

1 **Original Article**

2 **Organic and Elemental Carbons Characteristics in PM_{2.5} across Diverse**
3 **Landscapes**

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14
15 **Abstract**

16 Air pollution, particularly in urban and industrial areas, is affecting human
17 health. Dust particles in the air are mostly composed of carbon particles, including
18 organic carbon (OC), and elemental carbon (EC). In this study, carbon compositions of
19 PM_{2.5} in different of land use surrounded Bangkok Metropolitan Region (BMR) area
20 were evaluated. A sampling was carried out during its episode using the gravimetric
21 method. They were analyzed for the organic and elemental carbon composition using
22 the thermal optical analysis following the U.S. EPA IMPROVE-A method. Results
23 found that organic carbon had the highest value in all sample areas. the OC/EC ratio in

24 PM_{2.5} ranged from 3.20 to 3.38. It can be concluded that the main sources of PM_{2.5} are
25 emissions from gasoline and LPG exhaust, which come from vehicle and industrial
26 combustion. Moreover, this study can provide supporting information for effective
27 management and control of air pollution in urban areas.

28

29 **Keywords:** Organic carbon, Elemental carbon, Fine particulate matter, Pollution,
30 Urban.

31

32 **1. Introduction**

33 In recent years, air pollution has emerged as a significant concern and a
34 prominent area of focus in atmospheric science research. According to the World Health
35 Organization (WHO), a staggering 90% of the global population inhales highly polluted
36 air, contributing to an alarming annual toll of 7 million deaths attributable to both
37 outdoor and indoor air pollution. Particulate matter (PM), particularly PM_{2.5} with an
38 aerodynamic diameter less than 2.5 µm, stands out as a key pollutant in air quality
39 studies. The diminutive size of PM_{2.5} facilitates deep penetration into the human
40 respiratory system, leading to adverse health effects upon prolonged exposure (Adães &
41 Pires, 2019). Exposure to PM_{2.5} poses both short-term and long-term health risks. Short-
42 term effects include irritation of the eyes, nose, throat, and lungs, accompanied by
43 symptoms such as coughing, sneezing, runny nose, and shortness of breath.
44 Furthermore, premature mortality can result from such exposure. Long-term
45 consequences encompass adverse impacts on lung function and the exacerbation of
46 medical conditions like asthma and heart disease (Department of Health, 2018).

47 Presently, Thailand is grappling with PM_{2.5} challenges in both urban and rural
48 areas, particularly during the dry season spanning from November to February. The
49 assessment of PM_{2.5} pollution levels in Bangkok relies on measurements obtained
50 through the ambient air quality monitoring system conducted by the Thai Pollution
51 Control Department. Additional data is sourced from the air quality monitoring network
52 administered by the Bangkok Metropolitan Administration (BMA). These measured
53 PM_{2.5} concentrations are juxtaposed with the national 24-hour average standard set at 15
54 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (World Health Organization [WHO], 2021). Effectively managing and
55 controlling PM_{2.5} pollution necessitates access to technical and scientific data
56 concerning its characteristics, composition, and related factors. Such information plays
57 a crucial role in facilitating the planning and implementation of strategies to mitigate
58 potential emission sources in a manner that is both effective and suitable.

59 Carbon represents a key constituent of atmospheric PM_{2.5}, predominantly
60 manifesting as organic carbon and elemental carbon. Elemental carbon in the
61 atmosphere is emitted directly from primary anthropogenic sources, whereas organic
62 carbon can be directly emitted from primary sources and undergo secondary formations
63 within the atmospheric environment. The formation of secondary particulate matter
64 occurs through atmospheric chemical reactions that involve high vapor pressure
65 organics, ambient temperature, and sunlight in the atmosphere (Watson *et al.*, 1997).
66 Utilizing the ratio between organic carbon (OC) and elemental carbon (EC) serves as a
67 valuable tool in comprehending the transformation dynamics of pollutant emissions and
68 carbonaceous particles. Research has demonstrated that an analysis of the correlation
69 between OC and EC enables the identification of the source of carbonaceous aerosol. A
70 robust correlation between OC and EC suggests similarities in pollution sources.

71 Consequently, this correlation can be effectively employed to qualitatively analyze the
72 sources of carbon aerosol (Wang, Yu, Yang, & Fang, 2019).

73 The measurement of elemental carbon (EC) associated with atmospheric soot
74 employs the technique known as Thermal-Optical Analysis (TOA). In TOA, variations
75 in the optical properties of carbon within particulate matter (PM) are monitored to
76 discern the thermal separation of carbon, specifically EC, from organic carbon (OC)
77 within the sample (Joseph, 2008).

