



1 **Urban increments of gaseous and aerosol pollutants and**
2 **their sources using mobile aerosol mass spectrometry**
3 **measurements**

4 **M. Elser¹, C. Bozzetti¹, I. El-Haddad¹, M. Maasikmets², E. Teinemaa², R. Richter¹,**
5 **R. Wolf¹, J.G. Slowik¹, U. Baltensperger¹ and A.S.H. Prévôt¹**

6 [1]{Laboratory of Atmospheric Chemistry, Paul Scherrer Institute, 5232, Villigen PSI,
7 Switzerland}

8 [2]{Estonian Environmental Research Centre, 10617, Tallinn, Estonia}

9 Correspondence to: I. El-Haddad (imad.el-haddad@psi.ch) and A. S. H. Prévôt
10 (andre.prevot@psi.ch)

11

12 **Abstract**

13 Air pollution is one of the main environmental concerns in urban areas, where anthropogenic
14 emissions strongly affect air quality. This work presents the first spatially-resolved detailed
15 characterization of the PM_{2.5} in two major Estonian cities (Tallinn and Tartu), using mobile
16 measurements. In both cities, the non-refractory (NR)-PM_{2.5} was characterized by a high-
17 resolution time-of-flight aerosol mass spectrometer (HR-ToF-AMS) using a recently
18 developed lens which increases the transmission of super-micron particles. Equivalent black
19 carbon (eBC) and several trace gases including carbon monoxide (CO), carbon dioxide (CO₂)
20 and methane (CH₄) were also measured. The chemical composition of the PM_{2.5} was found to
21 be very similar in the two cities. Organic aerosol (OA) constituted the largest fraction,
22 explaining on average about 52 to 60 % of the PM_{2.5} mass. Four sources of OA were
23 identified using positive matrix factorization (PMF): hydrocarbon-like OA (HOA, from
24 traffic emissions), biomass burning OA (BBOA, from biomass combustion), residential
25 influenced OA (RIOA, probably mostly from cooking processes with possible contributions
26 from waste and coal burning) and oxygenated OA (OOA, related to secondary aerosol
27 formation). OOA was the major OA source during night-time, explaining on average half of
28 the OA mass, while during day-time mobile measurements the OA was affected by point
29 sources and dominated by the primary fraction. A strong increase in the secondary organic
30 and inorganic components was observed during periods with transport of air masses from



1 polluted continental areas, while the primary local emissions accumulated during periods
2 with temperature inversions. Mobile measurements offered the identification of different
3 source regions within the urban areas and an accurate calculation of the urban increments.
4 HOA, eBC, CO₂ and CO showed stronger enhancements on busy roads during the morning
5 and evening traffic rush hours; BBOA had its maximum enhancement in the residential areas
6 during the evening hours and RIOA was enhanced in both the city center (emissions from
7 restaurants) and in the residential areas (emissions from residential cooking). In contrast,
8 secondary components (OOA, SO₄, NO₃, NH₄, and Cl) had very homogeneous distributions
9 in time and space. We were able to determine a total PM_{2.5} urban increment in Tartu of 6.0
10 μg m⁻³ over a regional background concentration of 4.0 μg m⁻³ (i.e., a factor of 2.5 increase).
11 Traffic exhaust emissions were identified as the most important source of this increase, with
12 eBC and HOA explaining on average 53.3 and 20.5 % of the total increment, respectively.

13

14 1 Introduction

15 Atmospheric particulate matter (PM) plays a central role in many environmental processes
16 through its influence on climate (radiative forcing; Myhre et al., 2013), the hydrological cycle
17 (Ramanathan, et al., 2001) and its adverse effects on health (Pope and Dockery, 2006).
18 Recently, major attention has been devoted to the study of the PM_{2.5} fraction (particulate
19 matter with an aerodynamic equivalent diameter $d_{aero} \leq 2.5 \mu\text{m}$), which has been linked to
20 increased lung cancer rates (Hu and Jiang, 2014), acute bronchitis and asthma (Gao et al.,
21 2015), and mortality (Dockery et al 1993; Laden et al., 2006). Atmospheric particles can be
22 classified as primary or secondary aerosols according to their formation processes. Primary
23 particles are directly emitted, while secondary aerosols are formed from gas-phase precursors
24 following chemical transformation in the atmosphere. Aerosols can be further classified in
25 terms of their emission sources as natural sources (e.g. volcanic eruptions, wildfires, sea salt,
26 dust or biogenic emissions from plants) or anthropogenic sources (mostly from combustion
27 processes, e.g. traffic and residential wood combustion).

28 Due to enhanced contributions of anthropogenic sources, air quality is commonly lower in
29 urban areas compared to rural or suburban locations (Putaud et al., 2004). In Europe, annual
30 average PM_{2.5} mass concentrations in urban areas commonly vary between a few μg m⁻³ up to
31 35 μg m⁻³ (Putaud et al., 2010). The predominance of specific aerosol sources (e.g.
32 residential, traffic, industry) or the implementation of new technologies (e.g. car fleet, heating



1 systems, etc.) may strongly influence the levels and physicochemical characteristics of the
2 pollutants in these locations. Moreover, certain orographic features and stagnant
3 meteorological conditions may induce the accumulation of local pollutants (Putaud et al.,
4 2004; Carbone et al., 2010; Squizzato et al. 2012). Likewise, long-range transport of
5 continental air masses has been shown to influence the PM in different urban areas in Europe
6 (Niemi et al., 2009; Baker, 2010; Salvador et al., 2013; Beekmann et al., 2015; Di Gilioa et
7 al., 2015; Ulevicius et al., 2015). While the PM levels and physicochemical properties of the
8 particles are well characterized in Western Europe, data are scarce in Eastern European cities,
9 especially in the Baltic region, hindering air quality assessment and quantification of the main
10 aerosol sources.

11 In contrast to conventional stationary measurements, mobile measurements (including
12 zeppelin, aircraft and ground measurements) are suited for pollutant mapping, chasing of
13 mobile sources or measurements in emission plumes, etc. Ground-based measurements by
14 mobile platforms have been successfully performed in the last years to measure particles and
15 trace gases from real-world traffic emissions (Pirjola et al., 2004, 2006 and 2012; Kwak et al.,
16 2014; Kyung Hwan et al., 2015) and from wood burning emissions (Pirjola et al., 2015).
17 More recently, aerosol mass spectrometers (AMS) have been deployed in mobile laboratories
18 in order to determine the physical and chemical properties of submicron aerosols (PM₁,
19 particulate matter with aerodynamic equivalent diameter $d_{aero} \leq 1 \mu\text{m}$) in urban environments
20 like Zurich (Mohr et al., 2011), Paris (Von der Weiden-Reinmueller et al., 2014a and 2014b)
21 or Barcelona (Mohr et al., 2015). Moreover, a newly developed inlet for the AMS has been
22 used to measure the chemical composition of the non-refractory (NR)-PM_{2.5} fraction in
23 Bologna (Wolf et al., 2015).

24 In this work we present the first detailed in-situ mass spectrometric measurements of air
25 pollutants in the two biggest cities in Estonia (Tallinn and Tartu). The measurements were
26 performed using the Paul Scherrer Institute (PSI) mobile laboratory (Bukowiecki et al., 2002;
27 Mohr et al., 2011; Wolf et al., 2015). The use of a high-resolution time-of-flight aerosol mass
28 spectrometer (HR-ToF-AMS) with a novel PM_{2.5} lens allowed for a detailed characterization
29 of the NR-PM_{2.5} fraction in the measurement areas. The spatial distributions of the sources of
30 organic aerosols (OA), inorganic aerosols (nitrate (NO₃), sulfate (SO₄), ammonium (NH₄),
31 and chloride (Cl)), equivalent black carbon (eBC) and some of the major gas-phase
32 components (carbon monoxide (CO), carbon dioxide (CO₂) and methane (CH₄)) were
33 determined in the urban areas. Such analyses allowed for the calculation of regional



1 background and urban concentrations of the different gas- and particle-phase components and
2 provided direct insights into the spatial resolution of local emissions and their impact on the
3 air quality in different city areas. Long-range transport of pollutants and accumulation events
4 as well as their effect on the particle- and gas-phase mass concentrations will also be
5 discussed.

