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Source Apportionment of Fine Organic Carbon (OC) Using Receptor Modelling at a Rural Site of Beijing: Insight into Seasonal and Diurnal Variation of Source Contributions

**Xuefang Wu^{1,2}, Chunrong Chen³, Tuan V. Vu¹, D. Liu¹
Clarissa Baldo¹, Xiaobao Shen⁴, Qiang Zhang³, Kuang Cen²
Mei Zheng⁵, Kebin He^{6,7}, Zongbo Shi¹, and Roy M. Harrison^{1*†}**

¹Division of Environmental Health and Risk Management
School of Geography, Earth and Environmental Sciences
University of Birmingham
Edgbaston, Birmingham B15 2TT, United Kingdom

²School of Earth Sciences and Resources
China University of Geosciences, Xueyuan Road 29, 100083 Beijing, China

³Ministry of Education Key Laboratory for Earth System Modeling,
Department of Earth System Science,
Tsinghua University, Beijing 100084, China

⁴ School of Light Industry, Beijing Technology and Business University
Beijing 100048, China

⁵SKL-ESPC and BIC-ESAT, College of Environmental Sciences and Engineering
Peking University, Beijing 100871, China

⁶State Environmental Protection Key Laboratory of Sources and Control of Air
Pollution Complex, Beijing 100084, China

⁷State Key Joint Laboratory of Environment, Simulation and Pollution Control
School of Environment, Tsinghua University, Beijing 100084, China

* To whom correspondence should be addressed (Email: r.m.harrison@bham.ac.uk)

†Also at: Department of Environmental Sciences / Center of Excellence in Environmental Studies, King Abdulaziz University, PO Box 80203, Jeddah, 21589, Saudi Arabia

33 **ABSTRACT**

34 This study was designed to investigate the seasonal characteristics and apportion the sources of
35 organic carbon during non-haze days ($<75 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) and haze ($\geq 75 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) events at Pinggu, a rural
36 Beijing site. Time-resolved concentrations of carbonaceous aerosols and organic molecular tracers
37 were measured during the winter of 2016 and summer 2017, and a Chemical Mass Balance (CMB)
38 model was applied to estimate the average source contributions. The concentration of OC in winter
39 is comparable with previous studies, but relatively low during the summer. The CMB model
40 apportioned seven separate primary sources, which explained on average 73.8% on haze days and
41 81.2% on non-haze days of the organic carbon in winter, including vegetative detritus, biomass
42 burning, gasoline vehicles, diesel vehicles, industrial coal combustion, residential coal combustion
43 and cooking. A slightly lower percentage of OC was apportioned in the summer campaign with 64.5%
44 and 78.7% accounted for. The other unapportioned OC is considered to consist of secondary organic
45 carbon (SOC). During haze episodes in winter, coal combustion and SOC were the dominant sources
46 of organic carbon with 23.3% and 26.2%, respectively, followed by biomass burning emissions
47 (20%), whereas in summer, industrial coal combustion and SOC were important contributors. Diurnal
48 contribution cycles for coal combustion and biomass burning OC showed a peak at 6-9 pm,
49 suggesting domestic heating and cooking were the main sources of organic aerosols in this rural area.
50 Backward trajectory analysis showed that high OC concentrations were measured when the air mass
51 was from the south, suggesting that the organic aerosols in Pinggu were affected by both local
52 emissions and regional transport from central Beijing and Hebei province during haze episodes. The
53 source apportionment by CMB is compared with the results of a Positive Matrix Factorization (PMF)
54 analysis of ACSM data for non-refractory PM_{10} , showing generally good agreement.

55 **Keywords:** Organic aerosols; source apportionment; CMB; ACSM-PMF; Beijing

56
57 **Capsule:** The organic carbon in Beijing $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ is apportioned to eight sources with a Chemical Mass
58 Balance model and the results compared to other apportionment methods.

59 **Highlights:**

- 60 • Application of CMB model to organic carbon in Beijing PM_{2.5}
- 61 • Seven primary sources and secondary aerosol are quantified
- 62 • Winter and summer and high time resolution data analysed
- 63 • Comparison of results with ACSM/PMF data

64

65 1. INTRODUCTION

66 Organic aerosols (OA) generate major research interest as they negatively impact human health,
67 degrade visibility, and impact the Earth's global radiation balance (Robinson et al., 2007; Jacobson
68 et al., 2000). Primary OA represents those compounds that are directly emitted from sources and
69 secondary organic aerosol (SOA) is formed through chemical oxidation of volatile organic
70 compounds (Kanakidou et al., 2005). In the Northern China region, the annual mean concentration
71 of OA during 2010-2014 was $28.9 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (Wu et al., 2018), which on its own far exceeds the WHO
72 Guideline for $\text{PM}_{2.5}$. The development of effective control strategies for abating the fine organic
73 aerosols is a high priority and thus requires a detailed understanding of the origin and atmospheric
74 processing of organic aerosol, including recognition of emission sources and investigation of the
75 relationships between specific aerosol components and haze episodes.

76

77 Receptor modelling is commonly used to apportion the source contributions to fine organic carbon
78 concentrations by determining the best-fit linear combination of chemical component profiles of
79 source aerosols and the measured ambient samples composition (Watson, 1984). One approach is the
80 Chemical Mass Balance (CMB) model, with primary organic tracer measurements in ambient air and
81 known source profiles (Robinson et al., 2006). CMB is well able to determine the sources if suitable
82 source profiles are available as inputs to the model, but does not directly identify the contribution of
83 SOA and other unknown sources (Hopke, 2015). Positive Matrix Factorization (PMF) has also been
84 employed extensively for the source apportionment of fine OC and submicron OA and thus offers the
85 potential to apportion directly components to source-related factors and estimate the contribution to
86 ambient samples based on tracer species (Shrivastava et al., 2007; Viana et al., 2008).

87

88 In the past decade, much effort has been dedicated to investigate the chemical characteristics and
89 sources of organic aerosols in Beijing, which provides useful information for effective air quality
90 management (Lyu et al., 2019; Cao et al., 2017; Sun et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2016; Tan et al., 2014;
91 Tang et al., 2018). For example, based on a CMB model, Wang et al. (2009) estimated that the
92 contribution of biomass burning to OC in urban Beijing was dominant in winter with a 26%
93 contribution to ambient OC, and that the contributions from coal combustion (17.2%) and cooking
94 (17.3%) were comparable. In summer, the main source for OC was Other OC (usually interpreted as
95 SOC) with 51.4%, followed by cooking (23.8%). Guo et al. (2012) collected 12h aerosol samples
96 and found that mobile sources were dominant in rural Beijing (Yufa), with 14.7% of OC emitted from
97 diesel engines and 8.0% of OC from gasoline, followed by biomass burning (8.9%) and coal
98 combustion (7.7%) via the CMB model. The OC values from biomass burning and coal combustion
99 at a rural site were slightly higher than those in urban Beijing due to more burning activities in rural
100 areas. A number of studies reported source apportionment of fine OC in Beijing based on a PMF
101 model. Elser et al. (2016) conducted PMF analysis on mass spectral data measured by AMS (aerosol
102 mass spectrometry) and concluded that coal combustion and SOA were significant sources of fine
103 OA with 46.8% and 25% contributions, respectively, during haze episodes (OA: $103 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) in urban
104 Beijing, followed by biomass burning (13.8%). During non-haze days (OA: $42 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$), the
105 contributions of coal combustion and cooking increased to 55.2% and 11.5%, respectively, consistent
106 with previous studies (Huang et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2014). A study conducted by Zhou et al.
107 (2018) on submicron organic aerosol sources at high altitudes in winter in Beijing, indicated that SOA
108 is a dominant source of OA during both the heating season (72%) and non-heating season (58-64%),
109 which were about 15-34% higher than that at ground level. Coal combustion showed a large increase
110 during the heating period with 13-21%. These findings illustrated that combustion activities and
111 secondary formation have a major influence on the increase of OC.