78 This research focused on measuring ambient PM_{2.5} across various land uses
79 surrounding the BMR area. High-volume air samplers were employed to collect
80 samples on quartz filters. Subsequently, thermal-optical analysis was conducted to
81 quantify the levels of organic and elemental carbon within the samples. The findings
82 suggest that PM_{2.5} primarily originates from organic carbon, resulting from the
83 aggregation or transformation of gases. Additionally, carbon elements are formed
84 through the combustion of fuels, as inferred from the results.

85 While there has been significant research on the chemical compositions and
86 sources of PM_{2.5} in Thailand, there remains a scarcity of studies focusing on the
87 characteristics of organic carbon (OC) and elemental carbon (EC) in PM_{2.5}, particularly
88 in distinct landscape types such as residential and industrial areas. The objectives of this
89 study were to assess the concentrations of organic and elemental carbons in PM_{2.5} across
90 varied landscapes and to gauge the potential contributions of primary and secondary
91 PM_{2.5} sources through an analysis of the EC/OC ratio. This study entails thorough
92 measurements of PM_{2.5} within the encompassing BMR area, spanning various land use
93 categories. The collected samples are subjected to analysis to determine the fractions of
94 organic carbon (OC) and elemental carbon (EC) in PM_{2.5}. The outcomes of this research

95 are expected to contribute valuable insights into discerning potential emission sources
96 of PM_{2.5} across different land uses, facilitating more effective management of air
97 pollution.

98

99 **2. Materials and Methods**

100 **2.1 Sampling site description**

101 The study focuses on various land uses surrounding the BMR area,
102 encompassing Nakhonpathom, Nonthaburi, and Samutsakorn, as illustrated in Figure 1.
103 The geographical details of the sampling sites are outlined in Table 1. The selection of
104 sampling sites deliberately represents two distinct land use categories: industrial areas
105 and general or residential areas. This study adheres to the criteria outlined in the Acid
106 Deposition Monitoring Network in East Asia report from 2000 for categorizing the
107 study area based on land use types. The classification considers areas at both the onsite
108 scale (within a 150-meter radius from the sampling point) and the local scale (within a
109 10-kilometer radius from the sampling point) (Acid Deposition Monitoring Network in
110 East Asia [EANAT], 2000). For the Lapawan9 village (LPW 9) site, it is designated as a
111 general area due to the onsite scale having a volume of vehicles passing through the site
112 less than or equal to 1,000 vehicles per day, with a corresponding local scale volume of
113 vehicles also less than or equal to 50,000 vehicles per day. Conversely, the Rai Khing
114 Child Center (RKCC) site and Thepnorarat (TNSC) site are classified as industrial areas
115 because of the presence of industrial factories surrounding the sampling sites on the
116 local scale. Specifically, the RKCC site hosts various manufacturers engaged in the
117 production of plastic packaging, glue starch with tapioca starch, warehouses, electrical
118 transformers, general welding, freezing plants, as well as butchery and slaughterhouses.

119 Similarly, the Thepnorarat (TNSC) site is surrounded by freezing plants, stainless steel
120 product facilities, plastic utensil manufacturing, wooden utensils and furniture
121 production, as well as the production of frozen ready meals from meat and aquatic
122 animals. PM_{2.5} levels at the sampling sites were assessed using the gravimetric method.
123 Quartz filters were meticulously weighed before and after sample collection, utilizing a
124 microbalance with an accuracy of 0.1 µg at the Automobile Emission Laboratory of the
125 Pollution Control Department. The collection period for PM_{2.5} samples spanned 24
126 hours each day over 15 consecutive days at each sampling site, taking place from
127 December 14, 2020, to February 19, 2021.

128 **2.2 Sample analysis**

129 Following the determination of mass concentration, samples underwent thermal-
130 optical analysis to quantify the composition of organic and elemental carbon in PM_{2.5}.
131 The analysis was conducted at the Environmental Science Research Centre, Chiang Mai
132 University, adhering to the IMPROVE_A protocol for OC EC measurement. This
133 method involves the thermal volatilization of carbonaceous material loaded onto a
134 quartz fiber filter, which is heated in a quartz tube sample oven. The oven temperature
135 undergoes a gradual increase in a pure helium atmosphere through four steps: 140 °C,
136 280 °C, 480 °C, and 580 °C. Subsequently, an oxidative atmosphere containing 98%
137 helium and 2% oxygen is applied during three temperature steps: 580 °C, 740 °C, and
138 840 °C, following the protocol (Chow *et al.*, 2007). The devolatilized carbon extracted
139 from the sample punch undergoes oxidation to CO₂, facilitated by MnO₂, within a
140 primary catalyst oven at a temperature of 915 °C. Subsequently, in a secondary catalyst
141 oven, the CO₂ is reduced to methane with hydrogen, employing a nickel catalyst (Fung,
142 Chow, & Watson, 2004). The carbon liberated from the sample is continuously

143 measured as a methane equivalent via a flame ionization detector (FID). Concurrently,
144 the sample's darkness is monitored for pyrolysis correction, utilizing a 632.8 nm He-Ne
145 laser and a photodetector.