6

7 **2 Methodologies**

8 **2.1 Measurement campaign**

9 The measurements were performed in the two biggest cities in Estonia. Tallinn, the capital
10 and the largest city of Estonia, has a population of 413,000 inhabitants (Statistical Database,
11 2015) and occupies an area of 158.3 km². Located on the northern coast of the country,
12 Tallinn has some of the biggest ports in the Baltic Sea. Among them, the old city harbor is
13 one of the busiest passenger harbors in the region. Tartu, with 38.8 km² and more than 97,000
14 inhabitants in 2015 (Statistical Database, 2015), is the second largest city in Estonia. The city
15 is situated in the center of southern Estonia, in the post-glacial valley of the Emajõgi River,
16 which influences the local meteorological conditions and favors the accumulation of local
17 pollutants under frequent temperature inversions. Previous studies identified traffic emissions
18 and residential heating as the major sources of air pollution in these two cities (Urb et al.,
19 2005; Orru et al., 2011). An older vehicle fleet, the limited network capacity of the city
20 streets (which generates congestions during rush hours) and the extensive use of studded
21 tires, have been reported to strongly enhance the effect of the traffic emissions in the city
22 center and major roads. Residential heating includes extensive use of inefficient wood and
23 coal stoves with low stacks in both cities. In this regard, a detailed modeling study performed
24 in Tallinn and Tartu (Orru et al., 2011) revealed that the city centers and the neighborhoods
25 with local heating are exposed to much higher average PM_{2.5} concentrations compared to
26 other areas of the cities.

27 The measurements took place from 10 to 17 March 2014 in Tartu and from 25 March to 1
28 April 2014 in Tallinn. The GPS trace of the driving routes in the two cities is shown in Fig. 1.
29 The paths were chosen in order to cover heavily trafficked roads, residential areas where
30 different heating systems are used (wood/coal burning, central heating or mixed) and
31 background sites with little local emissions. In Tallinn, streets close to the old town harbor
32 were also included in the route. To obtain statistically significant spatial distributions of the



1 major pollutants, 25 loops were performed at each location throughout the measurement
2 periods at different times of the day. The average loop duration was about 72 minutes in
3 Tartu and 112 minutes in Tallinn. Stationary measurements were typically performed
4 overnight at a gasoline station in Tartu (influenced by city center and residential emissions)
5 and at the Estonian Environmental Research Centre (EERC) in Tallinn (a background site).
6 Meteorological data were recorded in a meteorological-tower in Kõlitse (around 10 km south-
7 east from Tartu) and in the Tallinn-Zoo meteorological station.

8 **2.2 Mobile laboratory set-up**

9 A schematic of the instrumental set-up in the PSI mobile platform is shown in Fig. S1. The
10 main inlet of the mobile platform was kept at a constant flow of $\sim 11 \text{ m sec}^{-1}$ for isokinetic
11 sampling during driving conditions, assuming an average velocity in the city of $\sim 40 \text{ km h}^{-1}$.
12 Two different inlet lines connected the main inlet to the aerosol and gas-phase
13 instrumentation. The deployed instruments, measured parameters and their time resolution
14 are listed in Table 1. All parameters were determined with high time resolution (between 1
15 and 25 seconds), critical for the identification of source regions using a mobile platform.

16 An HR-ToF-AMS (Aerodyne Research Inc.) was deployed to measure the chemical
17 composition of the NR-PM_{2.5} aerosol, including NO₃, SO₄, NH₄, Cl, and OA. For this work
18 the AMS was equipped with a recently developed aerodynamic lens which extends the
19 measured particle size to the PM_{2.5} fraction (in contrast to the conventional PM₁ lens). The
20 PM_{2.5} lens efficiently transmits particles between 80 nm and up to at least 3 μm and has been
21 well characterized by Williams et al. (2013) and tested in previous chamber and ambient
22 studies (Wolf et al., 2015; Elser et al., 2015). The operating principle of the instrument can be
23 found elsewhere (DeCarlo et al., 2006). A nafion drier (Perma Pure MD-110) was set before
24 the AMS inlet in order to dry the ambient particles and reduce uncertainties in the bounce-
25 related collection efficiency (CE_b) and possible transmission losses of large particles at high
26 relative humidity (RH).

27 A 7-wavelength Aethalometer (Magee Scientific, model AE33) was used to measure the
28 aerosol light absorption and to determine the equivalent black carbon (eBC) concentrations.
29 The measurement at 7 different wavelengths (370, 470, 520, 590, 660, 880 and 950 nm)
30 covers the range between ultraviolet and infrared and allows for the source apportionment of
31 different eBC fractions (Sandradewi et al., 2008; Zotter et al., in prep). Moreover, the dual



1 spot measurement method corrects automatically for the loading effect and provides a real-
2 time calculation of the loading compensation parameter (Drinovec et al., 2015).

3 The concentrations of trace gases, including CO, CO₂ and CH₄ were measured by two
4 different analyzers (Picarro-G2301 and Licor-6262). In addition, some important parameters
5 for mobile measurements (GPS, temperature, relative humidity and solar radiation) were also
6 measured continuously.

7 **2.3 AMS data analysis**

8 AMS data were analyzed in Igor Pro 6.3 (WaveMetrics) using the standard ToF-AMS Data
9 Analysis toolkit (SQUIRREL version 1.53G and PIKA version 1.12G). Based on standard
10 NH₄NO₃ calibrations, the ionization efficiency (IE, defined as ions detected per molecules
11 vaporized) was determined to be $5.08 \cdot 10^{-8}$ (average of five calibrations during the full
12 measurement period). Standard relative ionization efficiencies (RIE) were used for nitrate,
13 chloride, and organics (RIE = 1.1, 1.3, and 1.4, respectively) and experimentally determined
14 for sulfate and ammonium (RIE = 1.11 and 4.29, respectively). A composition dependent
15 collection efficiency (CE) algorithm by Middlebrook et al. (2012) was used to calculate the
16 ambient mass concentrations.

17 **2.4 Source apportionment techniques**

18 **2.4.1 OA source apportionment**

19 To identify and quantify the major sources of OA in the different measurement areas, positive
20 matrix factorization (PMF; Paatero and Tapper (1994)) was applied to the highly time
21 resolved AMS data (see Table 1). The analysis were performed using the multilinear engine
22 tool (ME-2; Paatero, 1997) implemented in the Source Finder interface (SoFi; Canonaco et
23 al., 2013) coded in Igor Wavemetrics.

24 PMF is a bilinear unmixing algorithm which, as defined in Eq. (1), allows representing a two-
25 dimensional matrix of measured data (\mathbf{X}) as a linear combination of a given number of static
26 factors profiles (\mathbf{F}) and their corresponding time series (\mathbf{G}). The matrix \mathbf{E} in Eq. (1) contains
27 the model residuals. The model uses a least squares approach to iteratively minimize the
28 object function Q described in Eq. (2):

$$29 \quad \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{GF} + \mathbf{E} \quad (1)$$



1
$$Q = \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n \left(\frac{e_{ij}}{\sigma_{ij}} \right)^2 \quad (2)$$

2 where e_{ij} are the elements from the error matrix (E) and σ_{ij} are the respective uncertainties of
3 **X**.

4 In our case, the model input consists of a data and error matrix of OA mass spectra, where the
5 rows represent the time series (62665 points, with steps of 25 seconds) and the columns
6 contain the ions fitted in high resolution (292 ions). The organic mass obtained from the high
7 resolution fits (up to m/z 115) agrees with the mass from the unit mass resolution fits (up to
8 m/z 737) within ± 5 %. The initial error values were calculated with the HR-AMS data
9 analysis software PIKA. A minimum error corresponding to the measurement of a single ion
10 was applied (Ulbrich et al., 2009). All variables with signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) lower than
11 0.2 were removed and the variables with SNR between 0.2 and 2 were down-weighted by
12 increasing their error by a factor of 3 (Paatero and Hopke, 2003). Moreover, all variables
13 directly calculated from the CO_2^+ in the organic fragmentation table (i.e. O^+ , HO^+ , H_2O^+ and
14 CO^+) (Allan et al., 2004) were excluded for the PMF analysis to appropriately weight the
15 variability of CO_2^+ in the algorithm and were reinserted post-analysis.

