



1 **Measurement report: Oxidation potential of water-soluble**
2 **aerosol components in the southern and northern of Beijing**

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14

15 **Abstract**

16 Water-soluble components have significant contribution to the oxidative
17 potential (OP) of atmospheric fine particles, while our understanding of their
18 relationship is still limited. In this study, the water-soluble OP levels in wintertime
19 PM_{2.5} in the south and north of Beijing, representing the difference in sources, were
20 measured with dithiothreitol (DTT) assay. The volume normalized DTT (DTT_v) in the
21 north ($3.5 \pm 1.2 \text{ nmol min}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-3}$) was comparable to that in the south ($3.9 \pm 0.9 \text{ nmol}$
22 $\text{min}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-3}$), while the mass normalized DTT (DTT_m) in the north ($65.3 \pm 27.6 \text{ pmol}$
23 $\text{min}^{-1} \mu\text{g}^{-3}$) was almost twice that in the south ($36.1 \pm 14.5 \text{ pmol min}^{-1} \mu\text{g}^{-3}$). In both
24 the south and north of Beijing, DTT_v was better correlated with soluble elements
25 instead of total elements. In the north, soluble elements (mainly Mn, Co, Ni, Zn, As,
26 Cd and Pb) and water-soluble organic compounds, especially light-absorbing
27 compounds (also known as brown carbon), had positive correlations with DTT_v.
28 However, in the south, the DTT_v was mainly related to soluble As, Fe and Pb. The



29 sources of DTT_v were further resolved using the positive matrix factorization (PMF)
30 model. Traffic-related emissions (39.1%) and biomass burning (25.2%) were the main
31 sources of DTT_v in the south, and traffic-related emissions (> 50%) contributed the
32 most of DTT_v in the north. Our results indicate that vehicle emission was the
33 important contributor to OP in Beijing ambient $PM_{2.5}$ and suggest that more study is
34 needed to understand the intrinsic relationship between OP and light absorbing
35 organic compounds.

36

37 **1 Introduction**

38 Atmospheric fine particulate matter ($PM_{2.5}$) pollution is one of the major global
39 environmental issues, affecting air quality, climate and human health (Huang et al.,
40 2014; Burnett et al., 2018; An et al., 2019; Zheng et al., 2020). The exposure to $PM_{2.5}$
41 was estimated to be responsible for 8.9 million deaths worldwide in 2015, of which
42 28% occurred in China (Burnett et al., 2018). Numerous studies have shown that
43 oxidative stress is one of the main mechanisms underlying the adverse effects of
44 $PM_{2.5}$ on human health (Chowdhury et al., 2019; Lelieveld et al., 2021; Yu et al.,
45 2022b). When entering the human body, $PM_{2.5}$ can induce the production of excessive
46 reactive oxygen species (ROS) (e.g., H_2O_2 , $\cdot OH$ and $\cdot O_2^-$), leading to cellular redox
47 imbalance and generating oxidative stress effects. The ability of $PM_{2.5}$ to cause
48 oxidative stress is defined as oxidative potential (OP).

49 The methods to determine the OP of $PM_{2.5}$ include cellular and acellular assays,
50 and acellular methods are more widely used than cellular methods (Charrier and
51 Anastasio, 2012; Xiong et al., 2017; Calas et al., 2018; Bates et al., 2019; Wang et al.,
52 2020b; Campbell et al., 2021; Oh et al., 2023). Among acellular methods, the
53 dithiothreitol (DTT) assay is extensively applied to determine the OP of ambient
54 particles (Charrier and Anastasio, 2012; Xiong et al., 2017; Liu et al., 2018; Wang et
55 al., 2020b; Puthussery et al., 2022; Wu et al., 2022a). DTT is a surrogate of cellular
56 reductants, and the consumption rate of DTT was used to assess the OP of $PM_{2.5}$.
57 Previous studies have shown that organic matters (e.g., water-soluble organic species



58 and PAHs) and some transition metals (e.g., Mn and Cu) are the important
59 contributors to DTT consumption of PM_{2.5} (Charrier and Anastasio, 2012; Verma et
60 al., 2015; Bates et al., 2019; Wu et al., 2022a; Wu et al., 2022b). For example,
61 Charrier and Anastasio (2012) measured the OP of PM_{2.5} in San Joaquin Valley,
62 California and reported that about 80% of DTT consumption was contributed by
63 transition metals. Verma et al. (2015) measured the OP of water-soluble PM_{2.5} in the
64 southeastern United States and reported that about 60% of DTT activity was
65 contributed by water-soluble organic. The mixtures of metals and organics may
66 produce synergistic or antagonistic effects, such as ·O₂⁻ produced from oxidation of
67 DTT by quinones is more efficiently transformed to ·OH in the presence of Fe, while
68 the DTT consumption and ·OH generation of quinones are reduced in the presence of
69 Cu (Xiong et al., 2017; Yu et al., 2018; Bates et al., 2019).