112

113 Until now, a quantitative understanding of the diurnal and seasonal variation of fine OC in rural
114 Beijing is still incomplete. Therefore, in this study, we analyzed PM_{2.5} samples collected during the
115 APHH-China field campaigns in the winter 2016 to summer 2017 in rural Beijing (Pinggu) (Shi et
116 al., 2019) to determine the concentration of organic molecular marker compounds. A CMB model
117 with organic tracers was used to apportion the primary OC (POC) based on the source profiles of
118 POC from emission sources. The diurnal and seasonal trends of source contributions to OC were
119 compared with those from submicron organic aerosols with PMF modelling. In addition, a back
120 trajectory clustering analysis was used to further investigate the influence of local emissions and
121 regional transport on ambient organic aerosols.

122

123 **2. METHODOLOGY**

124 **2.1 Aerosol Sampling**

125 The sampling site (40.17 °N, 117.05 °E) is located in Pinggu at the junction point of Beijing, Tianjin,
126 and Hebei province, approximately 60 km away from Beijing downtown. The site is in a village with
127 surrounds of trees and farmland, 500 m east of the provincial highway (which runs north-south). It is
128 near the residential area and far from industrial sources. The sampling was conducted from 10th
129 November to 21st December 2016 and 22 May to 24 June 2017 as part of the Atmospheric Pollution
130 and Human Health in a Chinese megacity (APHH-China) field campaigns (Shi et al., 2019).

131

132 Fine aerosol samples were collected on pre-fired quartz fiber filters three-hourly during haze days
133 (PM_{2.5}≥75 µg m⁻³) and daily during non-haze days (PM_{2.5}<75 µg m⁻³) using a high volume air sampler
134 (H1000-H, Tianhong, Wuhan) at a flow rate of 1.05 m³ min⁻¹ in winter. In summer, four-hourly
135 samples were collected during moderately polluted days (PM_{2.5}=35-75 µg m⁻³) and 24 h ambient
136 PM_{2.5} samples on “clean” days (PM_{2.5}≤35 µg m⁻³). Quartz fibre filters (Pall-flex, 2500QAT-UP) were

137 wrapped with aluminum foil and then baked at 450 °C for 6 h before sampling. The exposed filters
138 were stored in a refrigerator at -80 °C before being weighed and analyzed. The quartz filters were
139 then analyzed for organic tracers, OC/EC and ion species. An additional medium volume air sampler
140 (Thermo Scientific Partisol 2025i) was applied to collect both fine and coarse particles on 47 mm
141 Teflon filters for gravimetric analysis. The detailed context of these sampling campaigns is described
142 by Shi et al. (2019).

143

144 **2.2 PM_{2.5} Mass and Chemical Analysis**

145 **2.2.1 PM_{2.5} mass, OC and EC measurement**

146 PM_{2.5} mass was determined by subtracting the weight of the Teflon filters before and after sampling
147 using a Sartorius model MC5 microbalance. Filters were equilibrated at a constant temperature
148 (20±2 °C) and relative humidity (< 40%) prior to weighing.

149

150 A DRI multi-wavelength Thermal-Optical carbon (Model 2015) analyser was used for quantifying
151 the levels of OC and EC based on the EUSAAR_2 transmittance protocol (Chen et al., 2015). Organic
152 carbon on a segment of filter (0.5 cm²) is volatilised initially under a non-oxidizing temperature ramp
153 from ambient to 650°C, generating four carbon fractions: OC1, OC2, OC3, and OC4. The volatilised
154 compounds then pass through manganese dioxide (as an oxidiser) to convert them to CO₂, which is
155 quantified by a nondispersive infrared (NDIR) CO₂ detector. A fraction of the OC pyrolyzes to EC
156 (OP), which is estimated by the transmittance laser. Seven modulated diode lasers measure the
157 transmittance through filter at wavelengths of 405, 450, 532, 635, 780, 808, and 980 nm; the 635 nm
158 laser approximates the He/Ne laser that is conventionally employed to correct for pyrolysis charring
159 of OC into EC. The second temperature ramp is from 500 to 850 °C with He/O₂ mixture carrier gas,
160 which oxidizes the elemental carbon and pyrolysis products. Given this, the OC was defined as

161 OC1+OC2+OC3+OC4+OP, EC as EC1+EC2+EC3+EC4-OP. The limits of detection of OC and EC
162 in this study were estimated to be $0.03 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$.

163

164 2.2.2 Quantification of individual organic compounds

165 Organic tracers were analyzed based on the methods of Yin et al. (2010; 2015), including 12 n-alkanes
166 $\text{C}_{24}\text{-C}_{35}$, 9 hopanes, 23 PAHs, 3 anhydrosugars, 6 fatty acids and cholesterol. In brief, a 9 cm^2 of
167 quartz filter was cut from a whole filter and then spiked with internal standards before extraction,
168 including octacosane- d_{58} , hexatriacontane- d_{74} , α -20R-cholestane- d_4 , acenaphthylene- d_8 ,
169 phenanthrene- d_{10} , fluoranthene- d_{10} , pyrene- d_{10} , chrysene- d_{12} , benzo(a)pyrene- d_{12} ,
170 dibenzo(a,b)anthracene- d_{14} , benzo(ghi)perylene- d_{12} , phthalic 3,4,5,6- d_4 acid, heptadecanoic acid-
171 d_{33} , heptanedioic acid- d_4 , methyl-beta-D-xylopyranoside, and cholesterol-2,2,3,4,4,6- d_6 . Filters
172 were extracted with two 30 ml mixture of DCM and methanol (2:1, v: v, HPLC grade) while
173 undergoing mild shaking treatment (15 min). The combined extract solution was concentrated with a
174 rotary evaporator to approximately 5 ml, and then filtered and further concentrated to a volume of
175 $300 \mu\text{l}$ under a stream of nitrogen. An aliquot of $50 \mu\text{l}$ extract solution was evaporated down to near
176 dryness. To derivatise the compounds of interests, N,O-bis(trimethylsilyl)-trifluoroacetamide plus
177 1% trimethylchlorosilane (BSTFA+1% TMCS) and pyridine was then added. The solution is kept at
178 70°C for 3 h, and cooled in a desiccator for 30 mins. Another aliquot of $100 \mu\text{l}$ solution was
179 derivatised with 2.0 M trimethylsilyldiazomethane to convert organic acids to methyl esters. A third
180 sub-sample was utilized to analyze non-polar compounds such as n-alkanes, hopanes and PAHs
181 directly.

