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Source apportionment of elemental carbon in Beijing, China: insights from radiocarbon and organic marker measurements

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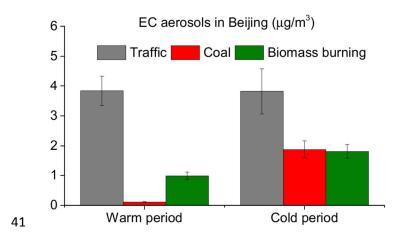
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- 2 radiocarbon and organic marker measurements
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24 Abstract

25 Elemental carbon (EC) or black carbon (BC) in the atmosphere has a strong influence on both climate and human health. In this study, radiocarbon (¹⁴C) based source 26 apportionment is used to distinguish between fossil fuel and biomass burning sources of 27 EC isolated from aerosol filter samples collected in Beijing from June 2010 to May 2011. 28 The ¹⁴C results demonstrate that EC is consistently dominated by fossil-fuel combustion 29 throughout the whole year with a mean contribution of $79\% \pm 6\%$ (ranging from 70% to 30 91%), though EC has a higher mean and peak concentrations in the cold season. The 31 seasonal molecular pattern of hopanes (i.e. a class of organic markers mainly emitted 32 during the combustion of different fossil fuels) indicates that traffic-related emissions are 33 34 the most important fossil source in the warm period and coal combustion emissions are significantly increased in the cold season. By combining ¹⁴C based source apportionment 35 results and picene (i.e. an organic marker for coal emissions) concentrations, relative 36 contributions from coal and vehicle to EC in the cold period were estimated as 25±4% 37 and 50±7%, respectively, whereas the coal combustion contribution was negligible or 38 very small in the warm period. 39





42 **1 Introduction**

Atmospheric aerosols adversely affect human health by causing respiratory and
cardiopulmonary diseases associated with increased morbidity and mortality [1, 2].
Carbonaceous components are a major fraction of atmospheric aerosols and are often

46 classified into the sub-fractions organic carbon (OC) and elemental carbon (EC) or black carbon (BC) [3]. In this study, BC is used as a qualitative and descriptive term not 47 referring to measurement results of any specific properties, whereas BC mass quantified 48 by thermal-optical methods is specified as EC [4]. As the major light-absorbing part of 49 carbonaceous material, BC exhibits the second largest anthropogenic radiative forcing 50 after carbon dioxide (CO₂) [5]. Recently, it was estimated that 640 - 4900 premature 51 52 human deaths could be prevented annually by utilizing available mitigation measures to reduce BC in the atmosphere [6]. Due to a relatively short life time (~days) in atmosphere, 53 reducing BC emissions may rapidly improve both climate and human health [7, 8]. 54 Therefore, the identification and quantification of different BC sources and their emission 55 source strengths is crucial for the implementation of effective mitigation strategies. 56

The emission sources of BC are exclusively combustion processes of fossil and non-fossil 57 fuels, although the relative contribution of these two sources still remains uncertain. In 58 recent years, the radiocarbon (¹⁴C) measurement of EC has been proven to be a powerful 59 tool for the differentiation between modern (i.e. biomass burning) and fossil (i.e. traffic 60 and coal) sources. ¹⁴C is completely depleted in fossil fuel emissions due to its half-life 61 (i.e. 5730 years), whereas ¹⁴C in non-fossil carbonaceous materials contains a similar 62 composition as atmospheric CO₂ [9, 10]. Therefore, ${}^{14}C$ measurement of the EC fraction 63 directly enables the quantification of its biomass-burning and fossil sources [11]. 64 However, the ¹⁴C measurement of EC still remains challenging in comparison to total 65 carbon (TC) due to its complex properties [12] and since a clear physical separation 66 between OC and EC is necessary to avoid artefacts in the ¹⁴C signal. Nevertheless, recent 67 68 developments and method adaptations from different groups show more consistent approaches and vield more robust ¹⁴C results [13, 14]. 69

Beijing, the capital of China with about 19.6 million inhabitants in 2010, is one of the largest cities in the world and has become a heavily polluted area due to rapid urbanization and industrialization over the past two decades [15]. In the last decade, many studies have reported the chemical composition and sources of aerosols in Beijing [16-23]. Most of these studies have focused on source apportionment of organic aerosols (organic matter, OM or OC) by positive matrix factorization (PMF) [24] and chemical

