

Characteristics of atmospheric fungi in particle growth events along with new particle formation in the central North China Plain

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Abstract

The importance of fungi as cloud condensation nuclei (CCN) and ice-forming nuclei (IN) has been recognized for some researches. Particle growth along with new particle formation (NPF) play a joint role in modulating the CCN number concentration. Although fungi can accelerate the coalescence by large particles, the specific contribution and characteristics of atmospheric fungi for particle growth, especially during NPF events, is poorly understood. In this study, aerosol size distribution data and air samples were collected at Xingtai, a suburban site in the central North China Plain, from 1 May to 1 June 2016. Using DNA sequence-based methods, atmospheric fungal communities were identified and quantified. Significant differences in fungal communities between particle growth events along with new particle formation (PGE-NPF) and non-PGE-NPF events are found, especially for the *Ascomycota* and *Basidiomycota* phyla, and the *Dothideomycetes*, *Saccharomycetes*, and *Tremellomycetes* classes. At the genus level, five fungal communities were significantly different under PGE-NPF and non-PGE-NPF conditions, i.e., the *Cladosporium*, *Capnodiales*, *Mrakia*, *Saccharomycetales* and *Trichocomaceae* genera. The air mass source not only had an impact on NPF and the particle growth process, but also on the characteristics of the fungal communities. The fungal genus communities of *Cladosporium*, *Capnodiales*, *Trichocomaceae*, *Mrakia*, and *Saccharomycetales* may contribute to NPF and the particle growth process.

1 Introduction

Earth's atmospheric microorganisms like fungi can influence atmospheric physics, climate, and human health (Elbert et al., 2007). The microbes can participate in long-distance transport and affect huge areas and massive numbers of people (Tang et al., 2018). Fungi are

ubiquitous in the atmospheric environment and are one of the most common classes of primary biological aerosol particles (Després et al., 2012). In addition, fungi comprise 23% of the total primary emissions of organic aerosols (Heald and Spracklen, 2009).

The importance of airborne fungi is amplified in the process of cloud formation and development due to their roles as both cloud condensation (CCN) and ice nuclei (IN) (Möhler et al., 2007; Heald and Spracklen, 2009; Iannone et al., 2011). Several dicarboxylic acids have been identified as predominant constituents of organic CCN which can be efficiently transformed by fungi in the boundary layer (Yu, 2000; Ariya et al., 2002; Sun and Ariya, 2006). Laboratory studies have also indicated that certain species of fungi are highly efficient IN, such as *Fusarium* (Pouleur et al., 1992), *Isaria farinose*, and *Acremonium implicatum* (Huffman et al., 2013).

Particle growth is an important process in CCN formation because only atmospheric aerosols capable of growing to sizes of 50 nm or larger can act as CCN (Pierce et al., 2014; Sarangi et al., 2015), although smaller particles may serve under certain special circumstances (Fan et al., 2018). New particle formation (NPF) sometimes occurs during particle growth events and contributes to CCN number concentration significantly (Kuwata et al., 2008; Li et al., 2017). The NPF is defined that its particle formation rates for 3 nm typically vary from 1 to 70 $\text{cm}^{-3} \text{s}^{-1}$ and the growth rate of new nucleated particles has been observed in the range of 1-20 nm h^{-1} (Yue et al., 2010; Yao et al., 2018; Shen et al., 2019; Lv et al., 2018). Wiedensohler et al. (2009) found that atmospheric aerosols in the growing mode contributed ~80% to the CCN number concentration on a NPF day in the North China Plain. The enhancement by NPF may differ in different regions. For example, NPF increases the CCN number concentration by 2–9 times in urban areas (Kuang et al., 2009) and by 3–10 times in coastal areas (O'Dowd, 2001).

71 In the particle growth process, although biological particles, such as fungi can accelerate
72 the coalescence by large particles (Möhler et al., 2007), less is known about what specific
73 contribution is made by atmospheric fungi to particle growth, especially on NPF day. Many
74 studies have investigated particle growth from the chemical point of view (Zhang et al., 2011;
75 Zhang et al., 2015), but the link between fungi and the particle growth process or NPF is not
76 clear. A detailed investigation about the airborne fungi population and diversity during particle
77 growth or NPF events is thus needed. Airborne fungi have been quantified using the cultivation
78 method (Heid et al., 1996; Lau et al., 2006). However, fungi quantified by this method may not
79 accurately reflect the true fungal species because some fungi cannot be cultured (Lang-Yona et
80 al., 2012). The culture environment in the laboratory and the true atmosphere also differ. Others
81 have reported limitations for culturing airborne fungi (e.g., Amann et al., 1995; Buttner et al.,
82 1997; Hospodsky et al., 2010). DNA sequence-based methods have been proposed to circumvent
83 the cultivation method's limitations in detecting culturable and non-culturable atmospheric fungi
84 (Fröhlich-Nowoisky et al., 2009; Dannemiller et al., 2014). DNA sequence-based methods can
85 make hundreds to thousands of identifications in each sample and are useful for identifying
86 fungal species, concentrations, and diversity (Dannemiller et al., 2014).

87 In this study, we quantify different atmospheric fungal populations sampled in the central
88 North China Plain by DNA sequence-based methods. Along with aerosol particle number size
89 distribution measurements, the goal of this study is to investigate and characterize atmospheric
90 fungal diversity and explore possible correlations between fungal species and particle growth
91 events on NPF days.

2 Materials and Methods

2.1 Sample collection

The sampling site is Xingtai located in the central North China Plain (NCP) (Figure 1), which is located in southern Heibei Province and to the east of the Taihang Mountains. Local industrial and domestic sources are the greatest contributors to air pollution in this study area. Air samples were taken from the roof of a two-story building at the Xingtai National Meteorological Station (37.18°N, 114.37°E) during the Aerosol Atmosphere Boundary-Layer Cloud (A²BC) campaign. Airborne particles (particulate matter that have a diameter of less than 2.5 μm , or PM_{2.5}) were collected using a high volume air sampler (model Tish TE-6001, Tish Environment Inc., USA) which can separate particles below 2.5 μm . Ambient air was drawn at an average flow rate of 1.13 m³ min⁻¹ for 12 h during the day (7am to 7pm local time). Samples were collected from 1 May to 1 June 2016 (Table S1). Quartz microfiber filters (203 mm $\times$ 254 mm, WhatmanTM) were first decontaminated by baking at 500°C then used to collect airborne particles. Each sterilized filter was packaged in sterilized aluminum foil. All collected samples were stored in a refrigerator with the temperature set at -80°C until being used (Fröhlich-Nowoisky et al., 2009).

