



# 1 **Bulk and molecular-level composition of primary organic** 2 **aerosol from wood, straw, cow dung, and plastic burning**

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11 **Abstract.** During the past decades, the source apportionment of organic aerosol (OA) in the ambient air has been  
12 improving substantially. The database of source retrieval model resolved mass spectral profiles for different  
13 sources has been built with the aerosol mass spectrometer (AMS). However, distinguishing similar sources (such  
14 as wildfires and residential wood burning) remains challenging, as the hard ionization of AMS mostly fragments  
15 compounds and therefore cannot capture the detailed molecular information. Recent mass spectrometer  
16 technologies of soft ionization and high mass resolution have allowed for aerosol characterization at the molecular  
17 formula level. In this study, we systematically estimated the emission factors and characterized the primary OA  
18 (POA) chemical composition with the AMS and the extractive electrospray ionization time-of-flight mass  
19 spectrometer (EESI-TOF) for the first time from a variety of solid fuels, including beech logs, spruce and pine  
20 logs, spruce and pine branches and needles, straw, cow dung, and plastic bags. The emission factors of organic  
21 matter and hydrocarbon gases are  $16.2 \pm 10.8 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$  and  $30.3 \pm 8.5 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$  for cow dung burning, which is generally  
22 higher than that of wood (beech, spruce, and pine), straw, and plastic bags burning (in the range from 1.3 to 6.2 g  
23  $\text{kg}^{-1}$  and 2.8 to 9.4 g  $\text{kg}^{-1}$ ). The POA measured by the AMS shows that the  $f_{60}$  (mass fraction of  $m/z$  60) varies from  
24 0.003 to 0.04 based on fuel types and combustion efficiency for wood (beech, spruce, and pine) and cow dung  
25 burning. The contribution of some polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons is linked to burning fuels. On molecular  
26 level, the dominant compound of POA from wood, straw, and cow dung is  $\text{C}_6\text{H}_{10}\text{O}_5$  (mainly levoglucosan),  
27 contributing ~7% to ~30% of the total intensity, followed by  $\text{C}_8\text{H}_{12}\text{O}_6$  with fractions of ~2% to ~9%. However,  
28 as they are prevalent in all burns of biomass material, they cannot act as tracers for the specific sources. By using  
29 the Mann-Whitney U test among the studied fuels, we find specific potential new markers for these fuels from the  
30 measurement of the AMS and EESI-TOF. Markers from spruce and pine burning could be resin and conifer  
31 needle-related. The product from pyrolysis of hardwood lignins is found especially in beech logs burning.  
32 Nitrogen-containing species are selected markers primarily for cow dung open burning. These markers provide  
33 important support for the source apportionment.

34 **Key words:** AMS, EESI-TOF, biomass burning, source apportionment, markers



## 35 **1 Introduction**

36 Emissions from combustion are a major source of primary organic aerosol (POA), black carbon (BC), inorganic  
37 aerosol, and inorganic / organic gases (Andreae, 2019; Bond et al., 2007). After being emitted to the atmosphere,  
38 volatile organic compounds (VOCs) can further react to form lower volatility components and generate secondary  
39 organic aerosol (SOA). The primary emissions and their subsequent transformations have significant implications  
40 for air quality, climate, and human health (Chen et al., 2017). Accordingly, a large number of laboratory and field  
41 measurements have been carried out to disentangle the roles of burning-induced aerosols in polluted areas.

42 Solid fuel combustion is a major source of air pollution in many places over the world. In Southeast Asia, haze  
43 events are mainly attributed to the wildfires, agricultural waste burning, and peatland fires (Adam et al., 2021). In  
44 developing regions, such as India, more than half of households use inefficient stoves for cooking, burning solid  
45 fuels such as firewood, charcoal, crop residues and cow dung (Census of India, 2011). This contributes to poor  
46 household air quality, chronic and acute respiratory diseases, and even premature death (Smith et al., 2014). The  
47 extent to which primary particulate matter adversely affects health is source-dependent. Recent studies have  
48 shown that biomass burning-related particles has been linked to reactive oxygen species and oxidative stress,  
49 increasing the risks of cardiovascular diseases (Daellenbach et al., 2020; De Oliveira Alves et al., 2017; Tuet et al.,  
50 2019). Therefore, identifying the sources of aerosols is essential for assessing health risks and developing  
51 mitigation strategies.

52 Organic aerosol (OA) source apportionment has been widely studied using receptor models, e.g. positive matrix  
53 factorization (PMF), with OA composition characterized by an aerosol mass spectrometer (AMS) or aerosol  
54 chemical speciation monitor (ACSM). Many studies have successfully resolved source-related factors, for  
55 example, hydrocarbon-like OA (HOA), oxygenated OA (OOA), biomass burning OA (BBOA), coal combustion  
56 OA (CCOA), and so on, via PMF (Chen et al., 2021; Huang et al., 2014; Ng et al., 2010; Tobler et al., 2020; Wang  
57 et al., 2019; Crippa et al., 2014). The identification and validation of resolved factors rely strongly upon the  
58 spectral characteristics of source emissions. For example, hydrocarbon ion series  $C_nH_{2n+1}^+$  and  $C_nH_{2n-1}^+$ , e.g.  $C_4H_9^+$   
59 at  $m/z$  57 and  $C_3H_5^+$  at  $m/z$  41, are often referenced as tracers for HOA (Mohr et al., 2012), while  $C_2H_4O_2^+$  at  $m/z$   
60 60 is the main marker for wood and other biomass burning, as  $C_2H_4O_2^+$  is a characteristic major fragment of  
61 anhydrosugars (e.g. levoglucosan) produced from cellulose pyrolysis (Alfarra et al., 2007). However, achieving  
62 finer separation and interpretation of sources within one of the OA categories mentioned above from highly mixed  
63 aerosols in the environment remains challenging, because the laboratory mass spectral profile database of primary  
64 emissions is limited and the potential molecular specificity is impeded by intensive fragmentation in the AMS and  
65 ACSM.

66 To minimize the loss of the molecular information from fragmentation, soft ionization and novel sampling  
67 techniques have been deployed to measure the chemical composition of particles in greater detail. A thermal  
68 desorption aerosol gas chromatograph (TAG) coupled to a AMS has been used and provided the molecular  
69 characterization of OA and SOA (Bertrand et al., 2018). The filter inlet for gases and aerosols (FIGAERO)  
70 measures molecular composition of OA via thermal desorption coupled to a chemical-ionization mass  
71 spectrometer (Lopez-Hilfiker et al., 2014). Nonetheless, thermal decomposition can occur during the thermal  
72 desorption process (Stark et al., 2017), causing potential artifacts and hindering the identification of components.  
73 An extractive electrospray ionization time-of-flight mass spectrometer (EESI-TOF) has been recently developed  
74 for online OA measurement with generally insignificant decomposition or fragmentation (Lopez-Hilfiker et al.,



75 2019). As a result, it provides a molecular-level (i.e., molecular formula determination) mass spectrum with a  
76 time resolution of seconds. Consequently, improved real-time investigations of chemical composition in chamber  
77 experiments (Surdu et al., 2023; Bell et al., 2022) and SOA source apportionment in the field measurement (Tong  
78 et al., 2021; Kumar et al., 2022; Qi et al., 2022) became possible. Thus far, detailed study of primary emissions  
79 from complex sources, e.g. combustion, has not yet been conducted with the EESI-TOF, which necessitates the  
80 measurement to fully utilize the chemical resolution capabilities of EESI-TOF for characterizing mass spectra and  
81 supporting the source apportionment in the field.