76 mass balance (CMB) models [21] from off-line organic markers measurement or online aerosol mass spectrometer measurement. However, only a few studies have reported 77 78 year-round source apportionment results of BC. For example, Duan et al. (2004) demonstrated biomass burning and traffic and/or industry emissions are the major sources 79 of both OC and EC during summer, while coal combustion is the dominant contributor 80 during the winter heating period, although quantification of contributions from each 81 82 source still remains uncertain. Based on PMF model analysis, about 50% of OC and EC in Beijing were associated with biomass-burning processes [25]. In contrast, most recent 83 source-diagnostic ¹⁴C studies suggested ~80% contribution from fossil fuels in winter for 84 EC in China [15, 23, 26]. A quantitative understanding of the temporal variations and 85 source apportionment of EC in Beijing is still missing and thus crucially necessary. In 86 this study, we determine fossil and biomass-burning contributions to year-round EC 87 aerosols in Beijing by measuring ${}^{14}C$ of EC and organic markers for fossil emissions (i.e. 88 hopanes and picene). 89

90 2 Experimental

91 2.1 Sampling

24-h integrated PM4 samples (n=155) were collected at the ground level on pre-baked 92 (650 °C, 4 h) quartz-fibre filters (diameter: 150mm) using a high-volume sampler (Digitel 93 DHA-80, Switzerland) at a flow rate of ~167 l/min during June 2010 to May 2011 at the 94 campus of the China University of Geosciences, a residential area in North West of 95 96 Beijing. It should be noted that during the whole campaign the actual sampling flow of 97 ambient air was 167 instead of 500 l/min as a default setting due to an airflow shortcut from the interior of the sampler. As a consequence to the changed flow volume, the cut 98 off of the sampler (original setting: $2.5 \mu m$) had to be recalculated following the impactor 99 100 design theory [27, 28]. It was found that particles smaller than 4 µm (i.e., PM4) were collected onto the filters. However, a comparison of ¹⁴C results obtained from the current 101 study was not significantly different from those found for PM2.5 samples during winter 102 2013 (see Supplementary information, Figure S1) [29]. Our previous work has also 103 shown that there is no significant difference of EC source signatures (fossil vs. non-fossil) 104

105 between PM1, PM2.5 and PM10 at other locations (Table S1) [30]. Further, since EC 106 almost exclusively derives from combustion sources, the size of EC particles from 107 China's source samples is mostly smaller than 1 μ m [31, 32] and the majority of EC mass (~80%) in urban site of China resides in particles smaller than 3.2 μ m in diameter and 108 the fine mode peaks at around either 0.42 µm or 0.75 µm [33]. As a result, the cut size 109 present in our study generally would not affect the results of relative fossil and non-fossil 110 contribution of EC of aerosols because EC is dominated in the fine particles. After 111 sampling, filters were wrapped in aluminum foil and stored in a freezer at -20°C before 112 analysis. Every second week, one field blank was collected. 113

114 **2.2 Elemental carbon measurement**

A filter cut of 1.5 cm² was used for EC measurement. The EC concentrations were 115 measured using a thermo-optical OC/EC analyzer (Model 4L, Sunset Laboratory Inc, 116 117 USA), equipped with a non-dispersive infrared (NDIR) detector following the thermaloptical transmittance protocol (TOT) EUSAAR2 [34]. A high uncertainty of 20% is 118 considered for all measured EC concentrations to account for possible differences 119 between different TOT protocols [35, 36]. It should be noted that only the absolute EC 120 concentration is affected by this additional uncertainty, whereas the relative fossil and 121 non-fossil contribution is only influenced by the combined uncertainty of the 122 ¹⁴C measurement of EC and the bomb peak correction, which is on average 5% (see 123 below). No EC was detected on blank filters and consequently no blank correction was 124 necessary. 125

126 **2.3 Radiocarbon** (¹⁴C) measurement of EC

127 A filter cut of 1 to 6 cm² (corresponding to 5 to 30 μ gC) was used for ¹⁴C analysis. The 128 Swiss_4S protocol was applied for the EC isolation for the ¹⁴C analysis using a Sunset 129 OC/EC analyzer connected to a gas preparation line as described by [14]. This special 130 protocol is optimized to minimize the bias in the ¹⁴C result of EC from OC charring or 131 losses of the least refractory EC during the OC removal. In brief, to minimize positive 132 artefacts from OC charring, water-soluble OC is first eliminated by a water-extraction 133 pre-treatment and the remaining water-insoluble OC is then removed using the Sunset