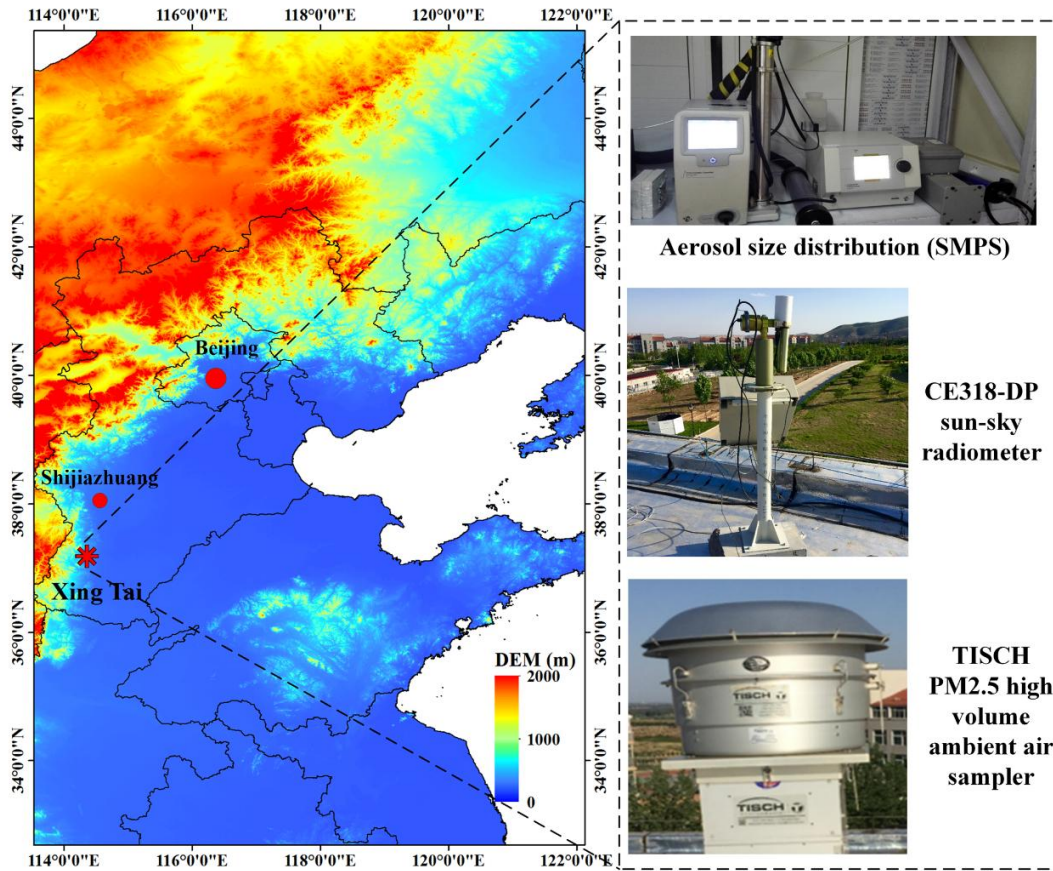


Figure 1. Location of the sampling site (Xingtai) and instruments used in this study.

2.2 Aerosol size distribution measurements

Aerosol particle number size distributions (from 15 nm to 685 nm) were measured by a Scanning Mobility Particle Sizer (SMPS, model 3938, TSI Inc.) that was equipped with a differential mobility analyzer (3081L, TSI Inc.) and a condensation particle counter (3775, TSI Inc.). In addition, we also obtained aerosol size distribution data using a Cimel CE318-DP sun-sky radiometer. Sky radiance almucantar measurements at 440, 670, 870, and 1020 nm combined with aerosol optical thickness retrievals were used to retrieve aerosol size distributions based on the method developed by Dubovik and King (2000). This CE318-DP sun-sky radiometer is part of the Sun-sky radiometer Observation NETwork (SONET). Data from the SONET Xingtai site

are available from the Aerosol Robotic Network (AERONET) website (<https://aeronet.gsfc.nasa.gov/>) (Li et al., 2016). The CE318-DP-based aerosol size distributions (Holben et al., 1998) used in this study correspond to AERONET level 1.5 data (only level 1.5 data available). The AERONET level 1.5 is the cloud-screened data, which includes two major criteria in the cloud-screening procedure and the detailed methods can be found in Smirnov et al. (2000).

2.3 DNA extraction, amplification, and sequencing

Sample filters (3/4 of the total, 721 cm²) from each sampling day were used for DNA extraction. The filters were cut into 2×6 cm² pieces and were placed in 50-ml centrifuge tubes filled with sterilized 1X PBS buffer. The samples were then pelleted at 4°C by centrifugation at 200g for 2 h. After gentle vortexing, the resuspension was filtered with a 0.2-µm Supor 200 PES Membrane Disc Filter (PALL, NY, U.S.) which was then cut into small pieces and used for DNA extraction using the MO-BIO PowerSoil DNA Isolation Kit (MOBIO Laboratories, Carlsbad, CA, USA). Each sample's DNA from three independent extractions was combined, and the amount of DNA was determined by a NanoDrop ND-1000 spectrophotometer (ThermoFisher, USA). All DNA was stored at -20°C before further analysis.