146 In the initial stage of the thermal-optical analysis, the temperature is incrementally
147 raised within the range of 550 °C to 870 °C in a pure helium atmosphere. This elevation
148 induces the volatilization of thermally unstable organic carbon (OC), allowing for its
149 measurement, even though some OC may undergo pyrolysis at these temperatures.
150 Conversely, elemental carbon (EC) remains firmly bound to the filter, as it solely
151 volatilizes through sublimation at temperatures approximately 650 °C (Peterson &
152 Richards, 2002) in the absence of oxidants or reactions. Throughout this phase,
153 alterations in the transmittance/reflectance of the samples are continuously monitored
154 using a He-Ne laser. As the pure helium phase progresses, the pyrolysis of OC results in
155 the formation of char, which constitutes EC and absorbs light, thereby causing a
156 reduction in transmittance/reflectance values from their baseline. In the subsequent
157 phase of the analysis, occurring in a 2% O₂ in He atmosphere, the introduced oxygen
158 oxidizes both the pyrolytically formed char and the inherent EC content of the sample.
159 This process releases them from the filter, enabling their quantification. Consequently,
160 the filter's transmittance/reflectance values experience an increase in this phase. Upon
161 the laser signal returning to its baseline value, the instrument automatically designates
162 this point as the "split point," crucial for correcting the char produced during the initial
163 phase of analysis. The elemental carbon (EC) detected from the beginning of the He/O₂
164 phase up to the "split point" is considered pyrolytic and is added to the overall organic
165 carbon (OC) amount. Meanwhile, the EC detected after the "split point" is recognized as
166 the native EC content of the sample, following the approach (Bautista *et al.*, 2015). To

167 contextualize the temperature steps and durations employed in this study using the
168 IMPROVE_A method, a comparison with other methods (NIOSH and EUSAAR_2) is
169 presented in Table 2. The calculation of OC and EC involves summing the quantities
170 obtained at different combustion temperatures. OC is defined as
171 $OC_1+OC_2+OC_3+OC_4+OP$, while EC is defined as $EC_1+EC_2+EC_3-OP$.

172 **3. Results and Discussion**

173 **3.1 OC and EC Analysis**

174 The analytical findings regarding the organic carbon (OC) and elemental carbon
175 (EC) contents in $PM_{2.5}$ samples, gathered at the Lapawan9 village (LPW 9), Rai Khing
176 Child Center (RKCC), and Thepnorarat (TNSC) sampling sites, are illustrated in Figure
177 2 and detailed in Table 3.

178 The measured results revealed that OC3 made the highest contribution among all
179 the collected samples. OC3 primarily originated from exhaust emissions of gasoline and
180 liquefied petroleum gas (LPG) dust, followed by OC2 and OC4. OC4 consisted of OC3,
181 while OC2 was emitted from the combustion of fuel oil and coal. Consistently, Organic
182 Carbon 3 (OC3) emerges as the predominant carbon fraction in all studied areas, with
183 the most significant contribution observed in the general area (LPW 9) at 36%. This
184 finding implies a substantial influence of sources related to engine combustion, likely
185 stemming from vehicular emissions and industrial machinery. Varied Contributions of
186 OC2: The contribution of Organic Carbon 2 (OC2) fluctuates among areas, with its
187 highest percentage (25%) identified in the RKCC industrial zone. This variability
188 indicates a notable impact of fuel oil and coal combustion in industrial settings,
189 potentially associated with specific industrial processes. Industrial Influence on OC3
190 and OC4: In both industrial areas (RKCC and TNSC), the percentages of OC3 and OC4

191 surpass those in the general area (LPW 9). This underscores the influence of industrial
192 activities on particulate matter composition, suggesting contributions from combustion
193 processes within factories. Limited Presence of EC3: Elemental Carbon 3 (EC3) is
194 conspicuously scarce across all areas, with minimal or zero percentages. This scarcity
195 could be attributed to the research method employed, which might have affected the
196 detection of certain carbon fractions, especially at high temperatures.