70 A number of studies have investigated the OP of water-soluble components in
71 PM_{2.5}, which show that the average water-soluble OP values in urban areas ranged
72 from 0.1 to 10 nmol min⁻¹ m⁻³ (Fang et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2018; Chen et al., 2019;
73 Wu et al., 2022a; Yu et al., 2022a; Xing et al., 2023). Due to the complexity in
74 chemical composition and sources of PM_{2.5} that determine the OP levels, the sources
75 of OP are also diverse (Verma et al., 2015; Bates et al., 2019; Tuet et al., 2019; Yu et
76 al., 2019; Cao et al., 2021). Several studies have investigated the emission sources and
77 ambient samples to identify the sources of OP (Tuet et al., 2019; Yu et al., 2019; Wang
78 et al., 2020b; Cao et al., 2021), which include both primary and secondary sources.
79 For example, Cao et al. (2021) measured the water-soluble OP of PM_{2.5} samples from
80 six biomass and five coal burning emissions in China, with average values of 4.5-7.4
81 and 0.5-2.1 pmol min⁻¹ μg⁻¹, respectively. Tong et al. (2018) investigated the OP of
82 secondary organic aerosols (SOA) from oxidation of naphthalene, isoprene and β-
83 pinene with ·OH or O₃, which were 104.4 ± 7.6, 48.3 ± 7.9 and 36.4 ± 3.1 pmol min⁻¹
84 μg⁻¹, respectively. Verma et al. (2014) identified the source of water-soluble OP of
85 PM_{2.5} in Atlanta, United States from June 2012 to September 2013 with positive
86 matrix factorization (PMF) and chemical mass balance (CMB) methods, of which



87 biomass burning was the largest contributor. Wang et al. (2020b) quantified the
88 sources of water-soluble OP of PM_{2.5} in Xi'an, China in 2017 using PMF and multiple
89 linear regression (MLR) methods, with significant contributions from secondary
90 sulfates, vehicle emissions and coal combustion. Despite these efforts, comparative
91 studies on the differences in pollution levels and sources of PM_{2.5} OP in different
92 districts are still limited.

93 In this study, the DTT activity of water-soluble matter in PM_{2.5} samples collected
94 simultaneously in the southern and northern of Beijing in January 2018 were
95 measured. The concentration and light absorption of water-soluble organic carbon
96 (WSOC), as well as the concentrations of 14 trace elements and 7 light-absorbing
97 nitroaromatic compounds (NACs) were quantified. The sources of DTT activity were
98 then identified with PMF model. The results acquired in this study provide a
99 comprehensive comparison of PM_{2.5} OP in different districts of Beijing and its
100 connection with organic compounds, trace elements and sources, which could be
101 helpful for further study of the regional differences in the effects of PM_{2.5} on human
102 health.

103

104 **2 Materials and methods**

105 **2.1 Sampling**

106 Ambient 24 h integrated PM_{2.5} filter samples were collected from January 1 to 31,
107 2018 simultaneously in the south (the Dingfuzhuang village (DFZ), Daxing district;
108 39.61°N, 116.28°E) and north (the National Center for Nanoscience and Technology
109 (NCNT), Haidian district; 39.99°N, 116.32°E) of Beijing (Figure S1). The south site
110 is surrounded by agricultural, industrial, and transportation areas, and the north site is
111 surrounded by residential, transportation and commercial areas. PM_{2.5} samples were
112 collected on pre-baked (780 °C, 3 h) quartz-fiber filters (20.3 × 25.4 cm; Whatman,
113 QM-A, Clifton, NJ, USA) using high-volume PM_{2.5} samplers (1.13 m⁻³ min⁻¹; Tisch,
114 Cleveland, OH, USA) which were placed on the roof of buildings at heights of about
115 5 m (south) and 20 m (north) above the ground. After collection, the samples were



116 wrapped in baked aluminum foils and stored in a freezer ($-20\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$) until further
117 analysis.

118 **2.2 Chemical analysis**

119 The mass of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ on the filter was measured by a digital microbalance with a
120 precision of 0.1 mg (LA130S-F, Sartorius, Germany) after 24-h equilibration at a
121 constant temperature ($20\text{-}23\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$) and humidity (35-45%) chamber. Each filter was
122 weighted at least two times, and the deviations for blank and sampled filters among
123 the repetitions were less than 5 and 10 μg , respectively. The $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ mass concentration
124 was calculated by dividing the weight difference before and after sampling by the
125 volume of sampled air.

126 For WSOC analysis, one punch (1.5 cm^2 for concentration analysis and 0.526
127 cm^2 for light absorption measurement) of filter was taken from each sample and
128 extracted ultrasonically with ultrapure water ($> 18.2\text{ M}\Omega\text{ cm}$) for 30 min. After, the
129 extracts were filtered with a $0.45\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ PVDF pore syring filter to remove insoluble
130 substances. Finally, the concentration of WSOC was measured with a total organic
131 carbon-total nitrogen analyzer (TOC-L, Shimadzu, Japan; (Ho et al., 2015)) and the
132 light absorption of WSOC was measured by an UV-Vis spectrophotometer equipped
133 with a liquid waveguide capillary cell (LWCC-3100, World Precision Instruments,
134 Sarasota, FL, USA; (Yuan et al., 2020)). The absorption coefficient (Abs) of WSOC
135 were calculated according to formula S1 in the Supporting Information (SI).