The 18S rRNA gene (379bp) was used as the fungal specific fragment with the primers SSU0817F (5'-TTAGCATGGAATAATRRAATAGGA-3') and 1196R (5'-TCTGGACCTGGTGAGTTTCC-3'). Rousk et al. (2010) reported that these selected primers are fungal-specific and can target a region of the 18S rRNA gene, enabling alignment of the variables between major taxa. Polymerase chain reaction (PCR) amplification was performed in an ABI GeneAmp® 9700 (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA). The PCR components were: 5× FastPfu Buffer (4 µl), 2.5 mM dNTPs (2 µl), forward primer (5 µM, 0.8 µl), reverse

primer (5 μ M, 0.8 μ l), FastPfu polymerase (0.4 μ l), and template DNA (10 ng). The reaction volume was increased to 20 μ l with ddH₂O. The PCR amplification used an initial denaturing step of 95°C for 3 min, followed by 35 cycles of 95°C for 30 sec, 53°C for 30 sec, and 72°C for 45 sec, and finally an elongation step of 72°C for 10 min.

Roch 454 high-throughput sequencing was performed in this study. Amplification products for sequencing were purified using the AxyPrep DNA Gel Extraction Kit (Axygen Biosciences, Union City, CA, USA) and quantified using QuantiFluor™ -ST (Promega, Madison, WI, USA). Purified amplicons were pooled in equimolar, and paired-end reads were generated on an Illumina MiSeq platform (Majorbio Bio-Pharm Technology Co., Ltd., Shanghai, China).

2.4 Bioinformatics analysis

Fungal diversity and richness in the atmosphere were quantified based on operational taxonomic units (OTUs) with 97% sequence similarity (Liu et al., 2016). 18S rRNA gene sequences of each OTU were analyzed by a Ribosomal Database Project Classifier (<http://rdp.cme.msu.edu/>) against the Silva 18S rRNA database (<http://www.arb-silva.de>) to determine the fungal taxonomy. Rarefaction curves and Shannon-Wiener curve analyses were done to show the diversity of the samples. The Wilcoxon rank-sum test was used to check changes in fungal composition between two groups with a statistical significance $P < 0.05$. In addition, the linear discriminant analysis (LDA) effect size (LEfSe) method was used to elucidate differences in fungal taxa. This method can search the taxon for which the relative abundance is significantly different among the various populations at different taxa levels (Ling et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2012). In this study, LDA scores ≥ 2 were considered to be important contributors to the model and the significant alpha is 0.05.

2.5 Back trajectory analysis

To understand the source direction of the different air masses, a back trajectory analysis was done in this study. The Hybrid Single-Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory (HYSPLIT) model was used to compute 72-h backward trajectories at 500 m every 12 h during the sampling period (day and night) (Wang et al., 2009). HYSPLIT is a professional model to calculate and analyze the transport and diffusion trajectories of air masses. It has been widely used in the study of atmospheric air follows in many regions. Meteorological data were obtained from the Air Resources Laboratory website in GDAS (Global Data Assimilation System) format at a 1° spatial resolution.

3 Results and discussion

3.1 Particle size distributions and particle growth events

Figure 2 shows the time series of particle number size distributions measured by the SMPS on 3 May and 20 May 2016. The particle number size distribution changes dramatically from day to day. Relatively high concentrations of particles in the 20–200 nm size range were seen in Xingtai during the sampling period. In addition, particle growth events along with NPF are clearly observed (Wang et al., 2018). On the NPF day, the particle number concentration between 15 and 50 nm (N_{15-50} nm) suddenly increased around 10:00pm, and the particle growth process continued until midnight. This occurred on both clean and polluted days, e.g., on 3 May 2016 when the $PM_{2.5}$ concentration was $9.5 \mu g m^{-3}$ (Figure 2a), and on 20 May 2016 when the $PM_{2.5}$ concentration was $75 \mu g m^{-3}$ (Figure 2b). We further explore aerosol columnar volume size distribution data obtained by the CE318-DP sun-sky radiometer on 3 May 2016 (Figure 3). It can

be found that the CE318-DP can also capture the particle growth events. From the Figure 3(b), we can observe clearly that the volume concentration for the coarse-mode aerosol particles have a various increase in the afternoon compared it is in the morning, this trend has a good agreement with the SMPS data (Figure 3(a)). From integrated SMPS and CE318-DP sun-sky radiometer data, eight fungal samples were collected under particle growth events along with new particle formation (PGE-NPF) conditions and seven samples under non-PGE-NPF conditions (Table S1).

