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Corresponding Author: Prof. Pietrogrande Maria Chiara,

Corresponding Author's Institution: University of Ferrara

First Author: Pietrogrande Maria Chiara

Order of Authors: Pietrogrande Maria Chiara; Valentina Costa, PhD; Dimitri Bacco, PhD; Silvia Castellazzi; Roberto Vecchiotti; Claudia Zigola

Abstract: The carbonaceous component of atmospheric aerosols was characterized in Emilia-Romagna region (Northern Italy) in two fall/winter monitoring campaigns conducted through the years 2011-2012 and 2012-2013, in the framework of the Supersito project. Nearly 650 PM_{2.5} samples were collected at three monitoring stations describing urban background (main city Bologna, MS, Parma and Rimini) and one rural background site (San Pietro, SP). OC and EC values were measured by the thermal-optical transmittance method (TOT). Low flow-rate sampling strategy (24 m³ air volume per day) was used to reduce loading of light absorbing material on the filter surface in order to ensure the correct OC/EC discrimination.

The TC values measured in winter 2011-2012 ranged from 9.8 µg m⁻³ at San Pietro to 12.0 µg m⁻³ at Parma, consisting of OC from 8.6 µg m⁻³ at SP to 9.9 µg m⁻³ at MS and EC from 1.3 µg m⁻³ at SP to 2.5 µg m⁻³ at Rimini.

In winter 2012-2013, lower values were in general found with TC values ranging from 7.8 to 9.1 µg m⁻³ consisting of OC from 5.1 to 7.0 µg m⁻³ and EC from 1.5 to 2.2 µg m⁻³.

Such differences can be likely explained by differences in meteorological conditions. In particular, lower temperature in fall/winter 2011/2012 (mean temperature ≈ 2 °C in comparison with ≈ 7 °C in winter 2012/2013) may be the reason of higher pollutant emissions related to domestic heating and lower mixing height (≈ 200 m in 2011/2012 in comparison with ≈ 3800 m in winter 2012/2013) may promote contaminant accumulation.

Both the urban and the rural background sites showed similar OC and EC levels, revealing an homogeneous spatial distribution of the carbonaceous component throughout the region that is consistent with atmospheric homogeneity typical of Po Plain.

In this study, all the sites are characterized by OC/EC ratios ranging from 3 to 9, that are within the 3 to 10 range found at most urban background sites in the Po Valley during fall/winter.

These results are consistent with the large contribution of emission from the wood burning for residential heating during the cold period. This hypothesis can be likely supported by high levels of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) related to combustion and of levoglucosan, as unambiguous

tracer for biomass burning emission, in particular at MS and SP sites in 2011-2012 winter (Burning PAH $\approx 4 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$ and levoglucosan $\approx 1000 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$).



UNIVERSITÀ
DEGLI STUDI
DI FERRARA
- EX LABORE FRUCTUS -

UNIVERSITA' DEGLI STUDI DI FERRARA
DIPARTIMENTO DI SCIENZE CHIMICHE E FARMACEUTICHE
Via Fossato di Mortara, 17 I-44121 FERRARA – ITALY

Tel.: +39(0)532 – 455.152
Fax: +39(0)532 - 240.709
E-MAIL: mpc@unife.it

To the Editor of
Atmospheric Research

Dear Editor

with the present letter we intend to submit our manuscript to publication on your journal Atmospheric Research:

Characteristics of carbonaceous aerosols in Emilia-Romagna(Northern Italy) based on two fall/winter field campaigns

V. Costa, D. Bacco, S. Castellazzi, Isabella Ricciardelli, R. Vecchiotti, Claudia Zigola, M.C. Pietrogrande.

This paper investigates the carbonaceous component of atmospheric aerosols in Emilia-Romagna region (Northern Italy) in two fall/winter monitoring campaigns in the years 2011-2012 and 2012-2013. Concentrations of Organic and Elemental carbon were measured by the thermal-optical transmittance method.

The obtained results are likely explained by differences in meteorological conditions and contribution of emission sources, in particular from the wood burning for residential heating, supported by characterization of other chemical markers, such as polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons and levoglucosan.

In the framework of the Supersito project, designed by Emilia-Romagna Region Agency for Prevention and Environment, this paper integrates the results recently published on other your journals, i.e., Atmospheric Environment 2014, 86, 164-175 and 2014, 97, 215-225.

For this reason we strongly hope that our paper can be taken into consideration for publication on your journal

Sincerely yours,

Prof. M. Chiara Pietrogrande

Ferrara, May, 27, 2015

Highlights

- OC/EC measurements at 4 sampling sites in Po Valley (Italy).
- Nearly 650 daily PM_{2.5} samples analyzed in 2 fall/winter campaigns.
- Large contribution of emission from the wood burning for residential heating.
- Differences between two campaigns related to the meteorological conditions.
- Homogeneous spatial distribution throughout the region.

1 **Characteristics of carbonaceous aerosols in Emilia-Romagna(Northern Italy) based on two**
2 **fall/winter field campaigns**

3
4 V. Costa^a, D. Bacco^b, S. Castellazzi^c, Isabella Ricciardelli^b, R. Vecchiotti^c, Claudia Zigola^c, M.C.
5 Pietrogrande^{a*}

6
7 ^aDepartment of Chemistry and Pharmaceutical Sciences, University of Ferrara, via L.Borsari 46,
8 44121 Ferrara, Italy

9 ^bEmilia-Romagna Region Agency for Prevention and Environment (ARPA), via Bologna 534,
10 44124 Ferrara, Italy

11 ^cEmilia-Romagna Region Agency for Prevention and Environment (ARPA), via Francesco Rocchi
12 19, 40138 Bologna, Italy

13
14 **Abstract**

15
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17 (Northern Italy) in two fall/winter monitoring campaigns conducted through the years 2011-2012
18 and 2012-2013, in the framework of the Supersito project. Nearly 650 PM_{2.5} samples were collected
19 at three monitoring stations describing urban background (main city Bologna, MS, Parma and
20 Rimini) and one rural background site (San Pietro, SP). OC and EC values were measured by the
21 thermal-optical transmittance method (TOT). Low flow-rate sampling strategy (24 m³ air volume
22 per day) was used to reduce loading of light absorbing material on the filter surface in order to
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26 2.5 μg m⁻³ at Rimini.

27 In winter 2012-2013, lower values were in general found with TC values ranging from 7.8 to 9.1 μg
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29 Such differences can be likely explained by differences in meteorological conditions. In particular,
30 lower temperature in fall/winter 2011/2012 (mean temperature ≈ 2 °C in comparison with ≈ 7 °C in
31 winter 2012/2013) may be the reason of higher pollutant emissions related to domestic heating and
32 lower mixing height (≈ 200 m in 2011/2012 in comparison with ≈ 3800 m in winter 2012/2013)
33 may promote contaminant accumulation.

34 Both the urban and the rural background sites showed similar OC and EC levels, revealing an
35 homogeneous spatial distribution of the carbonaceous component throughout the region that is
36 consistent with atmospheric homogeneity typical of Po Plain.

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38 3 to 10 range found at most urban background sites in the Po Valley during fall/winter.

