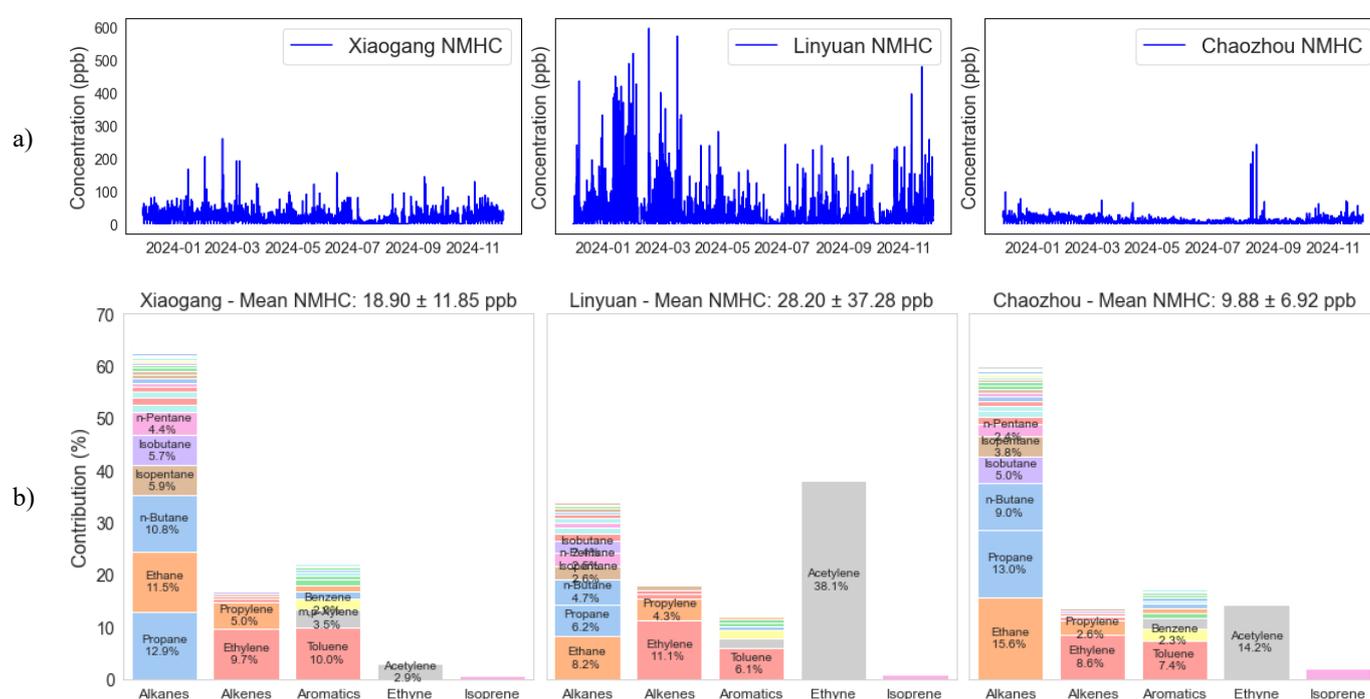
261 Leveraging three PAMS sites in a region with heavy industrial loading, this study captures the
262 spatial variability of source dynamics, providing a clearer picture of how NMHC levels are shaped. The
263 annual mean concentrations of NMHC—calculated from 54 species—exhibited pronounced spatial
264 heterogeneity across the sampling sites. As illustrated in Fig. 2a, the level varied considerably, with
265 Linyuan recorded the highest average concentration (28.20 ± 37.28 ppb), followed by Xiaogang (18.90
266 ± 11.85 ppb) and Chaozhou (9.88 ± 6.92 ppb). However, the corresponding median values (10.92, 13.68,
267 and 6.92 ppb, respectively) indicate that these distributions are skewed, particularly at Linyuan, where
268 the mean is substantially higher than the median, reflecting occasional extreme emission events likely
269 driven by dense petrochemical operations. Meanwhile, Xiaogang, with a mean slightly higher than its
270 median, represents a mixed urban-industrial setting, where both vehicular emissions and industrial
271 activities contribute to ambient NMHC levels. In contrast, Chaozhou exhibits lower mean and median
272 concentrations, characteristic of a predominantly agricultural environment. Notably, an anomalous
273 elevation was observed in Chaozhou during August, and this feature will be further examined in later
274 sections. Statistical analysis reveals that, after removing the elevated window, the extreme short-duration
275 did not alter the central tendency of the observations, with minimal impact observed on the statistical
276 metrics (Table S3). A comparative analysis indicates that NMHC concentrations in this study were
277 generally lower than those reported in Guangzhou (42.74 ppb), Wuhan (34.65 ppb), Chengdu (41.8 ppb),
278 and Beijing (29.12 ppb), which were selected due to their similar urban environments (Li et al., 2022;
279 Hui et al., 2018; Zou et al., 2015; Song et al., 2018). The difference reflects the effectiveness of emission
280 control measures in Taiwan, supported by stringent regulations, cleaner fuels, and strengthened industrial
281 emission standards (Moe, 2022, 2023). Additionally, meteorological factors, such as higher wind speeds
282 at Xiaogang and Chaozhou, likely contribute to dilution and dispersion, further shaping the observed
283 NMHC distribution. The combined consideration of mean and median reveals both typical ambient levels
284 and the influence of short-term emission peaks in understanding NMHC exposure across the region.

285 3.2 NMHC compositions

286 While NMHC concentrations provide a broad picture of emission intensities, a more detailed
287 understanding of their pollution requires an analysis of their chemical composition. The NMHC profiles
288 at Chaozhou, Linyuan, and Xiaogang exhibited distinct characteristics, reflecting their diverse emission
289 sources and atmospheric processing (Fig. 2b). Across all sites, 54 NMHC species were quantified and
290 categorized into five major groups: alkanes, alkenes, aromatics, alkynes (ethyne) and isoprene.

291 Alkanes dominated the NMHC composition at Chaozhou and Xiaogang, comprising 61% and 64%
292 of total NMHC, respectively, while accounting for only 36% at Linyuan. This alkane dominance is

293 consistent with previous findings in Asian cities (Zhang et al., 2020; Song et al., 2020), reflecting their
 294 long atmospheric lifetimes and broad emission sources, including hydrocarbon processing and gasoline-
 295 related activities. Ethane, propane, n-butane and isobutane alone contributed about 42% of the total
 296 concentration across three sites, with enhanced levels of n-butane and isobutane particularly evident at
 297 Xiaogang and Chaozhou. In contrast, Linyuan exhibited a distinctly different chemical profile, with
 298 ethyne (acetylene) making up 38% of its total NMHCs, substantially higher than at Chaozhou (14%) and
 299 Xiaogang (3%). This substantial presence of acetylene indicates localized, intense anthropogenic
 300 activities. Notably, Linyuan recorded the highest annual mean NMHCs. However, this ranking is
 301 primarily driven by its elevated acetylene levels. When acetylene is excluded, the relative ranking
 302 changes, and Linyuan shifts to second place after Xiaogang (Fig. S2), highlighting the disproportionate
 303 influence of a single pollutant species on the site's total NMHC burden.



304 **Figure 2:** Time series of total NMHC concentrations and mean composition of NMHC groups at
 305 Chaozhou, Linyuan, and Xiaogang in 2024. (a) Hourly variations illustrate temporal patterns and notable
 306 episodic peaks at each site. (b) Mean NMHC concentrations (ppb) and percentage contributions of
 307 individual compounds within major chemical groups. The mean concentrations of individual species are
 308 presented in Fig. S3.

309 Aromatic compounds formed the second-largest group at Xiaogang (22%), followed by Chaozhou
 310 (17%) and Linyuan (13%). The predominance of toluene and m,p-xylene across all sites aligns with
 311 findings from previous studies in Shanghai (Zhang et al., 2018) and Xi'an (Song et al., 2020), indicating
 312 contributions from solvent use, paint application, and industrial processes. The notably higher toluene
 313 proportion at Xiaogang suggests significant emissions from solvent-related industries, such as coating
 314 and painting. Alkenes accounted for a relatively stable fraction across sites (approximately 14% at
 315 Chaozhou, 18% at Linyuan and Xiaogang), with ethylene being the dominant species. Given that
 316 ethylene is primarily emitted from combustion and petrochemical activities, its consistent presence
 317 underscores the role of anthropogenic sources in shaping the NMHC composition.