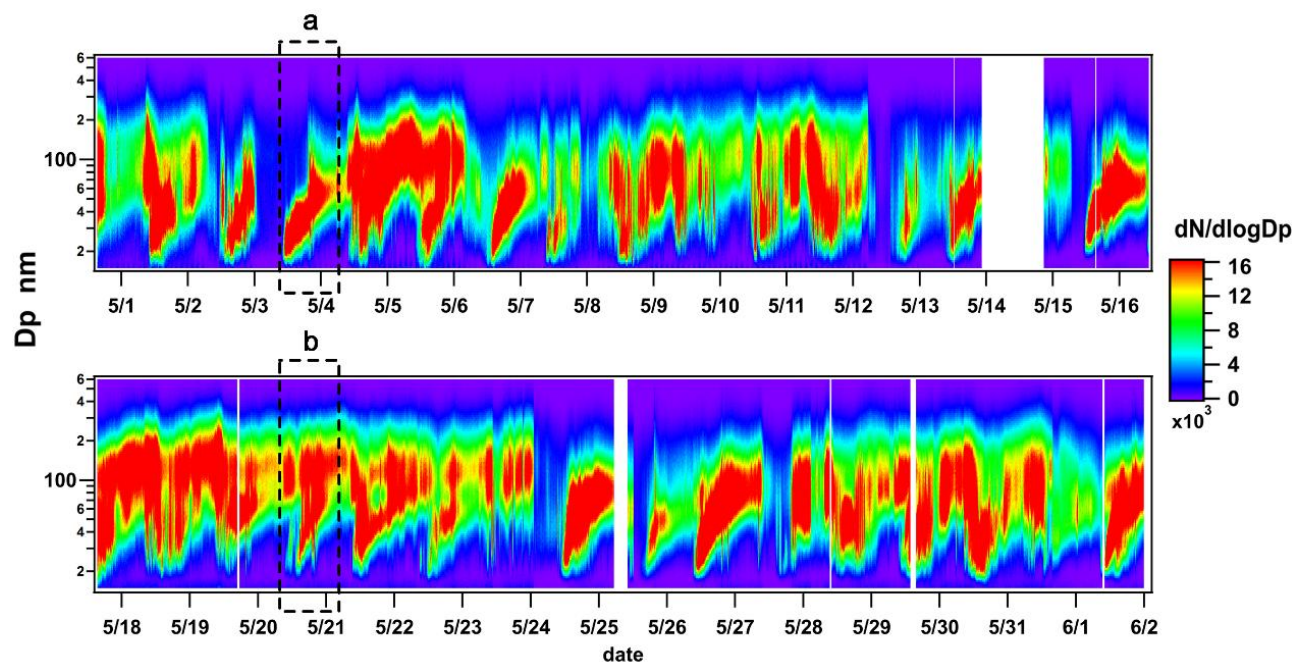


Figure 2. Time series of particle number size distribution on (a) 3 May 2016 and (b) 20 May 2016 in Xingtai. The rectangles outlined by dashes show time periods when particle growth events along with new particle formation were observed.

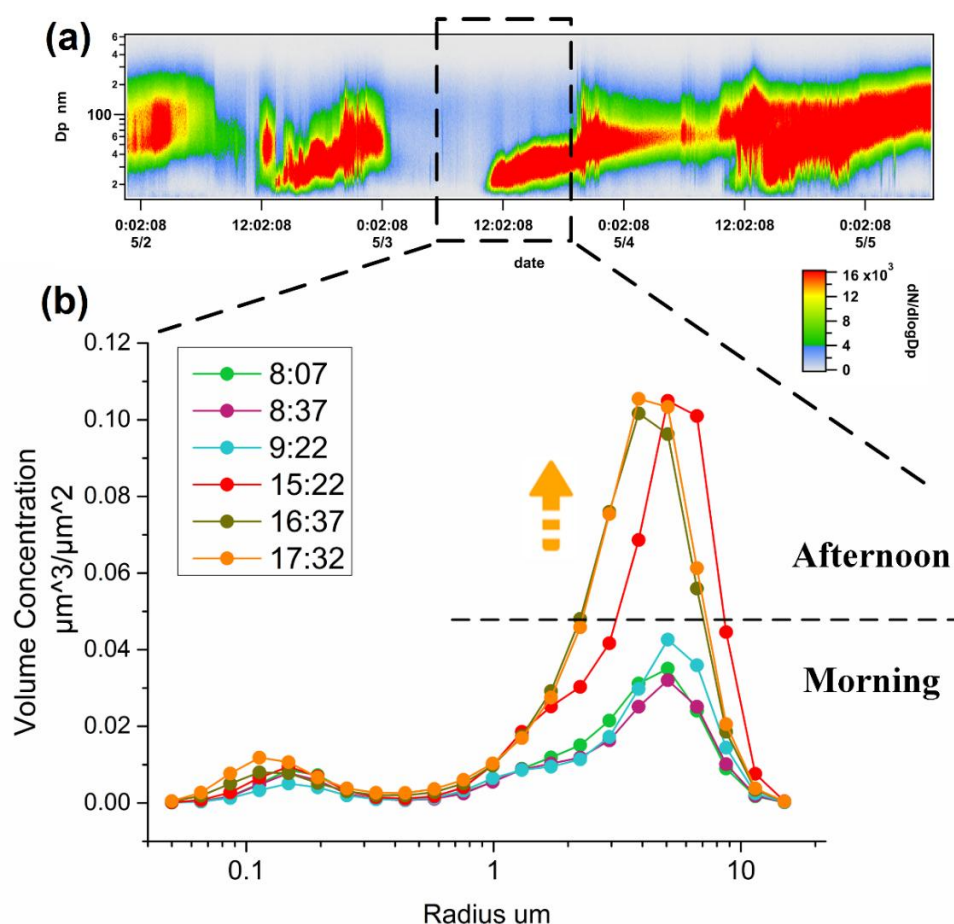


Figure 3. (a) Particle number size distribution and (b) volume concentrations for aerosol particles on 3 May 2016 from within the rectangle outlined by dashes in (a), the time is the local time.

3.2 Characteristics of fungi in PGE-NPF conditions

The LEfSe analysis was used to identify fungi that differed significantly between PGE-NPF and non-PGE-NPF conditions in this study. Figure 4a shows a cladogram representing the structure of the predominant fungi under PGE-NPF and non-PGE-NPF conditions. The LEfSe analysis revealed 23 discriminative features (LDA score > 2) at different taxon levels. There were 11 taxa in group Yes (PGE-NPF) and 5 taxa in group No (non-PGE-NPF) (Figure 4a). The colored red and green taxa may be used as biomarkers for exploring the contribution of these

species to PGE-NPF. At the genus level, *Cladosporium* and *Capnodiales* were most abundant under non-PGE-NPF conditions. These communities belong to the class of *Dothideomycetes* (c_*Dothideomycetes*) and the phylum of *Ascomycota* (p_*Ascomycota*). By contrast, although *Saccharomycetales* (g__norank_o__*Saccharomycetales*), *Galactomyces* (g_*Galactomyces*) and *Pseudoplatyophyra* (g__*Pseudoplatyophyra*) are also in the *Ascomycota* phylum, they belong to the class of *Saccharomycetes* (c_*Saccharomycetes*) and were most abundant under PGE-NPF conditions. The genus *Mrakia* (g_*Mrakia*), which belongs to the class of *Tremellomycetes* (c_*Tremellomycetes*) and the phylum of *Basidiomycota* (p__*Basidiomycota*), was enriched under PGE-NPF conditions as well. We further analyzed the fungal community structure at the genus level using the Wilcoxon rank-sum test which is a more strict two-tailed difference test. The bar plot on the left in Figure 4b shows the mean relative abundance of the fungal community in two groups and the right interval plot shows differences in the fungal community at the 95% confidence level (only the top 15 most abundant genera are shown in the figure). Significant differences are seen in five fungal communities between the Yes and No groups: *Cladosporium* ($P \leq 0.01$), *Capnodiales* ($P \leq 0.01$), *Mrakia* ($P \leq 0.01$), *Saccharomycetales* ($P \leq 0.01$), and *Trichocomaceae* ($P \leq 0.05$). *Cladosporium* and *Capnodiales* have a higher relative abundance under non-PGE-NPF conditions. The genera *Trichocomaceae*, *Mrakia*, and *Saccharomycetales* are significantly less abundant under non-PGE-NPF conditions.

