



30 continental site reflected shorter lifetime during the day, possibly because of photolysis of  
31 some NPAHs. The yields of formation of 2NFLT and 2-nitropyrene (2NPYR) in marine air  
32 seem to be close to the yields for OH-initiated photochemistry observed in laboratory  
33 experiments under high NO<sub>x</sub> conditions. Good agreement is found for prediction of NPAH  
34 gas-particle partitioning using a multi-phase poly-parameter linear free energy relationship.  
35 Sorption to soot is found less significant for gas-particle partitioning of NPAHs than for  
36 PAHs. The NPAH levels determined in the southeastern outflow of Europe confirm  
37 intercontinental transport potential.

38

39 **Keywords:** long-range transport potential, semi-volatile organic compounds, PAH  
40 photochemistry,

41

## 42 **1. Introduction**

43 PAHs may undergo chemical transformations in the gaseous and in the particulate phase  
44 (Finlayson-Pitts and Pitts, 2000; Keyte et al., 2013). Nitro-PAHs (NPAHs) observed in urban  
45 and rural areas (Nielsen et al., 1984; Feilberg et al., 2001; Finlayson-Pitts and Pitts, 2000;  
46 Keyte et al., 2013) and predicted based on smog-chamber experiments (Atkinson and Arey,  
47 1994), seem to be most significant derivatives: Mutagenicity of atmospheric aerosols in  
48 general is mostly related to NPAHs (Grosjean et al., 1983; Garner et al., 1986; Finlayson-Pitts  
49 and Pitts, 2000; Claxton et al., 2004; Hayakawa, 2016). A large part, more than one third, of  
50 the mutagen potential of ambient aerosols may be attributable to NPAHs (Schuetzle, 1983).

51 Secondary formation of NPAH from PAHs is thought to occur on short time scales (hours).  
52 This has been observed for PAHs collected on filters (Ringuet et al., 2012a; Zimmermann et  
53 al., 2013; Jaryasopit et al., 2014a, 2014b), and also in urban plumes (Bamford and Baker,  
54 2003; Arey et al., 1989; Reisen and Arey, 2005). Although many NPAHs are emitted from  
55 road traffic, only a few are abundant in this source type (Arey, 1998; Keyte et al., 2013 and  
56 2016; Inomata et al., 2015; Alves et al., 2016). The occurrence of various isomers of  
57 nitrofluoranthene (NFLT) and nitropyrene (NPYR) can be used to study PAH sources, PAH  
58 chemical transformations and the role of the photo-oxidants hydroxyl radical (OH) and nitrate  
59 radical (NO<sub>3</sub>) (Ciccioli et al., 1996; Finlayson-Pitts and Pitts 2000). E.g., 3- and 2-  
60 nitrofluoranthene (3-, 2NFLT) are indicative of primary and secondary sources, respectively.  
61 These substances have been suggested as tracers for air pollution on the time scales of hours

62 to days (Ciccioli et al., 1996; Finlayson-Pitts and Pitts 2000; Keyte et al. 2013), but their  
63 atmospheric lifetimes are still unknown.

64 Like their precursors, NPAHs are semivolatile organic compounds (SVOCs), partitioning  
65 between the phases of the atmospheric aerosol. Similar to other SVOCs, the NPAHs' phase  
66 distribution was found to depend on temperature (summer and winter campaigns in the Alps;  
67 Albinet et al., 2008b) and results from both absorptive as well as adsorptive contributions  
68 (Tomaz et al., 2016). NPAHs have primarily been observed in polluted areas (e.g. Pitts et al.,  
69 1985; Ramdahl et al., 1986; Garner et al., 1986; Albinet et al., 2007 and 2008a; Ringuet et al.,  
70 2012a and 2012b; Zimmermann et al., 2012; Barrado et al., 2013; Li et al., 2016). Though  
71 there are a few studies in rural environments i.e., in Germany (Ciccioli et al., 1996), in the  
72 French Alps (100-1000 pg m<sup>-3</sup> range for the sum of 10 NPAHs; Albinet et al., 2008a) and in  
73 northern China (Li et al., 2016). Very few measurements have been performed in the remote  
74 atmospheric environment i.e., in the Mediterranean (Tsapakis and Stephanou, 2007), high  
75 altitude sites in the Himalayas (single data; Ciccioli et al. 1996) and French Alps (Albinet et  
76 al., 2008a), and in the Arctic (with so-called Arctic haze; Masplet et al. 1988; Halsall et al.  
77 2001). With regard to the long-range transport potential, the state of the knowledge is that at  
78 least some NPAHs are expected to go into intercontinental transport (Lafontaine et al., 2015)  
79 and might be ubiquitous in the global atmosphere (Ciccioli et al., 1996).

80 However, there is limited NPAH data from remote atmospheric environments is obvious and  
81 little is known about their long-range transport potential. The aim of this study was to  
82 characterise the long-range transport potential of NPAHs by measurements at remote sites of  
83 Europe, addressing the continental background and the outflow of the continent.

84

## 85 **2. Methodology**

### 86 **2.1 Sampling**

87 High-volume air sampling was conducted at a marine background site, Finokalia  
88 (35.3°N/25.7°E, 250 m a.s.l.), in the context of a coordinated field experiment 2-13 July 2012  
89 (Lammel et al., 2015) and at a continental background site in central Europe, K-pusztá  
90 (46°58'N/19°33'E, 125 m a.s.l.; Degrendele et al., 2016), 5-16 August 2013. The Finokalia site  
91 is located on a cliff at the northern coast of Crete, some 70 km east of major significant  
92 anthropogenic emissions (Iraklion, a city of 100000 inhabitants with airport and industries;  
93 Mihalopoulos et al., 1997; Kouvarakis et al., 2000). The K-pusztá site is located on a clearing,  
94 characterised by uncultivated grassland, in a mostly coniferous forest in the Hungarian

95 (Pannonian) Great Plain, ca. 70 km and 270 km southeast of Budapest and Vienna,  
96 respectively ( $\approx 2$  mn inhabitants each). The background site character of both observatories  
97 had been demonstrated (Borbély-Kiss et al., 1988; Kouvarakis et al., 2000; Vrekoussis et al.,  
98 2005). Meteorological and trace gas measurements are covered by both observatories, which  
99 are stations of the EMEP network (EMEP, 2015).

100 High volume air samples were collected using a HV-100P (Baghirra, Prague, Czech  
101 Republic), equipped with a multi-stage cascade impactor (Andersen Instruments Inc.,  
102 Fultonville, New York, USA, series 230, model 235) with five impactor stages, corresponding  
103 to 10–7.2, 7.2–3, 3–1.5, 1.5–0.95 and 0.95–0.49  $\mu\text{m}$  of aerodynamic particle size,  $D$ , (spaced  
104 roughly equal  $\Delta \log D$ ), a backup filter collecting particles  $< 0.49 \mu\text{m}$  and, downstream, two  
105 polyurethane foam plugs (PUFs, Molitan, Břeclav, Czech Republic, density  $0.030 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$ ,  
106 placed in a glass cartridge), together 10 cm high. Particles were sampled on slotted QFF  
107 substrates (TE-230-QZ, Tisch Environmental Inc., Cleves, USA,  $14.3 \times 13.7 \text{ cm}$ ) and glass  
108 fibre filters (Whatman,  $20.3 \times 25.4 \text{ cm}$ ). The filters had been cleaned prior to use by heating  
109 108 ( $330^\circ\text{C}$ ). PUFs were cleaned (8 hour-extraction in acetone and 8 hours in  
110 dichloromethane (DCM)), wrapped in two layers of aluminum foil, placed into zip-lock  
111 polyethylene bags and kept in the freezer prior to deployment. The sampler was operated at  
112 constant flow rate of  $68 \text{ m}^3 \text{ h}^{-1}$ . Day/night sampling (changing at sunset and sunrise) of  
113 gaseous samples (PUF) was performed at both sites ( $V = 600\text{-}1000 \text{ m}^3$ ), while at the marine  
114 site the impactor filter (QFF) samples were collected over 24 h (5) or 48 h (3).

115 PUFs were cleaned (8 hour-extraction in acetone and 8 hours in dichloromethane (DCM)),  
116 wrapped in two layers of aluminum foil, placed into zip-lock polyethylene bags and kept in  
117 the freezer prior to deployment. The sampler was operated at constant flow rate of  $68 \text{ m}^3 \text{ h}^{-1}$ .  
118 Day/night sampling of gaseous samples (PUF) was performed at both sites (12 h,  $V \approx 700 \text{ m}^3$ ),  
119 while at the marine site the impactor filter (QFF) samples were collected over 12 h ( $n = 1$ ), 24  
120 h (4) or 48 h (3).

