



1 Fossil fuel combustion, biomass burning and biogenic sources 2 of fine carbonaceous aerosol in the Carpathian Basin

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9 **Abstract.** Fine-fraction aerosol samples were collected, air pollutants and meteorological
10 properties were measured in-situ in regional background environment of the Carpathian Basin,
11 a suburban area and central part of its largest city, Budapest in each season for 1 year-long time
12 interval. The samples were analysed for PM_{2.5} mass, organic carbon (OC), elemental carbon
13 (EC), water-soluble OC (WSOC), radiocarbon, levoglucosan (LVG) and its stereoisomers, and
14 some chemical elements. Carbonaceous aerosol species made up 36% of the PM_{2.5} mass with
15 a modest seasonal variation and with a slightly increasing tendency from the regional
16 background to the city centre (from 32 to 39%). Coupled radiocarbon-LVG marker method
17 was applied to apportion the total carbon (TC=OC+EC) into contributions of EC and OC from
18 fossil fuel (FF) combustion (EC_{FF} and OC_{FF}, respectively), EC and OC from biomass burning
19 (BB) (EC_{BB} and OC_{BB}, respectively) and OC from biogenic sources (OC_{BIO}). Fossil fuel
20 combustion showed rather constant daily or seasonal mean contributions (of 35%) to the TC in
21 the whole year in all atmospheric environments, while the daily contributions of BB and
22 biogenic sources changed radically (from <2 up to 70–85%) over the seasons at all locations.
23 In autumn, the three major sources contributed equally to the TC in all environments. In winter,
24 it was the BB that was the major source with a share of 70% at all sites. The contributions from
25 biogenic sources in winter were the smallest, although they were still non-negligible with an
26 increasing share (from 5 to 8%) from the regional background to the urban sites. In spring, FF
27 combustion and biogenic sources were the largest two contributors at all locations with typical
28 shares of 45–50% each. In summer, biogenic sources became the major source type with a
29 monotonically increasing tendency (from 56 to 72%) from the city centre to the regional
30 background. The share of BB was hardly quantifiable in summer. The EC_{FF} made up more than
31 90% of EC in spring and summer, while in autumn and winter, the contributions of EC_{BB} were
32 considerable. Biomass burning in winter and autumn offers the largest and considerable
33 potentials for improving the air quality in cities as well as in rural areas of the Carpathian Basin.



1 Introduction and objectives

Carbonaceous aerosol constituents make up a major part (e.g. 20–60% in the continental mid-latitudes and up to 90% in tropical forests) of the $PM_{2.5}$ mass (Kanakidou et al., 2005; Fuzzi et al., 2015). Their largest emission or production source types are fossil fuel (FF) combustion, biomass burning (BB) and biogenic sources (Le Queré et al., 2018). These processes also represent the highest source of certain important aerosol species such as soot and of some pollutant or greenhouse gases such as CO, NO_x , CO_2 and volatile organic compounds (VOCs) on global scale (Wiedinmyer et al., 2011; Tian et al., 2016). The sources produce both primary and secondary particles, and they are linked directly or indirectly to a variety of anthropogenic activities in many ways (Hallquist et al., 2009). The perturbations in atmospheric concentrations and chemical, physical and meteorological properties caused by these sources have important consequences on the Earth system. They include the radiation balance (Lohmann et al., 2000), cloud formation/properties, water cycling and other biogeochemical cycles (Andreae and Rosenfeld, 2008; Cecchini et al., 2017), atmospheric chemistry and nucleation (Fuzzi et al., 2015; Nozière et al., 2015; Kirkby et al., 2016), atmospheric transport/mixing (Rosenfeld et al., 2019), forest growth and agriculture production (Artaxo et al., 2009; Rap et al., 2015), ecosystems (Cirino et al., 2014), built environment and cultural heritage (Bonazza et al., 2005), and human health/wellbeing (Lelieveld and Pöschl, 2017; Burnett et al., 2018). Some particular sources, e.g. fuel wood or agricultural residue burnings are expected to be increased due to their role in decentralised and substitute energy production (Vicente and Alves, 2018). At the same time, their potential disadvantages and risk have been less recognised (Hays et al., 2003; Chen et al., 2017). It is, therefore, highly relevant to estimate the relative contribution of FF combustion, BB and biogenic sources to major carbonaceous aerosol species, namely to organic carbon (OC) and elemental carbon (EC).

58

Huge number, composite character, spatial and temporal variability of the sources together with the complex mixture and atmospheric transformation of their products make the quantification of these source types or their inventory-based source assessment challenging (Nozière et al., 2015). There are several methods to apportion the particulate matter (PM) mass or carbonaceous species among some or all major source types. They include source-specific marker methods (Fraser et al., 2000; Szidat et al., 2006, 2009; Minguillón et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2012; Bernardoni et al., 2013), multi-wavelength optical methods (Sandradewi et al., 2008a, 2008b; Zotter et al., 2017; Forello et al., 2019) and various multivariate statistical



67 methods based on online or offline data (Hopke, 2016; Maenhaut et al., 2016). The latter
68 approaches are recently also combined with dedicated molecular tracers/fragments and mass
69 spectrometry or advanced optical techniques (Stefenelli et al., 2019). The marker methods are
70 advantageous from the point of view that they do not demand many samples or very extensive
71 data sets and that the required analytical data are ordinarily available in related studies. Among
72 the most frequently and successfully adopted two markers are radiocarbon (^{14}C , $T_{1/2}=5730$ y),
73 which is used for quantifying FF combustion and levoglucosan (LVG, monosaccharide
74 anhydride $\text{C}_6\text{H}_{10}\text{O}_5$), which is utilised for assessing BB. The latter molecule is often applied
75 together with its stereoisomers mannosan (MAN) and galactosan (GAN) since their
76 concentration ratios were connected to biomass type (e.g. hardwood or softwood; Fine et al.,
77 2004; Schmidl et al., 2008). Formation, modelling utilisation, atmospheric processes and
78 analytical determinations of these markers together with their advantages and limitations were
79 described, evaluated and discussed in detail earlier (e.g. Simoneit et al., 1999, 2004; Fraser and
80 Lakshmanan, 2000; Nolte et al., 2001; Pashynska et al., 2002; Zdráhal et al., 2002; Puxbaum
81 et al., 2007; Saarikoski et al., 2008; Caseiro et al., 2009; Fabbri et al., 2009; Szidat et al., 2006,
82 2009; Favez et al., 2010; Hennigan et al., 2010; Hoffmann et al., 2010; Kourchev et al., 2011;
83 Piazzalunga et al., 2011; Maenhaut et al., 2012, 2016; Yttri et al., 2014). The coupled
84 radiocarbon-LVG marker method, introduced recently (Salma et al., 2017), is a combination
85 of the two approaches and it allows to apportion the TC ($\text{TC}=\text{OC}+\text{EC}$) among all major source
86 types, thus among the contributions of EC and OC from FF combustion (EC_{FF} and OC_{FF} ,
87 respectively), EC and OC from BB (EC_{BB} and OC_{BB} , respectively), and OC from biogenic
88 sources (OC_{BIO}).

89
90 Water-soluble OC (WSOC) is also an important carbonaceous aerosol species because it is
91 considered as an indicator of secondary organic aerosol (SOA) or carbonaceous particles after
92 atmospheric chemical aging (Claeys et al., 2010). It is related to more oxygenated chemical
93 species than freshly emitted or formed organic constituents, and this class of molecules is
94 expected to contribute substantially to cloud condensation nuclei (CCN) activity of particles
95 and represent potentially larger negative health effects of particulate mass deposited in the
96 human respiratory system due to its solubility (Hallquist et al., 2009; Fuzzi et al., 2015; Nozière
97 et al., 2015).

