

1 **Sources of non-fossil fuel emissions in carbonaceous aerosols during early winter in Chinese**  
2 **cities**

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19

20 **Abstract**

21 China experiences frequent and severe haze outbreaks from the beginning of winter.

22 Carbonaceous aerosols are regarded as an essential factor in controlling the formation and

23 evolution of haze episodes. To elucidate the carbon sources of air pollution, source apportionment

24 was conducted using radiocarbon (<sup>14</sup>C) and unique molecular organic tracers. Daily 24-hour PM<sub>2.5</sub>

25 samples were collected continuously from October 2013 to November 2013 in 10 Chinese cities.

26 The <sup>14</sup>C results indicated that non-fossil fuel (NF) emissions were predominant in total carbon (TC;

27 average = 65 ± 7%). Approximately half of the EC was derived primarily from biomass burning

28 (BB) (average = 46 ± 11%), while over half of the OC fraction comprised NF (average = 68 ± 7%).

29 On average, the largest contributor to TC was NF-derived secondary OC (SOC<sub>nf</sub>), which

30 accounted for 46 ± 7% of TC, followed by SOC derived from fossil fuels (FF) (SOC<sub>f</sub>; 16 ± 3%),

31 BB-derived primary OC ( $\text{POC}_{\text{bb}}$ ;  $13 \pm 5\%$ ), POC derived from FF ( $\text{POC}_{\text{f}}$ ;  $12 \pm 3\%$ ), EC derived  
32 from FF ( $\text{EC}_{\text{f}}$ ;  $7 \pm 2\%$ ) and EC derived from BB ( $\text{EC}_{\text{bb}}$ ;  $6 \pm 2\%$ ). The regional background  
33 carbonaceous aerosol composition was characterized by NF sources; POCs played a major role in  
34 northern China, while SOCs contributed more in other regions. However, during haze episodes,  
35 there were no dramatic changes in the carbon source or composition in the cities under study, but  
36 the contribution of POC from both FF and NF increased significantly.

37

## 38 **1. Introduction**

39 Recently, a wide range of fine particle ( $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ ) pollution has affected northern, central and  
40 southern China, particularly on haze days, which has had significant effects on air quality,  
41 atmospheric visibility and public health, and caused extensive public and scientific concern (Liu et  
42 al., 2013b; Wang et al., 2014). Haze events in Chinese urban areas, especially in megacities, have  
43 become a common phenomenon, appearing in every season, because of large and intensive  
44 pollutant emissions and unfavorable meteorological conditions (He et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2013c).  
45 Generally, heavy and serious haze pollution outbreaks start at the beginning of winter.

46 Carbonaceous aerosols are the important component of  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  (~20–80%) (Rogge et al.,  
47 1993; He et al., 2004; Dan et al., 2004; Kanakidou et al., 2005) and are regarded as essential for  
48 controlling the formation and evolution of haze episodes. Relatively high concentrations of  
49 carbonaceous aerosols have been observed during typical haze days in northern, southern and  
50 central China (Zhao et al., 2013; Deng et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2014c). Generally, carbonaceous  
51 aerosols (total carbon, TC) can be divided into elemental carbon (EC) and organic carbon (OC)  
52 according to their different physical and chemical properties (Krivácsy et al., 2001; Kleefeld et al.,  
53 2002). EC is formed either from biomass burning (BB; e.g., wood fires, heating) or fossil fuel

54 combustion (FF; e.g., vehicle or industry emissions such as coal combustion), and can be used as a  
55 tracer for primary combustion-generated OC because primary OC and EC are mostly emitted from  
56 the same sources (Turpin and Huntzicker, 1995;Strader et al., 1999). OC can be directly derived  
57 from primary emissions (primary OC; POC), or formed through oxidation of reactive organic  
58 gases followed by gas-to-particle conversion in the atmosphere (secondary OC; SOC) (Choi et al.,  
59 2012;Subramanian et al., 2007). Moreover, further subcategories of OC exist, including  
60 water-soluble organic carbon (WSOC) and water-insoluble organic carbon (WINSOC), which are  
61 distinguished on the basis of water-solubility; these may be essential for assessing the different  
62 sources of OC emissions during haze episodes, since WSOC is a proxy for SOC and BB OC,  
63 while a large fraction of WINSOC is from POC (Weber et al., 2007b;Docherty et al., 2008;Mayol-  
64 Bracero et al., 2002;Weber et al., 2007a;Huang et al., 2014).

65 Several methods have been introduced to identify and quantify OC emission sources, such as  
66 the use of organic molecular tracers (Simoneit et al., 1999), receptor models (PMF, CMB)(Singh  
67 et al., 2017;Bove et al., 2014;Marcazzan et al., 2003), and dispersion models (Colville et al., 2003);  
68 however, their reliability is limited by their low atmospheric lifetimes, in turn due to chemical  
69 reactivity and highly variable emission factors (Fine et al., 2001, 2002, 2004;Gao et al.,  
70 2003;Hedberg et al., 2006;Robinson et al., 2006). Recently, radiocarbon ( $^{14}\text{C}$ ) analysis has been  
71 used as a powerful tool for facilitating the direct differentiation of non-fossil fuel (NF) carbon  
72 sources from fossil fuel (FF) sources, because  $^{14}\text{C}$  is completely absent from FF carbon (e.g.,  
73 diesel and gasoline exhaust, coal combustion), whereas NF carbon (e.g., biomass burning, cooking  
74 and biogenic emissions) shows a high contemporary  $^{14}\text{C}$  level (Szidat et al., 2009). Hence,  $^{14}\text{C}$   
75 measurements can provide information about the contributions of FF, BB and biogenic emissions

76 to carbonaceous aerosols. Numerous studies have been performed at urban sites and background  
77 sites to assess carbonaceous aerosol sources. For example, contemporary carbon was the dominant  
78 pollutant in carbonaceous aerosols at a background sites such as Ningbo and Hainan stations (Liu  
79 et al., 2013a;Zhang et al., 2014c). In urban, the relative carbon contributions have shown a  
80 significant seasonal difference (Yang et al., 2005;Chen et al., 2013;Liu et al., 2013b;Zhang et al.,  
81 2014a;Liu et al., 2014a;Zhang et al., 2017). A combination of  $^{14}\text{C}$  analysis and organic tracer  
82 determination allows for more detailed source apportionment of carbonaceous aerosols (Gelencsér  
83 et al., 2007;Ding et al., 2008;Lee et al., 2010;Yttri et al., 2011;Zong et al., 2016;Liu et al.,  
84 2015;Zhang et al., 2014b).