318 These pronounced differences in NMHC chemical profiles highlight the spatial heterogeneity of
319 emission sources and atmospheric processes across the study area. The alkane-rich profiles of Chaozhou
320 and Xiaogang contrast sharply with the ethyne-dominated composition at Linyuan, illustrating how
321 industrial activities significantly influence ambient NMHC signatures. Understanding these chemical
322 distinctions is crucial for designing targeted pollution control strategies tailored to the unique emission
323 characteristics of each urban environment.

324 3.3 Resolved Source profiles

325 As mentioned before, some measured NMHCs were excluded from PMF analysis due to their
326 greater volume of data below MDLs. Consequently, the numbers of NMHC species input into the model
327 for source apportionment were 22 species, accounting for 88.9%, 91.7%, and 93.8% of the full 54
328 NMHCs concentration at Xiaogang, Linyuan, and Chaozhou, respectively. Based on the model used,
329 there were eight distinct sources of resolved factors (Figs. 3, 5, and S4) which are petrochemical I (Petro
330 I), petrochemical II (Petro II), refinery, industrial fugitive emissions, mixed sources (Mixed),
331 photochemical aged (Aged air mass), acetylene, and biogenic. Consistent source profiles were observed
332 across seasons and at all three monitoring sites, underscoring the robustness of the PMF results and
333 confirming the dominant contribution of specific source factors throughout the study area (Fig. 3).

334 3.3.1 Common sources

335 a) Petrochemical factors

336 The PMF analysis revealed a strong presence of ethylene and propylene, both of which are key raw
337 materials in the petrochemical industry (Leuchner and Rappenglück, 2010). Ethylene is the most
338 important feedstock in the synthetic organic chemical manufacturing industry, serving as a building block
339 for a wide array of chemicals for making plastics, antifreeze solutions, and solvents. Similarly, propylene
340 is a critical precursor in producing various petrochemical products. Our results are in agreement with
341 those of Xie and Berkowitz (2006), who reported that ethylene and propylene were the main NMHCs
342 emitted from petrochemical emissions. The factor represented by a single dominant compound of
343 ethylene and propylene can be referred to here as the Petro-I and II (Fig. 3). Ethylene and propylene did
344 not appear in proportion despite their shared industrial origin due to the spatial heterogeneity in emission
345 sources across the large campus of the petro-complex at the studied sites. Notably, in summer, the Petro-I
346 profile becomes especially pronounced at Xiaogang, characterized by increased ethane and propane as
347 by-products of cracking operations (Thiruvenkataswamy et al., 2016; Pedrozo et al., 2020). They are
348 prone to fugitive emissions or evaporative losses, particularly from storage tanks at elevated temperatures.

349 The PMF-resolved time series contribution for Petro-I and Petro-II reveals episodic spikes, with
350 no clear pattern of increase or decrease during weekends (Fig. S5), suggesting these events may be
351 associated with perennial petrochemical processes with constant fugitive emissions. Linyuan consistently
352 exhibits the highest contributions for both Petro-I and II during winter and, to a lesser extent, spring and
353 fall, followed by a distinct decline in summer. In contrast, Xiaogang's Petro-I contributions rise notably
354 in fall and remain elevated into the winter with a lesser extent in spring, though Petro-II activity there is
355 less pronounced. Chaozhou records consistently low contributions for both factors throughout all seasons,

356 indicating minimal influence from these industrial sources (Fig. S5, green line). Spatial analysis of the
357 preferred source directions for Petro-I and II further underscores site-specific differences. At Xiaogang,
358 the dominant influence comes from northerly winds in fall, spring, and winter (Fig. 4, red line), while
359 stronger southerly winds are observed in summer and peak in fall, emphasizing the role of prevailing
360 winds in the Kaohsiung area. It highlights the complexity of source contributions and the importance of
361 meteorological conditions in modulating observed concentrations. This pattern aligns with the spatial
362 distribution of active petrochemical facilities in Kaohsiung City, as shown in Fig. 1, and is reflected in
363 the dominant source directions in Fig. 4. For Linyuan, the prevailing source direction is from the
364 northwest, consistent with the site location downwind of Linyuan industrial areas (Fig. 4, orange line).

365 *b) Refinery factor*

366 The refinery-related emissions were primarily composed of C3–C5 alkanes, including propane,
367 isobutane, n-butane, isopentane, and n-pentane (Fig. 3). While n-pentane is commonly identified as a
368 tracer of gasoline evaporation in VOC source profiles, and n-butane is also abundant in fuel vapors
369 (Kumar et al., 2020), they are also associated with emissions from petroleum refining processes (Wei et
370 al., 2016). The separation of refinery and petrochemical sources in PMF analyses has also been
371 documented in previous studies (Kim et al., 2005; Buzcu and Fraser, 2006; Dumanoglu et al., 2014; Chen
372 et al., 2019) and in CMB modeling (Scheff et al., 1989). The PMF-resolved time series contributions are
373 relatively stable and exhibit consistent patterns across most sites and seasons, except for a notable
374 increase at Xiaogang during summer (Fig. S5). Occasional peaks in the PMF-resolved time series at
375 Xiaogang and Linyuan suggest the presence of episodic events or localized influences, likely associated
376 with butanes, which are the most dominant contributors to this factor. Yet, there is no clear indication of
377 a long-term trend or significant weekend effect, highlighting the ongoing and process-driven nature of
378 refinery emissions. Chaozhou consistently registers the lowest refinery factor contributions in all seasons,
379 likely due to its inland downwind position and limited proximity to major refinery facilities. Directional
380 analysis reveals that the preferred source direction for this factor is southeast (SE) for Xiaogang and
381 northwest (NW) for Linyuan, reflecting the locations of refinery facilities relative to each monitoring site
382 (Fig. 4).

383 *c) Industrial fugitive emissions*

384 Isopentane and n-pentane are recognized tracers of **natural gas operations** (Gilman et al., 2013) or
385 gasoline **vapor emissions** (Gentner et al., 2009). In our PMF results, **both species showed elevated**
386 **concentrations**, indicating a strong **contribution** from **fugitive** sources (Fig. 3). **Because isopentane and**
387 **n-pentane exhibit similarly OH reaction rates** (Atkinson, 1986), their ratio (iC_5/nC_5) is commonly used
388 **to identify emission sources** (Bourtsoukidis et al., 2019). Accordingly, we examined this ratio across all
389 **sites using the PMF-resolved concentration of species from factor profile output to reveal their distinct**
390 **relationship between isopentane and n-pentane.**

391 **Many studies report that an iC_5/nC_5 ratio in the range of approximately 0.8–1.1 is characteristic of**
392 **oil & natural gas operations or raw-gas emissions** (Gilman et al., 2013; Thompson et al., 2014; Swarthout
393 **et al., 2013; Gilman et al., 2010). In our analysis, the iC_5/nC_5 ratio was consistently <1 across the sites**

394 and seasons, with site-specific seasonally mean values of 0.53 ± 0.02 at Linyuan, 0.76 ± 0.06 at Xiaogang,
395 and 0.87 ± 0.10 at Chaozhou, all within or below the typical oil & natural gas range. The Kaoping region
396 hosts only downstream industrial activities—such as refining, petrochemical processing, and feedstock
397 production—rather than upstream extraction. Therefore, this factor was attributed to industrial fugitive
398 emissions, likely originating from petrochemical processing units, storage tanks, and refinery-related
399 leakage. The lowest ratio at Linyuan reflects a very local, fresh fugitive leak from proximate
400 refinery/petrochemical sources. In contrast, the downwind receptor (Chaozhou) or the mixed urban-
401 industrial area (Xiaogang) can result in higher ratios.

402 The PMF-resolved time series of industrial fugitive emission at all three sites—Xiaogang, Linyuan,
403 and Chaozhou—exhibit a stable, low-level temporal pattern characteristic of continuous industrial
404 fugitive emission sources across all seasons (Fig. S5). Occasional minor peaks occurred, with slightly
405 higher values at Xiaogang and Linyuan than at Chaozhou at times, but no major episodic events were
406 observed. This pattern underscores the nature of fugitive pollution, which remains a minor and relatively
407 steady contributor to ambient NMHC levels year-round.