98
99 Despite their overall role together with the health, climate and environmental effects, there are
100 serious gaps in our knowledge on FF combustion, BB and biogenic sources – particularly on



the latter type in more polluted or urban areas. Information on the properties of the major apportioned or secondary carbonaceous aerosol species and on their relationships with other atmospheric quantities have been missing internationally on extended spatial scales as well as on larger cities. The Carpathian Basin (also known as the Pannonian Basin) is the largest, topographically well separated, orogenic basin in Europe (Salma et al., 2016b). Its land is mostly used for intensive agriculture and farming, while larger forested areas with deciduous, coniferous or mixed wood occur in the inner and bounding mountains. Weather situations within the basin are generally uniform, which makes it advantageous for studying atmospheric phenomena and processes. Budapest with 2.3 million inhabitants in the metropolitan area and with its central geographical location is the largest and principal city in the basin. The mean green space intensity – which indicates the healthy green coverage – for Budapest in 2015 was estimated from Landsat satellite images to be approximately 50% with spatial variations from 19% in the city centre to 55% in the suburban zone (Tatai et al., 2017).

As part of a research project, we collected aerosol samples in the regional background atmospheric environment of the Carpathian Basin, suburban area and city centre of Budapest in each season for 1 year-long time interval and analysed them for various aerosol constituents, which are required for source apportionment. The analytical results were complemented by supporting air pollutant and meteorological data as well. The major objectives of the present paper are to report the main findings of this research, to discuss the properties and contributions of FF combustion, BB and biogenic sources and related atmospheric processes, to interpret the relationships among various variables for different environmental types and seasons, and to formulate some general conclusions on air quality of the region and city.

2 Methods

2.1 Collection of aerosol samples and in-situ measurements

The aerosol samples were collected at three sites in Hungary, in a rural background area and at two urban sites in Budapest (Fig. 1). The samplings at the rural location were realised at Kpuszta station (N 46° 57' 56", E 19° 32' 42", 125 m above mean sea level, a.s.l.), which is situated on the Great Hungarian Plain in a clearing within a mixed forest of coniferous and deciduous trees (Salma et al., 2016a). The station is part of the European monitoring and evaluation of the long-range transmission of air pollutants programme (EMEP network) and represents the largest/main area (regional background) of the Carpathian Basin. One of the

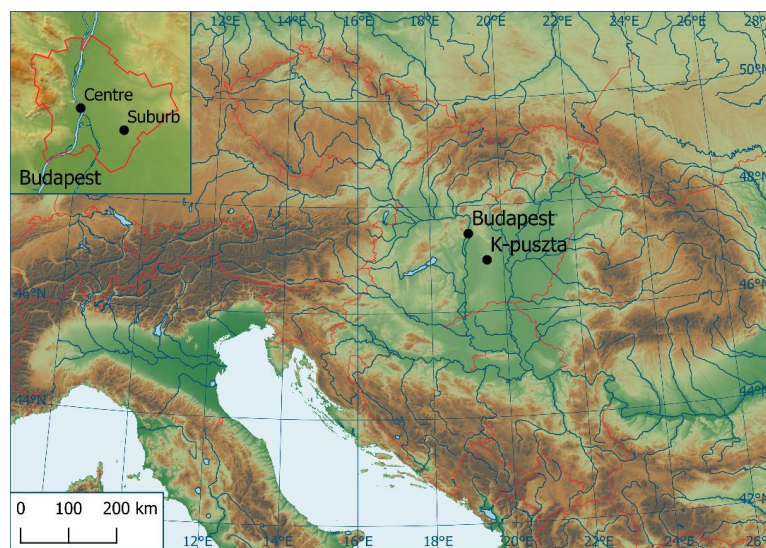


Figure 1. The Carpathian Basin with location of the sampling sites in Budapest (city centre and suburban area) and at K-pusztá station (regional background).

urban sites was at an open suburban area of residential Budapest at the Marczell György Main Observatory of the Hungarian Meteorological Service (N 47° 25' 46", E 19°10' 54", 138 m a.s.l.). The collections at the other urban location were performed at the Budapest platform for Aerosol Research and Training (BpART) Laboratory of the Eötvös University (N 47° 28' 30", E 19° 03' 45", 115 m a.s.l.). The latter site is situated on the bank of the Danube and represents a well-mixed average atmosphere of the city centre (Salma et al., 2016a). Some details of the sampling campaign are summarised in Table 1.

The aerosol sampling was realised by three identical high-volume DHA-80 devices equipped with PM_{2.5} inlets (Digitel, Switzerland). The collection substrates were quartz fibre filters with a diameter of 150 mm (QR-100, Advantec, Japan). Daily aerosol samples were taken starting at 00:00 LT (LT=UTC+1 or daylight-saving time UTC+2). The sampled air volumes were ca. 720 m³. One field blank sample was also taken at each site and season. All filters were pre-heated at 500 °C for 24 h before the exposure and were stored in a freezer after the collections.



Table 1. Start and end dates of the sampling periods and number of aerosol samples collected in regional background of the Carpathian Basin, suburban area and city centre of Budapest in different seasons. Initials of the consecutive months allocated to the seasons are indicated in brackets.

Site type	Season/ Sample	Autumn (SON)	Winter (DJF)	Spring (MAM)	Summer (JJA)
Region	Period Number	18–31. 10. 2017 14	09–22. 01. 2018 14	17–30. 04. 2018 14	17–30. 07. 2018 14
Suburb	Period Number	18–31. 10. 2017 14	06–22. 01. 2018 17	17–30. 04. 2018 14	17. 07–01. 08. 2018 14
Centre	Period Number	18–27. 10. 2017 7	10–16. 01. 2018 7	17–23. 04. 2018 7	17–23. 07. 2018 7

Total particle number concentrations (N_{6-1000}) were derived from a differential mobility particle sizer (DMPS) system with a time resolution of 8 min (Salma et al., 2019). The DMPS measurements have been performed continuously and according to the recommendations of international technical standards. Concentrations of criteria air pollutants, i.e. SO_2 , NO/NO_x , CO , O_3 and PM_{10} mass were obtained from regular stations of the National Air Quality Network. For the regional background and suburban area, they were measured directly at the sampling sites, while for the city centre, the pollutants were recorded in a distance of 4.5 km in the upwind prevailing direction from the sampling site. The concentrations are measured by UV fluorescence (Ysselbach 43C), chemiluminescence (Thermo 42C), IR absorption (Thermo 48i), UV absorption (Ysselbach 49C) and beta-ray attenuation methods (Thermo FH62-I-R), respectively with a time resolution of 1 h. Local meteorological data including air temperature (T), relative humidity (RH), wind speed (WS) and global solar electromagnetic radiation (GRad) were acquired by standardised meteorological methods at the sites with a time resolution of 10 min. According to our knowledge, there were no extensive agricultural burns or wild fires in the basin during to the actual sampling time intervals, and the BB in the area is expected to be dominated by biofuel utilisation.

2.2 Analysis of aerosol samples

The PM mass was determined by weighing each filter before and after the sampling on a microbalance with a sensitivity of 1 μg . The exposed and blank filters were pre-equilibrated before weighing at a T of 19–21°C and RH of 45–50% for at least 48 hours. The measured mass data for the exposed filters were corrected for the field blank values. A few PM mass data



190 were below the limit of quantitation (LOQ), which was approximately $6 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ or above but
191 very close to it.

192

193 One or two punches with an area of 1.0 or 1.5 cm^2 each of the filters were directly analysed by
194 thermal-optical transmission (TOT) method (Birch and Cary, 1996) using a laboratory OC/EC
195 analyser (Sunset Laboratory, USA) adopting the EUSAAR2 thermal protocol. The measured
196 OC data for the exposed filters were corrected for the field blank values, while the EC on the
197 blanks was negligible. All measured OC and EC data were above the LOQ, which was
198 approximately $0.09 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$.

199

200 One or two sections with an area of 2.5 cm^2 each of the filters were extracted in water, the
201 extracts were filtered, and the filtrates were analysed for WSOC by a Vario TOC cube analyser
202 (Elementar, Germany) in three repetitions with an injected volume of 1 ml each. The measured
203 WSOC data for the exposed filters were corrected for the field blank values. All measured
204 WSOC data were above the LOQ, which was ca. $0.08 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$.