16 The possibility of local minima in the solution space and the uncertainty of the PMF solution
17 were investigated by means of bootstrap analysis. This statistical method is based on the
18 creation of replicate datasets perturbing the original data by resampling. In each replicate,
19 some randomly chosen rows of the original matrix are present several times, while other rows
20 do not occur at all (Paatero et al., 2014), such that the dimension of the data matrix is kept
21 constant. This resulted in about 64 % of the original points being used in each replicate. PMF
22 was applied to 100 different replicates and the variations among these results were used to
23 estimate the uncertainty of the initial PMF solution. Note that as each bootstrap run is started
24 from a different initialization point and hence this methodology includes the investigation of
25 the classic seed variability. All convergent solutions were found to be consistent, an
26 indication of the robustness of the chosen solution.

27 The results presented in this section were obtained by merging the measurements from the
28 two measurement locations, as no major changes were observed if the source apportionment
29 was performed for the individual cities.



1 2.4.2 eBC source apportionment

2 The Aethalometer measurements can be used to separate eBC from wood burning (eBC_{wb})
3 and from traffic (eBC_{tr}), by taking advantage of the spectral dependence of absorption, as
4 described by the Ångström exponent (Ångström, 1929). This method is described in detail in
5 Sandradewi et al. (2008) and has been successfully applied at many locations across Europe.
6 For a proper separation of the eBC fractions, the Aethalometer data was averaged to 30
7 minutes in order to increase the signal to noise. Thus, the obtained fractions eBC_{wb} and eBC_{tr}
8 could only be used for the correlations with the external tracers, but their spatial distributions
9 couldn't be explored. The absorption Ångström exponent was calculated using the absorption
10 measured at 470 and 950 nm and Ångström exponents of 0.9 and 1.7 were used for traffic
11 and wood burning, respectively, following the suggestions in Zotter et al. (In prep.).

12

13 3 Results and discussion

14 3.1 Pollutant concentrations and temporal variability

15 The temporal variation of all measured gas- and particle-phase components is shown in Fig.
16 2a. The type of measurement is indicated by different background colors (transparent for
17 stationary measurements and orange for mobile measurements). The measurement period
18 included three distinct meteorological periods of transport of polluted air masses and
19 accumulation of local emissions. These periods are referred to as special events (indicated by
20 a red frame) and will be treated separately and discussed in detail in Section 3.4. While the
21 AMS and Aethalometer were running almost continuously during the entire measurement
22 period, there is a small gap in the CO₂, CO and CH₄ data due to an instrument malfunction.
23 Over the full measurement period, the average mass concentration of PM_{2.5} (NR-PM_{2.5} plus
24 eBC) was 12.3 µg m⁻³. In the gas-phase, average concentrations of 414.1 ppm of CO₂, 0.24
25 ppm of CO and 1.92 ppm of CH₄ were measured. In contrast to these relatively low average
26 values, extremely high concentrations were often recorded during the mobile measurements
27 due to local emissions from point sources (around 50 spikes with PM_{2.5} mass concentration
28 exceeding 100 µg m⁻³). Such intermittent pollution plumes (expected in some areas in a city)
29 cannot be detected from stationary measurements at an urban background site, but enhance
30 negative health impacts. As shown in Fig. 2b, neglecting the periods defined as special
31 events, the PM_{2.5} average concentrations and relative contributions of the particle phase



1 species were very similar at the two locations. If we compare day-time (07:00 to 19:00, local
2 time (LT)) and night-time (19:00 to 07:00, LT) measurements, in both cities the average
3 $PM_{2.5}$ was higher during the day ($11.0 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ in Tartu and $11.6 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ in Tallinn) than during
4 the night ($6.5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ in Tartu and $7.1 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ in Tallinn), despite the development of the
5 boundary layer and increased dilution during day-time. OA constituted in all cases the largest
6 mass fraction, explaining on average 52.2 and 54.3 % of the $PM_{2.5}$ mass in Tartu (during
7 night- and day-time, respectively) and 55.2 and 60.1 % in Tallinn (during day- and night-
8 time, respectively). Primary emissions of eBC contributed on average 20.4 % and 33.7 % in
9 Tartu (during night-time and day-time, respectively), and 13.4 and 26.9 % in Tallinn (during
10 night-time and day-time, respectively), constituting a substantially higher fraction than at
11 other European locations (Putaud et al., 2010). The remaining mass, 12 to 28 %, was related
12 to secondary inorganic species, mostly ammonium sulfate and nitrate. These species were
13 found to be neutralized within the uncertainties (ratio of NH_4 expected from an ion balance to
14 NH_4 measured of 1.05, with $R^2=0.95$). During night-time a decrease in the relative
15 contribution of eBC was observed in favor of an enhanced contribution of the inorganic
16 species.

17 3.2 Sources of OA

18 To properly represent the temporal variations of the OA, four factors were required:
19 hydrocarbon-like OA (HOA), biomass burning OA (BBOA), residential influenced OA
20 (RIOA) and oxygenated OA (OOA). The mass spectra of these factors are reported in Fig. 3.
21 HOA is a primary source related to traffic emissions and its mass spectrum is characterized
22 by the presence of alkyl fragment signatures (Ng et al., 2011), with prominent contributions
23 of non-oxygenated species at m/z 43 ($C_3H_7^+$), m/z 55 ($C_4H_7^+$) and m/z 57 ($C_4H_9^+$). As shown
24 in Fig. S2, a fairly good correlation is found between HOA and eBC_{tr} ($R^2 = 0.4$). Moreover,
25 the ratio of HOA to eBC_{tr} was 0.5, which is in good agreement with previous European
26 studies (El Haddad et al., 2013 and references therein). BBOA is associated with domestic
27 heating and/or agricultural biomass burning activities, and shows characteristic high
28 contributions of the oxygenated hydrocarbons at m/z 60 ($C_2H_4O_2^+$) and m/z 73 ($C_3H_5O_2^+$),
29 which are known fragments from anhydrous sugars (Alfarra et al., 2007). BBOA correlates
30 fairly well with eBC_{wb} ($R^2 = 0.4$), and the ratio of BBOA to eBC_{wb} was 4.0 (Fig. S2), which
31 within the method uncertainties is consistent with previously reported values (Crippa et al.,
32 2013). The ratio BBOA to eBC_{wb} was found to be very sensitive to the chosen Ångström



1 exponent for traffic, and it increased to 4.8 if a slightly higher Ångström exponent (i.e. 1.0
2 instead of 0.9) was considered for traffic. RIOA is a hydrocarbon-rich factor that was
3 required for a reasonable explanation of the variability in the data. Due to its increase in the
4 residential areas, this factor was associated with residential emissions. Given its strong
5 correlation ($R^2 = 0.9$) with cooking markers such as the fragment ion $C_6H_{10}O^+$ at m/z 98 (Sun
6 et al., 2011; Crippa et al., 2013), we expect that a great part of this factor is related to cooking
7 emissions (see Fig. S2). Moreover, as in previously reported cooking spectra (Mohr et al.,
8 2012), the RIOA mass spectrum shows a higher m/z 55 to m/z 57 ratio than HOA. However,
9 in the absence of diurnal trends due to the driving conditions, the separation of cooking
10 emissions from other residential emissions (such as domestic coal and waste burning) was not
11 possible. OOA is associated with aged emissions and secondary organic aerosol formation,
12 and its profile is characterized by a very high m/z 44 (CO_2^+). In general, OOA increases
13 simultaneously with the secondary species (especially NO_3), but the ratio among these
14 components changes during special events (Fig. S2). If the number of factors is decreased,
15 the RIOA factor is not resolved and the OOA time-series becomes contaminated by local
16 spikes, which is unexpected for a regional component (see Fig. S3 and S4). In contrast, if a
17 five-factor solution is considered an additional highly oxygenated factor is obtained
18 (“unknown” factor in Fig. S3 and S4). The mass spectrum of this additional factor resembles
19 a low-volatility OOA (LV-OOA), as resolved in many previous works (Jimenez et al., 2009),
20 but its time series exhibits the typical characteristics of the primary factors, i.e. strong
21 increases in emission areas. Therefore, this further increase in the number of factors doesn't
22 seem to improve the interpretation of the data, as the new factor cannot be explicitly
23 associated to distinct sources or processes. Accordingly, a four-factor solution was
24 considered as optimal and is utilized below.