OC/EC analyzer with a thermal treatment in three steps: (1) 375 °C for 150 s in pure 134 oxygen (O₂); (2) 475 °C for 180 s in O₂; (3) 450 °C for 180 s followed by 180 s at 650 °C 135 136 in helium. Finally, in step four EC is isolated by the combustion of the remaining carbonaceous material at 760 °C for 150 s in O₂. EC recovery is estimated by the ratio 137 ATN_t/ATN_0 , where ATN_0 is the initial attenuation (ATN, see Supporting Information), 138 which is related to the total amount of EC on the filter, and ATN_t is the attenuation at the 139 time t, when the EC step (i.e., step 4) begins. By using the Swiss 4S protocol, OC 140 charring is minimized to $4\pm3\%$ compared to EC (see Supporting Information), which 141 may lead a negligible overestimation of non-fossil EC by less than 3%. This assures the 142 accuracy of ¹⁴C measurement in EC. The EC recovery in this study was estimated as 143 85±5%, thus presenting almost the entire continuum of EC. ¹⁴C results in EC were 144 extrapolated to 100% EC recovery ($f_{M,EC,corrected} = slope * (1 - EC recovery) + f_{M,EC}$) to 145 account for the less refractory EC, mainly from wood burning, which is removed during 146 steps 1 to 3 [14]. The slope of 0.31 is deduced from linear regression of the EC recovery 147 and $f_{M,EC}$ [14]. The uncertainty of the reported $f_{M,EC}$ is obtained by an error propagation 148 of all possible uncertainties including an assigned uncertainty of 10% for the slope, the 149 measurement uncertainty of $f_{M,EC}$ (2%) and an assigned uncertainty of 10% for the EC 150 yield, which results to a total average uncertainty of 4 %. 151

152 The evolving CO₂ in step 4 was separated from interfering gaseous products, cryotrapped and sealed in glass ampoules for ¹⁴C measurements. ¹⁴C measurements of the 153 CO₂ was carried out with the MIni radioCArbon DAting System, MICADAS [37] using 154 a gas ion source [38]. The ¹⁴C results are presented as fraction of modern (f_M) denoting 155 the ${}^{14}C/{}^{12}C$ content of the sample related to that of the reference year 1950 [39]. Oxalic 156 acid (HOxII) reference material (f_M =1.3407) and of ¹⁴C-free materials (f_M =0) are used for 157 normalization background correction. The f_M values were further corrected for $\delta^{13}C$ 158 fractionation and for ${}^{14}C$ decay between 1950 and the year of measurement [40]. The f_M 159 measurement uncertainty for the EC samples is $\sim 2\%$. 160

161 2.4 Organic marker (hopanes and picene) measurements

A filter cut of 1-6 cm^2 was used for organic marker's measurement. The organic markers 162 picene and hopanes (see Table 2) were quantified using in-situ derivatization thermal 163 desorption gas-chromatography time of flight mass spectrometry (IDTD-GC-MS, 164 Orasche et al. [41]). Briefly, the filter punches were placed into glass liners suitable for 165 an automated thermal desorption unit. Isotope-labelled standard compounds were spiked 166 directly onto the filter surface to account for influences of the matrix for later 167 quantification. Derivatization was performed on the filter by adding of liquid 168 reagent N-methyl-N-trimethylsilyl-tri fluoroacetamide 169 derivatization (MSTFA, Macherey-Nagel, Germany). During 16 min of desorption time, in addition an in-situ 170 derivatization with gaseous MSTFA was carried out. Desorbed molecules were trapped 171 172 on a pre-column before separation by gas chromatography (BPX-5 capillary column, SGE, Australia). The detection and quantification of compounds was carried out on a 173 174 Pegasus III time-of-flight mass spectrometer (TOF) using the ChromaTOF software package (LECO, St. Joseph, MI). The blank values of hopanes and picene were below the 175 detection limit (0.02 ng/m^3) . 176

177

178 **3 Results and Discussions**

179 **3.1 Temporal variation of EC**

Figure 1 shows EC concentrations during the whole sampling period. EC concentrations 180 range from 0.8 to 11.8 μ g/m³, and the average of 4.0±2.2 μ g/m³ is within the range 181 $(2.3 \sim 7.4 \,\mu\text{g/m}^3)$ reported by previous studies for Beijing [21, 42]. The EC concentrations 182 are significantly lower (t-test with p < 0.05) during the warm period (i.e. average from 183 March to October is $3.6\pm1.5 \text{ µg/m}^3$) than in the cold period (i.e. average from November 184 to February is $4.8\pm2.9 \text{ µg/m}^3$). It should be noted that the frequency of samples with EC 185 larger than 4.5 μ g/m³ in the cold period is much larger than that in the warm period, 186 indicating a higher primary particulate pollution from enhanced anthropogenic emissions 187 during the cold period. A similar seasonal trend was also observed by [43]. This 188

seasonality is likely attributed to increased emissions from residential heating using coal or biofuel. The lower EC abundance in the warm period is mainly caused by reduced heating-related coal/biofuel emissions on the one hand and a higher mixing layer on the other hand. It should be pointed out that EC concentration in summer at the studied site is still higher than those observed in many other cities during summer such as Barcelona, Spain (1.2 μ g/m³) [44], Paris, France (1.4 μ g/m³) [45] or Pittsburgh, USA (0.89 μ g/m³) [46].