205

206 A section with an area of 2 cm^2 of each filter was analysed for LVG, MAN and GAN by gas
207 chromatography/mass spectrometry (GC/MS) after trimethylsilylation (Blumberger et al.,
208 2019). The filter sections were extracted repeatedly by dichloromethane-methanol in an
209 ultrasonic bath. The extracts were filtered and spiked with an internal standard (IS) of methyl
210 β -L-arabinopyranoside. The trimethylsilylation was realised by hexamethyldisilazane as
211 silylating agent, pyridine as solvent and trifluoroacetic acid as catalyst at 70°C . The prepared
212 samples were analysed by a Varian 4000 GC-MS/MS system (USA) with a GC/MS column of
213 SGE forte BPX-5 capillary (length \times inner diameter $15 \text{ m}\times 0.25 \text{ mm}$; film thickness $0.25 \mu\text{m}$,
214 SGE, Australia). The quantification was carried out in the selected ion monitoring mode by
215 quantifier ions with mass-to-charge ratios of $m/z=204$ for LVG and of 217 for MAN, GAN and
216 IS. The LVG data for the exposed filters were corrected for blank values; while MAN and
217 GAN were not detected in the blanks. The LOQ for LVG and MAN was approximately 1.2 ng
218 m^{-3} , while it was approximately 0.5 ng m^{-3} for GAN. All LVG data were above the LOQ, while
219 the MAN and GAN could not be quantified in the summer samples.

220

221 Filters collected in parallel on seven overlapping days in each season were subjected to C
222 isotope analysis of the TC content by accelerator mass spectrometry (AMS) with an off-line
223 combustion system (Molnár et al., 2013; Janovics et al., 2018). Carbonaceous aerosol species



on eighth section of each filter were oxidised quantitatively to CO₂ gas (Major et al., 2018). This was later introduced into an IonPlus Enviro Mini Carbon Dating System spectrometer (Switzerland) via its dedicated gas ion source interface. The measured results for the exposed filters were corrected for the blank values. The ¹⁴C/¹²C ratios were also corrected for isotopic fractionation by using the ¹³C/¹²C ratios (Wacker et al., 2010) that were obtained simultaneously in the actual AMS measurements. The ¹⁴C/¹²C isotope ratios derived were also normalised to that of the oxalic acid II 4990C standard reference material (NIST, USA), and the measurement results were expressed as fraction of modern carbon (f_m), which denotes the ¹⁴C/¹²C ratio of the samples relative to that of the unperturbed atmosphere in the reference year of 1950 (Burr and Jull, 2009). Since majority of currently combusted fuel wood was growing during the interval of atmospheric nuclear fusion bomb tests in the late 1950s and early 1960s, the samples were corrected by a mean factor of 1.08 derived for the Northern Hemisphere (Szidat et al., 2009; Heal et al., 2011). Thus, the fraction of contemporary carbon (f_c) was calculated as $f_c = f_m / 1.08$. The same correction factor was also adopted for the TC from biogenic sources, although it is expected to show a somewhat smaller ¹⁴C abundance. The differences in the f_c caused by the refined correction factor are ordinarily small when compared to the method uncertainties (Minguillón et al., 2011) and, therefore, this effect was neglected.

241

A quarter section of each filter was utilized to determine the K (as a possible inorganic tracer for BB), Ni (as a possible tracer for residual oil combustion) and Pb (as a former tracer for vehicles with gasoline engine) content of the aerosol samples by inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectrometry using an iCAP7400 DUO instrument (Thermo Fischer Scientific, Germany). The filter sections were extracted by microwave-assisted HNO₃–H₂O₂ digestion. The analytical results for the exposed filters were corrected for the blank values. The LOQ values of the elements listed were approximately 0.02 µg m⁻³, 0.4 and 0.5 ng m⁻³, respectively, and most atmospheric concentration were above them.

2.3 Data evaluation and modelling

Concentrations of organic matter (OM) were derived from the OC data by a conversion factor of 1.4 for the regional background and suburban area, and of 1.6 suggested for the city centres (Turpin and Lim, 2001; Russell, 2003). It was estimated that the relative uncertainty associated with the conversion is approximately 30% (Maenhaut et al., 2012). Whenever it was possible, the comparisons of atmospheric concentration, other variables or their ratios with respect to sites or seasons were accomplished by calculating first the ratios on a sample-by-sample or



day-by-day basis and then by averaging these individual ratios for the subset under consideration.

259

The coupled radiocarbon-LVG marker method was utilised to apportion the TC among the EC_{FF} , OC_{FF} , EC_{BB} , OC_{BB} and OC_{BIO} (Salma et al., 2017). The method consists of pragmatic attribution steps, which are realised by multiplications with apportionment factors. The factors are calculated for each sample from measured TC, f_c , EC, OC and LVG concentrations as primary input data and from general, a priori known EC/OC ratio for BB $[(EC/OC)_{BB}]$ and OC/LVG ratio for BB $[(OC/LVG)_{BB}]$. They combined adaptation is related to subsequent and step wise subtraction of contemporary TC, EC_{BB} and OC_{BB} from TC on the one hand, and of EC_{FF} from fossil TC on the other hand. The apportionment factors are expressed as: $f_1=f_c$, $f_2=(OC/LVG)_{BB} \times LVG \times (EC/OC)_{BB} / f_1 / TC$, $f_3=(OC/LVG)_{BB} \times LVG / f_1 / (1-f_2) / TC$ and $f_4=(EC/TC - f_1 \times f_2) / (1-f_1)$ (Salma et al., 2017). For the $(EC/OC)_{BB}$ ratio, we implemented a mean of 17% derived from a critically evaluated ratio and standard deviation (SD) of $(16 \pm 5)\%$ (Szidat et al., 2006) and from a ratio and SD of $(18 \pm 4)\%$ (Bernardoni et al., 2011, 2013) obtained specifically for wood burning. As far as the $(OC/LVG)_{BB}$ ratio is concerned, its actual value depends predominantly on the wood types and burning conditions (Puxbaum et al., 2007). In the present study, an $(OC/LVG)_{BB}$ ratio of 5.59 was adopted (Schmidl et al., 2008). The mean apportionment factors separately for the different site types and seasons are summarised in Table S1 in the Supplement. It is the OC_{BIO} and OC_{BB} which are most sensitively influenced by the input uncertainties. Their relative uncertainty for some individual low concentrations could be up to 40–50%, while it is expected to be approximately 30% or smaller for the other carbonaceous species.

3 Results and discussion

General relationships that can exist among the atmospheric environments and seasons including coupled meteorological and chemical processes need to be overviewed before interpreting the spatial and temporal variability and tendencies in aerosol properties.

3.1 Differences and similarities among atmospheric environments and seasons

The median concentrations of SO_2 , NO, NO_2 and PM_{10} mass over the sampling time intervals were larger in the city centre than in the suburban area in all seasons (Table S2 in the Supplement). This can mainly be explained by their anthropogenic sources in the city centre,



288 mostly due to the increased intensity and density of road traffic. In contrast, the O_3 level was
289 substantially higher in the suburban area than in the city centre and considerably larger in the
290 regional background than in the suburban area. It tended to show a maximum in summer. This
291 behaviour is typical for large-scale O_3 formation mechanism. This all implies that there were
292 substantial differences in photochemical activity between the regional background and the
293 urban sites except for summer.

294

295 The meteorological data over the sampling time intervals are in accordance with ordinary
296 values and denote weather situations without extremes (Table S3 in the Supplement). The T
297 data indicate an urban heat island in central Budapest, particularly in winter and autumn. At
298 the regional site, there was snow cover with a thickness from 2 to 4 cm during the sample
299 collections in winter for approximately 4 days, while in the Budapest area, there was snow in
300 spots with a thickness of 1–2 cm for 2–3 days. The data suggest that there was somewhat milder
301 weather over the winter sample collections than usually present.