39 These results are consistent with the large contribution of emission from the wood burning for
40 residential heating during the cold period. This hypothesis can be likely supported by high levels of
41 polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) related to combustion and of levoglucosan, as
42 unambiguous tracer for biomass burning emission, in particular at MS and SP sites in 2011-2012
43 winter (Burning PAH $\approx 4 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$ and levoglucosan $\approx 1000 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$).

44

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46 Residential heating.

47

48 **Introduction**

49

50 Carbonaceous aerosol is an ubiquitous and important component of the fine atmospheric particulate
51 matter (PM) which accounts for 20-45% of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ at European rural and urban background sites
52 (Yttri et al, 2007; Putaud et al, 2010; Perrone et al, 2012; Jedynska et al, 2014; Sandrini et al, 2014).

53 In recent years there is increasing evidence of its role in global climate change and radiative budget,
54 involvement in heterogeneous reactions, and possible content of mutagenic and carcinogenic
55 components (Reche et al, 2011; Bond et al, 2013; Perrone et al, 2013). In this context, among the
56 thousands of organic components present in the atmospheric aerosol, elemental (EC) and organic
57 carbon (OC) are usually quantified as more generic indicators of air quality to identify pollution
58 sources and assess their environmental impact (Sillanpää et al, 2005; Andreae and Gelencsér, 2006;
59 Wallén et al, 2010; Cheng et al, 2011; Pio et al, 2011; Jedynska et al, 2014; Zhao et al, 2014). EC is
60 the inert matter with graphitic-like structure released from incomplete combustion of fossil fuels in
61 transportation, heating, and power generation, and of wood and biomass in residential heating and
62 agriculture activities. OC in contrast is an aggregate of organic compounds, such as aliphatic and
63 aromatic hydrocarbons, that are either directly released in the atmosphere by primary sources or
64 secondarily formed in the atmosphere from anthropogenic or biogenic precursors.

65 For this reason, the characterization of the carbonaceous aerosol was included in the Supersito
66 project for a chemical and physical characterization of atmospheric aerosol in Emilia-Romagna
67 (Northern Italy) (ARPA-EMR, 2012). This region is located at the Eastern side of the Po Valley, the

68 most industrialized and trafficked area in Italy, which is recognized as one of the most air polluted
69 situations in Europe, in particular during the cold seasons, when enhanced anthropogenic emissions
70 from residential heating combined with stagnant atmospheric conditions result into the pollutant
71 accumulation near the source locations (Carbone et al, 2010; Bernardoni et al, 2011; Belis et al,
72 2011; Bigi et al, 2012; Perrone et al, 2012; Piazzalunga et al, 2013a; Pietrogrande et al, 2013;
73 Perrino et al, 2014; Decesari et al, 2014; Pietrogrande et al, 2014a).

74 This study concerns nearly 650 PM_{2.5} samples collected in two monitoring campaigns during
75 fall/winter periods in 2011-2012 and 2012- 2013 at four urban and rural locations in the region.

76 In this work the thermal-optical transmittance method (TOT) was used, as one of the most widely
77 recognized methods for measuring OC and EC in atmospheric particulates (Yang and Yu, 2002;
78 Chow et al, 2004; Bae et al, 2004; Han et al, 2007; Boparai et al, 2008; Cheng et al, 2011;
79 Piazzalunga et al, 2011; Chow et al, et al, 2011; Cheng et al, 2012; Bautista et al, 2015). Up to date
80 however, there is no standard protocol of analysis and the definition of OC and EC is operative and
81 therefore depending on the technique used. In this work, the EUSAAR2 protocol (European
82 Supersites for Atmospheric Aerosol Research) was employed as recently suggested for samples
83 collected at European regional sites (Cavalli et al, 2010; CEN, 2011; Piazzalunga et al, 2013a).

84 The most suitable sampling protocol was selected to provide reliable results as applied to aerosol
85 samples collected in a heavily polluted area, as Emilia-Romagna region in winter, that are
86 characterized by high loading of carbonaceous material on the filters.

87 Further information on the concentration of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons and levoglucosan, as
88 markers related to biomass burning, were evaluated in order to give insight into the potential
89 contribution of wood combustion to influence the thermal behaviour of the carbonaceous species.

90

91 **2 Materials and Methods**

92

93 **2.1 Aerosol sampling**

94 The duration of the two monitoring campaigns was from 15th November 2011 to 29th March 2012
95 and from 1st October 2012 to 31st March 2013. Samples were collected at four monitoring stations
96 of Emilia-Romagna ARPA agency (Region Agency for Prevention and Environment), describing
97 different emission situations in the region, i.e., three urban background sites, a main site in Bologna,
98 (MS), two satellite sites in Parma and Rimini, and one rural background site (San Pietro
99 Capofiume). The urban sites are located in different parts of the Emilia-Romagna region,
100 characterized by significant agricultural and industrial activities and the presence of main arterial
101 roads. MS is located in the city of Bologna – which is the most populous city in the region (over

102 380000 inhabitants), Parma – with about 190000 inhabitants, is situated half-way between Milan to
103 Bologna – and Rimini, with about 150000 inhabitants, is located on the coast of the Adriatic Sea,
104 and therefore visited by many tourists during holidays and week-ends. The rural background station
105 of San Pietro Capofiume, SP, is located on a flat, homogeneous terrain of harvested fields, 40 km
106 north-east from Bologna: it represents the typical low land agricultural areas with sparse towns and
107 villages.

108 In the framework of the Supersito project, the PM_{2.5} samples were collected on quartz fiber filters
109 (PALL Tissu Quartz 2500 QAO-UP 2500 filters, 47 mm of diameter) with automatic outdoor
110 stations at MS, SP, Rimini and Parma sites. A low volume sampler (Skypost PM, TCR TECORA
111 Instruments, Corsico, Milan, Italy) operated at the standard flow rate of 38.3 Lmin⁻¹ to collect an air
112 volume of 55 m³ per day. In addition, the sampler has been properly modified to reduce air flow
113 rate to 16.7 Lmin⁻¹ and collect an air volume of 24 m³ per day. Instrument details and validation of
114 the modified procedure are reported in Supplementary Material.

115 In the framework of the ARPA-ER air quality monitoring, PM samples are routinely collected in
116 urban areas, including Bologna, Rimini, and Parma, and the rural background San Pietro, using low
117 volume sequential samplers (Swam 5C, FAI Instruments, Roma) to monitor PM₁₀ and/or PM_{2.5}
118 concentration on daily basis and measure concentrations of some PAHs in PM₁₀ on monthly basis.
119 After sampling, filter equilibration and weighing was performed following the procedure outlined in
120 the European Standard EN 12341 (CEN, 1998). The quartz fiber filters were heated for 3 h at 800
121 °C in air before use, to reduce their carbon blank. Thus, the background concentration in the quartz
122 fiber filter and matrix, which could influence the analysis, was minimized.

123

124 **2.2 Thermal-optical transmission analysis**

125 The samples were analyzed in the ARPA laboratory using a Sunset Laboratory Thermal/Optical
126 Carbonaceous Aerosol Analyzer (Laboratory Inc). The carbon analyzer was routinely checked for
127 leaks and operated using Ultra-High Purity (Grade 6.0) Helium gas. The instrument was calibrated
128 prior to use with injections of sucrose standard solution (concentration of 10 gL⁻¹ corresponding to
129 42 µgcm⁻² of organic carbon on the filter surface).