136 The total concentration and soluble fraction concentration of 14 trace elements
137 (i.e., Ti, V, Cr, Mn, Fe, Co, Ni, Cu, Zn, As, Sr, Cd, Ba, and Pb) were quantified by an
138 inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometer (ICP-MS, 7700x, Agilent Technologies,
139 USA), and the details are shown in the SI. For soluble fraction concentration analysis,
140 a punch of filter (47 mm diameter) was extracted with ultrapure water and then
141 centrifuged from residues. For total concentration analysis, another filter with same
142 size was used and digestion after added of 10 mL HNO_3 and 1 mL HF. The extracts
143 were then heated and concentrated to $\sim 0.1\text{ mL}$, and diluted to 5 mL with 2% HNO_3 .
144 Afterwards, the diluents were filtered with a $0.22\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ PTFE pore syring filter and



145 stored in a freezer ($-4\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$) until further ICP-MS analysis.

146 The concentrations of organic markers (including levoglucosan, mannosan,
147 galactosan, hopanes, picene, phthalic acid, isophthalic acid and terephthalic acid) and
148 light-absorbing NACs (including 4-nitrophenol (4NP), 2-methyl-4-nitrophenol
149 (2M4NP), 3-methyl-4-nitrophenol (3M4NP), 4-nitrocatechol (4NC), 3-methyl-5-
150 nitrocatechol (3M5NC), 4-methyl-5-nitrocatechol (4M5NC) and 4-nitro-1-naphthol
151 (4N1N)) were determined by a gas chromatograph–mass spectrometer (GC-MS;
152 Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA) following the method described
153 elsewhere (Wang et al., 2020a), and more details about the analysis can be found in SI.

154 **2.3 Oxidative potential**

155 The DTT assay was applied to determine the oxidative potential of water-soluble
156 components in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ according to the method by Gao et al. (2017). In brief, a quarter
157 of a 47 mm filter was ultrasonically extracted with 5 mL ultrapure water for 30 min
158 and then filtered with a 0.45 μm PVDF pore syring filter to remove insoluble
159 substances. Afterwards, 0.5 mL of the extract was mixed with 1 mL of potassium
160 phosphate buffer ($\text{pH} = 7.4$) and 0.5 mL of 2 mM DTT in a brown vial, and then
161 placed in a water bath at $37\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$. Then, 20 μL of this mixture was taken at designated
162 time intervals (2, 7, 13, 20, and 28 min) and mixed with 1 mL trichloroacetic acid
163 (TCA; 1% w/v) in another brown vial to terminate the reaction. Then, 0.5 mL of 5,5'-
164 dithiobis-(2-nitrobenzoic acid) (DTNB; 2.5 μM) and 2 mL of tris buffer ($\text{pH} = 8.9$)
165 were added to form 2-nitro-5-thiobenzonic acid (TNB) which has light absorption at
166 412 nm. Finally, the absorption of TNB was measured by a LWCC-UV-Vis. The DTT
167 consumption rate was quantified by the remaining DTT concentration at different
168 reaction times. The DTT activities were normalized by the volume of sampled air
169 (DTT_v , $\text{nmol min}^{-1} \text{m}^{-3}$) and the mass concentration of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ (DTT_m , $\text{pmol min}^{-1} \mu\text{g}^{-1}$).

170 **2.4 Source apportionment**

171 The sources of DTT activities were identified and quantified using PMF model
172 implemented by the multilinear engine (ME-2; (Paatero, 1997)) following the method
173 described in our previous studies (Huang et al., 2014; Yuan et al., 2020). The input



174 data include species concentration (including DTT_v, 14 trace elements and 8 organic
175 markers) and uncertainties.

176

177 **3 Results and discussion**

178 **3.1 DTT activity and concentrations of water-soluble PM_{2.5} components**

179 Figure 1 shows the daily variation of DTT activity, light absorption of WSOC at
180 wavelength 365 nm (Abs₃₆₅), together with the concentrations of PM_{2.5}, WSOC,
181 NACs and total elements in the south and north of Beijing. Their average values are
182 shown in Table S1. Generally, the average values of PM_{2.5}, WSOC, Abs₃₆₅, NACs and
183 total elements were higher in the south than in the north. Specifically, the
184 concentrations of PM_{2.5} and WSOC in the south (122.3 ± 48.9 and $8.1 \pm 5.0 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$,
185 respectively) were both about two times higher than that in the north (62.3 ± 27.9 and
186 $4.0 \pm 2.0 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, respectively), indicating that the proportion of WSOC in PM_{2.5} was
187 similar in the south and north. However, the Abs₃₆₅ in the south was about three times
188 that in the north, indicating that the chemical composition of WSOC was different
189 between the south and north. Previous studies have reported that NACs are the main
190 water-soluble light-absorbing organic compounds (also known as brown carbon, BrC)
191 of PM_{2.5} (Lin et al., 2017; Huang et al., 2020; Li et al., 2020). For the 7 NACs
192 quantified in this study, the total concentration of nitrophenols (4NP, 2M4NP and
193 3M4NP), nitrocatechols (4NC, 3M5NC and 4M5NC), and 4N1N in the south ($108.5 \pm$
194 72.9 ng m^{-3} , $118.5 \pm 91.5 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$ and $12.4 \pm 8.2 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$, respectively) was about three,
195 five and four times, respectively, those in the north ($35.5 \pm 21.7 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$, $24.1 \pm 30.4 \text{ ng}$
196 m^{-3} and $3.1 \pm 3.0 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$, respectively). These results indicate that the sources and
197 emission strength of water-soluble organic compounds were different in the south and
198 north of Beijing, suggesting the different contribution of water-soluble organic
199 compounds to DTT activity. The concentration trend of elements was also different
200 between the south and north of Beijing, with Fe > Zn > Ti > Mn > Cu > Ba > Pb >
201 Sr > Cr > As > V > Ni > Cd > Co in the south, and Fe > Ti > Zn > Ba > Mn > Pb >
202 Cu > Cr > Sr > As > Ni > V > Cd > Co in the north. It should be noted that although