25 Figure 4a represents the time series of the absolute mass (top panel) and relative contributions
26 (bottom panel) of the retrieved OA sources for the two measurement locations. The
27 variability of these time series over 100 bootstrap runs was relatively low, as shown in Fig.
28 S5. In both cities, the three primary sources (HOA, BBOA and RIOA) exhibit a very spiky
29 temporal behavior, while the secondary OOA is characterized by a relatively smooth time
30 series. Figure 4b reports the averaged total OA mass and relative contributions of the OA
31 sources during the measurements in Tartu (top panel) and Tallinn (bottom panel). The
32 reported errors (which correspond to the standard deviation among 100 bootstrap runs) are an
33 indication of the high stability of the solution. Overall, the relative errors vary between 3 %



1 and 7 %, except for the RIOA, which shows slightly higher variability during night-time
2 (relative error of 11 % in Tartu and 13 % in Tallinn). Similarly to the total PM_{2.5} mass and as
3 reported in Fig. 4b, neglecting the special events, a strong daily cycle can be observed in the
4 total OA mass, with higher concentrations during day-time (6.0 µg m⁻³ and 6.3 µg m⁻³ in
5 Tartu and Tallinn, respectively) than during night-time (3.4 µg m⁻³ and 4.2 µg m⁻³ in Tartu
6 and Tallinn, respectively). This difference is mostly driven by the increase of primary aerosol
7 emissions (HOA, BBOA and RIOA) during the day. This structure is observed independently
8 of the nature of the measurements (stationary or mobile), indicating that except for the
9 periods where emissions from point sources are sampled, the OA concentrations and sources
10 are rather homogeneous across the sampling area. In terms of relative contribution, OOA is
11 dominant during night-time, explaining on average between 42 and 44 % of the OA mass in
12 Tartu and Tallinn, respectively. HOA and RIOA relative contributions to the total OA are
13 higher during day-time (the relative contribution of HOA increases from about 20 to 32% in
14 Tartu and from 11 to 27% in Tallinn; the relative contribution of RIOA increases from 20 to
15 27 % in Tartu and from 20 to 22 % in Tallinn). BBOA shows similar relative contributions
16 for day- and night-time in Tartu (explaining about 17 % of the OA mass), and slightly lower
17 during the day-time in Tallinn (20 % during day-time and 25 % at night-time).

18 3.3 Spatial distributions, regional background and urban increments

19 The average spatial distributions of the four OA sources, SO₄, NO₃, eBC, CO₂ and CO are
20 represented in Fig. 5 and 6 for Tartu and Tallinn, respectively. The spatial distributions of the
21 additionally measured gas and particle components are reported in Fig. S6 and S7. All loops
22 for which all the instruments were running (except CO₂, CO and CH₄ in Tallinn) were
23 averaged on a grid with grid cells of 250 m². In order to get comparable distributions from
24 different days of measurements, the 5th percentile (P05) of was subtracted from each single
25 loop for all components. The subtraction of P05 was found to be optimal to decrease the
26 variability among different loops enough to make them comparable. However, as it will be
27 discussed in the following, P05 was not sufficient to capture the regional background
28 concentrations. The color scales in Fig. 5 and 6 represent the averaged enhancement over the
29 background concentrations of each source/species. For a better visualization, the maximum of
30 the color scale was set at the 75th percentile (P75) for SO₄, NO₃, eBC, CO₂ and CO.
31 Moreover, the highest 75th percentile among all OA sources (i.e., 1.2 µg m⁻³ in Tartu and 2.4
32 µg m⁻³ in Tallinn) was used as a maximum for the four OA sources, in order to facilitate the



1 comparison among them. Lastly, the sizes of the points represent the number of measurement
2 points that were averaged in each case. Longitude profiles of the enhancements of all
3 considered component were obtained for Tartu by averaging the calculated enhancements in
4 longitude bins (using the same grid of 250 m² as above). These results are shown in Fig. 7
5 (averages and standard deviation among all loops), Fig. S8 (median and first and third
6 quartiles) and Fig. S9 (separation of all loops into time-bins of two hours). The longitude
7 profiles in Fig. 7 and Fig. S8 allowed for the calculation of regional background
8 concentrations and urban increments, as defined by Lenschow et al. (2001) and reported in
9 Table 2. The urban concentrations, which are given by the sum of the regional background
10 and the urban increment, represent a mix between urban background and kerbside locations.
11 While the averaged profiles take into account the effects of the measured point sources in the
12 urban area (mostly traffic and residential emissions), the use of the median profiles is
13 expected to exclude these effects, making the results more representative of the urban
14 background concentrations. In the following we will present the results related to the average
15 profiles, followed by the results from the median profiles reported in parenthesis. In all
16 cases, the longitude profiles were fitted using sigmoid functions (black curves). In order to
17 have a constant averaging city area, the fitting limits (indicated with blue and pink arrows)
18 and the x-value of the sigmoid's midpoint (X_0) were determined from the fit of the total PM_{2.5}
19 mass (NR-PM_{2.5} plus eBC) and imposed to all other components. In most of the cases the
20 base of the sigmoid functions is slightly above zero. This indicates that the P05 previously
21 subtracted didn't represent the full regional background, which is therefore given by the sum
22 of the average P05 and the base of the sigmoid function. Moreover, the fits on the west side
23 of Tartu show always higher base values than those for the east, indicating the influence of
24 local sources in the considered regional background area west of Tartu. However, these
25 differences between the west and east fits are in most cases rather low, and therefore we use
26 the west-east averages to calculate the urban increments concentrations in Table 2.

27 In Tartu, the three primary OA sources (HOA, BBOA and RIOA) show a clear enhancement
28 in the city center compared to the suburban areas (Fig. 7 and S8). Moreover, different source
29 regions (see Fig. 5a-c) and emission times (see Fig. S9) can be distinguished inside the urban
30 area. For example, maximum HOA concentrations are observed on highly congested roads,
31 especially at sites under stop-and-go conditions, and show a maximum enhancement in the
32 morning and evening traffic rush hours (07:00 to 09:00 and 15:00 to 17:00, LT). The spatial
33 distributions of the eBC, CO₂ and CO (Fig. 5g-i) are consistent with that of HOA, which



1 indicates that these species originate mostly from traffic. BBOA is more strongly enhanced in
2 the residential areas and the maximum enhancement is seen in the evening hours (15:00 to
3 21:00, LT) when domestic heating is more active. RIOA shows enhanced contributions in
4 both, the residential areas (probably related to domestic cooking emissions) and the major
5 roads in the city center (probably related to cooking emissions from restaurants). The
6 maximum enhancement of RIOA is also seen in the evening hours (15:00 to 19:00, LT),
7 during and after the evening maximum of HOA. In contrast, OOA (Fig. 5d) and the other
8 secondary species (SO_4 , NO_3 , NH_4 and Cl, see Fig. 5e-f and Fig. S6), show very
9 homogeneous spatial distribution over the whole measurement area (as expected from their
10 secondary nature), and no clear dependence on the time of the day can be seen for the OOA
11 (Fig. S8). Although slight enhancements are observed in these components close to
12 residential areas (OOA enhancement of $0.8 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$), these increases are negligible within the
13 measurement and source apportionment uncertainties.

14 As reported in Table 2, the $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ mass concentration in Tartu shows an urban increment of
15 6.0 (4.6) $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ over a regional background concentration of 4.0 (3.5) $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. This leads to
16 urban $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ mass concentrations of up to 10 (8.1) $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, which represents an increase of a
17 factor 2.5 (2.3) in the particle mass concentration in the urban area compared to the regional
18 background. About half of this enhancement is related to the emissions of eBC, which shows
19 an increase of 3.2 (2.3) $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ over a regional background of 1.1 (0.58) $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. Thus, the
20 urban concentration of eBC is 4.2 (2.9) $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, which represents an enhancement of a factor
21 3.9 (5.0) of eBC in the urban area. The primary OA sources explain great part of the
22 remaining increase in the $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ mass: HOA is increased by a factor 3.6 (3.0) in the urban
23 area and has contribution of 1.7 (1.0) $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ to the urban concentration; RIOA is enhanced
24 by a factor 2.0 (2.3), contributing with 1.7 (1.0) $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ to the urban concentration; and
25 BBOA is enhanced by a factor 3.1 (2.4) and contributes with 1.0 (0.52) $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ to the urban
26 concentrations. On the other hand, OOA and the inorganic species (SO_4 , NO_3 , NH_4 and Cl)
27 show very low increases in the urban area, resulting in a total urban increment below $0.21 \mu\text{g}$
28 m^{-3} (average and median). In the gas-phase, CO_2 shows an increase of 8.3 (5.3) ppm over a
29 regional background of 403.5 ppm (both average and median); CO is increased by 0.15 (0.11)
30 ppm over a regional background of 0.16 (0.14) ppm, which represents an increase of a factor
31 1.9 (1.7); while CH_4 shows very similar concentrations inside and outside the city, with
32 average (and median) regional background of 1.90 ppm and urban concentrations of 1.91
33 ppm.