121 Particle number concentration,  $N$ , was determined by an optical particle counter (Grimm  
122 model 107, Airring, 31 channels between 0.25 and 32  $\mu\text{m}$  of aerodynamic particle diameter,  
123  $D$ ). Aerosol surface concentration,  $S \text{ (cm}^{-1}\text{)}$ , was derived as  $S = \pi \sum_i N_i D_i^2$  assuming  
124 sphericity. Hereby, true  $S$  will be underestimated, in particular if particles of irregular form  
125 were abundant (e.g. Jaenicke, 1988). Comparisons with absolute methods (e.g. Pandis, et al.  
126 1991) suggest that the discrepancy may reach up to a factor of 2-3. The mass median diameter

127 ( $D_m$ ,  $\mu\text{m}$ ), was derived as  $\log D_m = \frac{\sum_i m_i \log D_i}{\sum_i m_i}$  with  $m_i$  denoting the mass in size class  
128  $i$ ,  $D_i$  being the geometric mean diameter collected on stage  $i$  of the cascade impactor.

129

## 130 **2.2 Chemical analysis**

131 All air samples were extracted with DCM using an automatic warm Soxhlet extractor (Büchi  
132 B-811, Switzerland). Deuterated PAHs (D8-naphthalene, D10-phenanthrene, D12-perylene;  
133 Wellington Laboratories, Canada) were used as surrogate standards for both PAHs and  
134 NPAHs. Deuterated PAHs proved to be suitable surrogate standards for NPAHs. These were  
135 spiked on each PUF prior to extraction. The extract was split in two parts, 1/9 for PAHs and  
136 Nitro-PAHs analysis, 9/10 for PBDEs, PCBs and OCPs. The PAHs and Nitro-PAHs aliquot  
137 was a subject to open column chromatography clean-up. Glass column (1 cm i.d.) was filled  
138 with 5 g activated silica (150°C for 12 h), sample was loaded and eluted with 10 mL *n*-  
139 hexane, followed by 40 mL DCM. The cleaned sample was evaporated under a stream of  
140 nitrogen in a TurboVap II apparatus (Biotage, Sweden), transferred into a conical GC vial and  
141 spiked with recovery standard, terphenyl, the volume was reduced to 100  $\mu\text{L}$ .

142 GC-MS analysis of 4-ring PAHs (fluoranthene (FLT), pyrene (PYR), benzo(b)fluorene  
143 (BBN), benzo(a)anthracene (BAA), triphenylene (TPH) and chrysene (CHR)) and 2-4 ring  
144 NPAHs (1- and 2-nitronaphthalin (1-, 2NNAP), 3- and 5-nitroacenaphthene (3-, 5NACE), 2-  
145 nitrofluorene (2NFLN), 9-nitroanthracen (9NANT), 3- and 9-nitrophenanthren (3-, 9NPHE),  
146 2- and 3-nitrofluoranthene (2-, 3NFLT), 1- and 2-nitropyrene (1-, 2NPYR), 7-  
147 nitrobenz(a)anthracene (7NBAA), 6-nitrochrysene (6NCHR) was performed using a gas  
148 chromatograph atmospheric pressure chemical ionization tandem mass spectrometer (GC-  
149 APCI-MS/MS) instrument, Agilent 7890A GC (Agilent, USA), equipped with a 60m  $\times$   
150 0.25mm  $\times$  0.25 $\mu\text{m}$  DB-5MSUI column (Agilent, J&W, USA), coupled to Waters Xevo TQ-S  
151 (Waters, UK). Injection was 1  $\mu\text{L}$  splitless at 280°C, with He as carrier gas at constant flow  
152 1.5 mL  $\text{min}^{-1}$ . The GC oven temperature program was as follows: 90°C (1 min), 40°C/min  
153 to 150°C, 5°C/min to 250°C (5 min) and 10°C/min to 320°C (5 min). APCI was used in  
154 charge transfer conditions. The isomers 2- and 3NFLT were not separated by the GC method,  
155 but co-eluted and are reported as sum.

156 Recovery of native analytes varied 72-102% for PAHs and deuterated PAHs, 70-110% for  
157 NPAHs (details see supplementary material (SM), Table S1a). The results were not recovery  
158 corrected. The mean of field blank values was subtracted from the sample values. Values  
159 below the mean + 3 standard deviations of the field blank values were considered to be

160 <LOQ. Field blank values of some analytes in air samples were below the instrument limit of  
161 quantification (ILOQ), which corresponded to 0.004-0.069 pg m<sup>-3</sup> for NPAHs (except for  
162 1NNAP for which it ranged 0.60-0.87 pg m<sup>-3</sup>) and 0.010-0.126 pg m<sup>-3</sup> for 4-ring PAHs  
163 (except for FLT and PYR for which it ranged 0.17-0.59 pg m<sup>-3</sup>) (Table S1).

164 Higher LOQs were determined for some of the NPAHs and for all 4-ring PAHs in gaseous air  
165 samples (PUFs), namely 0.006-0.009 ng (corresponding to 3.5-8.0 pg m<sup>-3</sup>) for 3NACE and  
166 2NPYR, 0.028-0.097 (corresponding to 16-86 pg m<sup>-3</sup>) for 2NNAP, 2NFLT and 1NPYR, and  
167 0.10-0.27 ng (corresponding to ≈60-240 pg m<sup>-3</sup>) for 4-ring PAHs (except for FLT and PYR for  
168 which it was 1.71 and 1.05 ng, respectively, corresponding to ≈600-1500 pg m<sup>-3</sup>). In  
169 particulate phase samples, where separate field blanks for the 2 different QFFs were  
170 determined (on the impactor stages on one hand side and the backup filter on the other hand  
171 side), higher LOQs were determined for some of the NPAHs and for all 4-ring PAHs, namely  
172 0.008-0.089 ng (corresponding to 4.6-79 pg m<sup>-3</sup>) for 2NNAP, 2NFLT, 1NPYR and 2NPYR,  
173 0.26-0.31 ng (corresponding to 150-274 pg m<sup>-3</sup>) for 9NANT, and 0.05-0.22 ng (corresponding  
174 to ≈30-200 pg m<sup>-3</sup>) for 4-ring PAHs (except for FLT and PYR for which it was 0.79 and 0.36  
175 ng, respectively, corresponding to ≈200-700 pg m<sup>-3</sup>).

176 The breakthrough in PUF samples was estimated (Pankow, 1989; ACD, 2015; Melymuk et  
177 al., 2016), and as a consequence, 2-3 ring PAHs and 2-ring NPAHs results were excluded  
178 from this study as their sampling may have been incomplete. We, therefore, report  $\Sigma_6$  4rPAH  
179 and  $\Sigma_{11}$  3-4rNPAH.

180 Particulate matter mass (PM<sub>10</sub>) was determined by gravimetry (microbalance, filters  
181 accommodated to stable temperature and humidity, 3 replicate weighings), and organic matter  
182 (OM) and elemental carbon (EC) contents of PM by a thermal-optical method (Sunset Lab.,  
183 USA; EUSAAR protocol).

184

### 185 **2.3 Gas-particle partitioning**

186 Gas-particle partitioning was studied by applying a multiphase ppLFFER model, which was  
187 recently introduced (Shahpoury et al., 2016). In brief, partitioning of semivolatile compounds  
188 in air can be described (Yamasaki et al., 1982), by

189

$$190 \quad (1) \quad K_p = c_{ip} / (c_{ig} \times c_{PM})$$

191

192 where  $K_p$  ( $\text{m}^3 \text{air} (\text{g PM})^{-1}$ ) is the temperature dependent partitioning coefficient,  $c_{\text{PM}}$  ( $\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) is  
193 the concentration of particulate matter in air,  $c_{\text{ip}}$  and  $c_{\text{ig}}$  are the analyte (i) concentrations ( $\text{ng}$   
194  $\text{m}^{-3}$ ) in the particulate and gas phase, respectively.  $K_p$  can be predicted using models based on  
195 single- and poly-parameter linear free energy relationships (spLFER, ppLFER). spLFER's  
196 relate the partitioning coefficient to one physic-chemical property i.e., assume one process to  
197 determine the sorption process, while ppLFER's in principle account for all types of  
198 molecular interactions between solute and matrix (Goss and Schwarzenbach, 2001). The  
199 observed particulate mass fraction data,  $\theta = c_p / (c_g + c_p)$  (Table 2), were tested with both a  
200 spLFER and a ppLFER model. The spLFER chosen is the widely used  $K_{\text{oa}}$  model of Finizio et  
201 al., 1997 (results presented in the Supplementary material (SM), S2.3). The ppLFER is a  
202 multi-phase model recently presented (Shahpoury et al., 2016) and applied for NPAHs  
203 (Tomaz et al., 2016). It is based on linear solvation energy relationships (Abraham, 1993;  
204 Goss, 2005):

205

206 (2)  $\log K_p = eE + sS + aA + bB + lL + c$

207 (3)  $\log K_p = sS + aA + bB + vV + lL + c$

208

209 where capital letters E, S, A, B, L, and V are solute-specific Abraham solvation parameters for  
210 excess molar refraction (describes interactions between  $\pi$ - and lone (n-) electron pairs),  
211 polarizability/ dipolarity, solute H-bond acidity, solute H-bond basicity, logarithm of solute  
212 hexadecane-air partitioning coefficient (unitless), and McGowan molar volume ( $\text{cm}^3$   
213  $\text{mol}^{-1}$ )/100, respectively (Endo and Goss, 2014). The corresponding parameters e, s, a, b, l,  
214 and v reflect matrix-specific solute-independent contribution to  $K_p$ . In lack of experimental  
215 data, the solute descriptors for NPAHs were taken from M.H. Abraham (personal  
216 communication). The multi-phase ppLFER considers adsorption onto soot,  $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ , and  
217  $\text{NH}_4\text{Cl}$ , and absorption into particulate organic matter (OM). OM is assumed to be constituted  
218 of two separate phases, low to mid molecular mass, both organic soluble and water soluble  
219 OM. For these, ppLFER equations for dimethyl sulfoxide-air (representing the low molecular  
220 mass range) and for polyurethane ether-air (representing the high molecular mass OM) are  
221 used, respectively (Shahpoury et al., 2016).