203 the content of PM_{2.5}, WSOC and total elements measured in this study were higher in
204 the south than in the north, the average DTT_v value in the south ($3.9 \pm 0.9 \text{ nmol min}^{-1}$
205 m^{-3}) was comparable to that in the north ($3.5 \pm 1.2 \text{ nmol min}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-3}$), meanwhile, the
206 average DTT_m value was much higher (1.8 times) in the north ($65.3 \pm 27.6 \text{ pmol min}^{-1}$
207 μg^{-1}) than in the south ($36.1 \pm 14.5 \text{ pmol min}^{-1} \mu\text{g}^{-1}$). The lower DTT_m in the south
208 than in the north may be due to that the increased PM_{2.5} in the south contains more
209 substances with no or little contribution to DTT activity, and indicates that the
210 intrinsic OP of PM_{2.5} was higher in the north than in the south. The similar DTT_v
211 values in the south and north indicate that the exposure-relevant toxicity of PM_{2.5} was
212 comparable in the two sites, and the water-soluble DTT_v was not consistent with the
213 content of water-soluble substances.

214 Figure 2 shows the comparison of DTT_v and DTT_m values measured in this study
215 with those measured in other regions of Asia during similar periods. It can be seen
216 that the DTT_v values measured in Beijing (Campbell et al., 2021; Oh et al., 2023; this
217 study) were lower than that in Jinzhou, Tianjin, Yantai, and Shanghai in China, Lahore
218 and Peshawar in Pakistan, and Delhi in India (Liu et al., 2018; Ahmad et al., 2021;
219 Puthussery et al., 2022; Wu et al., 2022a), higher than that in Xi'an, Nanjing,
220 Hangzhou, Guangzhou, and Shenzhen in China, and Gwangju in Korea (Wang et al.,
221 2019; Wang et al., 2020b; Ma et al., 2021; Yu et al., 2022c; Oh et al., 2023; Xing et al.,
222 2023), and comparable with that in Ningbo, China (Chen et al., 2022). Different from
223 DTT_v, the DTT_m value measured in NCNT in Beijing was similar with that in Jinzhou,
224 Tianjin, Yantai, Shanghai and Ningbo in China (Liu et al., 2018; Chen et al., 2022;
225 Wu et al., 2022a), and higher than that in other regions. The differences in DTT_v and
226 DTT_m values in different regions reflect the regional differences in PM_{2.5} exposure
227 risk and intrinsic toxicity, which can be explained by the differences in chemical
228 composition, sources and atmospheric formation processes (Tong et al., 2017; Wong
229 et al., 2019; Daellenbach et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2020b; Cao et al., 2021). For
230 example, Cao et al. (2021) reported the water-soluble DTT activity of PM_{2.5} from
231 biomass and coal burning emissions in China, and the average value of biomass



232 burning ($4.5\text{--}7.4\text{ pmol min}^{-1}\text{ }\mu\text{g}^{-1}$) was much higher than that of coal burning ($0.5\text{--}2.1$
233 $\text{pmol min}^{-1}\text{ }\mu\text{g}^{-1}$). Tuet et al. (2017) measured the water-soluble DTT activity of SOA
234 generated under different precursors and reaction conditions, with SOA from
235 naphthalene photooxidation under $\text{RO}_2 + \text{NO}$ -dominant dry reaction conditions had
236 the highest DTT activity.

237 **3.2 Correlation between DTT activity and water-soluble $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ components**