196 **3.2**¹⁴C results of EC: fraction of modern

In order to further investigate the sources of EC, fourteen samples from different seasons 197 were selected for the analysis of ¹⁴C of the EC fraction (Table 1). In order to address the 198 air quality problems of Beijing [15], we characterized EC sources for days with medium 199 and heavy air pollution during the warm and cold periods. Therefore, samples were 200 selected for radiocarbon analysis with EC concentrations $>3 \text{ µg/m}^3$, which includes about 201 202 2/3 of all daily samples shown in Figure. 1, representing ~82% of the integrated EC burden of all samples. However, EC sources of background days are not considered. The 203 values for $f_{M}(EC)$ ranged from 0.10 to 0.34 with a mean of 0.23 ± 0.06, indicating a 204 dominance of fossil sources of EC in Beijing throughout the year. Since EC is only 205 emitted as primary aerosol by combustion from either biomass or fossil fuels (i.e. coal 206 and vehicle emissions), $f_M(EC)$ particularly tracks the change of EC sources. The lowest 207 $f_{M}(EC)$ is found in summer (0.15), indicating the importance of vehicle emissions since 208 the coal consumption is much reduced compared to other seasons. $f_M(EC)$ is higher by 60% 209 in the rest of the year than in summer, suggesting that EC from biomass burning becomes 210 211 substantial during the other seasons. Further discussions of source apportionment of fossil EC will be presented in Sec. 3.4. 212

213 **3.3 Fossil vs. biomass burning EC**

The fraction of modern (f_M) is not identical to the fraction of non-fossil (f_{NF}) due to increased ¹⁴C content of the atmosphere from the nuclear bomb test in the 1950s and 1960s. A reference value representing the modern ¹⁴C content of biomass burning aerosols ($f_{M,bb}$) during the sampling period compared to 1950 before the bomb test is used to convert f_M to f_{NF} :

219 $f_{NF}(EC)=f_M(EC)/f_{M,bb}$ (Eq. 1)

The value of $f_{M,bb}$ is estimated as 1.12 ± 0.05 [47]. Since biomass burning (including biofuel combustion) is the only source of non-fossil EC, the fraction of non-fossil (f_{NF}) equals to the fraction of biomass burning (f_{BB}). The fraction of fossil fuels (f_{FF}) is determined by:

224 $f_{FF}=1-f_{BB}$ (Eq. 2)

Fossil-fuel and biomass-burning EC concentrations (i.e. EC_{FF} and EC_{BB} , respectively) are calculated as follows:

227
$$EC_{FF} = EC^{*}(1-f_{BB}) (Eq. 3)$$

228
$$EC_{BB} = EC^* f_{BB} (Eq. 4)$$

Figure 2 shows the source apportionment results of EC. The EC_{FF} concentrations range 229 from 2.5 to 7.5 μ g/m³, whereas the corresponding range for EC from biomass burning 230 (EC_{BB}) was 0.4 to 2.4 μ g/m³. EC_{FF} values are on average 4.6 times higher than EC_{BB}, 231 corresponding to a mean contribution of EC_{FF} to total EC of $79\% \pm 6\%$ (ranging from 70%232 to 91%). The measured fossil contributions to EC are comparable to those previously 233 reported with a similar ¹⁴C-based approach in Beijing during winter 2011 [48] and winter 234 235 2013 [29], but are higher than for an urban site in Guangzhou, China (winter 2012/2013: 71±10%) [49] and a background site on the Hainan Island, South China (annual average 236 2005/2006: 25-56%) [47] as well as 16 urban and rural sites across Switzerland (winter 237 2007/2008-2011/2012: 13-88%) [11]. Higher EC_{FF} concentrations were observed in the 238 cold period, most probably associated with larger coal combustion for heating. However, 239 relative contributions from fossil combustion are even lower in the cold season than in 240 the warm season, implying that biomass-burning emissions are also considerably 241 important for the EC increment in the cold season. It should be noted that it is common 242 practice to burn maize and wheat residues especially in the rural areas without central 243 space heating and gas supplying systems and a large fraction of this biomass burning is 244

emitted as OC and EC [50]. The contribution of these biomass-burning emissions to EC in cold seasons is likely very important due to lower combustion efficiency for residential biomass burning than for coal boilers. By subtracting mean values of EC_{BB} and EC_{FF} in the warm period from those in the cold period, the excess is estimated as 0.82 ± 0.40 μ g/m³ and 1.75 ± 0.52 μ g/m³ for EC_{BB} and EC_{FF}, respectively. Biomass burning accounted for on the average 32% of the excess during the cold period, which is significantly higher than the contribution of EC_{BB} (19%) during the warm period, but lower than estimations

252 from PMF model analysis (50%) [25].