130 According to the used thermal protocol EUSAAR2 (Cavalli et al., 2010), the carbonaceous material
131 (OC) is initially thermally desorbed in an inert atmosphere (99.999% pure He) at relatively low
132 temperature in four steps (200 °C for 120 s; 300 °C for 150 s; 450 °C for 180 s; 650 °C for 180 s).
133 Then desorption is performed to evolve the EC component at higher temperature in four steps (500
134 °C for 120 s; 550 °C for 120 s; 700 °C for 70 s; 850 °C for 80 s) in an oxidizing atmosphere (2%
135 oxygen/98% helium final mixture in the sample oven). During this stage, organic compounds are

136 vaporized and catalytically oxidized to carbon dioxide but also a percentage of native elemental
137 carbon may be pyrolytically converted into elemental carbon (Pyrolytic Carbon, PC) and therefore
138 interfere in the determination of EC. In order to correct this potential bias, the laser beam
139 transmission through the sample is monitored during the analysis and the point at which the laser
140 transmission returns to the original pre-pyrolysis value is used to define the split between organic
141 and elemental carbon (split point). A premature evolution of light-absorbing carbon containing EC
142 before the EC/OC split will lead to underestimate the EC amount (Chow et al, 2004; Subramanian
143 et al, 2006; Yang and Yu, 2002; Boparai et al, 2008).

144

145 **2.3 Elemental analysis**

146 Elemental analysis was performed in the laboratory of the University of Ferrara, Department of
147 Chemistry and Pharmaceutical Sciences, using a Thermo Scientific 2000 CHNSO Analyzer
148 equipped with a thermal conductivity detector (TCD). For each measurement a material amount
149 ranging from 2 to 5 mg was analyzed obtained by cutting proper portions of the PM filters. After
150 introduction in the tin capsule, the sample was weighed and put into the combustion reactor using
151 an autosampler.

152

153 **3 Results and discussion**

154

155 **3.1. Quality assurance of the Thermal Optical Transmittance method**

156 In this work the analytical performance of a thermo-optical-transmission analyzer was assessed for
157 precision, linearity and limits of quantification in order to find out the proper protocol providing a
158 reliable OC/EC quantification in PM samples.

159 The procedure assured good precision and sensitivity: relative standard deviation RSD% were
160 5.2%, 6.5% and 3.9% for OC, EC and TC values, respectively, and limits of quantification were 3
161 μgcm^{-2} for OC – corresponding to 0.7 μgm^{-3} and 1.6 μgm^{-3} , collecting 55 m^3 and 24 m^3 air volume,
162 respectively) – and 0.4 μgcm^{-2} – corresponding to 0.1 μgm^{-3} (55 m^3) and 0.2 μgm^{-3} (24 m^3).

163 In addition, the reliability of the Total Carbon measurements was validated by intercomparison with
164 data obtained by the elemental CHNSO Analyzer, as a different independent instrument which
165 guarantees routine and high capacity analyses (Fellner et al, 2011; Zhao et al, 2011). In general a
166 close agreement was obtained between the values obtained with the two techniques, characterized
167 by a mean percentage difference \approx 6% (Table 1), that is a meaningful evidence of the reliability of
168 the used TOT procedure to obtain accurate TC determinations. The detailed investigation is
169 reported in the Supplementary material.

170

171 **3.2. Quantification of OC and EC carbonaceous fractions**

172 In the early part of the first monitoring campaign from 15th November 2011 to 13th February 2012
173 an air volume of 55 m³ was collected at the four sampling sites and analyzed for EC, OC and TC
174 (computed as the sum EC+OC). The measured EC values were plotted as a function of TC
175 concentrations to highlight the influence of the filter loading on the TOT measurement (Figs. 1a,b
176 full symbols). A linear increase of TC with EC is expected, indicating a constant contribution of EC
177 to TC, as mainly generated by incomplete combustion of organic material from traffic, residential
178 heating, industrial activities and energy production (Bae et al, 2004; Piazzalunga et al, 2011; Cheng
179 et al, 2012; Jedynska et al, 2014). Such a linearity was found for most of the data measured at
180 Rimini and Parma (Figure 1a, full triangles and diamonds, full line: $R^2 \geq 0.75$). On the contrary, for
181 the values obtained at MS and SP sites (Fig. 1b, full circles and squares) the relationship is linear
182 only up to TC values $\approx 8 \mu\text{gm}^{-3}$ (solid line: $R^2 \geq 0.8$) and beyond this limit EC seems to reach a
183 maximum constant level close to $1.5 \mu\text{gm}^{-3}$ for most of the samples. It is noteworthy that such an
184 air concentration corresponds to an EC loading on the filter surface of $15 \mu\text{gcm}^{-2}$, under the
185 sampling protocol used, i.e., 55m^3 of air collected on a filter surface of 7.07cm^2 . This concentration
186 is considered as the upper limit to ensure that the laser in the TOT instrumentation operated in
187 optimal conditions to obtain reliable EC concentrations (Shauer et al.2003; Chow et al, 2004;
188 Subramanian et al., 2006; Wallen, et al., 2010; Cheng et al., 2011; Piazzalunga et al., 2011;
189 Baumgardner et al., 2012; Cheng et al., 2012; Piazzalunga et al., 2013a). Subramanian evidenced
190 that loadings of light absorbing material (or soot) on the filter higher than $15 \mu\text{gcm}^{-2}$ makes the
191 sample too dark to allow to the laser to correctly monitor any variation of the transmission through
192 the filter. This prevents the correct assessment of the split-point for correction of pyrolytic carbon.
193 This hypothesis can be confirmed by investigating the optical data reported in Figure 2, which
194 shows the dependence of the initial laser attenuation of the sample, T_0 , as a function of filter
195 loading, that would be described by the Lambert-Beer expression (Eq. 1):

196

197

$$\ln T_0 = k C_{EC} \quad (1)$$

198

199 where C_{EC} is the concentration of carbon evolved in the oxidation step (expressed as EC mass per
200 unit filter area, μgcm^{-2}) and k is the net attenuation coefficient of EC.

201 For the filters collected at Rimini and Parma most of the experimental EC loadings are lower than
202 the limit of $15\mu\text{gcm}^{-2}$ (Figure 2, full triangles and diamonds) and the laser attenuation increases
203 more or less linearly with EC loading (solid grey line: $R^2 \approx 0.8$). From the linear regression (Eq.1)

204 the specific attenuation coefficient can be estimated obtaining a value close to $0.2 \text{ cm}^2\mu\text{g}^{-1}$
205 consistent with those reported for the EC (Subramanian et al., 2006).

206 However, nearly 10% of the samples collected at MS and SP sites (Figure 2a, full circles and
207 squares) show high EC filter loadings in the $15\text{-}22 \mu\text{gcm}^{-2}$ range. Generally, for such heavily loaded
208 filters the “shadowing” effect was found, that means that carbon yields lower attenuation than for
209 more lightly loaded filters (Weingartner et al, 2003; Chow et al, 2004; Subramanian et al, 2006;
210 Cheng et al., 2012). Therefore, these data were excluded from the database. Nearly 90% of the data
211 show an acceptable linear relationship (solid black line: $R^2 = 0.8$) from which a specific attenuation
212 coefficient $\approx 0.15 \text{ cm}^2\mu\text{g}^{-1}$ was computed, which indicates that a weak shadowing effect is still
213 present in the samples (Subramanian et al, 2006). These drawbacks have been previously found for
214 highly loaded PM samples collected in heavily polluted areas, such as in air monitoring campaigns
215 in Po Plain during wintertime (Piazzalunga et al, 2011; Piazzalunga et al, 2013a).

