RESPONSE TO EDITOR Ms. No.: acp-2015-282 Title: Chemical characterization of fine organic aerosol for source apportionment at Monterrey, Mexico Submitted to: Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics Editor Decision: Reconsider after minor revisions (Editor review) (30 Dec 2015) by Willy Maenhaut Comments to the Author: The authors have reasonably addressed the comments of the reviewers. However, many alterations and some clarifications are needed before the manuscript and its Supplement can be published in ACP. C: we really appreciate all comments from the editor. We will attend every comment as the editor suggested. We thanked this opportunity for publishing our work. For the main text: 1) Page 1, lines 1-3: There is too much "organic" in the title. I suggest replacing "organic aerosol" by "aerosol" in line 2. **R:** Done. 2) Page 2, line 27: Replace "pyrolisis" by "pyrolysis". **R:** Done. 3) Page 3, line 9: Replace "homologs" by "homologues".

R: Done.

```
4) Page 4, line 1: Replace "Anthony Chen" by "Chen".
 1
 2
     R: Done.
 3
 4
 5
     5) Page 4, lines 3-4: "Viana et al., 2008" should be added as a reference here. The full
     reference is given below (see note for Page 32).
 6
 7
     R: We agree with the editor. The reference was added.
 8
 9
     6) Page 5, line 2: Replace "In addition, the" by "The".
10
11
     R: Done.
12
13
     7) Page 5, line 30: Replace "collected in" by "collected on".
14
15
     R: Done.
16
17
     8) Page 6, line 8: Replace "were carry" by "were carried".
18
19
     R: Done.
20
21
     9) Page 6, line 30: Replace "then they were subjected to ultrasonic agitation for 20 min" by
22
      "then ultrasonic agitation was applied for 20 min".
23
24
     R: Done.
25
26
     10) Page 7, line 1: Replace "flow ultra-high" by "flow of ultra-high".
27
28
29
     R: Done.
30
      11) Page 7, line 6: Replace "The another fraction" by "Another fraction".
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R: Done.

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1
      12) Page 7, line 9: Replace "Diazomethane (CH2N2) solution" by "CH2N2 solution".
 2
 3
     R: Done.
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 5
     13) Page 7, line 15: Replace "Brown et al., 2002" by "Brown et al. (2002)".
 6
 7
     R: Done.
 8
 9
     14) Page 8, line 23: Replace "over determined" by "overdetermined".
10
11
     R: Done.
12
13
     15) Page 9, line 6: Replace "2015)." by "2015) and was also used in the current study.".
14
15
     R: Done.
16
17
      16) Page 9, line 14: Replace "based on" by "based their CMB on".
18
19
     R: Here, it is important to clarify that Martínez et al. (2012) applied factor analysis instead of
20
     CMB to identified primary emission sources. Therefore, we consider to replace "based on" by
21
      "based their factor analysis on".
22
23
24
     17) Page 9, line 17: Replace "source profile" by "source profiles".
25
26
     R: Done.
27
28
      18) Page 9, line 19: Replace "while diesel" by "while the diesel".
29
30
     R: Done.
31
32
     19) Page 9, line 20: Replace "by heavy" by "of heavy".
```

```
R: Done.
 1
 2
     20) Page 9, line 23: Replace "a source profile" by "source profiles".
 3
 4
 5
     R: Done.
 6
 7
     21) Page 10, line 11: Replace "of source profiles" by "of the source profiles".
 8
 9
     R: Done.
10
11
     22) Page 10, line 29: Replace "A detailed" by "Detailed".
12
13
     R: Done.
14
     23) Page 11, line 1: Replace "All the samples" by "All samples".
15
16
     R: Done.
17
18
     24) Page 11, line 2: Replace "of 2011" by "of the 2011".
19
20
     R: Done.
21
22
     25) Page 11, line 5: Replace "to the last" by "to that of the last".
23
24
     R: Done.
25
26
     26) Page 11, lines 5-6: It say here "eight", but Fig. 2 contains only data for seven compound
27
28
     classes.
29
     R: We agree with the reviewer, it should be seven resolved compound classes instead of eight.
30
     We replaced on page 11, line 1 and line 5 "eight organic compound" by "seven organic
31
32
     compound".
```

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27) Page 11, line 13: Replace "to some compounds" by "to the fact that some compounds".
 1
 2
     R: Done.
 3
 4
 5
     28) Page 11, lines 19-20: Replace "sections will be analyzed the organic composition of the
     fine organic aerosols using" by "sections the organic composition of the fine organic aerosols
 6
 7
     will be analyzed using".
 8
 9
     R: Done.
10
     29) Page 12, line 5: Insert a space before "The average".
11
12
13
     R: Done.
14
     30) Page 12, line 9: Replace "emissions sources" by "emission sources".
15
16
     R: Done.
17
18
     31) Page 12, lines 18 and 20: Replace "of the 2011" by "of 2011".
19
20
     R: Done.
21
22
     32) Page 13, line 9: Replace "Benzo(a)pyrene + Benzo(e)pyrene" by "benzo(a)pyrene +
23
24
     benzo(e)pyrene".
25
26
     R: Done.
27
28
     33) Page 13, line 11: Replace "fine OC samples" by "fine samples".
29
     R: Done.
30
31
32
     34) Page 13, line 18: Replace "illustrated by" by "illustrated in".
```

```
R: Done.
 1
 2
     35) Page 13, line 24: Replace "due to PAHs" by "because PAHs".
 3
 4
 5
     R: Done.
 6
 7
     36) Page 13, line 26: Replace "it would be determined the source origin (e.g." by "the source
     could be determined (e.g.,".
 8
 9
     R: Done.
10
11
     37) Page 14, line 2: Replace "source for" by "sources for".
12
13
14
     R: Done.
15
     38) Page 14, line 3: Replace "Presence of" by "The presence of".
16
17
     R: Done.
18
19
     39) Page 16, line 1: Replace "included the cis-9-Octadecenoic acid" by "included cis-9-
20
     octadecenoic acid".
21
22
     R: Done.
23
24
     40) Page 16, lines 2, 4, 10, 11, and 18: Replace "cis-9-Octadecenoic acid" by "cis-9-
25
26
     octadecenoic acid".
27
28
     R: Done.
29
     41) Page 16, line 6: Replace "oxidation from gaseous precursors" by "oxidation".
30
31
32
     R: Done.
```

```
42) Page 16, line 8: Replace "while" by "versus".
 1
 2
      R: Done.
 3
 4
 5
      43) Page 16, lines 11-13: I cannot follow the reasoning here. I would expect that high oxidant
      concentrations would lead to high ratios instead of to low ratios.
 6
 7
      R: The editor is correct. We revised our notes and the references cited in this part. Therefore,
 8
 9
      we replaced on page 16, line 13 "low ratios" by "high ratios". In addition, we replaced on
      page 16, line 11, "By contrast" by "Similarly".
10
11
      44) Page 16, line 25: Replace "product of" by "products of".
12
13
14
      R: Done.
15
      45) Page 16, line 26: Replace "The pinonic" by "Both pinonic".
16
17
      R: Done.
18
19
      46) Page 17, line 12: Replace "are the tracers" by "are tracers".
20
21
22
      R: Done.
23
24
      47) Page 17, line 13: Replace "the tracer" by "are a tracer".
25
26
      R: Done.
27
28
      48) Page 17, line 16: Replace "the OC samples" by "the samples".
29
30
      R: Done.
31
32
      49) Page 17, line 24: Replace "of fall" by "of the fall".
```

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R: Done.
 1
 2
     50) Page 17, line 26: Replace "exhibited" by "encountered".
 3
 4
 5
     R: Done.
 6
 7
     51) Page 18, line 2: Replace "in the Mexico" by "in Mexico".
 8
 9
     R: Done.
10
     52) Page 18, line 3: Replace "calculated in" by "observed in".
11
12
13
     R: Done.
14
     53) Page 18, line 23: Replace "for the levoglucosan" by "for levoglucosan".
15
16
     R: Done.
17
18
     54) Page 19, line 17: Replace "whilst 14" by "whereas 14".
19
20
     R: Done.
21
22
     55) Page 19, lines 18-19: Replace "Mancilla et al. (2015)" by "(Mancilla et al., 2015)".
23
24
     R: Done.
25
26
     56) Page 19, line 24: Replace "operations emissions for all monitoring campaigns were the
27
28
     highest. In analysis" by "operation emissions were the highest for all monitoring campaigns.
29
      When examining".
30
     R: Done.
31
```

```
57) Page 19, line 30: Replace "In analysis of the" by "With regard to the".
 1
 2
      R: Done.
 3
 4
 5
      58) Page 19, line 32: Replace "some higher" by "somewhat higher".
 6
 7
      R: Done.
 8
 9
      59) Page 20, line 1: Replace "There are not similar" by "There were no similar".
10
      R: Done.
11
12
13
      60) Page 20, line 3: Replace "results were similar" by "results are similar".
14
      R: Done.
15
16
      61) Page 20, line 4: Replace "for the Mexico" by "for Mexico".
17
18
      R: Done.
19
20
      62) Page 20, line 17: Replace "to the secondary" by "to secondary".
21
22
      R: Done.
23
24
      63) Page 20, line 20: Replace "The vegetative detritus" by "Vegetative detritus".
25
26
27
      R: Done.
28
      64) Page 20, line 21: Replace "the less emitted" by "the least emitted".
29
30
      R: Done.
31
```

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65) Page 20, line 23: Replace "which contribute with" by "which contributes with".
 1
 2
 3
     R: Done.
 4
 5
      66) Page 20, line 24: It is unclear what is meant by "types of biomass". Which types?
     Furthermore, I cannot follow the reasoning in lines 24-31. Clarification and rephrasing are
 6
     needed.
 7
 8
      R: We agree with the editor, the reasoning in lines 24-31 is confused. We clarified and
 9
10
     rephrased this reasoning.
11
      On page 20, lines 24-31, we replaced "The MMA as well as other urban areas can be affected
12
     by types of biomass burning, especially, when they are not surrounded by forests. For
13
     examples, several studies have demonstrated that Mexico City has a large contribution from
14
      biomass burning (Moffet et al., 2008; Stone et al., 2008; Yokelson et al., 2007) because it is
15
     affected by forests fires (Yokelson et al., 2007). Conversely, the MMA has no forests around,
16
     therefore, the contribution from biomass burning in the MMA might be higher because the
17
     source profile used for the CMB was only for wood combustion instead of using a source
18
      profile for garbage, industrial, and urban residues open fires (Simoneit et al., 2005)." by "With
19
     regard to biomass burning, several studies have demonstrated that Mexico City has a large
20
     contribution of biomass burning emissions due to forests fires (Moffet et al., 2008; Stone et
21
     al., 2008; Yokelson et al., 2007). However, the MMA can be affected by other types of
22
     biomass burning (e.g., shrub and grassland fires, agricultural waste and garbage burning, etc.)
23
24
     that may be ignored. Therefore, the contribution of biomass burning in the MMA might be
     higher because the source profile used for the CMB was only for wood combustion instead of
25
26
     using a source profile for other types of biomass burning (Simoneit et al., 2005)."
27
     67) Page 20, line 26: Replace "has large" by "has a large".
28
29
30
     R: Done.
```

68) Page 20, line 28: Replace "has not forests" by "has no forests".

31

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R: Done.
 1
 2
     69) Page 20, line 31: Replace "here is" by "it is".
 3
 4
 5
     R: Done.
 6
 7
     70) Page 20, line 32: Replace "due to prior" by "as appeared from previous".
 8
 9
     R: Done.
10
     71) Page 21, line 4: Replace "emits low" by "emits a low".
11
12
13
     R: Done.
14
     72) Page 21, line 13: Replace "e.g. plant" by "e.g., plant".
15
16
     R: Done.
17
18
     73) Page 21, line 14: Replace "some times" by "sometimes".
19
20
     R: Done.
21
22
     74) Page 21, lines 24-25 and 26: Replace "cis-9-Octadecenoic acid" by "cis-9-octadecenoic
23
24
     acid''.
25
26
     R: Done.
27
     75) Page 22, line 1: Replace "for the 64%" by "for 64%".
28
29
     R: Done.
30
31
32
     76) Page 22, line 2: Replace "the vegetative detritus" by "vegetative detritus".
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1
      R: Done.
 2
      77) Page 22, line 3: Replace "less contributors" by "lowest contributors".
 3
 4
 5
      R: Done.
 6
 7
      78) Page 22, line 4: Replace "the outcomes of a comparison with other studies were that" by
      "a comparison with other studies indicates that".
 8
 9
      R: Done.
10
11
      79) Pages 22-33, Reference list:
12
      The initials for the authors are not always in the proper format; the first initial should be
13
      preceded by a comma, there should be period after each initial and there should be a space
14
      between subsequent initials.
15
      Furthermore, titles of journal articles should be in lower case instead of in Title Case (e.g.,
16
     for Simoneit, 1985 and Simoneit, 1986).
17
18
      R: We appreciate the observation of the editor. All references were revised and now they
19
20
      have the proper format.
21
      80) Page 23, line 6: Replace "Antony Chen, L.-W." by "Chen, L.-W. A.".
22
23
24
      R: Done.
25
26
      81) Page 23, line 17: Replace "Chen, W. A." by "Chen, L. W. A.".
27
28
      R: Done.
29
30
      82) Page 24, line 18: Replace "A. (Eds):" by "A.:".
31
32
      R: Done.
```

```
1 83) Page 25, line 19: Replace "INEGI," by "INEGI:".
```