302

303 Time series of $PM_{2.5}$ mass, EC and WSOC over the sampling time intervals separately in the
304 different environments and seasons are shown in Figs. 2, 3 and 4, respectively. The former
305 variable represents the bulk fine PM; EC is a typical primary aerosol constituent, while WSOC
306 expresses the SOA. These species are rather different as far as their sources and properties are
307 concerned. Nevertheless, their concentrations often changed coherently at the locations with
308 the strongest link in winter. It can likely be explained by the common effects of regional
309 meteorology – particularly of boundary layer mixing height – in the Carpathian Basin
310 especially under anticyclonic weather situations. It seems that the daily evolution of the
311 regional meteorology and partially, the long-range transport of air masses often have higher
312 influence on the changes in atmospheric concentrations than the source intensities if the sources
313 are distributed over a large area (Salma et al., 2001, 2004). The strongest connection can be
314 related to cold air masses above the Carpathian Basin which generate a lasting T inversion layer
315 (the so-called cold pillow) and which restricts the vertical mixing and results in poor air quality
316 over extended areas of the basin in larger and smaller cities as well as in rural areas.

317

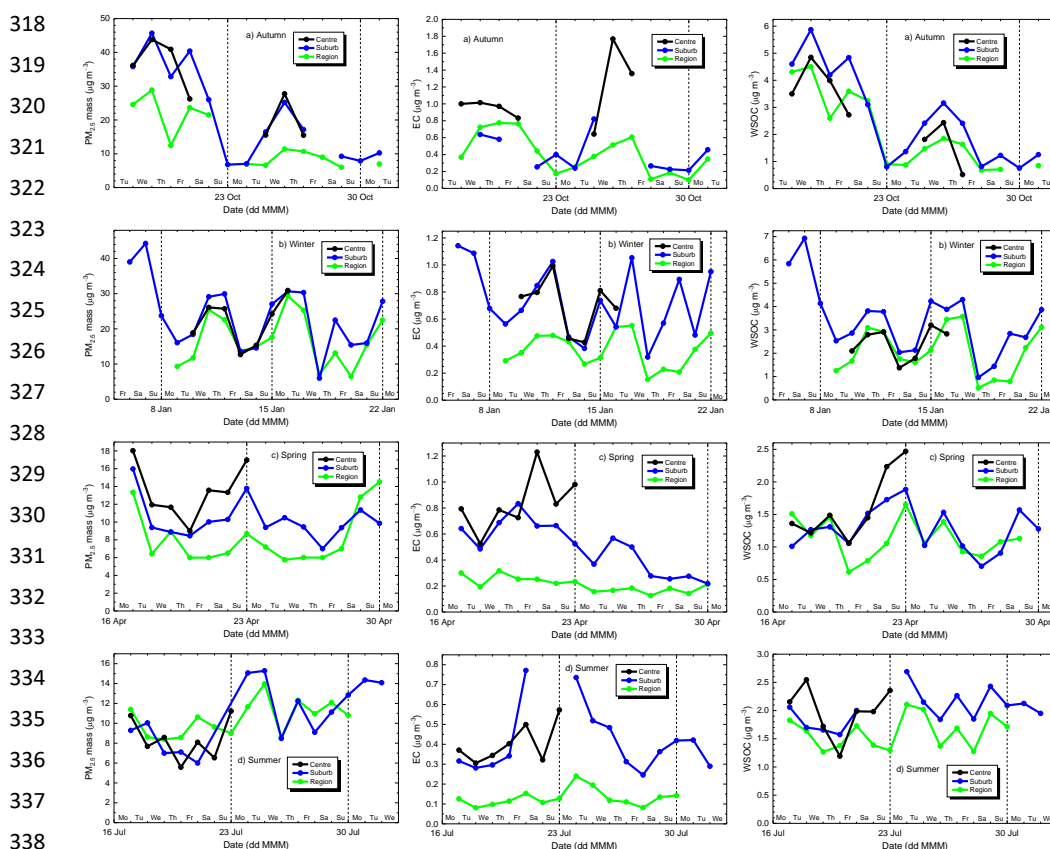


Figure 2. Time variation of $PM_{2.5}$ mass for regional background in the Carpathian Basin, suburban area and city centre of Budapest during the aerosol sampling time intervals in different seasons (a–d).

3.2 Tendencies in aerosol concentrations

Median atmospheric concentrations of the measured aerosol constituents separately for the different environmental types and seasons are presented in Table 2. The concentrations are in line with or somewhat smaller than the corresponding results obtained in earlier studies at the same or similar locations usually for shorter time intervals (Salma and Maenhaut, 2006; Kiss et al., 2002; Salma et al., 2004, 2007, 2013, 2017; Ion et al., 2005; Maenhaut et al., 2005, 2008;



369 Puxbaum et al., 2007; Blumberger et al., 2019). The $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ mass and OC concentrations in the
370 city centre were larger by a mean factor of 1.6–1.7 than in the regional background, while they
371 were similar to the suburban data. Their winter values were usually the largest, and they
372 reached the minimum in summer or spring.

373

374 The concentrations of EC increased monotonically in the order of the environments: regional
375 background, suburban area and city centre location by typical factors of 2 and 3, respectively.
376 In the regional background, the EC data for autumn and winter were similar to each other and
377 they were the largest. In the suburban area, the EC data showed a maximum in winter and a
378 minimum in summer. In the city centre, the EC levels in autumn, winter and spring were similar
379 to each other, and they all showed a minimum in summer. These can be explained by larger
380 intensity of soot emissions from incomplete burning (road vehicles, residential heating and
381 cooking by solid fuel), which is a typical anthropogenic source, and which is associated with
382 seasonal variation (e.g. due to residential heating) as well as with constant sources (e.g. due to
383 traffic or cooking) over a year.

384

385 The WSOC showed maximum medians in winter at all sites. In autumn and summer, the urban
386 locations had similar concentrations to each other, while it was somewhat smaller in the
387 regional background. In winter, the suburban site exhibited the maximum median
388 concentration. This is explained by larger influence of BB in this environment and season and
389 by higher water solubility of its products (see later and Sects. 3.3 and 3.5). In spring, the
390 medians had a monotonically increasing tendency from the regional background to the city
391 centre.

392



Table 2. Median atmospheric concentrations of PM_{2.5} mass, elemental carbon (EC), organic carbon (OC), water-soluble organic carbon (WSOC), levoglucosan (LVG), mannosan (MAN), galactosan (GAN), fraction of contemporary total carbon (f_c), K, Ni, Pb and total aerosol particle number (N_{6-1000}) for regional background in the Carpathian Basin, suburban area and city centre of Budapest in different seasons.

Constituent	Site type	Autumn	Winter	Spring	Summer
PM _{2.5} mass ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$)	Region	12.5	16.5	8.6	10.7
	Suburb	25	26	9.7	11.7
	Centre	28	24	13.3	8.2
EC ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$)	Region	0.37	0.36	0.20	0.122
	Suburb	0.45	0.68	0.51	0.35
	Centre	0.99	0.77	0.79	0.37
OC ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$)	Region	2.3	3.2	2.0	2.2
	Suburb	4.5	5.4	2.4	2.7
	Centre	6.6	4.6	2.8	2.6
WSOC ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$)	Region	1.63	2.0	1.08	1.66
	Suburb	2.4	3.8	1.27	2.0
	Centre	2.7	2.8	1.45	2.0
LVG ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$)	Region	0.172	0.40	0.0180	0.0081
	Suburb	0.44	0.71	0.040	0.0124
	Centre	0.38	0.48	0.036	0.0103
MAN (ng m^{-3})	Region	19.2	18.5	2.6	<1.2
	Suburb	37	39	2.9	<1.2
	Centre	26	21	4.1	<1.2
GAN (ng m^{-3})	Region	n.a.	10.6	1.20	<0.5
	Suburb	16.4	20	0.61	<0.5
	Centre	11.7	14.1	1.21	<0.5
f_c (%)	Region	69	75	61	74
	Suburb	66	74	48	60
	Centre	76	74	48	60
K ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$)	Region	0.182	0.23	0.088	0.081
	Suburb	0.22	0.25	0.097	0.075
	Centre	0.26	0.27	0.106	0.057
Ni (ng m^{-3})	Region	0.75	0.68	1.21	1.12
	Suburb	0.88	0.78	1.24	1.09
	Centre	1.10	0.63	1.51	1.08
Pb (ng m^{-3})	Region	3.8	3.0	3.2	2.8
	Suburb	5.8	6.8	4.1	3.5
	Centre	7.5	5.2	4.4	2.3
N_{6-1000} (10^3 cm^{-3})	Region	3.9 [†]	3.7 [†]	4.8 [†]	n.a.
	Suburb	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
	Centre	14.6	10.9	13.9	6.4