182

183 Organic compounds were analyzed with a gas chromatography mass spectrometry system (GC/MS)
184 on an Agilent Technologies instrument (GC-6890N plus MSD-5973N) fitted with a HP-5MS column

185 (30 m length, 0.25 mm diameter, 0.25 μ m thickness). Internal standards were used to estimate
186 recovery rates and blank values were subtracted during the quantification. Aliquots of 1 μ l were
187 injected into the GC in splitless mode. Recoveries of the quantified organic compounds were in a
188 range of 80-110 %. Field blank filters were used as part of the quality assurance, and showed that the
189 contamination levels were less than 5% of real samples for the species detected.

190

191 **2.2.3 Receptor modeling with Chemical Mass Balance (CMB) model**

192 To quantify the source contributions of carbonaceous aerosols, the US EPA CMB8.2 software was
193 applied for receptor modelling. The effective variance least squares solution was applied, which uses
194 the uncertainties in the source profiles and the ambient samples as weighting factors in the CMB
195 solution. The source profiles were mostly obtained from work conducted in China (Table S1),
196 including biomass burning (Zhang et al., 2007), diesel and gasoline vehicles (Cai et al., 2017),
197 industrial and residential coal combustion (Zhang et al., 2008), and cooking (Zhao et al., 2015), except
198 for the profile of vegetative detritus (Rogge et al., 1993). To ensure adequate model operation, we
199 defined certain acceptance criteria for running the CMB before a minimum number of fitting species
200 is selected. For example, some organic tracers were used to control the quality, using acceptance
201 criteria as 0.8-1.2 for the calculated to measured ratios (C/M) for all fitting species. Moreover, quality
202 controls were carried out requiring high R^2 (>0.95) and low χ^2 (<2). The detailed method for
203 organic marker species selection has been described by Yin et al. (2010; 2015).

204

205 **2.3 Aerodyne Aerosol Chemical Speciation Monitor (ACSM) Measurements**

206 **2.3.1 ACSM aerosol sampling**

207 A Quadrupole Aerodyne Aerosol Chemical Speciation Monitor (Q-ACSM) was deployed to measure
208 non-refractory submicron aerosol (NR-PM₁) species, including organics, nitrate, sulfate, ammonium,

209 and chloride (Ng et al., 2011). Briefly, after coarse particle filtration and moisture removal,
210 approximately 85 cc min⁻¹ flow is efficiently sampled through a 100 µm critical orifice, with
211 submicron particles (75–650 nm) focused into the first of three vacuum chambers via an aerodynamic
212 lens (Liu et al., 2007). When the focused particle beam is transmitted into the final chamber, NR-PM₁
213 is flash-vaporized at ~600 °C, ionized by 70 eV electron impact, and subsequently detected via a
214 commercial quadrupole mass spectrometer. The ACSM works in two modes, i.e., filter mode and
215 sample mode, which are automatically switched by a 3-way switching valve. In our study, 14
216 switching cycles were switched between the two modes, and the time resolution for the ACSM data
217 was ~15 min with a scan from m/z 10 to 150 at 200 ms amu⁻¹.

218

219 **2.3.2 ACSM data analysis**

220 Mass concentrations of NR-PM₁ species and the mass spectra of organic aerosol (OA) were analyzed
221 with the standard data analysis software (v 1.6.1.1). The detailed procedures for ACSM data analysis
222 can be found in Ng et al. (2011). Default values of relative ionization efficiency (RIE) were used for
223 organic (1.4), nitrate (1.1), and chloride (1.3), while that of ammonium (8.88) and sulfate (0.94) was
224 determined through analyzing pure ammonium nitrate and ammonium sulfate, respectively. In order
225 to compensate for the particle loss (Matthew et al., 2008), collection efficiency (CE) was introduced
226 to the ACSM data set. The CE value is affected by particle phase water, particle acidity and aerosol
227 composition (Matthew et al., 2008). Here, the relative humidity (RH) is considered low because
228 aerosol particles were dried before ACSM sampling, and the mass fraction of ammonium nitrate was
229 observed normally below 40% during the whole period. In addition, aerosol particles have been
230 reported slightly acidic in Beijing (Sun et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2017). Therefore 0.5 was used as the
231 default value of CE.

232

233 The source apportionment of OA was processed using the positive matrix factorization algorithm
234 developed by Paatero and Tapper. (1994). Similar to Sun et al. (2012) and Sun et al. (2013), we only
235 considered PMF analysis up to m/z 120 in this study due to the large interferences on m/z 127–129
236 from the naphthalene signal. The spectral data and error matrices were pretreated following the
237 procedures summarized in Ulbrich et al. (2009). Our PMF analysis was performed from two to seven
238 factors with the rotational parameter (f_{peak}) varying from -1 to 1 (step = 0.1) via an Igor-Pro-based
239 PMF Evaluation Tool (PET, v3.05; Ulbrich et al., 2009), and the summary on how to select the
240 optimal PMF factor is shown in Table S2. In brief, solutions with two to four factors indicate mixing
241 of factors to some extent, while for six-factor and seven-factor solutions, the additional factors do not
242 have a plausible physical explanation and show the characteristics of factor splitting. Hence an
243 optimal solution involving five factors at $f_{\text{peak}}=0$ and $Q/Q_{\text{exp}}=2.04$ was determined, which is
244 consistent with the recommendations in a previous study (Zhang et al., 2011). The optimal solution
245 includes four primary factors, i.e., hydrocarbon-like OA (HOA), cooking OA (COA), coal
246 combustion OA (CCOA), and biomass burning OA (BBOA), as well as one secondary factor, i.e.,
247 oxygenated OA (OOA). The five factors show distinct mass spectral profiles, diurnal cycles and time
248 variations, indicating their different sources and/or processes (Figures 4 and S5). Meanwhile, the
249 trend of each factor also correlates well with external tracers and associated inorganics (NO_x , NO_3 ,
250 SO_4 , Chloride; Li et al, 2017), e.g., HOA with NO_x , OOA with NO_3 and SO_4 , CCOA with chloride
251 (Figure S6). The detailed discussion of source apportionment of OA components is given in Section
252 3.4.

253

254 **3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

255 **3.1 Characteristics of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ and Carbonaceous Compounds**

256 Average concentrations of the $\text{PM}_{2.5}$, OC, EC, and molecular tracers included in the model are
257 summarized in Table 1. The mean concentration of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ was $136.2 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ in Pinggu during winter

sampling, which exceed Chinese National Ambient Air Quality Standards (GB3095-2012) ($35 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ annually) by a factor of 4. The levels of OC at Pinggu fluctuated from $2.5\text{--}49 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ and $6.9\text{--}152 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ on non-haze days and haze days respectively in winter, with average concentrations of $15 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ and $52 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, respectively. The average EC concentration during haze days was $5.4 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ which was 2.8 times higher than that during non-haze days. The overall average mass concentration of OC was $40 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, whereas the EC concentration was $4.3 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. The OC concentrations at the urban site (IAP) were similar to reports in previous studies, ranging from 20.6 to $36.1 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ during 2009 to 2011 in urban Beijing (Cheng et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2013; Du et al., 2014). The Pinggu site is often downwind of urban Beijing during haze episodes, contributing to the relatively higher OC, as pollutants are transported from the downtown area to the rural sampling site. In addition, there is a contribution from greater biomass burning emissions for domestic heating and cooking in rural areas. Although the government has implemented policies to prohibit the field burning of residual straw, this is still used as a domestic fuel in the rural areas around Beijing (Cheng et al., 2013).