85 In this study, sampling was conducted in 10 typical Chinese cities during early winter when  
86 heavy haze pollution frequently occurs in this season. Carbonaceous aerosols, including different  
87 carbon fractions such as WSOC, WINSOC and EC, along with water-soluble inorganic ions and  
88 organic tracers (i.e. anhydrosugars) were analyzed in  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  samples. In particular, anhydrosugars  
89 such as levoglucosan are used as a molecular marker to indicate biomass-burning emissions. The  
90 combination of  $^{14}\text{C}$  analysis and the concentration of levoglucosan has offered new insights into  
91 the detailed sources of carbonaceous aerosols. So, source apportionment of carbonaceous aerosols  
92 was performed using a source apportionment model based on the  $^{14}\text{C}$  results and measured  
93 chemicals.

## 94 **2. Materials and Methods**

### 95 **2.1 Aerosol sampling**

96 Daily 24-hour  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  samples were collected continuously on the rooftops of institutes in 10  
97 Chinese cities (Figure 1) from October 2013 to November 2013. In total, 292 aerosol samples,

98 including 10 field blanks, were collected on pre-heated (450°C for 5 h) quartz fiber filters (8 × 10  
99 inches; Whatman, UK) using a high volume sampler with a flow rate of 0.3 m<sup>3</sup> min<sup>-1</sup>. The filters  
100 were then wrapped in aluminum foil, packed into air-tight plastic bags, and stored at -20°C in a  
101 refrigerator until analysis. PM<sub>2.5</sub> mass concentrations were determined gravimetrically by state  
102 regulatory agencies. All samples were analyzed for OC and EC, and 20 samples, including two  
103 filters based on the PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations at each site, were selected for further chemical analysis.  
104 Details of the sampling information and meteorological parameters used during sampling are  
105 shown in the Supporting Information (SI).

## 106 **2.2 Chemical analysis**

107 OC and EC were obtained with an off-line carbon analyzer (Sunset Laboratory, Inc., USA) using  
108 the thermo-optical transmittance method (NIOSH 870). Water-soluble inorganic ions (Na<sup>+</sup>, Cl<sup>-</sup>,  
109 Ca<sup>2+</sup>, Mg<sup>2+</sup>, K<sup>+</sup>, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) were analyzed with an ion chromatographer (83 Basic IC  
110 Plus, Metrohm, Switzerland). Anhydrosugars (levoglucosan, galactosan and mannosan) were  
111 analyzed by gas chromatography-mass spectroscopy (GC-MS) (7890-5975; Agilent) using a  
112 capillary column (DB-5MS; 30m, 0.25 mm, 0.25µm). Analysis methods related to OC and EC,  
113 water-soluble inorganic ions (Wang et al., 2012) and anhydrosugars (Liu et al., 2014a;Liu et al.,  
114 2014b) were presented elsewhere and a detailed analytical procedure and method are available in  
115 the SI.

## 116 **2.3 Separation of carbon species**

117 A punched section of filtrate was cut and sandwiched in a filtration unit, then extracted with 100  
118 mL ultra-pure water (18.2 MΩ). WSOC species were quantified using a total organic carbon (TOC)  
119 analyzer (TOC-VCPH; Shimadzu, Japan). The punched filtrate was dried in a desiccator, wrapped

120 in aluminum foil and then stored in a refrigerator. WINSOC and EC were obtained from the  
121 water-filtered sample with an off-line carbon analyzer (Sunset Laboratory, Inc.) using the  
122 thermo-optical transmittance method (NIOSH 870).

#### 123 **2.4 Radiocarbon measurements**

124 Isolation procedures for the  $^{14}\text{C}$  measurements of WSOC, WINSOC and EC have been  
125 described previously (Liu et al., 2016b; Liu et al., 2013b). Two filters, based on the  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$   
126 concentrations at each site, were used for  $^{14}\text{C}$  determination of WSOC, WINSOC and EC, to  
127 distinguish between FF and NF emissions. To obtain the WSOC, WINSOC and EC fractions from  
128 a single punch filter, a circular section of the punch filter was clamped in place between a filter  
129 support and a funnel and then 60 ml ultra-pure water was slowly passed through the punch filter  
130 without a pump, allowing the WSOC to be extracted delicately. WSOC was quantified as the total  
131 dissolved organic carbon in solution using a total organic carbon (TOC) analyzer (Shimadzu  
132 TOC\_VCPH, Japan) following the nonpurgeable organic carbon protocol. WSOC solution was  
133 freeze-dried to dryness at  $-40\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ . The WSOC residue was re-dissolved with  $\sim 500\text{ }\mu\text{l}$  of ultra-pure  
134 water and then transferred to a pre-combusted quartz tube, which was then placed in the freeze  
135 dryer. After that, the quartz tube was combusted at  $850\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ . The remaining carbon on the filter was  
136 identified as WINSOC or EC by an OC/EC analyzer (Sunset, U.S.). After WSOC pretreatment and  
137 freeze-dried, OC is oxidized to  $\text{CO}_2$  under a stream of pre-cleaned oxygen pure analytical grade  
138  $\text{O}_2$  (99.999%,  $30\text{ ml min}^{-1}$ ) during the pre-combustion step at  $340^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 15 min. Before the OC is  
139 oxidized, the sample is first positioned in the  $650\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$  oven for about 45 s flash heating. This flash  
140 heating has the advantage of minimizing pre-combustion charring, since it reduces pyrolysis of  
141 OC. After the OC separation, the filters were removed from the system, placed into a muffle