1 Similar results were obtained for Tallinn (see Fig. 6 and Fig. S7). However, given the larger
2 extension of this city, it wasn't possible to include a real regional background site in the
3 route. Therefore, the longitude profiles and urban increments couldn't be properly explored
4 for Tallinn. However, different source regions can still be distinguished within the examined
5 area. Thus, the spatial distribution of HOA (Fig. 6a) is in agreement with those of eBC, CO₂
6 and CO (Fig. 6g-i) and shows substantial increases in areas with high traffic and on major
7 streets in the city center with significant stop-and-go conditions. BBOA (Fig. 6b) has higher
8 contributions in the two residential areas, while compared to Tartu, in Tallinn the spatial
9 distribution of RIOA (Fig. 6c) is more homogeneous, with only slight enhancements in the
10 residential area and in the city center. Finally, OOA (Fig. 6d) exhibits a small enhancement in
11 the city center area, which again coincides with small increases in the secondary inorganic
12 species concentrations (see Fig. 6e-f and Fig. S7) that are insignificant within the
13 measurement and source apportionment uncertainties. Enhanced SO₄ levels are also found in
14 the northern part of the route, likely from local ship emissions (Lack et al., 2009).

15 **3.4 Special events: transport and accumulation of pollutants**

16 Enhanced concentrations of secondary species including OOA, SO₄, NO₃ and NH₄ were
17 measured during the first measurement day in Tartu (see Fig. 2a and Fig. 4a). The analysis of
18 the 24-hour back-trajectories reported in Fig. 8a indicates that these mostly secondary
19 components were probably transported from continental Europe, in particular from northern
20 Germany. The later decrease in the concentrations of these species coincides with clean air
21 masses originating from the Northern Atlantic at higher altitudes above ground level. As
22 reported in Fig. 8b, during this transport event the average PM_{2.5} mass concentration
23 increased to 28.3 μg m⁻³ (compared to average concentrations of 11.0 μg m⁻³ measured
24 during day-time and 6.5 μg m⁻³ during night-time). This increase in mass is mostly related to
25 the increased concentrations of the secondary components, especially of NO₃ and OOA.
26 Accordingly, the relative contributions of the inorganic species to the total NR-PM_{2.5}
27 increased to over 44 % during the transport event (compared to 12 % for day-time and around
28 28 % for night-time averages) and the relative contribution of the OOA to total OA increased
29 to 56 % (compared to 25 % for day-time and 42 % for night-time averages). It is worth to
30 note that source separation is more uncertain during the transport event due to lower statistics
31 and increased mixing (if the transported air contains multiple sources). This is especially the



1 case for RIOA, which has a relative error of 41 % (estimated by the bootstrapping procedure)
2 during the transport event.

3 During the nights of 28 and 29 March, very high concentrations of organics (exceeding 200
4 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$), eBC (above 15 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) and CO_2 (up to 500 ppm) were measured in Tallinn, as
5 shown in Fig. 9a. Relatively short back-trajectories originating from the Baltic Sea (North-
6 West and West from the sampling site) and at high altitudes were obtained for these periods
7 (not reported). Moreover, as shown in Fig. 9a, during such accumulation events wind speed
8 was close to zero and a strong near-ground temperature inversion (i.e. a positive temperature
9 difference between the ground and 22 m above ground level (AGL)) was observed. Under
10 such conditions, the vertical mixing is suppressed and the local pollutants are trapped at the
11 surface. As reported in Fig. 9b, during the accumulation periods the average $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ mass
12 increased up to 41.7 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, with OA explaining 73 % of the total mass. This increase was
13 mostly related to the increase of the primary aerosols, mainly HOA and BBOA, which
14 explained 33 and 37 % of the OA mass, respectively.

15

16 **4 Conclusions**

17 Mobile measurements allowed for the study of the spatial distributions of major gas- and
18 particle-phase pollutants in two urban areas in Estonia, permitting the identification of
19 particular source areas and the determination of regional background concentrations and
20 urban increments for the individual components/sources. A comprehensive set of instruments
21 including a HR-ToF-AMS (with a newly developed inlet to measure the NR- $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ fraction),
22 a 7-wavelength Aethalometer and several gas-phase monitors were deployed in the mobile
23 laboratory to retrieve a detailed chemical characterization of the $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ fraction and the
24 concentrations of several trace gases with high time resolution.

25 The measurements were performed in March 2013 in the two major cities of Estonia (Tallinn
26 and Tartu) and no major differences were found in the chemical composition at the two sites.
27 Higher mass concentrations were always measured during day-time, when point sources were
28 sampled during mobile measurements. Under regular meteorological conditions, OA
29 represented the largest mass fraction (on average 52.2 % to 60.1 % of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$), while the
30 relative contribution of the inorganic species (mostly SO_4 , NO_3 and NH_4) strongly increased
31 during the transport of polluted air masses from northern Germany. Four sources of OA were
32 identified by means of PMF: three primary sources (HOA, BBOA and RIOA) and a



1 secondary OA (OOA). Although the RIOA is thought to be dominated by cooking emissions,
2 contributions from other residential emissions to this factor cannot be excluded. For example,
3 waste burning is known to be a common process in some cities in Estonia (Maasikmets et al.,
4 2015). However, to properly separate the contribution of waste burning from other co-
5 emitting sources, laboratory studies of direct emissions need to be performed in the future.
6 While OOA dominated the OA mass during night-time (on average 42.3 % in Tartu and 43.8
7 % in Tallinn), the primary sources explained the major fraction of OA during day-time (75.2
8 % in Tartu and 68.3 % in Tallinn, with similar contributions from the three sources). During
9 the period with transport of polluted air masses aforementioned, the OOA relative
10 contribution was enhanced. In contrast, HOA, RIOA and BBOA were strongly enhanced
11 during periods characterized by temperature inversions, which induced the accumulation of
12 locally emitted primary pollutants (primary OA and eBC).

13 Different source regions were identified inside the two urban areas. All traffic related
14 pollutants (including HOA, eBC, CO₂ and CO) were strongly enhanced on the major city
15 roads, especially in areas with stop-and-go conditions during the morning and evening rush
16 hours. BBOA showed a clear increase in the residential areas during the evening hours (due
17 to domestic heating), while RIOA (believed to be strongly influenced by cooking emissions)
18 was enhanced in both, the city center (from restaurant cooking emissions) and in the
19 residential areas (from domestic cooking). In contrast, the secondary components (including
20 OOA, SO₄, NO₃, NH₄ and Cl) had very homogeneous spatial distributions, with no clear
21 enhancement in the urban areas (within the measurement uncertainties) or at certain times of
22 the day. For Tartu, regional background concentrations and urban increments of all measured
23 components/sources were also determined. On average, the PM_{2.5} mass had an enhancement
24 inside the city of 6.0 μg m⁻³ over the regional background concentration of 4.0 μg m⁻³. This
25 urban increment was strongly related to the enhancement of eBC (3.2 μg m⁻³) and the
26 primary OA sources (on average 1.2 μg m⁻³ from HOA, 0.67 μg m⁻³ from BBOA and 0.72 μg
27 m⁻³ from RIOA), while the secondary components (OOA, SO₄, NO₃, NH₄ and Cl) didn't
28 contribute to a substantial enhancement. Moreover, the good correlation found between eBC
29 with HOA indicates that up to 74 % of the enhancement in the PM_{2.5} is related to traffic
30 emissions in the urban area. CO₂ and CO, which were also found to be strongly correlated
31 with HOA, had an average urban increment of 8.3 and 0.15 ppm over regional background
32 concentrations of 403.5 and 0.15 ppm, respectively.