238 Figure 3 shows the correlations of DTT_v with $\text{PM}_{2.5}$, WSOC and Abs_{365} in the
239 south and north of Beijing. It can be seen that the correlation coefficient between
240 DTT_v and $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ was moderate in both the south ($r = 0.42$) and north ($r = 0.45$),
241 indicating that the toxicity of particles can not be evaluated solely by the total $\text{PM}_{2.5}$
242 concentration. The correlations between DTT_v with WSOC and Abs_{365} were strong in
243 the north (r of 0.69 and 0.70, respectively), while relatively weak in the south (r of
244 0.41 and 0.40, respectively). The high correlations between DTT_v with WSOC and
245 Abs_{365} in the north of Beijing are coincide with previous studies in Xi'an, China and
246 Atlanta, United States (Verma et al., 2012; Chen et al., 2019), and suggest that water-
247 soluble organic matter, especially BrC, has a significant contribution to DTT
248 consumption in the north. Light-absorbing BrC typically has conjugated electrons,
249 making it more likely to transport electrons for catalytic reactions, thereby
250 contributing to DTT activity (Chen et al., 2019; Wu et al., 2022). Further, in the north,
251 the DTT_v was closely related to the concentrations of NACs (r of 0.57 to 0.79) (Figure
252 S2), suggesting that NACs could be important contributors to DTT consumption.
253 Feng et al. (2022) reported the positive correlations between NACs and biomarkers in
254 saliva and urine (interleukin-6 and 8-hydrox-2'-deoxyguanosine). Zhang et al. (2023)
255 also reported that NACs are major proinflammatory components in organic aerosols,
256 contributing about 24% of the interleukin-8 response of all compounds detected by
257 Fourier transform ion cyclotron resonance mass spectrometry (FT-ICR-MS) in
258 electrospray ionization negative mode (ESI-).

259 The correlation coefficients between DTT_v and 14 trace elements are shown in
260 Figure 4. Generally, the correlations between DTT_v and soluble elements were higher



261 than that between DTT_v and total elements in both the south and north of Beijing,
262 suggesting that the consumption of DTT from elements depend primarily on its
263 soluble fraction instead of their total content. For soluble elements, in the south, the
264 DTT_v showed positive correlations with Mn, Fe, Cr, Co, As and Pb ($r > 0.5$), while in
265 the north, it exhibited strong positive correlations with Mn, Co, Ni, Zn, As, Cd and Pb
266 ($r > 0.7$), indicating the different sources of DTT_v in the south and north of Beijing. It
267 is worth noting that the concentrations of all soluble elements were higher in the south
268 than in the north (Figure S3), while the correlation between DTT_v and most soluble
269 elements was lower in the south than in the north (Figure 4). The high correlations
270 between DTT_v and soluble elements in the north of Beijing suggests that soluble
271 elements also had significant contribution to DTT consumption. The low correlations
272 between DTT_v and soluble elements in the south of Beijing may be due to the
273 nonlinear relationship between DTT consumption and elements concentrations
274 (Charrier and Anastasio, 2012; Wu et al., 2022a).

275 In addition to being associated with individual water-soluble species, the
276 interaction between metal and organic compounds also affects the consumption of
277 DTT (Xiong et al., 2017; Wu et al., 2022b), with both synergistic and antagonistic
278 effects. For example, Wu et al. (2022b) measured the DTT consumption of Fe(III) and
279 Cu(II) interacting with 1,4-naphthoquinone, 9,10-phenanthraquinone, citric acid, and
280 4-nitrocatechol, respectively. Their results showed that Cu(II) had antagonistic effects
281 in interacting with most organics except for citric acid, and Fe(III) had an additive
282 effect on DTT consumption of 1,4-naphthoquinone and citric acid, while it had an
283 antagonistic effect on 1,4-naphthoquinone and 9,10-phenanthraquinone. Due to the
284 complex composition of water-soluble organic aerosols, the knowledge about the
285 effects of organics and metal-organic interactions on DTT activity are still limited,
286 especially the effects of BrC chromophores and their interactions with metals.

287 **3.3 Sources of DTT activity**

288 The PMF model was applied to quantify the sources of DTT_v in the south and the
289 north of Beijing, which was widely used for the source apportionment of $PM_{2.5}$ OP



290 (Liu et al., 2018; Shen et al., 2022; Cui et al., 2023). The input species include DTT_v,
291 soluble elements, and organic markers (including levoglucosan, mannosan, and
292 galactosan for biomass burning, hopanes for vehicle emissions, picene for coal
293 combustion, and phthalic acid, isophthalic acid and terephthalic acid for secondary
294 formation). The correlation coefficients between DTT_v and organic markers are
295 shown in Figure S4. In the south, levoglucosan, mannosan, galactosan, and hopanes
296 had moderate correlation with DTT_v (r of 0.41 to 0.48); phthalic acid, isophthalic acid
297 and terephthalic acid had low to moderate correlation with DTT_v (r of 0.28 to 0.54);
298 picene had low correlation with DTT_v (r of 0.21). These results suggest that biomass
299 burning and vehicle emissions could have significant contribution to water-soluble
300 PM_{2.5} OP in the south. In the north, hopanes had the highest correlation with DTT_v (r
301 = 0.70), indicating that vehicle emissions could have an important contribution.
302 Levoglucosan, mannosan, galactosan, phthalic acid, isophthalic acid, terephthalic acid,
303 and picene had moderate to high correlations with DTT_v in the north, suggesting that
304 biomass and coal burning, and secondary formation may also have certain
305 contribution to water-soluble PM_{2.5} OP.