3 **R:** Done.

4

5 *84) Page 25, lines 20 and 23: Replace "INEGI.. by "INEGI:".*

6

7 **R:** Done.

8

9 85) Page 26, line 6: Replace "aerosols, .Environ." by "aerosols, Environ.".

10

11 **R:** Done.

12

13 86) Page 28, lines 9-10: "Paatero, 1997" should come on page 27 before "Park et al., 2006".

14

15 **R:** The reference was moved.

16

- 17 87) Page 29, lines 25-28: These two references should be moved down; they should come on
- 18 page 31 after "Spurny, 2000".

19

20 **R:** The references were moved down.

21

- 22 88) Page 31, lines 28-30: "Stone et al., 2008" should come on page 32 after "Standley et al.,
- 23 1987".

24

R: The reference was moved.

26

- 27 89) Page 32, between lines 13 and 14: The following reference should be added here:
- Viana, M., Kuhlbusch, T. A. J., Querol, X., Alastuey, A., Harrison, R. M., Hopke, P. K.,
- 29 Winiwarter, W., Vallius, M., Szidat, S., Prévôt, A. S. H., Hueglin, C., Bloemen, H., Wåhlin, P.,
- 30 Vecchi. R., Miranda, A. I., Kasper-Giebl, A., Maenhaut, W., and Hitzenberger. R.: Source
- 31 apportionment of particulate matter in Europe: A review of methods and results, J. Aerosol
- 32 Sci. 39, 827-849, 2008.

R: The reference was added. 90) Page 33, lines 13-16: "Yunker et al." should start on a new line; the publication year of the reference is missing and "Geochemistry 33," should replaced by "Geochemistry, 33,". R: The reference was moved and the corresponding year were also added. 91) Page 36, line 2: There is something wrong with the explanation given here; also "curly brackets" should be replaced by "parentheses". **R:** We agree with the editor. This explanation was for a column that was deleted given some comments from other reviewers. Therefore, on page 36, the line 2 was deleted. 92) Page 36, line 5: Replace "that dates" by "that the dates". R: Done. 93) Page 37, line 4: "Akyüz and Cabuk, 2010" is missing in the Reference list. **R:** The editor is correct, the reference is missing. Therefore, the reference was added in the reference list. 95) Page 37, line 6: Replace "BaP" by "BeP". **R:** Done. 96) Page 41, line 4: Replace "line is the daytime concentrations while the dot line is the" by "line represents the daytime concentrations while the dotted line represents the". **R:** Done.

For the Supplement:

- 1 1) Pages 1-4, Table S1: Consistency is needed here. Therefore, all names of the organic
- 2 compounds should start with a lower case letter instead of with a capital.

R: Done.

1 Organic composition and source apportionment of fine

2 organic aerosolaerosol at Monterrey, Mexico, based on

3 organic markers

4

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11

12

Abstract

- Primary emissions from anthropogenic and biogenic sources as well as secondary formation
- are responsible for the pollution levels of ambient air in major urban areas. These sources
- release fine particles into the air that negatively impact human health and the environment.
- Organic molecular markers, which are compounds that are unique to specific PM_{2.5} sources,
- can be utilized to identify the major emission sources in urban areas. In this study, 43
- representative PM_{2.5} samples, for both daytime and nighttime periods, were built from
- individual samples collected in an urban site of the Monterrey Metropolitan Area (MMA)
- during the spring and fall of 2011 and 2012. The samples were analyzed for organic carbon,
- elemental carbon, and organic molecular markers. Several diagnostic tools were employed for
- 22 the preliminary identification of emission sources. Organic compounds for eight compound
- classes were quantified. The *n*-alkanoic acids were the most abundant, followed by *n*-alkanes,
- wood smoke markers, and levoglucosan/alkenoic acids. Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons
- 25 (PAHs) and hopanes were less abundant. The carbon preference index (0.7-2.6) for *n*-alkanes
- 26 indicate a major contribution of anthropogenic and mixed sources during the fall and the
- 27 spring, respectively. Hopanes levels confirmed the contribution from gasoline and diesel
- engines. In addition, the contribution of gasoline and diesel vehicle exhaust was confirmed
- and identified by the PAH concentrations in PM_{2.5}. Diagnostic ratios of PAH showed
- 30 emissions from burning coal, wood, biomass, and other fossil fuels. The total PAH and

- elemental carbon were correlated ($r^2 = 0.39-0.70$) across the monitoring periods, reinforcing
- 2 that motor vehicles are the major contributors of PAH. Cholesterol levels remained constant
- 3 during the spring and fall, showing evidence of the contribution of meat cooking operations,
- 4 while the isolated concentrations of levoglucosan suggested occasional biomass burning
- 5 events. Finally, source attribution results obtained using the CMB model indicate that
- 6 emissions from motor vehicle exhausts are the most important, accounting for the 64% of the
- 7 PM_{2.5}, followed by meat cooking operations with 31% The vegetative detritus and biomass
- 8 burning had the smallest contribution (2.2% of the PM_{2.5}). To our knowledge, this is the
- 9 second study to explore the organic composition and source apportionment of fine organic
- aerosol based on molecular markers in Mexico and the first for the MMA. Particularly
- 11 molecular marker were quantified by solvent extraction with dichloromethane, derivatization,
- and gas chromatography with mass spectrometry (GC/MS).

14

1 Introduction

- 15 Fine organic aerosol (OA) has a major role in environmental and human health impacts (Peng
- et al., 2009). Some researchers have recently estimated that fine OA constitutes 23–38% of
- the PM_{2.5} mass in urban areas (Qin et al., 2006; Viana et al., 2006; Duan et al., 2007;
- Upadhyay et al., 2011). In addition, OA along with elemental carbon (EC) can account for up
- to 31-57% of the PM_{2.5} mass (Duan et al., 2007; Upadhyay et al., 2011; Martínez et al.,
- 20 2012).
- 21 Atmospheric fine OA is a complex mixture of hundreds of organic compounds that are
- 22 directly emitted or are generated by atmospheric chemical processes. Many of these organic
- compounds are toxic or carcinogenic (Spurny, 2000; Pope et al., 2002), but can be useful as
- 24 markers to identify the source of the aerosols being measured at a specific site. Organic
- 25 markers that have been used in the past include levoglucosan, cholesterol, nicotine, *n*-alkanes,
- 26 hopanes (pentacyclic triterpanes), and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs).
- 27 Levoglucosan is a pyrolisis pyrolysis decomposition and combustion product of cellulose;
- therefore, it can be used as a tracer for biomass burning sources (Fraser et al., 2000; Robinson
- et al., 2006a; Alves et al., 2011; Gonçalves et al., 2011). Cholesterol and nicotine are good
- markers for meat cooking operations (Rogge et al., 1991; Schauer et al., 2001b; Robinson et
- al., 2006b) and cigarette smoke (Eatough et al., 1989; Hildemann et al., 1991; Rogge et al.,
- 32 1994; Kavouras et al., 1998), respectively. Hopanes are biomarkers of fuel oil combustion,

- 1 coal combustion and lubricants, and are useful to identify engine emissions (Rogge et al.,
- 2 1993a; Oros and Simoneit, 2000; Simoneit et al., 2004; Schnelle-Kreis et al., 2005). PAHs are
- 3 semi-volatile compounds formed from fossil fuel incomplete combustion processes (Rogge et
- 4 al., 1993a; Marr et al., 2004; Sklorz et al., 2007). Finally, n-alkanes are indicators of fossil
- 5 fuel utilization and biogenic emissions (Simoneit et al., 2004; Young and Wang, 2002).
- 6 Additional details about specific organic markers and their emission sources can be found
- 7 elsewhere (Simoneit et al., 1991; Simoneit, 1999; Lin et al., 2010; Blanchard et al., 2014).
- 8 Another feature used to identify the origin of fine OA are the diagnostic ratios between
- 9 homologues in series of biomolecules. For n-alkanes and alkanoic acids, the odd-
- and even- carbon preferences are indicators of biogenic sources (Tsapakis et al., 2002). A lack
- of carbon preference is indicative of fossil sources.. For the case of PAHs, some ratios can be
- used to identify emissions from fossil fuel combustion (Zhang et al., 2005).