408 CPF analysis further reveals distinct spatial and seasonal patterns. At Linyuan and Xiaogang,
409 elevated CPF values are associated with winds from the N-NW, and SE-SSE sectors, respectively,
410 suggesting that elevated concentrations are most likely to occur under these prevailing wind conditions
411 (Fig. 4). Winter and spring generally show slightly higher CPF values compared with summer and fall,
412 particularly at these industrial sites, reflecting seasonal variations in atmospheric transport or emission
413 dynamics.

414 In contrast, Chaozhou consistently displays low CPF values and the lowest NMHCs abundance
415 across all seasons and wind directions, reflecting its rural setting, lack of industrial activity, and its
416 downwind position relative to Xiaogang and Linyuan. The combination of weaker PMF-resolved
417 timeseries (Fig. S5) and nearly uniform ratios of pentane isomers (0.87 ± 0.10) indicates that fugitive
418 emissions reaching Chaozhou are largely diluted and regionally transported rather than locally generated.
419 The winter enhancement is also consistent with the compositionally altered profile observed at Chaozhou
420 (Fig. S4a), where atmospheric processing during transport and seasonal stagnation modifies the alkane
421 distribution while retaining the broader characteristics of industrial fugitive emissions. Overall, the
422 temporal and directional indicators confirm that Chaozhou is primarily influenced by diluted, downwind
423 industrial fugitive emissions, with local contributions becoming detectable only under wintertime
424 stagnation.

425 *d) Mixed factor*

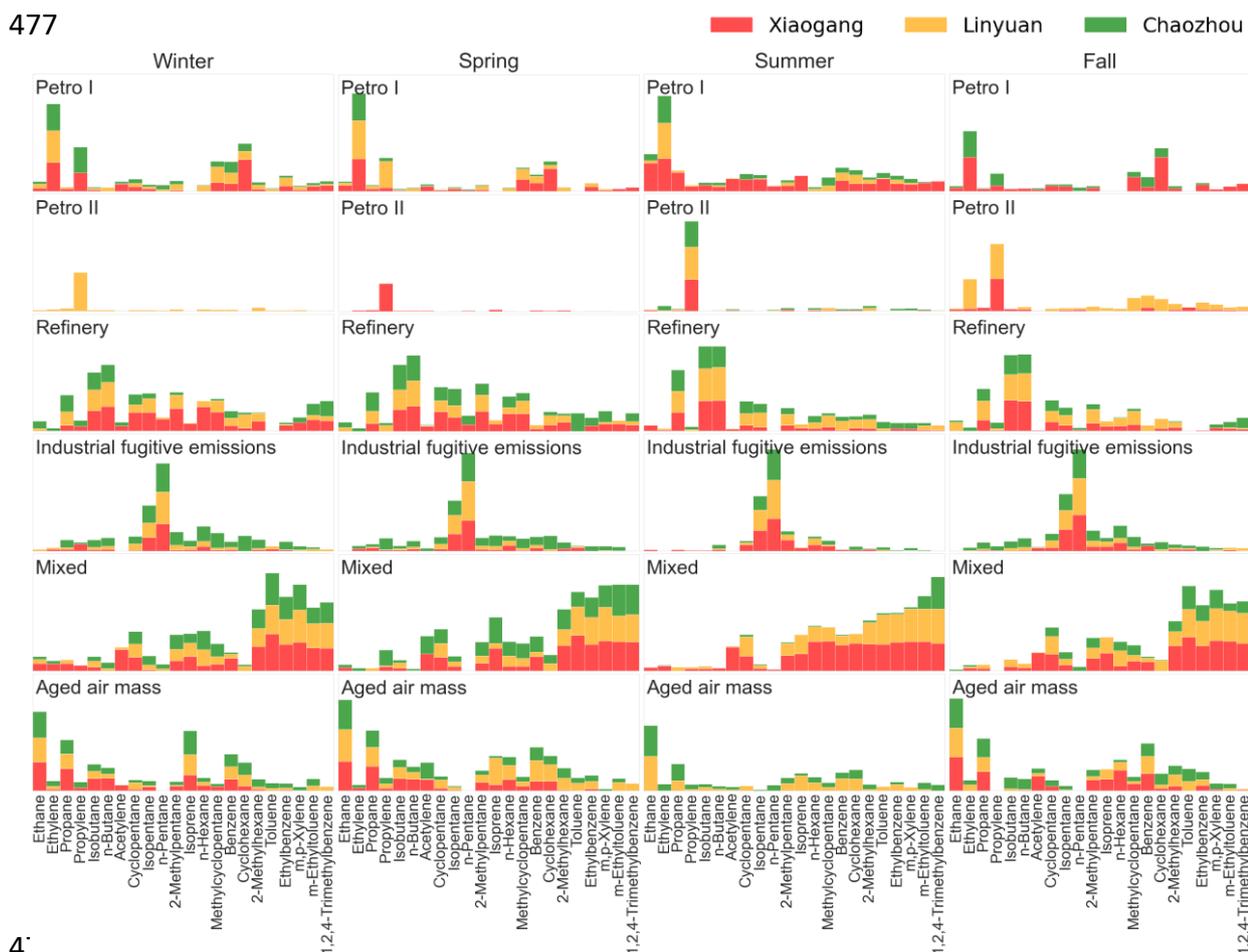
426 In this study, distinguishing between vehicular and solvent-related emissions proved challenging,
427 primarily because Kaohsiung City hosts large-scale petrochemical complexes, shipyards, and harbor
428 facilities. Our PMF analysis was unable to resolve these sources as distinct factors but instead
429 appropriately captured this complexity under a single, mixed source factor (Fig. 3). This likely reflects
430 the complex emission environment of the region and possibly the proximity in distance of these source
431 types, where vehicular activities and solvent usage co-occur, contributing overlapping NMHC species

432 such as toluene, benzene, ethylbenzene, etc (Chang et al., 2003). A major limitation in separating these
433 sources is the absence of key tracers, such as 2,2,4-trimethylpentane (Huang and Hsieh, 2019), 2,3-
434 dimethylbutane as recognized tracer of motor vehicle exhaust (Chang et al., 2004), or such as methyl
435 tert-butyl ether (MTBE), as an indicator for vehicle exhaust or evaporation (Rubin et al., 2006; Chang
436 et al., 2003; Lin et al., 2005), which makes it challenging to fully separate and resolve vehicle emissions.
437 Another limitation is that CO, a commonly used tracer of combustion sources (Huang and Hsieh, 2019),
438 was considered in the test PMF runs; however, its diagnostic value was restricted in the Kaoping region
439 because multiple overlapping CO sources (e.g., traffic, industrial, residential burning, etc.) all
440 contributed to elevated CO levels. As a result, the PMF model grouped vehicles and solvent-related
441 emissions into a single mixed factor, reflecting the complex emission environment and overlapping
442 NMHC signatures.

443 As a result, the mixed source factor exhibits contributions from both vehicular emissions and
444 solvent-related industrial activities. Cai et al. (2010) reported that ethylene and propylene are major
445 products of internal combustion engines, and both were present in our mixed factor. Additionally,
446 acetylene—a known tracer of incomplete combustion—along with toluene, benzene, and m,p-xylene,
447 typify vehicular emissions, further supporting the presence of traffic-related contributions (Nelson and
448 Quigley, 1984; Baker et al., 2008; Liu et al., 2008a; Xu et al., 2017). Cyclopentane, 2-methylpentane,
449 and methylocyclopentane are primarily markers of evaporation or unburned fuel from vehicles, rather
450 than direct combustion products. Isoprene may also be present in vehicle exhaust, especially under
451 conditions of incomplete combustion (e.g., cold starts, older engines, or engines lacking effective
452 emission controls) (Nakashima et al., 2010; Park et al., 2011; Zou et al., 2019) or from tire wear (Jung
453 and Choi, 2023). Moreover, the elevated contribution of heavier aromatic compounds (Fig. 3) suggests
454 a further influence from diesel truck exhaust (Wang et al., 2024). The frequent presence of heavy-duty
455 diesel trucks transporting steel, chemicals, machinery, and other goods was a common sight on the roads
456 of Xiaogang and Linyuan, serving as the logistical backbone for multiple heavy industries in the region.
457 Importantly, toluene is the dominant compound in the mixed factor, especially in Xiaogang, which
458 provides a key constraint on source interpretation. The elevated toluene contribution points primarily to
459 substantial solvent usage, as toluene is widely employed in paints, adhesives, coatings, and various
460 cleaning agents, and chemical manufacturing processes common in industrial zones, along with
461 ethylbenzene, m,p-xylene, n-hexane, and 1,2,4-trimethylbenzene (Wu et al., 2016; Shen et al., 2018;
462 Shao et al., 2016). Together, the combined presence of combustion tracers, evaporative fuel markers,
463 and solvent-related aromatics demonstrates that this factor represents a true mixture of vehicular exhaust
464 and industrial solvent usage, with toluene-dominated solvent emissions (Bari and Kindzierski, 2018),
465 serving as a major driver of its chemical profile. This mixed source factor highlights gaps in current
466 emission inventories and underscores the need for improved, locally speciation-resolved data to support
467 future research in this region.