n.a.: not available; [†]: for N_{6-800}



400 The mean atmospheric concentrations of the monosaccharide anhydrides were decreasing in
401 the order of LVG, MAN and GAN. The concentrations of LVG were larger by ca. 1 order of
402 magnitude than for the joint concentrations of MAN and GAN. Their mean ratio was the largest
403 in winter and the smallest in autumn. This could be affected by the share of hardwood burnt in
404 different seasons (Fine et al., 2004; Schmidl et al., 2008; Maenhaut et al., 2012). The LVG
405 concentration did not vary monotonically with respect to the sites; it was larger in the city
406 centre by a factor of 1.7 than in the regional background and was smaller by approximately
407 20% than in the suburban area. This could be related to the spatial distribution of biofuel
408 utilisation mainly for residential heating and to atmospheric dispersion of their emission
409 products in the different environments.

410

411 As far as the contemporary C is concerned, there were three individual consecutive samples
412 collected in the city centre in autumn with significantly larger values than any other data in the
413 set. There are several applications of nuclide ^{14}C mostly in pharmaceutical/medical and
414 biological academy field in Budapest, which could release radiocarbon of anthropogenic origin
415 into the ambient air (in particular from labelled inorganic compounds such as NaHCO_3). These
416 three data were regarded to be outliers and were excluded from the further evaluation. The
417 centre/suburb f_c ratio in autumn, however, remained still somewhat higher (1.15) with respect
418 to the other seasons (for which the ratios were uniformly 1.00). This indicates that the
419 anthropogenic ^{14}C contamination could lightly affect the remaining analytical results as well.
420 Its consequences on the source apportionment are discussed in Sect. 3.5. In autumn and winter,
421 the mean centre/suburb, centre/region and suburb/region ratios were similar to each other (with
422 an overall mean and SD of 1.02 ± 0.10) at all sites, while in spring and summer; they decreased
423 in the order of the ratios above with means and SDs of 1.04 ± 0.20 , 0.82 ± 0.13 and 0.80 ± 0.15 ,
424 respectively. These tendencies are governed by carbonaceous matter of different origin.

425

426 The concentrations of K in autumn, winter and spring increased monotonically for the regional
427 background, suburb area and city centre. They showed a maximum in winter. Its concentrations
428 were the smallest in summer and exhibited an opposite tendency as far as the location types are
429 concerned, thus they decreased monotonically for the sites listed above. The concentrations of
430 Ni were similar to each other without any evident tendency. Except for its concentrations in
431 spring, which seemed to be the largest. The concentration of Pb showed an increasing tendency
432 from the regional background to the urban sites. The present data are smaller than the median
433 levels of 16 ng m^{-3} in the city centre and of 9 ng m^{-3} in the near-city background measured in



spring 2002 after the phase out of leaded gasoline in Hungary in April 1999, and are in line with its overall decreasing trend (Salma and Maenhaut, 2006; Salma et al., 2000).

The particle number concentrations in the city centre were 1 order of magnitude larger than in the regional background. This is explained by the spatial distribution of their main sources and by the relatively short atmospheric residence time of ultrafine particles (Salma et al., 2011). The latter property also causes that there are larger variations in their atmospheric concentrations, which implies that the present measurement (sampling) time intervals are not long enough for reliable conclusions on tendencies.

3.3 Tendencies in concentration ratios

Mean values and SDs of some important concentration ratios separately for the different environments and seasons are shown in Table 3. The $PM_{2.5}/PM_{10}$ mass ratio exhibited strong seasonal dependency. In spring and summer, the $PM_{10}-PM_{2.5}$ fraction particles (coarse mode) made up approximately 2/3 of the particulate mass, while in autumn and perhaps also in winter, the $PM_{2.5}$ mass prevailed with a similar ratio. These imply and confirm that in spring and summer, the suspension or resuspension of soil, crustal rock, mineral and roadside dust is substantial in Budapest, while in autumn and winter, the aerosol mass levels are more influenced by residential heating, cooking and road traffic (Salma and Maenhaut, 2006).

Contribution of the OM to the $PM_{2.5}$ mass for the regional background, suburban area and city centre showed little seasonal variation with annual means and SDs of $(31\pm5)\%$, $(32\pm6)\%$ and $(35\pm7)\%$, respectively. These balanced contributions are in line with other European results (Puxbaum et al., 2007; Putaud et al., 2010), and indicate a huge number, big variety and spatially more-or-less equally distributed sources of OC in the Carpathian Basin. The mean contributions of EC to the $PM_{2.5}$ mass were between 1 and 6%, with a minimum in the regional background in summer. The contributions can change substantially in different microenvironments within a city (e.g. 14% for a street canyon in central Budapest in spring; Salma et al., 2004; Maenhaut et al., 2005). The carbonaceous particles (OM+EC) in the regional background, suburban area and city centre made up $(32\pm5)\%$, $(36\pm7)\%$ and $(39\pm7)\%$, respectively of the $PM_{2.5}$ mass as annual means and SDs. Their seasonal means revealed limited variability (except for the city centre, where it changed from 33% in winter to 48% in summer). The TC/ $PM_{2.5}$ mass ratios are given as auxiliary information to allow the recalculation of the contributions to the TC shown in Fig. 5 to that to the $PM_{2.5}$ mass.



467

468 **Table 3.** Mean values and SDs for the $PM_{2.5}/PM_{10}$ mass, OM/ $PM_{2.5}$ mass, EC/ $PM_{2.5}$ mass, TC/ $PM_{2.5}$
 469 mass, WSOC/OC and OC/EC ratios for regional background in the Carpathian Basin, suburban area
 470 and city centre of Budapest in different seasons.

471

Ratio	Site type	Autumn	Winter	Spring	Summer
$PM_{2.5}/PM_{10}$ mass (%)	Region	64 ± 10	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
	Suburb	64 ± 4	67 ± 11	30 ± 8	48 ± 8
	Centre	67 ± 9	56 ± 14	32 ± 4	33 ± 7
OM/ $PM_{2.5}$ mass (%)	Region	33 ± 6	29 ± 5	32 ± 5	33 ± 4
	Suburb	32 ± 9	31 ± 5	32 ± 6	32 ± 5
	Centre	36 ± 5	30 ± 3	30 ± 4	36 ± 5
EC/ $PM_{2.5}$ mass (%)	Region	3.1 ± 1.4	2.3 ± 0.5	2.3 ± 0.7	1.2 ± 0.3
	Suburb	3.2 ± 1.0	3.1 ± 0.9	4.9 ± 2.2	3.5 ± 1.1
	Centre	4.3 ± 2.4	3.3 ± 0.6	6.4 ± 1.7	4.6 ± 0.9
TC/ $PM_{2.5}$ mass (%)	Region	28 ± 5	22 ± 4	25 ± 4	23 ± 3
	Suburb	24 ± 7	26 ± 4	27 ± 5	26 ± 4
	Centre	27 ± 5	22 ± 3	28 ± 5	29 ± 10
WSOC/OC (%)	Region	64 ± 11	58 ± 7	54 ± 9	72 ± 5
	Suburb	55 ± 16	64 ± 6	53 ± 7	76 ± 6
	Centre	42 ± 16	59 ± 4	56 ± 9	76 ± 11
OC/EC	Region	8.8 ± 3.2	9.0 ± 1.4	11 ± 3	18 ± 4
	Suburb	8.4 ± 3.5	7.3 ± 1.5	5.4 ± 2.0	7.3 ± 1.6
	Centre	6.3 ± 2.2	5.9 ± 0.7	3.5 ± 0.7	6.7 ± 1.5