- Source apportionment studies based on organic molecular markers have accomplished a better understanding of the emission sources in urban areas. This approach considers two main principles: (1) that organic molecular markers are present in relatively high concentrations in
- that they react slowly enough in the atmosphere to be conserved during transport from the

emissions from a specific source and in lower concentrations in the remaining sources, and (2)

- source to the observation/receptor site (Schauer et al., 1996; Lin et al., 2010). The use of
- 19 organic molecular markers in the last decade has proven to be a powerful method to identify
- and attribute emission sources in urban areas (Alves et al., 2001; Fraser et al., 2003; Abas et
- 21 al., 2004; Kalaitzoglou et al., 2004; Zheng et al., 2005; Feng et al., 2006; Huang et al., 2006;
- 22 Li et al., 2006; Park et al., 2006; Alves et al., 2007; Chow et al., 2007; Ke et al., 2007; Stone
- 23 et al., 2008; Amador-Muñoz et al., 2010; Yin et al., 2010; Pietrogrande et al., 2011; Perrone et
- 24 al., 2012; Giri et al., 2013; Villalobos et al., 2015; Watson et al., 2015; Zheng et al., 2015).
- In spite of recent research interest on organic molecular markers for source apportionment, the
- application of this approach started in the 80s (Simoneit, 1985; Simoneit, 1986; Eatough et al.,
- 27 1989; Simoneit and Mazurek, 1989) and continued in the 90s (Simoneit et al., 1990; Simoneit
- et al., 1991; Schauer et al., 1996; Simoneit, 1999; Schauer and Cass, 2000), especially, with
- 29 the development of organic source profiles for primary emission sources (Rogge et al., 1991;
- 30 Rogge et al., 1993a; Rogge et al., 1993b; Rogge et al., 1993c; Rogge et al., 1994; Rogge et al.,
- 31 1997; Fraser et al., 1999; Schauer et al., 1999) and alternative receptor models (Paatero 1997;
- Wold et al., 2001). Furthermore, improved source apportionment methods have been

developed (Antony ChenChen et al., 2011; Kelly et al., 2013; Watson et al., 2015) while other

2 methods have been suggested to be dropped as a receptor model (Hopke 2015). More detailed

3 information about source apportionment methods can be found elsewhere (Reff et al., 2007;

4 Viana et al., 2008; Lin et al., 2010; Nozière et al., 2015).

For the Monterrey Metropolitan Area (MMA), the third largest urban center of Mexico, there is a growing concern to determine the emission sources of fine OA. It was recently determined that fine OA accounts for 36-71% of PM_{2.5} mass in this urban center (Mancilla et al., 2015). Previously, Martínez et al. (2012) estimated an OA fraction of ~40% of the PM_{2.5} for the MMA. According to a recent tunnel study, PM2.5 emissions from gasoline-powered vehicles (one of the major emission sources in the MMA) contain as much as 55% of carbonaceous material (Mancilla and Mendoza, 2012). To date, only one study has addressed the chemical characterization of fine OA in the MMA, but it focused exclusively on the levels of PAHs (González-Santiago, 2009). More importantly, the present study would be the second of this kind in Mexico and the first one for the MMA; previously, Stone et al. (2008) reported an evaluation of molecular organic markers for source apportionment at the Mexico City. This city has a temperate and wet climate while the MMA has a dry and extreme climate with scarce rains. It is well-known that climate conditions can affect the air quality in urban areas. Extreme climates, including high temperatures, could increase the concentrations of air pollutants. For example, warm and dry climates promote photochemical reactions in the atmosphere producing secondary OA. The unique geography and the changeable climate as

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2 Methodology

Mexican cities.

2.1 Sampling site

The MMA has a population of 4.2 million inhabitants (INEGI, 2011) and it is considered the

largest urban area in Northeastern Mexico and the third-largest urban center in the country.

well as its typical industries of the region make of the MMA unique and different from other

28 The MMA is composed of 12 municipalities that overall cover an area of 6,680 km²

(SEDESOL et al., 2007), as shown in Fig. 1. The MMA has a vehicular fleet of 1.7 million

vehicles (INEGI, 2010) with a composition of approximately 73% gasoline-powered vehicles

(car passengers), 25% diesel-powered vehicles (buses and trucks) and 3% motorcycles. In

addition, the MMA has an industrial activity dominated by manufacturing industries, 1 construction and electricity, transport, restaurants and other local services. In addition, the The 2 MMA has a network of air quality monitoring stations (Sistema Integral de Monitoreo 3 Ambiental, SIMA). For this study, PM_{2.5} samples were collected at only one site placed in the 4 5 facilities of the downtown monitoring station of the SIMA network (25° 40' 32" N, 100° 20' 18" W), 556 meters above sea level. The sampling site is affected mainly by traffic and 6 emissions from a wide range of industrial activities (e.g., steel and cement production). The 7 vegetation around the sampling site includes dispersed and scarce grass, shrubs, and street tree 8 systems in the immediate vicinity as well as in the periphery. The sampling site selection was 9 based on coefficients of divergence (COD) analysis using the 24-hour average PM_{2.5} 10 concentrations recorded in 2009 by the SIMA network. Details about this analysis can be 11 found elsewhere (Mancilla et al., 2015). 12

2.2 Sampling periods and instruments

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The samples were collected during the spring and fall of 2011 and 2012 (Table 1). For every 14 sampling day two consecutive twelve-hour samples were taken to obtain information for 15 16 daytime and nighttime periods. The daytime sampling was performed from 06:00 a.m. to 06:00 p.m. (local time), while nighttime samples were collected from 06:00 p.m. to 06:00 a.m. 17 the next day. For the spring and fall 2011 campaigns, sampling periods were performed on 18 alternate days. For example, for the spring of 2011, the first sampling day was on May 28, the 19 second on May 30, and so on. For the campaigns of 2012, both were conducted for 14 20 consecutive sampling days. 21 22 Carbonaceous aerosol samples were collected using high-volume filter-based instruments with PM_{2.5} inlet (TE-6001-2.5, Tisch Environmental Inc), operating at a flow of 1.13 m³/min. The 23 flow rates for the high-volume samplers were calibrated at the start and end of each 24 monitoring campaign. For each high-volume sampler, the calibration was carried out using a 25 calibration orifice (NIST Traceable Calibration Certificate). The samplers were mounted on 26 the rooftop of the monitoring station three meters above the ground. One high-volume 27 sampler was used for each campaign, except for the campaign of fall 2012, in which two high-28 volume samplers were deployed and operated simultaneously to collect pairs of samples for 29 30 each diurnal and nighttime sampling period. Fine particles were collected incollected on 8"×10" quartz microfiber filters (Whatman QMA). Filters were previously pre-fired for 8 hrs 31

at 600°C in a furnace to remove residual carbon and stored in baked aluminum foil within sealed plastic bags (Ziploc®) until they were used. After sampling, loaded 8"×10" filters were stored in tall 8 oz. glass jars (VWR, IR221-0250). Loaded filters were placed in a cooler with blue ice for immediate transport from the sampling site to the laboratory. All loaded filters were stored in a freezer at -20°C to prevent the evaporation of volatile compounds until they were analyzed. A total of 111 samples and 10 field blanks were collected throughout the study.

2.3 Ambient measurements

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9 For spring 2011, analyses for each 12-hour sample were carrywere carried out as discussed by Mancilla et al. (2015). Even though the samples collected for spring 2011 exhibited high 10 levels of OC, some concentrations for different organic compounds of interest were low (0.03 11 to 0.16 ng m⁻³). In addition, the OC concentrations for the last three campaigns (fall 2011, 12 spring 2012, and fall 2012) were on average up to 35% lower than OC concentrations of 13 spring 2011. Based on these findings, composites were formed for the last three campaigns to 14 ensure higher levels of collected mass used to identify the organic molecular markers. 15 Weekday/weekend and daytime/nighttime differences of fine OC levels were investigated and 16 considered to pool sample filters into weekday and weekend composites for the last three 17 campaigns (Mancilla et al., 2015). Each composite included only daytime or nighttime 18 samples collected during weekdays (Mon-Thu) or weekend (Fri-Sun). Sample groups for 19 composites varied from two to six sample filters. Thereafter, the number of individual samples 20 21 (or filters) was reduced from 111 to 43 representative samples. The composites made for this study are described in Table 2. 22 Solvent-extractable molecular markers were quantified using gas chromatography mass 23 spectrometry (GC/MS) using dichloromethane (DCM), and methanol (MeOH) (high purity 24 99.9%, Fisher Scientific). Filters were spiked with 50 µL of the following deuterated internal 25 standards (Sigma Aldrich): n-hexadecane-d34, n-hexatriacontane-d74, n-eicosane-d42, n-26 triacontane-d62, vanillin-d3, benzophenone-d5, chrysene-d12, dibenz(a,h)anthracene-d14, 27 naphthalene-d8, pyrene-d10, benzo(e)pyrene-d12, coronene-d12, decanoic acid-d19, palmitic 28 acid-d31, stearic acid-d35, levoglucosan-13c6, and cholesterol-d6. Each individual filter or 29 sample composite was extracted three times with DCM. During each extraction, enough DCM 30 was added and then they were subjected to ultrasonic agitation for 20 minthen ultrasonic 31

agitation was applied for 20 min using a sonicator (Bransonic®, model 5510R-DTH). The 1 2 extracts were combined and then concentrated by evaporation under a gentle flow ultrahighflow of ultra-high purity nitrogen until the extract reached a volume of ~5 mL. The 3 extracts were filtered through a pre-fired quartz filter, subsequently reduced in volume to 250 4 μL, and then separated into three fractions. One fraction was a direct portion of the 250 μL 5 6 extract for direct analysis by GC/MS, and the other two fractions were used for chemical 7 derivatizations. One fraction was methylated using diazomethane (CH₂N₂) to convert carboxylic acids to their respective methyl esters. The another fraction Another fraction was 8 silylated using a combination of BSTFA (N, O-bis(trimethylsilyl)trifluoroacetamide) and 9 TMCS (trimethylchlorosilane) to convert sterols and sugars to their respective trimethylsilyl 10 esters. For methylation, 50 µL of a Diazomethane (CH₂N₂) solution CH₂N₂ solution was 11 combined in a vial with 50 µL of extract. For the silvlation, 50 µL of BSTFA+TMCS (molar 12 ratio 99:1) was combined with 50 µL sample extract. Then, the mixture was allowed to react 13 14 for 3 h at 65°C. The quantification and identification of organic compounds was based on comparisons with authentic standards, retention times, literature mass spectra, and 15 fragmentation patterns using HP chemstation. A detailed description of the extraction and 16 analysis procedures as well as the chromatograph and column used can be found in Brown et 17 al., 2002. Brown et al. (2002). 18

2.4 Molecular diagnostic ratios

20 To investigate the origin of fine organic aerosols, the following diagnostic ratios were used:

2.4.1 Carbon Preference Index (CPI)

The CPI is an indicator of the measure of odd or even carbon homologues series of organic

compounds within a sample. Based on several studies (Abas and Simoneit, 1996; Tsapakis et

al., 2002; Harrad et al., 2003), the CPI for *n*-alkanes (odd to even ratio) was calculated as

25 follows:

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$$\mathbf{CPI} = \frac{\sum (C_{17} \text{ to } C_{33})}{\sum (C_{16} \text{ to } C_{32})}$$
(1)

27 and for *n*-alkanoic acids (even to odd ratio), as:

$$\mathbf{CPI} = \frac{\sum (C_{10} \text{ to } C_{32})}{\sum (C_{11} \text{ to } C_{31})}$$
(2)

- 2 The CPI is an important indicator that is used to determine whether emissions come from
- a natural or anthropogenic sources. For both n-alkanes and n-alkanoic acids, values of CPI > 1
- 4 indicate that hydrocarbons and carboxylic acids are emitted from natural sources. In contrast,
- values of $CPI \le 1$ (or close to one) indicate that they are emitted from anthropogenic sources
- 6 (Gogou et al., 1996; Alves et al., 2001; Gelencsér, 2004).
- 7 Another useful indicator that is used to specify the origin of the emissions is the carbon
- 8 number with maximum concentration (C_{max}). Hydrocarbons and carboxylic acids of high
- 9 molecular weight (> C₂₅) are emitted from biogenic sources, while those with lower molecular
- weight ($\leq C_{25}$) are mainly emitted from fossil fuel combustion processes (Alves et al., 2001;
- 11 Young and Wang, 2002; Gelencsér, 2004).

12 **2.4.2 Diagnostic ratios of PAHs**

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- Other indicators that have been used as markers of different source emissions of OA are the
- 14 PAHs diagnostic ratios (DRs) (Dvorská et al., 2011; Katsoyiannis et al, 2011). The DRs
- calculated in this study are shown in Table 3. The values listed in this table can be found
- elsewhere (Ravindra et al., 2008; Tobiszewski and Namieśnik, 2012).