3.4 Fossil EC from coal combustion and vehicle emissions

254 Hopanes are abundant in crude oils, coal and lubricants [51]. They have been identified in emissions from heating oil burning [52], coal burning [53] and vehicles [54]. Table 2 255 presents hopping concentrations in the warm and cold periods and the difference between 256 these two seasons. As shown in Figure 3 and Table 2, the total identified hopanes mass 257 258 concentrations show a clearly seasonal trend with maximum in the cold period $(68.6\pm28.7 \text{ ng/m}^3)$ and minimum in the warm period $(17.9 \pm 6.5 \text{ ng/m}^3)$. The hopane 259 molecular patterns differ substantially with the type of the fossil source, and therefore 260 potentially allow a distinction of coal combustion and vehicle emissions [55, 56]. For 261 example, the ab-hopane/(ab-hopane+ba-hopanes) ratio (i.e. 30ab/(30ab+30ba)) increases 262 with increasing diagenesis and catagenesis of the sediments. This ratio, also called 263 hopane index, is >0.9 in crude oil [57] and 0.1-0.6 in different types of coal [53, 58]. In 264 typical petroleum, the R/S-epimerization at C22 has an equilibrium S/(S+R) ratio, the so-265 called homo-hopane index (i.e. 31abs/31abs+31abR) of ~0.6 [59], whereas this ratio 266 ranges from about 0.1 for lignite coal to \sim 0.4 for bituminous coal. As seen in Table 2, 267 both the hoppane index (0.84 ± 0.11) and the homo-hoppane index (0.56 ± 0.04) in the warm 268 period are very close to those in vehicle exhausts, suggesting that contribution of coal 269 burning was negligible or very small in summer in Beijing. In contrast, both ratios found 270 271 in the cold period (0.57±0.06 and 0.46±0.07 for hopane index and the homo-hopane index, respectively) are between those of petroleum and coal-burning emissions, 272 273 indicating additional fossil-fuel emissions from solid coal combustion. Moreover, picene (a specific marker of coal combustion) was also determined in our study (Figure 3 and 274

275 Table 2) and considerable concentrations are observed during the cold period (i.e. ranging from 0.34-4.48 ng/m^3 with a mean of 1.82±0.99 ng/m^3), in contrast to the warm period, 276 277 when concentrations were often below the detection limit or very small. If we assume that meteorological factors (i.e. wind speed and boundary later height) equally affected 278 279 both the EC_{FF} and picene concentrations then the difference between the cold and the warm periods for EC_{FF} and picene (i.e. ΔEC_{FF} and $\Delta picene$, respectively) can be 280 281 attributed only to additional coal combustion. This assumption is also supported by a recent study, in which primary organic aerosols from traffic-related emissions were only 282 found to be $\sim 10\%$, which was even smaller for high pollution events than for low 283 pollution events in winter Beijing [15]. The emission ratio picene/EC for coal combustion 284 is therefore estimated as $1.1 (ng/\mu g)$ by: 285

286 (picene/EC)_{coal}= Δ picene/ Δ EC_{FF} (Eq. 5)

The uncertainty of (picene/EC)_{coal} is estimated to be 0.22 by an error propagation of possible uncertainties including by assigning 10% as the uncertainty of Δ picene and 20% as the uncertainty of Δ EC_{FF} associated with a overestimation of the EC_{coal} or EC_{traffic} in winter.

291 It should be pointed out that picene may not be stable in summer [60], however, the emission ratio estimated by our approach would only change by <3% if assuming 0-50% 292 293 of picene in summer has decayed through photochemical transformations. This emission ratio is comparable to the calculated emission ratios for Chinese residential bituminous 294 295 coal (0.8) combustion but much lower than those found in residential anthracite (2.7), and coal briquette (3.2) combustion [61]. Similarly, the hopane and homo-hopane indexes for 296 297 the excess between the cold and warm period is estimated as 0.49 and 0.35 (Table 2), respectively, which are very close to those in residential combustion of bituminous coal 298 (0.52 and 0.37 for the hopane and homo-hopane indexes, respectively), but very different 299 from typical emission ratios in mineral-oil-based sources (i.e. fuel oil consumption and 300 vehicular emissions) (i.e. hopane index >0.9 and homohopane index in the range of 0.54-301 0.67) [53, 56, 59]. This suggests that the bituminite is a dominant contributor of the 302 excess EC, which is associated with the highest EC emission factor from bituminous 303 coals compared to other coal types on one hand and a larger percentage (78%) of 304 bituminous coal in total raw coal in 2000 in China on the other hand [62]. 305

306 The fraction of traffic and coal combustion to EC particles is further calculated by:

$$EC_{coal} = picene/(picene/EC)_{coal}$$
 (Eq. 6)