216 To limit loading of carbonaceous aerosol and avoid data rejection, a lower air volume of 24 m^3 per
217 day was collected by operating with a reduced air flow rate of $1 \text{ m}^3\text{h}^{-1}$ using a modified
218 configuration of the sampler. The chosen sampling method assured a comprehensive sampling
219 throughout the day with good reliability of the modified instrument configuration (see
220 Supplementary Material). Using this procedure, 140 $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ samples were collected in the final part
221 of the first monitoring campaign from 14th February to 29th March 2012 at the four sampling sites
222 and analyzed for EC, OC and TC.

223 Plotting the measured EC valued as a function of TC (Fig. 1a,b, grey symbols) all the obtained
224 values show a linear relationship, also including the data of MS and SP sites (grey lines: $R^2 \approx 0.75$).
225 In fact, the sampling protocol (24m^3 of air collected on a filter surface of 13 cm^2) limits the EC
226 loading on the filters so that all the experimental data are below the limit of $15 \mu\text{gcm}^{-2}$ (that
227 correspond to $\approx 8 \mu\text{gm}^{-3}$ in the air). As a consequence, the optimal optical behavior is guaranteed
228 for the all the data (Figure 2, empty symbols), also including MS and SP samples (empty circles
229 and squares in the figure): laser attenuation increases linearly with EC loading (dashed line: $R^2 =$
230 0.82) yielding a consistent estimate of the specific attenuation coefficient, $0.19 \text{ cm}^2\mu\text{g}^{-1}$
231 (Subramanian et al, 2006; Wallen et al, 2010).

232 The OC, EC and TC values measured at each site during the winter 2011-2012 are reported in Table
233 2 (mean and standard deviation values in 1st-3rd lines). In general, similar values were measured at
234 the four sites with TC mean values ranging from $9.8 \mu\text{gm}^{-3}$ at San Pietro to $12.0 \mu\text{gm}^{-3}$ at Parma,
235 consisting of OC from $8.6 \mu\text{gm}^{-3}$ at SP to $9.9 \mu\text{gm}^{-3}$ at MS. Larger differences were found for EC
236 values, that are lower ($1.3 - 1.4 \mu\text{gm}^{-3}$) at MS and SP sites in comparison with those at Rimini and
237 Parma (2.5 and $2.1 \mu\text{gm}^{-3}$, respectively).

238 The 24 m³ air volume sampling protocol was used in the second campaign in winter 2012-2013. A
239 total of 300 PM_{2.5} filters were collected from 1st October 2012 to 31th March 2013 at the four
240 sampling sites and analyzed for EC, OC and TC (mean and standard deviation values for each site
241 reported in Table 3, 1st-3rd lines). All the data measured at the four sites show the expected linear
242 relationship between EC and TC values (dashed lines: R² ≥ 0.8, Fig. 1a,b, empty symbols).
243 In general, the obtained values are lower in comparison with those of fall/winter 2011-2012, with
244 TC values ranging from 7.8 µgm⁻³ at San Pietro to 9.1 µgm⁻³ at Main Site, consisting of OC from
245 5.1 µgm⁻³ at Parma to 7.0 µgm⁻³ at Rimini. In this campaign EC values show higher homogeneity
246 than in the first one, ranging from 1.5 µgm⁻³ at SP to 2.2 µgm⁻³ at MS.

247

248 **3.3. Variation of OC and EC concentrations**

249 At our knowledge, these data are the first extensive results concerning different sites of Emilia-
250 Romagna region, while several studies have been carried out in Lombardia, that is the Western
251 region of the Po Plain, as densely populated as Emilia-Romagna (Gilardoni et al, 2011; Bigi et al,
252 2012; Perrone et al, 2012; Piazzalunga et al, 2013b; Perrino et al, 2014).

253 The results of this study are similar to others reported in the cold period (October-March) for semi-
254 rural sites in Po Valley and lower than those reported at the city site of Milan strongly impacted by
255 anthropogenic emission sources (Belis et al., 2011; Perrone et al., 2012; Piazzalunga et al., 2013a),
256 as recently reviewed by Sandrini (Sandrini et al, 2014). In particular, our data are very close to
257 those occurred between 2010 and 2012 during a field study carried out in the area of Ferrara, in the
258 Eastern part of the Emilia-Romagna, i. e., OC ≈ 9 µgm⁻³ and EC ≈ 1 µgm⁻³ (Perrino et al, 2014).
259 The measured values are in good agreement with the atmospheric EC/OC concentrations found in
260 southern European areas in cold period (Sillanpaa et al, 2005; Yttri et al., 2007; Jedynska et al,
261 2014), in particular with the average concentrations of OC close to 6 µgm⁻³ and EC above 2 µgm⁻³
262 found in Rome and Athens.

263 In this study both the urban and the rural background sites showed similar levels of OC and EC
264 concentrations in PM_{2.5}, summarized in Tables 2 and 3, revealing that the contribution of very
265 localized sources is weakly discernible, making the spatial distribution of the carbonaceous
266 component rather homogeneous throughout the region. This indicates that also the rural site SP is
267 strongly influenced by the emissions from urban areas. Such an atmospheric homogeneity is typical
268 of Po Plain, as likely due to similar meteorological conditions, such as temperature and low
269 dispersion properties of the boundary layer, which determine similar accumulation of pollutants and
270 atmospheric reactions of gaseous precursors which promote SOA formation (Carbone et al., 2010;

271 Giraldoni et al., 2011; Perrone et al., 2013; Paglione et al., 2014; Sandrini et al, 2014; Decesari et al,
272 2014).

273 The higher OC and EC levels in 2011/2012 campaign in comparison with those in 2012/2013 can
274 be likely explained by differences in meteorological conditions. In fact, during the colder winter
275 2011/2012 (mean temperature $\approx 2^{\circ}\text{C}$ with maximum of 5°C in November 2011) higher pollutant
276 emissions related to domestic heating may be expected in comparison with winter 2011/2012 (mean
277 temperature $7^{\circ}\text{C}\approx$ with maximum of 12°C in November 2012). In addition, more stagnant
278 atmospheric situation in winter 2011/2012 (mixing height ≈ 200 m in comparison with ≈ 3800 m in
279 winter 2012/2013) promotes contaminant accumulation (Pietrogrande et al., 2014a, 2014b).

280

281 **3.4. OC/EC concentration ratios**

282 The ratio between OC and EC values was computed as an useful parameter to discriminate between
283 different sources and processes contributing to carbonaceous PM, being influenced by primary
284 emission sources and secondary organic aerosol formation. For references, the OC/EC ratios of 6.0–
285 20 are used for emissions from biomass burning and 1.0–4.2 for vehicular emissions. In addition,
286 ratios larger than 2–2.5 were found for secondary OC enriched aerosols (Pio et al., 2011; Jedynska
287 et al., 2014; Sandrini et al., 2014).

288 Figure 3 shows the OC/EC ratios at all sites in the two monitoring campaigns (full and empty
289 symbols: 2011/2012 and 2012/2013 campaigns, respectively), from which the mean and standard
290 deviation values were computed for each site (Tables 2 and 3, 4th line, for 2011/2012 and
291 2012/2013 campaigns, respectively).