82 In this work, we systematically characterize the POA composition using both AMS and EESI-TOF from a variety  
83 of burning fuels from both residential stoves (beech logs and a mixture of spruce and pine logs) and open  
84 combustion (spruce and pine branches and needles, straw, cow dung, and polyethylene plastic bags). The emission  
85 factors of trace gases are presented and possible molecular markers for the burning fuels in this study are discussed.  
86 This work allows for a better understanding of the POA chemical composition emitted from different burning  
87 sources and provides important reference spectra for source apportionment.

## 88 **2 Materials and methods**

### 89 **2.1 Experimental setup and instrumentation**

90 A total of 36 burning experiments were conducted using 6 different types of burning materials, including beech,  
91 spruce, pine, straw, cow dung, and plastic bags. Beech logs, spruce and pine logs, fresh spruce and pine branches  
92 and needles, as well as straw were sourced from a local forestry company in Würenlingen, Switzerland. Cow dung  
93 cakes (made of cow dung and straw) were collected from Goyla dairy, Delhi, India, and polyethylene plastic bags  
94 were bought in Delhi, India. To represent residential burning, logs of (1) beech and (2) spruce and pine were  
95 burned separately in a stove (Bruns et al., 2017). Agricultural waste combustion and forest fires were respectively  
96 represented by burning (1) straw and (2) a mixture of fresh branches and needles of spruce and pine in an open  
97 stainless steel cylinder (65 cm in diameter and 35 cm in height). Finally, the half-open stove (e.g. angithi) and  
98 waste burning in India and some other areas (Fleming et al., 2018), respectively, were represented by burning (1)  
99 cow dung cakes and (2) plastic bags on top of the stainless steel cylinder, with the fuel resting on a mesh steel  
100 plate. The experimental setup is shown in Figure S1. The fuels were ignited with fire starters / kindling and the  
101 emissions were pulled into either a chimney (for stove burning) or a hood (for open burning). After starters /  
102 kindling burnt away (~3 to 10 min. after ignition), the emissions were introduced into a stainless steel holding  
103 tank (1 m<sup>3</sup>) through stainless steel sampling lines heated to 180 °C and passing through an ejection dilutor (DI-  
104 1000, Dekati Ltd.) with a dilution ratio of ~10. The emissions were injected into the holding tank for 10 to 30  
105 min, depending on the emission source. Typically, the injection was stopped when the measured POA  
106 concentration was above ~20 µg/m<sup>3</sup> after ~60 times dilution in the sampling lines. In different burning experiments,  
107 POA concentrations in the holding tank varied between 1 to 5 mg m<sup>-3</sup> prior to sampling line dilution. The holding  
108 tank was flushed overnight with clean air before each experiment, ensuring the background particle concentrations  
109 were less than 10 #/cm<sup>3</sup>.

110 The emissions were delivered from the holding tank to sampling instruments via stainless steel lines (6 mm O.D.)  
111 for particles and via Teflon lines (6 mm O.D.) for gases. Gas analyzers were used for monitoring the concentration  
112 of CO (Horiba APMA-370), CO<sub>2</sub> (LI-COR LI-7000), and total hydrocarbon (THC) and methane (Horiba APHA-



113 370). Particle concentrations were measured using a scanning mobility particle sizer (SMPS, model 3938, TSI)  
114 scanning a range of 16 to 638 nm. An aethalometer (AE 33, Magee Scientific) was used to retrieve the  
115 concentration of equivalent BC (eBC). A long time-of-flight aerosol mass spectrometer (LTOF-AMS, Aerodyne  
116 Research, Inc.) was deployed for online, non-refractory particle characterization and a subset of experiments were  
117 performed with high-resolution time-of-flight AMS (HTOF-AMS, Aerodyne Research, Inc.). The aerosols  
118 sampled by both the SMPS and AMS were dried with a Nafion dryer (Perma Pure). The aerosol was continuously  
119 sampled by the AMS through a 100  $\mu\text{m}$  critical orifice and focused by  $\text{PM}_{10}$  aerodynamic lens. Mass spectra of  
120 positive ion fragments ( $m/z$  10 to 400) were obtained with a TOF mass spectrometer and were analyzed with the  
121 software SQUIRREL (SeQUential Igor data RetRiEvaL) v.1.63 and PIKA (Peak Integration by Key Analysis)  
122 v.1.23 for the IGOR Pro software package (Wavemetrics, Inc.). A detailed description of AMS can be found in  
123 Decarlo et al. (2006).

124 EESI-TOF was deployed for a real-time and molecular-level (i.e., molecular formula) measurement of OA with  
125 minimal analyte fragmentation or decomposition (Lopez-Hilfiker et al., 2019). Before entering the EESI-TOF,  
126 the aerosol passes through an activated charcoal denuder to remove gas-phase species. The aerosol intersects a  
127 spray of charged droplets generated by an electrospray probe. Particles coagulate with the electrospray (ES)  
128 droplets, and water-soluble compounds are extracted into the solvent and then ionized via the Coulomb explosion  
129 mechanism as the droplets evaporate. 100 ppm sodium iodide (NaI) in pure water (MilliQ) was used as the  
130 electrospray solution, resulting in the formation of  $[\text{M} + \text{Na}]^+$  (M is the analyte) adduct in the positive ionization  
131 mode. The EESI-TOF mass analyzer achieved a mass resolution of  $\sim 10000$  at  $m/z$  173 and 11000 at  $m/z$  323. The  
132 EESI-TOF operated with a time resolution of 1 s, and alternated 1.5 min of background measurements (in which  
133 the sampled air passes through a high efficiency particulate air (HEPA) filter to remove particles) with 3.5 min of  
134 direct sampling. These data were pre-averaged to 5 s for further analysis. Ions are only considered as signals from  
135 emissions when their intensity difference between the particle measurement and the corresponding background  
136 measurement periods were 1.9 times bigger than the propagated standard errors over the measurement cycle. For  
137 those selected ions, their mass flux to the detector was calculated as Equation 1:

$$Mass_x = \frac{I_x \times MW_x \times 10^{18}}{N_a} \quad \text{Equation (1)}$$

138

139 where  $Mass_x$  and  $I_x$  are respectively the mass flux (attograms per second,  $\text{ag s}^{-1}$ ) and the ion flux of (counts per  
140 second, cps) of a group of detected ions with the same molecular weight.  $MW_x$  is the molecular weight of  $x$  (with  
141 the mass of the charge carrier, typically  $\text{Na}^+$ , removed).  $N_a$  is Avogadro's number. To assist with the peak  
142 identification, filters were collected from emissions and were analyzed with an ultrahigh-resolution mass  
143 spectrometer (Orbitrap). The Orbitrap (Orbitrap Exploris 120, Thermo Fischer) has a mass resolving power of  
144 140000 at  $m/z$  200, and was operated in positive mode scanning from  $m/z$  50 to 450.