306 Six factors were resolved in the south and north of Beijing, including biomass
307 burning, coal burning, traffic-related, dust, oil combustion, and secondary formation,
308 and the profiles of these sources are shown in Figure S5. Factor 1 is characterized by
309 high contribution of levoglucosan, mannosan, and galactosan, mainly from biomass
310 burning (Huang et al., 2014; Chow et al., 2022). The DTT activity of biomass burning
311 organic aerosol was measured by Wong et al. (2019), which was 48 ± 6 pmol min⁻¹
312 μg⁻¹ of WSOC. Liu et al. (2018) quantified the sources of DTT_v in coastal cities
313 (Jinzhou, Tianjin, and Yantai) in China with PMF model and multiple linear
314 regression method, and the results showed that biomass burning contributed 27.8% on
315 average in winter. Factor 2 exhibits a large fraction of picene, Zn, Mn, Cd, As, and Pb,
316 which is considered to be coal burning (Huang et al., 2014; Huang et al., 2018). Joo et
317 al. (2018) measured the DTT activity of PM_{2.5} emitted from coal combustion at
318 different temperatures, with the highest values of 26.2 ± 20.5 pmol min⁻¹ μg⁻¹ and



319 $0.10 \pm 0.06 \text{ nmol min}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-3}$ occurring at $550 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$. Factor 3 is identified as traffic-related
320 emissions, which is characterized by the higher loading of hopanes, Ba, Sr, Cu and Ni
321 (Huang et al., 2018; Chow et al., 2022). Vreeland et al. (2017) measured the DTT
322 activity of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ emitted by side street and highway vehicles in Atlanta, with values
323 of $0.78 \pm 0.60 \text{ nmol min}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-3}$ and $1.08 \pm 0.60 \text{ nmol min}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-3}$, respectively. Ting et al.
324 (2023) reported that the DTT activity of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ from vehicle emissions in Ziqing
325 tunnel in Taiwan, China, was $0.15\text{-}0.46 \text{ nmol min}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-3}$. Factor 4, secondary formation,
326 which is identified by high levels of phthalic acid, isophthalic acid, and terephthalic
327 acid (Al-Naiema and Stone, 2017; Wang et al., 2020a). Verma et al. (2014) reported
328 that secondary formation contributed about 30% to the water-soluble DTT activity of
329 $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ in urban Atlanta. It is worth noting that the DTT activity of SOA generated
330 from different precursors is different (Tuet et al., 2017; Tong et al., 2018). For
331 example, the DTT activity of SOA from naphthalene was higher than that from
332 isoprene (Tuet et al., 2017; Tong et al., 2018). Factor 5 is dominated by crustal
333 elements Fe and Ti, mainly from dust (Huang et al., 2018). The DTT activity of
334 atmospheric particulate matter during dust periods were reported in previous studies
335 (Chirizzi et al., 2017; Khoshnamvand et al., 2023) and it has a low contribution in this
336 study. Factor 6 is identified as oil combustion because of the high levels of V and Ni
337 (Moreno et al., 2011; Minguillón et al., 2014; Huang et al., 2018).

338 The source contributions of DTT_v in the south and north of Beijing are shown in
339 Figure 5, exhibiting obvious regional differences. In the south, traffic-related
340 emissions (39.1%) and biomass burning (25.2%) had the most contribution to DTT_v ,
341 followed by secondary formation (17.2%), coal burning (15%), dust (2%), and oil
342 combustion (1.5%). In the north, traffic-related emissions (51.6%) had the highest
343 contribution to DTT_v , followed by coal burning (19.9%), secondary formation (13%),
344 biomass burning (8.4%), oil combustion (4.1%), and dust (3%). The large regional
345 differences in sources of DTT_v of water-soluble $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ call for more research on the
346 relationship between sources, chemical composition, formation processes and OP of
347 $\text{PM}_{2.5}$.



348

349 **4 Conclusions**

350 In this study, the water-soluble OP of ambient PM_{2.5} collected in winter in the
351 south and north of Beijing were quantified, together with the concentration and light
352 absorption of WSOC, and concentrations of 7 light-absorbing NACs and 14 trace
353 elements. The average DTT_v value was comparable in the south ($3.9 \pm 0.9 \text{ nmol min}^{-1}$
354 m^{-3}) and north ($3.5 \pm 1.2 \text{ nmol min}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-3}$), while the DTT_m was higher in the north
355 ($65.3 \pm 27.6 \text{ pmol min}^{-1} \mu\text{g}^{-1}$) than in the south ($36.1 \pm 14.5 \text{ pmol min}^{-1} \mu\text{g}^{-1}$),
356 indicating that the PM_{2.5} exposure-relevant toxicity was similar in the two sites and
357 that the PM_{2.5} intrinsic toxicity was higher in the north than in the south. The
358 correlation between DTT_v and soluble elements was higher than that between DTT_v
359 and total elements in both the south and north. In the north, the DTT_v was strongly
360 correlated with soluble Mn, Co, Ni, Zn, As, Cd and Pb ($r > 0.7$), and in the south it
361 positively correlated with Mn, Fe, Cr, Co, As and Pb ($r > 0.5$). In addition, in the north
362 the DTT_v was also positively correlated with WSOC, Abs₃₆₅ and NACs (r of 0.56 to
363 0.79), while in the south it was weakly correlated ($r \leq 0.4$). These results indicate that
364 in the north trace elements and water-soluble organic compounds, especially BrC
365 chromophores, both had significant contributions to DTT consumption, and in the
366 south the consumption of DTT may be mainly from trace elements. Six sources of
367 DTT_v were resolved with the PMF model, including biomass burning, coal burning,
368 traffic-related, dust, oil combustion, and secondary formation. On average, traffic-
369 related emissions (39.1%) and biomass burning (25.2%) were the major contributors
370 of DTT_v in the south, and traffic-related emissions (51.6%) was the predominated
371 source in the north. The differences in DTT_v sources in the south and north of Beijing
372 suggest that the relationship between source emissions and atmospheric processes and
373 PM_{2.5} OP deserve further exploration in order to better understand the regional
374 differences of health impacts of PM_{2.5}.