The mean OC and EC in summer were 7.4 and $0.8 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, respectively, which is comparable to previous studies in the rural Beijing area during summer. Tang et al. (2018) reported that OC and EC in Changping in the summer 2016 were 8.9 and $0.7 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, respectively. Slightly higher values of OC and EC were measured earlier in Yufa, with 9.4 and $2.4 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (Guo et al., 2012), suggesting that the air pollution prevention and control measures may have had an effect.

3.2 Diurnal Variations of Organic Tracers During Haze Days in Winter and Summer

As shown in Figure S1, the levels of OC, EC and organic tracers showed similar diurnal trends. The highest peak of concentration for OC ($76.3 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$), EC ($9.3 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) and other molecular tracers (such as $1.9 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ for levoglucosan) typically occurred during 6:00-9:00 pm, and followed by 3:00-6:00 pm which are typical high emission periods due to the traffic rush hour, heating and dinner time. The lowest concentrations of these pollutants were observed from 3:00-6:00 am. A weak peak was

284 observed in the morning. The concentrations were lower in the early afternoon but increased sharply
285 after 3:00 pm. This suggested that the average diurnal variation of organic compounds was
286 predominantly driven by the diurnal variation of the emission strength from biomass burning and coal
287 combustion for domestic heating and cooking, combined with the change of meteorological condition
288 such as boundary layer mixing height and ambient stagnation. Biomass combustion activities in rural
289 areas after 6:00 pm for heating and cooking contributed to ambient PM_{2.5} and anhydrosugar values.

290

291 In summer, PM_{2.5} samples every 4 hours for 8 days were collected to observe the diurnal variation of
292 organic compounds. This dataset showed the trends in OC seen in Figure S2, which were different in
293 comparison with the same molecular marker compounds in haze episodes in winter. The peak
294 concentration for OC (8.5 µg m⁻³), EC (0.7 µg m⁻³) and organic acids (0.7 µg m⁻³) appeared at 6-9 pm,
295 which is similar to that in winter. Highest levels were found for n-alkanes, hopanes and PAHs in
296 daytime, especially in the morning rush hour for hopanes. However, lower levels in daytime were
297 observed for levoglucosan, presumably due to more burning activities at night.

298

299 **3.3 CMB Model Results**

300 **3.3.1 Source contributions to fine OC in winter and summer**

301 The results of the CMB model for haze and non-haze days in winter and summer for source
302 contributions to OC are presented in Table 2 and Figure 1. The measured concentrations of organic
303 tracers used in source apportionment are summarized in Table 1. Seven primary OC sources were
304 apportioned in Pinggu, including vegetative detritus, biomass burning, gasoline vehicles, diesel
305 engines, industrial coal combustion (Industrial CC), residential coal combustion (Residential CC) and
306 cooking. Using the average contributions, these account for about 73.8% and 81.2% of the organic
307 carbon on haze and non-haze days in the winter. A slightly lower proportion of OC was apportioned
308 in the summer with 64.5% and 78.7% on moderately polluted and “clean” days respectively.

309

310 The combined coal combustion (CC) from residential and industrial emissions made the highest
 311 contribution to OC in both winter (mean: $7.73 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) and summer (mean: $3.40 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$), although the
 312 residential CC was the main contributor in winter and industrial CC played a more significant role in
 313 summer. Industrial CC and Residential CC contributed $1.52 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (3.9%) and $8.40 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (19.4%)
 314 respectively during haze episodes, and contributed $0.65 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (5.2%) and $3.79 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (28.7%) during
 315 the non-haze days in winter. Their contributions to OC in summer were Residential CC, $0.42 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$
 316 (4.3%) and Industrial CC, $3.94 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (36.2%) during moderately polluted days, and reduced to 0.27
 317 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (5%) and $2.18 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (37.3%) on “clean” days, respectively. The high contribution of domestic
 318 coal burning to $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ organic carbon in winter is mainly due to its widespread local use, high emission
 319 factors and low altitude at emission; for example, Zhang et al. (2008) estimated that the emission
 320 factors of OC for residential anthracite and bituminite briquettes burned in a brick stove were 470 mg
 321 kg^{-1} and 2975 mg kg^{-1} , respectively. However, the emission factor for fine OC for industrial mixed
 322 coal was 1.9 mg kg^{-1} . The diurnal trend of coal combustion-derived OC in Figure 2a showed that the
 323 peak occurred during 18:00-21:00 pm ($20.9 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$), followed by midnight with $14.2 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ which is
 324 a typical heating time in winter. It gradually decreased to $6.6 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ in early morning and remained
 325 about $10 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ until 3:00 pm. Similar diurnal cycles of PM_1 coal combustion organic aerosol in winter
 326 Beijing were reported with the maximum value reached at midnight at $18 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ due to heating
 327 activities and the partitioning of semi-volatile water-soluble organic compounds from the gas phase to
 328 aerosol by the higher humidity (Sun et al., 2013). The diurnal pattern of coal combustion OC during
 329 summer (Figure 2b) was comparable to that during winter, which peaked during 16:00-20:00 with 9.0
 330 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ and decreased to $2.0\text{-}4.5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ during other periods. This feature may be attributable to the
 331 small number of samples (two samples) collected on low pollution days ($\text{PM}_{2.5} < 35 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$), and is
 332 consistent with the industrial emissions coming from the southwest (Hebei province) by advection.
 333
 334 Biomass burning is an important source of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ pollution in Beijing, especially in the rural areas
 335 where straw is burned in the field or combusted indoors for cooking and heating (Duan et al., 2004;

336 Chen et al., 2017). In this study, OC from biomass burning (BB) was lower than the contribution from
337 coal combustion in both seasons. The average biomass burning contribution to fine OC in winter was
338 $8.36 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ on haze days and $2.59 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ on non-haze days accounting for 20% of the OC
339 concentration. In summer, the average contribution of BB decreased to $1.27 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (11.6%) during
340 moderately polluted days and $0.74 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (14.8%) during “clean” days. This is comparable with the
341 CMB results from previous studies; Wang et al. (2009) estimated that the biomass burning contributed
342 approximately 26% and 11% to fine OC in winter and summer, respectively. Tang et al. (2018) and
343 Guo et al. (2012) estimated that the biomass burning source accounted for 8.9% at Changping and
344 5.0% at Yufa in summer. The higher BB contribution to OC in winter shows the influence of the
345 burning activities in the rural area during the haze episodes. Stricter control of biomass burning in June
346 2017 did see a reduced impact of biomass burning on air quality (Vu et al., 2019).