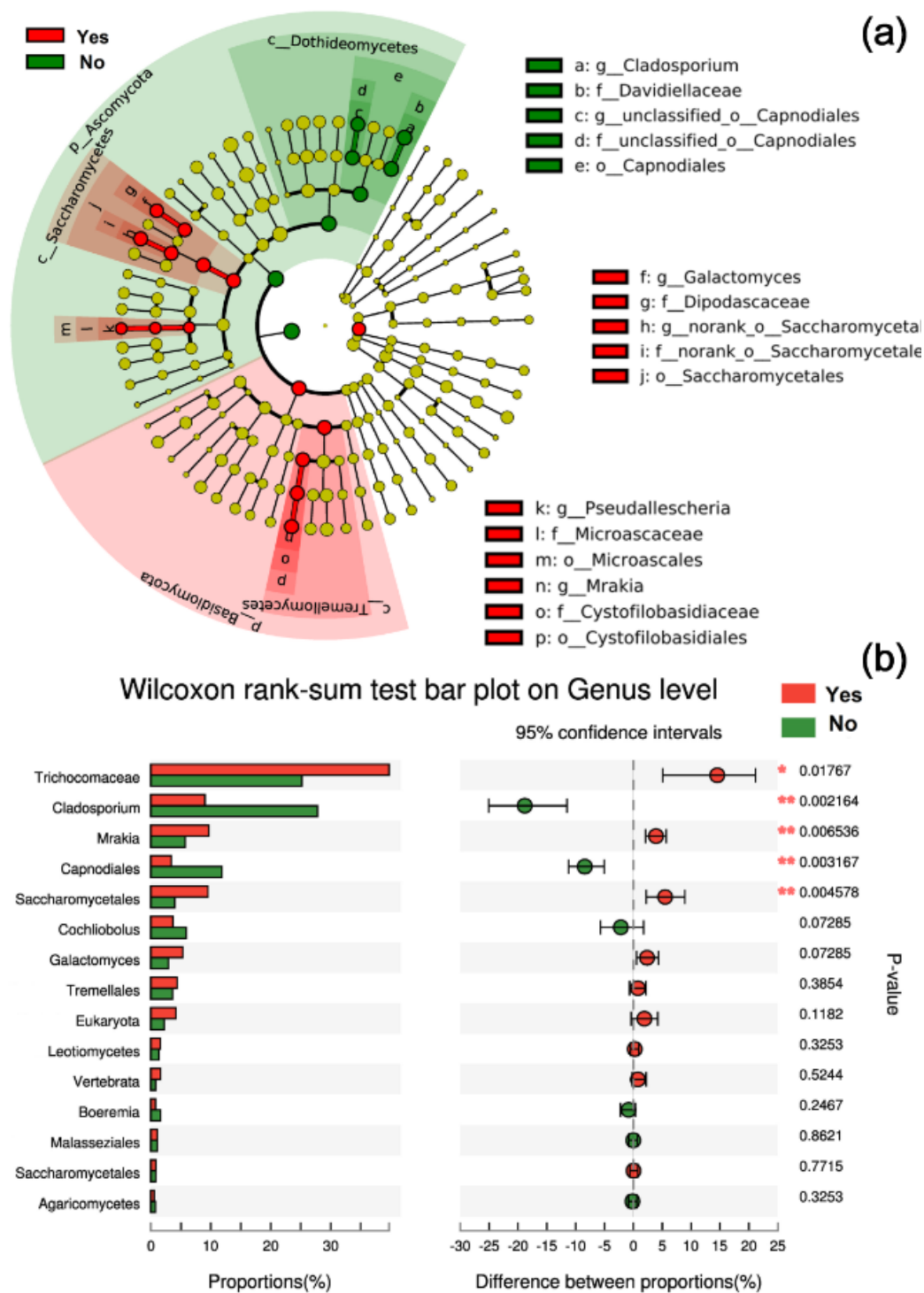


Figure 4. (a) Taxonomic cladogram obtained by the LefSe analysis to identify significantly different abundant taxa of fungi under PGE-NPF (Yes) and non-PGE-NPF (No) conditions. Taxa with significantly different abundances among PGE-NPF (Yes) and non-PGE-NPF (No) groups

are represented by colored dots. From the center outward, they represent the kingdom, phylum, class, order, family, and genus levels. The color-shaded background represents trends of the significantly different taxa. Each colored dot has an effect size LDA score as shown in Figure S1. (b) Wilcoxon rank-sum test for fungal taxa at the genus level in two groups: $*0.01 < P \leq 0.05$, $**0.01 < P \leq 0.01$. The abbreviation for Taxa levels is shown in Table S2.

3.3 Particle growth events and fungi characteristics in different air masses

Figure 5 shows results from the HYSPLIT analysis. Based on HYSPLIT back trajectories, we classify air masses according to direction: direction A (air masses from the east to Xingtai, N=18) and direction B (air masses from the west to Xingtai, N=11). Air masses from the south are too few (N=2) so are not considered here. Direction B air masses originate from Inner Mongolia and pass over mountains and through forests (Figure 1). These are considered clean air masses. However, Direction A air masses flow across many relatively polluted urbanized and industrialized regions (Zhang et al., 2018). Integrated with SMPS data, we find that 18% of the HYSPLIT back trajectories from the direction A occur the clearly PGE-NPF, and for the direction B is 33%.