142 furnace at 375°C, and combusted for 4 h. The filters were then quickly introduced back into the  
143 system and oxidized under a stream of pure oxygen at 650°C for 10 min to analyze the EC  
144 fraction. Finally, the corresponding evolved CO<sub>2</sub> (WSOC, WINSOC, and EC) was cryo-trapped,  
145 quantified manometrically, sealed in a quartz tube and reduced to graphite at 600 °C using zinc  
146 with an iron (200 mg, Alfa Aesar, 1.5-3 mm, 99.99%) catalyst for accelerator mass spectrometry  
147 (AMS) target preparation. Approximately 200 µg of carbon was prepared for each carbon fraction.  
148 All <sup>14</sup>C values were reported as the fraction of modern carbon ( $f_m$ ) after correcting for  
149 fractionation with  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ . The degree of uncertainty in the <sup>14</sup>C measurements was in the range of  
150 0.2–0.6%. In this study,  $f_m$  was converted to the fraction of contemporary carbon ( $f_c$ ), to eliminate  
151 the effects of nuclear bomb tests through application of conversion factors of  $1.10 \pm 0.05$  for EC  
152 and  $1.06 \pm 0.05$  for 2013 OC data. Here, the  $f_m$  values of OC (OC = WSOC + WINSOC) and TC  
153 (TC = WSOC + WINSOC + EC) were calculated by isotopic mass balance. The uncertainties of  $f_m$   
154 (and  $f_m$ ) in WSOC, WINSOC, OC and EC were up to 20% ,20% ,15% and 15%, respectively. The  
155 concentration in the field blank was negligible ( $0.37 \pm 0.05 \mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$ ; less than 5% carbon) and no  
156 field blank subtraction was made for <sup>14</sup>C determination. The system blank F<sup>14</sup>C was  
157 0.0036(SD=0.0001), which translated to a <sup>14</sup>C age of around 45,000 years BP.

### 158 **3. Results and Discussion**

#### 159 **3.1 PM<sub>2.5</sub>, OC and EC concentrations and spatial distribution**

160 PM<sub>2.5</sub> levels ranged from 21.9 to 482 µg m<sup>-3</sup>, with an average level of  $178 \pm 103 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ . A total of  
161 98% and 81% of PM<sub>2.5</sub> exceeded the First Grade National Standard (35 µg m<sup>-3</sup>) and Second Grade  
162 National Standard (75 µg m<sup>-3</sup>) of China, respectively, indicating relatively poor air quality during  
163 sampling days. The OC and EC levels ranged from 0.99 to 75.9 µg m<sup>-3</sup> (average =  $22.8 \pm 15.3 \mu\text{g}$

164  $\text{m}^{-3}$ ) and 0.07 to 19.3  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  (average =  $3.66 \pm 3.28 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ), respectively; thus, OC and EC were  
165 major components of  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ , accounting for  $13 \pm 8\%$  and  $2 \pm 1\%$  of  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ , respectively. The OC  
166 and EC levels in this study were generally higher than those recorded previously in more  
167 developed cities (e.g., New York, Los Angeles, Erfurt, Kosan) (Kam et al., 2012; Kim et al.,  
168 2000; Gnauk et al., 2005; Rattigan et al., 2010), indicating severe carbonaceous pollution and  
169 emphasizing the importance of restricting carbonaceous aerosols in China.

170 Northern China has high  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  concentrations. As shown in Table 1, the average  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$   
171 concentrations in Beijing ( $190 \pm 79 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ), Xinxiang ( $245 \pm 65 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ), Taiyuan ( $285 \pm 84 \mu\text{g}$   
172  $\text{m}^{-3}$ ) and Lanzhou ( $212 \pm 112 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) were significantly higher than those in central and southern  
173 China (from  $85 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  in Guangzhou to  $123 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  in Wuhan). Shanghai, in the eastern coastal  
174 region, had the lowest average  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  concentration ( $67 \pm 43 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ). The ratio of total organic  
175 matter (TOM;  $1.6 \times \text{OC} + \text{EC}$ ) to total fine particle mass ranged from 17.4% to 32.6%, except in  
176 Guiyang. Cities in central and southern China, such as Chengdu, Wuhan, Nanjing, and Guangzhou,  
177 had a higher ratio of TOM to  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  than other cities. Moreover, the OC/EC ratios in those cities  
178 were also higher, with values ranging between 8.1 and 12. The spatial distribution pattern closely  
179 reflected energy consumption and regional climate differences. In particular, Guiyang, which is a  
180 developing city located on the Western plateau, had a high level of  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  ( $227 \pm 77 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ),  
181 comparable to that in northern China, but also had the lowest levels of OC and EC. Moreover, the  
182 TOM to  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  ratio was only about 6.0%. This indicates that there are different chemical sources  
183 in this developing city compared to megacities in China.

### 184 **3.2 Radiocarbon results: fraction of modern carbon ( $f_m$ )**

185 Table 2 shows the proportion (%) of NF sources in various carbon fractions. Overall, NF



186 emissions represented a more significant proportion of the TC (average =  $65 \pm 7\%$ ; range:  
187 50–79%), at all sites, than FF sources, which underscores the importance of NF sources to  
188 carbonaceous aerosols during early winter in China.

189 EC is only formed by primary emissions, which are inert in ambient air and originate either  
190 from BB or FF combustion. In this study, about half of the EC was derived from BB in the 10  
191 urban cities (average  $46 \pm 11\%$ ; range: 24–71%), which represents a slightly higher proportion  
192 than that for the same cities in winter and spring, but is similar to previous studies performed in  
193 cities in other countries (Szidat et al., 2009; Bernardoni et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2016a). However,  
194 this result differs from those obtained in remote regions dominated by BB (Barrett et al.,  
195 2015; Zhang et al., 2014a). Compared with other studies in China, the measured biomass burning  
196 contributions to EC in Beijing are relatively higher than those in the same city during winter  
197 (Zhang et al., 2014b; Zhang et al., 2015b). This is due to the fact that different approach we used  
198 for OC/EC separation, and sample selection in this study (selected two filter samples based on  
199 relatively lower and higher PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentration for each site) because of limitations for <sup>14</sup>C  
200 analysis (i.e. the bulk samples required and the high cost for <sup>14</sup>C measurement). However, the  
201 result is similar with those using the same approach (Liu et al., 2016c; Zong et al., 2016). Since  
202 limitations for A larger contribution of BB to EC was found in central and western China (i.e.,  
203 Beijing, Lanzhou, Chengdu and Guiyang) (49~63%), where Guiyang had the largest proportion of  
204 BB in EC ( $63 \pm 12\%$ ), followed by Beijing ( $50 \pm 2.0\%$ ), Chengdu ( $50 \pm 1.8\%$ ), Wuhan ( $48 \pm 10\%$ )  
205 and Nanjing ( $47 \pm 5\%$ ); this shows that there are large amounts of BB emissions (e.g., from  
206 biofuel burning and outdoor fires) in western and central China during early winter. This  
207 phenomenon was also found in central China during the severe haze episode that occurred over