197 **3.2 Average OC and EC and its OC/EC Ratio**

198 The mean concentrations of Organic Carbon (OC) and Elemental Carbon (EC)
199 recorded at each sampling site are depicted in Figure 3. The analytical findings revealed
200 that the average OC levels measured at LPV9 (a), RKCC (b), and TNSC (c) were 21.66
201 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, 19.64 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, and 29.22 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, respectively. The highest OC concentration,
202 reaching 39.291 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, was observed at the industrial site (TNSC). The measured OC
203 concentrations at LPV9 (general area) and RKCC (industrial area) exhibited notable
204 similarity. In terms of total EC concentrations, RKSC recorded the lowest value,
205 followed by LPV9 and TNSC, respectively.

206 Figure 3 displays the mean concentrations of Organic Carbon (OC) and Elemental
207 Carbon (EC) at each sampling site. According to the analytical results, the average OC
208 levels recorded at LPV9 (a), RKCC (b), and TNSC (c) are 21.66 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, 19.64 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$,
209 and 29.22 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, respectively. The highest OC concentration, reaching 39.291 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$,
210 was observed at the industrial site (TNSC). Notably, measured OC concentrations at
211 LPV9 (general area) and RKCC (industrial area) exhibited considerable similarity. In
212 terms of total EC concentrations, the lowest value was recorded at RKSC, followed by
213 the concentrations measured at LPV9 and TNSC, respectively.

214 Figure 4 illustrates the ratio of primary and secondary particulate origins from
215 organic carbon (OC), while elemental carbon (EC) is categorized as primary particulate.
216 The results indicated that at the LPW9 sampling point, the carbon fraction of primary
217 particulate was $6.80 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, and the carbon fraction of secondary particulate was 23.32
218 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. Evaluating the OC/EC ratio $[(\text{OC1}+\text{OC2}+\text{OC3}+\text{OC4}+\text{OP})/(\text{EC1}+\text{EC2}+\text{EC3}-$
219 $\text{OP}) = 23.32/6.80$ or 3.43], it is deduced that approximately 77.53% of the $\text{PM}_{2.5}$
220 measured at this general area originated from secondary particulate sources (Chow *et*
221 *al.*, 2007). Applying the same methodology, the contribution of secondary particulate in
222 $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ measured at the industrial area was approximately 76.38% (at RKCC) and about
223 77.31% (at TNRS), respectively.

224 The measured OC/EC ratio in this study ranged from 3.23 to 3.45. Comparison
225 with Table 4 suggests that the primary source of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ in both general and industrial
226 areas is likely the exhaust emissions from gasoline and liquefied petroleum gas (LPG)
227 used as fuel in vehicles and industrial combustion (Table 4). These findings align with
228 similar studies conducted in major cities in China, Hong Kong, and Taiwan (Cao *et al.*,
229 2005; Lin & Tai, 2001). Notably, in Taiwan, measurements in the general area indicated
230 an OC/EC ratio of about 7.0, pointing to biomass burning as the dominant contributor to
231 $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentrations (Meng *et al.*, 2007) (Table 5). The carbon fractions identified in
232 this study indicated the highest percentage contribution from OC3, followed by OC2,
233 OC4, EC1, OC1, and EC2, respectively. OC1 was predominant in samples associated
234 with biomass burning, while OC3 and OC4 were relatively abundant in road dust
235 profiles (Chow *et al.*, 2004). OC2 was abundant in samples related to coal combustion,
236 and EC1 was enriched in motor-vehicle exhaust samples (Cao *et al.*, 2005).

237 Additionally, EC2 and EC3 were carbon fractions associated with coal combustion and
238 motor-vehicle exhaust, respectively (Yu, Xu, & Yang, 2002).

239 The general area in Thailand (LPW9) displays elevated Total Carbon (TC),
240 Organic Carbon (OC), and Elemental Carbon (EC) concentrations compared to
241 analogous general areas in China, Hong Kong, Shenzhen, and Taiwan. In contrast,
242 industrial areas in Thailand (RKCC and TNRS) exhibit comparable TC and OC levels
243 to general areas in other regions, but with notably higher EC concentrations, suggesting
244 a discernible impact of industrial emissions. The OC/EC ratio demonstrates variability
245 across locations, with industrial areas generally exhibiting higher ratios than general
246 areas. Taiyuan, China, stands out with markedly higher TC and OC levels, indicative of
247 potentially intensive industrial activities and emissions. These cross-regional
248 comparisons underscore the regional diversity in particulate matter composition,
249 influenced by local sources, industrial activities, and variations in measurement
250 methodologies.