 $EC_{traffic} = EC_{FF} - EC_{coal} (Eq. 7)$

The "best estimate" and its associated uncertainty are obtained by Latin-hypercube 309 310 sampling (LHS) [23]. This approach is comparable to Monte Carlo simulation which has been reported in many ¹⁴C-based source apportionment studies [63-66]. The emission 311 ratio of picene/EC for coal combustion or (picene/EC)_{coal} may be overestimated by 25% 312 or underestimated by 50%, if the traffic EC in winter is actually lower or higher than that 313 in summer, respectively. Considering the overall uncertainty of (picene/EC)_{coal}, a range 314 from 0.75 to 1.5 with a central value of 1.0 is used as the input. The LHS simulation is 315 conducted by generating 3000 random sets of variables. Simulations producing negative 316 solutions are excluded and the median value from the remaining simulations is used as 317 the best estimate, and the 10th and 90th percentiles of the solutions are used as 318 uncertainties [23]. 319

As shown in Figure 4, EC is divided into three major sources: EC_{BB}, EC_{traffic} and EC_{coal}. 320 The changes in the source pattern between the warm and cold season are substantial, 321 322 though vehicle emissions are the most important source of EC in both the warm and cold periods with a mean contribution of 79±6% and 50±7%, respectively. However, the 323 biomass-burning contribution slightly increased (from 19% to 24%) and the coal 324 325 combustion contribution increased dramatically in the cold period. The excess of EC between the cold and warm seasons was shared by coal (68±4%) and biomass burning 326 combustion (32±4%) sources. The importance of coal contribution in the cold period is 327 also evident by the occurrence of picene and hopanes indices. The current results imply 328 329 that wintertime aerosol pollution in Beijing is likely driven by increased coal combustion and possible secondary formation of other aerosol components such as nitrate, sulfate and 330 organic carbon co-emitted with EC [15, 29, 61, 67]. 331

In summary, the sources of elemental carbon (EC) from ambient samples collected in Beijing were investigated based on both radiocarbon (14 C) and organic marker measurements. The results demonstrate that EC is dominated by fossil emissions 335 throughout the year with a mean contribution of $79\% \pm 6\%$. To further identify and quantify traffic-related emissions and coal combustion contributions to fossil EC, 336 337 hopanes and picene were also measured. The concentrations of the total identified hopanes are 68.6 ± 28.7 ng/m³ and 17.9 ± 6.5 ng/m³ in the cold and the warm period, 338 respectively. The seasonal molecular pattern of hopanes indicates that vehicle emissions 339 are the most important fossil source in the warm period and coal combustion emission is 340 increased significantly in the cold season. By combining the ¹⁴C and organic marker's 341 measurements, relative contributions from coal and biomass-burning to the excess of EC 342 between the cold and warm seasons were estimated as 68% and 32%, respectively. Based 343 on published data from source samples, the hopane and home-hopane indexes as well as 344 the picene-to-EC ratios are compared among different kinds of coal types. The 345 comparison shows that the bituminite is a dominant coal type used during winter in 346 Beijing. 347

348 Supporting Information

Relevance of the charring reduction using the Swiss 4S protocol; table showing the 349 fraction of modern (f_M) of EC in PM1, PM2.5 and PM10 in Switzerland; figures 350 describing the fraction of modern (f_M) of EC in PM4 (winter, 2011) and PM2.5 (winter 351 2013) in Beijing, thermograms of water-extracted aerosol samples using Swiss 4S, 352 integrated probability distributions of the averaged relative contributions to EC from 353 different sources using the Latin-hypercube sampling (LHS) simulation, and the relative 354 contribution to EC from coal combustion (EC_{coal}) as a function of the selected 355 (picene/EC)_{coal}. This material is available free of charge via the Internet 356 357 at http://pubs.acs.org.

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Table 1. Sampling dates and temperature (T) of the selected aerosol samples for ${}^{14}C$

601 measurements and their corresponding EC concentration, fraction of modern (f_M) , fraction

of biomass burning (f_{BB}), fraction of fossil-fuel (f_{FF}), biomass-burning EC (EC_{BB}) and

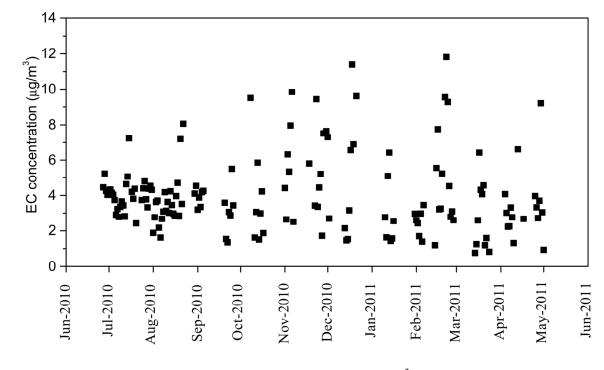
603 fossil-fuel EC concentrations (EC_{FF}).