222 A conventional single-parameter LFER ( $K_{\text{oa}}$ ) model is applied, too.

223

## 224 **2.4 Air mass history analysis**

225 The HYSPLIT (Draxler and Rolph, 2003) and FLEXPART (Stohl et al., 1998, 2005) models  
226 were used to identify air mass histories over 10 and 2 days, respectively. The possible  
227 influence of polluted air on samples was quantified using a novel method of applying  
228 Lagrangian particle statistics (FLEXPART, see SM, S2.2). To this end, for the entire sampling  
229 period, one particle per second was released. The model output is generated at  $0.062^\circ$  ( $\approx 7$   
230 km), every 30 minutes and expressed as 'residence time' i.e., a measure of the time particles  
231 resided in grid cells. ECMWF meteorological data ( $0.125^\circ \times 0.125^\circ$  resolution, hourly) were  
232 used as input.

233

## 234 **2.5 Quantification of urban influence on samples**

235 The potential urban influence for individual samples collected at the marine site was based on  
236 the fraction of released Lagrangian particles which travelled through an urban boundary layer.  
237 A backward run from the sampling site was performed with Lagrangian particles (i.e. air  
238 parcels) being released during the entire sampling period. Three urban areas were considered,  
239 i.e. Izmir ( $\approx 300$  km direct distance,  $38.2\text{-}38.8^\circ\text{N}/26.2\text{-}27.3^\circ\text{E}$ ), Athens ( $\approx 300$  km,  $37.8\text{-}$   
240  $38.1^\circ\text{N}/23.5\text{-}23.8^\circ\text{E}$ ) and Istanbul ( $\approx 500$  km away,  $40.8\text{-}41.1^\circ\text{N}/28.6\text{-}29.5^\circ\text{E}$ ).

241 The urban fractional dose,  $D_{u\ i}$ , an air mass collected in sample  $i$  had received for a given  
242 simulation period  $\Delta t$  can be derived as:

243

$$244 \quad (4) \quad D_{u\ i} = \sum_t N_{\text{blua}}(t) \times \Delta t_{\text{Rblua}} / (N_{\text{tot}}(t) \times \Delta t_i)$$

245

246 with  $N_{\text{blua}}(t)$  = number of virtual particles within the urban boundary layer during the specific  
247 time step, model output time resolution  $\Delta t_{\text{Rblua}} = 0.5$  h, and  $N_{\text{tot}}(t)$  = number of virtual  
248 particles present during the specific time step. Under the given flow conditions in the region, a  
249 2-day time horizon is considered her. Hence, the simulation period is given as:

250

$$251 \quad (5) \quad \Delta t_i = \Delta t_{\text{sample}} + 48\text{h}$$

252



253 with  $\Delta t_{\text{sample}}$  being the sampling time.  $D_{u i}$  takes values between 0 and 1, corresponding to  
254 none or all, respectively, of the entire sample air having crossed the urban boundary layer. The  
255  $D_u$  time series with allocation to 3 urban areas is shown in the SM, Fig. S3.

256 The comparison of urban influence in samples of various sample volume,  $V$ , requires  
257 normalisation to  $V$ , a relative dose (equ. (5), with  $n$  = total number of samples collected).  
258 Values of  $D_{ru i}$  may exceed 1.

259

$$260 \quad (6) \quad D_{ru i} = [\sum_n V_n / (nV_i)] \times D_{u i}$$

261

262 The urban fractional dose,  $D_{u i}$ , accuracy is limited by the meteorological input data (here  
263  $0.125^\circ \times 0.125^\circ$  resolution, hourly) and boundary layer depth calculation. In the FLEXPART  
264 model, the latter is done according to Vogelezang and Holtslag, 1996.

265

### 266 **3. Results and discussion**

267 The NPAH levels are distinctly lower at the marine than at the continental site,  $\sum_{11 \text{ 3-4r}} \text{NPAH} =$   
268  $22.5$  and  $58.5 \text{ pg m}^{-3}$ , respectively (Table 1). The NPAHs showing the highest concentrations  
269 were 2NFLT and 3NPHE at the marine (Fig. 1b) and 9NANT and 2NFLT at the continental  
270 site (Fig. 1d, Table 2). The substance patterns (composition of NPAH mixture) at both sites  
271 are similar, though ( $R^2 = 0.76$ ,  $P > 0.99$ , t-test). At the marine site, advection was northerly,  
272 with air masses originating (time horizon 10 days) in eastern and central Europe and, towards  
273 the end of the campaign, in the western Mediterranean. The site was placed into the  
274 southeastern outflow of Europe.  $\text{NO}_x$  ( $0.2\text{-}0.6 \text{ ppbv}$ ), EC ( $0.2\text{-}0.8 \text{ } \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) and  $\text{PM}_{10}$  ( $18.3\text{-}39.3$   
275  $\text{ } \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) reflect background conditions. Air mass history analysis suggests that the somewhat  
276 elevated concentration in the first sample collected at the marine site (Fig. 1a) is related to  
277 long-range transport influenced by passage over the urban areas of Izmir and Istanbul (urban  
278 fractional dose  $D_u = 5.0\%$ , in contrast to the mean which was  $1.6\%$ ; Fig. S3). Overall, urban  
279 fractional dose in the range  $<0.002\text{-}5.4\%$  was received at the marine site. Across all samples  
280 at the marine site,  $D_u$  is found to be significantly correlated with the pollutant sum  
281 concentrations  $\sum_{6 \text{ 4r}} \text{PAH}$  and  $\sum_{11 \text{ 3-4r}} \text{NPAH}$  ( $R^2 = 0.61$  and  $0.69$ , respectively, both  $P > 0.99$ ).

282 From the marine site data set, subsets of each two samples are formed, representing minimum  
283 (i.e., almost no influence from industrialised area 48 hours prior to arrival (hereforth called

284 'marine background', urban fractional dose  $D_u = 0.4\%$ ) and maximum observed influence  
285 (hereforth called 'background with urban influence',  $D_u = 3.1\%$ ; SM Table S2, Figure S3).  
286 The results for these subsets are listed in Tables 1-3. Such classification was not deemed  
287 meaningful for the samples collected at the continental site, as the relevant source distribution  
288 in central Europe was too homogeneous during this episode. Advection was mostly from  
289 northwest and partly from easterly directions, with air mass origin (time horizon of 10 days)  
290 mostly in central Europe and, to a lesser extent in eastern Europe and the western Balkans.  
291 The  $\text{NO}_2$  (1.2-2.6 ppbv), total carbon (3-6  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) and  $\text{PM}_{10}$  (10.7-46.3  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) levels during  
292 the campaign reflect continental background conditions.

293 The 4-ring PAH concentrations in samples from the continental site on the one hand, and in  
294 background air with urban influence collected at the marine site (urban areas 300-500 km  
295 away) on the other hand, are similar (Table 2). Also, the substance patterns are more similar  
296 than when relating all samples at the marine site i.e.,  $R^2 = 0.88$  ( $P > 0.999$ , t-test) instead of  $R^2$   
297  $= 0.76$ . The investigation of the diffusive air-surface exchange processes during the  
298 measurements presented here showed that 4rPAHs were in fact influenced by secondary  
299 emissions, namely throughout day and night from the soil at the continental site (by average  
300 16.3 and 9.3  $\text{pg m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$  for FLT and PYR, respectively; Degrendele et al., 2016) or  
301 occasionally from surface seawater at the marine site (during at least 1 day-time interval out of  
302 in total 3 of this data subset; Lammel et al., 2016). In the data set from the continental site, we  
303 study day/night (D/N) effects (subsets listed in Tables 1-3, too): PAH concentrations ( $c_{\text{tot}}$ )  
304 were  $\approx 60\%$  higher during the day than during the night, while  $c_{\text{tot}}$  of NPAH were by average  
305  $\approx 5\%$  lower during the day (Table 2). NPAHs are subject to photolysis, while PAHs are not. At  
306 the site, the PAH concentrations were driven by re-volatilisation from soil, determined by  
307 temperature variation (Degrendele et al., 2016). For NPAHs (partly primary emitted) this  
308 indicates that the higher emissions during the day (due to re-volatilisation and road traffic)  
309 were compensated by shorter lifetime. NPAH lifetimes may be limited by heterogeneous  
310 photolysis, but available kinetic data are scarce and limited to few aerosol types (Fan et al.,  
311 1996; Feilberg and Nielsen, 2000, 2001; García-Berríos et al., 2017). Also, different  
312 NPAH/PAH ratios (the potential NPAH yields), which were 5.6% and 8.9% at the marine and  
313 continental sites, respectively, reflect the combination of emission sources and photochemical  
314 sinks. The NPAH/PAH ratios at the two sites were influenced by similar substance patterns  
315 upon emission, similar irradiation (summer, no or almost no clouds) and deposition velocities  
316 ( $\theta$  in the range 0.05-0.20 for  $\sum_{11} 3\text{-}4\text{rNPAH}$  and  $\sum_6 4\text{rPAH}$ , no precipitation), but different re-