## 145 2.2 Data analysis

146 The emission factor (EF) of species  $i$  was calculated using the carbon mass balance method (Radke and Ward,  
147 1993), expressed in the unit of  $\text{g kg}^{-1}$ , as shown in Equation 2.

$$EF_i = \frac{m_i \cdot W_C}{\Delta CO + \Delta CO_2 + \Delta THC + \Delta OC + \Delta BC} \quad \text{Equation (2)}$$



148 where  $\Delta CO$ ,  $\Delta CO_2$ ,  $\Delta THC$ ,  $\Delta OC$ , and  $\Delta BC$  are the background-corrected carbon mass concentrations of CO,  
149 CO<sub>2</sub>, THC, OC (organic carbon), and BC. OC was calculated from the ratio of organic aerosol and the ratio of  
150 organic mass (OM) to OC (OM/OC) measured by AMS (Canagaratna et al., 2015).  $m_i$  is the mass concentration  
151 of species  $i$ .  $W_C$  is the carbon mass fraction of the burning fuel. The  $W_C$  was reported 0.46 for wood (Bertrand et  
152 al., 2017), 0.45 for straw (Li et al., 2007), 0.45 for cow dung (Font-Palma, 2019), and 0.84 for plastic bags (Li et  
153 al., 2001). In experiments, where BC is not available, the sum of OC and BC is considered equal to the particulate  
154 matter (PM) determined by SMPS. The effective density of particles applied in the SMPS is determined by  
155 comparing mass and volume distributions from the AMS and SMPS (Bahreini et al., 2005). As the contribution  
156 of particles to the total carbon is much smaller than the gases, these two methods have little differences calculating  
157 the denominator in Equation 2. Therefore, the EFs of CO, CO<sub>2</sub>, and THC are consistent using both methods.  
158 However, it could be important for calculating the EFs for particulate species because of the possible discrepancy  
159 between the mass measured by the SMPS and AMS arising from, for example, the particle size and effective  
160 density. Additionally, the OM/OC acquired by the AMS also would add uncertainty when converting OM to OC  
161 because the high range of  $m/z$  without peak fitting is not included in OM/OC. More comparison is discussed in  
162 Sect. 3.1.

163 The combustion condition was characterized by the modified combustion efficiency (MCE, Equation 3) (Ward  
164 and Hardy, 1991). When the MCE is higher than 0.9, the combustion is considered as predominantly flaming.  
165 When the MCE is lower than 0.85, it is dominated by smoldering.

$$MCE = \frac{\Delta CO_2}{\Delta CO + \Delta CO_2} \quad \text{Equation (3)}$$

### 166 2.3 Identification of potential markers

167 The identification of potential markers for emissions was performed by Mann-Whitney U test (Mann and Whitney,  
168 1947; Wilcoxon, 1945) which has been applied in many fields and for the current study has the advantage that it  
169 does not require a large volume of normally distributed samples (Rugiel et al., 2021; Tai et al., 2022). It tests the  
170 null hypothesis that the two population medians are equal against the alternative hypothesis that the two  
171 populations are not equal. When the  $p$ -value is smaller than the significance level of 0.1, the median of the tested  
172 sample is significantly high or low in the two-tailed test. Ions from a class of fuel that satisfy the pairwise  
173 comparison test between one fuel  $j$  and other types of fuels were considered to be significantly high-fraction or  
174 low-fraction ions in the fuel  $j$  and therefore have the potential as markers for the fuel  $j$ . The fold change (FC) of  
175 ion  $i$  in the fuel  $j$  was calculated as the Equation 4, where the  $f_{i,j}$  is the fraction of ion  $i$  in the mass spectra profiles  
176 of the fuel  $j$ , and  $f_{i,other}$  is the average fraction of ion  $i$  in the mass spectra from the other fuels.

$$FC_{i,j} = \frac{f_{i,j}}{f_{i,other}} \quad \text{Equation (4)}$$

## 177 3 Results and discussion

### 178 3.1 Emission factors from combustion

179 The average EFs of CO, CO<sub>2</sub>, THC, PM, OM, and eBC as well as the MCE values of the 6 types of burning are  
180 shown in Table 1, and the EFs and MCE values for each experiment are presented in Table S1.



181 The average MCE values depend on fuel types, with the lowest values of  $0.87 \pm 0.03$  (average  $\pm 1 \sigma$ ) observed  
182 from cow dung open burning and the highest values of  $0.98 \pm 0.02$  from plastic bags open burning, consistent  
183 with smoldering combustion for cow dung and flaming/melting processes for plastic bags. Accordingly, cow dung  
184 had the highest average CO EF ( $92.3 \pm 27.4 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$ ) and the lowest CO<sub>2</sub> EF ( $1366.2 \pm 88.4 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$ ), and vice versa  
185 for plastic bags. The strong relationship between the MCE and some EFs is also true for the THC. In general,  
186 lower the MCEs correspond to higher THC EFs within a given class of burning fuel. Taking straw burning as an  
187 example, the EFs of THC vary from 0.7 to 39.3  $\text{g kg}^{-1}$ , with the MCE varying from nearly 1.00 to 0.89  
188 correspondingly. These EFs of gases are comparable with the reported EFs from the literatures under similar  
189 conditions (Hennigan et al., 2011; Fang et al., 2017; Bertrand et al., 2017).

190 The average EFs of PM is in the range of 3.1 to 16.6  $\text{g kg}^{-1}$ . In general, the PM emitted from cow dung is dominated  
191 by OM, and the eBC is minor. For beech logs and straw, the OM EF is around 3 times higher than the eBC EF.  
192 Noticeably, the emission of PM from plastic bags is not very high (3.0  $\text{g kg}^{-1}$ ), but the EF of OM and eBC is  
193 similar (1.5  $\text{g kg}^{-1}$  v.s. 1.0  $\text{g kg}^{-1}$ ). Note that when eBC data is not available, the sum of OC and BC in the  
194 denominator in Equation 2 is assumed to be equal to the PM measured by the SMPS. Table S1 lists the comparison  
195 of EFs for particulate species where possible. For the experiments of cow dung open burning and plastic bags  
196 open burning, the EFs are consistent using both methods with the difference of PM EF < 6%, and on average less  
197 than 15% for OM EF. However, for some beech logs stove burning experiments (BS3 and BS4), the effective  
198 density required in the calculation is not available, and the average density of other beech logs in this study is  
199 used. This results in some variance between these two methods.