17 2.5 Chemical Mass Balance model

- 18 The CMB is a single-sample receptor model that can be stated in terms of the contribution
- from p independent sources to all chemical species as follows:

$$x_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{p} g_{ik} f_{kj} + e_{ij}$$
 (1)

- where x_{ij} is the measured concentration of species j in sample i, f_{kj} is the concentration of
- species j in the emissions of source k, g_{ik} is the contribution of source k to sample i, and e_{ij} is
- 23 the model error. This model considers a prior knowledge of the source profiles and that the
- 24 components of the source emissions do not undergo changes during their transport from the
- source to the receptor. CMB provides an effective variance-weighted least-squares solution to
- 26 the over determined overdetermined set of mass balance equations (Eq. 1). CMB takes into

- account the known uncertainties in the ambient measurements and the source emission data to
- 2 minimize the chi-square (χ^2) goodness-of-fit parameter for each sample *i*:

$$\chi^{2} = \sum_{j=1}^{m} \left[\frac{x_{j} - \sum_{k=1}^{p} g_{jk} f_{k}}{\sigma_{x_{j}}^{2} + \sum_{k=1}^{p} \sigma_{g_{jk}} f_{k}} \right]$$
(2)

- 4 where σ_{xj} is the standard deviation of the concentration of species j, σ_{gjk} is the standard
- deviation of the g_{jk} , and m the total number of species. The U.S. EPA-CMB8.2 software has
- 6 been successfully used to apportion source contributions to ambient PM_{2.5} (Ke et al., 2007;
- 7 Stone et al., 2008; Watson et al., 2008; Kleeman et al., 2009; Schneidemesser et al., 2009; Yin
- 8 et al., 2010; Perrone et al., 2012; Villalobos et al., 2015) and was also used in the
- 9 <u>current study.</u> More details about CMB can be found elsewhere (e.g., Henry et al., 1984;
- 10 Watson et al., 2008).

2.6 Source profiles

- 12 The source profiles used in this work were taken from the most comprehensive studies
- available. The selection of the source profiles was based on previous source apportionment
- studies carried out for Mexican urban areas. Firstly, Stone et al. (2008) used CMB with
- 15 organic molecular markers profiles to estimate contributions from gasoline- and diesel-
- 16 powered vehicles, vegetative detritus and biomass burning in Mexico City. Secondly,
- Martinez et al. (2012) based onbased their factor analysis on trace elements identified primary
- sources such as industrial sources, motor vehicle exhaust and biomass burning in the MMA.
- 19 Finally, from these studies, seven primary source profiles were selected.
- The source profiles for gasoline- and diesel-powered vehicles were taken from
- Schauer et al. (2002) and Fraser et al. (2002), respectively. In the MMA, the gasoline vehicle
- 22 fleet seems to be rather well maintained and of a recent model year, while dieselwhile the
- 23 diesel vehicle fleet is composed by heavy of heavy duty vehicle trucks and buses. Therefore,
- 24 the profiles reported for catalyst-equipped gasoline-powered motor vehicles emissions and
- 25 heavy duty trucks from dynamometer tests were used.
- 26 From evidence of industrial sources in Mexican urban atmospheres, a source profile source
- 27 profiles for natural gas combustion and fuel oil combustion were taken from Rogge et al.
- 28 (1993c) and Rogge et al. (1997), respectively.

- 1 Finally, source profiles for meat cooking operations, vegetative detritus, and biomass burning
- were taken from Schauer et al. (1999), Rogge et al. (1993b) and Schauer et al. (2001a),
- 3 respectively. Most traditional restaurants activities of the region of study include meat
- 4 charbroiling operations. For biomass burning, given the existence of softwood and hardwood
- 5 sources in the region (Zurita, 2009), the softwood pine and hardwood oak profiles were used
- 6 in this study. These last profiles were used separately because they are highly collinear.
- 7 Regarding vegetative detritus, a source profile was included based on the contributions
- 8 determined by Stone et al. (2008) in Mexico City along with the fact that the MMA is
- 9 surrounded by rural areas with vast green covers. Therefore, it is possible to have an impact
- 10 from transport of biogenic emissions.
- For individual organic compound quantification, an uncertainty of $\pm 20\%$ of the measured
- concentration was used for all ambient samples and source profiles (Schauer et al., 2000;
- 13 SRM 1649a, 2007; SRM 1649b, 2009; Fraser et al., 2003; Schantz et al., 2005). A detailed
- description of source profiles of the source profiles and settings used to perform the CMB in
- this study can be found in Fraser et al. (2003). For the current application, the fitting species
- 16 for CMB included 20 organic compounds along with EC and overall OC. The molecular
- markers included seven *n*-alkanes (C27-C33), four petroleum biomarkers (17a(H),21b(H)-29-
- 18 norhopane, 17a(H),21b(H)-hopane, 22R+S 17a(H),21b(H)-30-homohopane, and 22R+S
- 19 17a(H),21b(H)-30-bishomohopane), five polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons
- 20 (benzo[a]anthracene, benzofluoranthenes, benzo[a]pyrene, indeno[123-cd]pyrene and
- 21 benzo[ghi]perylene), two saturated fatty acids (C16:0 and C18:0), cholesterol and
- 22 levoglucosan.

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3 Results and discussion

3.1 Resolved organic aerosols

- 25 The results for the chemical characterization of the fine organic aerosol for the MMA are
- summarized in Table S1. In this and other sections, averaged values for concentrations and
- 27 other parameters are given ± one standard deviation. Most of the PM_{2.5} daytime
- concentrations were 20% higher than nighttime concentrations. The concentrations of OC and
- 29 EC were on average 32% higher during the daytime than the nighttime. In addition, the OC
- and EC accounted together for 28-49% and 46-55% of the PM_{2.5} for spring and fall,
- 31 respectively. In the spring, the daytime carbonaceous fraction was 1.6–1.8 times higher than

- the corresponding nighttime fraction, whereas during the fall, it was 1.1–1.2 times higher. The
- 2 average OC/EC ratios ranged from 7.4 to 12.6 during this study. A detailed Detailed
- 3 information and analysis of the carbonaceous aerosol for this study can be found in Mancilla
- 4 et al. (2015).
- 5 All the samples <u>All samples</u> collected during this study were analyzed for <u>eight seven</u> organic
- 6 compound classes except those samples collected in the spring of 2011 of the 2011 campaign,
- 7 for which carboxylic acids, wood smoke markers, and nitro-PAH compounds were not
- 8 included for the chemical analysis. Therefore, the overall contribution of the resolved organic
- 9 compounds to OC in the spring of 2011 is not directly comparable to the last of the last
- three campaigns. For the <u>eight_seven</u> resolved compound classes in the last three campaigns
- 11 (Fig. 2), the *n*-alkanoic acids were the most abundant, followed by *n*-alkanes, wood smoke
- markers, and levoglucosan/alkenoic acids. The PAHs and triterpanes hydrocarbons were less
- abundant. The same tendency was observed in the spring of 2011, except that the n-alkanes
- were the most abundant. The concentrations of nitro-PAH were neglected because their levels
- were below the detection limit of the method.
- 16 The daytime and nighttime concentrations of the resolved organics for the spring 2011
- accounted for 0.49±0.52% and 0.46±0.41% of the ambient OC, respectively. These
- contributions were much lower than the following three campaigns due to some compounds to
- 19 the fact that some compounds classes were not included. For spring 2012 and all fall
- 20 campaigns, the total daytime concentrations of the resolved organics accounted for
- $7.58\pm4.89\%$ and $2.64\pm1.82\%$ to $4.67\pm1.76\%$, respectively, while the total nighttime
- concentrations accounted for $11.0\pm6.3\%$ and $3.2\pm2.4\%$ to $8.0\pm4.0\%$, respectively. These
- observations are consistent with the findings that typically, around 84% of the fine OC is
 - either non-extractable or will not elute from the GC column (Schauer and Cass, 2000). In the
- 25 following sections will be analyzed the organic composition of the fine organic aerosols
- 26 using sections the organic composition of the fine organic aerosols will be analyzed using
- 27 several diagnostic ratios to identify the primary emission sources. Then the relative
- contribution of each primary source to the PM_{2.5} will be calculated by using the CMB receptor
- 29 model.

3.2 *n*-Alkanes and Hopanes 1

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The n-alkanes have two main sources: petroleum product utilization and natural vegetation waxes. The latter source consists of the longer chain plant lipids ($>C_{20}$) as *n*-alkanes (Simoneit and Mazurek, 1982). In this study, the *n*-alkanes in the range of C₁₇-C₃₃ were detected. For the samples collected for spring 2011 and fall 2011, the average daytime and nighttime concentrations of *n*-alkanes were 1.6 and 2.3 times higher for the fall than the spring, respectively. This is consistent with the high contribution of the OC to PM_{2.5} and the lowest OC/EC ratios exhibited during the fall (Mancilla et al., 2015). In addition, the average temperature in the fall was 18.7–22.1°C versus 27.8–29.4°C in the spring. Low temperatures typically promote the utilization of petroleum products. In Mexico, the government sets the tariff-rates for the electric energy consumption with regard to the temperature; during the cold seasons the government removes the subsidy to the domestic electric energy due to the demand on fossil fuels in those seasons, and the sampling years of this study were not the exception (SENER, 2013). The average CPI values of n-alkanes in the spring were 1.5 ± 0.3 (range: 1.1–1.9) in the daytime and 1.7±0.5 (range: 1.1–2.6) in the nighttime, while the CPI values in the fall were 1.0 ± 0.3 (range: 0.7-1.2) in the daytime and 0.9 ± 0.1 (range: 0.7-1.0) in the nighttime. The CPI values in the spring suggest the mixed contribution of anthropogenic and biogenic emissions sources emission sources, whereas those values in the fall indicated a dominance of anthropogenic emissions. In addition, the contribution of anthropogenic emission sources is confirmed by the presence of petroleum biomarkers (hopanes: range of 0.06 to 2.36 ng m⁻³) and n-alkanes $\leq C_{25}$ (Fig. 3). For the fall, the average daytime and nighttime concentrations of hopanes were 2.3 and 4.2 times higher than in the spring, respectively. Similarly, the presence of biogenic emissions due to C_{max} was found at C_{27} , C_{29} , or C₃₁ (Fig. 3). These carbons' number dominance and trace levels of hopanes are characteristics of plant wax emissions and urban traffic emissions, respectively (Standley and Simoneit, 1987; Cass, 1998; Simoneit et al., 2004). For the spring 2012 and fall 2012, the behavior of *n*-alkanes was the opposite of the 2011 of 2011. The average daytime and nighttime concentrations of n-alkanes were 1.5 and 2.0 times higher in the spring than in the fall, respectively. The EC levels remained similar to those of

27 28 29 the 2011 of 2011, but the OC levels were higher during the fall 2012 increasing the OC/EC 30 ratios. Some of these ratios exhibited high peaks suggesting a contribution from primary 31 emission sources with elevated OC/EC ratios like biomass burning (Mancilla et al., 2015). 32