347

348 There is a clear trend for higher values on average during early evening and lower values during
349 daytime in winter from biomass burning contributions (Figure 2a). The highest average value of 21.4
350 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (30%) occurred during 3:00-9:00 pm, whereas the lowest contribution ($2.8 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (17.3%))
351 was during the early morning. This diurnal variation was similar to that of EC and the biomass-burning
352 tracer levoglucosan (Figure S1), which was slightly different from results observed in northwestern
353 China, for example in Lanzhou. Xu et al. (2016) estimated that biomass burning contributed to up to
354 approximately 20% to organic aerosol during the night but went down to 5% in the afternoon. Our
355 result suggested that the diurnal profile of OC was predominantly driven by the variation of the
356 emission strength from biomass burning and coal combustion for domestic heating and cooking,
357 combined with the change of meteorological conditions such as boundary layer mixing height and
358 ambient stagnation.

359

360 Traffic emissions including gasoline and diesel vehicle engines accounted for a lower proportion of
361 the fine OC concentration with 18.9% ($7.98 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) on haze days and 15.9% ($2.02 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) on non-

haze days during the winter campaign. The contributions were 5.3% on moderately polluted days and 8.9% on “clean” days during summer, respectively, indicating that traffic is a minor but significant contributor to organic aerosol in Pinggu. This result differs from the finding by Tang et al. (2018) where the vehicular exhaust was a dominant primary OC source with a contribution of 37.6% at a rural site (Changping) in the summer of 2016 and thus might highlight the importance of strict control measures. The diurnal variation of vehicle emissions shows that the highest traffic contribution occurred during 3:00-9:00 pm and lowest during 3:00-6:00 am, while the concentration increased from 6:00 am, consistent with a typical rush hour-related pattern. A subordinate peak during 12:00-3:00 am might have resulted from the Beijing traffic regulations (i.e., allowing heavy-duty vehicles only to enter the 6th Ring Road from midnight to 6:00 am). Traffic-derived OC exhibited slightly different diurnal trends in summer when it maintained high levels at night due to higher emissions and a lower planetary boundary layer height, and shows a peak at noon likely due to the regional transport of rush-hour vehicle emissions from the urban area.

Chinese cooking is a non-negligible contributor to organic aerosols, especially in urban Beijing with a population of approximately 23 million and nearly 30,000 restaurants. A number of previous studies on the source contribution of cooking to submicron organic aerosol indicated a weak seasonal variation, with contributions of 16-30% in summer and 13-20% in winter (Wang et al., 2009; Xu et al., 2016; Sun et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2014). In our study, cooking emissions contributed 3.0% of OC in winter and 5.9% in summer, which are comparable with that (5.8%) estimated by Elser et al. (2016) for the extreme haze periods in winter Beijing. The reason for the lower proportion in this study may be that their sampling site was far away from the residential areas. In both seasons, the cooking source showed a similar trend with peaks at lunchtime (between noon and 2:00 pm) and dinner times (from 6:00 to midnight). A small increase in cooking OA was also observed in the morning, consistent with breakfast time, suggesting an important role of the cooking source for organic aerosols. By

387 applying the PMF-AMS technique, Hu et al. (2016) estimated that the cooking organic aerosol
 388 contributed 45% and 35% of total OA in PM₁ in Beijing during noon and late evening, respectively.
 389
 390 Vegetative detritus made a similar contribution to OC during the winter and summer campaigns with
 391 their average contribution of 8.3% (2.87 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) and 7.6%, respectively, which are much higher than
 392 those in winter (0.5%) and summer (0.3%) from urban Beijing reported by Wang et al. (2009),
 393 probably because the sampling site in Pinggu is located in the village surrounded by numerous trees
 394 and plants. The source apportionment of vegetative detritus depends on the distribution of n-alkane
 395 isomers, which was derived from the anthropogenic emissions (mainly C₁₆₋₂₅) and biogenic sources
 396 (mainly C₂₆₋₃₂). Therefore, the carbon preference index (CPI) was utilized to infer the sources of n-
 397 alkanes, where a CPI larger than 3 indicates the dominance of biogenic sources (Alves et al., 2001). In
 398 this study, the average CPI for n-alkanes was 1.6 in winter and 3.5 in summer with insignificant
 399 variation between haze episodes and non-haze days. Based on the diurnal pattern in Figure 3,
 400 vegetative detritus contributes more organic carbon in the nighttime than during daytime.
 401
 402 “Other OC” represents OC unexplained by the CMB model. It was calculated as the difference
 403 between the measured OC and the sum of OC from all known sources calculated from CMB. This is
 404 considered as the secondary organic aerosol (SOA) and other organic species that are not accounted
 405 for in the modelling. The mean Source Contribution Estimate (SCE) of other OC was observed to be
 406 lower in mass and percentage during non-haze days (18.8% and 2.4 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) and higher during haze
 407 days (26.2% and 10.7 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) in winter. Other OC concentration in summer are lower, but represent
 408 a higher percentage of OC mass with 21.3% (1.14 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) during “clean” days and 35.5% (4.1 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$)
 409 during moderately polluted days, which agreed well with the previous results from rural Beijing with
 410 20.2-38.4% in summer (Guo et al., 2012; Tang et al., 2018). Wang et al. (2009) also estimated that the
 411 SOC could contribute about 22% in winter and 44% in summer in urban Beijing. Secondary OC is

412 affected by the high temperature that enhances biogenic VOC emissions and by more rapid SOA
413 formation via active photochemical processes in summer.

414

415 **3.3.2 Comparison of SOC concentration calculated by EC-tracer method with Other OC**

416 Based on the assumption that EC comes from primary aerosol and that the POC/EC ratio is relatively
417 constant (Turpin and Huntzicker, 1995; Castro et al., 1999), the EC-tracer method provides an
418 independent estimate of SOC, that is as follows:

$$419 \text{SOC}_{\text{EC}} = \text{OC} - (\text{POC}/\text{EC}) * \text{EC}$$

420 where SOC_{EC} is secondary organic carbon in the ambient air, whereas POC/EC is the ratio in primary
421 aerosol used as tracer for the evaluation of the origin of ambient organic aerosol. In this study, the
422 POC/EC ratio was determined based on the lowest 5% sub-set of measured OC/EC ratios for the
423 winter and summer campaigns according to the approach reported by Pio et al. (2011).

424

425 In order to verify the relationship among other OC components, secondary organic compounds, and
426 secondary inorganic compounds in winter, the SOC_{EC} , total NO_3^- , and SO_4^{2-} are plotted along with
427 Other OC calculated by CMB in Figure 3a. Similar trends are shared by both Other OC and NO_3^- ,
428 likely suggesting that these components were formed under similar conditions in winter (Yin et al.,
429 2010). The Other OC is well correlated with SOC_{EC} ($R^2 = 0.71$ and 0.89 for winter and summer)
430 (Figure 3b and c), confirming that “other OC” is associated with secondary organic aerosols. The
431 substantial intercept in Figures 3b and c suggest that the EC tracer method has probably not identified
432 the true OC/EC ratio for primary emissions due to an absence of periods without a secondary
433 contribution.