## 200 3.2 Chemical composition of POAs from combustion

### 201 3.2.1 Chemical composition of POAs measured with the AMS

202 The chemical composition of POAs of burning emissions are characterized with the AMS and EESI-TOF  
203 simultaneously. As shown in Figure 1, the average mass spectra from  $m/z$  10 to 120 measured with AMS is  
204 grouped into C<sub>x</sub>H<sub>y</sub>, C<sub>x</sub>H<sub>y</sub>O<sub>1</sub>, C<sub>x</sub>H<sub>y</sub>O<sub>2+</sub>, and C<sub>x</sub>H<sub>y</sub>N<sub>z</sub> families based on their elemental composition. The mass  
205 spectrum of plastic bags burning is not shown because considerable C<sub>x</sub>H<sub>y</sub>O<sub>z</sub> family was observed (23%), but it is  
206 more likely from the emission remaining in the tubing of other fuels than from the plastic bags given the fact that  
207 polyethylene is the main component of it. In all the POAs, the C<sub>x</sub>H<sub>y</sub>-family is the most abundant group, mainly  
208 from ions at  $m/z$  29, 39, 41, 43, 55, 57, 67, and 69 originating primarily from hydrocarbon compounds, with the  
209 biggest contribution for cow dung (72%) and straw (62%), generally higher than that of wood (beech, spruce, and  
210 pine, 48% to 55%) burning. The C<sub>x</sub>H<sub>y</sub>O<sub>2+</sub> and C<sub>x</sub>H<sub>y</sub>O<sub>1</sub> families are the second largest compositions, with major  
211 ions at  $m/z$  28, 29, 43, 44, and 60, which are higher in wood and straw emissions compared to cow dung. Among  
212 these ions, the mass fractions of  $m/z$  44 ( $f_{44}$ , mostly CO<sub>2</sub><sup>+</sup>),  $m/z$  43 ( $f_{43}$ , mostly C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>3</sub>O<sup>+</sup> and C<sub>3</sub>H<sub>7</sub><sup>+</sup>), and  $m/z$  60 ( $f_{60}$ ,  
213 mostly C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>O<sub>2</sub><sup>+</sup>) have the largest impact on the oxidation state of the aerosol. The fragment C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>O<sub>2</sub><sup>+</sup> at  $m/z$  60 is  
214 widely used as a levoglucosan related marker for biomass burning and is most prominent in the wood burning  
215 emissions compared to the other burning fuels. Figure 2a shows that the POAs in this study are at the left bottom  
216 of the ambient OOA range (Ng et al., 2010) in the  $f_{44}$  vs  $f_{43}$  plot, indicating the POA is less oxygenated, which is  
217 consistent with previous studies (Hennigan et al., 2011; Fang et al., 2017; Xu et al., 2020). As shown in Figure  
218 2b, the  $f_{60}$  for the biomass source studied is greater than the background level (Cubison et al., 2011), suggesting  
219 the  $f_{60}$  filter in the ambient is unlikely to miss biomass combustion. The contribution of  $f_{60}$  relates to the burning



220 fuel types and the combustion efficiency. For example, the  $f_{60}$  from wood burning ranges from 0.02 to 0.04,  
221 generally higher than that of cow dung. The  $f_{60}$  of straw open burning is distributed from below 0.01 to 0.025,  
222 resulting from the low to high MCE values correspondingly. The pie charts in Figure 1 indicate that the N-  
223 containing fragments from AMS are mainly from  $C_xH_yN_z$  family and it is the largest in the emission of cow dung  
224 open burning (~3%) and followed by straw (~2%), while the wood is relatively minimal ( $\leq 1\%$ ) (Stockwell et al.,  
225 2016). The nitrogen in organonitrates would appear mainly at fragments of  $NO^+$  and  $NO_2^+$ . However, the  $NO^+$   
226 and  $NO_2^+$  originating from organonitrates are estimated almost 20 times smaller than  $C_xH_yN_z$  family in cow dung  
227 burning using the  $NO^+$  and  $NO_2^+$  ratio between inorganic nitrates and organonitrates (Farmer et al., 2010),  
228 suggesting their contributions are minor to organic nitrogen.

229 In the region from  $m/z$  120 to 450 as shown in Figure S2, polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) are observed.  
230 Based on the spectra of laboratory standards (Dzepina et al., 2007; Aiken et al., 2007), parent ions at  $m/z$  239, 252,  
231 276, 300, and 326 correspond respectively to  $C_{19}H_{12}$  (methylbenzofluoranthene),  $C_{20}H_{12}$  (benzofluoranthene and  
232 benzopyrene),  $C_{22}H_{12}$  (indenopyrene and benzoperylene),  $C_{24}H_{12}$  (coronene), and  $C_{26}H_{14}$  (dibenzoperylene).  
233 These ions contribute  $0.69\% \pm 0.14\%$  and  $0.66\% \pm 0.11\%$  respectively to the total POA of the spruce and pine  
234 branches and needles open burning as well as spruce and pine logs stove burning, which is distinct from straw  
235 ( $0.36\% \pm 0.13\%$ ), beech logs ( $0.34\% \pm 0.14\%$ ), and cow dung ( $0.25\% \pm 0.13\%$ ). The lower bound of the  
236 contribution of these ions for plastic bags is estimated as  $0.57\% \pm 0.37\%$ . Of particular note is the series of high  
237 intensity ions at  $m/z > 350$  in emissions from the plastic bags open burning. Reference mass spectra of PAHs at  
238 higher mass-to-charge ratio ( $> m/z$  350) is not available so far, but from the PAH pattern of spikes spacing ~24 –  
239 26 amu, we speculate that this series does come from a series of high molecular weight PAHs.

### 240 3.2.2 Chemical composition of POAs measured with the EESI-TOF

241 The EESI-TOF provides an important complement to the highly fragmented mass spectra generated by the AMS,  
242 where intact compounds measured by the EESI-TOF from  $m/z$  100 to 400 are shown in Figure 3. The bin of  
243 compounds containing O/C greater than 0.7 has the largest and similar contribution in wood burning (29.9% to  
244 31.5%), and it is slightly smaller in straw (25%) and cow dung (20.1%). O/C smaller than 0.15 contributes 15.3%  
245 to 18.8% in spruce and pine which is similar to the fraction in cow dung (13.5%) but much higher compared to  
246 beech logs (4.7%) and straw (8.8%), mainly due to the greater contribution of compounds with carbon numbers  
247 in the range of 18 to 21. Cow dung has a slightly lower fraction of low-H/C and a slightly higher fraction of high-  
248 H/C comparing to other fuels studied.

249 As shown in the pie charts in Figure 3, the  $C_xH_yO_z$ -family is the main group measured by the EESI-TOF with  
250 contribution from 80% to 97%. The N-containing species have the highest contribution (19.6%) in the POA from  
251 cow dung open burning, which is much higher than other fuels in this study (2.5% to 8.9%). Of the N-containing  
252 species in cow dung POA 95% contain one nitrogen atom and are in a wide range of carbon number between 5  
253 and 22, with mainly in the O/C range of  $< 0.15$  to 0.5 and the H/C from 1.2 to  $> 1.7$  (Figure S3). The degree of  
254 unsaturation, calculated from the ratio of the double-bond equivalent to the number of carbons (DBE/C). The  
255 difference in all the studied POAs is not major (Figure S4).

256 On molecular level,  $C_6H_{10}O_5$  ( $m/z$  162.0523) is most abundant in wood combustion ( $20.3\% \pm 6.1\%$ ), is less  
257 pronounced in straw ( $15.0\% \pm 7.9\%$ ) and even less so in cow dung emissions ( $9.9\% \pm 5.4\%$ ) (Figure 2c). It  
258 could be mainly assigned to levoglucosan (or similar dehydrated sugars) which is formed from the pyrolysis of





259 cellulose and hemicellulose (Simoneit, 2002). The second most abundant species presented in the POAs is  
260  $C_8H_{12}O_6$  ( $m/z$  204.0628) in this study, contributing between 2 and 9%. It has been observed from the primary  
261 biomass burning emissions in the laboratory and ambient studies (Kumar et al., 2022; Kong et al., 2021). In  
262 addition, compounds with 18 and 20 carbon atoms are rich in many fuel types, particularly in spruce and pine  
263 burning emissions, and are notably minimal in beech logs.