317 volatilisation fluxes and different characteristic transport times elapsed. Distance to major  
318 urban source areas was 300- >1000 km at the marine and 100-500 km at the continental site.  
319 The NPAH/PAH ratios being lower at the more distant receptor site, the marine site, may  
320 suggest that photochemical degradation of NPAHs along transport was on average faster than  
321 degradation of the precursors. xxx

322  
323 The NPAH levels observed in marine background air are the lowest ever reported.  
324 Remarkably, the concentrations are much lower, by more than one order of magnitude, than  
325 one decade before at the same site during the same season (Tsapakis and Stephanou, 2007).  
326 The concentrations observed now are a factor of 4-10 lower than in a forest site in Amazonia  
327 two decades before (which might have been influenced by biomass burning emissions), a  
328 factor of 3 lower (for 2NPYR) than observed at an extremely remote site in the Himalayas two  
329 decades before (Ciccioli et al., 1996), and comparable to a high altitude site in the Alps (with  
330 the exception of 2NPYR which was observed one order of magnitude higher there in winter;  
331 Albinet et al., 2008a; Table 3). The NPAH levels observed at the marine site with influence of  
332 pollution and at the continental site are comparable, but also at the lower end of the range  
333 spanned by previous observations at rural and remote sites (Table 3).

334

### 335 **Gas-particle partitioning**

336 The time-weighted mean NPAH phase distributions ( $\Sigma_{11}3\text{-}4\text{rNPAH}$ ) differ, corresponding to  $\theta$   
337 = 0.05 and 0.17 at the marine and continental sites, respectively, – despite similar  
338 temperatures (Table 1). In contrast and despite of similar temperature ranges, the 4-ring  
339 PAHs' ( $\Sigma_64\text{rPAH}$ ) particulate mass fraction was higher at the marine than at the continental  
340 site ( $\theta = 0.42$  and  $0.20$ , respectively). Both 4-ring PAHs and 3-4 ring NPAHs were more  
341 associated with PM in polluted air than in clean air. This trend is weak for PAHs with  $\theta =$   
342  $0.02$  for  $\Sigma_64\text{rPAH}$  in marine background but  $0.07$  in background with urban influence (and  $\theta$   
343 =  $0.09$  and  $0.20$  for CHR; Table 2), but is obviously strong for NPAHs, namely  $\theta = 0.19$  for  
344 2NPYR in marine background but  $0.69$  in background with urban influence,  $\approx 0.93$  in polluted  
345 continental air, and  $\theta = 0.01$  for  $\Sigma_{11}3\text{-}4\text{rNPAH}$  in marine background but  $0.22$  in background  
346 with urban influence (Table 2). The urban influenced air at the marine site is also reflected in a  
347 much higher OC (a factor of 3 higher than the all-campaign mean) and elevated EC, (less  
348 prominent,  $\approx 50\%$  above mean). This confirms the understanding that gas-particle partitioning

349 of both PAHs (Lohmann and Lammel, 2004; Shahpoury et al., 2016) and NPAHs (Tomaz et  
350 al., 2016) is mostly determined by absorption in POM and adsorption to soot. When  
351 comparing polluted air at the continental site and background with urban influence at the  
352 marine site, a strong shift of  $\Sigma_6$ 4rPAH towards the particulate phase,  $\theta \approx 0.21$  vs. 0.07,  
353 respectively, is found, while for  $\Sigma_{11}$ 3-4rNPAH  $\theta$  are similar i.e.,  $\approx 0.16$  vs. 0.22, respectively.  
354 This phase partitioning trend of the 4rPAHs could be explained by sorption to EC, which is a  
355 factor of  $\approx 2$  higher, but not by OC (only  $\approx 20\%$  higher). In conclusion, these observations  
356 consistently indicate that sorption to soot is less significant for gas-particle partitioning of  
357 NPAHs than for PAHs.

358 While NPAHs were significantly phase-shifted ( $\theta = 0.24$  during day-time but  $\theta = 0.58$  during  
359 night-time), this was not the case for 4rPAHs ( $\theta = 0.18$  during day-time and  $\theta = 0.23$  during  
360 night-time). This is in line with the perception that the temperature sensitivity of phase change  
361 is stronger for the substance class with stronger molecular interactions in the condensed phase,  
362 NPAHs. E.g., the enthalpies of phase change between air and OC of FLT and NFLT are -98  
363 and -75 kJ mol<sup>-1</sup>, respectively (OC represented by DMSO; ACD, 2015).

364 Good agreement is found for the prediction of NPAH partitioning using the multi-phase (3-  
365 phase) ppLFER with most values predicted within one order of magnitude of the observed  
366 values (Fig. 2; quantification of deviations in S2.3.1). While the sensitivity of assumptions  
367 regarding PM phase composition, made in the model do not contribute significantly to the  
368 deviations ( $\ll 1$ , log K<sub>p</sub> units), a significant part can be attributed to the usage of estimated  
369 solute-specific Abraham solvation parameters (taken from ACD, 2015), in lack of  
370 experimentally based descriptors. E.g., for an urban site (Tomaz et al., 2016) it was found that  
371 experimentally based descriptors used for 9NPAH lead to better predictions than the estimated  
372 descriptors i.e., RMSEs differed by 0.43 log units. The agreement of the ppLFER prediction is  
373 better than assuming absorption (into OM) to be the only relevant process (K<sub>oa</sub> model; see  
374 S2.3.2, Fig. S5). The same was found when studying gas-particle partitioning of NPAHs in  
375 urban air (Tomaz et al., 2016). This supports the perception that gas-particle partitioning of  
376 NPAHs is governed by various molecular interactions with OM, with its polarity being well  
377 represented by DMSO, better than by octanol. Earlier, it had been found for eight 3-4rNPAHs  
378 at urban and rural sites (Li et al., 2016) that the dual model, assuming adsorption (to soot) and  
379 absorption (into OM) predicts better than single adsorption (to the total aerosol surface i.e.,  
380 Junge-Pankow) or single absorption (K<sub>oa</sub>) models do.

381 The interactions with the aerosol matrix of 9NPHE (continental site) and 5NACE, 2NFLN,  
382 2NFLT and 1NPYR (marine site) are less well represented than other NPAHs by the model as  
383 suggested by low slopes of their  $\log K_p \text{ experimental} / \log K_p \text{ predicted}$  relationships. The reason is  
384 unknown. Moreover, sampling or sample handling artefacts cannot be excluded, even so same  
385 temperature range, sampler and sampling protocols applied across sites with both satisfactory  
386 and deficient agreement between predicted and observed  $K_p$ . Further conclusions are not  
387 supported by the limited amount of data and uncertainties on both the model (estimated  
388 ppLFER parameters) and experimental (concentrations close to LOQ) sides.

389

### 390 **Mass size distribution**

391 The NPAH mass size distribution had its maximum in the  $<0.49 \mu\text{m}$  size range at both sites.  
392 The 4-ring PAHs mass size distribution had 2 maxima,  $<0.49 \mu\text{m}$  and between 0.95 and 1.5  
393  $\mu\text{m}$ , at the marine site, but one at  $<0.49 \mu\text{m}$  at the continental site (Table 1). This is probably  
394 related to the presence of aged aerosol at the marine site vs. a larger contribution of fresh  
395 aerosols at the continental site. This is, furthermore, supported by the analysis of air mass  
396 origins that shows significant influence of urban areas for only few samples at the marine and  
397 for all samples at the continental site (SM S2).

398 Sums of NPAHs' and PAHs' mass size distributions are found unimodal with the maximum  
399 in particles  $<0.49\mu\text{m}$ , except PAHs at the marine site, which shows a second maximum  
400 between 1.5 and 3.0  $\mu\text{m}$  (Fig. 3). At the marine site, 50 and 69% of 1NPYR and 2NFLT,  
401 respectively, were found associated with particles  $<0.45\mu\text{m}$  and 68 and 86%, respectively,  
402 with particles  $<0.95 \mu\text{m}$ , and even more, 83% and 100%, respectively, with particles  $<0.45\mu\text{m}$   
403 at the continental site.