1 Our results show that mobile measurements are a very powerful technique for spatial
2 characterization of the major pollutants in urban areas. The methodology presented in this
3 work can be generalized to other cities, in order to determine the influence of human activity
4 on the particle sources and levels in different areas of a city and the related health effects.

5

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1 Table 1: Instrument list, measured components and time resolution of each measurement.

	Instrument list	Measured components	Time resolution
3 Aerosols	HR-ToF-AMS	<i>Size resolved chemical composition of NR-PM2.5</i>	25 sec
	Aethalometer	BC (7λ)	1 sec
5 Gas	CO ₂ Picarro	CO ₂ , CO, CH ₄ , H ₂ O	1 sec
	CO ₂ Licor	CO ₂ , H ₂ O	1 sec
7 Others	GPS, Temperature, Relative humidity & Solar radiation		2 sec

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1 Table 2: Results obtained from the average (A) and median (B) longitude profiles for each
 2 measured component/source. P05 represents the averaged 5th percentile subtracted for the
 3 calculation of the enhancements; base and increment values were obtained from the sigmoid
 4 fits; the regional background is given as the sum of P05 and the average base value; urban
 5 concentrations are the sum of the regional background and the average urban increment; the
 6 factor increase represents the ratio between the urban and the regional backgrounds.

7 (A) Average longitude profiles:

	P05 ⁽¹⁾	Base			Urban increment			Regional background	Urban concentration	Factor increase
		West	East	Average	West	East	Average			
PM _{2.5} (µg m ⁻³)	1.8	2.6	1.8	2.2	5.6	6.3	6.0	4.0	10.0	2.5
HOA (µg m ⁻³)	0.18	0.34	0.24	0.29	1.2	1.3	1.2	0.47	1.7	3.6
BBOA ⁽²⁾ (µg m ⁻³)	0.11	0.24 (0.16)	0.19	0.21	0.60 (0.64)	0.75	0.67	0.32	1.0	3.1
RIOA (µg m ⁻³)	0.27	0.44	-0.30	0.44	0.72	1.9	0.72	0.71	1.4	2.0
OOA (µg m ⁻³)	0.44	0.42	0.32	0.37	0.024	0.11	0.069	0.81	0.87	1.1
SO ₄ (µg m ⁻³)	0.29	0.075	0.055	0.065	0.032	0.051	0.042	0.35	0.39	1.1
NO ₃ (µg m ⁻³)	0.095	0.075	0.076	0.075	0.042	0.038	0.040	0.17	0.21	1.2
NH ₄ (µg m ⁻³)	0.079	0.032	0.028	0.030	0.012	0.016	0.014	0.11	0.12	1.1
Cl (µg m ⁻³)	0.012	0.036	0.035	0.035	0.022	0.022	0.022	0.047	0.069	1.5
eBC (µg m ⁻³)	0.34	0.96	0.54	0.75	3.0	3.3	3.2	1.1	4.2	3.9
CO ₂ (ppm)	403.0	0.99	0.04	0.52	7.8	8.9	8.3	403.5	411.9	1.0
CO (ppm)	0.14	0.028	0.012	0.020	0.14	0.15	0.15	0.16	0.31	1.9
CH ₄ ⁽³⁾ (ppm)	1.90	0.0060 (0.0052)	<0.001	0.001 2	0.0047 (0.0064)	0.012	0.0083	1.90	1.91	1.0

(B) Median longitude profiles:

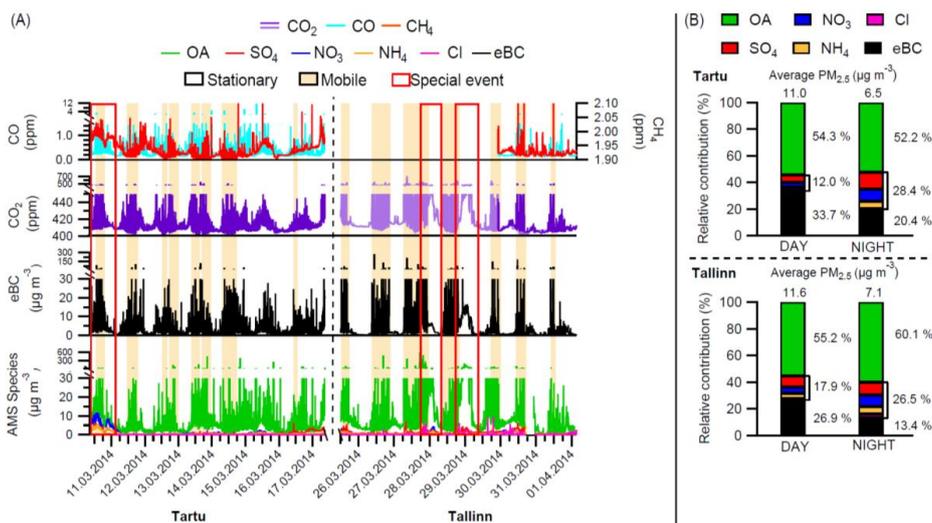
	P05 ⁽¹⁾	Base			Urban increment			Regional background	Urban concentration	Factor increase
		West	East	Average	West	East	Average			
PM _{2.5} (µg m ⁻³)	1.8	1.8	1.6	1.7	4.6	4.6	4.6	3.5	8.1	2.3
HOA (µg m ⁻³)	0.18	0.16	0.13	0.14	0.66	0.66	0.66	0.33	1.0	3.0
BBOA (µg m ⁻³)	0.11	0.088	0.12	0.11	0.35	0.27	0.31	0.22	0.52	2.4
RIOA (µg m ⁻³)	0.27	0.20	0.15	0.17	0.58	0.60	0.59	0.45	1.0	2.3
OOA (µg m ⁻³)	0.44	0.28	0.26	0.27	0.084	0.096	0.090	0.71	0.80	1.1
SO ₄ (µg m ⁻³)	0.29	0.064	0.053	0.059	0.029	0.039	0.034	0.35	0.38	1.1
NO ₃ (µg m ⁻³)	0.095	0.043	0.053	0.048	0.056	0.039	0.047	0.14	0.19	1.3
NH ₄ (µg m ⁻³)	0.079	0.028	0.026	0.027	0.0094	0.011	0.010	0.11	0.12	1.1
Cl (µg m ⁻³)	0.012	0.022	0.025	0.024	0.024	0.019	0.021	0.035	0.06	1.6
eBC (µg m ⁻³)	0.34	0.45	0.027	0.24	2.0	2.5	2.3	0.58	2.9	5.0
CO ₂ (ppm)	403.0	0.95	0.051	0.50	5.0	5.6	5.3	403.5	408.8	1.0
CO (ppm)	0.14	0.011	<0.001	0.0052	0.096	0.12	0.11	0.14	0.25	1.7
CH ₄ ⁽³⁾ (ppm)	1.90	0.0032 (0.0028)	<0.001	<0.001	0.0051 (0.0055)	0.011	0.0079	1.90	1.91	1.0

(1) Excluding special events (2) X₀ not fixed (3) Excluding spike



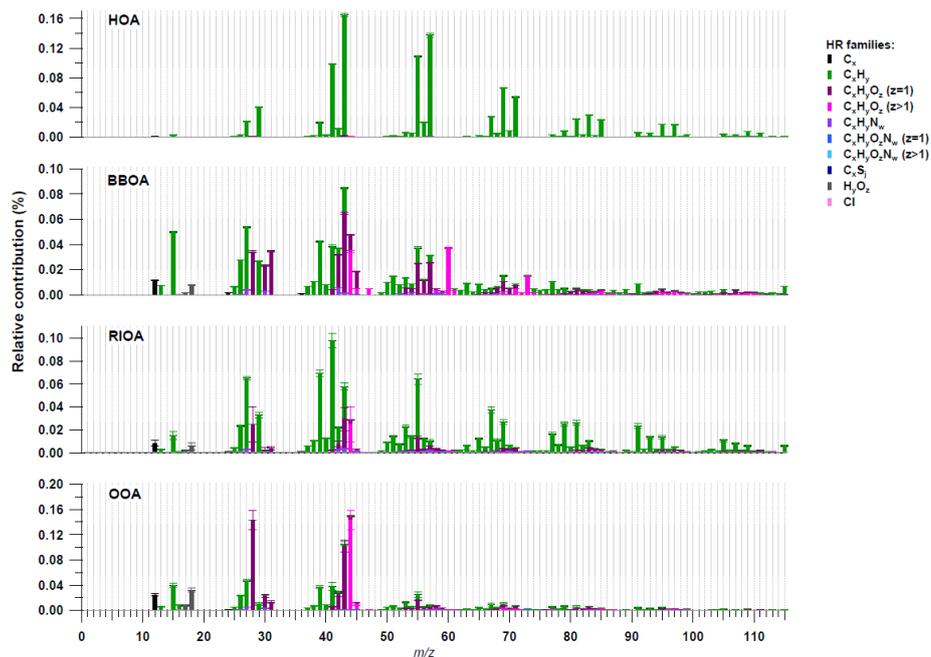
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2 Figure 1: Driving routes in Tartu (top) and Tallinn (bottom). Red line represents: GPS data;
3 Yellow star: stationary measurements location; Blue dots: monitoring stations of the Estonian
4 Environmental Research Institute (EERC).