208 China in January 2013, which suggests that these massive BB emissions were generated indoors  
209 (i.e., from domestic heating and cooking) and thus could not be detected by MODIS [*Liu et al.*,  
210 2016b]. Guangzhou had the lowest proportion of BB in EC ( $32 \pm 12\%$ ), suggesting that FF  
211 emissions (coal combustion and vehicle emissions) dominated in the Pearl Delta region. Similar to  
212 Guangzhou, Taiyuan and Xinxiang had lower proportions of BB in EC, of  $36 \pm 11\%$  and  $37 \pm$   
213  $1.7\%$ , respectively. High proportions of BB in EC are due to extremely high levels of BB tracers  
214 (levoglucosan). In this study, levoglucosan concentrations were in the range 161 to 672 ng m<sup>-3</sup>  
215 ( $377 \pm 153$  ng m<sup>-3</sup>), and were significantly correlated with EC concentrations in BB ( $r = 0.708$ ,  
216  $p=0.000$ ).

217 Over half of the OC fraction was from NF sources at all sites (range: 54–82%), with an  
218 average NF source contribution of  $68 \pm 7\%$ , comparable to previous study reported in four  
219 Chinese cities during 2013 winter (Xi'an, Beijing, Shanghai and Guangzhou were 63%, 42%, 51%  
220 and 65%, respectively)(Zhang et al. 2015a). Generally, the  $f_m$  spatial distribution of OC is similar  
221 to that of EC, with NF sources contributing more in central China. Here, OC was divided into  
222 WSOC and WINSOC, which has been separated with respect to fossil and NF sources. A large  
223 contribution of NF sources to WINSOC ( $64 \pm 7\%$ ) was observed in this study, comparable to  
224 previous studies performed in urban areas of Europe, e.g., Gothenburg ( $55 \pm 8\%$ ) and Zurich ( $70 \pm$   
225  $7\%$ ) (Szidat et al., 2009;Zhang et al., 2013). Moreover, the  $f_m$  values for WSOC ( $70 \pm 8\%$ ) were  
226 slightly higher than those for WINSOC, which showed values comparable to those observed in  
227 European and American cities ( $\sim 70$ –85%) (Weber et al., 2007a;Szidat et al., 2009;Zhang et al.,  
228 2013). A higher  $f_m$  value indicated that, for WSOC, the contribution of NF emission sources was  
229 greater. WSOC is regarded as a mixture of SOC and BB-derived POC, whereas WINSOC is

230 mainly composed of POC from FF combustion, BB and biogenic sources. In this study, the ratio  
231 of WSOC to OC increased significantly with an increase in the proportion of NF sources in OC ( $r$   
232 = 0.531,  $p=0.016$ ); this implies that POC from BB is more water-soluble, or that more NF-derived  
233 VOCs were involved in SOC formation.

### 234 3.3 Source apportionment of different carbon fractions

235 A source apportionment model for carbonaceous aerosols, including primary and secondary  
236 sources, was applied in this study using measured carbon fractions, anhydrosugars, and  $^{14}\text{C}$   
237 isotopic signals. Detailed information on this model has been provided previously (Liu et al.,  
238 2014a; Liu et al., 2016a).

239 Briefly, EC from FF combustion ( $\text{EC}_f$ ) and BB-derived EC ( $\text{EC}_{bb}$ ) can be estimated using the  
240 following respective equations:

$$241 \quad \text{EC}_f = \text{EC} \times (1-f_c) \quad [1]$$

$$242 \quad \text{EC}_{bb} = \text{EC} \times f_c \quad [2]$$

243 Similar to EC, OC can be divided into FF OC ( $\text{OC}_f$ ) and NF OC ( $\text{OC}_{nf}$ ) based on  $^{14}\text{C}$   
244 concentrations.  $\text{OC}_{nf}$  consists of BB-derived primary OC ( $\text{POC}_{bb}$ ), NF-derived SOC ( $\text{SOC}_{nf}$ ) and  
245 biological primary carbon (BPC), such as spore and plant debris. BPC particles exist mainly in  
246 coarse fractions ( $> 2.5 \mu\text{m}$ ) and only account for  $\sim 1\%$  of OC in  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  [Guo et al., 2012]. Thus, this  
247 carbon fraction was ignored in the present study.  $\text{POC}_{bb}$  can be semi-quantitatively estimated from  
248 Lev concentrations, due to its unique characteristic of originating from BB, as follows:

$$249 \quad \text{POC}_{bb} = \text{Lev} \times (\text{OC}/\text{Lev})_{bb} \quad [3]$$

250 According to the levoglucosan/mannosan ( $\text{Lev}/\text{Man}$ ;  $17.4 \pm 5.9$ ) and mannosan/galactosan  
251 ( $\text{Man}/\text{Gal}$ ;  $2.1 \pm 0.3$ ) ratios obtained in this study,  $7.76 \pm 1.47$  was adopted as the  $(\text{OC}/\text{Lev})_{bb}$

252 value [Liu et al., 2014].