404  $\Sigma_6$  4rPAH mass size distributions are shifted to larger particles in background with urban  
405 influence as compared to marine background air (both collected at the marine site) i.e., MMD  
406 = 0.19 and 0.28, respectively. However, such a trend is not apparent for NPAHs (Table 2). The  
407 size shift of PAHs is not corresponding to the  $\text{PM}_{10}$  mass size distribution: The MMD of  $\text{PM}_{10}$   
408 for all samples collected at the marine site was 0.58  $\mu\text{m}$ , while it was 1.13 and 0.62  $\mu\text{m}$  in the  
409 marine background and background with urban influence data subsets, respectively. The  $\text{PM}_{10}$   
410 as well as the OC mass size distributions were bimodal with maxima corresponding to  $< 0.49$   
411  $\mu\text{m}$  and 3.0-7.2  $\mu\text{m}$  particles (MMDs listed in Table 2), while the EC mass size distribution  
412 was unimodal, with the maximum concentration in the finest fraction. At the continental site,  
413 the  $\Sigma_{11}$  3-4rNPAH mass size distribution was bimodal with maxima corresponding to  $< 0.49$

414  $\mu\text{m}$  and 7.2-10  $\mu\text{m}$  particles, while the  $\Sigma_6 \text{4rPAH}$  mass size distribution was unimodal, with the  
415 maximum concentration in the finest fraction (for all samples as well as for day and night data  
416 subsets; Table 1).

417 The formation of a second maximum, at larger particles than emitted, reflects the  
418 redistribution of semivolatile organics in an aged aerosol, hence, is expected at receptor sites  
419 such as the marine site. This was also observed in polluted air, at rural and suburban sites, but  
420 not at traffic sites or in winter at a rural site, when primary emissions dominated (unimodal;  
421 Albinet et al., 2008b; Ringuet et al., 2012b).

422

### 423 **Substance patterns and NPAH formation during long-range atmospheric transport**

424 Among the targeted NPAHs and apart from NNAPs, which were highest concentrated,  
425 2NFLT and 3NPHE prevailed at the marine site (accounting together for  $\approx 60\%$  of the NPAH  
426 mass, excluding the NNAPs), while at the continental site 9NANT and 2NFLT prevailed  
427 (accounting for  $\approx 65\%$  together) (Fig. 1, summarised in Fig. S4). The analytical method did not  
428 separate the isomers 2NFLT and 3NFLT, but at receptor sites, far from diesel emissions it  
429 appears justified to assume  $c_{2\text{NFLT}} \gg c_{3\text{NFLT}}$  (Finlayson-Pitts and Pitts, 2000; Zimmermann et  
430 al., 2012). The ratio 1NPYR/2NPYR is higher,  $\approx 1$ , at the continental site than at the marine  
431 site ( $\approx 0.25$ ), which reflects the significance of primary sources for polluted air (Atkinson and  
432 Arey, 1994; Finlayson-Pitts and Pitts, 2000; Zimmermann et al., 2012). This ratio was found  
433 similarly high or even higher at urban sites (Ringuet et al., 2012c; Tomaz et al., 2016).  
434 Similarly, the ratio 2NFLT/1NPYR, the concentration of a secondarily formed over a primary  
435 emitted NPAH, has been used as indicator for fresh emissions (if  $< 5$ ) vs. photochemically  
436 aged air mass (Keyte et al., 2013). These values were  $\gg 5$  in 21 out of 22 and 7 out of 8  
437 samples at the marine and continental sites, respectively. The only sample collected at the  
438 continental site with elevated primary NPAH (2NFLT/1NPYR = 4.3) was possibly influenced  
439 by emissions from Budapest, which was passed by the advected air within the last hours  
440 before arrival. The only sample collected at the marine site with elevated primary NPAH  
441 (2NFLT/1NPYR = 5.9) was indeed directly influenced by emissions into the boundary layer  
442 above the Izmir and Istanbul metropolitan areas (urban fractional dose  $D_u = 5.0\%$  for samples  
443 no. 1 and 2 in Fig. S3). In conclusion, these results from receptor / background sites confirm  
444 the existing knowledge about primary emitted and secondarily formed NPAHs.

445 The ratio of two secondarily formed NPAHs, 2NFLT/2NPYR, indicative for day- vs. night-  
446 time formation paths (Atkinson and Arey, 1994; Ciccioli et al., 1996), is found  $\approx 2$  at the

447 marine and  $\approx 8$  at the continental site (normalised to the precursor ratio i.e.,  
448  $2\text{NFLT}/2\text{NPYR}/(\text{FLT}/\text{PYR})$ ; Table 4). Such low values point to day-time (OH initiated)  
449 formation, while night-time ( $\text{NO}_3$  initiated) formation was negligible, practically excluded at  
450 the marine site. This is in line with the perception that  $\text{NO}_3$  must have been very low in this  
451 remote environment. ( $\text{NO}_x$  levels at the marine site were in the range 0.2-0.6 ppbv). A similar  
452 conclusion had been drawn in a semi-rural environment (Feilberg et al., 2001).

453 For 2NFLT and 2NPYR (secondary sources only) and for 1NPYR, which has mostly primary  
454 sources (Finlayson-Pitts and Pitts, 2000; Ringuet et al., 2012a; Jariyasopit et al., 2014a,  
455 2014b) we infer the potential yields (Table 4). Here, yield is defined as  $c_{\text{NPAH}}/c_{\text{PAH}}$  (total  
456 concentrations). This yield is called ‘potential’ as it reflects an upper estimate, as other PAH  
457 photochemical sinks, such as formation of oxy-PAHs, are neglected. The yield of 2NFLT in  
458 polluted air exceeds the one in background air only slightly, while the yield of 2NPYR in  
459 polluted air exceeds the one in background air much more (a factor of 3 higher).

460 As expected, the highest potential yield of 1NPYR is found in polluted air (both sites),  
461 reflecting the dominance of primary emissions of 1NPYR. Similarly, higher yields of  
462 secondary NPAHs are found for marine background air compared to background air with  
463 urban influence (marine site), reflecting the longer reaction times elapsed since PAH  
464 emission. The yield for 2NFLT,  $c_{2\text{NFLT}}/c_{\text{FLT}}$ ,  $\approx 2\text{-}4\%$  at both sites ranges higher than the one  
465 for 2NPYR,  $c_{2\text{NPYR}}/c_{\text{PYR}}$ , which is found  $\approx 0.5\text{-}2\%$ . Note that because of the co-elution of  
466 2NFLT and 3NFLT, and neglect of 3NFLT, the so derived values of  $c_{2\text{NFLT}}/c_{\text{FLT}}$  represent  
467 actually upper estimates. Apart from sites which were immediately influenced by PAH sources  
468 (road traffic, power plant, biomass burning), only very few studies reported NPAH together  
469 with precursor data in both phases of ambient air.  $c_{2\text{NPYR}}/c_{\text{PYR}} = 1.0\%$ , similar to our finding at  
470 remote sites, but a very high  $c_{2\text{NFLT}}/c_{\text{FLT}} = 12.9\%$  were reported from a suburban site in France  
471 in summer during day-time (corresponding values for night-time were 2.0 and 9.4%,  
472 respectively; Ringuet et al., 2012c). 2NFLT was not separated from 3NFLT (similar to our  
473 data set). A suburban site will be influenced by direct 3NFLT emissions, such that  $c_{2\text{NFLT}}/c_{\text{FLT}}$   
474 is an upper estimate. Much lower ratios,  $c_{2\text{NFLT}}/c_{\text{FLT}} = 0.20\%$  and  $c_{2\text{NPYR}}/c_{\text{PYR}} = 0.08\%$  were  
475 reported as the median values for 90 sites of various categories, rural and urban, in northern  
476 China in summer (Lin et al., 2015). These yields are somewhat higher for the subset of the  
477 rural sites. The potential yields found at the marine site in our study are close to the yields for  
478 OH-initiated photochemistry observed in laboratory experiments under high  $\text{NO}_x$  conditions  
479 i.e., 3% for  $c_{2\text{NFLT}}/c_{\text{FLT}}$  and 0.5% for  $c_{2\text{NPYR}}/c_{\text{PYR}}$  (Atkinson and Arey, 1994).

480

#### 481 **4. Conclusions**

482 For the first time pollution contained in individual background air samples was quantified, by  
483 means of a fractional dose. The fractional dose indicated how much the collected volume of  
484 air had been exposed to an urban boundary layer within a given time horizon. This is found  
485 suitable to discriminate among samples and discuss results, clearly beyond qualitative  
486 reasoning on back trajectories alone. The concept could be applied to any type of  
487 georeferenced origin and might be useful to track the influence of land use of various kind, or  
488 ship and aircraft routes.

489 Our measurements confirmed occurrence of mutagenic NPAHs, earlier reported from polluted  
490 atmospheric environments of America, Europe and Asia, also for the European background  
491 atmosphere and the outflow of Europe. These substances obviously go into intercontinental  
492 transport and might be indeed ubiquitous. The mass size distribution is determined by the  
493 particle size upon emission (primary NPAHs) and condensation and redistribution in the  
494 aerosol along transport, hence, does not include the short-lived coarse mass fraction. This  
495 indicates a high long-range transport potential. However, the observation of 3.8 and 0.92 pg  
496 m<sup>-3</sup> of 2NFLT and 2NPYR, respectively, measured at the southeastern outflow of Europe (the  
497 lowest ever reported concentrations; Table 3), may indicate that their abundance in the remote  
498 global environment could be less than anticipated. Earlier, this was based on a single  
499 measurement of 2NPYR, 3 pg m<sup>-3</sup>, at an extremely remote site in central Asia two decades  
500 before (Ciccioli et al., 1996). Moreover, this air, classified as marine background, was not  
501 completely clean, but had been exposed to a non-zero fractional urban pollution dose (0.4% of  
502 the total, time horizon of 2 days). More measurements at remote sites should verify NPAH  
503 levels globally. PAHs have been abated significantly in Europe during the last decades (EEA,  
504 2014), which should also be reflected in long-term trends of their derivatives. However, a  
505 temporal trend for the Aegean or the southeastern outflow of Europe in summer cannot be  
506 inferred based on the current and the earlier (2002; Tsapakis and Stephanou, 2007) campaign  
507 data. NPAHs should be included in monitoring programmes to better assess the exposure of  
508 human health hazards of atmospheric pollution, even in remote areas.