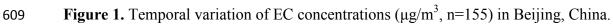
Date	T °C	EC (µg/m ³)	f_{M}	\mathbf{f}_{BB}	$f_{\rm FF}$	EC_{BB} ($\mu g/m^3$)	EC _{FF} (µg/m ³)	
7/3/2010	30	4.30	0.15±0.02	0.14±0.02	0.86±0.02	0.59±0.07	3.7±0.46	
7/5/2010	32	3.88	0.10±0.01	0.09±0.01	0.91±0.01	0.35±0.05	3.53±0.55	
7/25/2010	30	4.38	0.18 ± 0.01	0.17 ± 0.01	0.83±0.01	0.73 ± 0.06	3.65±0.29	
7/27/2010	31	3.90	0.19±0.01	0.18 ± 0.01	0.82 ± 0.01	0.69 ± 0.05	3.21±0.25	
10/8/2010	17	9.50	0.25 ± 0.02	0.23 ± 0.02	0.77 ± 0.02	2.19±0.21	7.31±0.7	
11/28/2010	-1	7.30	$0.34{\pm}0.02$	0.31 ± 0.02	$0.69{\pm}0.02$	2.26±0.15	5.04±0.33	
11/30/2010	-1	7.64	0.28 ± 0.02	0.25 ± 0.02	0.75 ± 0.02	1.95±0.13	5.7±0.39	
2/15/2011	-6	5.55	0.25 ± 0.02	0.23 ± 0.02	0.77 ± 0.02	1.27 ± 0.09	4.28±0.31	
2/16/2011	-3	7.75	0.25 ± 0.02	0.23±0.02	0.77 ± 0.02	1.77±0.13	5.98±0.45	
2/21/2011	1	9.34	0.21 ± 0.01	0.19±0.01	0.81 ± 0.01	1.82±0.14	7.52±0.57	
3/18/2011	8	4.27	0.23 ± 0.02	0.21 ± 0.02	$0.79{\pm}0.02$	0.91 ± 0.08	3.36±0.29	
3/20/2011	7	4.50	$0.30{\pm}0.02$	0.27 ± 0.02	0.73 ± 0.02	1.23±0.09	3.27±0.23	
4/13/2011	17	6.61	0.26 ± 0.02	0.24 ± 0.02	0.76 ± 0.02	1.59±0.13	5.02±0.4	
4/30/2011	16	3.06	0.21±0.02	0.19±0.02	0.81 ± 0.02	0.58±0.06	2.48±0.27	

- **Table 2.** Range and mean (\pm standard deviation) concentrations of hopanes (ng/m³), picene (ng/m³), total EC (μ g/m³), fossil-fuel EC 604
- (EC_{FF}) (µg/m³) and picene-to-EC_{FF} emission ratio (ng/µg) in the warm and cold periods and the excess in the cold period. 605

	Abbreviation	Warm period (n=22)		Cold period (n=15)		Excess	
Substance		Range	Mean	Range	Mean	Mass	%
18α(H)-22,29,30-trisnorneohopane	Ts	0.39-3.80	1.52±1.18	0.93-3.69	2.21±0.85	0.69	46
17α(H)-22,29,30-trisnorhopane	Tm	0.58-2.68	1.12±0.49	2.13-13.14	7.58±3.38	6.46	577
$17\alpha(H),21\beta(H)-30$ -norhopane	29ab	0.87-6.01	3.68±1.45	4.92-33.66	16.13±7.61	12.45	339
$17\beta(H),21\alpha(H)-30$ -norhopane+ $17\alpha(H),21\alpha(H)-30$ -norhopane	29ba	0.33-2.84	1.27±0.77	1.68-16.31	10.41±4.75	9.13	718
$17\alpha(H), 21\beta(H)-30$ -hopane	30ab	1.33-6.68	4.14±1.53	3.03-20.64	12.60±5.61	8.45	204
$17\beta(H),21\alpha(H)-30$ -hopane	30ba	0.49-2.21	1.02 ± 0.51	1.7-16.43	9.67±4.54	8.65	847
$17\alpha(H)$,21 $\beta(H)$ -22S-homohopane	31abS	0.69-3.35	1.98 ± 0.78	1.62-5.14	3.31±1.16	1.33	67
$17\alpha(H)$,21 $\beta(H)$ -22R-homohopane	31abR	0.5-2.28	1.54 ± 0.50	0.95-7.49	3.99±1.63	2.45	159
$17\alpha(H), 21\beta(H)-22S$ -bishomohopane	32abS	0.63-2.45	1.52 ± 0.48	0.94-4.43	2.89±1.02	1.37	90
$17\alpha(H), 21\beta(H)-22R$ -bishomohopane	32abR	0.35-4.30	1.46±0.92	0.83-3.81	2.48±0.91	1.03	70
Subtotal		2.49-24.36	17.88±6.45	17.79-120.98	68.63±28.7	50.75	284
hopane index: 30ab/(30ab+30ba)		0.61-1	0.84±0.11	0.49-0.66	0.57 ± 0.06	0.49*	
homo-hopane index: 31abS/(31abS+31abR)		0.46-0.63	0.56 ± 0.04	0.38-0.63	0.46 ± 0.07	0.35*	
picene		0-0.17	0.02 ± 0.05	0.34-4.48	1.82 ± 0.99	1.79	7576
$\mathrm{EC}^{\#}$		3.1-9.5	4.9±2.0	5.6-9.3	7.5±1.4	2.6	52
$\mathrm{EC}^{\#}_{\mathrm{FF}}$		2.5-7.3	3.9±1.4	4.3-7.5	5.7±1.2	1.8	43
$(picene/EC_{FF})^{\#}$		0-0.09	0.02 ± 0.03	0.24-0.41	0.34 ± 0.07	1.0*	