The average temperature in the fall was 23.5–26.4°C versus 28.0–30.7°C in the spring. The 1 average fall temperatures were not consistent with the average of 2011. In the fall of 2012, the 2 warmer temperatures might have promoted less utilization of some fuels compared to the 3 2011 in which lower temperatures could have promoted their utilization, increasing the n-4 alkanes' concentrations in fall 2011. The average CPI values of *n*-alkanes in the spring 2012 5 6 were 0.9 ± 0.1 (range: 0.8-1.1) in the daytime and 1.2 ± 0.1 (range: 1.2-1.3) in the nighttime, while the CPI values in the fall 2012 were 1.3±0.1 (range: 1.0–1.4) in the daytime and 1.5±0.2 7 (range: 1.3–1.6) in the nighttime. From these CPI values, it appears that biogenic emissions 8 are relevant in all sampling periods. For spring 2012 daytime, the emissions appear to be 9 heavily dominated by anthropogenic emissions due to the low CPI value exhibited. The 10 presence of petroleum biomarkers supports the relative contribution of anthropogenic 11 emissions. However, in 2012 the hopanes levels were ~35% lower at daytime and ~43% 12 lower at nighttime than those in the previous year. The low hopane levels (range of 0.10 to 13 1.49 ng m⁻³) highlight the possible presence of biogenic emissions (Fig. 2). 14

3.3 PAHs

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respectively.

benzo(a)anthracene (BAA), chrysene (CRY), benzo(k)fluoranthene + benzo(b)fluoranthene 17 18 (BFA). bBenzo(a)pyrene bBenzo(e)pyrene (BaP+BeP), perylene (PER). indeno(123cd)pyrene (IP), benzo(ghi)perylene (BgP), dibenz(ah)anthracene (DaA), and 19 coronene (Cor), were identified in the MMA fine OC samples fine samples. For both sampling 20 years, the average daytime and nighttime concentrations of PAHs were 1.4-5.9 and 1.4-2.4 21 times higher in the fall than in the spring, respectively. This is consistent with the high 22 23 contribution of the OC to the PM_{2.5} during the falls. Independently of the season, the daytime concentrations were 1.3-1.6 times higher than nighttime concentrations. These seasonal 24 25 differences are consistent with the results of Guo et al. (2003) and Li et al. (2006), where PAH levels were 2-4 and 14.4 times higher in the cold seasons than in the warm seasons, 26

Twelve PAH compounds, fluoranthene (FLT), acephenanthrylene (ACE), pyrene (PYR),

As illustrated by illustrated in Fig. 4, the high molecular weight (HMW) PAHs were the most abundant for the MMA. The presence of HMW PAHs such as BaP+BeP, IP, and BgP is an indication of gasoline-powered vehicle emissions (Katsoyiannis et al, 2011; Tobiszewski and Namieśnik, 2012). In addition, a possible contribution of diesel-powered vehicles is indicated

by the low concentrations of the low molecular weight (LMW) PAHs such as FLT, PYR, and 1 CRY. To identify the emission sources of PAH, diagnostic ratios were calculated (Table 4). 2 These ratios should be used with caution due to PAHs because PAHs are emitted from a 3 variety of emission sources, particularly combustion sources, and their profiles can be 4 5 modified due to their reactivity (Tsapakis et al., 2002). From these ratios, it would be determined the source origin (e.g., the source could be determined (e.g., pyrogenic and 6 petrogenic sources). Then, these qualitative conclusions will be considered for the source 7 apportionment to estimate the relative contribution of primary emission sources. The average 8 ratios of IP/(IP+BgP) indicate that ambient PAHs in the MMA originated from gasoline and 9 diesel combustion, whereas the ratios of BAA/(BAA+CRY) show the presence of petrogenic 10 sources as well as vehicle emissions. To complement these results, the ratios of 11 (BaP+BeP)/BgP identified a marked contribution of non-traffic sources for the spring of 2011, 12 traffic source for sources for the fall 2011 and the spring 2012, and mixed-sources for the fall 13 2012. Presence of the presence of gas-phase PAHs was not evaluated and thus no 14 information on gas/particle partitioning of these semivolatile species is available. Thus, only 15 diagnostic ratios for HMW PAHs were calculated for this study because those PAHs exhibit 16 low volatility (Kavouras et al, 1999). 17 In this study, the average total concentrations of the quantified PAHs (TPAHs) were 18 $2.42\pm2.45 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$ (range: $0.65-8.31 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$) and $4.11\pm2.62 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$ (range: $1.42-11.97 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$) 19 during 2011 and 2012, respectively, whilst those quantified by González-Santiago (2009) at 20 two different sites in the MMA were 1.30±1.64 ng m⁻³ (range: 0.05-6.93 ng m⁻³) and 21 1.70±1.88 ng m⁻³ (range: 0.07–9.14 ng m⁻³). The lowest concentrations were obtained during 22 the spring because its average temperature was statistically higher than during the fall seasons 23 (p<0.05). The volatility of PAH increases with temperature; as a result low concentrations are 24 obtained in comparison with fall and winter seasons. For this study the concentrations of PAH 25 were lower during the spring than concentrations during fall; this pattern was exhibited during 26 the two sampling years. González-Santiago (2009) identified only six PAHs, while in this 27 study were identified twelve. In the current study, the total concentrations calculated for the 28 six common PAHs were from 3 to 8 times higher than those estimated by González-Santiago 29 (2009). Similar concentrations (between 0.04 ng/m³ and 1.78 ng/m³) were also reported for 30 six individual PAHs in urban samples collected in Mexico City (Stone et al., 2008). Of the 31 same PAHs identified among these studies, their levels were in the same concentration range. 32

- 1 However, the TPAH levels in the MMA compared to those calculated by Marr et al. (2006)
- 2 (20–100 ng m⁻³) in Mexico City were found at appreciably lower concentrations. In addition,
- 3 Marr et al. (2006) suggest that vehicles are the major source of PAHs. They demonstrated that
- 4 PAHs and carbon monoxide (CO) concentrations are well correlated in Mexico City and,
- 5 given that 99% of CO emissions are emitted by motor vehicles, this source is a major
- 6 contribution of PAH emissions. For the current study, daytime correlations (r) of +0.76 (p >
- 7 0.05) were found between TPAH and CO, reinforcing the conclusion that motor vehicles are
- 8 one major source of PAH emissions for the MMA. The concentrations of CO during this
- 9 study were obtained from the SIMA network.
- 10 The total PAH (TPAH) concentrations were compared with the EC and OC levels. TPAH
- 11 concentrations measured in the MMA exhibited fair daytime correlations with EC (r=+0.79;
- 12 p>0.05), but low correlations with OC (r=+0.57; p>0.05). According to Marr et al. (2004), the
- 13 strong correlation between TPAH and EC indicated the relative contribution of diesel-
- powered vehicle exhaust, while weak correlations may be due to the low concentrations of EC
- determined during this study (Mancilla et al., 2015). Furthermore, the weak correlation
- between TPAH and EC suggests the presence of emission sources with an elevated OC/EC.

3.4 *n*-Alkanoic acids

- 18 The carboxylic acids or *n*-alkanoic acids are mainly derived from biogenic emissions (Rogge
- et al., 1993b). However, these acids have also been identified in several primary sources such
- as cooking operations (Rogge et al., 1991; Schauer et al., 2001b) and fossil fuel combustion
- 21 (Schauer et al., 2002). The n-alkanoic acids from C_{10} to C_{32} were quantified only for the three
- 22 last monitoring campaigns. The *n*-alkanoic acids were the most abundant, accounting for
- 23 $69\pm16\%$ at daytime and $78\pm11\%$ of the total resolved organics at nighttime for both spring
- 24 and fall. The daytime and nighttime concentration levels were two times higher in the spring
- 25 than in the fall. As can be seen in Fig. 5, the *n*-alkanoic acids measured in the MMA were
- dominated by hexadecanoic acid (palmitic acid) and octadecanoic acid (stearic acid). This
- dominance is consistent with measurements in other locations (Fraser et al., 2002; Simoneit
- 28 2004; Li et al., 2006).
- The average CPI values of *n*-alkanoic acids in the fall of 2011 were 4.3 ± 1.0 (range: 3.3-5.3)
- during the day and 5.0±0.4 (range: 4.6–5.4) at night. For the 2012 year the CPI values in the
- spring were 3.6 ± 0.6 (range: 2.9-4.5) during the day and 4.7 ± 0.8 (range: 3.9-5.8) at night,

while the CPI values in the fall were 4.7±0.3 (range: 4.3–5.1) during the day and 5.3±1.1 1 (range: 4.0-6.8) at night. These elevated CPI values indicated the significant influence of 2 biogenic sources such as microbial and plant wax sources. The n-alkanoic acids <C₂₀ are 3 derived in part from microbial sources while those >C₂₀ are from vascular plant waxes (Guo 4 5 et al., 2003; Yue and Fraser, 2004; Simoneit et al., 2004). Fig. 5 clearly shows influence of long chain (>C₂₀) plant wax particles for the MMA. The CPI values in this study were 6 consistent with those obtained by Wang and Kawamura (2005) (CPI: 5.3-10) and Yue and 7 Fraser (2004) (CPI: 3.2–11.2). Regardless of the elevated CPI values obtained for the MMA, 8 the values were not as high as those reported by the other mentioned studies due to a scarcity 9 10 of green vegetation covers in the MMA.

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The *n*-alkenoic acids only included the cis-9-Octadecenoic acid included cis-9-octadecenoic acid (oleic acid) and trans-9-octadecenoic acid (elaidic acid). The concentrations of cis-9octadecenoic acideis-9-Octadecenoic acid_ranged from 0.96 ng m⁻³ to 15.38 ng m⁻³, while the concentrations of trans-9-octadecenoic acid ranged from 2.11 ng m⁻³ to 13.35 ng m⁻³. The ratio of octadecanoic acid to cis-9-octadecenoic acideis 9-Octadecenoic acid has been used as an indicator of the atmospheric chemical processing (aging) of aerosols, since the unsaturated acids are susceptible to atmospheric oxidation from gaseous precursors oxidation (Brown et al., 2002; Yue and Fraser, 2004). In this study, the average ratios were 5.0 (range: 1.5–9.4) during the day and 3.8 (range: 2.5–4.9) at night for the spring, while versus 20.3 (range: 4.7– 38.6) during the day and 21.0 (range: 10.5–29.1) at night for the fall. The transport of aerosols from local and rural sources can lead to the loss of cis-9-octadecenoic acideis-9-Octadecenoic acid producing high octadecanoic acid to cis-9-octadecenoic acideis-9-Octadecenoic acid ratios. By contrastSimilarly, the stagnation of aerosols may reflect the impact of high oxidant concentrations in an urban atmosphere producing low ratioshigh ratios (Brown et al., 2002; Yue and Fraser, 2004). Therefore, these ratios suggest that the ambient organic aerosols for the MMA were aged and might be produced from transport and atmospheric oxidation. Air circulation patterns (Hysplit backward trajectories) during these monitoring campaigns suggested a long-range transport from the northeast and southeast (Mancilla et al., 2015). As expected, the lowest and highest octadecanoic acid to cis-9-octadecenoic acideis 9-Octadecenoic acid ratios obtained for the MMA were consistent with the highest OC/EC ratios estimated for the MMA for the same campaign; high OC/EC ratios identified transport and stagnation scenarios for the spring and fall, respectively (Mancilla et al., 2015). In

- addition, these results are in line with those reported by Brown et al. (2002) and Yue and
- 2 Fraser (2004), who obtained ratios of 5-11 and 1.0–21.5, respectively.
- 3 In addition, a minor biogenic contribution can be identified by the presence of terpenoic acids
- 4 such as cis-pinonic acid and pinic acid. These acids are known to be a secondary, particle-
- 5 phase product of pinene, which is emitted from plants, particularly conifers
- 6 (Plewka et al., 2006; Sheesley et al., 2004). The pinonic Both pinonic acid and pinic acid
- 7 exhibited higher concentrations in the spring than in the fall (Table S1), indicating biogenic
- 8 emissions from softwood sources.