509 Understanding of NPAH formation in ambient air is still rudimentary. Although our  
510 observations of a potential NPAH yield are in agreement with laboratory studies of OH-  
511 initiated photochemistry, the kinetics of NPAHs, both formation from parent PAHs and



512 photolysis remains to be quantitatively studied under relevant conditions for the background  
513 atmosphere i.e., low NO<sub>x</sub> and on various aerosol matrices including sea salt, respectively.  
514 More studies into NPAH atmospheric fate, both field observations and kinetic data, are  
515 needed in order to assess and quantify spatial and temporal trends, the long-range transport  
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527

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718

719 Table 1. Overview time weighted mean concentrations in the particulate and gas phases, and  
 720 ambient temperature. Data subsets (B = background, P = polluted, D = day mean, N = night  
 721 mean) and mass size distribution (<0.45/0.45-0.95/0.95-1.5/1.5-3.0/3.0-7.2/7.2-10  $\mu\text{m}$   
 722 aerodynamic equivalent diameter) in brackets.

Site	Phase	$\Sigma_{11}$ 3-4rNPAH ( $\text{pg m}^{-3}$ )	$\Sigma_6$ 4rPAH ( $\text{pg m}^{-3}$ )
Marine	particulate (n = 8)	4.1 (3.5/0.6/0.2/0.03/0.03/0.00) (B: 0.2/P: 8.7)	43 (28/8.1/1.2/6.2/4.3/1.7) (B: 7.9/P: 42.4)
	gas (n = 21)	18.4 (B: 13.2/P:31.1)	403 (B:321/P:580)
	T( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ )	25.6 (B: 27.1/P: 22.0)	
Continental	particulate (n = 22)	24.3 (20.5/2.9/0.7/0.04/0.06/0.15) (D:13.9/N:34.6)	129 (87/28/12/0.6/0.0/0.0) (D:146/N:116)
	gas (n = 22)	34.2 (D:42.9/N:25.5)	517 (D:649/N:384)
	T( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ )	23.1 (D:28.8/N:17.5)	

723

724

725 Table 3. Comparison of total (g + p) concentrations in air,  $c_{\text{tot}}$  (pg/m<sup>3</sup>), with other  
 726 measurements at remote and rural sites

	1NPYR (pg/m <sup>3</sup> )	2NFLT (pg/m <sup>3</sup> )	2NPYR (pg/m <sup>3</sup> )	References
background CEu summer 2013	1.1	15 <sup>a</sup>	1.3	this work (continental)
E Mediterranean summer 2012	0.74	8.6 <sup>a</sup>	2.5	this work (marine)
E Mediterranean clean summer 2012	0.21	3.8 <sup>a</sup>	0.92	this work (marine background <sup>b</sup> )
E Mediterranean clean summer 2002	-	29	21	Tsapakis and Stephanou, 2007
Ross Sea coast, Antarctica	<0.02 <sup>c</sup>	<0.03 <sup>c</sup>		Vincenti et al., 2001
Himalayas, Nepal 1991	-	-	3	Ciccioli et al., 1996
Forest Amazonia 1993	2	15	8	
Rural Northern Germany 1991	-	-	3	
Rural Denmark winter-spring 1982	9±5 <sup>c</sup>	-	-	Nielsen et al., 1984
Semi-rural Denmark all year 1998-99	40	97	6.3	Feilberg et al., 2001
Remote Alps 2002	2.2	-	-	Schauer et al., 2004
Rural Alps 2002	6.6	-	-	
Rural Alps <sup>d</sup> winter 2002-03	21	96 <sup>a</sup>	81	Albinet et al., 2008a
Rural Alps <sup>d</sup> summer 2003	4.2	28 <sup>a</sup>	5.7	
Remote Alps <sup>e</sup> winter 2002-03	2.4	1.3 <sup>a</sup>	14.8	
Remote Alps <sup>e</sup> summer 2003	0.6	1.8 <sup>a</sup>	0.7	
Rural Southern France 2004	0.6	2.6 <sup>a</sup>	1.6	Albinet et al., 2007

727 <sup>a</sup> co-eluted with 3NFLT, assuming  $c_{3\text{NFLT}} = 0$

728 <sup>b</sup> samples No. 9, 10, 19 and 22 in Fig. S3

729 <sup>c</sup> particulate phase concentration only

730 <sup>d</sup> Val de Maurienne sites (Albinet et al., 2008a)

731 <sup>e</sup> Plan de l'Aiguille site (Albinet et al., 2008a)

732

733 Table 4: Selected 4-ring PAHs and primary and secondary 3-4 ring NPAH total (g + p) time-  
 734 weighted mean concentrations  $\pm\sigma$  ( $\text{pg m}^{-3}$ ). Potential yields,  $c_{\text{NPAH}}/c_{\text{PAH}}$ , in brackets.  $\sigma$  given  
 735 for  $n > 2$ .

Site		Marine			Continental
Data subset		all (n = 8 <sup>a</sup> )	marine background (n = 2 <sup>b</sup> )	background with urban influence (n = 2 <sup>c</sup> )	all (n = 22)
Primary	FLT	213±161	161	259	342±215
	PYR	146±130	103	188	226±131
Primary and secondary (potential yield)	2NFLN <sup>d</sup>	0.038±0.12	<0.18	0.15	0.034±0.044
	1NPYR	0.62±1.1 (0.4±0.2%)	0.21 (0.2%)	1.4 (0.7%)	1.1±0.6 (0.6±0.3%)
Secondary (yield)	2NFLT <sup>e</sup>	7.7±8.5 (3.6±2.0%)	1.68 (1.0%)	11.0 (4.2%)	15±10 (6.5±7.5%)
	2NPYR	2.2±2.6 (1.5±0.7%)	0.92 (0.9%)	3.3 (1.8%)	1.3±1.7 (0.74±1.09%)

736 <sup>a</sup> 8 filter and 21 PUF samples

737 <sup>b</sup> 2 filter and 6 PUF samples i.e., No. 9-10 and 19-22 in Fig. S3 (urban fractional dose  $D_u =$   
 738 0.4%)

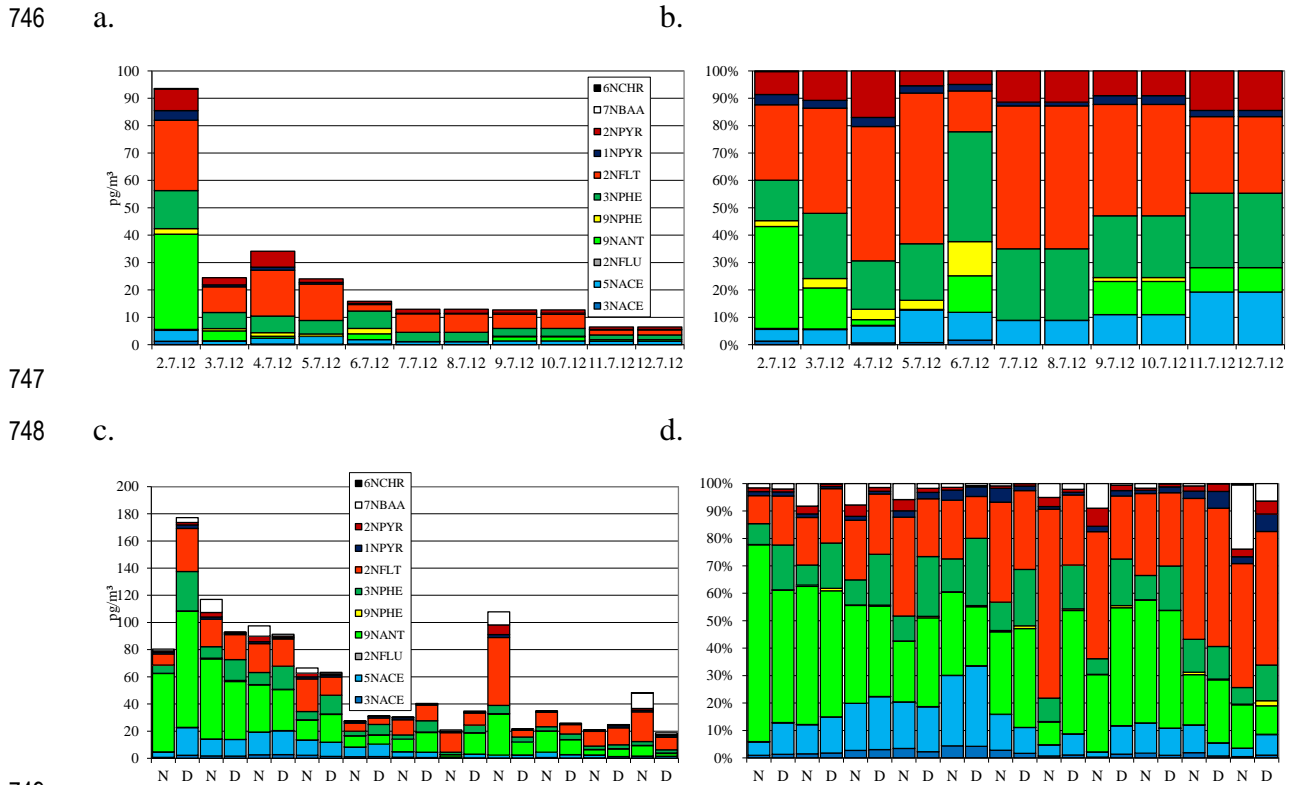
739 <sup>c</sup> 2 filter and 5 PUF sample i.e., No. 1-2 and 15-18 in Fig. S3 ( $D_u = 3.1\%$ )