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378 **Date availability.** Raw data used in this study can be obtained from the following
379 open link: <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.10791126> (Yuan et al., 2024). It is also
380 available on request by contacting the corresponding author.

381

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383

384 **Author contributions.** RJH designed the study. Data analysis was done by WY, CL,
385 LY, HY and RJH. WY, CL, LY, HY and RJH interpreted data, prepared the display
386 items and wrote the manuscript. All authors commented on and discussed the
387 manuscript.

388

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

390

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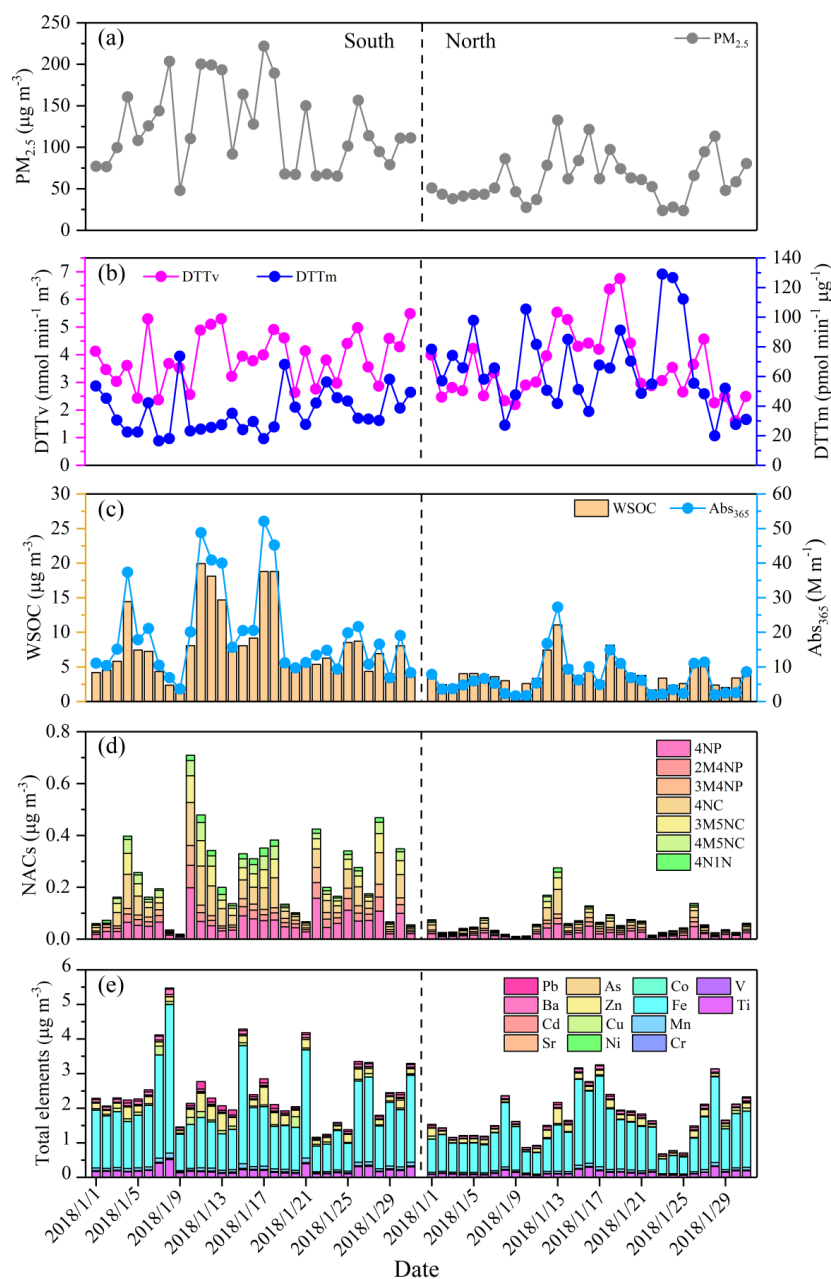
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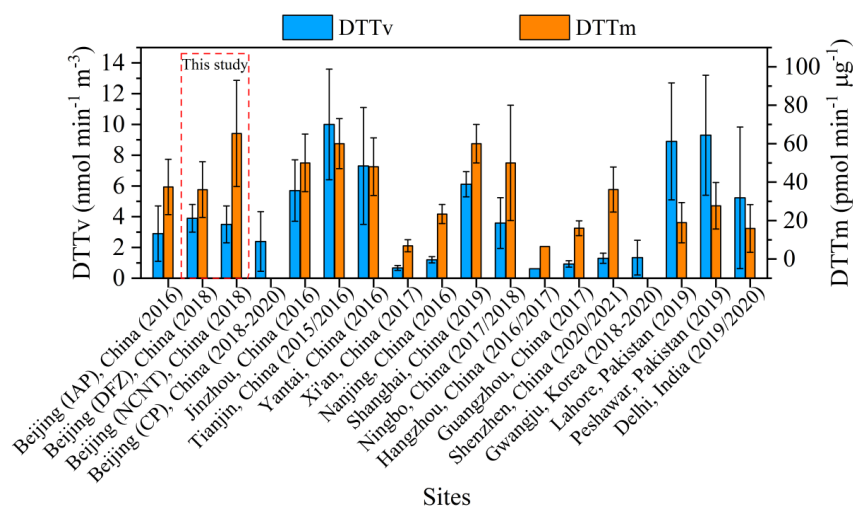
697 **Figure 1.** Time series of (a) $PM_{2.5}$ concentration, (b) DTT_v and DTT_m , (c)