472

473 The mean WSOC/OC ratios in autumn showed a monotonically increasing tendency from the
 474 city centre to the regional background. This is just opposite to the atmospheric WSOC
 475 concentration (which decreased monotonically). In winter, the suburban area exhibited the
 476 maximum concentration. This can be explained by intensive BB in the area with respect to the
 477 other environments (Sect. 3.5) and with the fact that BB particles possess relatively high
 478 hygroscopicity (Swietlicki et al., 2008) and water solubility. In the remaining two seasons, the
 479 shares of the WSOC were similar to each other and varied without an obvious tendency. This
 480 can be linked to comparable and large photochemical activity in all environments in spring and
 481 summer (Sect. 3.1). The present ratios are in line with the values reported earlier for the
 482 corresponding locations (Kiss et al., 2002; Ion et al., 2005; Maenhaut et al., 2005, 2008; Viana
 483 et al., 2006; Puxbaum et al., 2007; Salma et al., 2007). It is noted that the determined OC (and
 484 WSOC) concentrations are somewhat method dependent; their ratios can change sensitively
 485 e.g. with the thermal protocol used in the OC/EC TOT analyser for samples containing large
 486 amounts of refractory C (Kuhlbusch et al., 2009; Pantheliadis et al., 2015).



487

488 The highest OC/EC ratios indicate the conditions under which the SOA formation is the largest.
489 The ratio had a maximum in the regional background in summer, which can be associated with
490 large photochemical activity and strong GRad. The ratios for the urban locations did not
491 indicate obvious seasonal tendencies. Formation, composition and properties of SOA and
492 atmospheric humic-like substances (HULIS) together with modelling the air mass transport
493 within the Carpathian Basin are to be dealt with in a separate paper after additional
494 investigations are completed.

495

496 Finally, it is noted for completeness that the annual mean LVG/MAN ratios and SDs for the
497 regional background, suburban area and city centre were 13.9 ± 5.9 , 14.3 ± 6.2 and 14.7 ± 5.8 ,
498 respectively, and that ca. 40% of all available individual ratios were larger than the limit of
499 14.8 derived by Schmidl et al. (2008). The latter value was obtained for the combustion of
500 common hardwood (beech and oak) and softwood species (spruce and larch) in domestic wood
501 stoves in Austria. This means for our samples and conditions, the relationship between the
502 softwood and hardwood burnt mentioned is not applicable because of several reasons, e.g. the
503 likely differences in fireplaces and fuel wood in Hungary and mid-European Alpine regions.

504 **3.4 Apportioned carbonaceous species**

505 Median atmospheric concentrations of the apportioned EC_{FF} , EC_{BB} , OC_{FF} , OC_{BB} and OC_{BIO}
506 aerosol constituents derived by the coupled radiocarbon-LVG model separately for the
507 different environments and seasons are summarised in Table 4. The present values are coherent
508 with the earlier median concentration from late winter/early spring of 2014 at the BpART
509 Laboratory (Salma et al., 2017) and with the results for the regional background (Gelencsér et
510 al., 2007; Puxbaum et al., 2007). The uncertainty of the individual apportioned data could be
511 larger than for the experimental results (e.g. TC) and, therefore, the substantial differences
512 among their means and their obvious tendencies are only interpreted.

513

514 The median concentrations of EC_{FF} were similar to each other in autumn, spring and summer,
515 and exhibited a minimum in winter. In all seasons, its concentrations in the urban environments
516 tended to be larger by a factor of 2–3 than in the regional background. The OC_{FF} concentrations
517 at the urban locations were similar to each other in all seasons, while they tended to be larger
518 than the regional values by a factor of 2–3 in autumn and summer. The EC_{BB} and OC_{BB}
519 concentrations showed a maximum in winter and a minimum in summer. The concentrations



of OC_{BB} in the city centre seemed to be somewhat smaller than in the suburban area, while the latter was larger by a factor of 2–3 than in the regional background in autumn and spring. The concentrations of OC_{BIO} showed a monotonically decreasing tendency from autumn to summer, spring and winter in all environments. The fluxes of BVOCs from plants strongly depend on environmental conditions, age of leaves and vegetation, water and nutrient availability, and it is also affected by the presence of some anthropogenic emissions. Photochemical oxidation reactions of BVOCs, interactions among biogenic and anthropogenic precursors and products, and aerosol formation yield considerations play a rather important role in the process (McFiggans et al., 2019). The tendencies are further discussed after deriving the contributions of the apportioned species to various quantities in Sect. 3.5.

530

Table 4. Median atmospheric concentration of apportioned elemental carbon from fossil fuel combustion (EC_{FF}) and from biomass burning (EC_{BB}), of apportioned organic carbon from fossil fuel combustion (OC_{FF}), from biomass burning (OC_{BB}) and from biogenic sources (OC_{BIO}) in $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ for regional background in the Carpathian Basin, suburban area and city centre of Budapest in different seasons.

536

Constituent	Site type	Autumn	Winter	Spring	Summer
EC_{FF}	Region	0.35	0.057	0.23	0.12
	Suburb	0.35	0.10	0.57	0.32
	Centre	0.60	0.24	0.74	0.36
EC_{BB}	Region	0.19	0.34	0.020	0.0076
	Suburb	0.40	0.62	0.050	0.0083
	Centre	0.36	0.46	0.047	0.0095
OC_{FF}	Region	0.85	1.0	0.71	0.53
	Suburb	2.1	1.1	1.0	0.83
	Centre	1.5	1.2	1.0	0.81
OC_{BB}	Region	1.1	2.0	0.12	0.045
	Suburb	2.4	3.6	0.29	0.049
	Centre	2.1	2.7	0.27	0.056
OC_{BIO}	Region	2.0	0.22	1.3	1.8
	Suburb	2.3	0.36	1.2	1.8
	Centre	3.1	0.31	1.3	1.6

537

Pearson's coefficients of correlation between the variables were calculated to examine their possible paired relationships. The results should be interpreted with caution since many data sets are not (fully) independent from each other and can be biased by meteorological processes (Sect. 3.1), can be coupled by their potential common sources or can be influenced jointly by



542 further factors/causes for them. Moreover, interactions among biogenic and anthropogenic
543 VOCs or among organic precursors with rather different SOA yields can significantly enhance
544 or suppress, respectively the SOA production (Hoyle et al., 2011; McFiggans et al., 2019).
545 Selected coefficients are shown in Table S4 in the Supplement for the annual data sets.
546 Potassium correlated with both carbonaceous species of BB origin at all locations, while its
547 coefficients with the other variables seemed insignificant. There was a linear relationship
548 between NO (which is emitted for 60–70% by road vehicles in Budapest) and OC_{FF}. The
549 relationships between *T* and the apportioned constituents indicated that BB was more intensive
550 under cold weather conditions, while the utilisation of FFs was more constant over the year
551 (campaign). The relationships approved the correct attribution of the apportioned species.

552 3.5 Contributions of major source types

553 It was the FF combustion that showed the most balanced and constant daily or seasonal mean
554 contributions to the TC over the whole year and at all sites. Its annual means and SDs for the
555 regional background, suburban area and city centre were (31±7)%, (36±12)% and (36±13)%,
556 respectively. In contrast, the daily mean contributions of BB and biogenic sources changed
557 radically over the seasons at all locations. For BB, the individual contributions for the
558 atmospheric environments listed above ranged from <2 to 73% (with a median of 10%), from
559 <2 to 73% (24%) and from <2 to 72% (19%), respectively. The analogous daily data for
560 biogenic sources spanned from <2 up to 88% (52%), from <2 to 70% (35%) and from <2 to
561 67% (39%), respectively.