740 <sup>d</sup> no yield given as  $c_{\text{FLN}}$  not quantified

741 <sup>e</sup> co-eluted with 3NFLT, assuming  $c_{\text{3NFLT}} = 0$

742

743 Fig. 1: Time series of absolute (a, c;  $\text{pg m}^{-3}$ ) and relative (b, d) total (gas + particulate) NPAH  
 744 concentrations at the (a, b) marine (24 h means shown <sup>a</sup>) and (c, d) continental site (day / night  
 745 means)



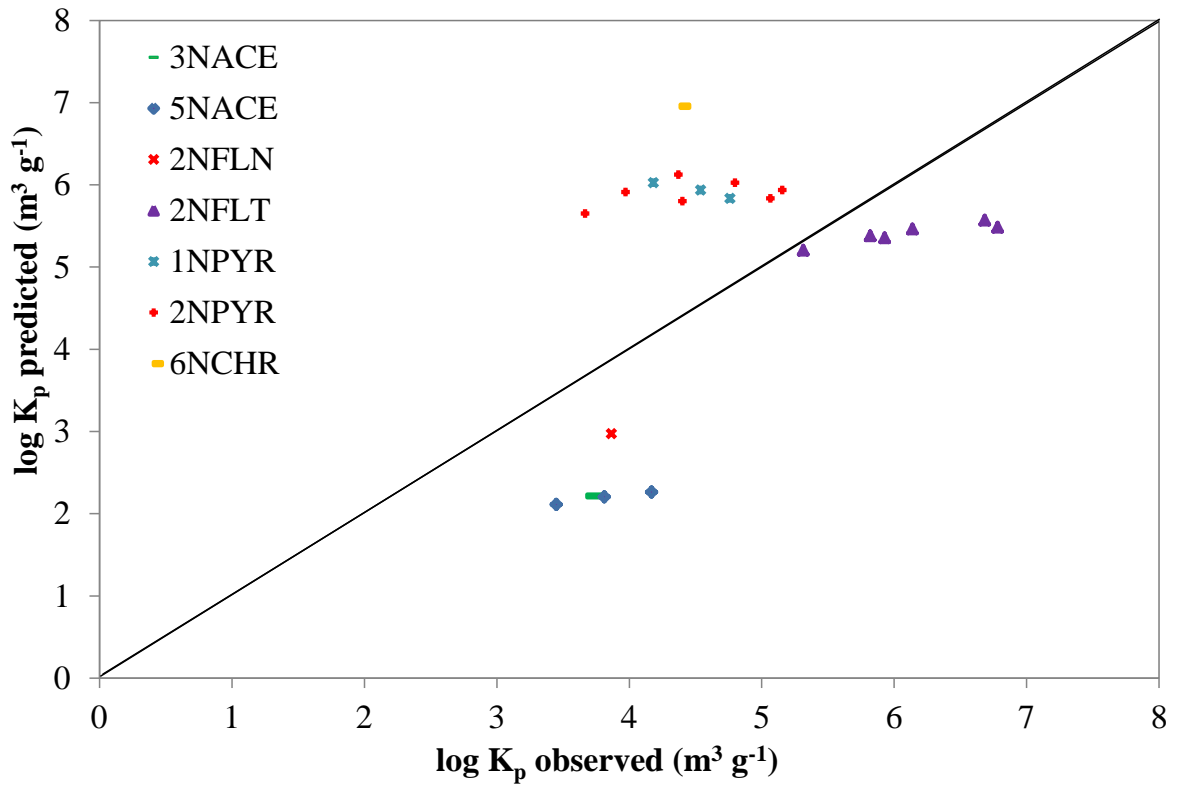
750 <sup>a</sup> gas-phase (PUF) sampled day / night, particulate phase (filter) sampled 1-4 subsequent days /  
 751 nights, 4 during the period 7.-12.7.12

752



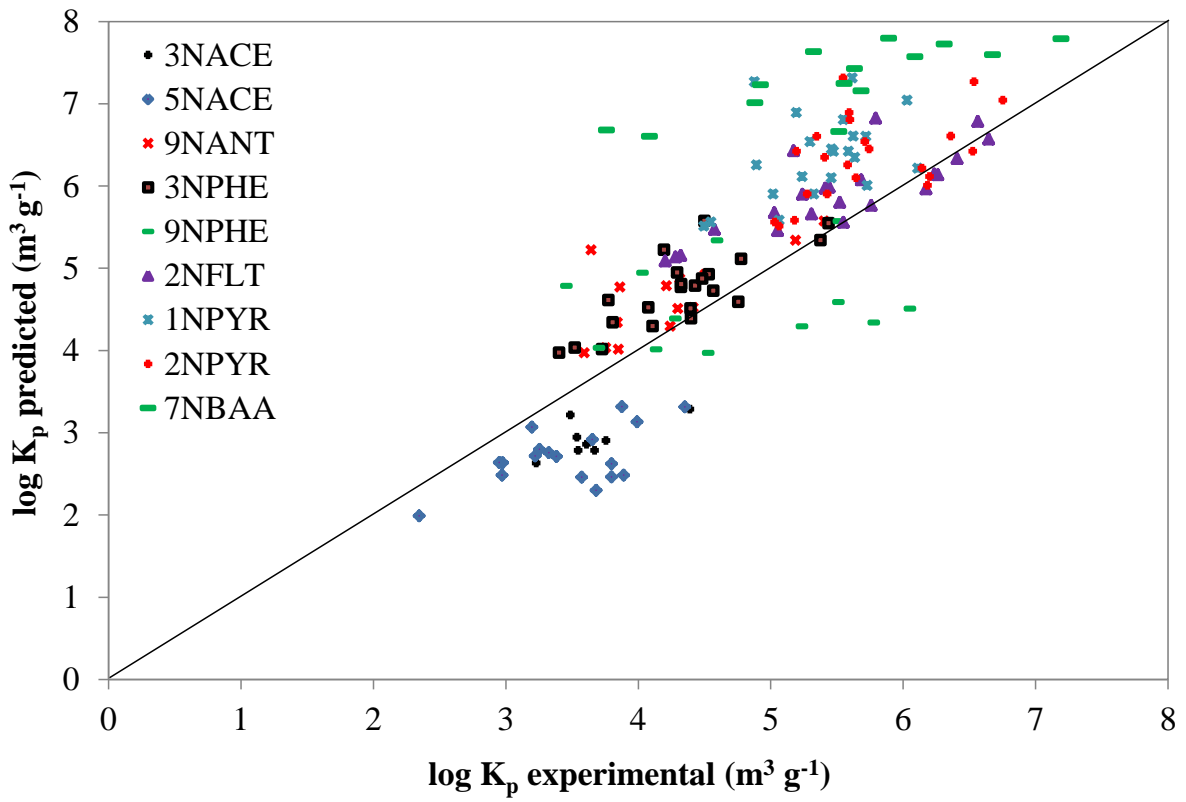
753 Fig. 2: Predicted versus experimental  $\log K_p$  ( $\text{m}^3 \text{air g}^{-1} \text{PM}$ ) for NPAHs using the multi-phase  
754 ppLFER model at the (a) marine and (b) continental site

755 a.