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 2 Figure 2: (a) Temporal evolution of all gas- and particle-phase measured components over
 3 the full measurement period; (b) Average PM_{2.5} (NR-PM_{2.5} plus eBC) mass concentration and
 4 chemical composition for the measurements in Tartu (top panel) and Tallinn (bottom panel),
 5 with day- and night-time distinction.

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2 Figure 3: Mass spectra of the four OA sources identified with PMF. From top to bottom:
3 HOA, BBOA, RIOA and OOA. Error bars indicate the standard deviation among 100
4 bootstrap runs.

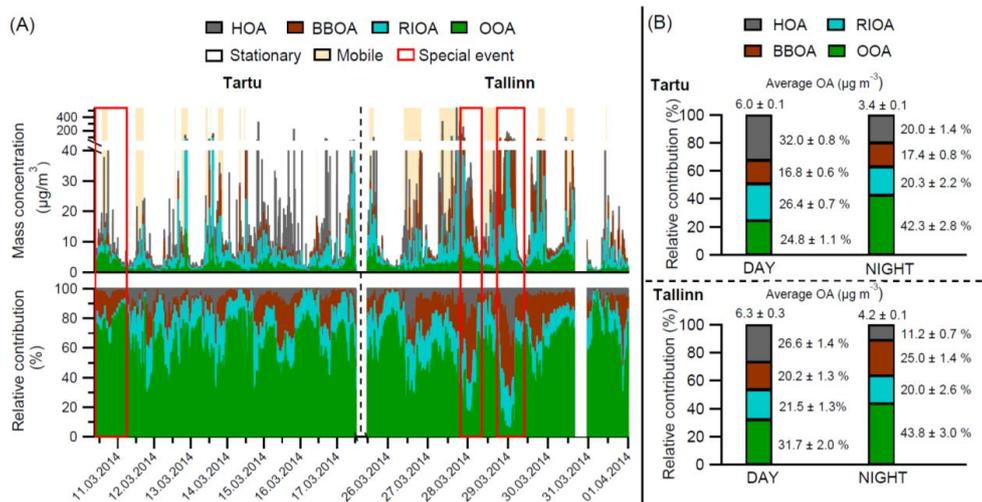
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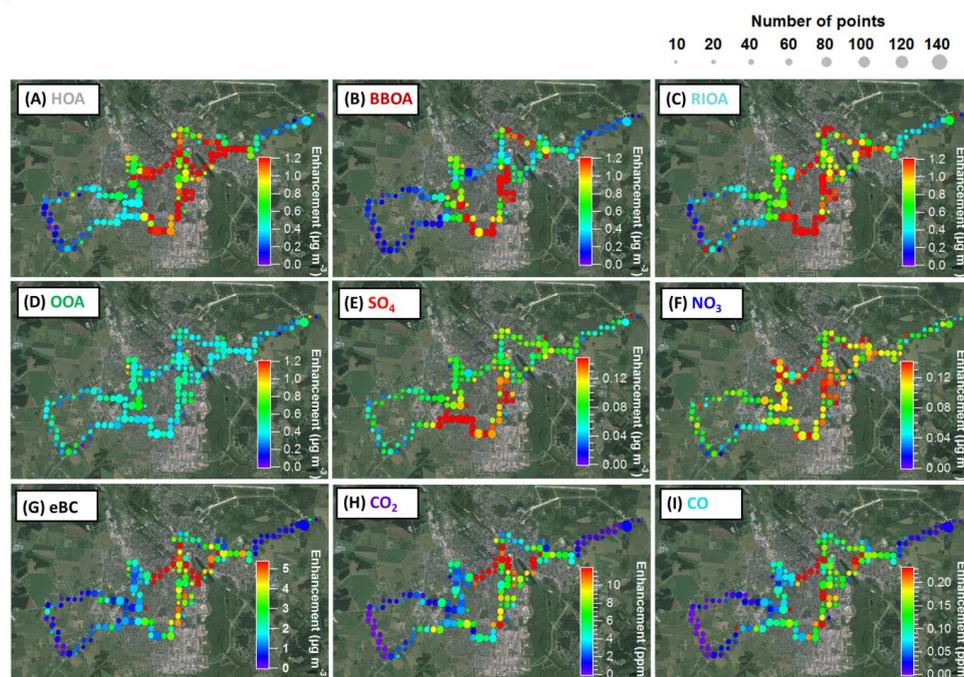
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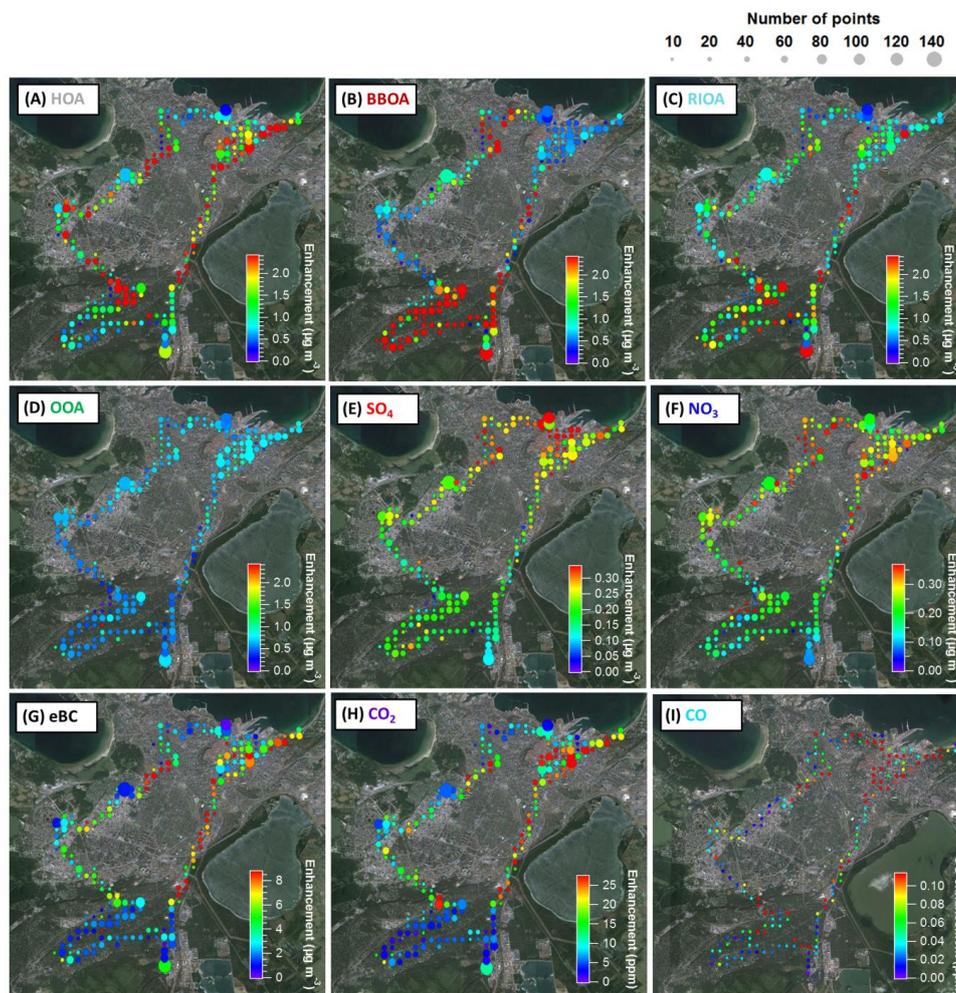


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2 Figure 4: (a) Temporal evolution of the absolute mass (top panel) and relative contributions
3 (bottom panel) of the four OA sources over the full measurement period; (b) Average OA
4 mass concentrations and relative contributions of the OA sources for the measurements in
5 Tartu (top panel) and Tallinn (bottom panel), with day- and night-time distinction. Errors
6 indicate the standard deviation among 100 bootstrap runs.