562

563 Their seasonal mean contributions in forms of EC and OC to the TC separately for the different
564 environmental types are shown as circle chart diagrams in Figure 5. In autumn, the three major
565 source types contributed equally to the TC. In winter, it was the BB which was the major source
566 with a relative share of approximately 60% at all sites, and its contribution was the largest in
567 this season. The contributions of FF combustion in winter were similar to each other for all site
568 types with a typical share around 25%. The contributions of biogenic sources were the smallest
569 in this season, although they were still non-negligible. Their share showed an increasing
570 tendency from the regional background to the urban sites (from 5 to 8%), which could likely
571 be explained by larger temperatures (urban heat island) and less snow coverage in the city
572 centre (Sect. 3.1) than in its surroundings. In spring, FF combustion and biogenic sources were
573 the largest two contributors at all locations with typical shares of 45–50% each. The EC_{FF}
574 showed the largest contributions in spring, which were increased monotonically in the order of



the location type: region, suburb and centre. In summer, biogenic sources became the major contributor with a monotonically increasing share from the centre to the region.

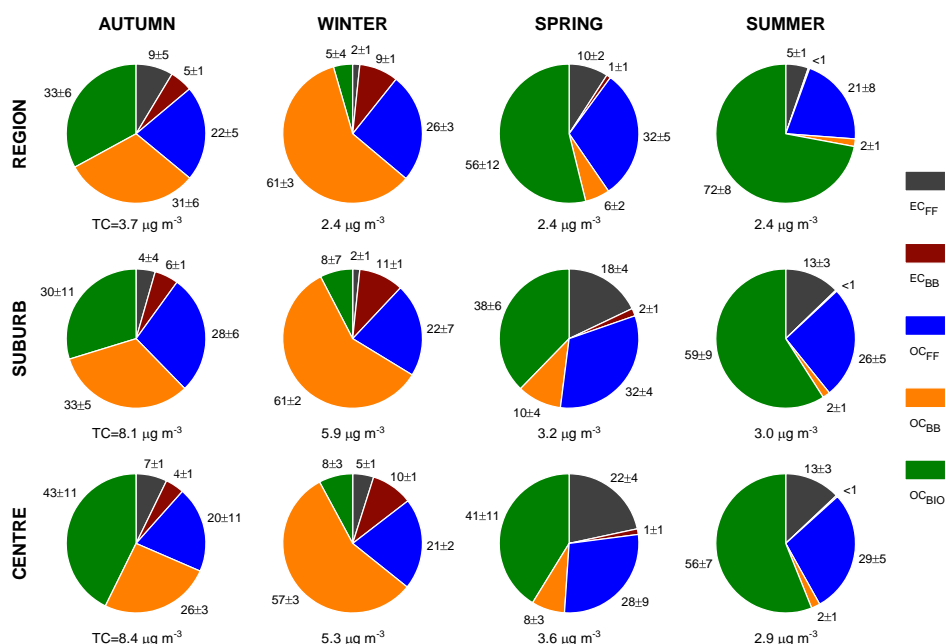


Figure 5. Mean contributions with SDs of elemental carbon from fossil fuel combustion (EC_{FF}) and from biomass burning (EC_{BB}), of organic carbon from fossil fuel combustion (OC_{FF}), from biomass burning (OC_{BB}) and from biogenic sources (OC_{BIO}) to PM_{2.5}-fraction total carbon (TC) in % for regional background in the Carpathian Basin, suburban area and city centre of Budapest and seasons. The median atmospheric concentrations of TC are indicated under individual circle charts, while the corresponding mean TC/PM_{2.5} mass ratios are shown in Table 3.

Further conclusions can be derived by focusing on specific contributions of EC_{FF} and EC_{BB} to EC, and of OC_{FF}, OC_{BB} and OC_{BIO} to OC (Figs. 6 and 7, respectively). Elemental carbon is sometimes applied as a marker of automotive emissions mainly from diesel engines in cities of the continental mid-latitude northern hemisphere. The present research indicates that in urban ambient air in Central Europe, this assumption is, however, valid only in spring and summer (when the share of the EC_{FF} was indeed larger than 90%). In autumn, the contributions of EC_{BB} can be considerable (up to 40–60%) at urban sites, so they can be by no means negligible. Furthermore, in winter, the relative mass of soot particles from BB can be even larger.

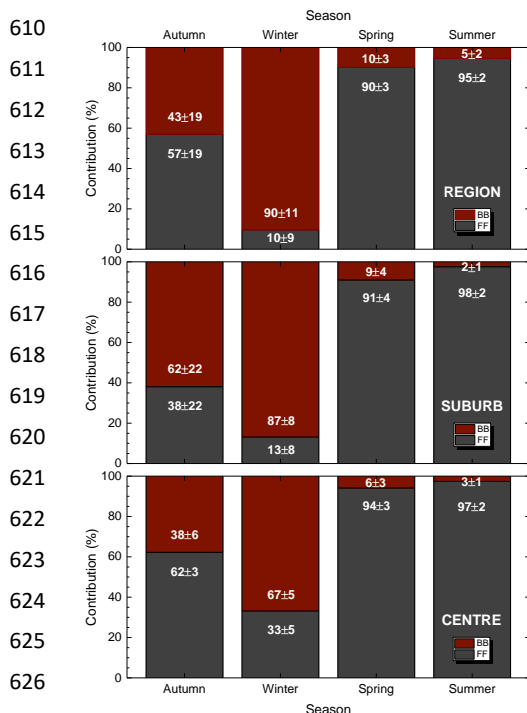


Figure 6. Seasonal distribution of mean contributions from FF combustion and BB with SDs to the PM_{2.5}-fraction EC for regional background in the Carpathian Basin, suburban area and city centre of Budapest. The corresponding median atmospheric concentrations of the EC are given in Table 2.

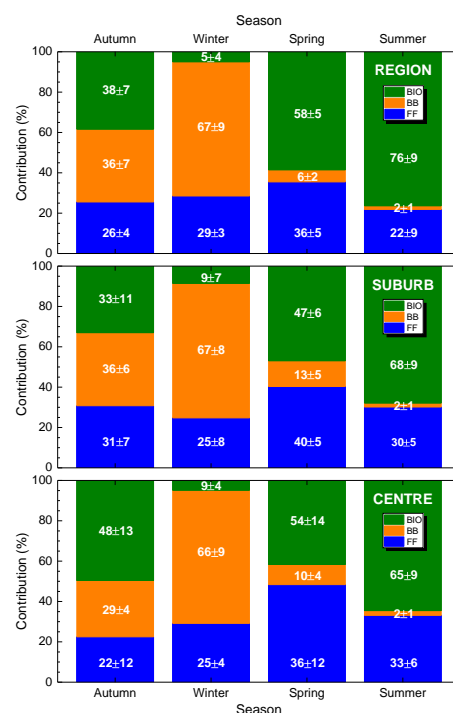


Figure 7. Seasonal distribution of mean contributions from FF combustion, BB and biogenic sources (BIO) with SDs to the PM_{2.5}-fraction OC for regional background in the Carpathian Basin, suburban area and city centre of Budapest. The corresponding median atmospheric concentrations of OC are given in Table 2.

It can be seen in Fig. 7 that the contributions from FF combustion to OC were fairly constant with a typical value of 25–35% and with an overall mean and SD of (30±8)% averaged for all atmospheric environments and seasons. In spring, some possible elevation could occur. Biomass burning was the major source of OC with a share of 67% in winter. Biogenic sources prevailed (with a share of 65–75%) in summer and made up about half of the OC in spring. The contributions from BB were hardly quantifiable in summer, while biogenic emissions were still considerable in winter, particularly at the urban sites. In autumn, the three major source types made up balanced (constant and similar) contributions in all environments. Closely looking, there could be a slight overestimation of biogenic sources and a related small



underestimation of FF combustion (see Fig. 3 in Salma et al., 2017) in the city centre (left lower column in Fig. 7) due to possible atmospheric contamination by anthropogenic ^{14}C , which was discussed in Sect. 3.2. It is mentioned that primary organic aerosol is not included in the model, which could influence somewhat the overall contributions of the sources.