253 Thus, the  $\text{SOC}_{\text{nf}}$  fraction can be estimated through subtraction:

$$254 \quad \text{SOC}_{\text{nf}} = \text{OC}_{\text{nf}} - \text{POC}_{\text{bb}} \quad [4]$$

255 FF-derived POC and SOC can be estimated by the following respective equations:

$$256 \quad \text{POC}_{\text{f}} = \text{WINSOC} \times (1-f_{\text{c}}) \quad [5]$$

$$257 \quad \text{SOC}_{\text{f}} = \text{WSOC} \times (1-f_{\text{c}}) \quad [6]$$

258 Figure 2 shows the proportions of different carbon fractions, including  $\text{EC}_{\text{f}}$ ,  $\text{EC}_{\text{bb}}$ ,  $\text{POC}_{\text{bb}}$ ,  $\text{POC}_{\text{f}}$ ,  
259  $\text{SOC}_{\text{nf}}$  and  $\text{SOC}_{\text{f}}$ , in total carbon (TC) for the 10 urban cites during the sampling period. On  
260 average, the largest contributor to TC was  $\text{SOC}_{\text{nf}}$ , accounting for  $46 \pm 7\%$  of TC, followed by  
261  $\text{SOC}_{\text{f}}$  ( $16 \pm 3\%$ ),  $\text{POC}_{\text{bb}}$  ( $13 \pm 5\%$ ),  $\text{POC}_{\text{f}}$  ( $12 \pm 3\%$ ),  $\text{EC}_{\text{f}}$  ( $7 \pm 2\%$ ) and  $\text{EC}_{\text{bb}}$  ( $6 \pm 2\%$ ). The  
262 proportion of primary sources ( $\text{POC}_{\text{nf}} + \text{POC}_{\text{f}} + \text{EC}_{\text{nf}} + \text{EC}_{\text{f}}$ ) (average =  $38 \pm 9\%$ ; range: 25–56%)  
263 was lower than that of secondary sources ( $\text{SOC}_{\text{nf}} + \text{SOC}_{\text{f}}$ ) (average =  $62 \pm 9\%$ ; range: 35–83%),  
264 which underlines the importance of SOC in carbonaceous pollution.

265 It should be noted that the model uncertainties in these contributions depended mainly on  
266 correction factors, such as the  $(\text{POC}/\text{Lev})_{\text{bb}}$  emission ratios for wood burning, and on conversion  
267 factors used for determining the  $f_{\text{c}}$  in  $^{14}\text{C}$  analysis. Typical relative uncertainties were recently  
268 estimated, using a similar modelling approach, at 20–25 % for  $\text{SOC}_{\text{nf}}$ ,  $\text{SOC}_{\text{f}}$ ,  $\text{POC}_{\text{bb}}$ , and  $\text{POC}_{\text{f}}$ ,  
269 and ~13% for  $\text{EC}_{\text{f}}$ , and  $\text{EC}_{\text{bb}}$  (Zhang et al., 2015a). A large fraction WINSOC can be from  
270 secondary organic aerosol as well. Hence  $\text{POC}_{\text{f}}$  is an upper limit of  $\text{POC}_{\text{f}}$ .  $\text{SOC}_{\text{f}}$  may be  
271 overestimated if a small fraction (e.g. <20%) WSOC is not secondary, so  $\text{SOC}_{\text{f}}$  may be an upper  
272 limit. Meanwhile,  $\text{SOC}_{\text{nf}}$  may also include other non-fossil sources such as cooking and biogenic  
273 emissions, however, they should be limited during wintertime (e.g., <20%). Therefore, our

274 estimates of SOC many generally represent an upper limit but this will not change our conclusion  
275 towards to the spatial distribution of SOC in China.

276 POC and EC aerosols are independent from atmospheric gas reaction conditions and thus  
277 directly reflect the characteristics of local emission sources. The total proportions of EC<sub>f</sub> and POC<sub>f</sub>  
278 ranged from 10–38%, with an average of  $19 \pm 9\%$  for all sites. The total proportions of EC<sub>f</sub> and  
279 POC<sub>f</sub> in northern and southern China were greater than in western central and eastern coastal  
280 China, indicating a higher impact of FF on local air pollution in both regions. The ratios of POC<sub>f</sub>  
281 to EC<sub>f</sub> (0.66–3.32) were within the emission ratios between coal combustion (2.7–6.1) (Zhang et  
282 al., 2008) and traffic exhausts fumes (0.5–1.3) (Zhou et al., 2014; He et al., 2008), indicating that  
283 coal combustion and traffic exhaust fumes were the major primary sources at all sites. Beijing (2.6)  
284 and Xinxiang (3.3) were mainly dominated by coal combustion emissions. The total proportions  
285 of EC<sub>bb</sub> and POC<sub>bb</sub> ranged from 12–36%, with an average of  $19 \pm 8\%$ . West central cities, such as  
286 Lanzhou, Chengdu, Guiyang, Nanjing and Wuhan, had large proportions of EC<sub>bb</sub> and POC<sub>bb</sub>  
287 (average =  $23 \pm 7\%$ ; range: 14–36%), which confirms the greater impact of BB on local air  
288 pollution in West central China; this should be considered when setting future limits for polluting  
289 corporations.

290 Total SOC in OC ranged from 42–84% (average =  $72 \pm 10\%$ ) among the sites tested in this study,  
291 which is similar to recent studies, conducted in the haze period in China of January 2013, which  
292 used high-resolution aerosol mass spectrometry; i.e., 41–59% [Sun et al., 2014] and 44–71%  
293 [Huang et al., 2014] obtained from online and offline measurements, respectively. There was no  
294 significant difference in the SOC/OC ratio among the different regions in China studied herein,  
295 except for Guiyang, which had a somewhat lower SOC/OC ratio. Moreover, SOC was comprised

296 predominantly of NF sources at all sites (67–89%), except at Guiyang with values of 42–53%,  
297 which are similar to areas in developed countries with good air quality, such as Puy de Dôme,  
298 France (86–88%) and Schauinsland, Germany (84–93%) [Gelencsér et al., 2007]. However, our  
299 values were higher than those of previous studies conducted in China during other winter and  
300 spring seasons, indicating the importance of NF to SOC in China during early winter.

### 301 **3.4 Comparison of chemicals between samples by PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentration**

302 Two samples, one each with a low and high PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentration, were obtained from all 10 study  
303 sites (Figure S1) for <sup>14</sup>C and inorganic ions analysis, to investigate the composition of  
304 carbonaceous aerosols and evaluate the importance of FF and NF carbon in haze formation across  
305 China in early winter. During sampling, the air masses generally moved in a northwesterly to  
306 northeasterly direction to reach the site. The 5-day back trajectory analysis revealed relatively  
307 lower concentrations of PM<sub>2.5</sub> when the wind speed was higher, and relatively higher PM<sub>2.5</sub> levels  
308 when the wind speed was lower and more stable; synoptic conditions apparently promoted the  
309 accumulation of particles (Figure 3).