292 In this study, nearly all OC/EC ratios range from 3 to 9, that is the same range found at most urban
293 background sites in the Po Valley during fall/winter (Sandrini et al, 2014). These values are
294 consistent with the general finding that the OC/EC ratio during cold season is mainly affected by
295 the primary emissions due fossil fuels burning, characterized by OC/EC values frequently lower
296 than 1, and residential wood burning, which is expected to release an enriched OC fraction
297 (Piazzalunga et al., 2011; Pio et al., 2011; Sandrini et al., 2014; Jedynska et al., 2014). In addition,
298 also production of secondary OC through photochemical activity has been found significant in the
299 investigated region also in the cold periods leading to thigh OC/EC ratios (Decesari et al., 2014;
300 Paglione et al, 2014; Pietrogrande et al, 2014b).

301 Similar values ranging from 3 to 9 have been reported for ground-level rural and urban sites located
302 in the Po Valley (Sandrini et al., 2014), consistent to what observed at other rural sites in Europe
303 (Jedynska et al., 2014). However, it must be noted that the values of this study were lower than
304 those (≈ 10) measured during cold season in other sites in the Eastern part of the Po Valley

305 (Piazzalunga et al., 2011; Perrone et al., 2012; Piazzalunga et al., 2013b) and even at Cassana,
306 located at close distance (ca. 50 km) from it (Perrino et al., 2014).

307 Higher OC/EC values were measured at MS and SP in comparison with those at Rimini and Parma.
308 In particular, the OC/EC ratios at MS and SP were ≈ 8 and ≈ 6 in the first and second campaigns,
309 respectively, while those at Rimini and Parma were ≈ 5 and ≈ 3.5 in the first and second
310 campaigns, respectively. Such differences may be likely ascribed to the difference in the relative
311 contribution of local emission sources, since MS and SP are strongly influenced by larger
312 anthropogenic emissions from Bologna metropolitan area (Pietrogrande et al, 2014b). In particular,
313 higher OC/EC ratios may suggest increased influence from wood burning for residential heating,
314 which contributes more to OC than EC (Pio et al.,2011; Sandrini et al., 2014).

315 This is especially true for the values measured during the first campaign, although these values
316 may be overestimated by the negative bias in EC data. Anyway, the obtained results are consistent
317 with similar values observed in urban Po Valley areas in cold season, where wood combustion was
318 estimated to accounts for up to 40-70% of OC in winter (Perrone et al., 2012; Bernardoni et al.
319 2013; Piazzalunga et al., 2013b; Perrino et al, 2014; Paglione et al., 2014; Sandrini et al, 2014).

320

321 **3.5. Insights in the aerosol composition of the carbonaceous PM**

322 In order to confirm these data and identify the potential contribution of biomass burning to OC and
323 EC, the concentration of relevant molecular markers related to biomass burning were investigated:
324 in particular, selected polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) and levoglucosan. Among the
325 PAHs that substantially contribute to the carbonaceous PM fraction, 8 PAHs largely released into
326 the atmosphere by biomass combustion processes were studied, i.e., pyrene, fluoranthene,
327 benzo[a]anthracene, chrysene, benzo[b]fluoranthene, benzo[j]fluoranthene, benzo[k]fluoranthene
328 and benzo[a]pyrene (BaP). The study concerns the total PAH contribution (total PAH burning,
329 obtained by summing the measured concentrations) and the separated contributions of B(a)P, as an
330 indicator for toxic PAHs, and of Benzo(b)+(j)fluorantenes (BbjF), as the most abundant PAHs. The
331 average values for each sampling campaign were computed from the monthly concentrations
332 (Tables 2 and 3, 5th-7th lines). In general, the total PAH levels range from 2.4 to 4.5 ngm⁻³ and the
333 concentration of B(a)P and BbjF are in 0.4-0.6 ngm⁻³ and 0.7 – 1.1 ngm⁻³ ranges, respectively.

334 Such a contribution is exceptionally higher for the samples collected at MS and SP sites in 2011-
335 2012 winter, when the total burning PAHs increase up to 7.7 ngm⁻³, BbjF up to 1.9 ngm⁻³ and B(a)P
336 slightly exceeds the limit value of 1 ngm⁻³ imposed by EUD (European Union Directive, 2005)
337 (Table 2, 5th-7th lines).

338 This finding is consistent with other studies which demonstrated that domestic burning of wood
339 materials - logs, briquettes, chips and pellet - for home heating is a diffuse regional source in
340 Northern Italy that accounts for a significant quote of PAHs to carbonaceous aerosol, in particular
341 in the coldest months (December-February) (Belis et al, 2011; Piazzalunga et al, 2013b; Perrone et
342 al, 2013; Gianelle et al, 2013; Paglio et al, 2014; Pietrogrande et al, 2014c).

343 This conclusion can be confirmed from the abundance of levoglucosan, as unambiguous tracer for
344 biomass burning emission, measured in atmospheric PM_{2.5} at Main Site and San Pietro sites in two
345 intensive experimental campaigns conducted in the framework of the Supersito project, from 16th
346 November to 7th December 2011 and from 23rd October to 11th November 2012. Extremely high
347 levels were found in fall 2011 ($\approx 1000 \text{ ngm}^{-3}$, Table 2, 8th line) indicating strong impact of wood
348 burning, while the contribution was moderate in early fall 2012 ($\approx 250 \text{ ngm}^{-3}$, Table 3, 8th line)
349 (Pietrogrande et al., 2014b).

350 The strongest impact of wood burning emission in 2011-2012 at MS and SP sites in comparison
351 with the other sites may be a possible explanation of the distinct thermal-optical behavior of the
352 filters collected there (Figs. 1b and 2a). In fact, several studies report that emission from wood
353 combustion contains a high fraction of light-absorbing charring which strongly affects the optical
354 properties of the carbonaceous material typically decreasing the filter transmittance (Yang and Yu,
355 2002; Shauer et al.2003; Subramanian et al, 2006; Han et al, 2007; Chow et al, 2011; Cheng et al,
356 2011; Piazzalunga et al, 2011; Frey et al, 2014).

357 In addition, it has been reported that large amount of charring would cause the premature evolution
358 of EC yielding underestimated EC results, with the negative bias increasing with the amount of
359 charring, presumably through new charring formation and/or the existing charring pyrolyzing into
360 more light-absorbing species (Piazzalunga et al, 2011; Cheng et al, 2012).

361

362 **4 Conclusions**

363

364 The large dataset measured in this study provides insight into characteristics and origins of
365 carbonaceous aerosol in Emilia Romagna region giving information comparable with those found at
366 other semi-rural sites in Po Valley.

367 In conclusion, substantial homogeneity was found in the spatial pattern of EC and OC at the four
368 sampling sites indicating a common background level in Po Valley in cold seasons, due to strength
369 of anthropogenic emission sources and the stagnant atmospheric conditions. Comparison with PAH
370 and levoglucosan levels indicated that in fall/winter air quality is strongly impacted by emissions
371 from wood burning for domestic heating.

372 At the state of the art, additional information on the chemical composition based on a wider range
373 of source markers may give deeper insight into the contribution of the different emission sources as
374 well as into the occurrence of photochemical oxidative reactions in the atmosphere. The on-going
375 studies will clarify this point.