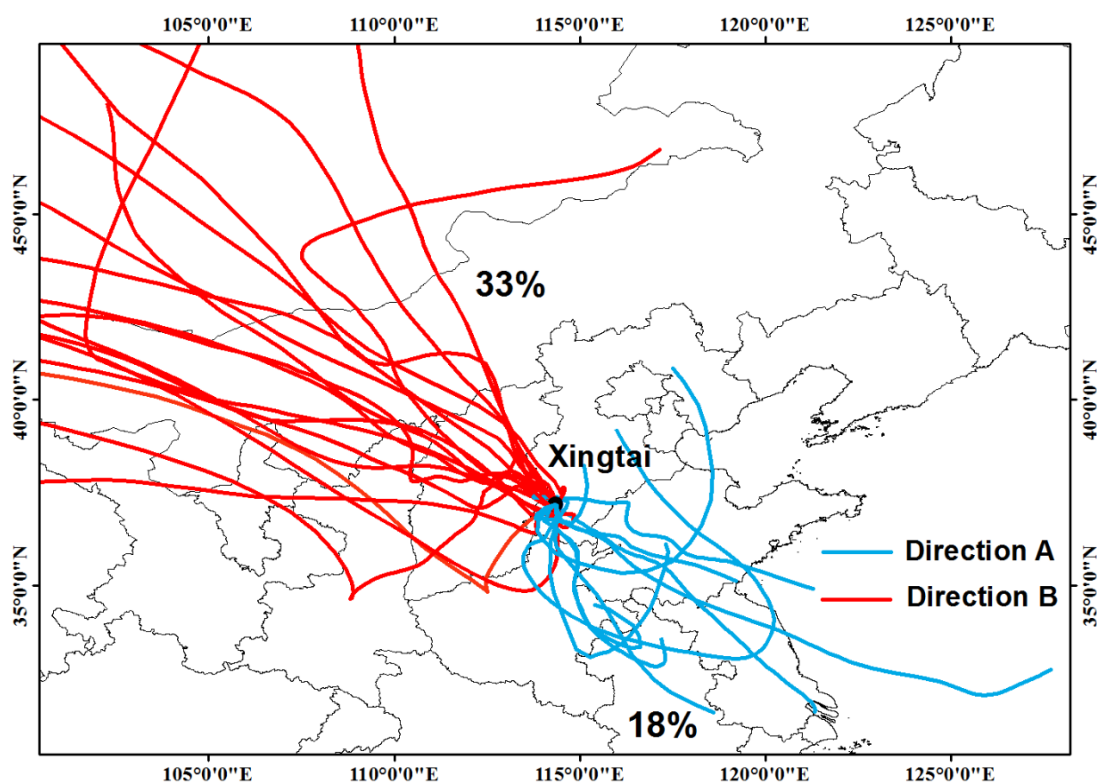


Figure 5. HYSPLIT back trajectories at 500 m centered on Xingtai during the sampling period. Blue line: direction A represents the source of air masses from the east to Xingtai. Red line: Direction B represents the source of air masses from the west to Xingtai.

To understand the disjointed or shared fungal communities at the genus level between these two directions, a Venn diagram was developed to observe overlaps. Figure 6 shows that 42 genus communities are shared. The direction A genus community is not as rich as the direction B genus community, i.e., 6 elements as opposed to 13 elements. Rarefaction curves and Shannon-Wiener curves were then generated to enable comparisons of observed fungal community richness at the genus level between the two directions. As shown in Figure S2a and S2c, all curves approach a plateau, suggesting that the sequencing dataset was large enough to retain most of the information about the fungal communities at the genus level in each sample. Mean

values of the curves for all samples with standard deviation error bars are shown in Figure S2b and S2d and confirms the greater richness of the genus community from direction B.