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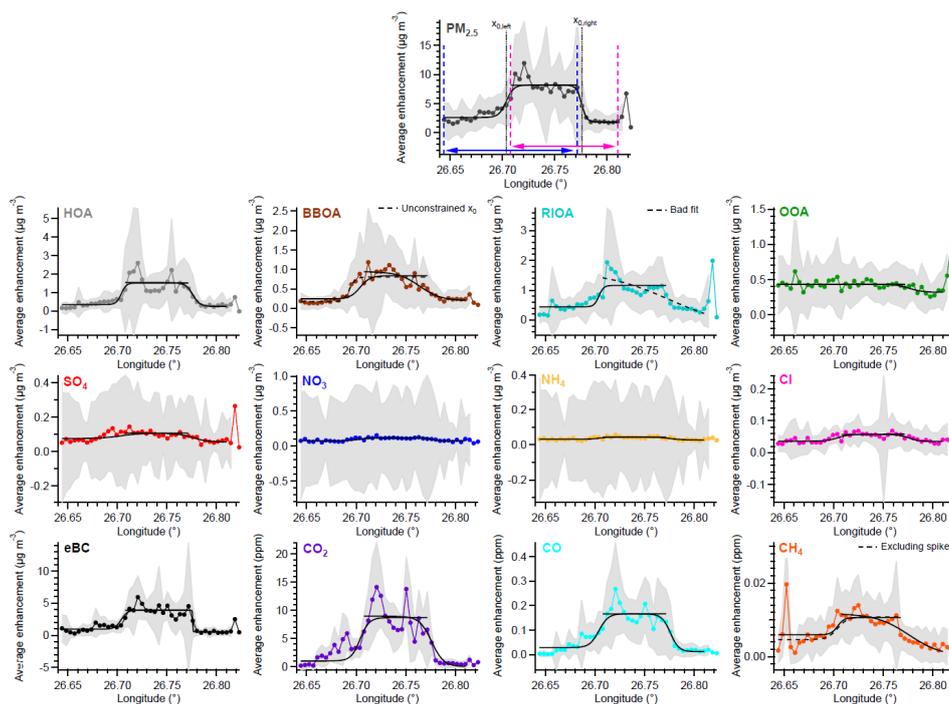


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2 Figure 5: Average spatial distributions of all identified OA sources (panels a-d) and other
3 measured components (panels e-i) in Tartu. The color scales represent enhancement over the
4 background concentrations; the maximum of the color scales have been fixed to the 75th
5 percentile of the average enhancement of each component in panels e-i and to the highest 75th
6 percentile among all OA sources in panels a-d. The sizes of the points represent the number
7 of points that have been averaged in each case.
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2 Figure 6: Average spatial distributions of all identified OA sources (panels a-d) and other
3 measured components (panels e-i) in Tallinn. The color scales represent enhancement
4 over the background concentrations; the maximum of the color scales have been fixed to the 75th
5 percentile of the average enhancement of each component in panels e-i and to the highest 75th
6 percentile among all OA sources in panels a-d. The sizes of the points represent the number
7 of points that have been averaged in each case (Note: less data available for CO).

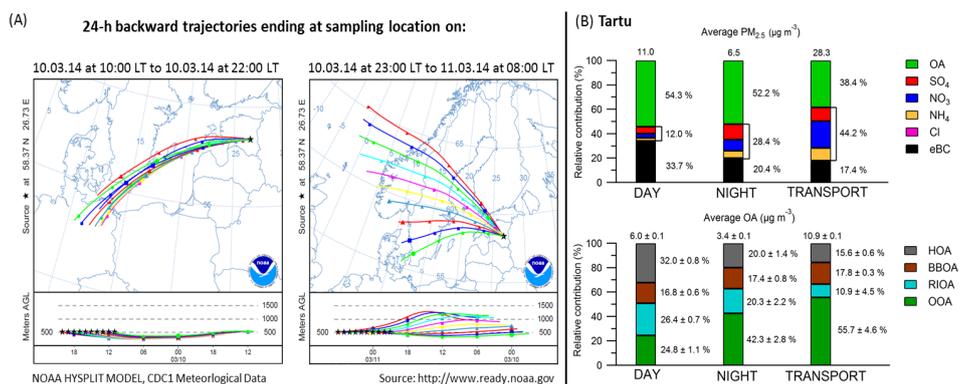
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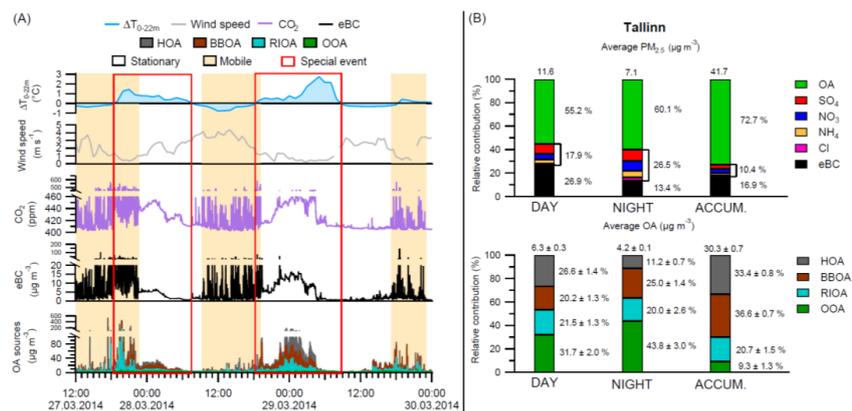
2 Figure 7: Average longitude profiles of the enhancements of all measured components and
3 sources in Tartu. Colored curves represent the average enhancement of each
4 source/components over 26 loops and the grey shaded area is the standard deviation among
5 them. The average enhancements were fitted with sigmoid functions (black curves). The
6 fitting limits (pink and blue arrows in top panel) and the sigmoid's midpoint (X_0) were
7 determined from the fit of the total $PM_{2.5}$ mass (NR- $PM_{2.5}$ plus eBC) and then imposed to the
8 other components/sources. Dashed black lines indicate a non-standard fit (described in each
9 case in the plot) and the results of these fits are represented in parenthesis and grey color in
10 Table 2. Notes: The spike found in the east for RIOA, OOA and SO_4 is not representative, as
11 it is related to one single measurement point. The spike in CH_4 in the west side is related to
12 consistent increases of this component nearby a cowshed and will be further investigated in a
13 future publication.

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 2 Figure 8: (a) 24-hour back-trajectories (NOAA HYSPLIT MODEL) of the air masses ending
 3 at the sampling location (Tartu) during the transport event (left panel) and the successive
 4 hours (right panel). (b) PM_{2.5} mass concentration and chemical composition (top panel) and
 5 OA mass concentration and relative contributions of the OA sources (bottom panel) during
 6 the measurements in Tartu during day-time, night-time and transport event. Errors indicate
 7 the standard deviation among 100 bootstrap runs.

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 2 Figure 9: (a) Temporal evolution of the OA sources, eBC and CO₂, wind speed and ΔT_{0-22m}
 3 (temperature difference between ground level and at 22 meters above ground level) during
 4 the accumulation events in Tallinn. (b) PM_{2.5} mass concentration and chemical composition
 5 (top panel) and OA mass concentration and relative contributions of the OA sources (bottom
 6 panel) during the measurements in Tallinn during day-time, night-time and accumulation
 7 events. Errors indicate the standard deviation among 100 bootstrap runs.