434

435

3.4 Comparison of the CMB Results with the Source Contribution of Submicron OA Estimated by ACSM-PMF

Five organic components in NR-PM₁ were identified based on the mass spectra (as shown in Figure 4) measured in winter at Pinggu, including HOA, CCOA, BBOA, COA, and OOA. The ideal factor numbers and the diagnostics of the PMF model error estimates is elaborated in Supplementary Information (SI) (Figure S3, S4 and Table S2). Source apportionment of OA was obtained based on the OC contribution and the various OA/OC ratios of different sources. In order to compare with the source apportionment results from the CMB model for fine OC, the OA concentrations from the ACSM-PMF were converted to a concentration of organic carbon. The OA/OC ratios used for this comparison were taken from values measured in Beijing, i.e. 1.38 for COA/COC (cooking organic carbon), 1.58 for BBOA/BBOC (biomass burning organic carbon) (Xu et al., 2019), 1.35 for CCOA/CCOC (coal combustion organic carbon), 1.31 for HOA/HOC (hydrocarbon-like organic carbon) (Sun et al., 2016), and 1.78 for OOA (Huang et al., 2010).

The HOA factor shows a similar spectrum to that of traffic or other fossil fuel combustion, which has a profile dominated by alkyl fragment signatures, the C_nH_{2n+1}⁺ (m/z 29, 43, 57) and C_nH_{2n-1}⁺ (m/z 27, 41, 55) ion series (Figure 4). There is a strong correlation (R²=0.82) between the time series of HOA and that of NO_x, a tracer of vehicle emissions. The average HOC concentrations are 7.46 μg m⁻³ during haze days and 2.42 μg m⁻³ on non-haze days, respectively, which was close to the CMB estimates for both diesel and gasoline vehicles (Figure 5). The diurnal pattern of HOC shows peaks during morning and evening rush hours (Figure 6), further supporting the association of HOC with traffic activities. This is also consistent with the result of CMB.

459 The mass spectrum of CCOA presented high signals at m/z 41, 43, 55, 57, 69, 91, and an especially
460 significant peak at m/z 115 (Figure 4). Moreover, a strong relationship ($R^2=0.81$) between CCOA and
461 chloride is observed. The contribution of CCOC shows a similar percentage to coal combustion
462 estimated by CMB, contributing 24.7% ($8.9 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) on haze days and 28.4% ($3.3 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) on non-
463 haze days (Figure 5). The diurnal variation in CCOC is characterized by low mass levels at daytime
464 and high levels related to the heating (17-21:00 local time) at night. This is consistent with the results
465 estimated by CMB (Figure 6). The contributions of both coal combustion and vehicle emissions to
466 OA based on AMS observations (Xu et al., 2019) are lower than those in Pinggu.

467

468 The profile of the BBOA factor was characterized by prominent peaks at m/z 60 and 73 as tracers of
469 biomass burning aerosol. The time series of BBOA correlates well with the peak of m/z 60 ($R^2=0.99$).
470 The contribution of BBOC to OC indicated a smaller fraction than the sum of biomass burning and
471 vegetation detritus contributions estimated by CMB, with an average of 16.1% ($5.8 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) of OC on
472 haze days and 11.9% ($1.4 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) on non-haze days. The apparent underestimation of BBOC
473 contributions to submicron OC in the PMF model may result from an over-estimation of COC,
474 because the cooking emissions contributes more to fine particles (Du et al., 2017). Moreover, the size
475 distribution of OA emitted from biomass burning can grow rapidly during regional transport. Both
476 the CCOC concentrations and the variation in the CMB biomass burning estimate show lower
477 concentrations during daytime and higher levels during nighttime.

478

479 The COA factor profile is generally identified by significant peaks at m/z 55 (i.e. $\text{C}_3\text{H}_3\text{O}^+$, C_4H_7^+)
480 and 57 (i.e. $\text{C}_3\text{H}_5\text{O}^+$, C_4H_9^+), typically seen in the spectral pattern of OA from fresh cooking emissions
481 (Mohr et al., 2012). Moreover, the diurnal variation of the COC factor presents distinctive peaks at
482 lunch and dinner times, resembling that of the CMB result. The contribution of COC (19.3%) reported
483 by PMF is higher than that in fine OC of the CMB model and the COA contribution in urban Beijing

484 (15%) (Xu et al., 2019). Dall'Osto et al. (2015) have highlighted the uncertainties inherent in COA
485 estimates determined at rural sites.

486

487 The OOA profile is identified from the prominent peak at m/z 44. Moreover, there are relatively
488 strong correlations between the OOA factor and those of secondary inorganic species, such as sulfate
489 and nitrate ($R^2=0.86$ and 0.93 , respectively). The OOC accounted for a higher fraction with 20% (7.0
490 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) during haze days than the 14.8% contribution ($1.7 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) attributed to submicron OA during
491 non-haze days, consistent with the result of CMB with 25% on haze days and 18% on non-haze days,
492 respectively. However, the contribution of SOA in urban Beijing can be considerably higher, for
493 example, approximately 52% (Xu et al., 2019), which was attributed to photochemical reactions and
494 aqueous-phase processing (Wang et al., 2019). Like the diurnal pattern of Other OC in the CMB
495 model, the OOC concentration increases gradually from the morning to late afternoon, indicating
496 their formation from photo-chemical processing (Figure 6).

497

498 The full results of the ACSM-PMF analysis appear alongside the CMB results in Table 2. To assist
499 a direct comparison, Table 3 shows the same set of data in generic categories which should be
500 comparable between the methods. In most cases the comparison, expressed as percentages as the
501 samples are of different size ranges ($\text{PM}_{2.5}$ for CMB and PM_1 for ACSM-PMF), is rather close. One
502 major divergence is that the CMB method attributes a significant amount of mass to the vegetative
503 detritus category which is not reported by the ACSM. It is unclear to what factor this will be attributed
504 by the ACSM-PMF. It is rich in hydrocarbons which would match aspects of the HOA mass
505 spectrum, but would be expected to show a different temporal pattern to vehicle emitted HOA. The
506 other divergence is in the estimates of cooking emissions. This is one of the more difficult source
507 categories to estimate by receptor modelling (Reyes-Villegas et al., 2018). There is evidence that
508 typical ACSM-PMF data analyses may over-estimate COA by a factor of around two (Yin et al.,
509 2015; Reyes-Villegas et al., 2018), but this would not be sufficient to explain the discrepancy.

510 Dall'Osto et al. (2015) suggest that the PMF may fail to make a good separation of COA from HOA,
511 leading to errors, but this would not be likely to account for the large differences seen in Table 2.
512 Abdullahi et al. (2018) have shown that in a UK urban context, estimates of cooking aerosol by CMB
513 are not strongly sensitive to the source profiles used, so use of an unrepresentative source profile may
514 not be the explanation.

515

516 3.5 Back Trajectory Analysis

517 In order to identify the influence of local emissions or regional transport on the organic aerosols, the 3-day air
518 mass back trajectories (HYSPLIT) were calculated as shown in Figure 7 terminating at 100, 500 and 1000
519 metres. Figure 7a shows that the clean air masses mainly come from the northwest sector or pass over the sea.
520 On the contrary, during haze days, the main air mass passed through the area south of Pinggu (including Hebei,
521 Shandong and Anhui) and urban Beijing with dense industry and population (Figure 7b). Combined with the
522 lower wind speed (0.8 m s^{-1}), the particulate matter was less diluted and more SOA could be produced.
523 Consequently, the organic aerosols in Pinggu were affected not only by local emissions during haze episodes,
524 but also received a major contribution from regional transport.