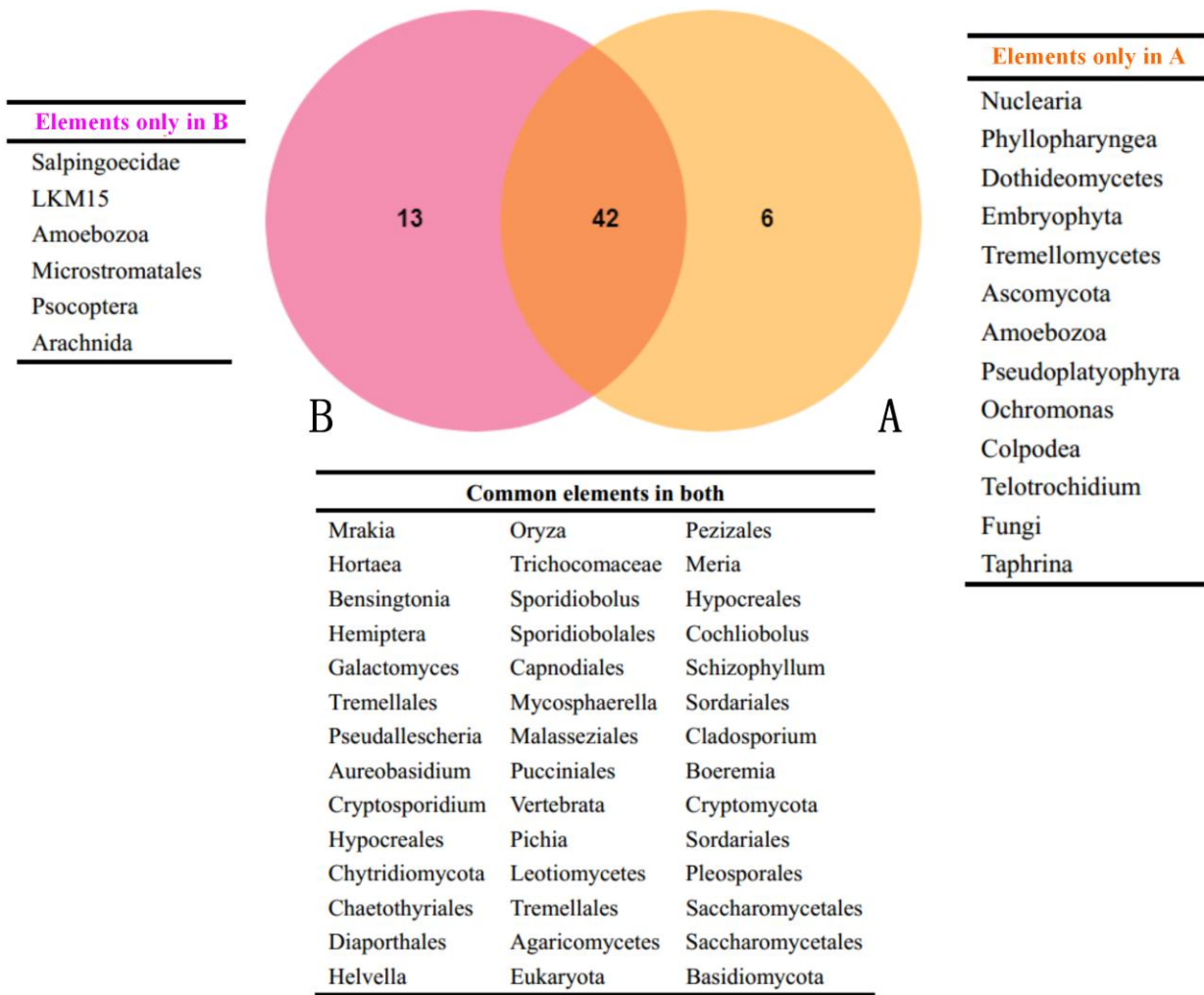


Figure 6. The Venn diagram illustrating the overlap of fungal taxa at the genus level between directions A and B.

The heatmap analysis based on the fungal community at the genus level reveals that the fungal communities' relative abundances also differ between the two directions. Figure 7a shows that the *Mrakia*, *Saccharomycetales*, and *Eukaryota* genus communities from direction A have a higher relative abundance than those from direction B. Direction A *Cladosporium* are less abundant. Figure 7b shows results from the Wilcoxon rank-sum test. Seven genus communities

269 are significantly different between the two directions: *Trichocomaceae* ($P \leq 0.05$), *Cladosporium*
270 ($P \leq 0.05$), *Mrakia* ($P \leq 0.05$), *Saccharomycetales* ($P \leq 0.05$), *Capnodiales* ($P \leq 0.01$),
271 *Galactomyces* ($P \leq 0.05$), and *Eukaryota* ($P \leq 0.05$). Of these seven genus communities, only the
272 relative abundances of *Cladosporium* and *Capnodiales* from direction B are greater than from
273 direction A.

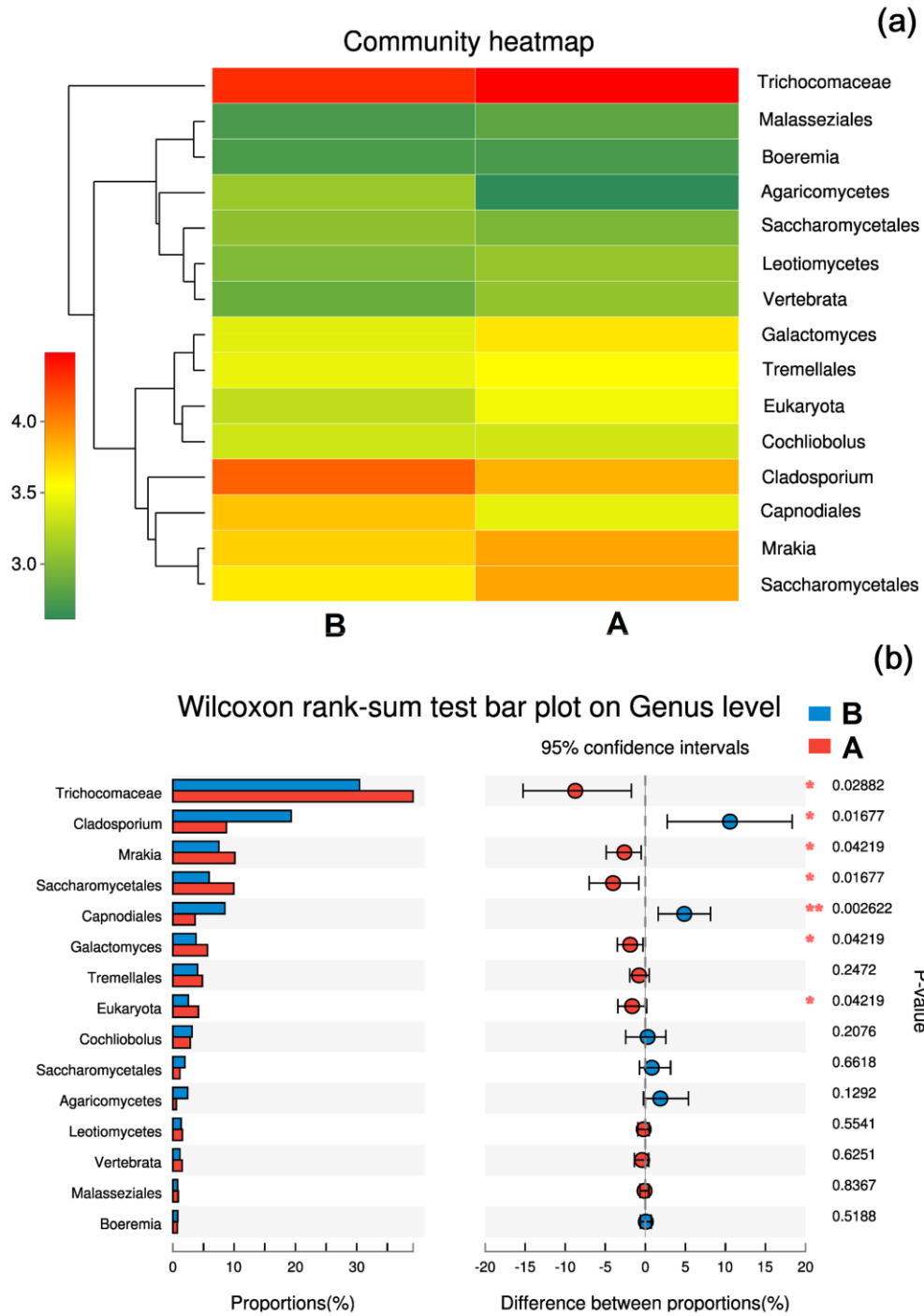


Figure 7. (a) Heatmap of the top 15 genus communities from direction A and direction B. Colors represent log (relative abundance). (b) Wilcoxon rank-sum test for fungal communities at the genus level in two groups: $*0.01 < P \leq 0.05$, $**0.01 < P \leq 0.01$.