251 In their 2013 study, Duangkaew et al. identified potential sources of OC1–OC4 and
252 EC1–EC3, as outlined in Table 6 (Duangkaew, Limpaseni, & Suwattiga, 2013). The
253 investigation delved into the sources of PM_{2.5}, with details presented in Table 7 based
254 on the derived source profiles. It is important to highlight that multiple methodologies
255 exist for assessing aerosol source profiles. For instance, the measurement of radiocarbon
256 (¹⁴C) in carbonaceous aerosols offers independent and quantitative insights into the
257 contributions of biomass burning and fossil fuels to regional emission budgets. This
258 approach complements data from satellite remote sensing and in situ field
259 measurements (Wiggins *et al.*, 2018).

260 **4. Conclusions**

261 This study concentrated on examining the source contributions of ambient PM_{2.5} in
262 both general and industrial areas surrounding the Bangkok Metropolitan Region (BMR).
263 The findings revealed a hierarchical order of major emission sources influencing total
264 PM_{2.5} concentrations, with gasoline and LPG exhaust being the predominant
265 contributors, followed by fuel oil and coal combustion, biomass burning, and diesel
266 exhaust.

267 Our results highlight the prevalence of secondary particulate matter, with organic
268 carbon exhibiting a secondary origin and elemental carbon emanating primarily from
269 direct emissions. This observation aligns with the visible presence of fine particulate
270 matter resembling black soot, commonly associated with primary emissions from diesel
271 vehicles. In contrast, gasoline and LPG vehicles were identified as sources of volatile
272 organic compounds, which undergo chemical transformations, transitioning from a
273 gaseous to a fine particulate phase.

274 Furthermore, our investigation underscored that the contribution of organic carbon
275 (OC) to PM_{2.5} in Bangkok and its vicinity predominantly originated from gasoline and
276 LPG exhausts. As a result, targeted control measures should not only address primary
277 emission sources but also consider other sources potentially emitting precursors of
278 secondary PM_{2.5} formation. This study emphasizes the critical importance of
279 understanding pollutant source contributions specific to each area before formulating
280 strategies to mitigate their concentrations. To facilitate effective PM_{2.5} pollution
281 management, the development of an emission inventory for the target PM_{2.5} in the
282 concerned area is crucial, aiding in the identification and elaboration of emission
283 sources.

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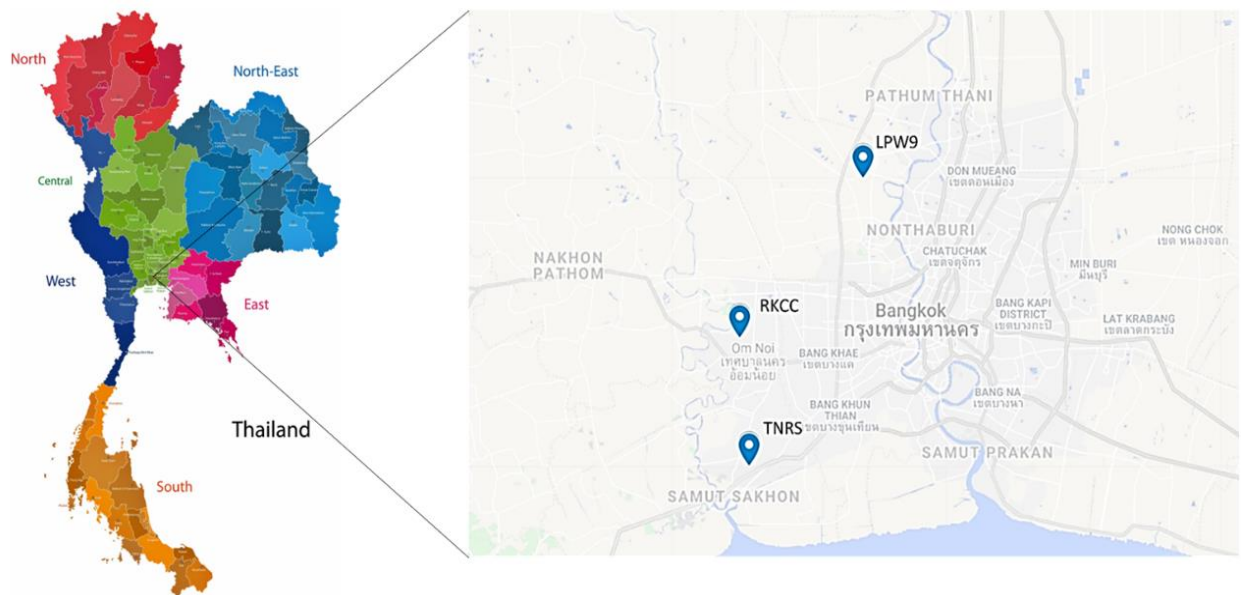
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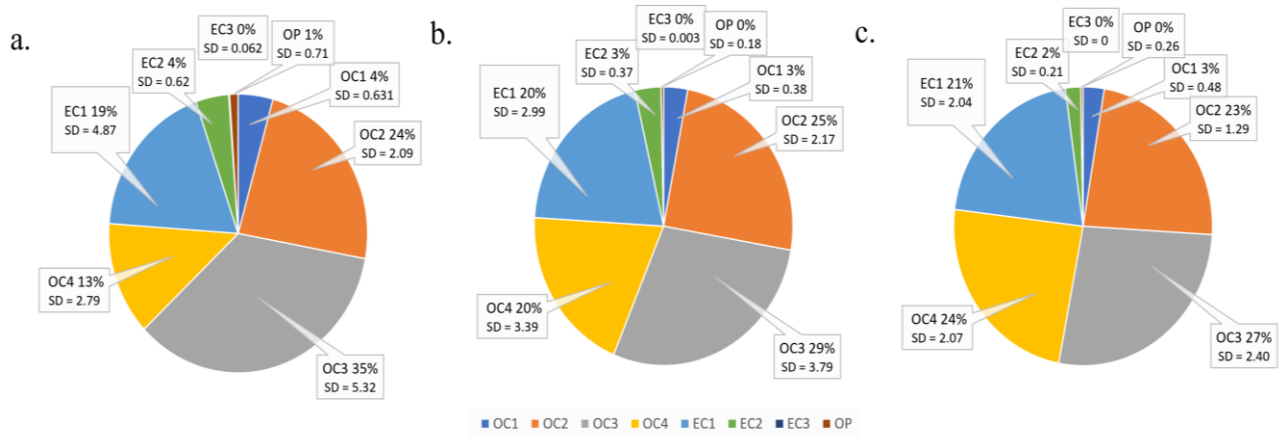
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386