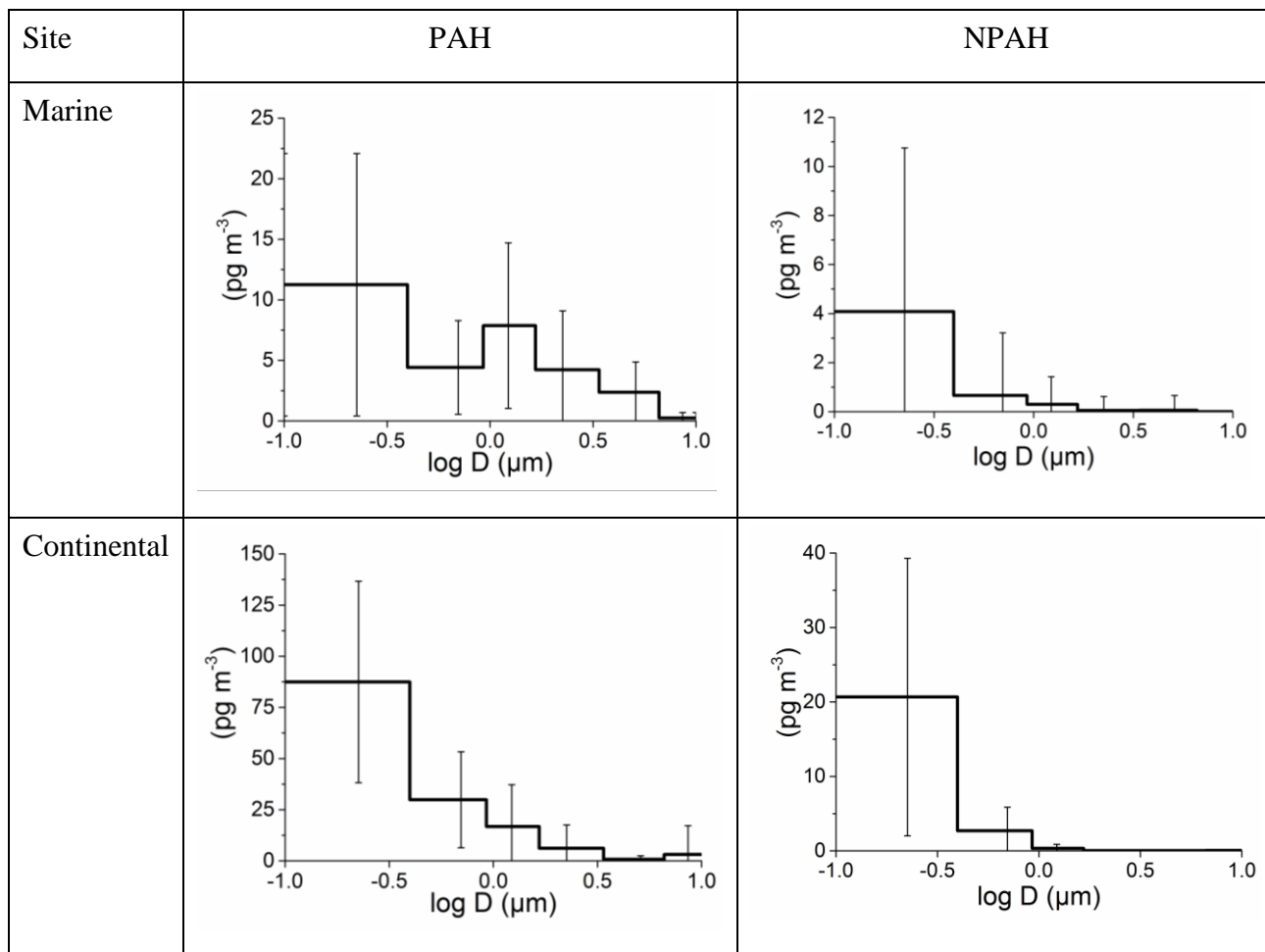
756

757 b.



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759  
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761 Fig. 3. Time-weighted mean  $\Sigma_6$  4rPAH and  $\Sigma_{11}$  3-4rNPAH mass size distributions ( $\text{pg m}^{-3}$ ) at  
 762 the marine and continental sites. The error bars show the standard deviation from the  
 763 campaign mean.



764

765

Table 2. Total (g + p) time-weighted concentrations,  $c_{\text{tot}}$  ( $\text{pg m}^{-3}$ ), particulate mass fraction,  $\theta = c_p / c_{\text{tot}}$ , and mass median diameter (MMD,  $\mu\text{m}$ ), of of 2-4-ring NPAHs and 4-ring PAHs at the marine (as ‘mean (background mean/ urban influence mean)’,  $n = 8(2^a/2^b)$ ) and continental (as ‘mean (day mean/ night mean)’,  $n = 22(11/11)$ ) sites, together with temperature and supporting aerosol parameters ( $\text{PM}_{10}$  and carbonaceous mass fractions). LOQ = limit of quantification, nd = no data.

	Marine			Continental		
	$c_{\text{tot}}$ ( $\text{pg m}^{-3}$ )	$\Theta$	MMD ( $\mu\text{m}$ )	$c_{\text{tot}}$ ( $\text{pg m}^{-3}$ )	$\Theta$	MMD ( $\mu\text{m}$ )
FLT	226 (161/259)	0.07 (0.03/0.07)	0.58 (0.43/0.52)	342 (432/251)	0.11 (0.11/0.12)	0.062 (0.101/0.034)
PYR	158 (103/188)	0.04 (0.01/0.05)	0.21 (0.022/0.22)	226 (276/176)	0.18 (0.18/0.19)	0.075 (0.105/0.055)
BBN	4.1 (2.0/5.5)	0.01 (nd/0.05)	0.022 (nd/0.022)	15 (16/13)	0.61 (0.58/0.65)	0.079 (0.127/0.053)
BAA	2.8 (<LOQ/3.4)	0.28 (nd/0.29)	0.022 (nd/0.022)	16 (14/18)	0.91 (0.90/0.92)	0.070 (0.090/0.060)
TPH	12 (8.5/14)	0.02 (nd/0.05)	0.022 (nd/0.022)	23 (26/21)	0.51 (0.41/0.63)	0.070 (0.090/0.057)
CHR	23 (10/29)	0.22 (0.09/0.20)	0.15 (0.022/0.15)	41 (44/38)	0.75 (0.71/0.80)	0.074 (0.105/0.055)
$\Sigma_6$ 4rPAH	426 (284/499)	0.07 (0.02/0.07)	0.31 (0.19/0.28)	663 (808/517)	0.21 (0.19/0.25)	0.071 (0.10/0.051)
3NACE	0.21 (0.17/0.39)	0.05 (0.00/0.14)	0.022 (nd/0.022)	1.0(1.0/1.0)	0.05 (0.01/0.11)	0.022 (nd/0.022)
5NACE	1.8 (1.5/2.0)	0.07 (0.00/0.00)	0.022 (nd/nd)	6.8 (7.6/6.0)	0.03 (0.01/0.05)	0.022 (0.022/0.022)
2NFLN	0.01 (<LOQ/0.15)	0.02 (nd/0.00)	1.19 (nd/nd)	0.035 (0.035/0.034)	0.00 (0.00/0.00)	nd
9NPHE	0.73 (0.84/0.55)	0.00 (0.00/0.00)	nd	0.21 (0.28/0.13)	0.36 (0.43/0.20)	0.022 (0.022/nd)

3NPHE	4.8 (3.4/5.0)	0.00 (nd/nd)	nd	7.4 (10.0/4.8)	0.24 (0.15/0.44)	0.109 (0.067/0.116)
9NANT	4.2 (1.1/8.2)	0.00 (0.00/0.00)	nd	22 (22/22)	0.23 (0.14/0.33)	0.022 (0.022/0.022)
2NFLT <sup>c</sup>	8.6 (3.8/11)	0.32 (nd/0.45)	0.040 (nd/0.080)	15 (13/18)	0.78 (0.54/0.95)	0.054 (0.035/0.050)
1NPYR	0.75 (0.21/1.4)	0.33 (0.00/0.58)	0.061 (nd/0.14)	1.1 (1.1/1.2)	0.82 (0.76/0.88)	0.030 (0.031/0.029)
2NPYR	2.5 (0.92/3.3)	0.53 (0.19/0.69)	0.058 (0.060/0.055)	1.3 (0.73/2.0)	0.93 (0.83/0.97)	0.070 (0.040/0.061)
7NBAA	<LOQ	nd	nd	2.5 (0.77/4.2)	0.91 (0.56/0.97)	0.074 (0.038/0.057)
6NCHR	0.02 (<LOQ/0.07)	1.00 (nd/1.00)	2.12 (nd/2.12)	0.01 (<LOQ/0.02)	1.00 (nd/1.00)	0.022 (nd/0.022)
Σ <sub>113</sub> - 4rNPAH	23.7 (11.8/32.0)	0.22 (0.01/0.22)	0.34(0.33/0.34)	58 (56/59)	0.16 (0.13/0.17)	0.039 (0.036/0.040)
PM <sub>10</sub> (μg/m <sup>3</sup> )	34.9 (21.0/55.5)		0.58 (1.13/0.62)	22.1 (19.5/24.5)		nd
EC (μg/m <sup>3</sup> )	0.11 (0.09/0.17)		0.03(0.05/0.03)	0.31 (0.28/0.33)		0.21(0.19/0.22)
OC (μg/m <sup>3</sup> )	1.9 (1.5/3.0)		0.17(0.16/0.15)	3.6 (3.3/3.9)		0.16(0.13/0.18)
T (°C)	25.6 (27.0/22.2)			23.1 (28.8/17.5)		

<sup>a</sup> 2 filter and 4 PUF samples i.e., No. 9, 10, 19 and 22 in Fig. S3

<sup>b</sup> 1 filter and 1 PUF sample i.e., No. 1 and 2 in Fig. S3

<sup>c</sup> co-eluted with 3NFLT, assuming  $c_{3NFLT} = 0$