468 By observing PMF-resolved time series (Fig. S5), the mixed factor exhibits strong seasonality,
469 with its contributions peaking in winter, reaching the lowest levels in spring and summer, and rising

470 again in the fall. Xiaogang and Linyuan consistently display higher values than Chaozhou, especially
 471 during peak winter and late fall, highlighting the greater influence of industrial and traffic activities near
 472 these sites. While generally lower and more consistent, Chaozhou still shows some variability,
 473 indicating a minor but persistent influence from mixed sources. Interestingly, the mixed source factor
 474 often demonstrates a weekly concentration pattern characterized by elevated weekday levels and lower
 475 concentrations on weekends (Baidar et al., 2015; Pollack et al., 2012), further supporting the
 476 contribution from traffic-related emissions.



479 **Figure 3:** Summary of common source profiles of NMHC at the three sites in 2024. This figure presents
 480 the percentage contribution of six common source factors (Petro I, Petro II, Refinery, Industrial fugitive
 481 emissions, Mixed, and Aged air mass) to the total NMHC burden at three monitoring sites: Xiaogang
 482 (red), Linyuan (orange), and Chaozhou (green) across four seasons (Winter, Spring, Summer, and Fall).
 483 Each panel represents a specific source factor and season combination. The stacked bars within each panel
 484 show the relative contribution of NMHC species to that source factor. Consistent source profiles of
 485 fingerprint species were observed across seasons and at all three monitoring sites, underscoring the
 486 robustness of the PMF results.

487 Across all seasons, CPF values for the mixed factor remain relatively stable and uniform,
 488 suggesting that the contributing sources are predominantly local and affected by winds from multiple
 489 directions. However, during the fall, there is a noticeable increase in CPF values from the NW and NNW

490 sectors, corresponding with the onset and intensification of the northeastern monsoon (Fig. 4). This shift
491 results in more frequent and stronger winds from these directions, enabling enhanced transport from
492 upwind or regional sources and producing more pronounced CPF values from NW and NNW. Meanwhile,
493 the elevated time series contributions observed during winter are likely due to accumulation in the
494 atmosphere, driven by a lower mixing layer height, which promotes the buildup of locally emitted
495 pollutants (Fig. S5).

496 *e) Aged air mass factor*

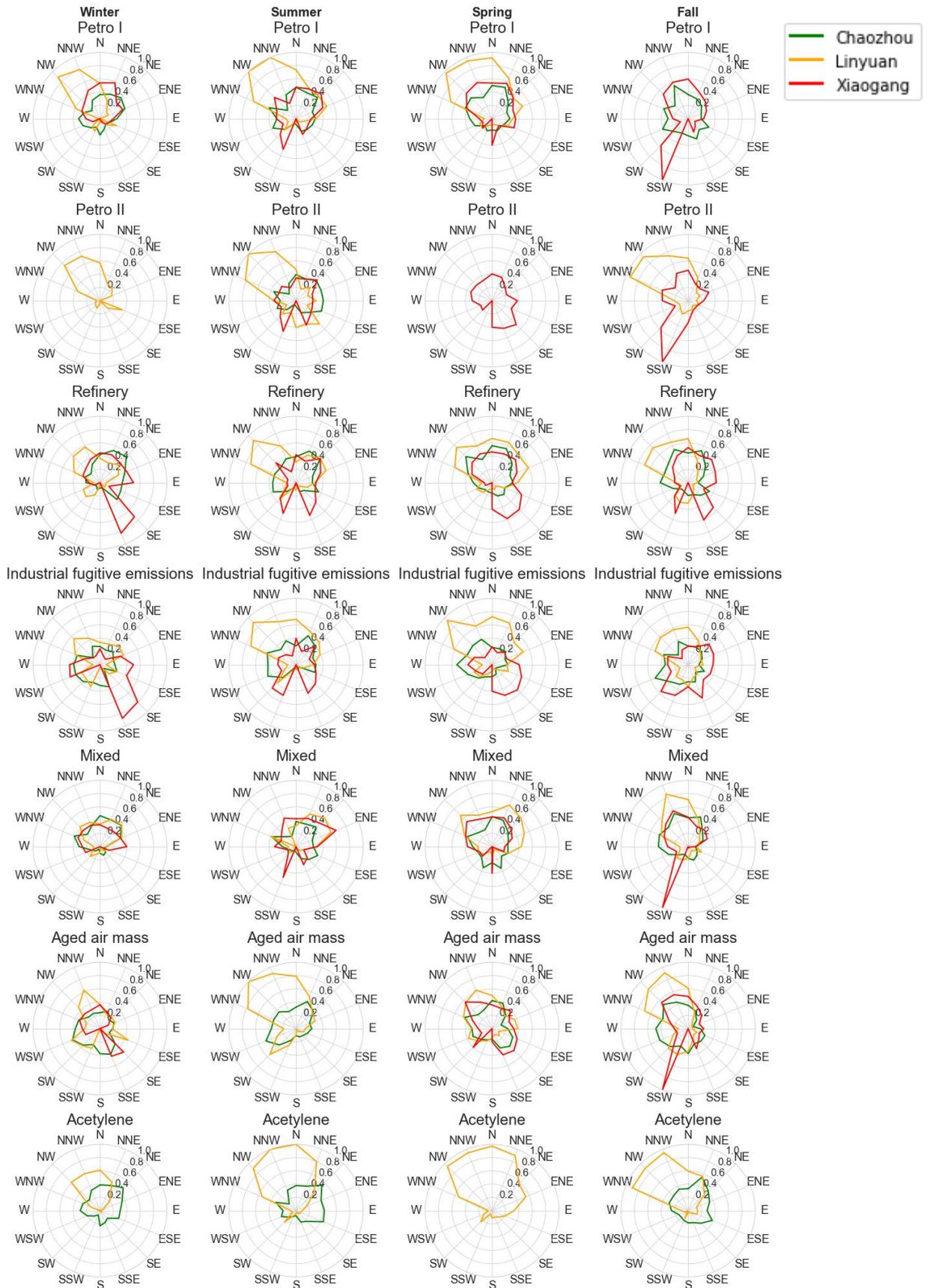
497 The aged air mass factor was characterized by a dominant presence of low-reactivity, long-lived
498 (NMHCs), including ethane, propane, acetylene, and benzene (Fig. 3). These compounds are
499 sufficiently stable to survive long-range atmospheric transport due to their relatively slow reaction rates
500 with hydroxyl (OH) radicals. The atmospheric chemical lifetimes of these VOCs range from several
501 days to months, allowing them to persist in the environment and become enriched over time (Atkinson
502 and Arey, 2003; Lau et al., 2010). Such compositional features suggest that the aged air mass is primarily
503 influenced by secondary and transported sources rather than recent local emissions. Ethane, in particular,
504 often dominates this factor due to its long atmospheric lifetime, and its strong presence aligns with
505 findings from previous studies (Chen et al., 2010; Li et al., 2015). Similarly, benzene and acetylene are
506 frequently observed in aged air masses, consistent with the findings of Wu et al. (2016), suggesting
507 regional transport rather than local fugitive emissions as their primary source.