Figure 1 Location of sampling sites.

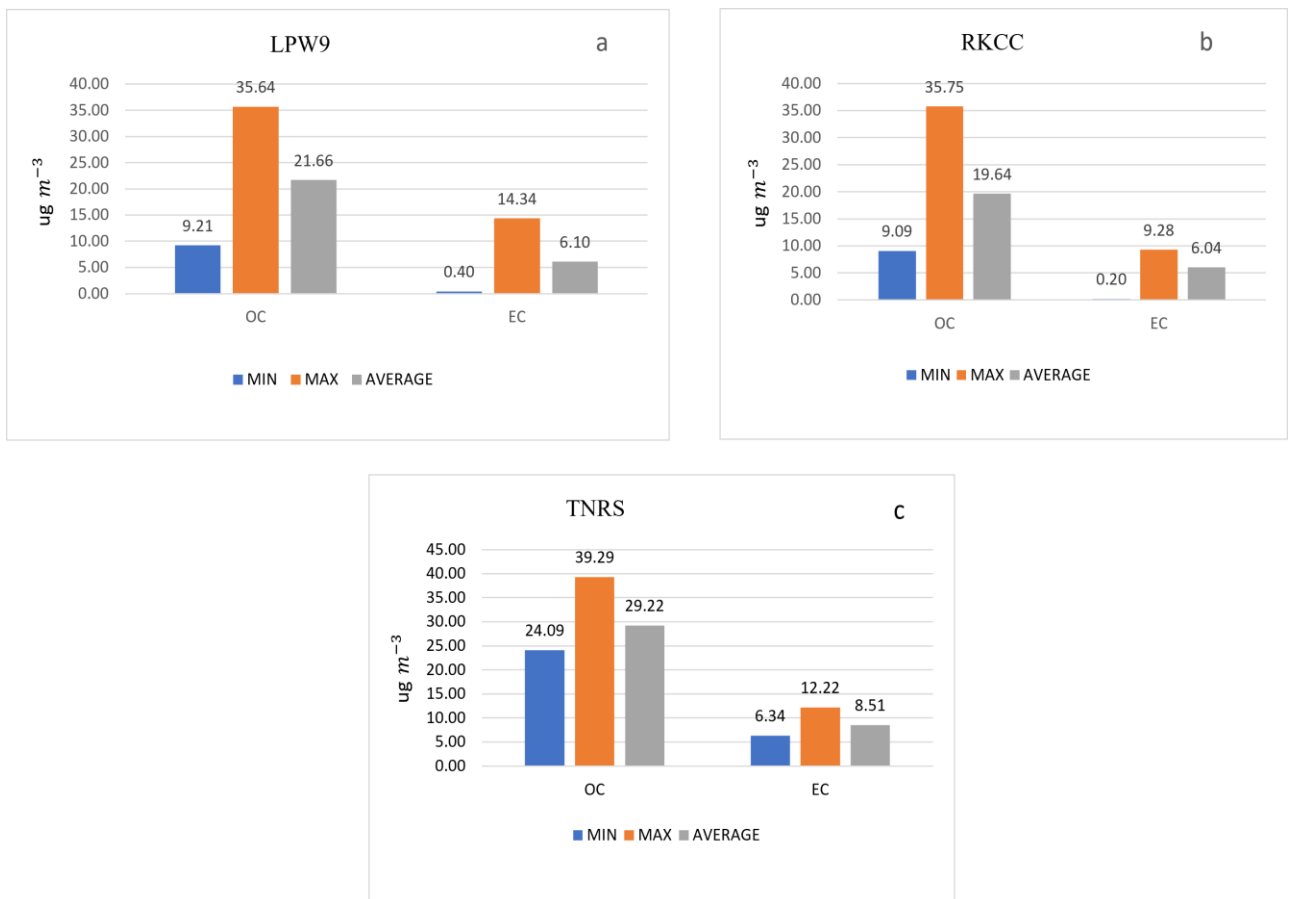


387

388 **Figure 2 Average percentage of OC and EC in sample site (a) LPW9, (b) RKCC**

389

and (c) TNSC.

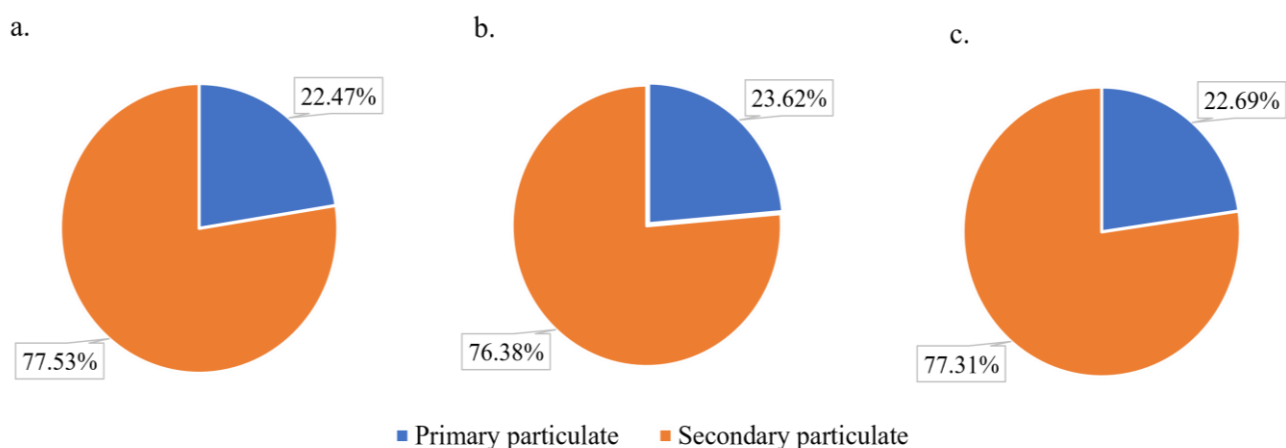


390

391 **Figure 3 Average OC and EC concentrations at the sample sites (a) LPW9, (b)**

392

RKCC, and (c) TNSC.



393

394 **Figure 4 Ratio of primary and secondary particulates of PM_{2.5} at the sampling sites**

395

from OC and EC analysis (a) LPW9, (b) RKCC and (c) TNSC.

396

397

Table 1 Information of the sampling site characteristics.

Province	Land use	Sampling site	Location of sampling sites (UTM: km)	
			X	Y
Nonthaburi	General area	LPW9	655.375	1539.793
Nakhon Pathom	Industrial area	RKCC	638.411	1518.870
Samut Sakhon	Industrial area	TNSC	639.794	1502.030

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Table 2 Temperature steps and durations of NIOSH, IMPROVE_A, and

400

EUSAAR_2 (Cavalli, Viana, Yttri, Genberg, & Putaud, 2010).