3.6 Potentials for air quality

To examine the potentials of the apportioned carbonaceous species for regulatory and legislation purposes, the contributions of the main source types to the $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ mass were roughly estimated. It was assumed that the OM/OC conversion factors for the aerosol particles originating from FF combustion, BB and biogenic sources were equal to the conversion factor for the bulk fine-fraction particles, thus 1.4 for the regional background and suburban area, and 1.6 for the city centre. The results obtained are summarised in Table S5 in the Supplement. The separate contributions typically represent up to 1/5 or 1/4 of the PM mass as lower estimates and are discussed in Sect. 4.

The contributions were also evaluated as function of the $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ mass concentration, which is a key measure for air quality considerations. The plots for the seasonal mean contributions of OC_{FF} , OC_{BB} and OC_{BIO} to the TC are shown in Fig. 8a–c, respectively. The contributions of FF combustion (Fig. 8a) did not seem to depend substantially on the $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ mass level at any of the locations, so FF exhibits a constant and steady-state importance over various air pollution periods. The share of BB showed an increasing tendency with poor air quality (Fig. 8b). The change rate (the slope of the fitted line, b) was larger for the regional background ($b=6.7$) and smaller but similar to each other for the urban sites ($b\approx 2.1$). For biogenic emissions the trends were just the opposite (Fig. 8c); their relative importance decreased by poorer air quality. The tendency was similar again for the urban sites ($b\approx -1.5$) and substantially larger for the regional background ($b=-6.9$). The tendencies of the EC_{FF} and EC_{BB} were analogous. These results together indicate that BB influences the air quality in the regional background very extensively and it also has substantial effect on the air quality in the Budapest area, mainly in winter and in autumn as well. The conclusions have importance in and consequences on the potentials for improving the air quality further interpreted in Sect. 4.

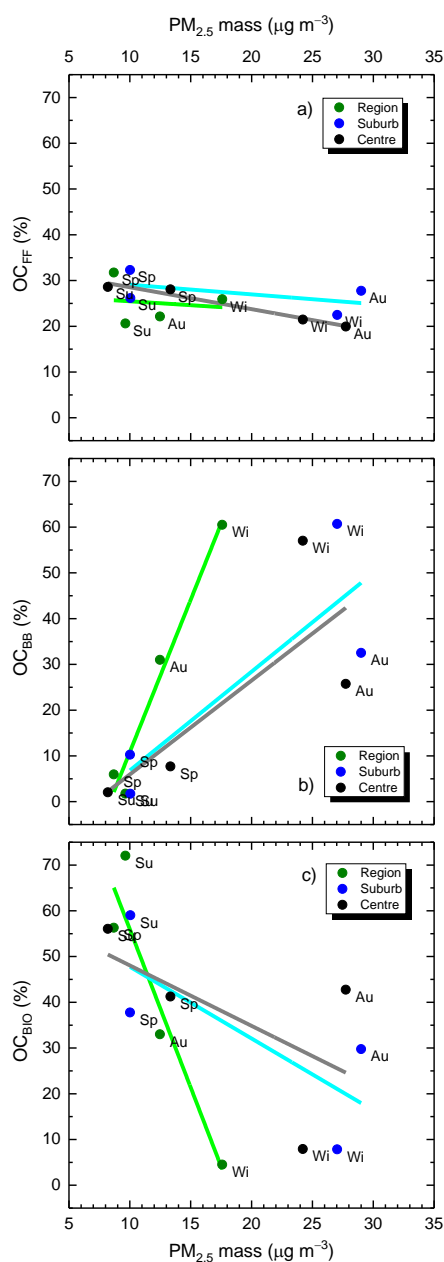


Figure 8. Seasonal mean contribution of apportioned OC_{FF} (a), OC_{BB} (b) and OC_{BIO} (c) to TC as function of the seasonal median $PM_{2.5}$ mass concentration (surrogate or proximity value for the air quality) for regional background in the Carpathian Basin, suburban area and city centre of Budapest. The seasons are indicated by their two starting letters. The linear lines are to guide the eyes.



720 4 Conclusions

721 In the present study, the major carbonaceous aerosol species were apportioned among FF
722 combustion, BB and biogenic sources in various types of atmospheric environments of interest
723 in the Carpathian Basin in each season. The results and conclusions achieved were obtained
724 from the first systematic complex research project as far as the spatial scale within the basin
725 and time span (of 1 year) are concerned and represent valuable research contributions on a
726 large area in Central Europe.

727

728 The carbonaceous particles made up from 30 to 48% of the $PM_{2.5}$ mass (as seasonal mean)
729 depending on the environment and season. It is the BB in winter that represents the largest
730 potential (with a mass share of >20%; Table S4 in the Supplement) for improving the air quality
731 both in cities and on rural areas of the basin. It is worth mentioning that all air pollution (smog)
732 alert episodes in Hungary were announced so far exclusively because of the PM_{10} mass limit
733 exceedances and they all happened in winter. Possibilities in controlling various forms of BB
734 for air quality improvements seem to be, therefore, rather relevant. In the present case for
735 instance, there were 3, 8 and 8 days, respectively (19 days in total) in the subset of 4×7 days in
736 the regional background, suburban area and city centre which daily mean values exceeded the
737 EU annual $PM_{2.5}$ limit value of $25 \mu g m^{-3}$. They all occurred in winter and autumn. If the BB
738 sources (i.e. OC_{BB} and EC_{BB}) had decreased by half of their actual concentrations then the
739 number of exceedance days would reduce to 2, 6 and 5, respectively (13 days in total), while a
740 perfect fuel gas aftertreatment of the BB as a sources would result in the number of exceedances
741 of 1, 4 and 5, respectively (10 days in total). In addition to carbonaceous particles, some adjunct
742 inorganic constituents are also generated and, more importantly, soil or mineral dust and fly
743 ash particles are also mobilised or blown up into the air due to the combustion or burning
744 process itself. These, on the one hand, can further and substantially enhance the overall mass
745 contributions and potentials of the high-temperature sources (including BB), and, on the other
746 hand, may change somewhat their relative contributions.

747

748 Fossil fuel combustion is an abundant source of PM mass (with a share of >20%; Table S4 in
749 the Supplement) only at urban sites in spring and summer. Resuspension or suspension of road
750 and surface dust by moving vehicles can again represent a substantial auxiliary increment for
751 FF contribution. Biogenic sources are normally considered as natural process or to be
752 dominated by natural processes, and, therefore and strictly speaking, they are not associated



753 with the issue of air pollution. It is expected that the unaccounted $PM_{2.5}$ mass contains
754 secondary inorganic aerosol particles mostly sulfates, nitrates and elements, and soil or
755 mineral/crustal rock dust particles as well (Salma et al., 2001), which should definitely be
756 revisited and taken into account in further source apportionment research.

757

758 Another challenge in health-related or air-quality-type assessment studies is to refine the
759 apportionment within the major source types with burning of plastics, domestic waste (garbage)
760 and household coal and fuel wood burning through identification of their appropriate tracers
761 and via quantification of various emission factors of their specific sources e.g. by advanced
762 hyphenated MS or optical methods combined with powerful statistical data treatment. These
763 additional combustion categories deserve more investigations since many of them seem to be
764 prevalent and of increasing volume in the studied geographical area, and they produce some
765 specific air pollutants or toxics which can represent serious risk for human health, wellbeing
766 and the environment.

767 **Data availability.** Raw data are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

768 **Supplement.** The supplement related to this article is available online.

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

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