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- * These ratios are determined from the masses of the individual components for the excess in the cold period. # The values are obtained from a subset of samples, which are measured for radiocarbon (n=9 and 5 for the warm and cold periods, respectively). 607





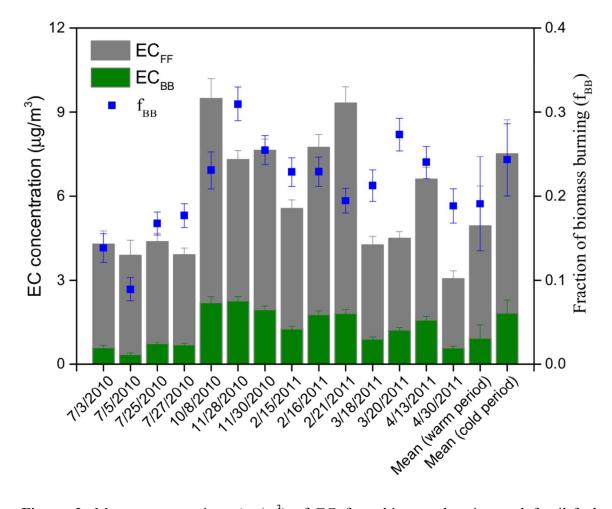


Figure 2. Mass concentrations $(\mu g/m^3)$ of EC from biomass burning and fossil-fuel combustion (EC_{BB} and EC_{FF}, respectively) as well as fractions of biomass-burning EC to total EC (f_{BB}) in Beijing with 1 σ uncertainties.

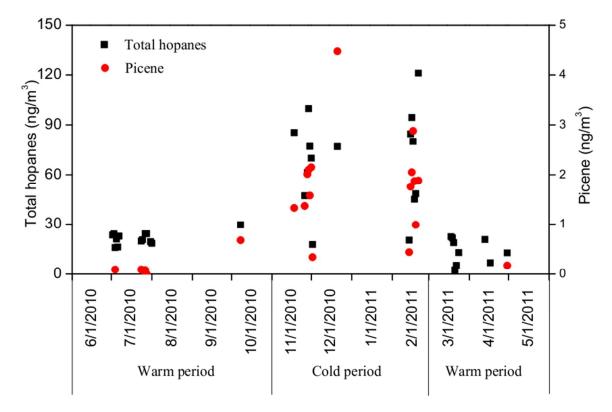
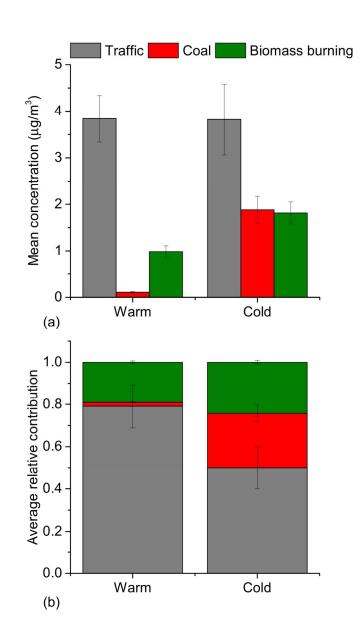


Figure 3. Temporal variation (n=35) of total identified hopanes (see in Table 2) and picene concentrations (ng/m^3) in Beijing, China. The interval of x-axis is 30 days.



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Figure 4. Average EC concentrations (a) and relative contributions (b) from trafficrelated, coal and biomass-burning emissions in the warm (March to October) and cold (November to February) periods. Uncertainty bars represent 10^{th} and 90^{th} percentiles from LHS calculations. The integrated probability distribution and sensitivity test (with a variation of ((picene/EC)_{coal})) from the LHS simulation is shown in the Figure S3 and S4 (see Supporting Information).