264 The O/C (calculated as the ratio of total oxygen to total carbon) of the POAs from 5 types of burning measured  
265 by the EESI-TOF is 0.32 – 0.41, which is higher than that of the AMS (0.16 – 0.37). The difference likely occurs  
266 because the EESI-TOF is insensitive to species with low water solubility and/or low affinity for  $Na^+$  (e.g.,  
267 hydrocarbons including polyaromatic hydrocarbons). This may also contribute to an underestimation of H/C. The  
268 total nitrogen-to-total carbon ratio (N/C) of cow dung measured by EESI-TOF is 0.019, which is slightly higher  
269 than that in the AMS measurements (0.015). This could be partially because of the difference in EESI sensitivity  
270 to the N-containing molecules. Another reason is that the total carbon from OA measured by the EESI-TOF is  
271 smaller, again consistent with the absence of non-water-soluble substances or molecules that do not bind to  $Na^+$ .

### 272 3.3 Common markers for solid-fuel combustion

273 Levoglucosan and dehydrated sugars having the molecular formula  $C_6H_{10}O_5$  are commonly used as tracers for  
274 biomass burning. A range of values for the fraction of  $C_6H_{10}O_5$  is observed both for the same fuel type under  
275 different burning conditions and for different fuel types, as seen in Figure 2c. Thus,  $C_6H_{10}O_5$  is a good untargeted  
276 marker for biomass burning, but cannot be used to determine the specific source (or type of combustible)  
277 responsible for biomass burning emissions. Likewise, the  $C_8H_{12}O_6$  is not a suitable marker for specific emission  
278 sources, as it is prevalent in all burns of biomass material. Additionally,  $C_8H_{12}O_6$  has been considered as a tracer  
279 for terpene or syringol-derived SOA (Szmigielski et al., 2007; Yee et al., 2013), however our results suggest this  
280 molecular formula is not a good marker for SOAs due to the strong contribution from biomass burning-derived  
281 POA.

282 At a higher mass range,  $C_{16}H_{32}O_2$  and  $C_{18}H_{30,32,34}O_2$  are likely to be the common saturated and unsaturated fatty  
283 acids corresponding to palmitic, linolenic, linoleic, and oleic acid, which are important structural components of  
284 cells and were found in the emission of cooking, biomass burning, and cow dung (Simoneit, 2002; Neves et al.,  
285 2009a; Neves et al., 2009b; Brown et al., 2021). The corresponding compounds for the  $C_{20}H_{30}O_2$  are most likely  
286 resin acids (e.g., abietic acid and pimaric acid) which have been specifically found in coniferous wood species  
287 (Holmbom, 1977) and served as biomass burning tracers (Simoneit et al., 1993; Liang et al., 2021). The  
288  $C_{20}H_{30,32,24}O_{2,3}$  have been found as diterpenoids from the wood of *Cunninghamia konishii* (Li and Kuo, 2002).

289 This plant species belongs to the class of Pinopsida, which also includes spruce and pine.

290 These typical markers stated above are well-known, but due to their presence in more than one fuel, the  
291 determination of different BB sources (or even biomass burning-derived POA) is challenging. For example,  
292 scaling levoglucosan to total BB OM requires a priori knowledge of the BB source and burning condition (Favez  
293 et al., 2010). Therefore, it is complicated to apply these markers in the source apportionment without comparison  
294 to statistically rule out other possibilities.





### 295 3.4 Identification of potential markers for specific solid fuels

296 To investigate the feasibility of distinguishing differences between the combustion fuel sources based on the  
297 measured species, the similarity of mass spectra acquired from each experiment by AMS and EESI-TOF is  
298 assessed with Spearman's rank correlation coefficient ( $r$ ), as shown in Figure 4. In the correlation matrix with the  
299 fragment ions from AMS (Figure 4a), it is clear that the POAs from the same burning fuel strongly correlate. For  
300 instance, the average correlation coefficients of the AMS POA MS for all experiments using the same fuel range  
301 from 0.84 to 0.95. When comparing different fuels, a strong correlation is also found between spruce and pine  
302 logs stove burning and spruce and pine branches and needles open burning ( $0.95 \pm 0.02$ ). This is mainly because  
303 these two types of burning are closely related (i.e., derived from the same plants), and therefore have similar  
304 chemical composition. The correlation weakened when comparing POAs from different materials (e.g., spruce –  
305 beech  $0.77 \pm 0.03$ , spruce – straw  $0.76 \pm 0.03$ , spruce – cow dung  $0.75 \pm 0.03$ ).

306 By contrast, the correlation coefficients based on the species from EESI-TOF are much lower among different  
307 burning fuels and even amongst the same fuel type (0.44 to 0.68). Noticeably, only a weak intra-fuel correlation  
308 is found for spruce/pine logs stove burning ( $0.44 \pm 0.07$ ), indicating that there are significant differences between  
309 experiments which are likely driven by burn-to-burn variability caused by differences in the combustion condition  
310 or variance of the fuel materials (e.g., with or without bark, amount of sap in the wood, etc.). Nevertheless, the  
311 variability between different fuels is clearly larger than the intra-fuel variability for the POAs. For example, the  
312 correlation between the cow dung and all the other fuels (average  $0.27 \pm 0.11$ ) is significantly lower than that of  
313 among cow dung emissions ( $0.49 \pm 0.16$ ). This suggests that the EESI-TOF may be capable of distinguishing  
314 between different types of BB fuels.

315 To perform a more detailed analysis and identify markers between the emissions, the Mann-Whitney U test (see  
316 Sect. 2.2) of the POAs from different fuels measured by AMS and EESI-TOF is conducted. Considering that both  
317 spruce and pine logs stove burning as well as spruce and pine branches and needles are similar fuel types and have  
318 a comparable POA composition in Figures 1 to 3, they were classified as the same fuel for this test. Results of the  
319 Mann-Whitney U test are presented in Figure 5, where we show the average  $-\log_{10}$  of the  $p$ -value as a function of  
320 the  $\log_2$  of the fold change (FC). Species having  $p$ -values less than 0.1 in the two-tailed test in all pairwise  
321 comparisons are considered to be significantly more prevalent or scarcer in a single fuel compared to all other  
322 fuels. These ions are represented as colored circles in Figure 5. If the species fail to meet the criterion one time or  
323 more than one time, those species will be shown as gray circles even though their average  $p$ -value might be lower  
324 than 0.1. A higher  $-\log_{10}(p\text{-value})$  (i.e., a lower  $p$ -value) indicates a lower probability that the fractional medians  
325 of two species are equal. At the same time, a higher FC (Equation 4) indicates a higher abundance of the species'  
326 fractional contribution in the tested fuel compared to the average of all other fuels, deeming it more exclusive. In  
327 the case of beech logs as well as spruce and pine logs burning, the colored  $p$ -value is lower (higher  $-\log_{10}(p\text{-value})$ )  
328 in the dataset of AMS than that of EESI-TOF, suggesting the results from the AMS are more replicable. However,  
329 from the perspective of FC, its absolute value is around 2 to 4 times higher in the dataset of the EESI-TOF than  
330 that of the AMS. This shows that the potential markers selected from the EESI-TOF measurement are more unique,  
331 in some cases found only in the spectrum of a given source. On this ground, the AMS and EESI-TOF are potent  
332 complementary tools to provide separation and source apportionment of ambient OA, and to capture marker  
333 compounds. The selected potential markers,  $p$ -values, and fold changes are listed in Table S2 and Table S3 for  
334 EESI-TOF and AMS data, respectively.