698 concentration and light absorption at wavelength 365 nm (Abs_{365}) of WSOC,

699 concentrations of (d) NACs and (e) elements.



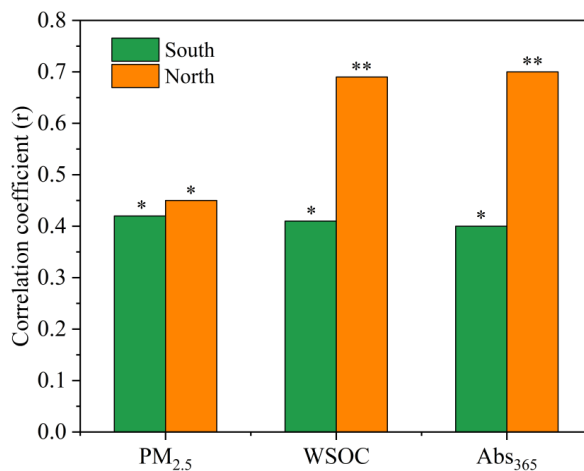
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702 **Figure 2.** Comparison of DTT_v and DTT_m values measured in this study with those
 703 measured in other areas of Asia during similar period.

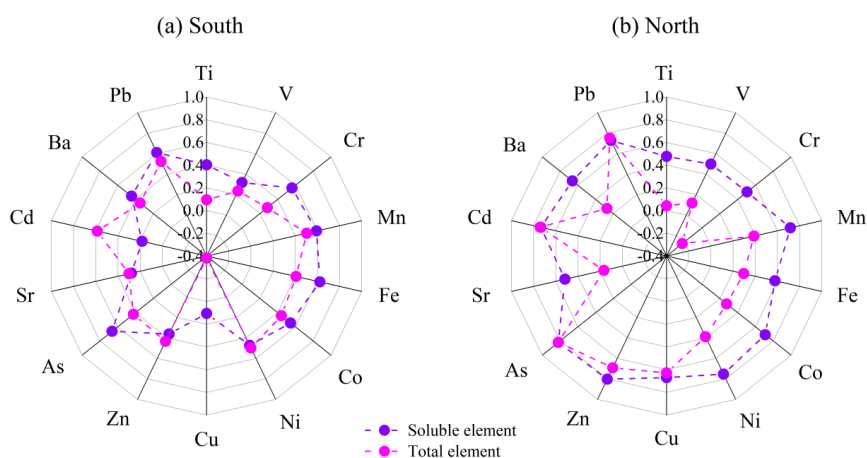
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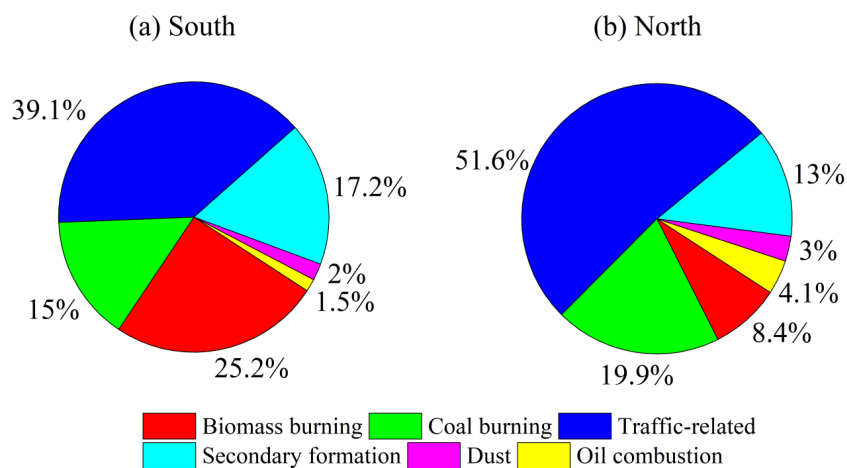
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706 **Figure 3.** Correlation coefficients between DTT_v and PM_{2.5}, WSOC, and Abs₃₆₅ in the
 707 south and north of Beijing.

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 710 **Figure 4.** Correlation coefficients between DTT_v and elements in the (a) south and (b)
 711 north of Beijing.
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 714 **Figure 5.** Contributions of resolved sources to DTT_v in the (a) south and (b) north of
 715 Beijing.