525

526 4. CONCLUSIONS

527 Seven primary OC sources were apportioned in Pinggu by CMB, including vegetative detritus,
528 biomass burning, gasoline vehicle emissions, diesel vehicles, industrial coal combustion, residential
529 coal combustion and cooking, contributing on average about 73.8% on haze days and 81.2% on non-
530 haze days of OC in winter. A slightly lower percentage of OC was apportioned in the summer with
531 64.5% and 78.7% on moderately polluted and “clean” days. Combustion activities and secondary
532 formation are dominant sources of OC at Pinggu in both cold and hot seasons. In wintertime, coal
533 combustion emissions contributed 24-34% of OC, followed by SOC (18-25%), biomass burning

534 (20%), motor vehicles (16-19%), vegetative detritus (8.3%) and cooking (3%). In summer, these
535 sources accounted for 36-37%, 21-35%, 11.6-14.8%, 5.3-8.9%, and 7.6% of OC respectively.

536

537 The source apportionment of submicron organic aerosol by a PMF model of ACSM data at Pinggu in
538 winter gave estimates of OOC (20.1%), CCOC (27.5%), COC (16.6%), HOC (19.9%), and BBOC
539 (15.9%). There is reasonable agreement between the CMB results and those of PMF analysis. Both
540 methods illustrated that coal combustion and SOC are the dominant sources of OA and indicated an
541 important biomass burning contribution. However, the cooking contribution estimated by CMB is
542 lower than the PMF likely due to different particle size for analysis, or difficulties with the ACSM-
543 PMF technique (Dall'Osto et al., 2015). The diurnal variations of the CMB source estimates agree
544 well with those from the ACSM-PMF data and fit logically with the expected variations in source
545 activity and meteorology. These results for a rural site outside of the main Beijing urban area
546 complement the many published receptor modelling studies for sites within urban Beijing, although
547 due to recent implementation of pollution control measures in the city, the pattern of source
548 contributions is rapidly changing (Vu et al., 2019).

549

550 **DATA AVAILABILITY**

551 Data supporting this publication are openly available from the UBIRA eData repository at
552 <https://doi.org/10.25500/edata.bham.00000389>

553

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814 **TABLE LEGENDS**

815	Table 1.	Summary of measured concentrations at Pinggu in winter and summer.
816	Table 2.	Source contribution estimates ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) for fine particulate OC in winter and summer
817		at Pinggu.
818	Table 3.	Comparison of CMB and ACSM-PMF results for haze days and clear days expressed
819		in generic categories.
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821 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

822	Figure 1.	Source contributions to fine OC in winter and summer Pinggu. (a) haze days and non-
823		haze days in winter; (b) diurnal variation of source contribution to OC during haze
824		days in winter; (c) moderately polluted and “clean” days in summer; (d) diurnal
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827	Figure 2.	Diurnal variation of OC from different sources estimated by the CMB model.
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829	Figure 3.	Time series of mean values for Other OC, SOC-EC, NO_3^- and SO_4^{2-} (a); Secondary
830		component comparison at Pinggu showing relationship between estimated secondary
831		OC from tracer EC method (SOC-EC) and the CMB model in winter (b) and summer
832		(c).
833		
834	Figure 4.	Mass spectra of five organic aerosol factors including HOA, CCOA, BBOA, COA,
835		OOA.
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837	Figure 5.	Comparison of the average source contribution of submicron organic aerosol by PMF
838		model and the sources of fine OA estimated by CMB model in winter Pinggu. OA
839		refers to the organic aerosol in PM_{10} and OC means organic carbon in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$.
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841	Figure 6.	Diurnal patterns of PM_{10} organic compound factors (unit: $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) (The plots show the
842		mean values and 95% confidence interval in the mean).
843		
844	Figure 7.	(a) Backward trajectory ending at 00:00 UTC 21 November 2016, winter non-haze
845		day. (b) Backward trajectory ending at 08:00 UTC December 2016, winter haze day.
846		(c) Backward trajectory ending at 00:00 UTC 11 June 2017, summer good day. (d)
847		Backward trajectory ending at 00:00 UTC 17 June 2017, summer moderately polluted
848		day. The authors gratefully acknowledge the NOAA Air Resources Laboratory
849		(ARL) for the provision of the HYSPLIT transport and dispersion model
850		(http://www.ready.noaa.gov).
851		

852 **Table 1.** Summary of measured concentrations at Pinggu in winter and summer.