310 Theoretically, the aerosol composition at higher wind speeds should reflect regional background  
311 aerosol characteristics. Figure 3 shows the PM<sub>2.5</sub> chemical compositions of the stage for lower  
312 PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentration during sampling period. Here, due to the different conversion factors used to  
313 transform WINSOC to WINSOM (1.3), and WSOC to WSOM (2.1), OM calculations were based  
314 on the relative contributions of WSOC and WINSOC to OC. TOM is the sum of EC, WINSOM  
315 and WSOM. Generally, TOM contributions to PM<sub>2.5</sub> ranged from 21–38%, except in Guiyang  
316 where a value of 8% was observed. Moreover, OM was comprised mainly of NF emissions. In  
317 cities in northern China (Beijing, Xinxiang and Taiyuan), the contribution of WINSOM (both FF

318 and NF) was greater, indicating that POC played a major role in regional air quality during this  
319 season. Simultaneously, the lower  $\text{NO}_3^-/\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  ratios also implied that POC from FFs might be  
320 derived predominantly from coal combustion. The 5-day back trajectory analysis showed that the  
321 air mass came from northern China, including regions such as Inner Mongolia and Hebei province,  
322 where the ambient temperature is always below 10°C during this season. It is very common for  
323 local rural residents to burn coal or biomass fuel to generate heat for their households. Therefore,  
324 coal and biomass fuel combustion in northern China might be the major contributor to regional  
325 carbonaceous aerosols in northern China during this season. In other cities, WSOM levels in both  
326 FF and NF were much higher than those in WINSOM, showing the importance of SOC across  
327 China. However,  $\text{NO}_3^-/\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  ratios in Shanghai, Nanjing and Wuhan were much higher than in  
328 other areas. The back trajectory results showed that the air mass came from northern China or the  
329 Yangtze River Delta, implying that traffic exhaust emissions in those regions was more important  
330 for carbonaceous aerosol composition.

331 The chemical compositions of the higher  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  samples obtained in each city are shown in  
332 Figure 3. There were no dramatic changes in the carbon source or composition in any of the cities;  
333 however, the contribution of EC and WINSOM to both fossil and NF fuels increased significantly,  
334 along with the  $\text{NO}_3^-/\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  ratios, indicating the importance of POC from local regions. The back  
335 trajectory results showed that wind speeds were moderate and stable, and that synoptic conditions  
336 apparently promoted the accumulation of particles derived either from local or regional sources.

#### 337 **4. Conclusion**

338  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  samples were collected continuously from 10 Chinese urban cities during early winter  
339 2013.  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ , OC and EC levels were highest in northern China, with maximum concentrations of

340 482  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (Taiyuan, n=31), 75.9  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (Taiyuan, n=31) and 19.3  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (Beijing, n=31),  
341 respectively. The  $^{14}\text{C}$  results, for the lower and higher  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  concentration sample pairs obtained  
342 in each city, indicated that, overall, NF emissions constituted a significant proportion of TC  
343 (average =  $65 \pm 7\%$ ) at all sites, i.e., higher than FF sources. Furthermore, about half of the EC  
344 was derived primarily from BB (average =  $46 \pm 11\%$ ), and over half of the OC fraction came from  
345 NF sources (average =  $68 \pm 7\%$ ). Source apportionment analysis was done using  $^{14}\text{C}$  and unique  
346 molecular organic tracers. On average, the largest contributor to TC was  $\text{SOC}_{\text{nf}}$ , accounting for  $46$   
347  $\pm 7\%$  of TC, followed by  $\text{SOC}_{\text{f}}$  ( $16 \pm 3\%$ ),  $\text{POC}_{\text{bb}}$  ( $13 \pm 5\%$ ),  $\text{POC}_{\text{f}}$  ( $12 \pm 3\%$ ),  $\text{EC}_{\text{f}}$  ( $7 \pm 2\%$ ) and  
348  $\text{EC}_{\text{bb}}$  ( $6 \pm 2\%$ ). When relatively lower  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  concentrations were observed, OM was dominant in  
349 carbonaceous aerosols, mainly from NF. POC played a major role in regional air quality in the  
350 cities in northern China, while SOC contributed more in cities in other regions of China, such as  
351 Nanjing and Wuhan. During haze days, there were no dramatic changes in carbon sources or  
352 carbon compositions in the sampled cities, but the contributions of POC were relatively higher  
353 than the non-haze days.

354

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362        **Reference**

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Table 1 The PM<sub>2.5</sub>, OC and EC data used in this study (average ± standard deviation; μg m<sup>-3</sup>)