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3.5 Meat cooking and biomass burning tracers

- 11 The major tracers for meat cooking particles are the steroids, while for biomass burning are
- the anhydrosaccharides and methoxyphenols. All of these organic tracers were intermittent in
- only 80% of the total OA samples/composites collected during this study.
- 14 There was not a clear trend between spring and fall samples during the two sampling years for
- steroids (Table S1). However, the evidence of cooking operations' impact on the MMA was
- 16 confirmed by the presence of cholesterol and stigmasterol along with hexadecanoic acid,
- octadecanoic acid, and oleic acid. Although cholesterol is considered a good marker for meat
- 18 cooking, studies have reported unexpectedly high levels of cholesterol from non-cooking
- related sources such as soil and prescribed burns (Sheesley et al., 2004; Lee et al., 2005;
- 20 Robinson et al., 2006a).
- 21 Anhydrosaccharides are the tracers from burning cellulose and hemicelluloses, whereas the
- 22 methoxyphenols the tracer from burning of lignin (Giri et al., 2013). Levoglucosan, a
- combustion and pyrolysis product of cellulose, is the main biomarker used to track biomass
- burning emissions (Schauer et al., 2001a). Levoglucosan was not detected in all collected
- samples. The levoglucosan found in the OC samples indicates that biomass
- burning is impacting the MMA to some extent (Table S1). The levoglucosan concentrations
- 27 varied by sampling dates, ranging from not detectable levels to 54 ng m⁻³ for spring. In
- contrast, levoglucosan was detected in all fall samples, ranging from 0.14 to 28 ng m⁻³. The
- 29 intermittent peaks of levoglucosan concentrations during the springtime can be explained by
- 30 the fact that Northeastern Mexico's atmosphere is highly influenced by forest wildfires and
- 31 prescribed agricultural burnings during the spring (Mendoza et al., 2005); this is in line with

the idea that high OC/EC ratios obtained, in a parallel study, were influenced in part by 1 regional transport emissions (Mancilla et al., 2015). In the case of fallof the fall seasons, the 2 3 levoglucosan levels can be associated with local biomass burning due to mild temperatures exhibited encountered during these seasons; a local contribution can be associated with high 4 5 OC/EC ratios and stagnation conditions determined for this period (Mancilla et al., 2015). The high OC/EC rations during spring may have a contribution from primary sources with 6 elevated OC/EC ratios. The low and variable levoglucosan concentrations in this study 7 indicate that wood/vegetation smoke episodes were occasional at the urban site. Average 8 levoglucosan concentrations of 112.9 ng m⁻³ and 151.3 ng m⁻³ were reported at urban and 9 peripheral sites for Mexico City, respectively (Stone et al., 2008). Based on an average 10 concentration of levoglucosan, Mexico City exhibited from 5 to 7 times higher levels than the 11 MMA. These results are consistent with the concentrations of OC and EC obtained in the 12 Mexico Mexico City; the EC concentrations were up to two times higher than those 13 14 calculated in observed in the MMA, whereas the OC concentrations were from 2 to 6 times higher. A study conducted in Houston, TX, during August-September reported elevated 15 concentrations of levoglucosan: up to 234 ng m⁻³ (Yue and Fraser, 2004). Similarly, a study 16 conducted for 14 cities in China during summer and winter, also reported elevated 17 levoglucosan concentrations of 259 ng m⁻³ (Wang et al., 2006). However, in those studies the 18 vegetation around the sampling sites included a vast number of parks and woody shrubs, 19 20 suggesting a major biomass burning contribution contrary to the MMA. Apart from those studies, Zheng et al. (2002) reported elevated levoglucosan concentrations of 166–307 ng m⁻³ 21 for urban areas of similar surroundings to the MMA. In this case, it is also possible that the 22 levoglucosan emissions reported come from industries that have implemented biomass 23 burning processes for energy generation. As can be seen from the previous comparison, the 24 25 contribution of biomass burning is minor for the MMA in comparison with other urban locations. In addition, biomass burning contributions are inconsistent with those reported in 26 27 similar locations to the MMA. The resin acids such as dehydroabietic acid, pimaric acid, and isopimaric acid (Table S1) are 28 secondary tracers from biomass burning (Schauer et al., 2001a). Dehydroabietic acid was the 29 most abundant resin acid, ranging from 1.94 to 4.39 ng m⁻³ and 1.95 to 3.69 ng m⁻³ for spring 30 and fall, respectively. Then, pimaric acid ranged from not detectable levels to 0.09 ng m⁻³ and 31 from 0.15 to 0.35 ng m⁻³ for spring and fall, respectively. Finally, isopimaric acid ranged 32

- 1 from not detectable levels to 0.03 ng m⁻³ and from 0.06 to 0.12 ng m⁻³ for spring and fall,
- 2 respectively. The results for resin acids are in line with those obtained for the levoglucosanfor
- 3 levoglucosan. These results support the low impact from biomass burning emissions in the
- 4 MMA, especially from softwood burning (e.g., conifer wood) during the spring and fall
- 5 campaigns. In addition, the higher concentrations of resin acids in fall than in spring are
- 6 associated with photochemical activity due to stagnation events in fall.

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3.6 Source Apportionment

CMB was applied using the quantification of individual organic compounds found in the collected PM_{2.5} samples. The relative contributions for gasoline-powered vehicles, dieselpowered vehicles, natural gas combustion, fuel oil combustion, meat cooking operations, vegetative detritus, and biomass burning were estimated. From the source categories selected, the ones corresponding to natural gas and fuel oil combustion were not determined as significant for some ambient samples. These two sources were determined to have contributions that were not statistically different from zero or were slightly negative and thus were excluded from the model. Model performance was determined by r^2 values ranging between 0.58 and 0.85 and chi-squared (χ^2) values between 2.97 and 8.85. Similar values for r^2 and χ^2 have been obtained in Fraser et al. (2003) and Schneidemesser et al. (2009). The latter study used composites to perform the CMB. Another performance metric calculated by EPA-CMB8.2 is the percent mass explained. Theoretically, values ranging from 80% to 120% are acceptable. This ideally can occur when ambient data is not impacted heavily by SOA because CMB is only able to account accurately for primary sources. In spite of this limitation, CMB results with low percent mass explained values have been reported by some studies. In these cases, the high levels of unexplained mass have been associated with secondary production (Fraser et al., 2003; Zheng et al., 2005). For the 43 ambient samples fed to CMB in this study, 18 samples exhibited low percent mass explained values (ranging from 20% to 77%), whilst 14whereas samples had values around 100%. These results are in line with the relative high and low OC/EC ratios obtained for spring and fall, respectively Mancilla et al. (2015)(Mancilla et al., 2015). Finally, 11 samples were discarded due to poor performance parameters calculated. These samples were not exclusively from a particular

of the CMB performance and relative contributions for each sample can be found in Table S2. 2 The average contributions of primary sources are shown in Table 5. The vehicle exhaust and 3 meat-cooking operations emissions for all monitoring campaigns were the highest. In 4 analysis operation emissions were the highest for all monitoring campaigns. When examining 5 of the seasonal variation, the gasoline- and diesel-powered vehicles in falls were up to five 6 times higher than in springs, when cold weather increases the demand of petroleum products 7 due to low temperatures. The opposite occurred for meat-cooking operations, their spring 8 emissions were three times higher than in fall seasons. The natural gas combustion, vegetative 9 10 detritus and biomass burning emissions were very low and more constant throughout the springs and falls. In analysis of the With regard to the daytime and nighttime variations, the 11 vehicle exhaust were much higher during daytime when traffic is heavier. For the meat-12 cooking operations, the emissions were some highersomewhat higher in nighttime during 13 spring and more constant between daytime and nighttime during fall. For the rest of the 14 sources, the daytime and nighttime emissions were relatively constant. There are not 15 similar There were no similar studies conducted in the MMA, this is the first source 16 apportionment study based on molecular organic markers for this region. However, these 17 results were similar results are similar to those obtained for the MMA using a factor analysis 18 19 based on trace elements (Martinez et al., 2012) and those for the Mexico for Mexico City based on molecular organic markers (Stone et al., 2008). 20 The average contribution of each emission category to the identified PM_{2.5} mass is shown in 21 Fig. 6. The unidentified mass was on average 35±24% of the measured PM_{2.5} concentrations. 22 This value is 1.5 times greater than the ~23% of secondary organic aerosol contribution to the 23 total PM_{2.5} mass concentration (SOC/PM_{2.5}) estimated in Mancilla et al. (2015) for the MMA. 24 The average secondary contribution used for this comparison was based on the minimum 25 OC/EC ratios observed and reported in Mancilla et al. (2015). These ratios may take into 26 account primary sources with elevated values of OC/EC ratios such as biomass burning and 27 kitchen operations as well as fossil fuel combustion sources. The unidentified mass by CMB 28 may include secondary organic and inorganic aerosol and trace elements. Thus, the levels of 29 unidentified mass resolved by CMB are reasonable given that the secondary aerosol estimated 30 in Mancilla et al. (2015) was in fact only SOA. Therefore, the 12% of difference between 35% 31 and 23% might be attributed to the secondary inorganic aerosol and other 32

monitoring campaign; there were samples from both springs and falls. A detailed description

chemical species. As indicated in Fig. 6, the emissions from motor vehicle exhausts (gasoline 1 and diesel) are the most important, accounting for the 64% of the identified PM_{2.5} emissions, 2 followed by meat-cooking operations (31%) and industries (2.8%). The vegetative 3 detritus Vegetative detritus and biomass burning were the less emitted the least emitted with 4 5 only 2.2% of the identified PM_{2.5} emissions. The relative high contribution of the meatcooking operations was expected given the high traditional restaurant activity in the MMA 6 which contribute withwhich contributes with the 16% of the local growth domestic product. 7 With regard to biomass burning, several studies have demonstrated that Mexico City has a 8 large contribution of biomass burning emissions due to forests fires (Moffet et al., 2008; Stone 9 et al., 2008; Yokelson et al., 2007). However, the MMA can be affected by other types of 10 biomass burning (e.g., shrub and grassland fires, agricultural waste and garbage burning, etc.) 11 that may be ignored. Therefore, the contribution of biomass burning in the MMA might be 12 higher because the source profile used for the CMB was only for wood combustion instead of 13 using a source profile for other types of biomass burning (Simoneit et al., 2005). The MMA as 14 well as other urban areas can be affected by types of biomass burning, especially, when they 15 are not surrounded by forests. For examples, several studies have demonstrated that Mexico 16 City has large contribution from biomass burning (Moffet et al., 2008; Stone et al., 2008; 17 Yokelson et al., 2007) because it is affected by forests fires (Yokelson et al., 2007). 18 Conversely, the MMA has not forests around, therefore, the contribution from biomass 19 burning in the MMA might be higher because the source profile used for the CMB was only 20 for wood combustion instead of using a source profile for garbage, industrial, and urban 21 residues open fires (Simoneit et al., 2005). In addition, here is it is important to point out the 22 potential of industrial sources due to prioras appeared from previous studies conducted in the 23 24 MMA and the rest of the country. The MMA is the third largest urban center of the country with approximately 9,700 industries (INEGI, 2005). In the MMA the main emissions from 25 industrial sources come from the combustion of natural gas; low emissions come from the use 26 of fuel oil. In this study the natural gas profile did not fit well and it was discarded from the 27 CMB, but the fuel oil did it. The combustion of natural gas emits lowemits a low amount of 28 particles, therefore, its contribution to the airborne particles is not significant. 29