376 The accurate discrimination between OC and EC during the thermal evolution cycle in TOT
377 analysis is still an unsolved problem, since it strongly depends on the characteristics of the
378 collected aerosol, mainly sample loading and chemical composition. For these reasons, further
379 studies are needed to investigate the charring behavior of heavy loaded PM filters, in particular for
380 samples strongly impacted by biomass smoke, i.e., the influences of wood type and burning
381 condition on optical and thermal properties of ambient aerosols.

382

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384

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390

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553

554 **Figure captions**

555

556 **Figure 1:** Scatter plots of EC versus TC concentrations measured on PM_{2.5} filters showing
557 influence of the filter loading on the TOT measurement.

558 full symbols: November 2011- February 2012 data (55 m³ day⁻¹ air sampling protocol);

559 full grey symbols: February-March 2012 data (24 m³ day⁻¹ air sampling protocol);

560 empty symbols: October 2012- March 2013 data (24 m³ day⁻¹ air sampling protocol).

561 **1a:** PM_{2.5} filters collected at Parma (triangles) and Rimini (diamonds):

562 solid black line: overall linear regression of November 2011-February 2012 data (regression
563 equation in inset);

564 solid grey line: overall linear regression of February-March 2012 data (regression equation in inset);

565 dashed line: overall linear regression of 2012-2013 data (regression equation in inset).

566 **1b:** PM_{2.5} filters collected at Main Site (circles) and San Pietro (squares):

567 solid black line: linear regression of November 2011- February 2012 data with TC values ≤ 8
568 μgm^{-3} (regression equation in inset);

569 solid grey line: overall linear regression of February-March 2012 data (regression equation in inset);

570 dashed line: average linear regression of 2012-2013 data (regression equation in inset).

571

572 **Figure 2:** Scatter plots of laser attenuation as a function of EC filter loadings (μgcm^{-2}) for 2011-
573 2012 samples.

574 Symbols: circles: Main Site; squares: San Pietro; triangles: Parma; diamonds: Rimini.

575 Colours: full symbols: November 2011- February 2012 data (55 m³ day⁻¹ air sampling protocol);

576 empty symbols: February-March 2012 data (24 m³ day⁻¹ air sampling protocol).

577 solid black line: MS and SP sites: linear regression of November 2011- February 2012 data with EC
578 values $\leq 15\mu\text{gcm}^{-2}$ (regression equation in inset);

579 solid grey line: Parma and Rimini sites: overall linear regression of November 2011- February 2012
580 data (regression equation in inset);

581 dashed line: overall linear regression of February-March 2012 data (regression equation in inset).

582

583 **Figure 3:** Scatter plots of OC/EC ratios versus EC concentrations measured at all sites in the two
584 monitoring campaigns.

585 Symbols: circles: Main Site; squares: San Pietro; triangles: Parma; diamonds: Rimini.

586 Colours: full symbols: November 2011- March 2012 data; empty symbols: October 2012- March
587 2013 data.

588 Table 1: Comparison between Total carbon values measured with OCEC Sunset Analyzer (Sunset),
589 and Elemental Analyzer (CHNSO). The percentage difference (diff%) was computed as
590 $(CHNSO - Sunset)/CHNSO * 100$.

591

592

PM _{2.5} sample	Sunset	CHNSO	diff%
nr.	$\mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$	$\mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$	%
1	17.67	18.97	7
2	16.71	17.57	5
3	17.44	18.06	3
4	8.65	10.37	17
5	13.10	14.52	10
6	11.11	12.01	7
7	20.86	20.99	1
8	27.10	33.22	18
9	21.91	20.93	-5
10	27.72	25.31	-10
11	29.40	27.23	-8
12	17.81	18.31	3
13	19.53	21.33	8
14	19.93	19.18	-4
15	23.86	24.10	1
16	28.23	27.85	-1

593

594 Table 2: Concentration values measured during the first monitoring campaign in fall/winter 2011-
 595 2012 at the four sampling sites. The average values and standard deviations of measured data were
 596 computed for the whole campaign.

597

Winter 2011/2012	Main Site		San Pietro		Rimini		Parma	
	$\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$	SD	$\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$	SD	$\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$	SD	$\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$	SD
OC	9.9	4.1	8.6	4.3	9.5	4.2	9.8	3.7
EC	1.3	6.0	1.4	5.3	2.5	5.6	2.1	5.8
TC	11.9	4.2	9.8	4.3	11.9	3.6	12.0	4.0
OC/EC	6.8	3.0	6.9	3.0	4.7	1.7	4.8	1.5
	ng m^{-3}	SD	ng m^{-3}	SD	ng m^{-3}	SD	ng m^{-3}	SD
Burning PAH	6.1	2.1	7.7	3.0	4.5	0.7	4.2	1.8
BaP	1.1	0.3	1.1	0.4	0.5	0.1	0.6	0.3
BbjFs	1.6	0.5	1.9	0.8	0.8	0.5	1.1	0.7
Levogluosan*	1042	490	967	386				

598

599

*Measured in the intensive campaign from 16th November to 7th December 2011.

600 Table 3: Concentration values measured during the second monitoring campaign in fall/winter
 601 2012-2013 at the four sampling sites. The average values and standard deviations of measured data
 602 were computed for the whole campaign.

603

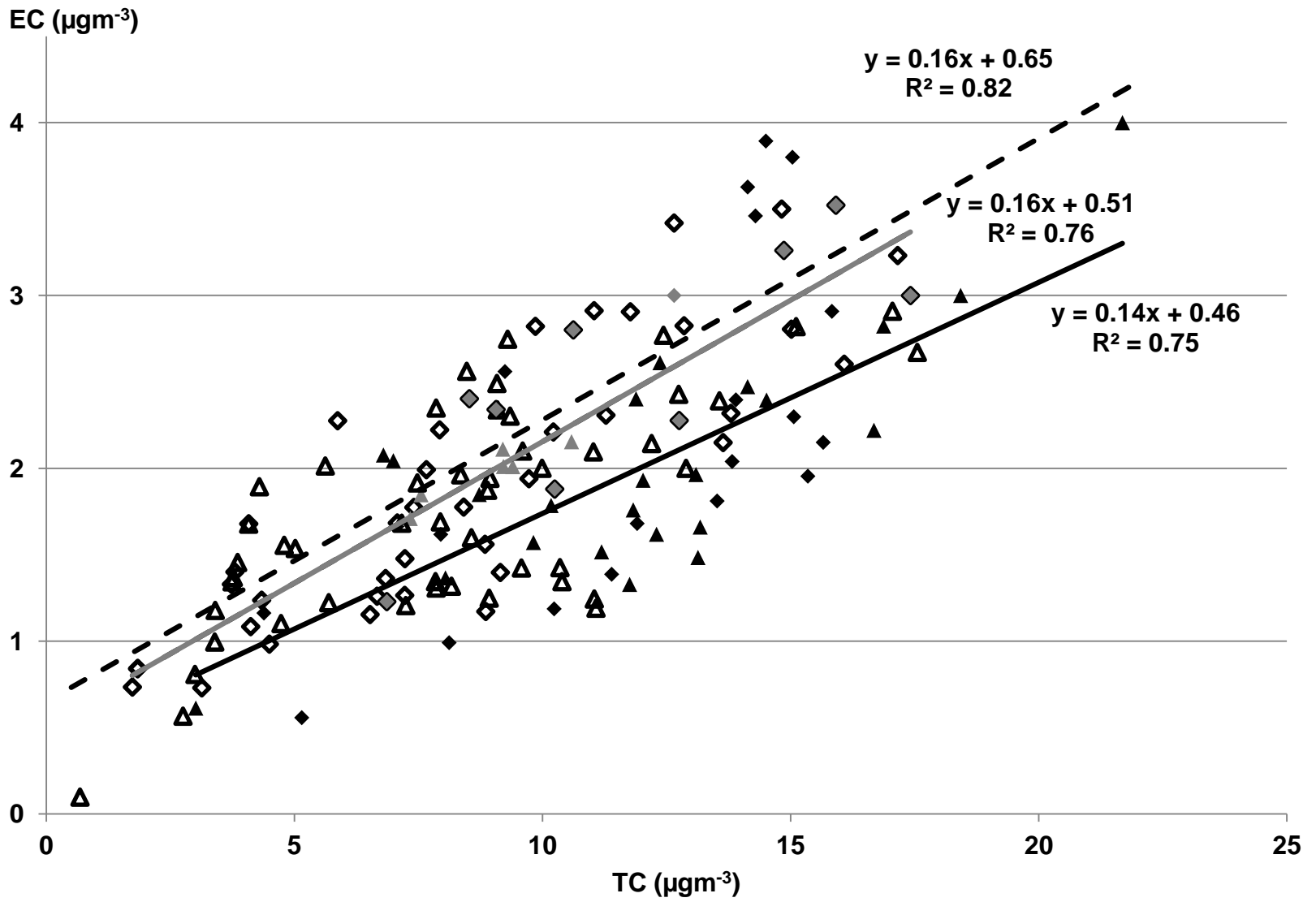
Winter 2012/2013	Main Site		San Pietro		Rimini		Parma	
	$\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$	SD	$\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$	SD	$\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$	SD	$\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$	SD
OC	6.9	3.7	6.4	3.7	7	3.6	5.1	4
EC	2.2	0.9	1.5	0.7	2.1	0.9	1.7	0.6
TC	9.1	4.2	7.8	4.1	9	4.3	8	3.9
OC/EC	3.3	1.6	4.5	1.5	3.5	1.2	3.7	1.7
	ng m^{-3}	SD	ng m^{-3}	SD	ng m^{-3}	SD	ng m^{-3}	SD
Burning PAH	4.9	2.3	3.6	1.9	3.1	1.9	2.4	1.8
BaP	0.9	0.6	0.4	0.3	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.2
BbjFs	1.4	0.8	0.8	0.4	0.8	0.6	0.7	0.6
Levogluosan**	289	144	233	115				

604

605 *Measured in the intensive campaign from 23rd October to 11th November 2012.

Figure 1

a)



b)