335 Mass defect plots of the selected marker compounds are visualized in Figure 6. Many more potential markers are  
336 identified from spruce and pine burning, as well as cow dung open burning, in comparison to beech and straw  
337 burning. As shown in Figure 6A with the AMS dataset, potential markers from  $C_xH_y$  and  $C_xH_yO_z$ -family have  
338 significantly higher fraction in the POA of beech logs than those in other fuels. By contrast, the selected markers  
339 for spruce and pine burning are more oxidized and mainly composed of  $C_xH_yO_z$ -family, which is consistent with  
340 its bulk chemical composition and relatively higher O/C. The main fragments  $CO^+$  and  $CO_2^+$  have higher  
341 contributions in spruce and pine burning (also can be seen in Figure 1), but their FCs are not very high, which  
342 means they are not exclusive in spruce and pine and therefore are not applicable as sole tracers in the complex  
343 ambient air. Fragments from cow dung open burning have considerably higher contribution in  $C_xH_y$ -family and  
344 N-containing families, but lower in oxygen-containing species, which also agrees with bulk chemical composition  
345 characteristics.

346 Similarly, many marker compounds are determined in the measurement of EESI-TOF for spruce and pine burning  
347 as well as cow dung open burning. Compounds with 20 – 21 carbon atoms as shown in Figure 6B for spruce and  
348 pine burning could be resin and conifer needle-related, such as  $C_{20}H_{32}O_3$  (likely isocupressic acid) (Mofikoya et  
349 al., 2020; Wiyono et al., 2006). Homologues of  $C_{11}H_{12}(CH_2)_{0-3}O_7$  are also determined, of which  $C_{14}H_{18}O_7$  could  
350 be picein which is an important phenolic compound in the needles of spruce (Løkke, 1990). On the other hand,  
351 some compounds which are barely present in the POA of spruce and pine burning, such as  $C_{14}H_{28}(CH_2)_{0-3}O_2$   
352 (likely saturated fatty acids), offers an alternative perspective of exclusion method in source separation.  
353 Noticeably, while coniferyl alcohol ( $C_{10}H_{12}O_3$ ) is a major pyrolysis product from softwood (e.g., spruce) lignins  
354 (Saiz-Jimenez and De Leeuw, 1986) and has a decent fractional contribution in POA of the spruce and pine  
355 burning, but its contribution in spruce and pine burning is smaller than straw burning. Therefore, it is not  
356 recommended as a tracer when other biomass fuels are present. For the hardwood (i.e., beech logs in this study),  
357 sinapyl alcohol ( $C_{11}H_{14}O_4$ ) is one of the prominent products from pyrolysis of lignins (Saiz-Jimenez and De Leeuw,  
358 1986) and is conspicuous in our beech logs stove burning. Interestingly, nitrogen-containing compound  
359  $C_{13}H_{17}NO_6$  is noted as a tracer for straw open burning, and the nitrogen-containing fragments  $C_3H_8N$  are also  
360 selected from the straw AMS analysis.

361 Cow dung is a clearly different fuel to other biomass fuels in this study, thus many markers are identified from  
362 cow dung open burning. These potential markers have mostly nitrogen in chemical composition and with generally  
363 higher FC. Many series of N-containing homologues are found, such as  $C_{10}H_9NO_2$  and  $C_{11}H_{11}NO_2$ , which could  
364 be likely assigned to the derivative of indole, i.e., indole acetic acid and indolepropionic acid respectively. Another  
365 series of homologues is  $C_9H_{11}NO_2$  and  $C_{10}H_{13}NO_2$ , which have been found especially in the emissions from cow  
366 dung cook fire in India compared to brushwood cook fire (Fleming et al., 2018). Homologues without nitrogen  
367 atoms in the chemical composition are also seen, for example,  $C_{22}H_{42}(CH_2)_{0-2}O_2$ , likely the homologues of erucic  
368 acid which is a natural fatty oil mainly present in the Brassicaceae family of plants. Nevertheless, it is not very  
369 surprising to see the biomass-related species as cows are herbivorous animals.

370 To the best of our knowledge, most of these markers are reported for the first time in POA emissions from the  
371 studied fuels. They could improve the refinement in source separation of fuels in biomass burning. Replicability  
372 and specificity are two important criteria for tracers. The  $p$ -value being less than 0.1 in the two-tailed test can  
373 ensure the stability of the shown results. The FC tells the degree of specificity of markers of one fuel in the  
374 presence of other fuels. If the  $p$ -value criterion is satisfied and the FC is large, the presence of this marker can



375 directly lead us to the emission source. On the other hand, if the FC is less than 1, the detection of this compound  
376 can decisively exclude the related source after verifying this isn't due to a detection limit issue. However, if the  
377 FC is in-between, more caution is needed because these compounds don't have a distinctive fraction in that fuel  
378 compared to other fuels, but could have a relatively fixed ratio compared to other markers.

#### 379 **4 Conclusions**

380 In this study, we conducted 36 burning experiments to simulate typical solid fuel combustion emission, including  
381 residential burning (beech or spruce and pine logs stove burning), wildfire (spruce and pine branches and needles  
382 open burning), agricultural residue in field burning (straw open burning), cow dung open burning, and plastic bags  
383 open burning. The emission factors of CO, CO<sub>2</sub>, THC, PM, OM, and BC were determined. The chemical  
384 composition of particles emitted from the combustion processes was comprehensively characterized using the  
385 AMS and the EESI-TOF, and the chemical composition of the particles measured by the two instruments were  
386 compared. These are the first direct measurements of these source profiles with the EESI-TOF. The utility of  
387 traditional markers are discussed, and new potential markers were identified using the Mann-Whitney U test.

388 The EFs of CO and THC are generally higher during the low combustion efficiency, and the opposite for the EF  
389 of CO<sub>2</sub>. The highest EF of PM ( $16.6 \pm 10.8 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$ ) is from cow dung open burning which is mostly OM ( $16.2 \pm 10.8$   
390  $\text{g kg}^{-1}$ ), but for residential and plastic bags burning, the eBC accounts for ~30% of the total PM. The organics  
391 measured by the AMS show that the wood (beech, spruce, and pine) burning emission has a relatively higher  
392 abundance of C<sub>x</sub>H<sub>y</sub>O<sub>z</sub> fragments, while straw and cow dung burning emissions are dominated by C<sub>x</sub>H<sub>y</sub> fragments  
393 in their POAs. On the molecular level, C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>10</sub>O<sub>5</sub> has the highest proportion (~7% to ~30%) in the POAs measured  
394 by the EESI-TOF (except for the plastic bags burning), followed by C<sub>8</sub>H<sub>12</sub>O<sub>6</sub> with fractions of ~2% to ~9%. The  
395 chemical composition measured with AMS covers a wide range of non-refractory organic and inorganic  
396 components. However, the extensive fragmentation concentrates the measured mass-to-charge ratio below ~120  
397 and limits its chemical resolution. The chemical groups used to deduce the composition of particles could originate  
398 from different compounds, which impedes us from seeing the full picture. The formula-based mass spectrum from  
399 the EESI-TOF overcomes this deficiency and thus reveals the detailed characteristics.