4 Conclusions

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- 1 Spring and fall sampling campaigns were performed in 2011 and 2012 at one representative
- 2 site to conduct a chemical characterization of the fine OC in PM_{2.5} in the MMA. The
- 3 identified organic compound classes represented a low fraction of the ambient OC: 0.5% for
- 4 spring 2011 and 2.6 to 11% for the last three campaigns. The average CPI values derived from
- 5 the *n*-alkanes (0.9-1.7) and *n*-alkanoic acids (2.9-6.8) demonstrated that anthropogenic (e.g.,
- 6 fossil fuel combustion) were dominant while biogenic (e.g. plante.g., plant waxes, microbial
- origin) emission sources contribute at least some times sometimes to the fine OA in the MMA.
- 8 The PAH diagnostic ratios indicate that gasoline- and diesel-powered vehicles are the main
- 9 emission sources of this class of organic compounds in PM_{2.5}. However, other pyrogenic
- sources such as coal, grass, and wood combustion were also identified as contributors to the
- 11 fine OA. The quantified levels of cholesterol and levoglucosan confirm the high and low
- 12 contribution of cooking operations and biomass burning, respectively. Low levoglucosan
- concentrations suggest low episodic or transport effects of emissions of biomass burning on
- 14 $PM_{2.5}$ in the MMA.
- 15 In a parallel study, significant SOA formation was found in the MMA. The chemical
- speciation of the OC confirmed the aging of primary emissions and the SOA from biogenic
- 17 volatile organic compounds. On one hand, the identified octadecanoic acid and cis-9-
- 18 Octadecenoic acid along with other secondary organic markers point out the SOA formation
- in the MMA atmosphere. The average ratios of octadecanoic acid to cis-9-oOctadecenoic acid
- 20 (3.8–21) indicate aging of the fine OA due to photochemical activity and transport. On the
- other hand, the presence of the cis-pinonic and pinic acids confirmed the SOA derived from
- 22 biogenic sources. This is in line with the transport and stagnation events that predominated
- 23 during spring and fall, respectively.
- The emissions from vehicle exhausts are the most important, accounting for the for 64% of the
- 25 identified PM_{2.5} emissions. By contrast, the vegetative detritus vegetative detritus and biomass
- burning were the less contributors lowest contributors with barely 2.2% of the identified PM_{2.5}
- emissions.
- 28 Finally, the outcomes of a comparison with other studies were that a comparison with other
- 29 studies indicates that the MMA exhibits similar concentrations patterns of the organic
- 30 molecular markers identified in this study.

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1 Table 1. Monitoring experiments conducted for this study.

Campaign	Period	Sampling Days	Samples	Field blanks
Spring 2011	May 28 to June 11	7ª	14	2
Fall 2011	October 22 to November 3	7ª	14	2
Spring 2012	June 6 to June 19	14	27	2
Fall 2012	October 13 to October 26	14	56	4

^a Non-consecutive days.

3

Table 2. Characteristics of individual and composite samples for each monitoring campaign.

Campaign	Description	Dates included PM _{2.5}		5	OC		
Spring 2011	ID1	May 30, Jun 01, Jun 09, Jun 11	$(\mu g m^{-3})$ 20.3	SD 8.7	$(\mu g m^{-3})$ 8.2	SD 2.7	
	ID2 IN1	May 28, Jun 03, Jun 05 May 30, Jun 01, Jun 09, Jun 11	22.5 25.1	15.1 10.2	10.7 6.3	5.7 1.5	
	IN2	May 28, Jun 03, Jun 05	31.7	22.6	8.5	4.3	
Fall 2011	CD1	Oct 24, Nov 01	18.5	3.2	8.7	1.6	
	CD1	Oct 26, Nov 03	18.1	12.4	8.2	5.4	
	CN1	Oct 24, Nov 01	13.5	1.6	4.7	0.3	
	CN1	Oct 26, Nov 03	12.9	9.4	5.5	2.5	
	CD2	Oct 22, Oct 28, Oct 30	20.8	11.6	9.3	3.3	
	CN2	Oct 22, Oct 28, Oct 30	15.1	6.1	6.7	2.1	
Spring 2012	CD1	Jun 11, Jun 12	17.1	3.7	7.6	2.5	
	CD1	Jun 13, Jun 14	19.3	1.7	6.2	0.6	
	CD1	Jun 18, Jun 19	12.6	0.7	5.1	0.9	
	CD1	Jun 06, Jun 07	18.3	2.0	8.8	1.0	
	CN1	Jun 11, Jun 12	20.3	0.5	4.3	0.8	
	CN1	Jun 13, Jun 14	15.2	0.1	3.3	0.1	
	CN1	Jun 18, Jun 06, Jun 07	9.3	1.5	4.0	0.8	
	CD2	Jun 08, Jun 09, Jun 10	18.4	3.7	8.3	0.7	
	CD2	Jun 15, Jun 16, Jun 17	10.7	2.2	4.6	0.6	
	CN2	Jun 08, Jun 09, Jun 10	18.8	6.6	5.3	1.0	
	CN2	Jun 15, Jun 16, Jun 17	9.3	3.1	2.8	0.6	
Fall 2012	CD2	Oct 13, Oct 14, Oct 27	15.8	2.9	9.3	1.3	
	CN2	Oct 13, Oct 14, Oct 28	8.9	2.7	6.8	1.1	
	CD1	Oct 15, Oct 16	17.6	4.1	10.1	3.1	
	CN1	Oct 15, Oct 16	23.4	11.4	11.4	3.9	
	CD1	Oct 17, Oct 18	17.6	11.9	13.7	6.2	
	CN1	Oct 17, Oct 18	13.4	2.4	8.7	1.9	
	CD2	Oct 19, Oct 20, Oct 21	29.7	5.5	10.9	2.1	
	CN2	Oct 19, Oct 20, Oct 21	23.1	1.1	6.6	2.1	
	CD1	Oct 22, Oct 23	23.6	3.9	8.1	0.2	
	CN1	Oct 22, Oct 23	13.7	2.2	4.5	0.3	
	CD1	Oct 24, Oct 25	13.9	1.6	9.3	3.9	
	CN1	Oct 24, Oct 25	10.8	1.0	5.3	0.6	

- 2 Values in curly brackets are the mass ranges for the mass of OC collected per filter included.
- 3 Values for PM_{2.5} are the averages obtained from the SIMA network. OC concentration values
- 4 are the average values reported by Mancilla et al. (2015). SD represents standard deviation, I
- 5 indicates that dates included were analyzed individually, C indicates that dates

- 1 included were pooled to form a composite, D represents daytime sampling, N represents
- 2 nighttime sampling, 1 refers to weekday sampling, 2 refers to weekend sampling.

4 Table 3. PAH diagnostic ratios for different source categories.

Diagnostic Ratio	Value	Source	Reference
IP/(IP+BgP)	< 0.20	Petrogenic	Katsoyiannis et al., 2011
	> 0.20	Pyrogenic	Katsoyiannis et al., 2011
	0.20-0.50	Petroleum combustion	Yunker et al., 200 <u>2</u> 5
	> 0.50	Coal, grass, and wood	Yunker et al., 200 <u>2</u> 5
		combustion	
BAA/(BAA+CRY)	< 0.20	Petrogenic	Katsoyiannis et al., 2011
	0.20-0.35	Coal combustion	Akyüz and Cabuk, 2010
	> 0.35	Pyrogenic, vehicle emissions	Katsoyiannis et al., 2011
FLT/(FLT+PYR)	< 0.40	Petrogenic	Katsoyiannis et al., 2011
	> 0.40	Pyrogenic	Katsoyiannis et al., 2011
	0.40-0.50	Fuel combustion	Katsoyiannis et al., 2011
	> 0.50	Diesel emissions	Ravindra et al., 2008
(BaP+BeP)/BgP	> 0.60	Traffic	Katsoyiannis et al., 2011
	< 0.60	Non-traffic	Katsoyiannis et al., 2011

The PAH abbreviations are IP: Indeno(123cd)pyrene, BgP: Benzo(ghi)perylene, BAA:

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⁶ Benz(a)anthracene, CRY: Chrysene, FLT: Fluranthene, PYR: Pyrene, BaPBeP:

⁷ Benzo(e)pyrene, BaP: Benzo(a)pyrene.

1 Table 4. Average diagnostic ratios of PAHs in MMA

Season	Period	IP/(IP+BgP)	BAA/(BAA+CRY)	FLT/(FLT+PYR)	(BaP+BeP)/BgP
Spring 2011	D	0.41±0.05	0.34±0.28	0.50±0.03	0.19±0.24
	N	0.46 ± 0.02	0.62 ± 0.30	0.49 ± 0.10	0.07 ± 0.06
Fall 2011	D	0.35 ± 0.10	0.50 ± 0.03	0.55±0.12	2.67±0.75
	N	0.51±0.26	0.17±0.29	0.66 ± 0.25	4.63±4.49
Spring 2012	D	0.33 ± 0.13	0.01±0.003	0.72 ± 0.20	4.48±2.19
	N	0.47 ± 0.34	0.06 ± 0.12	0.89 ± 0.02	10.40±2.45
Fall 2012	D	0.34 ± 0.04	0.35±0.07	0.60 ± 0.06	0.55 ± 0.08
	N	0.36±0.02	0.40±0.09	0.68 ± 0.05	0.52±0.13

² D represents daytime, N represents nighttime

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4 Table 5. Contributions and uncertainty of primary sources to seasonal average ambient $PM_{2.5}$

for daytime and nighttime in the MMA (in $\mu g \ m^{-3}$)