4 Discussion

In this study, we find that fungal communities have significant differences under PGE-NPF and non-PGE-NPF conditions (Figure 4), especially at the genus levels of *Cladosporium*, *Capnodiales*, *Mrakia*, *Saccharomycetales*, and *Trichocomaceae*. Of these communities, *Cladosporium*, *Capnodiales*, and *Saccharomycetales* all belong to the phylum of *Ascomycota*. Two IN-active fungi, *Isaria farinose* and *Acremonium implicatum*, also belonging to the phylum of *Ascomycota* have been found (Huffman et al., 2013). This suggests that the phylum of *Ascomycota* plays an important role in the atmospheric nucleation and growth process. *Cladosporium* is one of most abundant types of fungal spores in the atmosphere, and its ice nucleation ability has been investigated (Iannone et al., 2011). *Cladosporium* have been frequently observed as the dominant spore near the ground (Pyrri and Kapsanaki-Gotsi, 2007; Mallo et al., 2011). In this study, we also find a high relative abundance of *Cladosporium* at Xingtai. Its mean relative abundance is ~10% under PGE-NPF conditions and 28% under non-PGE-NPF conditions. This finding suggests that in addition to its ice-nucleating ability, *Cladosporium* can also play a role in the particle growth and NPF process.

The source direction of air masses is an important factor in the particle growth and NPF process (Nilsson et al., 2001). We found that NPF events often occur when clean air flows to Xingtai from the north and the west (direction B, Figure 5). However, this study shows that NPF also occurs when air flows in from polluted regions (direction A). This is consistent with earlier studies that reported the more frequent occurrence of NPF events in the polluted atmosphere of northern China (e.g., Wang et al., 2017). Pierce et al. (2014) have also reported the occurrence of NPF events when air flowed in from both clean and polluted regions. In addition, they revealed that NPF rates tended to be faster under polluted conditions. As shown in Figure 7, the source

direction of air masses also has a significant impact on fungal communities (Jeon et al., 2013). Seven genus communities (*Trichocomaceae*, *Cladosporium*, *Mrakia*, *Saccharomycetales*, *Capnodiales*, *Galactomyces*, and *Eukaryota*) in air masses from direction A and direction B differ significantly. Of these seven genus communities, five (*Cladosporium*, *Capnodiales*, *Mrakia*, *Saccharomycetales*, and *Trichocomaceae*) show significant differences under PGE-NPF and non-PGE-NPF conditions (section 3.2). The richness of the genus community from direction A is less than that from direction B. Direction A air mass backward trajectories (Figure 5) show that many air masses originated over the sea. Di Giorgio et al. (1996) have shown that fungal concentrations are lower when the wind direction is from the sea. This is because sea aerosols may have a toxic effect on atmospheric micro-organisms (Jones and Harrison, 2004).

5 Conclusions

In this study, we carried out a field experiment from 1 May to 1 June 2016 at Xingtai in the central North China Plain to investigate the characteristics of atmospheric fungi under PGE-NPF conditions. SMPS and CE318-DP sun-sky radiometer instruments were used to analyze PGE-NPF cases. DNA sequence-based methods were also used to obtain in-depth information about atmospheric fungal communities.

The LEfSe analysis shows that fungal communities under PGE-NPF and non-PGE-NPF conditions have significant differences, especially the *Ascomycota* and *Basidiomycota* phyla and the *Dothideomycetes*, *Saccharomycetes*, and *Tremellomycetes* classes. At the genus level, five genus communities show significant differences under PGE-NPF and non-PGE-NPF conditions. Under non-PGE-NPF conditions, *Cladosporium* ($P \leq 0.01$) and *Capnodiales* ($P \leq 0.01$) have a higher relative abundance. *Trichocomaceae* ($P \leq 0.05$), *Mrakia* ($P \leq 0.01$), and *Saccharomycetales* ($P \leq 0.01$) are significantly less under non-PGE-NPF conditions than under

PGE-NPF conditions. In the back trajectory analysis, the source of air masses had an impact on the NPF and particle growth process and the characteristics of fungal communities. PGE-NPF is often observed when clean air flows in from the west and north and it also occurs when air flows in from polluted regions to the east. Seven fungal genus communities (*Trichocomaceae*, *Cladosporium*, *Mrakia*, *Saccharomycetales*, *Capnodiales*, *Galactomyces*, and *Eukaryota*) in air masses from direction A and direction B differ significantly. Five of these genus communities show significant differences under PGE-NPF conditions.

Our results suggest that the *Cladosporium*, *Capnodiales*, *Trichocomaceae*, *Mrakia*, and *Saccharomycetales* fungal communities play an important role in the NPF and particle growth process. Although the ice-nucleating ability of *Cladosporium* is known, the role of other fungal communities in NPF or particle growth events is poorly understood. Further fundamental field and laboratory research is required to provide in-depth information about the impact of fungi reactions on the modification of CCN/IN capabilities, and the NPF and particle growth process. As most fungal species in the atmosphere are still unknown, DNA sequence-based methods can help to elucidate the diversity of fungi and provide realistic atmospheric fungal information (Després et al., 2012).

Acknowledgments

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