400 However, many compounds are present ubiquitously in all of the fuels used here, making it challenging to identify  
401 atmospheric sources solely by visual comparisons of the full mass spectra. By using the Mann-Whitney U test to  
402 identify potential markers among the studied fuels, we find that the markers identified by the AMS have greater  
403 replicability and by EESI-TOF are more distinctive, thus providing an important reference for the source  
404 apportionment. Markers identified with the EESI-TOF from spruce and pine burning with 20 – 21 carbon atoms  
405 could be resin and conifer needle-related. The product from pyrolysis of hardwood lignins is found specially in  
406 beech logs stove burning. Nitrogen-containing homologues are identified particularly from cow dung open  
407 burning. Overall, this work highlights the characteristics of POAs emitted from the burning of solid fuels and  
408 proposes the markers for separating different sources using the AMS and EESI-TOF.

409 In the future, the volatility and chemical reactivity of the proposed markers should be tested to determine their  
410 atmospheric stability and their ability to be a robust marker. More burning fuels such as coal and grass could be  
411 conducted to enrich the spectral database.

412



413 **Data availability**

414 The datasets are available upon request to the corresponding authors.

415 **Author contributions**

416 JZ, TTW, KL, DMB, EG, KYC, and SB conducted the burning experiments. JZ analyzed the data and wrote the  
417 manuscript. DSW, MS, TQC, LQ, and DB participated in the campaign. DMB, KL, IEH, HL, JGS, and ASHP  
418 participated in the interpretation of data.

419 **Competing interests**

420 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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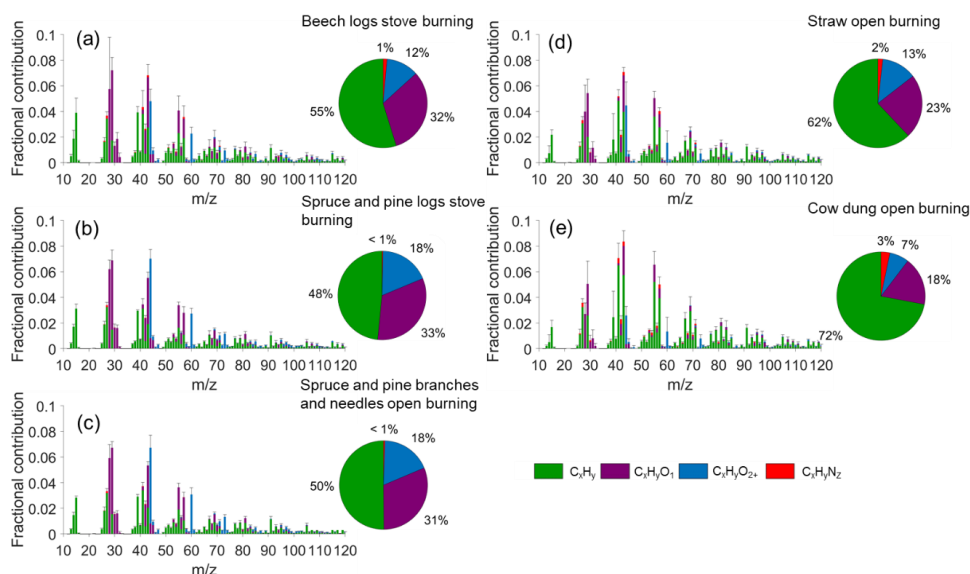


670 **Tables and figures**

671 **Table 1 Average emission factors of CO, CO<sub>2</sub>, THC, PM, OM, and BC as well as MCE for 6 types of burning.**

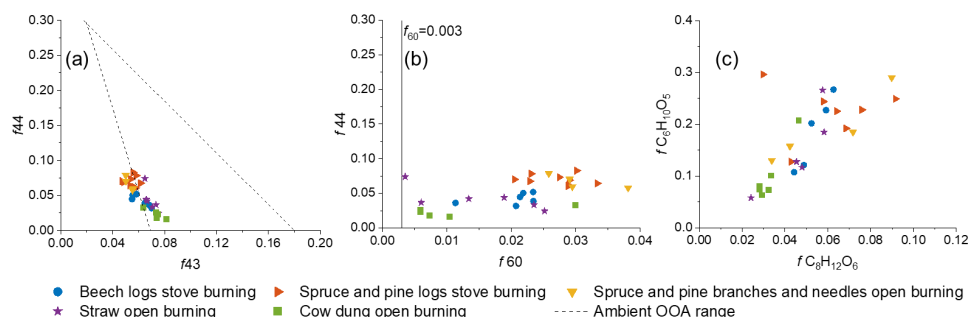
Burning type	Carbon content	MCE	Emission factors (g kg <sup>-1</sup> fuel)					
			CO	CO <sub>2</sub>	THC	PM	OM	eBC*
beech logs stove (n=5)	0.46	0.91±0.03	85.8±25.9	1466.9±65.8	19.3±5.5	7.6±2.2	6.2±2.8	2.43±0.9
spruce and pine logs stove (n=8)	0.46	0.91±0.02	83.8±26.7	1640.7±58	16.1±4.8	4.9±2.2	2.0±1.3	n.a
spruce and pine branches and needles open (n=4)	0.46	0.93±0.02	63.5±6.8	1668.9±26.7	14.1±3.4	9.4±2.7	3.8±1.1	n.a
straw open (n=6)	0.45	0.95±0.04	44.4±34.1	1511.7±103.2	19.1±17	2.8±1.2	2.4±1.3	0.7±0.2
cow dung open (n=6)	0.45	0.87±0.03	92.3±27.4	1366.2±88.4	30.3±8.5	16.6±10.8	16.2±10.8	0.8±0.3
plastic bags open (n=4)	0.84	0.98±0.02	29.3±39.2	2956.6±138.9	18.2±28.6	3.1±1.3	1.3±0.3	1.0±0.3

672 \* The number of burns is indicated by n. BC data is not available for some burns.