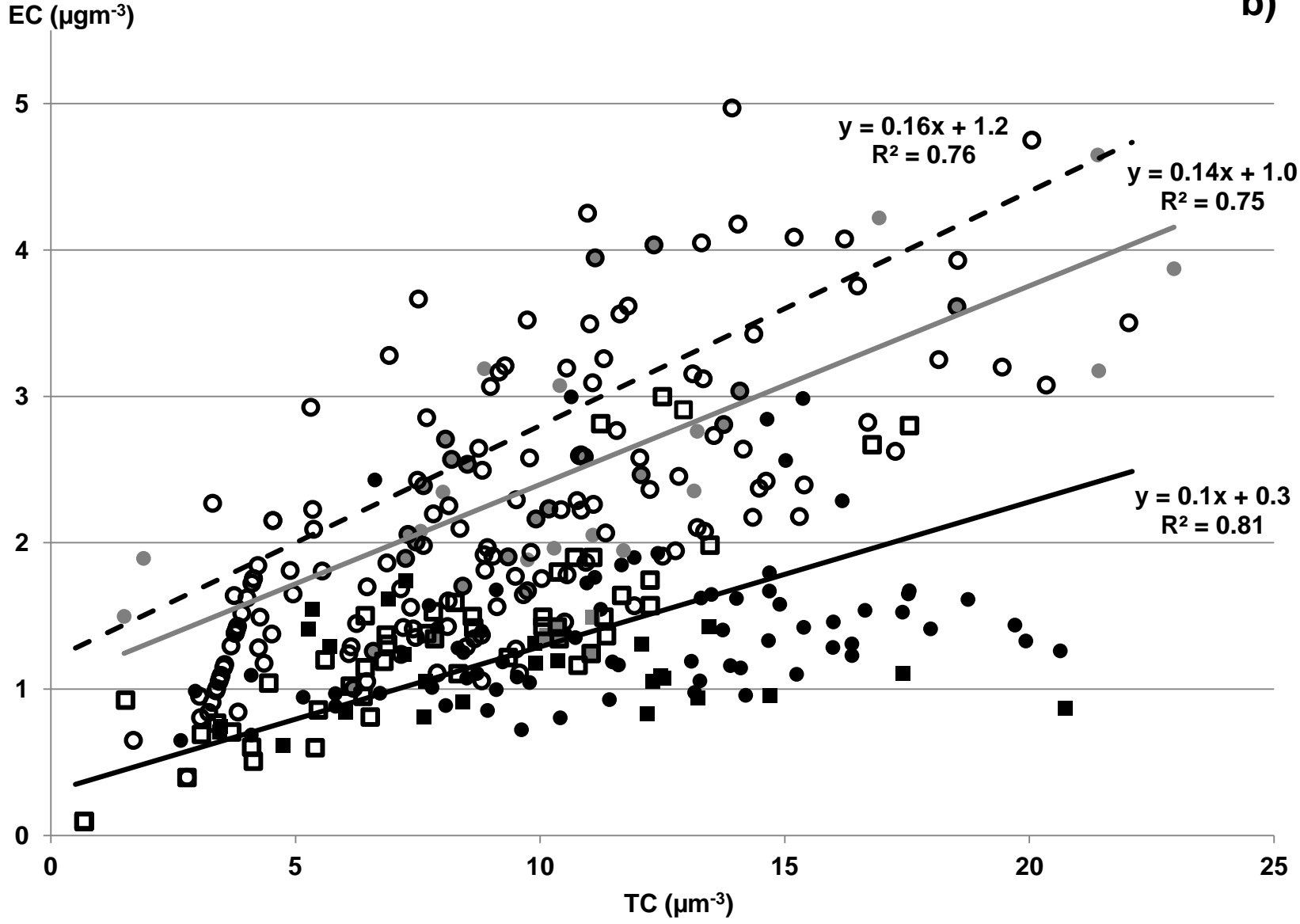


Figure 2

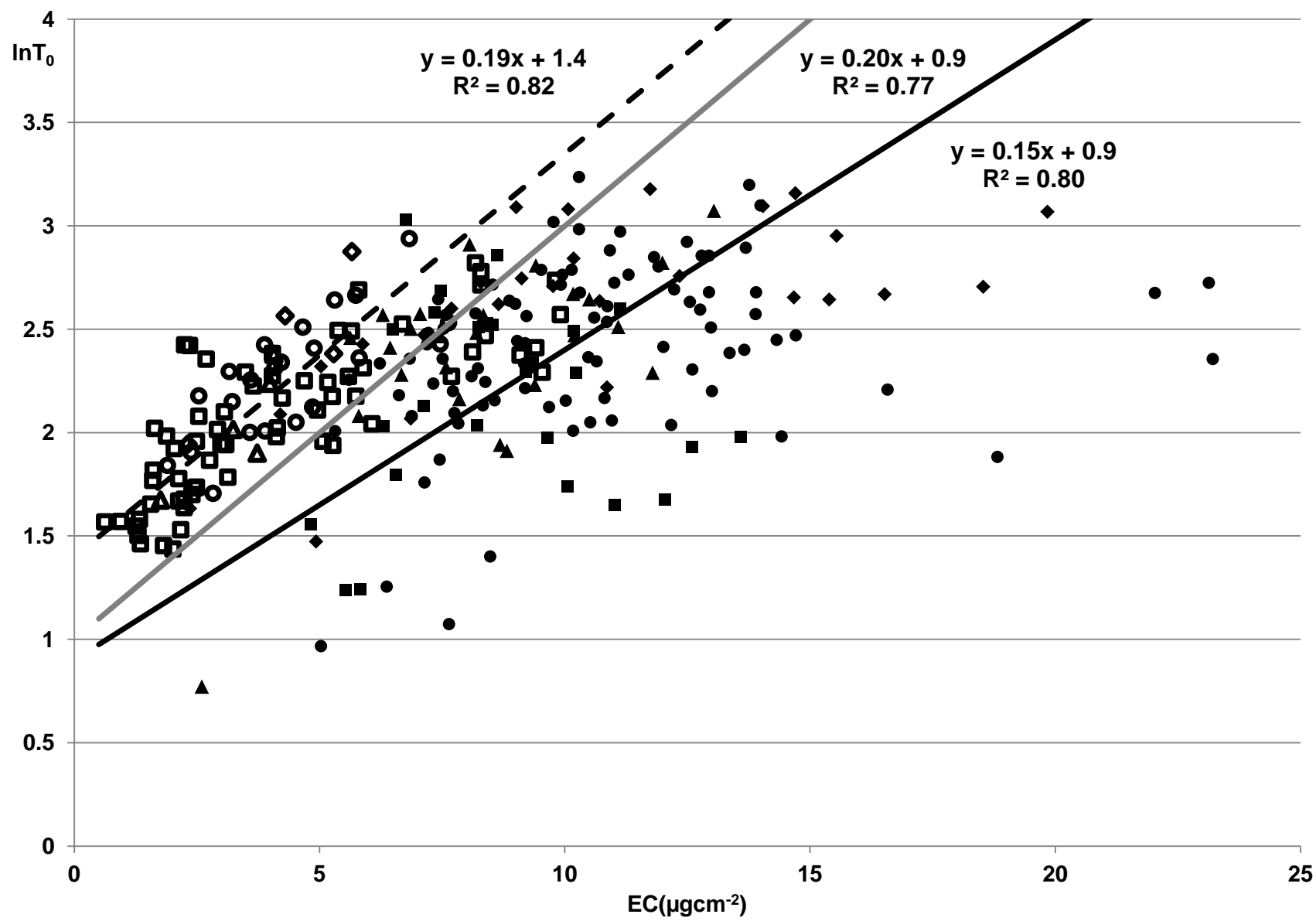
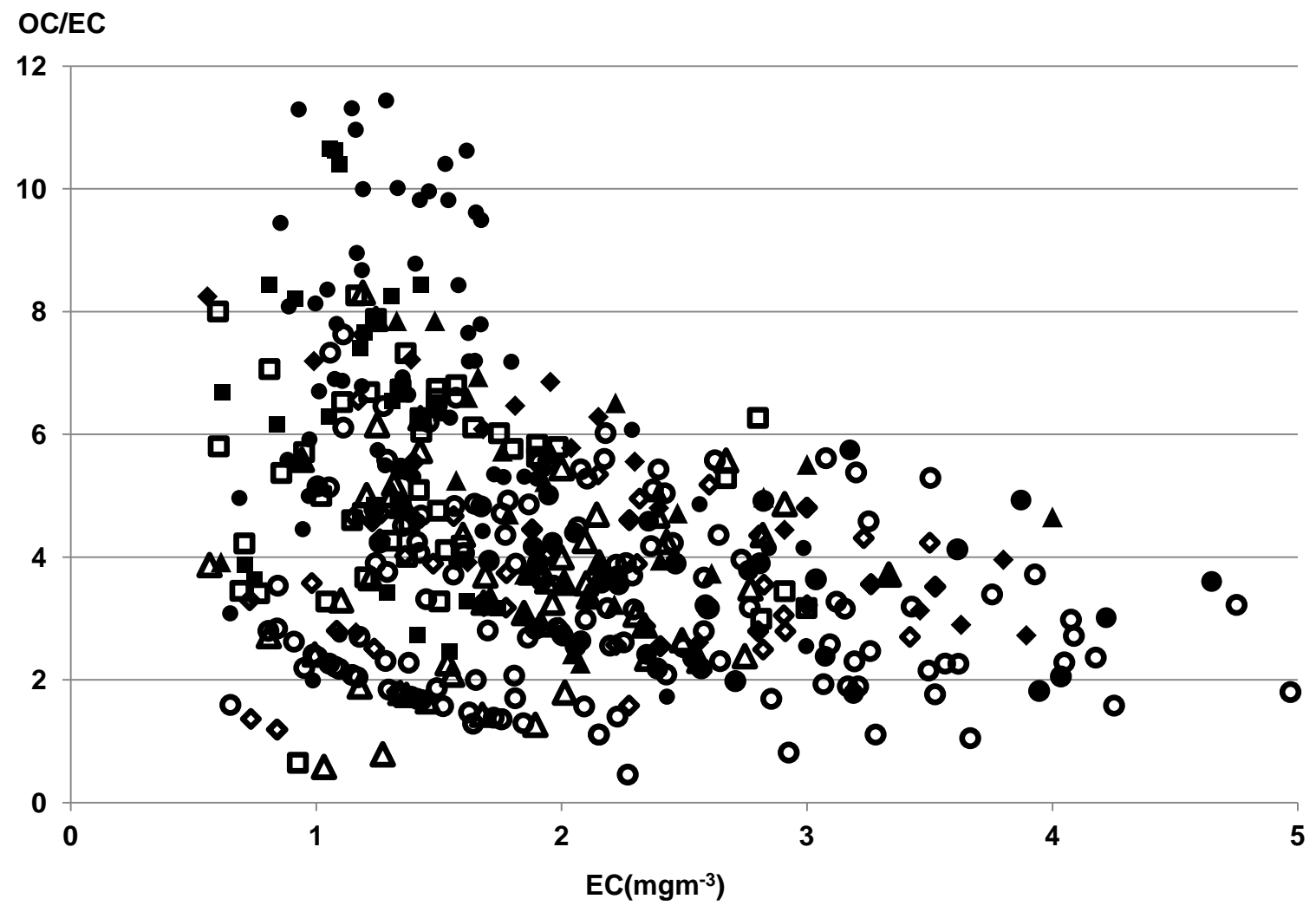


Figure 3



Supplementary material

[Click here to download Supplementary Interactive Plot Data \(CSV\): supplementary_27maggio.docx](#)