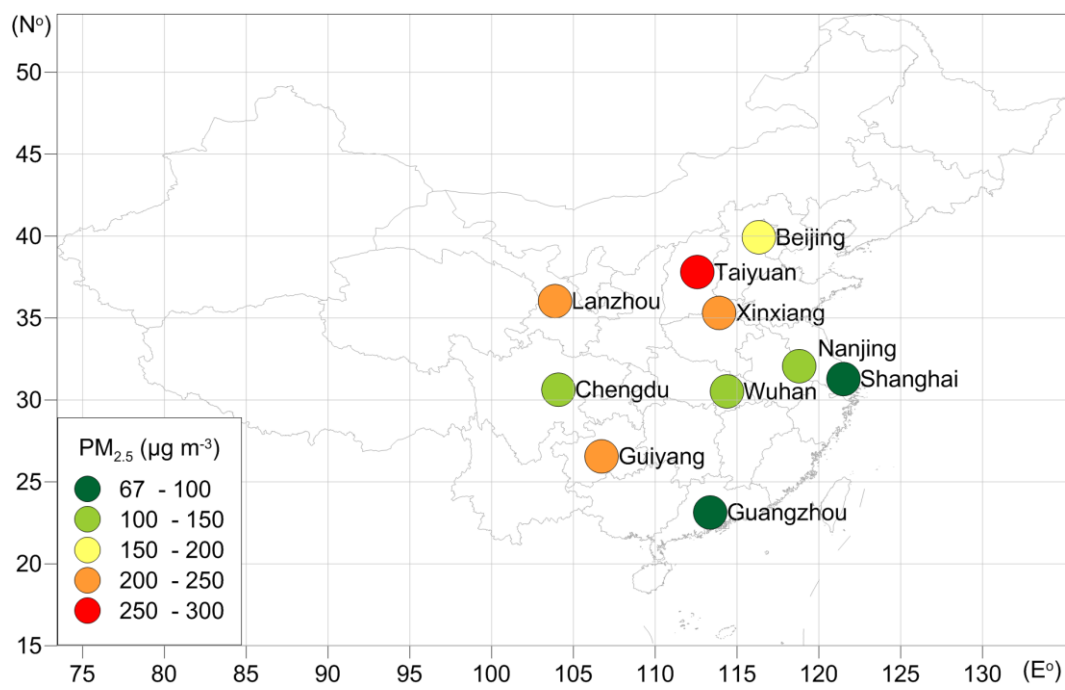
Sites	N	PM <sub>2.5</sub>	OC	EC	OM/PM <sub>2.5</sub> (%)	OC/EC
Beijing	31	189±79	26.5±12.5	3.6±1.8	24±4.6	7.7±1.8
Xinxiang	31	245±65	29.3±11.7	4.8±2.2	21±4.9	6.5±1.9
Taiyuan	31	285±84	37.3±15.5	7.8±2.8	23±4.4	4.9±1.5
Lanzhou	31	212±112	21.4±9.1	5.0±2.7	19±3.9	4.8±1.2
Guiyang	30	227±77	7.5±4.4	0.76±0.5	6.0±3.4	11±4.4
Chengdu	26	105±39	17.7±8.1	1.8±0.8	28±4.8	10±3.0
Wuhan	22	123±49	17.5±8.3	2.0±1.2	24±8.5	9.6±2.7
Guangzhou	28	85±32	17.4±9.9	2.3±1.8	33±11	8.1±2.4
Nanjing	19	111±50	18.8±8.7	1.6±0.6	28±9.3	12±3.8
Shanghai	27	68±43	7.2±9.0	1.0±0.9	17±8.5	7.4±3.0

Table 2 Proportion of modern carbon in WSOC, WINSOC, OC, EC, TC, and anhydrosugar, and ratio data for 10 urban cites in China for the period October 2013 to November 2013

	Start date	PM <sub>2.5</sub>	WSOC	WINSOC	EC	f <sub>m</sub> (WSOC)	f <sub>m</sub> (WINSOC)	f <sub>m</sub> (OC)	f <sub>m</sub> (EC)	f <sub>m</sub> (TC)	Lev	Lev/OC	Gal	Man
Beijing1	11/3/2013	88	5.49	5.62	1.4	0.72	0.73	0.72	0.51	0.70	176	15.9	31.7	65.1
Beijing2	11/5/2013	298	23.7	29.2	6.47	0.63	0.67	0.65	0.49	0.63	398	7.50	38.6	79.3
Xinxiang1	10/15/2013	132	4.71	17.7	4.30	0.65	0.51	0.54	0.38	0.51	553	24.7	29.3	52.1
Xinxiang2	10/22/2013	320	9.29	39.8	6.73	0.64	0.63	0.63	0.35	0.60	601	12.3	31.8	60.8
Taiyuan1	10/25/2013	177	15.9	12.5	5.90	0.81	0.66	0.74	0.44	0.69	518	18.2	28.4	56.4
Taiyuan2	10/26/2013	314	26.9	26.9	14.2	0.58	0.52	0.55	0.28	0.50	672	12.5	36.3	86.4
Lanzhou1	10/20/2013	123	13.8	2.81	3.74	0.72	0.58	0.70	0.56	0.67	442	26.7	22.6	53.8
Lanzhou2	10/23/2013	199	25.1	7.64	7.51	0.67	0.65	0.66	0.42	0.62	439	13.4	21.4	51.5
Guiyang1	10/31/2013	125	3.74	1.18	0.64	0.57	0.81	0.63	0.71	0.64	247	50.1	16.4	35.5
Guiyang2	11/6/2013	287	9.41	4.36	2.04	0.52	0.78	0.61	0.55	0.60	436	31.7	24.7	64.6
Chengdu1	10/31/2013	53.8	4.40	0.86	0.63	0.87	0.55	0.82	0.51	0.79	198	37.6	13.2	21.2
Chengdu2	11/8/2013	109	14.7	5.59	4.77	0.78	0.71	0.76	0.49	0.71	368	18.2	27.9	46.6
Wuhan1	10/26/2013	73.2	13.0	3.59	1.40	0.69	0.71	0.69	0.42	0.67	344	20.7	15.1	32.0
Wuhan2	10/30/2013	182	25.9	18.1	4.94	0.75	0.73	0.74	0.54	0.72	324	7.37	16.3	30.1
Nanjing1	10/27/2013	88.2	14.3	2.04	1.48	0.73	0.62	0.72	0.51	0.70	235	14.4	11.9	23.7
Nanjing2	10/29/2013	149	26.5	7.91	3.42	0.65	0.63	0.64	0.43	0.63	520	15.1	18.6	30.9
Guangzhou1	10/28/2013	67.2	7.40	3.89	2.20	0.79	0.64	0.74	0.41	0.68	161	14.3	10.5	25.3
Guangzhou2	10/29/2013	149	23.1	20.7	5.55	0.69	0.58	0.64	0.24	0.59	279	6.37	13.7	35.6
Shanghai1	10/20/2013	63.2	6.39	1.70	1.58	0.78	0.57	0.73	0.56	0.71	165	20.4	9.77	19.7
Shanghai2	10/23/2013	209	23.8	18.2	5.72	0.75	0.60	0.68	0.33	0.67	468	11.1	18.8	37.2

Note: all fractions are in  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ , except for levoglucosan (Lev), galactosan (Gal) and mannosan (Man) (all  $\text{ng m}^{-3}$ ).