508 The PMF-resolved time series of the aged air mass factor reveals distinct seasonal trends.
509 Contributions from aged air mass rise in late fall, peaking during winter, most notably at Xiaogang and
510 Linyuan (Fig. S5, the red and orange lines). This elevated influence persists into spring before gradually
511 declining, a pattern that closely mirrors the strengthening and subsequent weakening of the northern
512 monsoon. While Chaozhou is located further inland, its aged air mass time series remains comparable
513 to those at Xiaogang and Linyuan, though slightly lower in magnitude. This suggests that Chaozhou is
514 still significantly influenced by long-range transport and potentially nearby sources from the vicinity
515 areas. These spatial differences underscore the critical role of seasonal wind direction and site location
516 in shaping the transport and accumulation of aged air masses across the sites.

517 Analysis of CPF values further supports these findings, with generally higher values observed
518 from the NW to N wind sectors (Fig. 4), consistent with the prevailing northern monsoon during late
519 fall through spring. Xiaogang and Linyuan display pronounced CPF peaks in these directions,
520 reinforcing their susceptibility to long-range transport and downwind positioning during the monsoon.
521 This pattern aligns well with the elevated time series signals observed at these sites during winter and
522 early spring.

523 By contrast, Chaozhou exhibits lower CPF values and less direct influence from the northern
524 monsoon. Instead, the CPF values at Chaozhou are enhanced under western wind conditions, suggesting
525 that local factors, such as inland positioning and the influence of sea-land breeze circulation, modulate
526 its exposure to aged air mass transported from Xiaogang and Linyuan. Fig. S6 further supports this
527 observation as it shows the wind profile during day & night in alignment with the sea-land breeze pattern

528 at Kaohsiung. Taken together, these patterns highlight the interplay of regional transport, seasonal
529 meteorology, and site-specific geography in determining the concentration and source influence of aged
530 air masses across the study area. In summary, the six common factors—Petro I, Petro II, refinery,
531 industrial fugitive emissions, mixed, and aged air mass—represent the dominant anthropogenic and
532 transported NMHC sources across the Kaoping region.



533 Figure 4: CPF results viewing the direction for the highest 30% of factor contribution

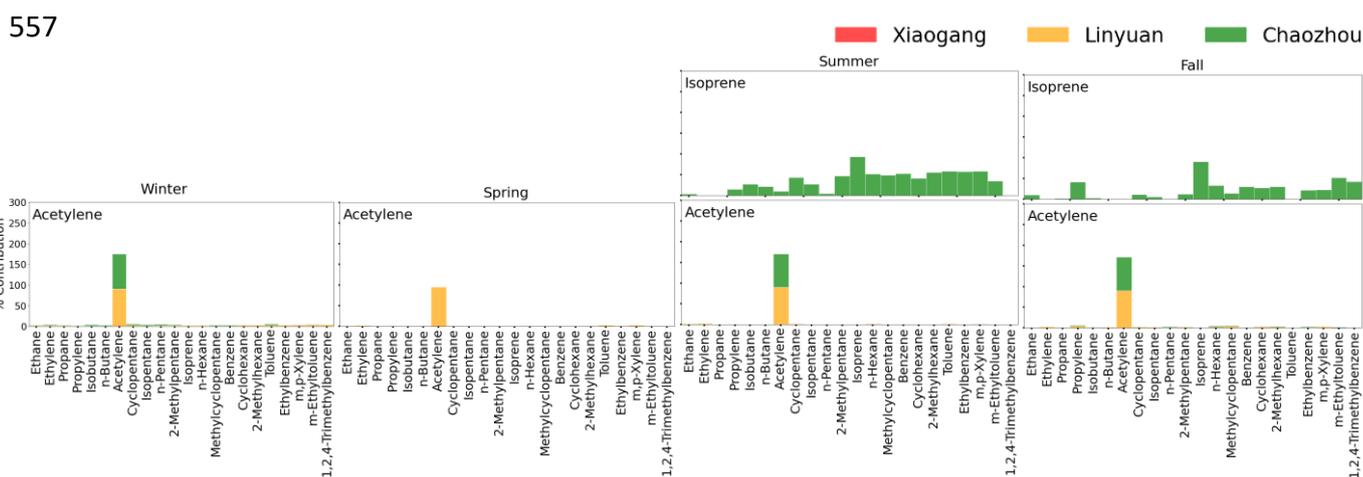
534 3.3.2 Distinct sources

535 a) Biogenic factor

536 The PMF results at Chaozhou identify a biogenic factor dominated by isoprene, with contributions
 537 present in both summer and fall (Fig.5). Temporal patterns (Fig. S7a,b) show that isoprene levels are
 538 substantially higher and more variable in summer, consistent with strong temperature and solar radiation
 539 dependence of biogenic isoprene emissions (Zeng et al., 2023; Vettikkat et al., 2023). These conditions
 540 are more intense and sustained during the summer months in southern Taiwan, and the surrounding
 541 agricultural landscape provides a plausible source. The pronounced late-morning to mid-afternoon peak
 542 (10:00–15:00) further supports a photosynthetically driven biogenic origin.

543 Notably, the biogenic factor profile also contains co-emitted VOCs, forming a mixed-species
 544 profile in which the isoprene signature is less distinct in summer but appears cleaner and more purely
 545 biogenic in fall. The observation is consistent with emerging evidence that urban isoprene budgets can
 546 include other non-biogenic sources (Peron et al., 2024), or traffic emissions (Chang et al., 2014; Hsieh
 547 et al., 2017). Residential biomass burning is another plausible contributor that can modify ambient
 548 mixtures during episodic events (Desservettaz et al., 2023). Given the agricultural setting at Chaozhou,
 549 biomass burning is likely a significant local source.

550 The CPF analysis (Fig. S7c) further supports a local and regionally distributed source profile, with
 551 increased conditional probabilities from the SSW and NW sectors during both seasons. These wind
 552 directions correspond with vegetated and agricultural areas surrounding the site, reinforcing the role of
 553 nearby land cover in influencing isoprene levels. However, the non-directional component and broader
 554 sector coverage also support additional inputs from anthropogenic sources, particularly traffic emissions
 555 and biomass burning. The seasonal and diurnal behaviors highlight the sensitivity of isoprene to
 556 environmental drivers and the complex nature of its mixed-source regions, such as Chaozhou.



559 **Figure 5: Distinct source profiles of NMHC at the three sites in 2024**

560 b) Acetylene factor

561 Acetylene (C₂H₂) is a highly flammable hydrocarbon gas and is mainly used as a fuel gas for oxy-
 562 acetylene welding, cutting, brazing, and soldering. On the other hand, the filling process for high-
 563 pressure cylinders is also prone to leaking. From the PMF results in Fig. 5, there is a resolved factor for

564 the single species of acetylene and no other accompanying species source at Linyuan and Chaozhou,
565 suggesting that acetylene is a pronounced local source, which is consistent with the prior knowledge of
566 the acetylene filling plant in the region.

567 PMF-resolved time series of the acetylene factor reveals a temporal pattern, with elevated
568 contributions during winter and fall, and generally lower levels in summer (Fig. S5). These variations
569 are likely driven by meteorological influences, such as enhanced atmospheric stability and reduced
570 boundary layer height in colder months, which favor the accumulation of locally emitted pollutants. In
571 contrast, stronger vertical mixing and photochemical degradation in summer likely contribute to the
572 overall reduction in acetylene levels during this period.

573 Complementary insights are provided by the CPF analysis, which highlights the directional
574 characteristics of acetylene sources. Seasonal CPF polar plots show that Linyuan (orange) consistently
575 exhibits strong directional signals, with the highest probabilities originating from the NW–NE across
576 all seasons. This directional consistency supports the presence of a persistent local source to the north
577 of the site—aligned with the known location of an acetylene filling plant in the region. The elevated CPF
578 values in these wind sectors reinforce the interpretation that the PMF-resolved acetylene factor reflects
579 a geographically localized emission source, with its observed variability driven more by meteorological
580 transport conditions than by changes in source activity. In contrast, no acetylene factor was resolved at
581 Xiaogang, and this absence is consistent with its prevailing wind patterns. Seasonal wind rose data show
582 that Xiaogang is predominantly influenced by W and NW winds (Fig. S8)—directions that do not align
583 with the position of the acetylene source near Linyuan, which lies to the southeast of Xiaogang. As a
584 result, the site remains largely unaffected by emissions from the filling facility.