853

Compounds	Non-haze days (N=38) ^a			Haze days (N=89) ^a			Summer (N=81)		
	Range	Mean	STD	Range	Mean	STD	Range	Mean	STD
PM _{2.5} ^b	9.1-72.7	42.8	20.1	77.2-587.3	206.8	104.9	9.5-79.7	28.7	15.4
OC ^b	2.5-49.0	15.3	10.6	6.9-152.0	52.3	29.3	1.2-20.4	7.4	4.4
EC ^b	0.2-7.2	1.9	1.6	0.6-20.7	5.4	3.6	0.1-3.2	0.8	0.8
OC/EC	1.6-25.2	9.8	3.9	5.5-20.6	10.7	3.4	1.7-19.6	8.2	4.2
OC/PM _{2.5}	5.9-68.1%	36.4%	16.9%	4.6-65.4%	26.3%	11.0%	4.2-64%	26.7%	12.0%
SOC ^{b,c}	1.2-15.7	7.1	3.7	3.8-96.4	25.5	17	1.0-18.1	5.2	3.5
C24	2.4-40.9	15.1	11.0	5.8-128	51.3	32.1	0.5-6.7	1.4	1.0
C25	3.2-47.4	17.1	11.8	8.2-143.9	54.8	33.7	0.1-18.1	4.1	3.0
C26	1.9-31.8	11.3	7.8	5.9-95.7	36.6	20.9	0.2-9	1.4	1.2
C29	4.1-110.5	20.4	21.9	9.3-195.3	64.8	47.7	0.1-164.5	22.7	27.7
C31	2.5-36.6	9.3	6.8	2.6-74.1	23.9	16.9	0.1-47.7	6.1	8.2
C33	2.7-65.8	14.5	12.5	3.4-103.2	29.3	20.7	1.4-54.9	5.4	6.1
C35	1.8-21.5	8.1	5.3	3.3-33.8	15.2	7.3	0.2-3.2	1.1	0.7
CPI	1.0-3.3	1.6	0.5	0.8-3.3	1.5	0.4	0.6-12	3.9	2.8
17 α -22,29,30-Trisnorhopane	0.8-5.8	3.1	1.9	0.8-9.1	3.6	2.0	0.2-1	0.5	0.2
17 β ,21 α -30-norhopane	0.8-8	3.9	2.3	1.0-11.2	4.7	2.4	0.3-5	1.9	1.2
17 α (H),21 β (H)-hopane	0.8-6.8	3.7	2.3	0.9-10.8	4.3	2.4	0.2-3.2	1.3	0.9
Fluorene	0.9-36.3	8.0	6.0	1.8-230.7	24.6	43.3	0.1-29.8	2.3	3.7
Phenanthrene	0.2-114	18.8	19.2	5.3-204.3	40.6	39.3	0.1-1.6	0.6	0.3
Anthracene	0.1-61	9.9	9.6	2.0-84.5	17.7	15.8	0.01-1.4	0.2	0.2
Fluorathene	4.8-170.9	25.1	27.5	7.9-243.1	56.7	48.9	0.1-1.7	0.6	0.4
Pyrene	2.2-177	24.4	29.1	6.1-244.8	54.0	47.6	0.1-2.1	0.7	0.4
Benzo[a]anthrane	1.0-158.4	19.3	25.8	2.8-175.4	42.5	31.2	0.5-2.7	1.3	0.4
Chrysene	1.5-126.3	17.6	20.3	5.4-143.1	42.3	28.2	0.1-1.8	0.6	0.4
Benzo[b]fluorathene	0.8-62.8	12.0	11.2	4.7-104.1	28.3	19.5	0.1-4.6	1.2	0.9
Benzo[k]fluorathene	0.1-90.5	13.0	14.8	4.0-103.0	30.8	19.4	0.2-5.6	1.4	0.9
Benzo[e]pyrene	0.3-32.1	5.7	5.5	2.1-46.4	14.0	8.4	0.001-1.1	0.3	0.3
Benzo[a]pyrene	0.3-32.2	5.8	5.8	1.5-55.0	14.5	10.2	0.003-1.1	0.3	0.2
Indeno[1,2,3-cd]pyrene	0.1-23.4	5.0	4.3	1.0-43.4	11.6	8.2	0.002-1.9	0.6	0.4
Dibenzo[a,b]anthracene	0.2-4.4	1.2	0.9	0.1-18.5	2.8	2.5	0.1-0.4	0.2	0.1
Picene	0.1-2.4	0.8	0.7	0.1-7.1	2.1	1.6	0.002-0.5	0.2	0.1
Benzo[ghi]perylene	0.4-36.9	6.6	6.3	2.7-55.3	15.7	10.2	0.002-2	0.5	0.4
Coronene	0.2-4.5	1.7	1.2	0.3-11.7	3.9	2.9	0.003-0.7	0.2	0.2
Levogluconan	28.9-1396	348.9	320.5	108.1-4418	1082.9	838.1	16.9-327.1	74.5	56.9
Cholesterol	0.2-6.5	1.3	1.4	0.1-10.8	2.0	2.0	0.01-2.1	0.4	0.4
Palmitic acid	1.5-607.9	128.7	134.2	8.0-1283.6	314.7	280.9	33-582	189.3	123.7
Oleic acid	0.4-346.1	80.9	84.9	1.6-1433.2	172.4	263.1	4.6-63.1	18.4	10.4
Linoleic acid	1.9-277.6	92.7	82.1	0.1-1075.1	161.6	205.1	0.9-76.7	25.4	14.8
Stearic acid	3.9-396.3	124.0	109.0	5.0-1614.5	263.4	273.3	7.4-592.7	80.2	94.2

854 (a) The non-haze days and haze days in winter; (b) The unit is $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$; (c) SOC concentration is calculated by EC-
855 tracer method. The unit of molecular organic markers is ng m^{-3} .

856 The table includes data with different sampling intervals (see Methods). The mean values, ranges and standard
857 deviations derive mainly from the shorter sampling intervals.

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860 **Table 2.** Source contribution estimates ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) for fine particulate OC and submicron OC in winter
861 and summer at Pinggu.
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Sources	Winter-daily		Winter-3 hours	Summer-daily		Summer-4 hours
CMB results	Haze days	Clear days		Moderately polluted days	“clean” days	
Vegetative Detritus	4.13	0.98	2.07	0.36	0.19	0.82
Biomass Burning	8.36	2.59	10.7	1.27	0.74	2.21
Gasoline vehicle	1.19	0.52	1.87	0.11	0.07	0.07
Diesel vehicle	6.79	1.5	4.59	0.43	0.41	0.52
Industrial CC	1.52	0.65	3.53	3.94	2.18	3.4
Residential CC	8.4	3.79	7.34	0.42	0.27	0.58
Cooking	0.9	0.45	1.28	0.51	0.35	1.17
Other OC	10.7	2.36	11	4.06	1.14	8.47
Fine OC	42.0	12.8	42.4	11.1	5.35	17.2
AMS-PMF (winter)	Haze days	Clear days				
BBOC	5.82	1.38				
COC	6.95	2.78				
HOC	7.46	2.42				
CCOC	8.90	3.29				
OOC	6.96	1.71				
Submicron OC	36.1	11.6				

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864 Haze days in winter: $\text{PM}_{2.5} \geq 75 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$; Non-haze days in winter: $\text{PM}_{2.5} \leq 75 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$;
865 Moderately polluted days in summer: $\text{PM}_{2.5} \geq 35 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$; “clean” days in summer: $\text{PM}_{2.5} \leq 35 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$.
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867 **Table 3.** Comparison of CMB and ACSM-PMF results for haze days and clear days expressed in
868 generic categories.
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Source Category	Haze days (%)		Clear days (%)	
	CMB	ACSM-PMF	CMB	ACSM-PMF
Biomass burning/BBOC	19.9	16.1	20.2	11.9
Gasoline & diesel vehicle/HOC	19.0	20.7	15.8	20.9
Industrial & residential/CC/CCOC	23.6	24.7	34.7	28.4
Cooking/COC	2.1	19.3	3.5	24.0
Other/OOC	25.5	19.3	18.4	14.7
Vegetative detritus/-	9.8	-	7.7	-

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VegDet: Vegetative Detritus, BB: Biomass Burning, GasVeh: Gasoline vehicle.

Figure 1. Source contributions to fine OC in winter and summer Pinggu. (a) haze days and non-haze days in winter; (b) diurnal variation of source contribution to OC during haze days in winter; (c) moderately polluted and “clean” days in summer; (d) diurnal variation of source contribution of OC during moderately polluted days in summer.

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Figure 2. Diurnal variation of OC from different sources estimated by the CMB model.

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Figure 3. Time series of mean values for Other OC, SOC-EC, NO₃⁻ and SO₄²⁻ (a); Secondary component comparison at Pinggu showing relationship between estimated secondary OC from tracer EC method (SOC-EC) and the CMB model in winter (b) and summer (c).

Figure 4. Mass spectra of five organic aerosol factors including HOA, CCOA, BBOA, COA, OOA.

Figure 5. Comparison of the average source contribution of submicron organic aerosol by PMF model and the sources of fine OA estimated by CMB model in winter Pinggu. Both datasets expressed as OC.

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918 **Figure 6.** Diurnal patterns of PM₁ organic compound factors (unit: $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) (The plots show the
919 mean values and 95% confidence interval in the mean).

Figure 7. (a) Backward trajectory ending at 00:00 UTC 21 November 2016, winter non-haze day. (b) Backward trajectory ending at 08:00 UTC December 2016, winter haze day. (c) Backward trajectory ending at 00:00 UTC 11 June 2017, summer good day. (d) Backward trajectory ending at 00:00 UTC 17 June 2017, summer moderately polluted day. The authors gratefully acknowledge the NOAA Air Resources Laboratory (ARL) for the provision of the HYSPLIT transport and dispersion model (<http://www.ready.noaa.gov>).