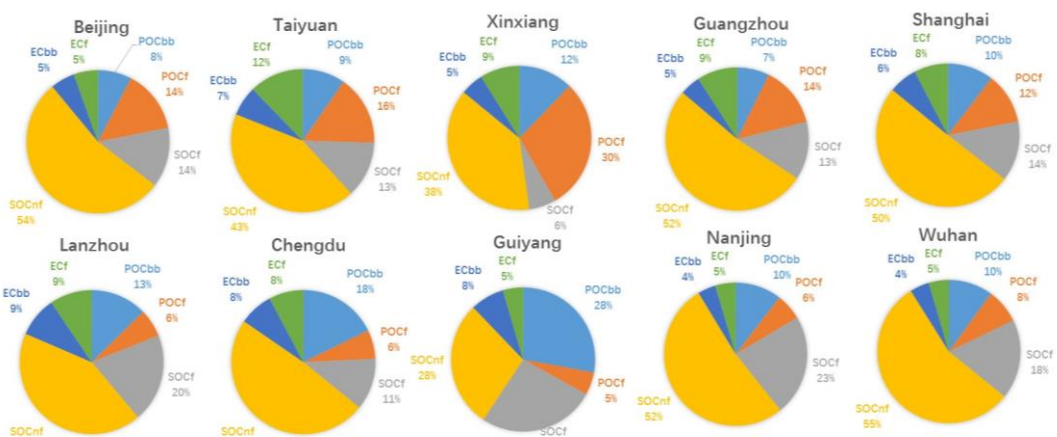




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587 Figure 1. Geographic locations of the 10 Chinese sampling sites. The averages of monitored PM<sub>2.5</sub>  
 588 concentrations (daily resolution, n = 31 for each site) during sampling campaign are shown in  
 589 color plots.

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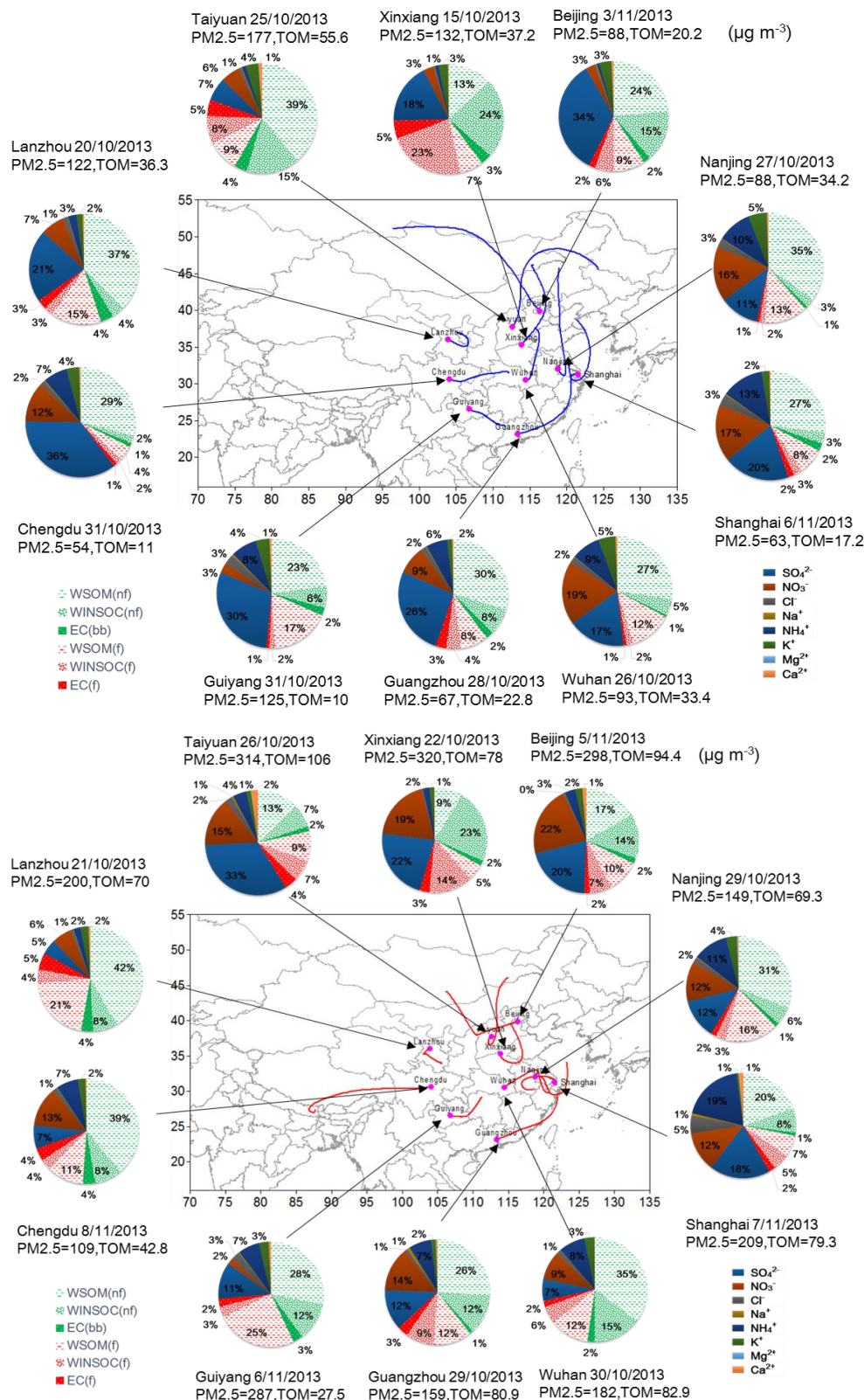


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593 Figure 2. The proportions of different carbon fractions, including elemental carbon derived from  
 594 fossil fuels (EC<sub>f</sub>), EC derived from burning biomass (EC<sub>bb</sub>), BB-derived primary organic carbon  
 595 (POC<sub>bb</sub>), POC derived from FF (POC<sub>f</sub>), non-FF secondary OC (SOC<sub>nf</sub>) and SOC derived from FF  
 596 (SOC<sub>f</sub>) in total carbon (TC) for 10 urban cites during the sampling period.

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600 Figure 3. The chemical compositions of fine particles (PM<sub>2.5</sub>) under non-haze (top) and haze  
 601 (bottom) conditions during the sampling period. Air mass 5-day back trajectories (Blue and red  
 602 lines) for the selected samples are modeled at 500m above ground level by Air Resources  
 603 Laboratory, National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (Hybrid Single Particle Lagrangian

604 Integrated Trajectory Model).

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