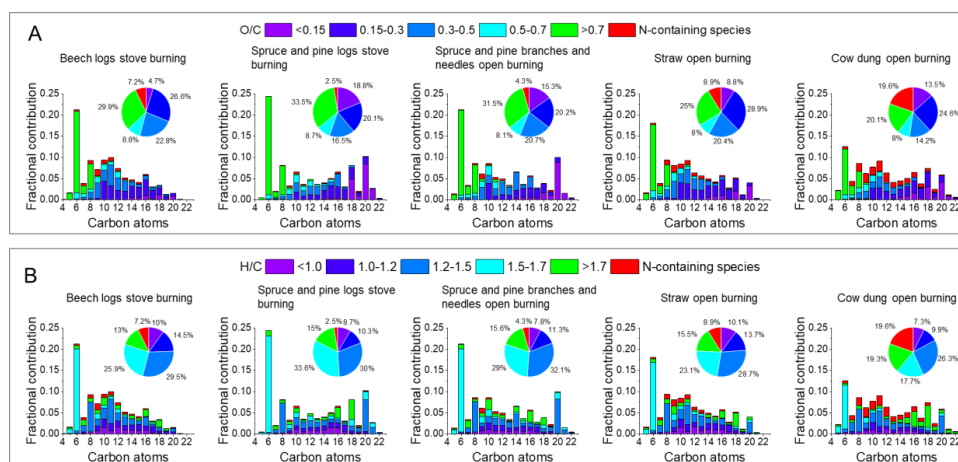
673

674 **Figure 1 Average AMS POA mass spectral profiles and elemental compositions of (a) beech logs stove burning (n=6; n**  
 675 **is the number of experiments), (b) spruce and pine logs stove burning (n=9), (c) spruce and pine branches and needles**  
 676 **open burning (n=4), (d) straw open burning (n=6), and (e) cow dung open burning (n=5). The error bar denotes half**  
 677 **standard deviation in grey. The pie chart showing the contribution of elemental families is at the right of the mass**  
 678 **spectrum.**



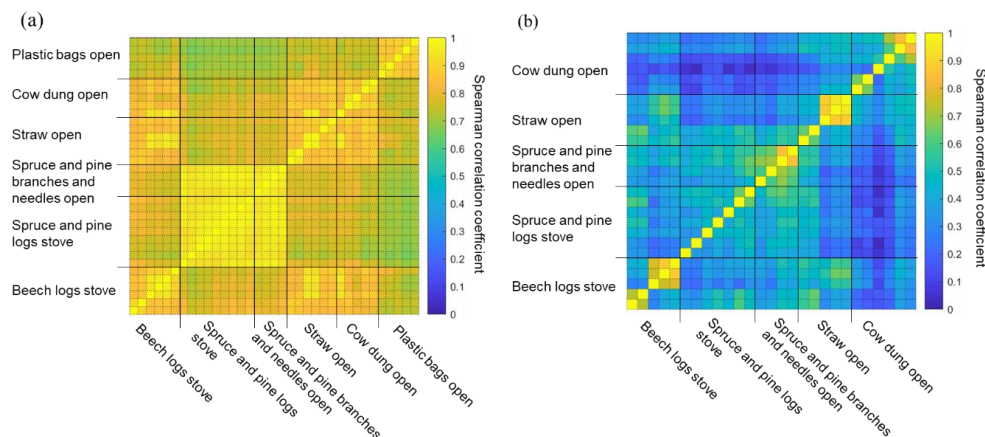
679

680 **Figure 2. Scatter plots of (a)  $f_{44}$  vs.  $f_{43}$  from AMS, (b)  $f_{44}$  vs.  $f_{60}$  from AMS, and (c)  $f_{C_6H_{10}O_5}$  vs.  $f_{C_8H_{12}O_6}$  from EESI-**  
 681 **TOF. The dashed line denotes the estimated OOA range and the solid line denotes  $f_{60}$  background level in the ambient**  
 682 **from Ng et al. (2010) and Cubison et al. (2011).**



683

684 **Figure 3 The average carbon and oxygen distribution colored by the O/C and H/C for non-N-containing species in**  
 685 **panel A and B respectively with EESI-TOF. The N-containing species are colored in red. The pie charts are the**  
 686 **corresponding contribution of a range of O/C or H/C ratios.**

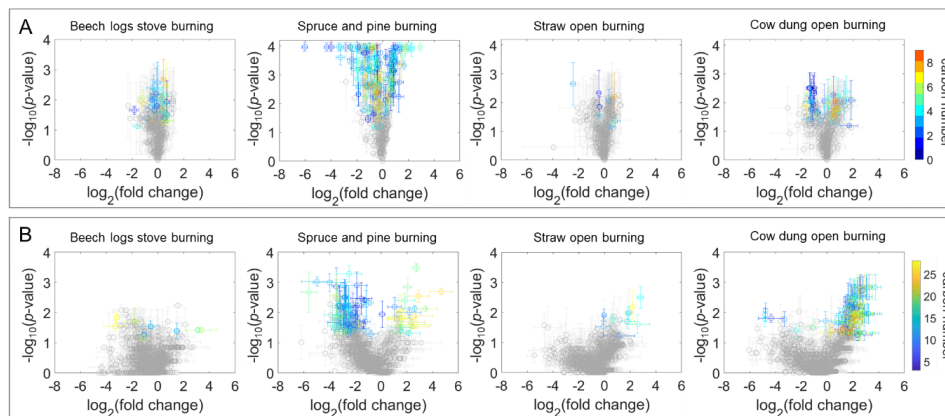


687

688 **Figure 4 The correlation matrix of POAs measured with (a) the HR data from AMS and (b) EESI-TOF using Spearman**  
 689 **correlation function. Note that some experiments did not have either AMS or EESI-TOF data.**

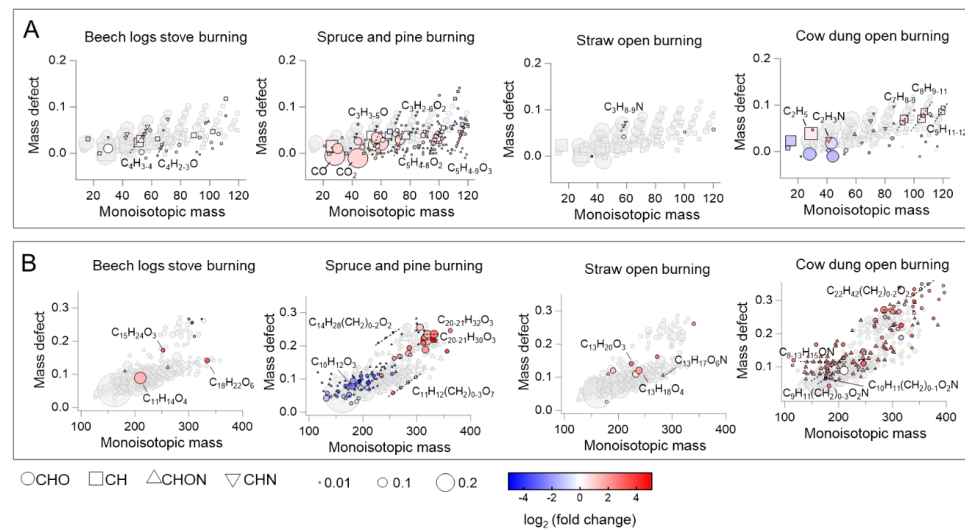


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691

692 **Figure 5** The static  $p$ -value vs. fold change with the dataset from AMS in panel A and EESI-TOF in panel B. The color  
693 bars are the number of carbon atoms. The horizontal error bars are the 1 standard deviation given by the  $p$ -value  
694 variations in the pairwise tests, and the vertical error bars are the 1 standard deviation of the  $\log_2$ (fold change).



695

696 **Figure 6** The mass defect plot with the dataset from AMS in panel A and EESI-TOF in panel B. The markers denotes  
697 the fragments or molecules having the same formula. They are sized by the square root of fractional contribution and  
698 colored by the  $\log_2$ (fold change).