Step	NIOSH T(C), duration(s)	IMPROVE_A T(C), duration(s)	ESAAR_2 T(C), duration(s)
OC1	310, 80	140, 150-580	200, 120
OC2	475, 60	280, 150-580	300, 150

Step	NIOSH T(C), duration(s)	IMPROVE_A T(C), duration(s)	ESAAR_2 T(C), duration(s)
OC3	615, 60	480, 150-580	450, 180
OC4	870, 90	580, 150-580	650, 180
EC1	550, 45	580, 150-580	500, 120
EC2	625, 45	740, 150-580	550, 120
EC3	700, 45	840, 150-580	700, 70
EC4	775, 45	-	850, 80
EC5	850, 120	-	-
EC6	870, 120	-	-

401

402

403 **Table 3 Percentage of average carbon fraction in OC and EC.**

Land use	Carbon fractions ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$)	Percentage of OC and EC (%)
(General area) LPW 9	OC1 (1.22)	4%
	OC2 (6.61)	24%
	OC3 (9.84)	36%
	OC4 (3.70)	13%
	EC1 (5.21)	19%
	EC2 (1.16)	4%
	EC3 (0.03)	0%
	OP (1.19)	4%
Industrial area	OC1 (0.78)	3%

Land use	Carbon fractions ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$)	Percentage of OC and EC (%)
RKCC	OC2 (6.38)	25%
	OC3 (7.36)	29%
	OC4 (5.07)	20%
	EC1 (5.26)	20%
	EC2 (0.84)	3%
	EC3 (0.001)	0%
	OP (0.400)	2%
Industrial area TNSC	OC1 (0.99)	3%
	OC2 (0.83)	23%
	OC3 (10.24)	27%
	OC4 (9.05)	24%
	EC1 (7.90)	21%
	EC2 (0.73)	2%
	EC3 (0.00)	0%
	OP (0.649)	2%

404

405 **Table 4 OC/EC ratio and its relevant emission source.**

Source	OC/EC ratio	Reference
Gasoline and LPG exhaust	1.0 – 4.0	(Schauer, Kleeman, Cass, & Simoneit, 1999; Schauer, Kleeman, Cass, & Simoneit, 2001)
Diesel exhaust	< 1	(Schauer <i>et al.</i> , 1999; Schauer <i>et al.</i> ,

Source	OC/EC ratio	Reference
		2001)
Biomass combustion	7.0 – 8.0	(Zhang, Cao, Lee, Shen, & Ho, 2007)
Wood combustion	16.8 – 40.0	(Schauer <i>et al.</i> , 2001)
Residential cooking produced	32.9 – 81.9	(He <i>et al.</i> , 2004)

406

407 **Table 5 Comparison of TC, OC, and EC with other Asian cities (Gu *et al.*, 2010).**

Location	TC ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$)	OC ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$)	EC ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$)	OC/EC	Measure method	Reference
General area (LPW9), Thailand	27.6	21.3	6.4	3.45	IMPROVE_A	This study
Industrial area (RKCC), Thailand	25.6	19.5	6.1	3.23	IMPROVE_A	This study
Industrial area (TNRS), Thailand	37.7	29.1	8.6	3.41	IMPROVE_A	This study
Industrial area Guangzhou, China	17.3	12.2	5	2.4	IMPROVE_T OR	(Cao <i>et al.</i> , 2005)
General area Shenzhen,	14.4	9.6	4.7	2.3	IMPROVE_T OR	(Cao <i>et al.</i> , 2005)

Location	TC ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$)	OC ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$)	EC ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$)	OC/EC	Measure method	Reference
China						
General area Zhuhai, China	23.2	16.3	6.9	2.4	IMPROVE_T OR	(Cao <i>et al.</i> , 2005)
General area Hong Kong	25.1	17	8.1	2.1	IMPROVE_T OR	(Cao <i>et al.</i> , 2005)
General area Kaohsiung, Taiwan	14.4	10.4	4	2.6	Elemental analyzer	(Lin & Tai, 2001)
General area Taiyuan, China	33.5	28.9	4.8	7.0	IMPROVE_T OR	(Meng <i>et al.</i> , 2007)

408 Remarks: TC = Total carbon

409

410 Table 6 Potential source of carbon fractions (Duangkaew *et al.*, 2013).

Carbon fractions	Potential Source
OC1	Biomass burning
OC2	Coal combustion
OC3	Gasoline and LPG exhaust
OC4	Road dust
EC1	Motor vehicle exhaust
EC2	Diesel exhaust
EC3	Coal combustion and motor vehicle exhaust

411

412 **Table 7 Potential source contribution of PM_{2.5}**

Sampling site	Representativeness	Source contribution
LPV9	General area	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Mobile exhausted source (23%) – Road dust (13%) – Gasoline and LPG exhaust (36%) – Biomass burning (4%) – Coal combustion (24%)
RKCC	Industrial area	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Mobile exhausted source (23%) – Road dust (20%) – Gasoline and LPG exhaust (29%) – Biomass burning (3%) – Coal combustion (25%)
TNRS	Industrial area	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Mobile exhausted source (23%) – Road dust (24%) – Gasoline and LPG exhaust (27%) – Biomass burning (3%) – Coal combustion (23%)

413 Gasoline and LPG exhaust come from factories that use oil and gas as fuel for their
 414 operations.

415