585 Chaozhou is an agricultural area that leads to open-field biomass burning beginning in late summer
586 and extending to the rest of the year. Acetylene is an emission from incomplete combustion processes,
587 such as biomass burning (Burling et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2014), and therefore exhibits its strongest
588 summer spikes and weaker, intermittent fall and winter contributions (Fig. 2a, Fig. S1). This seasonal
589 pattern reflects intermittent but intensified combustion activities rather than continuous emissions.
590 Consequently, although PMF resolves an acetylene-rich factor at both Linyuan and Chaozhou, its
591 contribution at Chaozhou is much lower (Fig. S5). Unlike Linyuan—where a known nearby acetylene
592 filling plant provides a persistent local source—Chaozhou is influenced mainly by diffuse biomass
593 burning and other small-scale, variable combustion activities. The absence of a strong directional signal
594 in the CPF analysis for Chaozhou further supports the interpretation that acetylene in Chaozhou
595 originates from non-point or variable sources rather than a single dominant emitter.

596 3.4 PMF-Trigger back trajectory integration

597 It is noteworthy that an acetylene-related factor was clearly resolved in the PMF results, especially
598 for Linyuan but not for Xiaogang. This outcome aligns well with the raw PAMS observations, where
599 acetylene concentrations at Linyuan are markedly elevated, often exhibiting sharp spikes reaching
600 several hundred ppb (Fig. S1), especially in winter. In contrast, levels at Xiaogang remain consistently
601 low, rarely exceeding 20 ppb. The resolution of the acetylene factor at Linyuan can be attributed to the

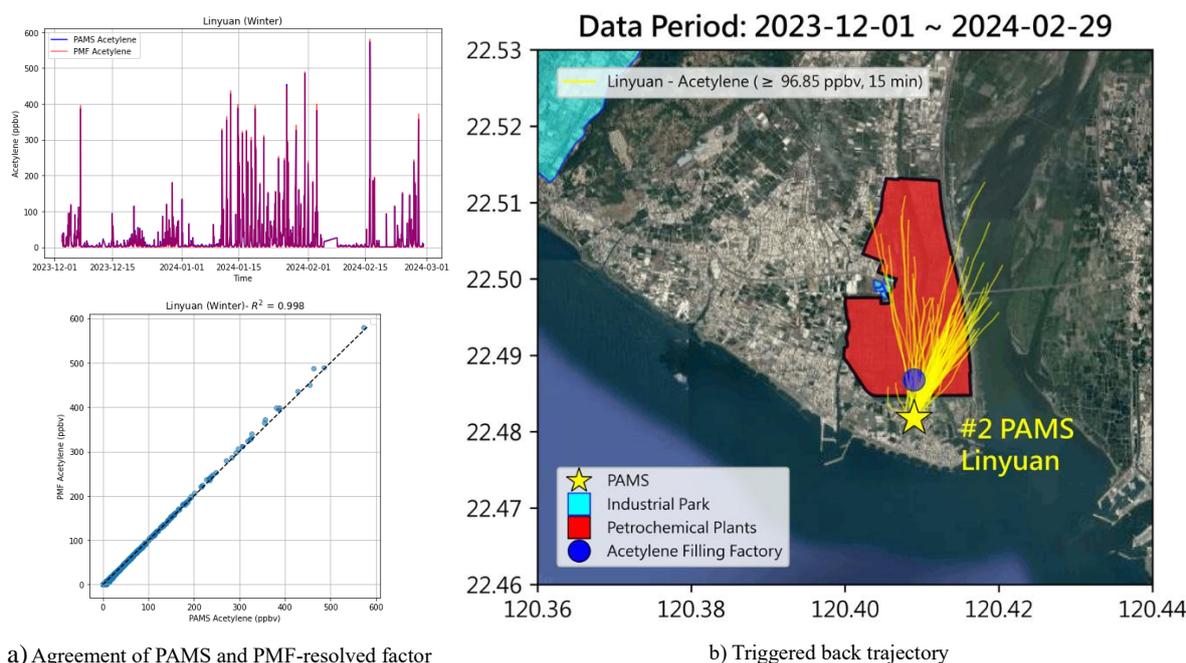
602 high signal-to-noise ratio in the PAMS data, where sharp and frequent concentration spikes provided a
603 clear signal for PMF to distinguish this source from others, resulting in a well-defined temporal profile
604 that closely matched the observed data. This supports the reliability of PMF in capturing source-specific
605 signatures when driven by strong observational input.

606 Beyond factor profiles and species contributions, the PMF-resolved acetylene factor at Linyuan
607 also resulted in a well-defined temporal profile that closely matched the observed data. Figure 6a
608 demonstrates this consent with a **coefficient of determination (R^2) exceeding 0.99**. This high level of
609 agreement underscores the ability of PMF to cleanly resolve the profile dominated by a single species,
610 acetylene, and to accurately reproduce the temporal variability of pollutant levels. While many PMF
611 studies focus primarily on profile interpretation, this study demonstrates that time series validation can
612 provide an additional, rigorous layer of confidence in the factor identification—highlighting the
613 robustness of the PAMS dataset and the reliability of the PMF analysis. As a result, acetylene serves as
614 an intrinsic reference species, providing an internal check on the PMF analysis.

615 Because the acetylene events at Linyuan are extremely distinct, a triggered back-trajectory
616 analysis was conducted to investigate their source locations. This analysis used observational data from
617 the monitoring station as input, under the assumption that the local wind field was representative of the
618 broader surrounding area. The model was configured to calculate air parcel trajectories 15 minutes
619 backward from the observation site. Geographic Information System (GIS) tools and Google Maps API
620 were used to spatially visualize the trajectories and identify potential emission hotspots through
621 trajectory receptor pattern overlay analysis. Setting an appropriate concentration threshold is critical for
622 isolating representative pollution events. If the threshold is too low, resulting trajectories may be overly
623 dispersed, making source identification difficult. Conversely, a threshold set too high may highlight
624 only extreme events, which may not represent typical source behavior. This analysis applied a threshold
625 of 96.85 ppb (95th quantile) to ensure that only significant acetylene events were considered.

626 The overlay of multiple high-concentration trajectories consistently pointed to an area near the
627 acetylene filling facility (Fig. 6). Although the backward trajectories do not align perfectly with the
628 suspected emission source, this deviation is likely due to the influence of complex coastal meteorology
629 that can affect low-level air parcel paths, especially under transitional wind conditions. Moreover, the
630 trajectory model may not fully capture local turbulence and terrain effects, contributing to the observed
631 offset. Despite this, the temporal patterns of peaked acetylene, combined with the site's position relative
632 to the dominant wind direction, support the likely influence of the identified source. These findings
633 demonstrate the value of high-resolution PAMS data in capturing pollutant events and reinforce the
634 consistency between observational measurements and PMF-based source apportionment. Finally, the
635 back-trajectory method, particularly when applied in a triggered mode during elevated events, offers
636 enhanced spatial resolution and source identification capabilities that complement and extend beyond
637 PMF results. **Further trajectories are also run for Chaozhou, which supports the hypothesis that the high
638 peak in August originates from local sources, indicating an intermittent episode peak from biomass
639 burning in such a highly agricultural landscape (Fig. S1). This interpretation is further strengthened by**

640 the trajectory analysis (Fig. S9), which shows locally originating and spatially scattered air mass
641 pathways around the monitoring site.



a) Agreement of PAMS and PMF-resolved factor

b) Triggered back trajectory

642 **Figure 6: The acetylene factor at Linyuan, (a) time series comparison and (b) Triggered back**
643 **trajectory analysis of spike levels. Base map from Google Maps (Map data ©2025 Google).**

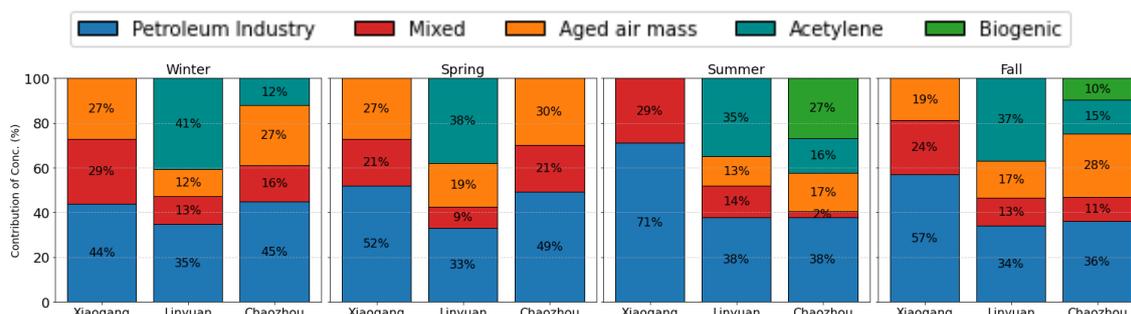
644 3.5 Quantitative estimates of source contributions.

645 The differences in source contribution across the three sites are not arbitrary but rather reflect the
646 distinct roles each monitoring station plays within the regional emission landscape. Linyuan functions as
647 a source site because it is home to major refinery and petrochemical facilities. Xiaogang, by contrast,
648 presents a mixed urban-industrial environment, while Chaozhou acts as a downwind receptor site in a
649 predominantly rural setting. Since many NMHC species originate from multiple source types, the
650 resolved factors were grouped into broader categories: petroleum industry (including petro I & II,
651 refinery, and industrial fugitive emissions), mixed, aged air mass, acetylene, and biogenic.

652 Figure 7 illustrates the seasonal contribution of these grouped sources. Interestingly, the petroleum-
653 related source contribution is most prominent (33-71%), especially at Xiaogang, despite Linyuan being
654 the location of core petrochemical activities. This apparent contradiction can be explained by local
655 meteorological conditions—particularly prevailing winds and sea-land breeze effects—which frequently
656 transport emissions from the surrounding industrial corridor toward Xiaogang. These wind-driven
657 dynamics create a receptor-source relationship, wherein Xiaogang accumulates both locally emitted and
658 regionally transported pollutants. In contrast, Linyuan shows a strong signal from the acetylene factor,
659 pointing to localized activities with distinct point-source characteristics. Meanwhile, Chaozhou's
660 elevated aged air mass contribution underscores its role as a downwind receptor site.

661 Aged air masses consistently influence all sites and seasons, with contributions ranging from 12%
662 to 30%. Chaozhou, in particular, exhibits higher contributions—up to 30% in spring and above 27% in
663 winter and fall, while summer shows the lowest levels. Its inland, rural settings with limited local

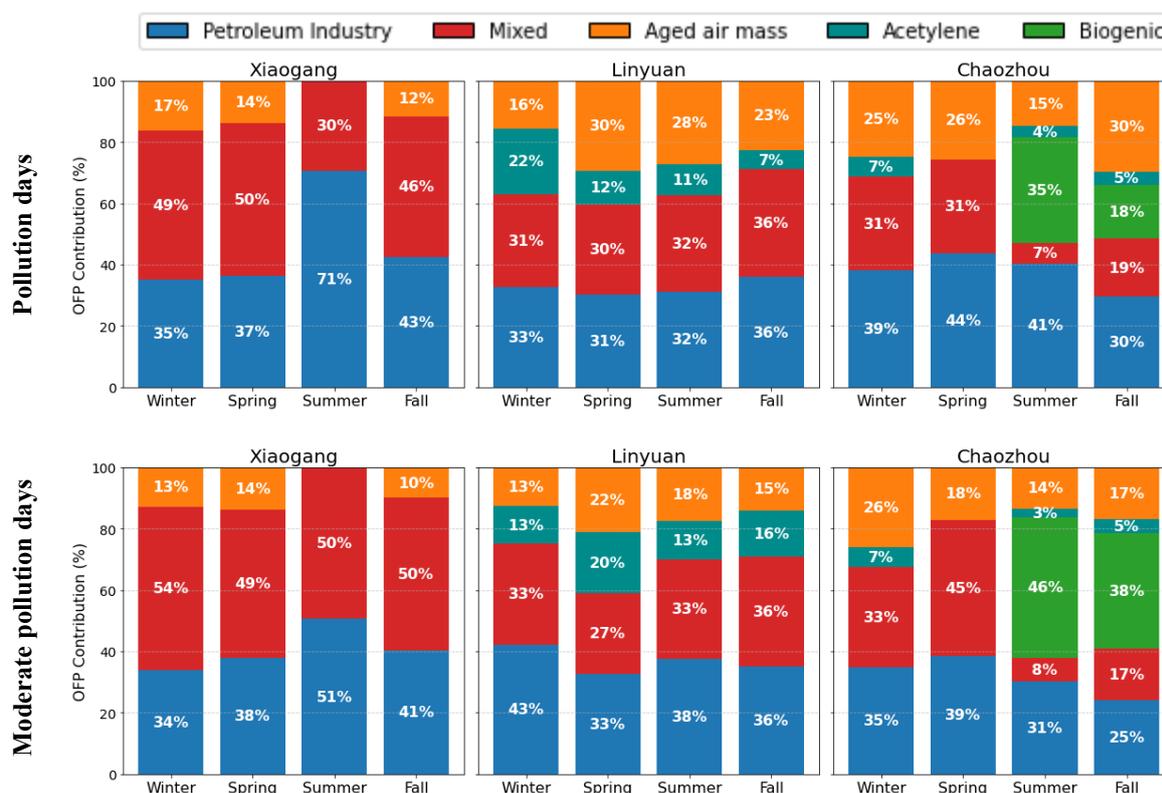
664 industrial activity suggest that the site primarily receives aged air masses transported from upwind
 665 regions. Supporting this interpretation, evidence from CPF analysis (Fig. 4 and Fig. S6) highlight the
 666 role of local recirculation driven by sea-land breeze, which enhances the aging of air masses near the site.
 667 Additionally, long-range transport under prevailing winter monsoon winds further reinforces the elevated
 668 aged air signal observed at Chaozhou. At the same time, Xiaogang emerged as the second contributor of
 669 aged air mass, with notable peaks in winter, spring, and fall. As a result, the three sites with their unique
 670 source-receptor characteristics produce very dynamic source apportionment results that vary in season
 671 and locations.



673
 674 **Figure 7: Seasonal contributions of grouped source factors at each site. Details of the eight resolved**
 675 **factors are provided in Fig. S10**

676 **3.6 OFP dynamics under varying ozone conditions**

677 Given that photochemical reactions predominantly occur during daylight hours, the OFP was
 678 calculated exclusively for daytime periods, defined using sunrise and sunset times, derived from
 679 astronomical data tailored to each station's geographic locations and observation dates. Seasonally
 680 averaged OFP values attributed to source factors were highest at Xiaogang ($113.20 \pm 23.60 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$),
 681 followed by Linyuan ($102.73 \pm 40.93 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$), and lowest at Chaozhou ($65.38 \pm 9.00 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$), as shown
 682 in Fig. S11. Spatially, the distribution of OFP contributions varied consistently with their previously
 683 identified roles. Notably, while petroleum-related sources exhibited the highest contributions in terms
 684 of concentration, they were not always the leading contributors to OFP. For example, at Xiaogang, the
 685 petroleum factor ranked second in OFP, overtaken by the mixed source factor (Fig. S11). This is
 686 primarily due to the presence of highly reactive species—such as aromatics—in the mixed source profile,
 687 which significantly elevates its OFP despite relatively lower concentrations. In Xiaogang, the mixed
 688 source was the dominant contributor to OFP during most seasons, with petroleum-related sources only
 689 surpassing it in summer. To further explore source contributions under varying ozone pollution
 690 conditions, the dataset was classified based on the maximum daily 8-hour average (MDA8) ozone
 691 concentrations: days with MDA8 larger than 60 ppb were designated as pollution (POL) days, and those
 692 with MDA8 between 40 and 60 ppb as moderate pollution (MOD) days. OFP was recalculated
 693 accordingly, and the percentage contributions of each source factor are presented in Figure 8. The
 694 comparison between POL and MOD days reveals notable shifts in source influence across the region.



695 **Figure 8: Corresponding daytime OFP during pollution and moderate pollution days of ozone**

696 Mixed and petroleum-related sources consistently contribute a substantial portion of OFP under
 697 both conditions. For example, mixed sources are the dominant contributor, particularly at urban-
 698 industrial sites such as Xiaogang, **underscoring their strong** role in ozone precursor formation even
 699 **during** less intense ozone conditions. Meanwhile, petroleum-related sources **showed an enhanced**
 700 contribution at Linyuan, **suggesting a** stronger association with moderate ozone levels. **Overall,** large-
 701 scale industrial and traffic-related emissions (petro-, mixed, and acetylene-related) provide a **highly**
 702 reactive precursor condition **conducive** to ozone formation **across** Xiaogang and Linyuan areas,
 703 consistent with their dense industrial landscape.

704 **Under moderate-ozone conditions, the mixed-source factor contributes the largest share of OFP.**
 705 **These episodes are frequently associated with lower wind speeds and reduced mixing heights (Aacog,**
 706 **2015), favoring the accumulation of locally emitted species from traffic, solvents, and smaller-scale**
 707 **industrial activities. The coexistence of these emissions provides a balanced supply of reactive aromatics**
 708 **and olefins, sustaining ozone production even in the absence of strong photochemical aging. This pattern**
 709 **reflects the VOC-limited photochemical environment prevalent in southern Taiwan, where ozone**
 710 **formation is more sensitive to reactive VOCs than to NO_x levels (Chang et al., 2022), emphasizing that**
 711 **moderate-ozone episodes are primarily governed by local accumulation and NMHC composition.**
 712 **However, the mixed-source factor reflects overlapping characteristics of vehicular and solvent-related**
 713 **species. This incomplete separation introduces some uncertainty in source-specific attribution of OFP.**
 714 **Nevertheless, this overlap mirrors the reality of urban environments.**

715 Meanwhile, the aged air mass factor exerted a notable influence on ozone pollution days,
 716 **especially at** downwind sites **such as** Linyuan and Chaozhou. This **highlights** the role of regional

717 transport and atmospheric aging in shaping local ozone levels. The elevated OFP from aged air mass
718 **during pollution events** suggests that some reactive NMHCs **are** transported from upwind areas after
719 undergoing photochemical processing **rather than** emitted locally. Importantly, aged air masses may also
720 carry ozone itself, effectively **elevating** the background ozone concentration and providing a higher
721 baseline upon which local photochemical production builds (Nguyen et al., 2025). This dual role—
722 delivering both precursors and ozone—can intensify pollution episodes.

723 At Chaozhou, biogenic emissions made a significant contribution to the OFP, particularly during
724 the summer and fall seasons. This **reflects** the release of isoprene from **surrounding** agriculture and
725 vegetation landscape, **which can react** rapidly **with** transported NO_x **to form ozone**. The biogenic
726 **influence** was **especially** evident during moderate ozone days, suggesting that **these** episodes **are** more
727 sensitive to the combined effects of natural emissions, transported NO_x, and local atmospheric
728 chemistry. This underscores the importance of considering seasonal and spatial dynamics in emission
729 control strategies—**especially** in areas like Xiaogang and Linyuan, where anthropogenic and biogenic
730 sources interact synergistically to elevate ozone levels.

731 Regarding chemical speciation, the dominant OFP contributors across all sites and seasons were
732 aromatics, alkanes, and alkenes, **owing** to their high photochemical reactivity. Aromatics—particularly
733 toluene and m,p-xylene (Fig. S12)—accounted for 32–61% of the OFP during moderate pollution days,
734 with the highest contributions observed at Xiaogang. Alkanes, primarily ethane, contributed 20–35%,
735 with similar levels at Xiaogang and Linyuan, and slightly higher at Chaozhou during **polluted periods**.
736 Alkenes, especially propylene, contributed 15–24%, **peaking** at Xiaogang during pollution days and at
737 Linyuan during moderate **ozone conditions**. Additional contributions were observed from ethyne—
738 notably at Linyuan—and from isoprene at Chaozhou, where they played a more prominent role **under**
739 moderate **ozone conditions**. Although acetylene **has a** relatively low MIR **value**, **its large emission**
740 **volume**—primarily from the filling plant—still led to significant OPF **contribution** downwind.

741 The persistence of higher OFP contributions during moderate ozone days indicates that precursor
742 control should not be limited to pollution events alone. Effective ozone management, **therefore**, requires
743 a multi-faceted approach that **integrates** anthropogenic and biogenic sources, seasonal variability, and
744 transportation influences to design more adaptive, location-specific mitigation policies.

745 **4. Conclusion**

746 This study provides a comprehensive analysis of NMHC concentrations and their sources across
747 three distinct sites in southern Taiwan: Linyuan, Xiaogang, and Chaozhou. The findings revealed
748 significant spatial heterogeneity in NMHC concentrations and source profiles, reflecting the diverse
749 land use and industrial activities across the region. Linyuan, a dense industrial landscape, exhibited the
750 highest average NMHC concentrations, followed by the mixed urban-industrial environment of
751 Xiaogang, with the lowest levels observed at the predominantly agricultural site of Chaozhou. PMF
752 analysis identified eight distinct source factors contributing to NMHCs at the three sites: petrochemical
753 I & II, refinery, **industrial fugitive emissions**, mixed (vehicular/solvent), aged air mass, acetylene, and
754 biogenic.

755 The strength of this study lies in the use of PMF-resolved time series output, allowing for the
756 identification of concentration spikes indicative of episodic emission events. **The acetylene factor, in**
757 **particular, showed excellent agreement** with PAMS **observations** (R^2 over 0.99), which triggered
758 targeted back-trajectory analyses. These consistently traced emissions to a nearby acetylene filling
759 facility north of the Linyuan industrial area. The integration of PMF-resolved time series data with
760 trajectory modeling reinforces the credibility of the source apportionment results and underscores the
761 high quality and temporal resolution of the observational data. It enabled a more precise attribution of
762 pollution sources and facilitated the isolation and examination of individual pollution events.

763 In addition, this study explored the dynamics of OFP. They were calculated specifically for
764 daytime periods—when photochemical activity is most pronounced. Seasonally averaged OFP was
765 highest at Xiaogang ($113.20 \pm 23.60 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$), followed by Linyuan ($102.73 \pm 40.93 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$), and lowest
766 at the downwind rural site Chaozhou ($65.38 \pm 9.00 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$). **Although** petroleum-related sources
767 contributed the **largest fraction** of NMHC concentrations, the mixed source factor—**enriched in** highly
768 reactive species such as aromatics **and olefins**—often **dominates the** OFP, particularly at Xiaogang.
769 **Under moderate-ozone conditions (MDA8 40–60 ppb), the factor became the principal driver of ozone**
770 **formation, consistent with local accumulation under stagnant meteorological conditions and limited**
771 **vertical mixing. The coexistence of both reactive aromatics and olefins within this factor sustained**
772 **ozone production despite weak photochemical aging, reflecting a VOC-limited regime typical of**
773 **southern Taiwan.** Across ozone pollution levels, petroleum and mixed sources remained dominant, but
774 their relative influence **varied with site characteristics.** Mixed sources exerted stronger effects during
775 moderate-ozone episodes at urban–industrial locations, whereas petroleum-related sources dominated
776 in Linyuan under similar conditions. **These results suggest that frequent, moderate-ozone episodes are**
777 **primarily driven by locally accumulated reactive NMHCs.** This pattern may also reflect the early
778 impacts of emission control measures, which are more effective under high-pollution conditions but less
779 so during moderate episodes. Given their higher occurrence, moderate pollution episodes still offer
780 valuable insights **into the interplay between local accumulation, VOC reactivity, and emission**
781 **composition that governs ozone formation in the region.**

782 **Overall,** this study demonstrates **the strength of** a refined source apportionment approach using
783 multi-site, year-round, high-frequency NMHC measurements, each **reflecting** distinct source–receptor
784 **dynamics.** The **findings offer** a more comprehensive spatiotemporal understanding **of ozone formation**
785 **mechanisms and provide a scientific basis for coordinated control of mobile, solvent-related, and**
786 **petroleum-associated emissions across southern Taiwan.**

787 **Data availability:** All raw data can be provided by the corresponding authors upon request.

788 **Author contributions:** JLW and CHW formed the conceptualization; HCH developed the model code
789 and performed the modeling; DHN and HCH analyzed the data; DHN wrote the original draft; JLW,
790 NHL, CHW, MCL, and DHN reviewed and edited the manuscript.

791 **Competing interests:** The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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