Spring 2011		Fall	Fall 2011		Spring 2012		Fall 2012	
Daytime	Nighttime	Daytime	Nighttime	Daytime	Nighttime	Daytime	Nighttii	
							,	
							,	
2.37 ± 0.56	2.46 ± 0.46	3.70 ± 0.78	2.24 ± 0.51	1.43 ± 0.41	*	7.51 ± 1.27	$3.19 \pm 0.$	
							,	
							ļ	
7.34 ± 0.86	3.81 ± 0.53	13.67 ± 1.59	13.10 ± 1.55	2.93 ± 0.41	*	13.85 ± 1.58	$5.15 \pm 0.$	
							ļ	
0.22 ± 0.04	0.22 ± 0.04	0.13 ± 0.03	0.27 ± 0.05	0.40 ± 0.06	*	0.42 ± 0.07	$0.31 \pm 0.$	
8.24 ± 1.54	11.13 ± 1.85	3.26 ± 0.71	3.86 ± 0.71	9.74 ± 1.20	*	3.22 ± 0.53	3.37 ± 0.6	
0.01 ± 0.01	N.I.	0.05 ± 0.03	0.03 ± 0.01	0.01 ± 0.01	*	0.10 ± 0.02	$0.04 \pm 0.$	
0.20 ± 0.05	0.17 ± 0.05	0.17 ± 0.05	0.07 ± 0.02	0.16 ± 0.04	*	0.01 ± 0.01	$0.01 \pm 0.$	
N.I.	N.I.	4.18 ± 3.55	3.60 ± 1.20	N.I.	*	N.I.	0.22 ± 0	
	Daytime 2.37 ± 0.56 7.34 ± 0.86 0.22 ± 0.04 8.24 ± 1.54 0.01 ± 0.01 0.20 ± 0.05 N.I.	DaytimeNighttime 2.37 ± 0.56 2.46 ± 0.46 7.34 ± 0.86 3.81 ± 0.53 0.22 ± 0.04 0.22 ± 0.04 8.24 ± 1.54 11.13 ± 1.85 0.01 ± 0.01 N.I. 0.20 ± 0.05 0.17 ± 0.05 N.I.N.I.	Daytime Nighttime Daytime 2.37 ± 0.56 2.46 ± 0.46 3.70 ± 0.78 7.34 ± 0.86 3.81 ± 0.53 13.67 ± 1.59 0.22 ± 0.04 0.22 ± 0.04 0.13 ± 0.03 8.24 ± 1.54 11.13 ± 1.85 3.26 ± 0.71 0.01 ± 0.01 N.I. 0.05 ± 0.03 0.20 ± 0.05 0.17 ± 0.05 0.17 ± 0.05 N.I. N.I. 4.18 ± 3.55	Daytime Nighttime Daytime Nighttime 2.37 ± 0.56 2.46 ± 0.46 3.70 ± 0.78 2.24 ± 0.51 7.34 ± 0.86 3.81 ± 0.53 13.67 ± 1.59 13.10 ± 1.55 0.22 ± 0.04 0.22 ± 0.04 0.13 ± 0.03 0.27 ± 0.05 8.24 ± 1.54 11.13 ± 1.85 3.26 ± 0.71 3.86 ± 0.71 0.01 ± 0.01 N.I. 0.05 ± 0.03 0.03 ± 0.01 0.20 ± 0.05 0.17 ± 0.05 0.17 ± 0.05 0.07 ± 0.02 N.I. N.I. 4.18 ± 3.55 3.60 ± 1.20	Daytime Nighttime Daytime Nighttime Daytime 2.37 ± 0.56 2.46 ± 0.46 3.70 ± 0.78 2.24 ± 0.51 1.43 ± 0.41 7.34 ± 0.86 3.81 ± 0.53 13.67 ± 1.59 13.10 ± 1.55 2.93 ± 0.41 0.22 ± 0.04 0.22 ± 0.04 0.13 ± 0.03 0.27 ± 0.05 0.40 ± 0.06 8.24 ± 1.54 11.13 ± 1.85 3.26 ± 0.71 3.86 ± 0.71 9.74 ± 1.20 0.01 ± 0.01 N.I. 0.05 ± 0.03 0.03 ± 0.01 0.01 ± 0.01 0.20 ± 0.05 0.17 ± 0.05 0.17 ± 0.05 0.07 ± 0.02 0.16 ± 0.04 N.I. N.I. 4.18 ± 3.55 3.60 ± 1.20 N.I.	Daytime Nighttime Daytime Nighttime Daytime Nighttime Nighttime Nighttime 2.37 ± 0.56 2.46 ± 0.46 3.70 ± 0.78 2.24 ± 0.51 1.43 ± 0.41 * 7.34 ± 0.86 3.81 ± 0.53 13.67 ± 1.59 13.10 ± 1.55 2.93 ± 0.41 * 0.22 ± 0.04 0.22 ± 0.04 0.13 ± 0.03 0.27 ± 0.05 0.40 ± 0.06 * 8.24 ± 1.54 11.13 ± 1.85 3.26 ± 0.71 3.86 ± 0.71 9.74 ± 1.20 * 0.01 ± 0.01 N.I. 0.05 ± 0.03 0.03 ± 0.01 0.01 ± 0.01 * 0.20 ± 0.05 0.17 ± 0.05 0.17 ± 0.05 0.07 ± 0.02 0.16 ± 0.04 * N.I. N.I. 4.18 ± 3.55 3.60 ± 1.20 N.I. *	Daytime Nighttime Daytime Nighttime Daytime Nighttime Daytime Daytime	

⁶ N. I. means Not Important. * samples were discarded due to poor CMB performance.

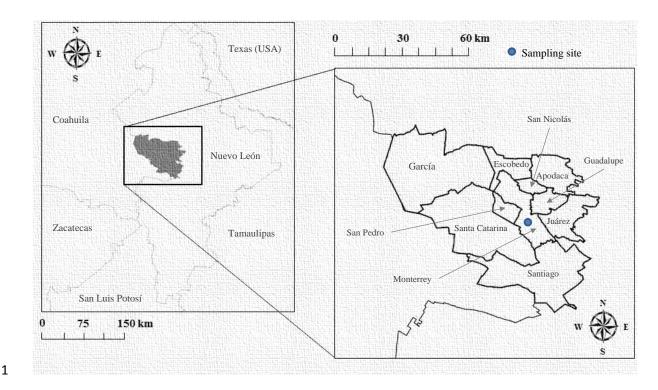


Figure 1. Location and municipalities of the Monterrey Metropolitan Area (MMA); the sampling site was set up in the downtown.

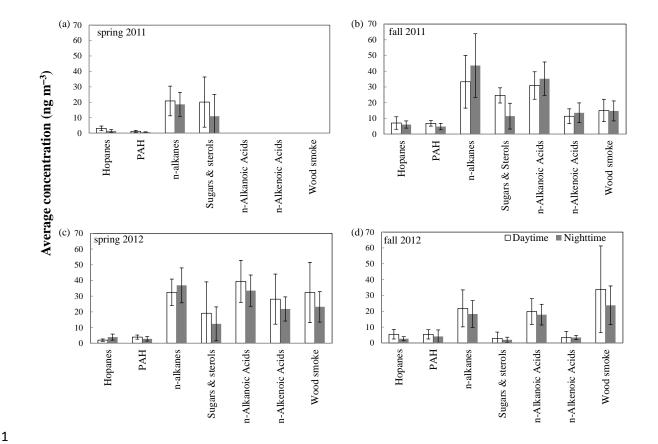


Figure 2. Concentrations of the resolved organic compound classes in the MMA. For (a) the n-Alkanoic and Alkenoic acids and wood smoke tracer were not included in the chemical analysis. For (b), (c) and (d) the *n*-alkanoic acids are divided by a factor of 10.

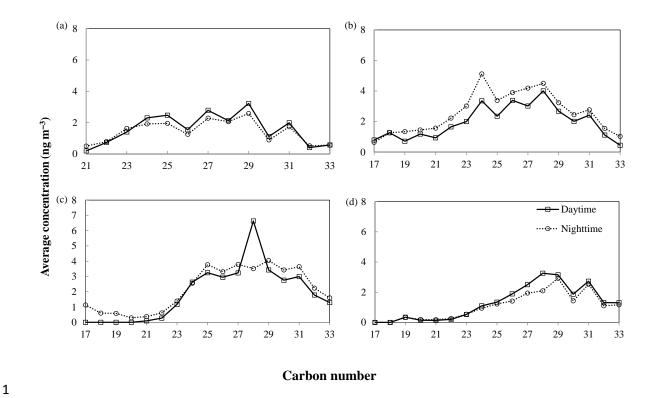


Figure 3. Carbon number distribution of *n*-alkanes in the Monterrey Metropolitan Area (MMA) for (a) spring 2011, (b) fall 2011, (c) spring 2012 and (d) fall 2012. The black line is the daytime concentrations while the dot line is the line represents the daytime concentrations while the dotted line represents the nighttime concentrations.

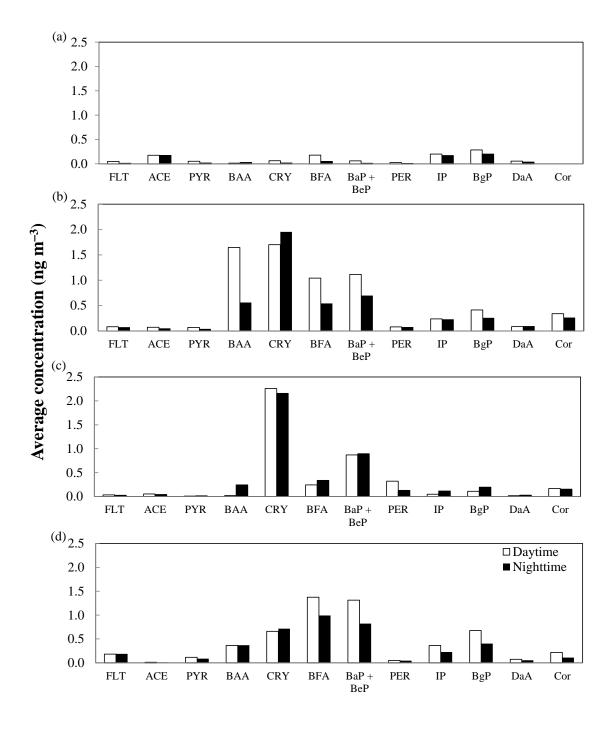


Figure 4. Mass concentration distribution of PAHs in the Monterrey Metropolitan Area (MMA) for (a) spring 2011, (b) fall 2011, (c) spring 2012 and (d) fall 2012. Coronene was included in all monitoring campaigns, except in the spring 2011.

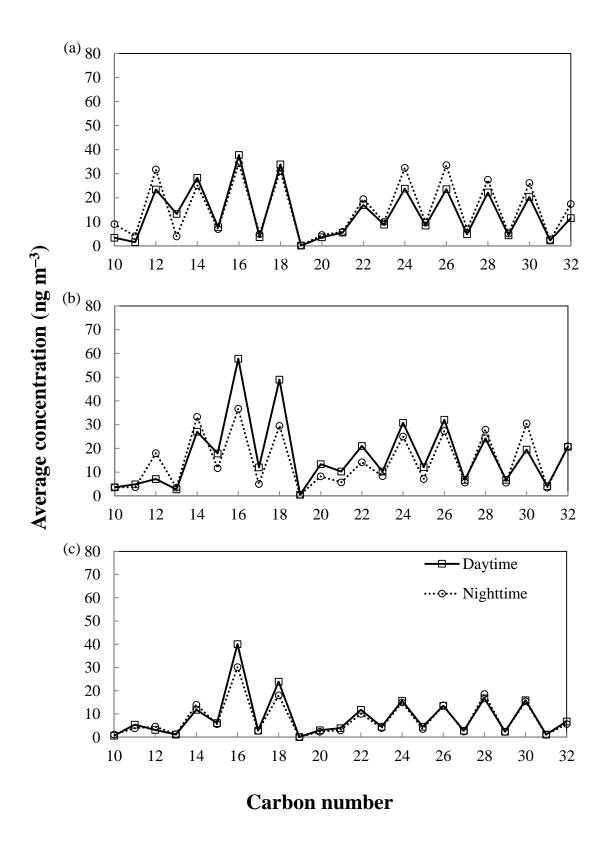
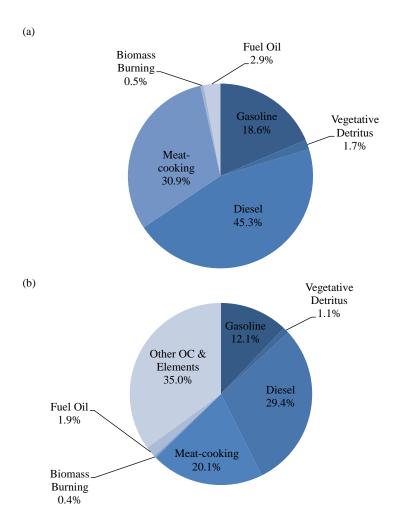


Figure 5. Carbon number distribution of *n*-alkanoic acids in the Monterrey Metropolitan Area (MMA) for (a) fall 2001, (b) spring 2012 and (c) fall 2012. The black line represents the daytime concentrations while the dot line represents the nighttime concentrations.



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2 Figure 6. CMB contributions to the (a) average identified ambient PM_{2.5} in the MMA and to

3 the (b) overall PM2.5 including the unidentified mass of the measured $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations.