### 1 Author's response:

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4 We thank the Referees for the careful revision and comments which helped in 5 improving the overall quality of the manuscript.

6 A point-by-point answer (in regular typeset) to the referees' remarks (in the *italic* 7 *typeset*) follows, while changes to the manuscript are indicated in blue font.

8 In the following page and lines references refer to the manuscript version reviewed
9 by anonymous referee #1 and #2.

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## 1 Anonymous Referee #1

2 Received and published: 20 June 2016

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4 This manuscript presents an analysis of the composition and source apportionment of PM1 filters collected at three sites in Lithuania. For this offline technique, the 5 aqueous extracts from filters were nebulized with Ar for introduction into the HR-ToF-6 AMS. The use of Ar as the nebulization gas enabled an analysis of the  $CO^+/CO_2^+$ 7 fragment ratio and trends in that ratio with season. Positive matrix factorization was 8 also applied on both the offline AMS data set as well as an offline marker data set 9 collected using the same filters. This manuscript provides a good demonstration of 10 the type of data sets that can be generated via this offline AMS technique and the 11 CO+/CO2+ analysis provides new insights into the interpretation of AMS data from 12 ambient samples. Thus, I see this paper as appropriate for publication in ACP. 13 However, I have a few concerns, mostly related to sampling artifacts that need to be 14 addressed prior to publication. 15

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19 1) **P2 L9:** Traffic exhaust OA is listed as a PMF factor from AMS spectra, yet in the

experimental it is noted that the contribution is too low to be resolved with PMF and is instead estimated using a CMB approach. I suggest rewording the abstract to clarify this.

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25 We reworded the abstract as follows: "AMS WSOA spectra were analyzed using positive matrix factorization (PMF), which yielded 4 factors. These factors included 26 27 biomass burning OA (BBOA), local OA (LOA) contributing significantly only in Vilnius, 28 and two oxygenated OA (OOA) factors, summer OOA (S-OOA) and background 29 OOA (B-OOA) distinguished by their seasonal variability. The contribution of traffic 30 exhaust OA (TEOA) was not resolved by PMF due to both low concentrations and low water solubility. Therefore, the TEOA concentration was estimated using a 31 chemical mass balance approach, based on the concentrations of hopanes, specific 32 markers of traffic emissions." 33

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#### 35 Changes in text:

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- P5 L24: The nebulizer used was operated at 60°C, how long are the aerosols in this heated region? Was this temperature in the nebulizer also used in the Daellenbach et al. analysis? What effect might this high temperature have on the composition of the organics measured with the AMS compared to online analysis? If this temperature was not used for the Daellenbach analysis, what effect might this have on the factor specific

recoveries of this work compared to the results from that previous analysis?

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The nebulizing Ar flow was 0.4 L min<sup>-1</sup>. Considering the internal diameter (6 mm) and 4 the length of our lines, we can estimate an aerosol residence time in our lines (from 5 6 nebulization to AMS detection) of ca. 2 s. The aerosol residence time in the 60°C 7 zone is significantly shorter (~100ms). A set of 40 PM<sub>1</sub> filter samples collected in Lithuania (not included within the source apportionment presented in this work) was 8 9 measured using both the Apex Q nebulizer (Elemental Scientific Inc., Omaha NE 68131 USA) operated at 60°C and using a custom-built nebulizer (Daellenbach et al., 10 2016). The comparable WSOA/SO $_4^{2-}$  ratio registered using the two systems indicates 11 a negligible loss of volatile organics (Fig. Discussion 1 (Fig. D1)). 12

We compared organic mass spectral time series and fragments fractional 13 contributions retrieved from the two different nebulization systems. Mass spectra 14 revealed a good correlation for all fragments (R = 0.94 on average), similarly the total 15 organic signal showed a correlation of R = 0.94 (Fig. D1). Excluding CO<sub>2</sub><sup>+</sup> and the 16 related fragments (CO<sup>+</sup>, H<sub>2</sub>O<sup>+</sup>, HO<sup>+</sup>, and O<sup>+</sup>, Aiken et al., 2008; Canagaratna et al., 17 18 2007), the intensity of which can be affected by the vaporizer history (Fröhlich et al., 19 2015, Pieber et al., 2016), we observed a good agreement between the normalized AMS mass spectral fingerprints obtained with the two different nebulizers, with 95% 20 of the *i*, *j* elements not statistically different within  $2\sigma$ . As stated in the manuscript, 21 here i, and j represent a generic filter sample and a generic AMS fragment, 22 23 respectively, while the uncertainty considered here includes blank variability, 24 repeatability, uncertainty related to ion counting statistics and ion-to-ion signal variability at the detector. Overall the new nebulization system revealed a ~7 times 25 higher sensitivity. Given the high correlation and the similarity in the mass spectral 26 fingerprints, we can exclude substantial effects on the recoveries of the different 27 28 factors.



Figure D1. Top: WSOA/SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> ratio registered with a custom-made nebulizer
(Daellenbach et al. 2016, here marked as "old nebulizer") and our nebulization
system ("new nebulizer"). Bottom: OA signal comparison.

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3) P18 L25: PM<sub>1</sub> composition discussed here and shown in Figure 1 shows ions that can be measured with both the AMS and IC (e.g. SO4, NO3, etc.). Do the contributions shown in Figure 1 correspond to the IC measurements or AMS? For ions that can be quantified with both techniques, how do the values compare between the AMS and IC?

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### 13 Author's response:

As mentioned at P6, L30-31, the ion concentrations are from IC if not differently specified. For the sake of clarity we added this information in the Figure 1 caption.

Following the recommendations of anonymous referees #1 and #2 we added in the revised SI a comparison between offline-AMS and IC:

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19 Offline-AMS comparison with IC and WSOC determination by TOC analyzer

20 Overall, the comparison between offline-AMS and IC concentrations of  $NH_4^+$ ,  $SO_4^{2-}$ , 21 and  $NO_3^-$  reveals a non-linear relation due to the lower IC detection limits. This is

most likely related to the low transmission efficiency of the AMS lens for small particles, particularly predominant for diluted filter extracts. 

Nevertheless, considering internally mixed nebulized particles, the composition of the particles is not supposed to change with the solution concentration, as also 

confirmed by dilution tests conducted on our filter extracts (Fig. D2). 









Figure D3. Offline-AMS comparison with different techniques with IC and WSOC
 measurements by TOC analyzer.

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5 Figure D2 and D3 were added to the SI as Fig. S16 and S17:

6 The following paragraph was added to Fig. S17 caption:

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This low particle transmission efficiency for diluted solutions results in a high scattering at low concentration. Additional scattering is observed in the relation between offline-AMS and IC  $SO_4^{2^\circ}$ . This is related to the presence of refractory sulfate salts (e.g.  $Na_2SO_4$ , ammonium sulfate) which are detectable by IC, but not with the AMS, consistent with lower slope obtained between offline-AMS and IC  $SO_4^{2^\circ}$ , compared to the other species.

13 These species are likely formed during nebulization, e.g.

$$(NH4)_2SO_4 + CaCl_2 \rightleftharpoons CaSO_4 + 2NH_4Cl$$

15 For these reasons we only reported inorganic ion concentrations from IC.

 4) P19 L14-20: The nitrate concentration shows clear seasonality with larger contributions in the winter and the sulfate concentration looks relatively constant throughout the year. However, in Figure 1, the ammonium concentration appears to also be relatively constant throughout the year. Is this correct? If so, can the authors comment on potential counter ions for NO<sub>3</sub>?

#### 10 Author's response:

11 Considering the  $NH_4^+$ ,  $SO_4^{2-}$  and  $NO_3^-$  concentrations in  $\mu Eq m^{-3}$ , the agreement 12 between  $(NH_4^+)$  and  $(SO_4^{2-} + NO_3^-)$  is high, with an average  $(SO_4^{-2-} + NO_3^-)/NH_4^+$  ratio 13 of 0.99 over the year and 1.02 during winter. The Pearson correlation coefficient *R* 14 between  $(SO_4^{2-} + NO_3^-)$  and  $NH_4^+$  was 0.92 considering the whole year and 0.84 15 considering only winter. Therefore, the role of other counter ions is negligible.





3 Figure D4 was added to Fig. S11.

5) **P20 L 28-31:** The background-OOA factor appears to correlate with NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> much better at Preila and Vilnius than Rugsteliskes (Figure S11). Are there any potential reasons for the lower apparent correlation at Rugsteliskes? How much uncertainty is there in the NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> measurement? What is the significance of a correlation of B-OOA with NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>?

### 11 Author's response:

The B-OOA factor correlation with  $NH_4^+$  is significant at all stations: R = 0.82 ( $R^2 = 0.67$ ) for Vilnius, 0.87 ( $R^2 = 0.76$ ) for Preila, and 0.71 ( $R^2 = 0.50$ ) for Rūgšteliškis. The correlation of B-OOA with a secondary inorganic component such as  $NH_4^+$  could suggest the secondary origin of B-OOA, as also inferred by the comparison with the marker-source apportionment (section 4.4.2). The repeatability of  $NH_4^+$  IC measurements was 10%, while according to our error estimate (Section 3.1.3), the average relative uncertainty on the B-OOA factor for Rūgšteliškis was 12%. We

estimated that up to half of the total unexplained variability in the relationship between NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> and B-OOA in Rūgšteliškis can be due to the abovementioned errors, while in Preila and Vilnius the B-OOA *vs* NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, most of the unexplained variability can be attributed to the errors. For Rūgšteliškis the remaining unexplained variability (27%) may be related to variability in the precursor composition and/or in the air masses photochemical age.

7 This information was added to Fig. S11 caption.

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  6) Section 2.1 and P21 L1-17: Were the High-Volume samplers located in temperature controlled rooms? If not, what effect could higher summer
- temperature controlled rooms? If not, what effect could higher summer
   temperatures have on the composition of the organic compared to the
   winter samples? Could the S-OOA factor be complicated by collection
   differences caused by the loss (on the filter) of more volatile organic
   molecules during summer months?
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#### 16 Author's response:

High volume were equipped with temperature control systems maintaining the filter storage temperature always below 25°C, which is lower or comparable to the maximum daily temperature during summer (Fig. 3b). This should prevent large negative artifacts involving the most volatile fraction.

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- 22 We added this information in P4, L16:
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In order to prevent large negative filter artifacts, the high-volume samplers were equipped with temperature control systems maintaining the filter storage temperature always below 25°C, which is lower or comparable to the maximum daily temperature during summer.

# 29 7) **P2 L6:** the $CO_2^+:CO^+$ ratios reported in section 4.5 are greater than 1. The less than sign should be switched.

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- 32 Corrected as suggested
- 34 8) **P10 L22-23:** a verb such as "was used" is missing.
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36 Corrected as "was constrained"

- P22 L3: I suggest some mention directing the reader to Figure 5 be made
  in the text as the time series for the factors are discussed in this section
  but no mention of Figure 5 is made.
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1	We introduced a reference to Figure 5 at P22 L3	
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3 4	10)	<b>P25 L13:</b> "Using the ratio (1.88) calculated from offline-AMS". Suggest adding
5	$OM/OC_{BBOA}$ ratio to communicate what ratio is being used in the calculation here.	
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7	Corrected as suggested	
8 9 10	11)	<b>P30 L 25-26:</b> suggest rephrasing, the double negative "unlikely return uncertain CO+ values" is confusing.
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12	Rephrased as: "should return accurate CO <sup>+</sup> "	
13 14 15 16 17	12)	<b>P45 Figure 2 and P46 Figure 4:</b> Suggest either writing out the factor names in the labels (background-OOA instead of B-OOA etc.) or giving the names and labels in the caption.
18	Factor names and labels added in Figure 2 and Figure 4 captions.	
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25	Anor	ymous Referee #2
26	Received a	and published: 30 June 2016

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#### 28 General Comments:

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This manuscript reported an analysis of PM<sub>1</sub> compositions and sources at three different sites in Lithuania based on filter samples. The authors applied AMS and other instruments to analyze the filter samples, and then performed PMF analysis to study the sources of OA and PM<sub>1</sub>. This study presented a method/case to study the sources of total ambient OA based on the measurements of water soluble OA only. That is, apply PMF analysis on the water soluble organic mass spectra, identify multiple factors, and rescale the water soluble concentration to total concentration by applying recovery ratios. This is an interesting method but has large uncertainties,

- 1 which arise from the recovery ratio. I think this manuscript is suitable for publication 2 in ACP once the following comments have been addressed.
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#### 5 **Source Apportionment**

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8 We thank Anonymous Referee #2 for the careful review which indeed helped to 9 improve the overall quality of our work. We want to state that while the uncertainty 10 deriving from the recovery application is substantial, we do demonstrate that this uncertainty is comparable to that from PMF rotational uncertainty. The overall 11 12 uncertainty of our source apportionment is factor dependent and is on average 14% for BBOA, 15% for B-OOA, 28% for S-OOA, and 100% for LOA, with the latter mostly 13 due to the low concentrations during winter and . As a comparison, the R<sub>BBOA</sub> relative 14 uncertainty ( $\sigma R_{BBOA}$ ) was 10%,  $\sigma R_{OOA}$  was 7%, and  $\sigma R_{LOA}$  14%. Our factor 15 uncertainties are comparable to the AMS mass uncertainty, which is commonly 16 considered to be 30%, but does not affect our results, and instead affects online-17 AMS source apportionment studies. Therefore the uncertainty relative to the offline-18 19 AMS methodology is high, yet comparable to the online-AMS source apportionment.

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#### 22 Major comments

Ambient total OA source apportionment based on the measurement of
 water soluble OA.

The major uncertainty of this method arises from the recovery ratio (Rz), 26 27 which is a reflection of the bulk extraction efficiency and water solubility of 28 OA factors. It is not clear how the Rz values are obtained in this study. As I 29 understand, the authors randomly selected Rz from Daellenbach et al. (2016) as initial conditions and fit Eq. (6) to get RLOA. If so, how are 30 RBBOA and ROOA obtained? Why are they different from the values in 31 32 Daellenbach et al. (2016). Also, it is not clear which Rz values are 33 eventually applied, from Daellenbach et al. (2016) or the values calculated 34 in this study?

35 36 As anonymous referee #2 mentioned, factor recoveries were randomly selected from the combinations reported in Daellenbach et al. (2016). The randomly selected  $R_{z}$ 37 combinations were perturbed assuming possible biases in the OC and WSOC 38 measurements in Daellenbach et al. (2016) and in this study. The perturbed 39 40 randomly selected  $R_Z$  combinations were then used as input to fit  $R_{LOA}$  according to 41 Eq. (6). Only  $R_Z$  combinations leading to unbiased OC fit residuals were retained (i.e. 42 OC fitting residuals not statistically different from 0 within  $1\sigma$  for summer and winter individually and for the whole period). The retained  $R_Z$  combinations were displayed 43 as PDF in Fig. S8. The newly obtained  $R_{BBOA}$  and  $R_{OOA}$  are systematically lower than 44 those reported in Daellenbach et al. (2016), by 5.6% and 12.3% respectively, within 45

the expected biases of the different measurements. L23 P12- L6, P13 were modifiedas follows:

3 4 For each of the 95 retained PMF solutions, Eq. (6) was fitted 100 times by randomly 5 selecting a set of 100  $R_{BBOA}$ ,  $R_{OOA}$  value combinations from those determined by Daellenbach et al. (2016). Each fit was initiated by perturbing the input  $OC_i$  and 6 7 TEOC<sub>i</sub> within their uncertainties, assuming a normal distribution of the errors. Additionally, in order to explore the effect of possible bulk extraction efficiency 8 9 (WSOC/OC) systematic measurement biases on our  $R_Z$  estimates, we also perturbed 10 the OC, WSOC (Daellenbach et al., 2016) inputs. Specifically, we assumed an estimated accuracy bias of 5% for each of the perturbed parameters, which 11 12 corresponds to the OC and WSOC measurement accuracy. In a similar way, we also perturbed the input R<sub>BBOA</sub> and R<sub>OOA</sub> assuming an accuracy estimate of 5% deriving 13 from a possible OC measurement bias in Daellenbach et al. (2016) which could have 14 affected the  $R_Z$  determination. In total 9.5 10<sup>3</sup> fits were performed (Eq. 6) and we 15 retained only solutions (and corresponding perturbed  $R_Z$  combinations) associated 16 with average OC residuals not statistically different from 0 within  $1\sigma$  for each station 17 individually and for summer and winter individually (~8% of the 9.5 10<sup>3</sup> fits, Fig. S6). 18 The OC residuals of the accepted solutions did not manifest a clear correlation with 19 the LOA concentration (Fig. S7), indicating that the estimated  $R_{LOA}$  was properly 20 fitted, without compensating for unexplained variability of the PMF model or biases 21 from the other  $R_z$ . Fig. S8 shows the probability density functions (PDF) of the 22 retained perturbed Rz which account for all uncertainties and biases mentioned 23 24 above.

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34 35 2) The authors mentioned that the bulk extraction efficiency in this study is lower than that in Daellenbach et al. (2016). This result is not surprising since one OA factor likely has contribution from multiple sources and the water solubility of OA factors may vary with site and season. For example, the water solubility of BBOA ranges from 64% to 80% (Sciare et al., 2011; Timonen et al., 2008). In addition, this method is not sensitive to primary OA factors (e.g., HOA and Cooking OA), which is largely water insoluble. This is another reason why HOA cannot be resolved from the PMF analysis. The limitations should be better discussed in the manuscript.

- What suggestions do the authors have for researchers who want to use the method as proposed in this manuscript? For example, should they follow the same filter extraction procedures as in this study? How to calculate the Rz?
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Indeed, Bulk EE (WSOC/OC) can vary between site and seasons and WSOC ranges 41 reported in the literature for the different sources (e.g. BBOA, (Sciare et al., 2011; 42 Timonen et al., 2008) cover the ranges obtained here and in Daellenbach et al. 43 44 (2016). However, it is unexpected that all primary and secondary factors determined 45 in this study in both seasons have systematically lower water solubility than those in 46 Daellenbach et al. (2016). By contrast, the Bulk EE differences found between this 47 work and Daellenbach et al. (2016) can be fully explained by the WSOC and OC 48 accuracy measurements.

#### 2 The following recommendations for future offline-AMS users were added at P13 L19:

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4 In general the recovery estimates reported in Daellenbach et al. (2016) represent the 5 most accurate estimates available, being constrained to match the online-ACSM source apportionment results. The  $R_Z$  combinations reported by Daellenbach et al. 6 (2016) demonstrated to positively apply to this dataset, enabling properly fitting the 7 measured Bulk EE (WSOC/OC) with unbiased residuals and therefore providing a 8 9 further confidence on their applicability (we note that in Eq. 6 we fitted OC as function of  $1/R_Z$  and WSOC<sub>Z,i</sub>, therefore  $R_Z$  fitted WSOC/OC = Bulk EE). In general further  $R_Z$ 10 11 determinations calculated comparing offline-AMS and online-AMS source 12 apportionments would be desirable in order to provide more robust  $R_Z$  estimates. In absence of a-priori  $R_Z$  values for specific factors (e.g. for LOA in this study) we 13 recommend constraining the  $R_Z$  combinations reported by Daellenbach et al. (2016) 14 15 as a-priori information to fit the unknown recoveries, with the caveat that the  $R_{7}$ 16 combinations reported by Deallenbach et al. (2016) were determined for filter samples water extracted following a specific procedure; therefore we recommend 17 18 adopting these  $R_Z$  combinations for filter samples extracted in the same conditions. 19 Nevertheless the  $R_Z$  combinations reported by Daellenbach et al. (2016) should be tested also for filters extracted with water in different conditions to verify whether they 20 can properly fit the Bulk EE. In case the  $R_Z$  combinations reported by Daellenbach et 21 al. (2016) would not apply for a specific location or extraction procedure (i.e. not 22 23 enabling a proper fit of Bulk EE) we recommend a  $R_Z$  redetermination by comparing 24 the offline-AMS source apportionment results with well-established source 25 apportionment techniques. In absence of data to perform a well-established source 26 apportionment, we recommend to fit all the  $R_Z$  to match the bulk EE (i.e. fitting all the 27 recoveries similarly as in Eq. 6 without constraining any a-priory  $R_Z$  value).

28 In general, the offline-AMS technique assesses less precisely the contribution of the 29 lower water soluble factors. The higher uncertainty mostly stems from the larger PMF 30 rotational ambiguity when separating a factor characterized by low concentration in the aqueous filter extracts. Nevertheless, the uncertainty is dataset dependent, as 31 the separation of source components with low water solubility can be improved in 32 33 case of distinct time variability characterizing those sources in comparison with the other aerosol sources. The low aqueous concentration of scarcely water soluble 34 sources in fact can be partially overcome by the large signal/noise characterizing the 35 offline-AMS technique (170 on average for this dataset). 36

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3) Discussions on instruments comparison are required.

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41 42 Inorganic ions such as NH4+, NO3-, and SO42- are measured by both AMS and IC. The authors should present the instruments comparison.

The comparison between offline-AMS and IC ion concentrations was discussed and added to the SI, according also to Anonymous Referee #1 question (question 5). We note though that offline AMS data are not used for quantification, which will be the subject of an up-coming study.

4) Page 9 Line 29-30. The AMS measured concentration is scaled to match the WSOC measurement. What's the scale ratio? Is the scale ratio the same for all filter samples?

Similarly to  $NH_4^+$ ,  $SO_4^{2-}$ , and  $NO_3$ , and for the same reasons discussed above 5 (Anonymous referee #1, question 5), the WSOC signal from offline-AMS does not 6 7 follow a linear relation. Therefore the scaling factor is not constant. We would like to note once again that the AMS has not been used for quantification, specifically 8 because of these issues related to particle transmission efficiency; moreover, as 9 displayed in Fig. D2 the WSOM AMS mass spectral fingerprint does not show large 10 changes when diluting our filter extracts. This comparison was inserted in the revised 11 12 SI.



TOC analyzer [µg L<sup>2</sup>]
 Figure D5. Correlation between WSOC offline-AMS signal and WSOC
 measurements by TOC analyzer.

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- 5) The difference in separation and classification of OA factors between online and offline-AMS (Page 20 Line 14-27).
- I disagree with the statement that "online-AMS OOA factors are commonly classified based on their volatility", because chemistry and sources also affect the factor separation. For example, the separation of IEPOX-OA factor (Budisulistiorini et al., 2013; Hu et al., 2015) or called isoprene-OA factor (Xu et al., 2015) is driven by IEPOX chemistry, but not volatility. Also, Xu et al. (2015) showed that nighttime monoterpene oxidation by nitrate radical contributes to less-oxidized OOA (as termed SV-OOA in this study).
- Following the suggestion of anonymous referee #2 we modified the lines at P20 L17-18 as follows:
- Few online-AMS studies reported the separation of isoprene-related OA factor (Budisulistiorini et al., 2013; Hu et al., 2015, Xu et al., 2015) mostly driven by isoprene epoxides chemistry. Xu et al. (2015) showed that nighttime monoterpene oxidation by nitrate radical contributes to less-oxidized OOA. However, the large majority of online-AMS OOA factors are commonly classified based on their volatility

(semi-volatile OOA and low-volatility OOA) rather than on their sources and formation
 mechanisms.

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6) The authors stated that "the offline-AMS sources apportionment separates
factors by seasonal trends rather than volatility". However, sometimes,
seasonal trend affects the source apportionment through volatility. For
example, Page 23 Line 26-27 discussed that higher NO3--related SA
exhibits higher concentration in winter than summer, which is due to the
semi-volatile nature of NO3- (Page 19 Line 20).

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12 Concerning the relation between seasonality and volatility, we agree that OOA factors with different seasonal behaviors can be characterized by different volatilities. 13 However in this work the offline-AMS OOA separation is not driven by volatility, given 14 the low correlation between  $NO_3^-$  and our OOA factors (this is also reflected by the 15 low NO<sub>3</sub>-related SOA correlation with B-OOA and S-OOA, Table 2). Additionally, the 16 partitioning of semi-volatile OA at low temperatures would lead to a less oxidized 17 OOA fingerprint during winter; however, this is not the case here. We observed a less 18 19 oxidized OOA factor during summer, whose fingerprint closely resembles that of SOA 20 from biogenic precursors, while similar to OOA from biomass burning emissions OOA during the cold season is more oxidized. This has been also reported from online-21 22 ACSM monitoring campaigns (Canonaco et al., 2015),

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33 34 7) OM/OC ratio.

In this study, the OM/OC is calculated by Aiken method (Page 12 Line 20). However, a recent study by Canagaratna et al. (2015) improved the estimation from Aiken method by including composition-dependent correction factors. The Canagaratna method is recommonded to use. Since many calculations in this study depend on the OM/OC ratio, how would it affect the results/conclusions if the authors use Canagaratna method to calculate the OM/OC ratio?

Following the suggestion of anonymous referee #2 we included following discussion within the SI.

37 38 We recalculated the OM:OC ratio for the water soluble collected spectra according to the new parametrization reported by Canagaratna et al. (2015). Consistently with 39 Canagaratna et al. (2015), the newly calculated OM:OC ratio was on average 9% 40 higher than the OM:OC ratio calculated according to Aiken method. More specifically, 41 42 the OM:OC ratio was on average 9% higher during summer, and 10% during winter. The two methods reported well correlated OM:OC values (R = 0.98 over the whole 43 44 monitoring period, R = 0.99 during winter, R = 0.97 during summer). In our study, the OM:OC ratios of our water soluble mass spectra were mostly used to determine the 45 total WSOM concentrations. Considering the high correlations between the Aiken 46 and Canagaratna OM:OC ratios, we can exclude large effects on the WSOM 47 variability and therefore on the source apportionment. Nevertheless the WSOM 48 estimated concentrations would be 10 % larger, when assuming the Canagaratna 49

1 OM:OC parametrization. In general Aiken assumed a  $CO_2^+:CO^+$  ratio of 1, while 2 Canagaratna stated that such an assumption would underestimate  $CO^+$ . From our 3 dataset, we observed a  $CO_2^+:CO^+$  of  $1.75_{med}$  suggesting that the Aiken OM:OC 4 parametrization would represent more accurately our data although both 5 parametrizations are uncertain for this dataset.

8) Background-OOA (B-OOA) factor.

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When the authors selected solutions, one criterion is the correlation between B-OOA and NH4+ (Page 12 Line 8). The authors should explain the use of NH4+. SO42- is regional and usually used as background OA. What's the correlation between B-OOA and SO42-? In Page 20 Line 30, it is stated that B-OOA correlates well with NH4+. However, the correlation between B-OOA and NH4+ varies with site as shown in Fig. S11. For example, the correlation is really weak for the Rugsteliskis site.

The lower correlation between NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> and B-OOA in Rūgšteliškis ( $R^2 = 0.5$  vs  $R^2 > 0.7$ 17 18 at other locations) and its possible explanation were discussed in the response to anonymous referee #1 (question 5). The repeatability of  $NH_4^+$  measurements is 19 20 estimated to be around 10%, while according to our error estimate (Section 3.1.3), the average relative uncertainty on the B-OOA factor for Rugsteliskis was 12%. We 21 estimated that up to half of the total unexplained variability in the relationship 22 23 between NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> and B-OOA in Rūgšteliškis can be due to the abovementioned errors, 24 while for the B-OOA vs NH4<sup>+</sup> relationship in Preila and Vilnius most of the 25 unexplained variability can be attributed to these errors. For Rūgšteliškis the remaining unexplained variability (27%) can be related to variability in the secondary 26 27 precursor composition and/or in the air masses photochemical age.

29 The criterion based on the  $NH_4^+$  vs B-OOA correlation did not reveal any negative correlation for each station individually and for all the stations together, therefore no 30 31 PMF solution was discarded according to this criterion as well as for the criterion 32 based on the correlation of levoglucosan with BBOA (this information was added to the manuscript). As previously discussed, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> [ $\mu$ Eq m<sup>-3</sup>] matches the sum of SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> 33 and NO<sub>3</sub> [ $\mu$ Eq m<sup>-3</sup>]. Therefore NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> variability well represents the variability of 34 inorganic secondary components of different origin (local:  $NO_3$  and regional:  $SO_4^{2^-}$ ) 35 36 formed at different time scales. Nevertheless, similar to B-OOA retrieved from the 37 offline-AMS PMF, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> correlates most significantly with sulfate (R = 0.80) and the sulfate-rich factor from the marker-PMF, indicating that these species represent the 38 39 background long range transported aerosols. 40

41 If B-OOA represents background OA, why is B-OOA lower in urban site 9) than the other sites? I disagree with the authors' argument that this 42 43 difference is caused by PMF residual uncertainties or biases (Page 29 Line 44 10). The authors' argument is flawed because it is based on circular assumptions. When the authors calculate B-OOAmarker, the LOA and S-45 OOA are based on PMF analysis without considering "some residual 46 uncertainties or biases". If the authors considered "some residual 47 uncertainties or biases" and re-performed PMF analysis, 48 the concentrations of LOA and S-OOA would change, which would influence 49

and concentration of B-OOAmarker. In that circumstance, B-OOAoffline-AMS may agree among all three sites, but B-OOAmarker may be different among all three sites.

6 Showing that PMF results are affected by model residuals is exactly the point we 7 wanted to make with this comparison. Therefore, drawing strong conclusions on site-8 to-site differences should be done with caution. In the current version of the 9 manuscript we elaborate further on these issues, as we discuss below. The 10 discussion regarding B-OOA differences at different sites was modified as follows 11 (added in P26, L31):

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14 Another advantage obtained in coupling the two source apportionment results is the possibility to study the robustness of the factor analyses by evaluating the 15 consistency of the two approaches as we already discussed for the primary OA and 16 Other-OA fractions. Figure S14a displays the PMF modelled WSOC:measured 17 WSOC PMF for the offline-AMS case, indicating a clear bias between Vilnius and the 18 rural sites, with a WSOC overestimation of ~5% in Preila and Rūgšteliškis. While this 19 20 overestimation is negligible for WSOC mass, it might have significant consequences on single factor concentrations. By contrast, OM residuals are more homogeneous 21 for the case of markers PMF (Fig. S14b). As we show in Fig. S6, these residuals 22 marginally affect the apportionment of combustion sources, as suggested by the well 23 comparing estimates of BBOA and TEOA using the two methods. Therefore, these 24 25 residuals are more likely affecting non-combustion sources (LOA, S-OOA and B-OOA). For the common days, the S-OOA concentration is not statistically different at 26 27 the different stations during summer (confidence interval of 95%), indicating that the residuals are more likely affecting LOA and B-OOA, which instead show site-to-site 28 differences. Now, the PMF WSOC residuals appear at all seasons, also during 29 periods without significant LOA contribution in Vilnius. Therefore, we conclude that B-30 31 OOA is the factor most significantly affected by the difference in the WSOC residuals. We could best assess the residual effects by comparing the B-OOAoffline-AMS with 32 that estimated using the other technique that seem to yield more homogeneous 33 residuals: B-OOAmarker. Here B-OOAmarker is estimated as Other-OAmarkers -34 35 LOA - S-OOA. While B-OOAoffline-AMS shows site-to-site differences, B-OOAmarkers did not show statistically different concentrations at all stations within a 36 confidence interval of 95%. Based on these observations, we conclude that observed 37 38 site-to-site differences in B-OOA concentrations are likely to be related to model 39 uncertainties.



Figure D6. a) Modelled OM : input OM for the markers-PMF. b) Modelled WSOC :
 measured WSOC for the offline-AMS PMF

- 4 Figure D6 was added to revised SI as Fig. S14
- 5 6 Minor comments
- 710)TEOA is resolved from CMB, not PMF. This needs to be clarified in8multiple places in the manuscript, such as Page 2 Line 9 and Page 23 Line930. Considering that the TEOA concentration is small and only one filter10has statistical significant TEOA concentration (Page 22 Line 27), I suggest11the authors to remove the comparison about TEOA concentration between12sites (for example, Page 32 Line 15-17).
- We clarified in P2, L9, P25, L14, and P 23 L30 that PMF returned 4 factors, and TEOA was estimated by CMB. We replaced the TEOA comparison between sites with the comparison of the hopanes concentration at the different locations (P 25 L19, P25, L31-32, and P32 L 15-17).

- 1 11) Page 2 Line 10. Please rephrase to "two oxygenated OA factors, summer 2 OOA (S-OOA) and background OOA (B-OOA)".
- 3 Corrected as suggested.
- 4 12) Page 2 Line 16 vs. Line 18. Use OA or OM. Be consistent.
- 5 Corrected as suggested.
- 6 13) Page 4 Line 3. Please rephrase to "source apportionment on the 7 submicron water soluble OA" in order to be precise about the method.

8 We agree with anonymous referee #2 that our method access only the water soluble 9 fraction, however the water soluble factor concentrations obtained from PMF analysis 10 were subsequently rescaled for the corresponding factor recoveries enabling 11 accessing the total OA concentrations (as also previously pointed out by anonymous 12 referee #2, the recovery correction increases the uncertainty of our source 13 apportionment).

1414)Page 5 Line 24. The nebulizer temperature is 60°C, which is different from15Daellenbach et al. (2016). Also, the nebulizer system in this study is16different from that in Daellenbach et al. (2016). Would these differences17cause the difference in Rz between studies?

As previously discussed (anonymous referee #1, question 2), the use of two different nebulizing setups are unlikely to significantly affect our source apportionment results and therefore our *Rz* estimates. This is due to the well comparing time series of fragments and mass spectral fingerprints. The differences in the *Rz* estimates stem from the different bulk EE (WSOC/OC) values measured for the two different datasets. We note that those differences can be fully ascribed to WSOC and/or OC measurement biases assuming a mass accuracy of 5% for both measurements.

25 Page 5 Line 27-28. The correction of blank is not appropriate. This is 15) because the particles generated from nebulizing DI water only are too 26 small to be detected by AMS. However, the organics associated with DI 27 water will be detected by AMS when nebulizing real filter extracts because 28 the particles are big. I suggest the authors to nebulize ammonium sulfate 29 30 solution (i.e. dissolve ammonium sulfate in DI water with similar concentration as ambient filters) and use the detected organic 31 32 concentration as blank.

33 In this study we nebulized twice per day a  $NH_4NO_3$  solution. We compared our blank 34 OA mass spectra with the OA mass spectra collected during  $NH_4NO_3$  nebulization. Excluding CO2<sup>+</sup> and the related fragments, which can be affected by NH4NO3 35 36 induced non-OA CO<sub>2</sub><sup>+</sup> signal, (Pieber et al. 2016, Friedel et al., 1953, Friedel et al., 1959), none of the other OA AMS fragments showed significantly different 37 concentration from our blanks (ultrapure water nebulization) within 2<sub>o</sub>. Our average 38 signal to blank ratio was 170, indicating that the blank represented only a small 39 fraction of the total signal. Therefore, we consider that under our conditions the 40 41 nebulization of pure water and NH<sub>4</sub>NO<sub>3</sub> solution yield equivalent results. 42 Nevertheless, we recognize that nebulizing (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> or NH<sub>4</sub>NO<sub>3</sub> solutions would 43 provide a better estimate of the OA blank. This methodology can be indeed implemented for future studies. 44

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- Page 9 Line 7-9. Although the detailed procedures have been discussed in
   Daellenbach et al. (2016), it is still helpful to briefly discuss the method in
   the manuscript, especially how the recovery ratios are calculated.

5 Rephrased as: "The offline-AMS source apportionment returns the water soluble PMF factor concentrations. Daellenbach et al. (2016) determined factor specific 6 7 recoveries (including PMF factor extraction efficiencies), by comparing offline-AMS and online-ACSM OA source apportionments. In particular, the filter samples were 8 collected for one year during an online-ACSM monitoring campaign conducted at the 9 same sampling station. Briefly, the factor recoveries were determined as the ratio 10 between the water soluble OA PMF-factor concentrations retrieved from offline-AMS 11 source apportionment divided by the OA PMF factor concentrations obtained from 12 ACSM OA source apportionment. Factor specific recoveries and corresponding 13 14 uncertainties were determined for HOA, BBOA, COA, and OOA".

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 17) Page 10 Line 28. Please rephrase to "this factor has too small contribution in the water extracts to be resolved".

- 18 Corrected as suggested.
- 19 18) Page 12 Line 6. This sentence has been repeated twice. Delete.
- 20 Sentence deleted as suggested
- Page 12 Line 13-16. AMS measures OM, instead OC. Please be clear that
   the conversion from OM to OC is for the carbon mass closure in Eq. (6).

The information was added to the manuscript as suggested: "Here the water-soluble OA factor concentrations were converted to the corresponding water-soluble OC concentrations to fit the measured OC."

- 26 20) Page 12 Eq. (6). WSW-OOA should be WSB-OOA. Is Rz the same for S-27 OOA and B-OOA since the same ROOA is applied for both factors?
- 28 WSW-OOA was corrected as WSB-OOA

In this study we assumed  $R_{S-OOA} = R_{B-OOA}$  because the recoveries of the OOA factors reported in Daellenbach et al. (2015), were determined from the sum of two OOA factors. The two recoveries were not determined individually in Daellenbach et al. (2015) due to the dissimilar OOA classification between offline-AMS and online ACSM source apportionments, which prevented an unambiguous attribution of the offline-AMS OOA factors to the online-AMS ones.

- 35 21) Page 14 Line 20. What's the OMres/OM ratio?
- The information was added to the manuscript: "OM<sub>res</sub> represented on average 95±2% of total OM."
- 38 22) Page 15 Line 21. List the non-source specific variables.
- 39 The information was added to the text: "(EC, OM<sub>res</sub>, (Me-)PAHs, S-PAHs, inorganic
- 40 ions, oxalate, alkanes)".

1 The entire list is reported here below:

2	(EC, $SO_4^{2-}$ , $NO_3^{-}$ , Cl <sup>-</sup> , $NH_4^+$ , $Na^+$ , K <sup>+</sup> , $Ca^{2+}$ , $Mg^{2+}$ , oxalate, MSA, Phenanthrene,
3	anthracene, fluoranthene, pyrene, benzo[a]anthracene, chrysene, triphenylene,
4	retene, benzo[b,k]fluoranthene, benzo[j]fluoranthene, benzo-e-pyrene,
5	benzo[a]pyrene, indeno[1,2,3 - cd]pyrene, dibenzo[a,h]anthracene,
6	benzo[ghi]perylene, coronene, dibenzothiophene, phenanthro(4,5-bcd)thiophene,
7	Benzo(b)naphtho(2,1-d)thiophene, Benzo(b)naphtha(1,2-d)thiophene,
8	Benzo(b)naphtho(2,3-d)thiophene, Dinaphtho(2,1-b;1',2'-d)thiophene,
9	Benzo(b)phenantho(2,1-d)thiophene, 2-methylnaphtalene, 1-methylfluoranthene, 3-
10	methylphenanthrene, 2-methylphenanthrene, 2-methylanthracene, 4/9
11	methylphenanthrene, 1-methylphenanthrene, 4-methylpyrene, 1-methylpyrene, 1+3-
12	methylfluoranthene, methylfluoranthene/pyrene, 3-methylchrysene,
13	methylchrysene/benzoanthracene, Cholesterol, 6,10,14-trimethyl-2-pentadecanone,
14	Undecane (C11), dodecane (C12), tridecane (C13), tetradecane (C14), pentadecane
15	(C15), exadecane (C16), heptadecane (C17), octadecane (C18), nonadecane (C19),
16	eicosane (C20), heneicosane (C21), docosane (C22), tricosane (C23), tetracosane
17	(C24), pentacosane (C25), hexacosane (C26), heptacosane (C27), octacosane
18	(C28), nonacosane (C29), triacontane (C30), untricontane (C31), totriacontane
19	(C32), tritriacontane (C33), tetratriacontane (C34), pentatriacontane (C35),
20	hexatriacontane (C36), heptatriacontane (C37), octatriacontane (C38),
21	nonatriacontane (C39), tetracontane (C40), pristane, phytane, OM <sub>res</sub> )
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23) What's the Hopanessum/OC ratio in the traffic exhaust factor? Is it consistent with the CMB method (i.e., 0.0012 in Page 11 Line 15)?

Since our HOA matches between the two methods within our uncertainty, also the Hopanes<sub>sum</sub>:OC ratio will be not statistically different. Note that the hopanes were constrained to contribute only to traffic in the markers source apportionment (Section 5.3.2.2).

- 29 24) Page 16 Line 25. Should be "EC/OMres" ratio.
- 30 Text corrected as "while EC:BB ratio was constrained to 0.1".
- 31 25) Page 17 Line 10-16. The discussion is not clear. Suggest re-wording.
- 32 Lines 10-16 were reformulated as:
- As discussed in section 3.2.2, we assumed the contribution of specific markers to be 0 in different factor profiles. Such assumptions preclude the PMF model to vary the

1 contributions of these variables from 0 (Eq. 3). In order to explore the effect of such 2 assumptions on our PMF results we loosened all these constraints assuming variable 3 contributions equal to 50%, 37.5%, 25%, and 12.5% of their average relative 4 contribution to measured PM<sub>1</sub>. In all cases the *a*-value was set to 1.

- 5 26) Page 20 Line 1-3. List the levoglucosan/BBOC range in the literature. 6 Similar suggestions for other places. For example, list the non-fossil 7 primary organic carbon in Page 25 Line 13 and average fossil primary OC 8 in Page 25 Line 29.
- 9 Information added to the manuscript.
- 1027)Page 21 Line 2. I disagree with that S-OOA increases exponentially with11average daily temperature from the data points in this study (Fig. S12). For12example, many data points with  $T > 25^{\circ}C$  do not have high S-OOA13concentration and do not follow the exponential fit.

14 Indeed data show a certain scattering. This scattering can stem from other 15 parameters affecting the biogenic SOA concentrations, such as the photochemical 16 aging of the air parcel, RH, rain, solar radiation, NO<sub>x</sub> concentration, accumulation during the previous days, and wind speed. When binning the data from Lithuania and 17 Payerne in temperature steps of 5 degrees the exponential relation of S-OOA vs 18 average daily temperature reveals a good agreement with the exponential relation 19 reported by Leaitch et al. (2011). We also modified Fig. S12 adding the error bars 20 and binning the S-OOA concentration in 5°C temperature steps. 21



1

Figure D7. S-OOA temperature dependence and submicron forest organic aerosol
mass (SFOM) temperature parameterization by Leaitch et al. (2015). a) Lithuania; b)
rural site of Payerne (Switzerland), Bozzetti et al. (2016); c) Binned S-OOA
concentrations (average and standard deviation).

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28) Page 22 Line 13-15. This has been mentioned previously in Page 20 Line 1-3. It is not proper to discuss BBOC here because this section focuses on the marker-PMF, instead of offline AMS. Similar problem for Page 22 Line 23-24.

The levoglucosan:BBOC ratios discussed in this section (P22 L13-15 and 23-24) actually refer to the marker-PMF source apportionment. In order to estimate the BBOC concentration from the marker source apportionment we used the OM:OC<sub>BBOA</sub> ratio retrieved from offline-AMS.

- 1529)Page 23 Line 14-15. The observation that nitrate concentration is higher in<br/>urban site than rural site has been shown in many previous studies (Xu et<br/>al., 2016; McMeeking et al., 2012), which should be cited here.
- 19 Citations added as suggested
- 20

- 130)Page 23 Line 30-31. This sentence is confusing. The remaining OM2fraction is termed as OMres in Page 10 Line 20, but termed as Other-OA3here. It should be clearly stated that Other-OA refers to OA after excluding4BB and TE.
- 5 Text corrected as suggested: "(Other-OA = OA BBOA TEOA)"
- 6 31) Page 24 Line 18. Should be "higher"
- 7 Text corrected as suggested

8 32) Page 24 Line 21-23. (1) Which method did the authors use to get the 9 BBOA concentration and correlation in this sentence? (2) It would be 10 helpful to include a scatter plot between Preila and Vilnius. (3) I disagree 11 with "the importance of regional meteorological conditions" as stated in this 12 sentence and Page 32 Line 31-32. Firstly, the BBOA concentrations are 13 different between two sites. Secondly, the BBOA in the Rugsteliskis site 14 does not correlate with the other two sites.

(1) The BBOA concentration reported at P24 L21-23 was estimated by offline-AMS.Information added to the text.

17 (2-3) For this comparison we considered only filter samples collected simultaneously 18 during winter at the different stations. In this case we observed high correlations 19 between the winter BBOA concentrations estimated for Preila and Vilnius (R = 0.91), and significantly positive correlations between Preila and Rūgšteliškis (R = 0.72) and 20 between Vilnius and Rūgšteliškis (R = 0.66). We do not mean that BBOA has a 21 regional origin, as also confirmed by the different concentrations observed at the 22 23 different stations. The high correlations between the sites only suggest either a common accumulation/depletion of pollutants due to similar meteorological 24 conditions, or a concomitant increment/decrease of residential wood combustion 25 26 activity at the different stations. We could exclude the latter hypothesis because, as 27 mentioned in the text, most of the BBOA spikes were not directly related to a decrease of temperature (Section 4.4.1)y. Therefore the BBOA daily variability in the 28 region seem to be mostly driven by regional meteorological patterns (rain episodes 29 and anticyclonic conditions), however, the proximity to biomass burning emission 30 spots can influence the total concentration, therefore not surprisingly Vilnius and 31 Preila show higher concentrations than Rūgšteliškis. 32



Figure D8. S-OOA temperature dependence and submicron forest organic aerosol mass (SFOM) temperature parameterization by Leaitch et al. (2015). a) Lithuania; b) rural site of Payerne (Switzerland), Bozzetti et al. (2016); c) Binned S-OOA concentrations (average and standard deviation).

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#### 6 P24 Lines 21-23 were corrected as:

7 During winter, considering only the samples collected concomitantly, Preila and 8 Vilnius showed well correlated BBOA time series (R = 0.91) and significantly positive 9 correlations were observed for also for Preila and Rūgšteliškis (R = 0.72) and for 10 Vilnius and Rūgšteliškis (R = 0.66) (offline-AMS BBOA time series). These results 11 highlight the effect of regional meteorological conditions on the BBOA daily variability 12 in the south east Baltic region.

13

14 33) Page 24 line 29. Both methods have the same time resolution (one filter 15 per day).

As mentioned in the main text in Table 1, Table S1, section 2.3 and section 3.2.1 this is not the case as the marker-source apportionment is based on composite samples which were created by merging two consecutively collected filter samples, and therefore the time resolution is 48 h.

- 20 34) Page 25 line 15. In the statistical significance test, why is sometimes 1σ is
   21 used but sometimes 3σ is used (for example, Page 26 Line 28).
- 22 We homogenized all the statistical significances to the confidence interval of  $3\sigma$ .
- 23 35) Page 26 Line 30. Should be "factor" instead of "fraction".
- 24 Corrected as suggested

2536)Table 2. The correlation coefficient R between NO3-related SOA and B-26OOA is only 0.21. Thus, it is not meaningful to discuss the relationship27between NO3-related SA and B-OOA (Page 28 Line 17). Similar problem28for the relationship between MSA-related SOA and S-OOA (Page 28 Line2921).

The NO<sub>3</sub>-related SOA correlation with B-OOA is indeed small, however the 30 correlation with LOA and S-OOA is negative, suggesting that the mass attributed to 31 32 NO<sub>3</sub>-related SOA by the markers source apportionment is fully attributed to the B-OOA factor in the offline-AMS source apportionment. This is also confirmed by the 33 fact that the sum of LOA and S-OOA concentrations during winter (when the NO3-34 related SOA substantially contributes) can't explain the NO3-related SOA mass, 35 which therefore has to be attributed to B-OOA. We believe that this result is relevant 36 because it relates the NO3<sup>-</sup>-related SOA factor, typically resolved from a marker 37 source apportionment, to the OOA factor typically resolved by AMS source 38 39 apportionment in winter datasets. In a similar way we found that large part of MSA-40 related SOA is related to S-OOA, which provides more insight into the S-OOA precursors, moreover the precursor emissions of both factors (dimethyl sulfide, 41 42 isoprene, and terpenes) are known to be strongly related to temperature, and not 43 surprisingly the two factors increase during summer.

1

#### 2 Lines 17-20, P28 were modified as follows:

The NO3<sup>-</sup>-related SOA and the PBOA were mostly related to the B-OOA factor as 3 they showed higher correlations with B-OOA than with S-OOA. The B-OOA factor 4 5 therefore may explain a small fraction of primary sources (PBOA), which however represents only 0.6% avg of the total OA. In detail, the NO3-related SOA correlation 6 7 with B-OOA was poor (R = 0.21), however the correlation with LOA and S-OOA was negative (Table 2), suggesting that the mass attributed to NO<sub>3</sub>-related SOA by the 8 9 markers source apportionment was fully attributed to the B-OOA factor in the offline-10 AMS source apportionment. This is also confirmed by the fact that the sum of LOA and S-OOA concentrations during winter (when the NO3-related SOA substantially 11 12 contributes) can't explain the NO3-related SOA mass, which therefore has to be attributed to B-OOA. 13

14

15 We added the following discussion at P 28, L26.

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The correlation between the two factors is therefore not surprising as the precursor emissions (dimethyl sulfide, isoprene and terpenes) are strongly related to temperature leading to higher summer MSA-related SOA and S-OOA concentrations.

20

21 37) Page 29 Line 18. Please rephrase to "fCO2 value is higher than fCO".

- 22 Corrected as suggested
- 23 38) Page 29 Line 24-25. The logic is not clear. Why does higher CO2+/CO+
   24 ratio of gas CO2 suggest a minor contribution from WSOM decarboxylation
   25 to CO+.
- L24-25, P29 were modified as follows:

The fragmentation of pure gaseous  $CO_2$  returned a  $CO_2^+:CO^+$  ratio of 8.21<sub>avg</sub> which is significantly higher than our findings for the water-soluble bulk OA (1.75<sub>med</sub>). Assuming thermal decarboxylation of organic acids as the only source of  $CO_2^+$  does not explain the observed  $CO_2^+:CO^+$  ratio of 1.75<sub>med</sub> and another large source of  $CO^+$ has to be assumed. Therefore, the carboxilic acid decarboxylation into  $CO_2$ can be considered as a minor source of  $CO^+$ .

33 39) Page 30 Line 7. Many data points from the Rugsteliskis site are outside the
 34 triangle range in Fig. 7a.

As discussed in Fig. 7 caption, some points from Rūgšteliškis lie outside the triangle, suggesting that  $CO^+$  and  $CO_2^+$  variabilities are not well explained by our PMF model for those specific filter samples. However, Fig. S5 displays flat residuals for Rūgšteliškis, indicating an overall good WSOM explained variability by the model.

- Page 31 Line 4. The correlation between CO+ and C2H3O+ is not shown
   in Fig. 7b. It would be helpful to show a scatter plot.
- 41 We added to Fig. 7 the scatter plot  $fCO^+$  vs.  $fC_2H_3O^+$  as suggested.

1 41) Page 31 Line 16. Canagaratna et al. (2015) carefully discussed the 2 CO2+/CO+ ratio of a number of standards, which should be discussed and 3 mentioned more in the manuscript.

As mentioned in the manuscript (P31, L24), we can observe that the most 4 5 representative standards of our aqueous filter extracts in terms of CO<sup>+</sup>:CO<sub>2</sub><sup>+</sup> ratio were multifunctional carboxylic acids (only hydroxyl mono and poly-acids and keto 6 acids) and 2 diacids used by Canagaratna et al. (2015) . Specifically, These include 7 citric acid, malic acid tartaric acid, ketobutyric acid, hydroxyl methylglutaric acid, 8 9 pyruvic acid, oxaloacetic acid, tartaric acid, oxalic acid and malonic acid. Considering that the median OA bulk extraction efficiency was 0.59, and considering that the CO<sup>+</sup> 10 and  $CO_2^+$  fragmentation precursors tend to be more water soluble than the bulk OA. 11 the listed compounds could be representative of large part of the CO<sup>+</sup> and CO<sub>2</sub><sup>+</sup> 12 fragmentation precursors. 13

14 Lines 23-28, P31 were modified as follows:

With the exception of some multifunctional compounds (citric acid, malic acid tartaric 15 acid, ketobutyric acid, hydroxyl methylglutaric acid, pyruvic acid, oxaloacetic acid, 16 tartaric acid, oxalic acid and malonic acid), the water-soluble single compounds 17 analyzed by Canagaratna et al. (2015) mostly showed CO2<sup>+</sup>:CO<sup>+</sup> ratios <1, 18 systematically lower than the CO2+:CO+ ratios measured for the bulk WSOM in 19 Lithuania (1<sup>st</sup> quartile 1.50, median 1.75, 3<sup>rd</sup> quartile 2.01), which represents a large 20 fraction of the total OM (bulk EE: median = 0.59, 1<sup>st</sup> quartile = 0.51, 3<sup>rd</sup> quartile = 21 0.72). Considering the relatively high extraction efficiency, and considering that the 22 23  $CO^+$  and  $CO_2^+$  fragmentation precursors tend to be more water soluble than the bulk OA, the aforementioned compounds could be representative of a large part of the 24 25  $CO^+$  and  $CO_2^+$  fragmentation precursors.

#### 26 42) Figure 5. The grey caps of traffic exhaust are not clear in this figure.

#### 28 Traffic grey caps were highlighted with a marker



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Figure D9. Figure 5. PM<sub>1</sub> marker source apportionment: factor time series and
 relative contributions. Shaded areas indicate uncertainties (standard deviation) of 20
 bootstrap runs.

- 4
- 5 References:
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Field Code Changed

### Minor revisions:

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### 4 Anonymous Referee #1

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43) I recommend that the authors should add a short bit of text, either to the manuscript or the supplemental that addresses the reviewer 2's comment-that volatility and seasonal trends are linked.

10 In the revised manuscript we replaced P22, L21-22 with the following discussion:

In general, OOA factors with different seasonal behaviors can be characterized by 11 different volatilities. However in this work the offline-AMS OOA separation is not 12 driven by volatility, given the low correlation between  $NO_3^-$  and our OOA factors (also 13 reflected by the low NO<sub>3</sub> -related SOA correlation with B-OOA and S-OOA. Table 2). 14 Additionally, the partitioning of semi-volatile OA at low temperatures would lead to a 15 less oxidized OOA fingerprint during winter than in summer; however, this was not 16 17 the case. We observed a less oxidized OOA factor during summer, whose mass spectral fingerprint closely resembles that of SOA from biogenic precursors. 18 19 Meanwhile similar to OOA from aging of biomass burning emissions, OOA during the cold season is more oxidized. This has been also reported in an urban environment 20

21 in central Europe (Zurich) using an online-ACSM (Canonaco et al., 2015).

- 22 Table 2 was moved below this section.
- 23

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#### Anonymous Referee #2 1

2 Received and published: 07 October 2016

#### General Comments: 4

5 I thank the authors for taking time to revise the manuscript. The authors have addressed the comments adequately. However, I have two minor comments. 6

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44)

1. OM/OC ratio. While I agree with the authors that both Aiken and Canagaratna parameterizations are uncertain for this dataset, I want to point out that the OM/OC ratio would affect the recovery ratios determined by Eq. (6). Higher OM/OC ratio from Canagaratna parameterization would lead to lower recovery ratio and hence higher ambient concentration of factors.

15 The recovery estimates are independent of the choice of Aiken or Canagaratna's 16 OM:OC parameterizations. Indeed the recovery fitting equation (Eq. 6) explicitly contains the PMF factors OM:OC ratio. However the water-soluble PMF factor 17 18 concentrations (Eq. 6) implicitly depend on the bulk OM:OC ratio used to determine 19 the bulk WSOM concentration (WSOM<sub>i</sub> = WSOC<sub>i</sub> OM/OC<sub>i</sub>) which was used as input for our PMF model. This leads to canceling corrections making the recovery 20 estimates independent of the choice of the Aiken's or Canagaratna's OM:OC 21 22 parameterizations.

- This information was added in the revised SI. 23
  - 45) 2. It is important to discuss why the same Rz is selected for both B-OOA and S-OOA (i.e., response to comment#20) and mention that the Rz of OOA factors warrants further investigation in the manuscript.

29 The factor recoveries determined in this work enabled properly fitting the OC time 30 series according to Eq. (6). The OC fitting residuals were unbiased within our uncertainty in different seasons (summer and winter) and at the different stations. 31 Therefore there's no reason to consider statistically different recoveries for S-OOA 32 33 and W-OOA. We also fitted the factor recoveries according to Eq. (6) without any apriori constrain from Daellenbach et al. (2016), and assuming different recoveries for 34 S-OOA and B-OOA. The measured OC vs. fitted OC correlation was not statistically 35 higher (95% confidence interval) than the correlation obtained when constraining the 36 37 OOAs and BBOA factor recoveries according to Daellenbach et al. (2016). This suggests that the measured OC is equally well explained by the two fits. 38

39 The completely unconstrained fit returned a wide  $R_{\text{S-OOA}}$  range (Fig. D10, only 40 solutions associated to unbiased OC residuals and  $R_k$ s values comprised between 0 41 and 1 were retained). This occurs despite the considerable contribution of S-OOA, at all sites. This suggests that the least square algorithm fails to independently estimate 42 the recoveries of factors and a priori constrains are needed to get unambiguous 43 results. We have assumed  $R_{\text{S-OOA}} = R_{\text{B-OOA}}$  based on the comparison between offline-44 AMS and online ACSM, although obtained at another site, especially that this 45 assumption fits our knowledge of OOA water solubility and returned a mathematically 46 47 equivalent OC reconstruction compared to the completely unconstrained model.





# List of all relevant changes made in the manuscript

3 In the following page numbers and lines refer to the originally submitted version of 4 the manuscript.

- 5
  6 1) As suggested by both anonymous referee #1 and #2 we clarified in several points that TEOA concentrations and uncertainties were not resolved by offline-AMS source apportionment, but by a CMB approach using hopanes as molecular markers. (P2, L9, P25, L14, and P23 L30).
- A more complete description of the offline-AMS methodology was introduced
   in section 3.1 according to the suggestion of anonymous referee #2.
- A cleared description of Offline-AMS PMF factor recoveries (*R<sub>k</sub>*) estimates was
   introduced in section 3.1.3 as suggested by anonymous referee #2.
  - Recommendations for future offline-AMS users were added at P13 L19 according to the suggestion of anonymous referee #2.
- Following the suggestion of anonymous referee #2 we modified P20 L17-18 in
   order to explicitly mention AMS-PMF works which resolved secondary aerosol
   factors according to their sources or formation mechanisms.
- We discussed more in depth the relation between NO<sub>3</sub>-related SOA and B-OOA (L 17-20, P28) in order to reply to a question raised by anonymous referee #2.
- We discussed more in details the relation between PMF residuals and B-OOA
   site-to-site differences observed in Vilnius (P26, L31), in order to answer a
   question raised by anonymous referee #2.
- 8) We explicitly listed the standards most representative of observed water-soluble ambient CO<sup>+</sup>/CO<sub>2</sub><sup>+</sup> ratios (Lines 23-28, P31), as suggested by anonymous referee #2.
  9) We added the CO<sup>+</sup> vs. C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>3</sub>O<sup>+</sup> scatter plot in Fig. 7, as suggested by
- 28 9) We added the  $CO^+$  vs.  $C_2H_3O^+$  scatter plot in Fig. 7, as suggested by 29 anonymous referee #2.
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- Argon offline-AMS source apportionment of organic
  aerosol over yearly cycles for an urban, rural and marine
  site in Northern Europe
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19

#### 20 Abstract

The widespread use of Aerodyne aerosol mass spectrometers (AMS) has greatly improved real-time organic aerosol (OA) monitoring, providing mass spectra that contain sufficient information for source apportionment. However, AMS field deployments remain expensive and demanding, limiting the acquisition of long-term datasets at many sampling sites. The offline application of aerosol mass spectrometry entailing the analysis of nebulized water extracted filter samples (offline-AMS) increases the spatial coverage accessible to AMS measurements, being filters routinely collected at many stations worldwide.

1  $PM_1$  (particulate matter with an aerodynamic diameter <1  $\mu$ m) filter samples were collected 2 during an entire year in Lithuania at three different locations representative of three typical 3 environments of the South-East Baltic region: Vilnius (urban background), Rūgšteliškis (rural terrestrial), and Preila (rural coastal). Aqueous filter extracts were nebulized in Ar, yielding 4 5 the first AMS measurements of water-soluble atmospheric organic aerosol (WSOA) without interference from air fragments. This enables direct measurement of the CO<sup>+</sup> fragment 6 contribution, whose intensity is typically assumed to be equal to that of  $CO_2^+$ . Offline-AMS 7 8 spectra reveal that the water soluble  $CO_2^+$ :  $CO^+$  ratio not only shows values systematically  $\ll 1$ 9 but is also dependent on season, with lower values in winter than in summer. 10 AMS WSOA spectra were analyzed using positive matrix factorization (PMF), which yielded 4 factors. These factors included biomass burning OA (BBOA), local OA (LOA) contributing 11 12 significantly only in Vilnius, and two oxygenated OA (OOA) factors, summer OOA (S-OOA) and background OOA (B-OOA) distinguished by their seasonal variability. The contribution 13 14 of traffic exhaust OA (TEOA) was not resolved by PMF due to both low concentrations and 15 low water solubility. Therefore, the TEOA concentration was estimated using a chemical mass balance approach, based on the concentrations of hopanes, specific markers of traffic 16 emissions. AMS WSOA spectra were analyzed using positive matrix factorization (PMF), 17 vielding 5 factors: traffic exhaust OA (TEOA), biomass burning OA (BBOA), local OA 18

(LOA) contributing significantly only in Vilnius, and two oxygenated OA (OOA) factors 19 distinguished by seasonal variability. AMS-PMF source apportionment results were 20 21 consistent with those obtained from PMF applied to marker concentrations (i.e. major 22 inorganic ions, OC/EC, and organic markers including polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons and 23 their derivatives, hopanes, long-chain alkanes, monosaccharides, anhydrous sugars, and lignin 24 fragmentation products). OA was the largest fraction of  $PM_1$  and was dominated by BBOA 25 during winter with an average concentration of 2  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup> (53% of OAOM), while summer-OOA (S-OOA), probably related to biogenic emissions was the prevalent OA source during 26 summer with an average concentration of 1.2  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup> (45% of OM). 27

PMF ascribed a large part of the  $CO^+$  explained variability (97%) to the OOA and BBOA factors. Accordingly we discuss a new  $CO^+$  parameterization as a function of  $CO_2^+$ , and  $C_2H_4O_2^+$  fragments, which were selected to describe the variability of the OOA and BBOA factors. **Formatted:** Font: (Default) Times New Roman, English (U.S.)

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#### 1 1 Introduction

2 Atmospheric aerosols affect climate (Lohmann et al., 2004, Schwarze et al., 2006), human 3 health (Dockery et al., 2005, Laden et al., 2000), and ecosystems on a global scale. Ouantification and characterization of the main aerosol sources are crucial for the 4 5 development of effective mitigation strategies. The Aerodyne aerosol mass spectrometer 6 (AMS, Canagaratna et al., 2007) and aerosol chemical speciation monitor (ACSM, Ng et al., 7 2011, Fröhlich et al., 2013) have greatly improved air quality monitoring by providing real-8 time measurements of the non-refractory (NR) submicron aerosol (PM<sub>1</sub>) components. 9 Analysis of organic mass spectra using positive matrix factorization (PMF, Paatero, 1997; 10 Paatero and Tapper, 1994) has enabled the quantitative separation of OA factors, which can 11 be subsequently related to major aerosol sources and formation processes (e.g. Lanz et al., 12 2007; Lanz et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2011; Ulbrich et al., 2009; Elser et al., 2016 a). Despite 13 its numerous advantages, AMS field deployment remains expensive and demanding, and 14 therefore most of the studies are typically restricted to short-time periods and a single (or few) 15 sampling site(s). The limited amount of long-term datasets suitable for OA source 16 apportionment severely limits model testing and validation (Aksoyoglu et al., 2011; 17 Aksoyoglu et al., 2014; Baklanov et al., 2014), as well as for the development of appropriate 18 pollution mitigation strategies. AMS analysis of aerosol filter samples (Lee et al., 2011; Sun 19 et al., 2011; Mihara and Mochida, 2011; Daellenbach et al., 2016), which are routinely 20 collected at many stations worldwide, broadens the temporal and spatial scales available for 21 AMS measurements.

22 In this study we present the application of the offline-AMS methodology described by 23 Daellenbach et al. (2016) to yearly cycles of filter samples collected in parallel at three 24 different locations in Lithuania between September 2013 and August 2014. The methodology 25 consists of water extraction of filter samples, followed by nebulization of the liquid extracts, 26 and subsequent measurement of the generated aerosol by high-resolution time-of-flight AMS 27 (HR-ToF AMS). In this work, organic aerosol water extracts were nebulized in Ar, permitting 28 direct measurement of the  $CO^+$  ion (Fig. S1), which is typically not directly quantified in 29 AMS data analysis due to interference with  $N_2^+$ , but is instead estimated as being equal to  $CO_2^+$  (Aiken et al., 2008). Direct measurement of  $CO_2^+$  better captures the variability in the 30 31 total OA mass and its elemental composition as well as potentially improving source 32 apportionment of ambient aerosol. Aerosol elemental ratios and oxidation state are of

particular relevance as they provide important constraints for understanding aerosol sources,
 processes, and for the development of predictive aerosol models (Canagaratna et al., 2015).

3 Aerosol composition in the south-east Baltic region has so far received little attention. To our 4 knowledge the only investigation of OA sources in this area was during a five-day period of intense land clearing activity occurring in the neighboring Russian enclave of Kaliningrad 5 6 (Ulevicius et al., 20152016; Dudoitis et al., 2016), in which transported biomass burning 7 emissions dominated the aerosol loading. OA source contributions under less extreme 8 conditions remain unstudied, with the most relevant measurements performed in Estonia with 9 a mobile lab during March 2014 at two different locations (Elser et al., 2016b). On-road 10 measurements revealed large traffic contributions with an increase of 20% from rural to urban 11 environments. Also, residential biomass burning (BB) and oxygenated OA (OOA) 12 contributions were found to be substantial.

13 In this study we present a complete source apportionment of the submicron OA fraction 14 following the methodology described by Daellenbach et al. (2016) in order to quantify and 15 characterize the main OA sources affecting the Lithuanian air quality. The three sampling 16 stations were situated in the Vilnius suburb (urban background), Preila (rural coastal background), and Rūgšteliškis (rural terrestrial background), covering a wide geographical 17 18 domain and providing a good overview of the most typical Lithuanian and south-eastern 19 Baltic air quality conditions and environments. PMF analysis of offline-AMS measurements 20 are compared with the results reported by Ulevicius et al. (20152016) and with PMF analysis 21 of chemical marker measurements obtained from the same filter samples.

22 2 Sampling and offline measurements

## 23 **2.1 Site description and sample collection**

24 We collected 24-h integrated  $PM_1$  filter samples at 3 different stations in Lithuania from 30 September 2013 to 2 September 2014 using 3 High-Volume samplers (Digitel DHA80, and 25 DH-77) operating at 500 L min<sup>-1</sup>. In order to prevent large negative filter artifacts, the high 26 volume samplers were equipped with temperature control systems maintaining the filter 27 28 storage temperature always below 25°C, which is lower or comparable to the maximum daily temperature during summer. The particulate matter was collected on 150-mm diameter quartz 29 fiber filters (Pallflex Tissuquartz 2500QAT-UP / pure quartz, no binder) pre-baked at 800°C 30 31 for 8 h. Filter samples were wrapped in pre-baked aluminum foils (400°C for 6 h), sealed in polyethylene bags and stored at -20°C after exposure. Field blanks were collected and stored
 following the same procedure.

3 Sampling was conducted at urban (Vilnius), rural terrestrial (Rūgšteliškis) and rural coastal 4 (Preila) monitoring sites (Fig. 1). The rural terrestrial site of Rūgšteliškis serves as a baseline 5 against which urban-specific sources in the major population center of Vilnius can be 6 compared. The rural coastal site of Preila provides an opportunity to distinguish terrestrial and 7 marine sources.

- 8 The sampling station in Vilnius is located at the Center for Physical Sciences and Technology 9 campus (54°38' N, 25°10' E, 165 m a.s.l.) 12 km southwest of the city center (population: 10 535000) and is classified as an urban background site. The site is relatively far from busy 11 roads, and surrounded by forests to the north/northeast, and by a residential zone to the 12 south/east. It is ca. 350 km distant from the Baltic coast, and 98 km from the Rūgšteliškis 13 station (Fig. 1).
- The station in Preila (55°55' N, 21°04' E, 5 m a.s.l.) is a representative rural coastal background site, situated in the Curonian Spit National Park on the isthmus separating the Baltic Sea from the Curonian Lagoon. The monitoring station is located <100 m from the Baltic shore. The closest populated area is the village of Preila (population: 200 inhabitants), located 2 km to the south.
- 19 The rural terrestrial station of Rūgšteliškis (55°26' N and 26°04' E, 170 m a.s.l.) is located in 20 the eastern part of Lithuania, about 350 km from the Baltic Sea. The site is surrounded by 21 forest and borders the Utenas Lake in the southwest. The nearest residential areas are 22 Tauragnai, Utena (12 km and 26 km west of the station, population: 32000 inhabitants) and 23 Ignalina (17 km southeast of the station, population: 6000 inhabitants).

## 24 2.2 Offline-AMS analysis

25 The term *offline-AMS* will be used herein to refer to the methodology described by 26 Daellenbach et al. (2016) and summarized below. For each analyzed filter sample, four 16-27 mm diameter filter punches were subjected to ultrasonic extraction in 15 mL of ultrapure 28 water (18.2 M $\Omega$  cm at 25°C, total organic carbon (TOC) < 3 ppb) for 20 min at 30°C.

29 The choice of water instead of an organic solvent is motivated by two arguments:

Water yields the lowest <u>offline-AMS</u> background and hence the highest signal to noise
 compared to other highly pure solvents (including methanol, dichloromethane and
 ethyl acetate).

In contrast to the water extraction, the use of organic solvents precludes the
 quantification of the organic content in the extracts (e.g. by using a total OC analyzer),
 which in turn prevents a quantitative source apportionment.

7 Liquid extracts were then filtered and atomized in Ar (≥99,998 % Vol. abs., Carbagas, CH-8 3073 Gümligen, Switzerland) using an Apex Q nebulizer (Elemental Scientific Inc., Omaha 9 NE 68131 USA) operating at 60°C. The resulting aerosol was then dried by passing through a Nafion drier (Perma Pure, Toms River NJ 08755 USA), and subsequently analyzed by a HR-10 11 ToF-AMS. 12 mass spectra per filter sample were collected (AMS V-mode, m/z 12-232, 30 s 12 collection time per spectrum). A measurement blank was recorded before and after each 13 sample by nebulizing ultrapure water for 12 minutes. Field blanks were measured following 14 the same extraction procedure as the collected filter samples, yielding a signal not statistically different from that of nebulized milliQ water. Finally we registered the AMS fragmentation 15 16 spectrum of pure gaseous CO<sub>2</sub> (≥99,7 % Vol, Carbagas, CH-3073 Gümligen, Switzerland), in 17 order to derive its  $CO_2^+:CO^+$  ratio.

Offline-AMS analysis was performed on 177 filter samples in order to determine the bulk water-soluble organic matter (WSOM) mass spectral fingerprints. In total, 63 filters from Rūgšteliškis, 42 from Vilnius, and 71 from Preila were measured in Ar. The reader is referred to DeCarlo et al. (2006) for a thorough description of the AMS operating principles and calibration procedures.

HR-ToF-AMS analysis software SQUIRREL (SeQUential Igor data RetRiEvaL, D. Sueper,
University of Colorado, Boulder, CO, USA) v.1.53G and PIKA (Peak Integration by Key
Analysis) v.1.11L for IGOR Pro software package (Wavemetrics, Inc., Portland, OR, USA)
were utilized to process and analyze the AMS data. HR analysis of the AMS mass spectra was
performed in the *m*/z range 12-115.

#### 28 **2.3 Supporting measurements**

Additional offline analyses were carried out in order to validate and corroborate the offline-AMS source apportionment results. This supporting dataset was also used as input for  $PM_1$ source apportionment as discussed below. The complete list of the measurements performed

1 can be found in Table 1 and Table S1. Briefly, major ions were measured by ion 2 chromatography (IC; Jaffrezo et al., 1998); elemental and organic carbon (EC, OC) were 3 quantified by thermal optical transmittance following the EUSAAR2 protocol (Cavalli et al., 4 2010); water-soluble OC (WSOC) was measured by water extraction followed by catalytic oxidation and non-dispersive infrared detection of CO<sub>2</sub> using a total organic carbon analyzer 5 6 (Jaffrezo et al., 2005). Organic markers were determined for 67 composite samples by gas 7 chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC-MS; Golly et al., 2015); high performance liquid 8 chromatography (HPLC) associated with a fluorescence detector (LC 240 Perkin Elmer) and 9 HPLC-pulsed amperometric detection (PAD; Waked et al., 2014) for 67 composite samples. 10 Composites were created merging two consecutive filter samples, but no measurements are available for Vilnius during summer. Organic markers measurements Measurements included 11 12 18 polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs), alkanes (C21-C40), 10 hopanes, 13 13 methoxyphenols, 13 methyl-PAHs (Me-PAHs), 6 sulfur-containing-PAHs (S-PAHs), 3 14 monosaccharide anhydrides, and 4 monosaccharides (including glucose, mannose, arabitol, 15 and mannitol). In this work ion concentrations always refer to the IC measurements if not 16 differently specified.

17 Table 1. Overview of supporting measurements. A complete list of measured compounds can

18 be found in table S1.

Analytical Method	Measured compounds	Filters measured
IC (Jaffrezo et al., 1998)	Ions	All
	EC/OC	
Thermal optical transmittance using Sunset Lab		
Analyzer (Birch and Cary, 1996) using		All
EUSAAR2 protocol (Cavalli et al., 2010)		
TOC analyzer using persulphate oxidation at		
$100^{\circ}$ C of the OM, followed by CO <sub>2</sub>	Waod	A 11
quantification with a non-dispersive infrared	wSUC	All
spectrophotometer (Jaffrezo et al., 1998)		
HPLC associated with fluorescence detector	$\mathbf{D}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{H}_{\alpha}$ (table S1)	67 composite
(LC 240 Perkin Elmer)	r Aris (lable S1)	samples

(Golly et al., 2015, Besombes et al., 2001)

GC-MS (with and without derivatization step)	S-PAHs, Me-PAHs, alkanes, hopanes,	67 composite samples
(Golly et al., 2015)	methoxyphenols, others	
HPLC-PAD, (Waked et al., 2014)	Anhydrous sugars, sugars alcohols, monosaccharides	67 composite samples
Chemiluminescence (Environnement S.A Model AC31M)	A., NO <sub>x</sub>	Online (Vilnius only)

1 In the following, subscripts *avg*, and *med* will denote average and median values, 2 respectively.

## **3 3 Source apportionment**

Positive matrix factorization (PMF, Paatero and Tapper, 1994) is a bilinear statistical model
used to describe the variability of a multivariate dataset as the linear combination of a set of
constant factor profiles and their corresponding time series, as shown in Eq. (1):

7 
$$x_{i,j} = \sum_{z=1}^{p} (g_{i,z} \cdot f_{z,j}) + e_{i,j}$$
 (1)

8 Here *x*, *g*, *f*, and *e* denote elements of data, factor time series, factor profiles and residual 9 matrices, respectively, while subscripts *i*, *j* and *z* are indices for time, measured variables, and 10 factor number. The value *p* represents the total number of factors chosen for the PMF 11 solution. The PMF algorithm iteratively solves Eq. (1) by minimizing the objective function 12 *Q*, defined in Eq. (2) Only non-negative  $g_{i,z}$  and  $f_{z,j}$  values are permitted:

13 
$$Q = \sum_{i} \sum_{j} \left( \frac{e_{i,j}}{s_{i,j}} \right)^2$$
(2)

14 Here the  $s_{i,j}$  elements represent entries in the input error matrix.

15 In this work the PMF algorithm was run in the robust mode in order to dynamically 16 downweigh the outliers. The PMF algorithm was solved using the multilinear engine-2 (ME-17 2) solver (Paatero, 1999), which enables an efficient exploration of the solution space by *a*  1 *priori* constraining the  $g_{i,z}$  or  $f_{z,j}$  elements within a certain variability defined by the scalar *a* 2  $(0 \le a \le 1)$  such that the modelled  $g_{i,z}$  and  $f_{z,j}$  satisfy Eq. (3):

$$3 \quad \left| \begin{array}{c} \frac{(1-a)f_{z,n}}{(1+a)f_{z,mm}} \leq \frac{f_{z,n'}}{f_{z,m'}} \leq \frac{(1+a)f_{z,n}}{(1-a)f_{z,m}} \end{array} \right|$$
(3)

4 Here *n* and *m* are any two arbitrary columns (variables) in the normalized F matrix. The 5 Source Finder toolkit (SoFi, Canonaco et al., 2013, v.4.9) for Igor Pro software package 6 (Wavemetrics, Inc., Portland, OR, USA) was used to configure the ME-2 model and for post-7 analysis. PMF analysis was applied to two complementary datasets: (1) organic mass spectra 8 from offline-AMS measurements for the apportionment of OM sources and (2) molecular 9 markers for the apportionment of the measured  $PM_1$  mass. These two analyses are discussed 10 separately below.

11

### 12 3.1 Offline-AMS PMF

13 In the following section we describe the offline-AMS source apportionment implementation, 14 optimization and uncertainty assessment. Briefly, we selected the number of PMF factors 15 based on residual analyses and solution interpretability; subsequently we explored the 16 rotational uncertainty of our source apportionment model and discarded suboptimal solutions 17 providing insufficient correlation of factor time series with external tracers. The offline-AMS 18 source apportionment returns the water soluble PMF factor concentrations. Daellenbach et al. (2016) determined factor specific recoveries (including PMF factor extraction efficiencies), 19 20 by comparing offline-AMS and online-ACSM OA source apportionments. In particular, the 21 filter samples were collected for one year during an online-ACSM monitoring campaign 22 conducted at the same sampling station. Briefly, the factor recoveries were determined as the 23 ratio between the water soluble OA factor concentrations retrieved from offline-AMS PMF 24 divided by the OA factor concentrations obtained from online-ACSM PMF. Factor specific 25 recoveries and corresponding uncertainties were determined for HOA, BBOA, COA, and OOA. The offline AMS source apportionment returns the water soluble PMF factor 26 27 concentrations. Daellenbach et al. (2016) determined factor specific recoveries (including the extraction efficiencies), by comparing offline-AMS and online-ACSM source 28 29 apportionments. In this work we applied the factor recoveries from Daellenbach et al. (2016) 30 to scale the water soluble factor concentrations retrieved from offlne-AMS PMF to the corresponding bulk OA concentrations. We conducted a sensitivity analysis on the applied 31

recoveries (Section 3.1.3) Applying these recoveries enabled scaling the water soluble factor
 concentrations to the corresponding bulk OA concentrations. A sensitivity analysis of these
 recoveries was reported in Section 3.1.3, and the corresponding uncertainty was propagated to
 the source apportionment results.

5 A second solution selection step was carried out on the rescaled solutions as described in 6 section 3.1.3. In general, the offline-AMS technique assesses less precisely the contribution of 7 the low water soluble factors. The higher uncertainty mostly stems from the larger PMF 8 rotational ambiguity when separating factors characterized by low concentration in the filter 9 extracts (i.e. low water solubility). Nevertheless, the uncertainty is dataset dependent, as the 10 separation of such sources can be improved in case of distinct time variability of these 11 sources. The low aqueous concentration of scarcely water soluble sources in fact can be partially overcome by the large signal/noise characterizing the offline-AMS technique (170 12 13 on average for this dataset).

14 The offline-AMS source apportionment results presented in this study represent the average 15 of the retained rescaled PMF solutions, while their variability represents our best estimate of 16 the source apportionment uncertainty.

## 17 3.1.1 Inputs

The offline-AMS input matrices include in total 177 filter samples (62 filters from 18 19 Rūgšteliškis, 42 from Vilnius, and 73 from Preila). Each filter sample was represented on 20 average by 12 mass spectral repetitions to explore the effect of AMS and nebulizer stability 21 on PMF outputs. A corresponding measurement blank was subtracted from each mass 22 spectrum. The input PMF matrices included 269 organic fragments fitted in the mass range 23 (12-115). The input error  $s_{i,j}$  elements include the blank variability ( $\sigma_{i,j}$ ) and the uncertainty 24 related to ion counting statistic and ion-to-ion signal variability at the detector ( $\delta_{i,j}$ , Allan et 25 al., 2003; Ulbrich et al., 2009):

26 
$$s_{i,j} = \sqrt{\delta_{i,j}^2 + \sigma_{i,j}^2}$$
 (4)

We applied a minimum error to the  $s_{i,j}$  matrix elements according to Ulbrich et al. (2009), and a down-weighting factor of 3 to all fragments with an average signal to noise lower than 2 (Ulbrich et al., 2009). Input data and error matrices were rescaled such that the sum of each row is equal to the estimated WSOM<sub>i</sub> concentration, which is calculated as the product of the

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1 measured WSOC<sub>i</sub> multiplied by the (OM:OC)<sub>i</sub> ratios determined from the offline-AMS PMF **Formatted:** Subscript 2 results.

3 3.1.2 Overview of retrieved factors and estimate of traffic exhaust OA (TEOA)

We used a 4-factor solution to represent the variability of the input data. The 4 separated OA
factors included the following:

6 1/ a biomass burning OA (BBOA) factor highly correlated with levoglucosan originating from
7 cellulose pyrolysis;

8 2/ a local OA (LOA) factor explaining a large fraction of N-containing fragments variability
9 and contributing mostly in Vilnius during summer and spring;

3/ a background oxygenated-OA (B-OOA) factor showing relatively stable contributions at all
seasons;

4/ a summer-OOA (S-OOA) factor showing increasing concentrations with the average dailytemperature.

14 If the number of factors is decreased to 3, a mixed BBOA/B-OOA factor is retrieved, and 15 significant structure appears in the residuals during winter (Fig. S2, S3, S4). Increasing the 16 number of factors to 5 and 6, leads to a splitting of OOA factors that cannot be interpreted in 17 terms of specific aerosol sources/processes (Fig. S2, S3). The further separated OOA factor in 18 the 5-factor solution possibly derived from the splitting of B-OOA; in fact the sum of the 19 newly separated OOA and B-OOA in the 5-factor solution correlated well with the B-OOA 20 time series from the 4-factor solution (R = 0.93). Overall, a clear structure removal in the 21 residual time-series was observed until a number of factors equal to 4 (Fig. S4, S5).

22 We also explored a 5-factor solution in which a hydrocarbon-like OA (HOA) profile from 23 Mohr et al. (2012) was constrained to estimate the TEOA contribution. However, using 24 hopanes as traffic tracers, the water-soluble TEOA (WSTEOA) contribution to WSOM was 25 estimated as  $0.2\%_{avg}$  (section 3.1.4), likely too small for PMF to resolve. We performed 100 26 PMF runs by randomly varying the HOA *a*-value. The obtained results showed a low TEOA 27 correlation with hopanes ( $R_{\text{max}} = 0.25$ ,  $R_{\text{min}} = -0.15$ ) with 45% of the PMF runs associated 28 with negative Pearson correlation coefficients, supporting the hypothesis that this factor has 29 too small contribution in the water extracts to be resolved. this factor has too small a 30 contribution to be resolved. Therefore, we selected the 4-factor solution as our best representation of the data, while TEOA was instead estimated by a chemical mass balance
 (CMB) approach and not based on AMS mass spectral features.

3 TEOA concentrations are-were estimated using a CMB approach that assuminges hopanes, present in lubricant oils engines, (Subramanian et al., 2006) to be unique tracers for traffic. 4 5 However, hoppings can also be emitted upon combustion of different types of fossil fuel, in particular by coal combustion (Rutter et al., 2009), therefore the traffic contribution estimated 6 7 here, although very small (as discussed in the result section), should be considered as an 8 upper estimate. Still, the EC/:hopanes ratio determined in this work (900 $\pm$ 100) is consistent 9 with EC4:hopanes for TE (1400±900: He et al., 2006; He et al., 2008; El Haddad et al., 2009; Fraser et al., 1998) and not with the coal EC/hopanes from literature profiles (300±200: 10 11 Huang et al., 2014; supplementary information (SI)). To assess the traffic exhaust OC (TEOC) contribution we used the sum of the four most abundant hopanes (17a(H),21b(H)-12 13 norhopane, 17a(H),21b(H)-hopane, 22S,17a(H),21b(H)-homohopane, and 14 22R,17a(H),21b(H)-homohopane (hopanes<sub>sum</sub>)). The TEOC contribution was estimated from 15 the average hopanes<sub>sum</sub> $\frac{1}{2}$ TEOC ratio (0.0012±0.0005) from tunnel measurements reported by 16 He et al. (2006), He et al. (2008), El Haddad et al. (2009), and Fraser et al. (1998), where the 17 four aforementioned hopanes were also the most abundant. In order to rescale TEOC to the 18 total TEOA concentration we assumed an OM:OC<sub>TEOA</sub> ratio of 1.2±0.1 (Aiken et al., 2008, 19 Mohr et al., 2012, Docherty et al., 2011, Setyan et al., 2012). The uncertainty of the estimated 20 TEOA concentration was assessed by propagating the uncertainties relative to the 21 (OM:OC)<sub>TEOA</sub> ratio (8.3%), the hopanes<sub>sum</sub>/TEOC ratio (41.7%), the hopane measurement repeatability (11.5%), and detection limits (7  $pg m^{-3}$ ). 22

23

## 24 3.1.3. Source apportionment uncertainty

25 A common issue in PMF is the exploration of the rotational ambiguity, here addressed by 26 performing 100 PMF runs initiated using different input matrices. We adopted a bootstrap 27 approach (Davison and Hinkley, 1997) to generate the new input data and error matrices 28 (Brown et al., 2015). Briefly, the bootstrap algorithm generates new input matrices by 29 randomly resampling mass spectra from the original input matrices. As already mentioned, 30 the input matrices contained ca. 12 mass spectral repetitions per filter sample; therefore the 31 bootstrap approach was implemented in order to resample random filter sample mass spectra 32 together with the corresponding measurement repetitions. Each newly generated PMF input

1	matrix had a total number of samples equal to the original matrices (177 samples), although	
2	some of the original 177 filter samples are represented several times, while others are not	
3	represented at all. Overall we resampled on average 63±2% of the filter samples per bootstrap	
4	run. The generated data matrices were finally perturbed by varying each $x_{i,j}$ element within	
5	twice the corresponding uncertainty $(s_{i,j})$ assuming a normal distribution of the errors.	
6	Solutions were selected and retained according to three acceptance criteria. Solutions were	
7	selected and retained according to three acceptance criteria based on PMF factor correlations	
8	with corresponding tracers: BBOA vs. levoglucosan, B-OOA vs. $\mathrm{NH_4^+}$ , and S-OOA vs.	
9	average daily temperature. In order to discard suboptimal PMF runs, we only retained	
10	solutions associated with positive Pearson correlation coefficients for each criterion, for both	
11	the individual stations and the entire dataset. In total 95% of the solutions were retained	
12	following this approach. We note that no solution was discarded based on the first two	
13	<u>criteria.</u>	
14	The offline-AMS PMF analysis provides the water-soluble contribution of the identified	
15	aerosol sources. Rescaling the water soluble OA factor concentrations to the total OA	
16	concentrations induce an uncertainty which was propagated to our source apportionment	
16 17	<u>concentrations induce an uncertainty which was propagated to our source apportionment</u> <u>results as describes hereafter.</u> In order to rescale the water-soluble organic carbon	
16 17 18	concentrations induce an uncertainty which was propagated to our source apportionment results as describes hereafter. In order to rescale the water-soluble organic carbon concentration of a generic factor $z$ (WSZOC) to its total OC concentration (ZOC) we used the	
16 17 18 19	concentrations induce an uncertainty which was propagated to our source apportionment results as describes hereafter. In order to rescale the water-soluble organic carbon concentration of a generic factor $z$ (WSZOC) to its total OC concentration (ZOC) we used the factor recoveries ( $R_z$ ) determined by Daellenbach et al. (2016) according to Eq. (5):	
<ol> <li>16</li> <li>17</li> <li>18</li> <li>19</li> <li>20</li> </ol>	concentrations induce an uncertainty which was propagated to our source apportionment results as describes hereafter. In order to rescale the water-soluble organic carbon concentration of a generic factor z (WSZOC) to its total OC concentration (ZOC) we used the factor recoveries ( $R_Z$ ) determined by Daellenbach et al. (2016) according to Eq. (5): $ZOC_i = \frac{WSZOC_i}{R_Z}$ (5)	, -{ {
<ol> <li>16</li> <li>17</li> <li>18</li> <li>19</li> <li>20</li> <li>21</li> </ol>	concentrations induce an uncertainty which was propagated to our source apportionment results as describes hereafter. In order to rescale the water-soluble organic carbon concentration of a generic factor z (WSZOC) to its total OC concentration (ZOC) we used the factor recoveries ( $R_Z$ ) determined by Daellenbach et al. (2016) according to Eq. (5): $ZOC_i = \frac{WSZOC_i}{R_z}$ (5) Here for each PMF factor, the For each PMF factor (BBOA, W OOA, and S OOA), the water-	, { =
<ol> <li>16</li> <li>17</li> <li>18</li> <li>19</li> <li>20</li> <li>21</li> <li>22</li> </ol>	concentrations induce an uncertainty which was propagated to our source apportionment results as describes hereafter. In order to rescale the water-soluble organic carbon concentration of a generic factor z (WSZOC) to its total OC concentration (ZOC) we used the factor recoveries ( $R_z$ ) determined by Daellenbach et al. (2016) according to Eq. (5): $ZOC_i = \frac{WSZOC_i}{R_z} $ (5) Here for each PMF factor, the For each PMF factor (BBOA, W OOA, and S OOA), the water- soluble organic carbon time series (WSZOC) <sub>i</sub> , were contribution was determined dividing the	{ {
<ol> <li>16</li> <li>17</li> <li>18</li> <li>19</li> <li>20</li> <li>21</li> <li>22</li> <li>23</li> </ol>	concentrations induce an uncertainty which was propagated to our source apportionment results as describes hereafter. In order to rescale the water-soluble organic carbon concentration of a generic factor z (WSZOC) to its total OC concentration (ZOC) we used the factor recoveries ( $R_Z$ ) determined by Daellenbach et al. (2016) according to Eq. (5): $ZOC_i = \frac{WSZOC_i}{R_Z} \qquad (5)$ Here for each PMF factor (BBOA, W OOA, and S OOA), the water- soluble organic carbon time series (WSZOC) <sub>i</sub> were contribution was determined dividing the WSZOA <i>i</i> time series by the from the OM:OC ratio calculated from the (water-soluble) factor	{ { {
<ol> <li>16</li> <li>17</li> <li>18</li> <li>19</li> <li>20</li> <li>21</li> <li>22</li> <li>23</li> <li>24</li> </ol>	concentrations induce an uncertainty which was propagated to our source apportionment results as describes hereafter. In order to rescale the water-soluble organic carbon concentration of a generic factor z (WSZOC) to its total OC concentration (ZOC) we used the factor recoveries ( $R_Z$ ) determined by Daellenbach et al. (2016) according to Eq. (5): $\frac{ZOC_i}{R_z} = \frac{WSZOC_i}{R_z} $ (5) Here for each PMF factor, theFor each PMF factor (BBOA, W OOA, and S OOA), the water- soluble organic carbon time series (WSZOC) <sub>i</sub> ,werecontribution was determined dividing the WSZOA <i>i</i> time series by the from the OM:OC ratio calculated from the (water-soluble) factor mass spectrum_spectra (Aiken et al. 2008). For LOA, whose recovery was not previously	
<ol> <li>16</li> <li>17</li> <li>18</li> <li>19</li> <li>20</li> <li>21</li> <li>22</li> <li>23</li> <li>24</li> <li>25</li> </ol>	concentrations induce an uncertainty which was propagated to our source apportionment results as describes hereafter. In order to rescale the water-soluble organic carbon concentration of a generic factor <i>z</i> (WSZOC) to its total OC concentration (ZOC) we used the factor recoveries ( $R_Z$ ) determined by Daellenbach et al. (2016) according to Eq. (5): $\frac{ZOC_i = \frac{WSZOC_i}{R_Z}}{(5)}$ (5) Here for each PMF factor, the For each PMF factor (BBOA, W OOA, and S OOA), the water- soluble organic carbon time series (WSZOC) <sub>i</sub> werecontribution was determined dividing the WSZOA <i>i</i> time series by the from the OM:OC ratio calculated from the (water-soluble) factor mass spectrum spectra (Aiken et al. 2008). For LOA, whose recovery was not previously reported, <i>R<sub>LOA</sub></i> was estimated from a single parameter fit according to Eq. (6)	
<ol> <li>16</li> <li>17</li> <li>18</li> <li>19</li> <li>20</li> <li>21</li> <li>22</li> <li>23</li> <li>24</li> <li>25</li> <li>26</li> </ol>	concentrations induce an uncertainty which was propagated to our source apportionment results as describes hereafter. In order to rescale the water-soluble organic carbon concentration of a generic factor <i>z</i> (WSZOC) to its total OC concentration (ZOC) we used the factor recoveries ( $R_Z$ ) determined by Daellenbach et al. (2016) according to Eq. (5): $\frac{ZOC_i = \frac{WSZOC_i}{R_Z} \qquad (5)$ Here for each PMF factor (BBOA, W OOA, and S OOA), the water- soluble organic carbon time series (WSZOC), were contribution was determined dividing the WSZOA <i>i</i> time series by the from the OM:OC ratio calculated from the (water-soluble) factor mass spectrum spectra (Aiken et al. 2008). For LOA, whose recovery was not previously reported, $R_{LOA}$ was estimated from a single parameter fit according to Eq. (6) $OC = TEOC + \frac{WSBBOA}{(OM \neq OC)_{WSBBOA} + \frac{WSBW-OOA}{(OM \neq OC)_{WSB-OOA} + \frac{WSLOA}{(OM \neq OC)_{WSB-OOA} + \frac{WSLOA}{(OM \neq OC)_{USB-OOA} + \frac{WSLOA}{(OM \neq OC)_{U$	
16         17         18         19         20         21         22         23         24         25         26         27	concentrations induce an uncertainty which was propagated to our source apportionment results as describes hereafter. In order to rescale the water-soluble organic carbon concentration of a generic factor <i>z</i> (WSZOC) to its total OC concentration (ZOC) we used the factor recoveries ( $R_z$ ) determined by Daellenbach et al. (2016) according to Eq. (5): $\frac{ZOC_i}{R_z} = \frac{WSZOC_i}{R_z} \qquad (5)$ Here for each PMF factor (BBOA, W OOA, and S OOA), the water- soluble organic carbon time series (WSZOC) <sub>i</sub> , werecontribution was determined dividing the WSZOA <i>i</i> time series by the from the OM:OC ratio calculated from the (water-soluble) factor mass spectrum-spectra (Aiken et al. 2008). For LOA, whose recovery was not previously reported, $R_{LOA}$ was estimated from a single parameter fit according to Eq. (6) $OC = TEOC + \frac{WSBBOA}{(OM \neq OC)_{WSBBOA} + \frac{WSBW-OOA}{(OM \neq OC)_{WSB-OOA} + \frac{WSLOA}{(OM \neq OC)_{LOA} \cdot R_{LOA}}$ (6) Here the water-soluble OA factor concentrations were converted to the corresponding water-	{ {
16         17         18         19         20         21         22         23         24         25         26         27         28	concentrations induce an uncertainty which was propagated to our source apportionment results as describes hereafter. In order to rescale the water-soluble organic carbon concentration of a generic factor <i>z</i> (WSZOC) to its total OC concentration (ZOC) we used the factor recoveries ( $R_Z$ ) determined by Daellenbach et al. (2016) according to Eq. (5): $\frac{ZOC_i}{R_Z} = \frac{WSZOC_i}{R_Z} \qquad (5)$ Here for each PMF factor (BBOA, W OOA, and S OOA), the water- soluble organic carbon time series (WSZOC) <sub>i</sub> werecontribution was determined dividing the WSZOA <i>i</i> time series by the from the-OM:OC ratio calculated from the (water-soluble) factor mass spectrum-spectra (Aiken et al. 2008). For LOA, whose recovery was not previously reported, $R_{LOA}$ was estimated from a single parameter fit according to Eq. (6) $OC = TEOC + \frac{WSBBOA}{(OM \neq OC)WSBBOA'R_BBOA} + \frac{WSBW-OOA}{(OM \neq OC)WSS-OOA'ROOA} + \frac{WSS-OOA}{(OM \neq OC)WSB-OOA'ROOA} + \frac{WSLOA}{(OM \neq OC)WSB-OOA'ROOA} + \frac{WSLOA}{(OM \neq OC)WSB-OOA'ROOA}$ (6) Here the water-soluble OA factor concentrations were converted to the corresponding water- soluble OC concentrations to fit the measured OC. For each of the 95 retained PMF solutions,	{ ={ {
<ol> <li>16</li> <li>17</li> <li>18</li> <li>19</li> <li>20</li> <li>21</li> <li>22</li> <li>23</li> <li>24</li> <li>25</li> <li>26</li> <li>27</li> <li>28</li> <li>29</li> </ol>	concentrations induce an uncertainty which was propagated to our source apportionment results as describes hereafter. In order to rescale the water-soluble organic carbon concentration of a generic factor <i>z</i> (WSZOC) to its total OC concentration (ZOC) we used the factor recoveries ( $R_Z$ ) determined by Daellenbach et al. (2016) according to Eq. (5): $\frac{ZOC_i}{R_Z} = \frac{WSZOC_i}{R_Z}$ (5) Here for each PMF factor, the For each PMF factor (BBOA, W OOA, and S OOA), the water- soluble organic carbon time series (WSZOC) <sub>i</sub> ,werecontribution was determined dividing the WSZOA <i>i</i> time series by the from the OM:OC ratio calculated from the (water-soluble) factor mass spectrum-spectra (Aiken et al. 2008). For LOA, whose recovery was not previously reported, $R_{LOA}$ was estimated from a single parameter fit according to Eq. (6) $OC = TEOC + \frac{WSBBOA}{(OM \neq OC)_{WSBBOA} R_{BBOA}} + \frac{WSBW-OOA}{(OM \neq OC)_{WSB-OOA} R_{OOA}} + \frac{WSLOA}{(OM \neq OC)_{LOA} R_{LOA}}$ (6) Here the water-soluble OA factor concentrations were converted to the corresponding water- soluble OC concentrations to fit the measured OC. For each of the 95 retained PMF solutions, Eq. (6) was fitted 100 times by randomly selecting a set of 100 $R_{BBOA}$ , $R_{OOA}$ combinations	{ ={ ={
16         17         18         19         20         21         22         23         24         25         26         27         28         29         30	concentrations induce an uncertainty which was propagated to our source apportionment results as describes hereafter. In order to rescale the water-soluble organic carbon concentration of a generic factor <i>z</i> (WSZOC) to its total OC concentration (ZOC) we used the factor recoveries ( $R_Z$ ) determined by Daellenbach et al. (2016) according to Eq. (5): $\frac{ZOC_i = \frac{WSZOC_i}{R_Z} \qquad (5)$ Here for each PMF factor, the For each PMF factor (BBOA, W OOA, and S OOA), the water- soluble organic carbon time series (WSZOC) were contribution was determined dividing the WSZOA <i>i</i> time series by the from the OM:OC ratio calculated from the (water-soluble) factor mass spectrum spectra (Aiken et al. 2008). For LOA, whose recovery was not previously reported, $R_{LOA}$ was estimated from a single parameter fit according to Eq. (6) $OC = TEOC + \frac{WSBOA}{(OM \neq OC)_{WSBBOA}R_{BBOA}} + \frac{WSBW-OOA}{(OM \neq OC)_{WSB-OOA}R_{OOA}} + \frac{WSLOA}{(OM \neq OC)_{LOA}R_{LOA}}$ (6) Here the water-soluble OA factor concentrations were converted to the corresponding water- soluble OC concentrations to fit the measured OC. For each of the 95 retained PMF solutions, Eq. (6) was fitted 100 times by randomly selecting a set of 100 $R_{BBOA}$ , $R_{OOA}$ combinations from those determined by Daellenbach et al. (2016). Each fit was initiated by perturbing the	

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1	Additionally we also perturbed the OC and WSOC inputs (Eq. 6) in order to explore the effect
2	of possible bulk extraction efficiency (WSOC:OC) systematic biases on our $R_Z$ estimates.
3	Specifically, we assumed an estimated accuracy bias of 5% for each of the perturbed
4	parameters, which corresponds to the OC and WSOC measurement accuracy. In a similar
5	way, we also perturbed the input $R_{BBOA}$ and $R_{OOA}$ assuming an accuracy estimate of 5%
6	deriving from a possible OC measurement bias in Daellenbach et al. (2016) which could have
7	affected the $R_Z$ determination. In total 9.5.10 <sup>3</sup> fits were performed (Eq. 6) and we retained
8	only solutions (and corresponding perturbed $R_Z$ combinations) associated with average OC
9	residuals not statistically different from 0 within $1\sigma$ for each station individually and for
10	summer and winter individually (~8% of the 9.5.103 fits, Fig. S6). The OC residuals of the
11	accepted solutions did not manifest a clear correlation with the LOA concentration (Fig. S7),
12	indicating that the estimated R <sub>LOA</sub> was properly fitted, without compensating for unexplained
13	variability of the PMF model or biases from the other $R_z$ . Fig. S8 shows the probability
14	density functions (PDF) of the retained perturbed $R_z$ which account for all uncertainties and
15	biases mentioned above. For each of the 95 retained PMF solutions, Eq. (6) was fitted 100
16	times by randomly selecting a set of 100 R <sub>BBOA</sub> , R <sub>OOA</sub> value combinations from those
17	determined by Daellenbach et al. (2016). Each fit was initiated by perturbing the input $OC_i$
18	and TEOC, within their uncertainties, assuming a normal distribution of the errors. In order to
19	explore the effect of possible bulk extraction efficiency (WSOC/OC) systematic measurement
20	biases on our $R_Z$ estimates, we also perturbed the OC, WSOC, $R_{BBOA}$ , and $R_{OOA}$ (Daellenbach
21	et al., 2016) inputs. Specifically, we assumed an estimated accuracy bias of 5% for each of the
22	perturbed parameters, which corresponds to the OC and WSOC measurement accuracy. In
23	total 9.5·103 fits were performed (Eq. 6) and we retained only solutions with average OC
24	residuals not statistically different from 0 within $1\sigma$ for each station individually and for
25	summer and winter individually (~8% of the 9.5·10 <sup>3</sup> fits, Fig. S6). The OC residuals of the
26	accepted solutions did not manifest a clear correlation with the LOA concentration (Fig. S7),
27	indicating that the estimated R <sub>LOA</sub> was properly fitted, without compensating for unexplained
28	variability of the PMF model or biases from the other $R_{\epsilon}$ . $R_{\epsilon}$ distributions shown in Fig. S8
29	accounted for all uncertainties and biases mentioned above. $R_{LOA,med}$ was estimated to be equal
30	to 0.66 (1 <sup>st</sup> quartile 0.61, 3 <sup>rd</sup> quartile 0.69, Fig. S8), while the retained $R_{BBOA}$ and $R_{OOA}$ values
31	$(R_{BBOA,med} 0.57, 1^{st} \text{ quartile } 0.55, 3^{rd} \text{ quartile } 0.60; R_{OOA,med} 0.84, 1^{st} \text{ quartile } 0.81, 3^{rd} \text$
32	0.88) were systematically lower than those reported by Daellenbach et al. (2016), reflecting
33	the lower bulk extraction efficiency (bulk $EE = WSOC 4$ OC) measured for this dataset

1	$(\text{median} = 0.59, 1^{\text{st}} \text{ quartile} = 0.51, 3^{\text{rd}} \text{ quartile} = 0.72  vs. \text{ median} = 0.74, 1^{\text{st}} \text{ quartile} = 0.66, 3^{\text{rd}}$	
2	quartile 0.90 in Daellenbach et al. (2016)). All the retained $R_k$ combinations are available at	
3	DOI: doi.org/10.5905/ethz-1007-53.	<b>Fiel</b>
4	Source apportionment uncertainties ( $\sigma_{S.A.}$ ) were estimated for each sample <i>i</i> and factor <i>z</i> as the	
5	standard deviation of all the retained PMF solutions (~8% of the $9.5 \cdot 10^3$ fits). In addition to	
6	the rotational ambiguity of the PMF model (explored by the bootstrap technique) and $R_Z$	
7	uncertainty, each PMF solution included on average 10 repetitions for each filter sample, and	
8	hence $\sigma_{S.A.}$ accounted also for measurement repeatability. In this work, the statistical	
9	significance of a factor contribution is calculated based on $\sigma_{S.A.,z,i}$ (Tables S2 and S3).	
10	Overall the recovery estimates reported in Daellenbach et al. (2016) represent the most	
11	accurate estimates available, being constrained to match the online-ACSM source	
12	apportionment results. The $R_Z$ combinations reported by Daellenbach et al. (2016)	
13	demonstrated to positively apply to this dataset, enabling properly fitting the measured Bulk	
14	EE (WSOC:OC) with unbiased residuals and therefore providing a further confidence on their	
15	applicability (we note that in Eq. 6 we fitted OC as function of $(R_{Z_{i}})^{-1}$ and WSOC <sub>Z,i</sub> , therefore	For
16	<u><math>R_Z</math> fitted WSOC/OC = Bulk EE)</u> . In general further $R_Z$ determinations calculated comparing	For
17	offline-AMS and online-AMS source apportionments would be desirable in order to provide	
18	more robust $R_Z$ estimates. In absence of a-priori $R_Z$ values for specific factors (e.g. for LOA in	
19	this study) we recommend constraining the $R_Z$ combinations reported by Daellenbach et al.	
20	(2016) as a-priori information to fit the unknown recoveries (similarly to Eq. 6), with the	
21	caveat that the $R_Z$ combinations reported by Deallenbach et al. (2016) were determined for	
22	filter samples water extracted following a specific procedure; therefore we recommend	
23	adopting these $R_{Z}$ combinations for filter samples extracted in the same conditions.	
24	Nevertheless the $R_Z$ combinations reported by Daellenbach et al. (2016) should be tested also	
25	for filters water extracted in different conditions to verify whether they can properly fit the	
26	Bulk EE. In case the $R_Z$ combinations reported by Daellenbach et al. (2016) would not apply	
27	for a specific location or extraction procedure (i.e. not enabling a proper fit of Bulk EE) we	
28	recommend a R <sub>Z</sub> redetermination by comparing the offline-AMS source apportionment results	
29	with well-established source apportionment techniques (e.g. from online-AMS or ACSM	
30	data). In absence of data to perform a well-established source apportionment, we recommend	
31	to fit all the $R_Z$ to match the bulk EE (i.e. fitting all the recoveries similarly as in Eq. 6 without	
32	constraining any a-priory $R_Z$ value).	For

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## 1 3.1.4. Sensitivity of PMF to the un-apportioned TEOA fraction

2 Despite representing only a small fraction, the un-apportioned water-soluble TEOA 3 (WSTEOA) contribution could in theory affect the apportionment of the other sources in the 4 offline-AMS PMF model. To assess this, we performed a PMF sensitivity analysis by 5 subtracting the estimated WSTEOA concentration from the input PMF data matrix, and by 6 propagating the estimated WSTEOA uncertainty (section 3.1.2) in the input error matrices. To 7 estimate the WSTEOA concentration we assumed  $R_{TEOA}$  of 0.11±0.01 (Daellenbach et al., 8 2016) and we used the HOA profile reported by Mohr et al. (2012) as surrogate for the TEOA 9 mass spectral fingerprint. This approach is equivalent to constraining both the WSTEOA time 10 series and factor profile. Overall the WSTEOA contribution to WSOM was estimated as 11 0.2% avg, making a successful retrieval of WSTEOA unlikely (Ulbrich et al., 2009). 12 Consistently, PMF results obtained from this sensitivity analysis indicated that BBOA and B-13 OOA were robust, showing only 1% difference from the average offline-AMS source 14 apportionment results, with BBOA increased and B-OOA decreased. S-OOA and LOA 15 instead showed larger deviations from the average source apportionment results (S-OOA increased by 8% and LOA decreased by 15%), yet within our source apportionment 16 17 uncertainties. These results highlight the marginal influence of the un-apportioned WSTEOA 18 fraction on the other factors.

19

## 20 3.2 Marker-PMF: measured PM<sub>1</sub> source apportionment

In the following section we describe the implementation of source apportionment using chemical markers (marker-PMF), as well as its optimization and uncertainty assessment. We discuss the number of factors and the selection of specific constraints to improve the source separation. Subsequently we discuss the source apportionment rotational uncertainty, and the sensitivity of our PMF results to the number of source specific markers, and to the assumed constraints.

#### 27 3.2.1 Inputs

The marker-PMF yields a source apportionment of the entire measured  $PM_1$  fraction (organic and inorganic). Measured  $PM_1$  is defined here as the sum of EC, ions measured via IC, and OM estimated from OC measurements multiplied by the (OM:OC)<sub>*i*</sub> ratio determined from the

1 offline-AMS PMF results by summing the factor profiles OM:OC ratios weighted by the time 2 dependent factor relative contributions (rescaled by the recoveries). PMF was used to analyze 3 a data matrix consisting of selected organic molecular markers, ions measured by IC, EC, and 4 the remaining OM fraction (OM<sub>res</sub>) calculated as the difference between total OM and the sum of the organic markers already included in the input matrix. (OM<sub>res</sub> represented on average 5 6  $95\pm 2\%$  of total OM). The marker-PMF analysis in this work is limited by the lack of 7 elemental measurements (e.g. metals and other trace elements) typically used to identify 8 mineral dust and certain anthropogenic sources. All-Overall we selected as input variables all 9 markers showing concentrations above the detection limits for more than 25% of the samples 10 were selected as input variables (72 in total). The PMF input matrices contain 67 composite samples (31 for Rūgšteliškis, 29 for Preila, and 7 for Vilnius). The errors  $(s_{i,i})$  were estimated 11 by propagating for each j variable the detection limits (DL) and the relative repeatability (RR) 12 13 multiplied by the  $x_{ii}$  concentration according to Eq. (7) (Rocke and Lorenzato, 1995):

14 
$$s_{i,j} = \sqrt{(DL_j^2 + (x_{i,j} \cdot RR_{i,j})^2)}$$
 (7)

## 15 3.2.2 Number of factors and constraints

We selected a 7-factor solution to explain the variability of the measured  $PM_1$  components. The retrieved factors were biomass burning (BB), traffic exhaust (TE), primary biological organic aerosol (PBOA),  $SO_4^{2-}$ -related secondary aerosol (SA),  $NO_3^{-}$ -related SA, methane sulfonic acid (MSA)-related SA, and a Na<sup>+</sup>-rich factor explaining the variability of inorganic components typically related to resuspension of mineral dust, sea salt, and road salt.

21 We first tested an unconstrained source apportionment. This led to a suboptimal separation of 22 the aerosol sources, with large mixings of PMF factors associated with contributions of 23 markers originating from different sources. In particular we observed mixing of BB markers 24 (e.g. levoglucosan) with fossil fuel combustion markers such as hopanes, as well as with inorganic ions such as  $NO_3^-$  and  $Ca^{2+}$ . All these markers, although related to different 25 26 emission/formation processes, are characterized by similar seasonal trends, i.e. higher 27 concentrations during winter than in summer. Specifically, the BB tracers increase during 28 winter because of domestic heating activity, hopanes presumably because of the accumulation 29 in a shallower boundary layer and lower photochemical degradation,  $NO_3^{-1}$  because of the partitioning into the particle phase at low temperatures, and Ca<sup>2+</sup> because winter was the 30 31 windiest season and therefore was associated with the most intense resuspension.

1 We subsequently exploited the markers' source-specificity to set constraints for the profiles 2 output-by our model: for each individual source, we treated the contribution of the unrelated source-specific markers as negligible (e.g. we assumed that TE, SA, Na-rich factor and PBOA 3 4 do not contribute to levoglucosan). In contrast, the non-source specific variables (EC, OM<sub>res</sub>, (Me-)PAHs, S-PAHs, inorganic ions, oxalate, alkanes) were freely apportioned by the PMF 5 algorithm. In a similar way we set constraints for primary markers (e.g.  $K^+$  and  $Ca^{2+}$ ) and 6 7 combustion related markers (e.g. PAHs), which are not source-specific but the contribution of 8 which can be considered as negligible in the SA factors. In this case the algorithm can freely 9 apportion these markers to all the primary factors and combustion-related factors, 10 respectively.

11 In details, EC, PAHs, and methyl-PAHs were constrained to zero in non-combustion sources, 12 i.e. all profiles but TE and BB. While EC could partially derive from dust resuspension, 13 literature profiles for this source suggest an EC contribution below 1% (Chow et al., 2003). 14 This is expected to be also the case here given the distance of the three stations from residential areas and busy roads. Methoxyphenols and sugar anhydrides, considered to be 15 16 unique BB markers, were constrained to zero in all sources but BB. Similarly, hopanes were 17 constrained to zero in all factors but TE. We also assumed no contribution from glucose, arabitol, mannitol, and sorbitol to all secondary factors, and traffic exhaust. The SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> 18 contribution from primary traffic emissions was estimated to be negligible, given the use of 19 20 desulfurized fuel for vehicles in Lithuania. Likewise, alkane contributions were assumed to be zero in the SA factors, similar to the contribution of  $Ca^{2+}$ ,  $Na^+$ ,  $K^+$  and  $Mg^{2+}$  in the SA factors 21 and TE. 22

23 The number of factors was increased until no mixing between source-specific markers for 24 different aerosol sources/processes was observed any more. Secondary sources instead were 25 explained by three factors because of the distinct seasonal and site-to-site variability of MSA,  $NO_3^-$  and  $SO_4^{2-}$ . Oxalate correlated well with  $NH_4^+$  (*R*=0.62) and the latter well with the sum 26 of  $SO_4^{2-}$  and  $NO_3^{-}$  equivalents (*R*=0.98). Note that the aforementioned secondary tracers were 27 not constrained in any factor with the exception of  $SO_4^{2-}$  contributions which were assumed to 28 29 be negligible in the TE factor. Moreover the 7-factor solution showed unbiased residuals 30 (residual distribution centered at 0 within  $1\sigma$ ) for all the stations together and for each station 31 individually, while lower order solutions showed biased residuals for at least one station or all 32 the stations together.

1 PMF results obtained assuming only the aforementioned constraints returned suboptimal 2 apportionments of OM<sub>res</sub> and Na<sup>+</sup> between the BB and the Na<sup>+</sup>-rich factor, with unusually 3 high OM<sub>res</sub> fractional contributions in the Na<sup>+</sup>-rich factor and unusually high Na<sup>+</sup> contributions in the BB profile in comparison with literature profiles (Chow et al., 2003; 4 5 Huang et al., 2014 and references therein; Schauer et al., 2001). Similarly the EC+OM<sub>res</sub> 6 value for TE was substantially lower than literature profiles (El Haddad et al., 2013 and 7 references therein). Other constraints were therefore introduced to improve the separation of these three variables. Specifically, EC and OM<sub>res</sub> were constrained in the traffic profile to be 8 9 equal to 0.45 and 0.27 (a-value = 0.5) according to El Haddad et al. (2013), while EC:BB 10 ratio was constrained to 0.1 while EC was constrained to 0.1 (a-value = 1) in the BB profile 11 according to Huang et al. (2014) and references therein. Na<sup>+</sup> was constrained to 0.2% (a-value 12 = 1) in BB according to Schauer et al. (2001), while  $OM_{res}$  was constrained to zero in the Na<sup>+</sup>-13 rich factor to avoid mixing with BB. Although this represents a strict constraint, we preferred 14 avoiding constraining OM<sub>res</sub> to a specific value for the Na<sup>+</sup>-rich factor which could not be 15 linked to a unique source but possibly represents different resuspension-related sources (e.g. 16 sea salt, mineral dust and road dust). However, we expect none of the aforementioned sources 17 to explain a large fraction of the submicron OM<sub>res</sub> (the OC:dust ratio for dust profiles is 1-18 15% according to Chow et al., 2003). The sensitivity of our source apportionment to the 19 constraints listed in this section is discussed in the next section.

20

## 21 3.2.3. Source apportionment uncertainty and sensitivity analyses

We explored the model rotational uncertainty by performing 20 bootstrap PMF runs, and by perturbing each input  $x_{i,j}$  element within  $2 \cdot s_{i,j}$  assuming a normal distribution of the errors. Results and uncertainties of the PMF model reported in this paper represent the average and the standard deviation of the bootstrap runs.

As discussed in section 3.2.2, we assumed the contribution of specific markers to be 0 in different factor profiles. Such assumptions preclude the PMF model to vary the contributions of these variables from 0 (Eq. 3). In order to explore the effect of such assumptions on our PMF results we loosened all these constraints assuming variable contributions equal to 50%, 37.5%, 25%, and 12.5% of their average relative contribution to measured PM<sub>1</sub>. In all cases the *a*-value was set to 1. We tested the sensitivity of our solution to the constraints listed in section 3.2.2. All the constraints assuming variable contributions equal to zero were loosened,

assuming for each variable a contribution equivalent to 50%, 37.5%, 25%, and 12.5% of its 1 2 average relative contribution to measured  $PM_{17}$ . In all cases the *a* value was set to 1. As 3 expected, results showed better agreement with the fully constrained solution in the cases of stronger constraints, meaning that the highest agreements were observed for the 12.5% case 4 5 both in terms of mass balance and factor time series correlations (Fig. S9). The average factor 6 concentrations for the 12.5% case and the fully constrained average bootstrap PMF solutions 7 were not statistically different (confidence interval of 95%, Fig. S9). Statistically significant differences arose for the of the SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>-related SA in the 50% and 37.5% cases, and the Na<sup>+</sup>-8 9 rich factor in the 25% and 37.5% cases, indicating that loosening the constraints allowed 10 additional rotational uncertainty in comparison to the uncertainty explored by the bootstrap 11 approach. By contrast, the factors associated with large relative uncertainties from the marker 12 source apportionment (TE and PBOA, Table S3) showed the best agreement in terms of 13 concentrations (Fig. S9) with the fully constrained solution, suggesting that the variability 14 introduced by loosening the constraints did not exceed that already accounted for by the 15 bootstrap approach. As previously mentioned, the largest contribution discrepancies were observed for the SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2</sup>-related SA and Na<sup>+</sup>-rich factor. Looser constraints increased the 16 explained variability of primary components such as EC, arabitol, sorbitol, K<sup>+</sup>, Mg<sup>2+</sup>, and 17  $Ca^{2+}$  by the (secondary)  $SO_4^{2-}$ -related SA factor. The Na<sup>+</sup>-rich factor showed increasing 18 19 contributions from OM<sub>res</sub> and from BB components such as methoxyphenols, and anhydrous 20 sugars, which exhibited similar seasonal trends as the  $Na^+$ -rich factor. None of the marker-21 PMF factors showed statistically different average contributions (confidence interval of 95%) 22 when tolerating a variability of the constrained variables within 12.5% of their relative 23 contribution to PM<sub>1</sub>. Note that with this degree of tolerance the contribution of OM to the 24 Na<sup>+</sup>-rich was 28%, which is unrealistically high compared to typically reported values for 25 OM:dust ratios (<15% Chow et al., 2003). Therefore, we consider the fully constrained PMF 26 solution to represent best the average composition of the contributing sources.

The marker-PMF source apportionment depends strongly on the input variables (i.e. measured markers), as these are assumed to be highly source specific. That is, minor sources, such as MSA-related SA and PBOA, are separated because source-specific markers were used as model inputs. Meanwhile, more variables were used as tracers for TE and BB (methoxyphenols (5 variables), sugar anhydrides (3 variables), and hopanes (5 variables)), which gives more weight to these specific sources. We explored the sensitivity of the PMF results to the number and the choice of traffic and wood burning markers, by replacing them

1 with randomly selected input variables. In total 20 runs were performed and the average contribution of the different sources to OM<sub>res</sub> was compared with the marker source 2 3 apportionment average results, where bootstrap was applied to resample time points. Results 4 displayed in Fig. S10 are in agreement the apportionment of  $OM_{res}$  from BB within  $11\%_{avg}$ , highlighting its robustness. The agreement for TE was lower, which is not surprising given 5 6 the lower contribution of this source and the smaller number of specific markers (hopanes). 7 However, these uncertainties were within the marker source apportionment uncertainty (Fig. 8 S10), implying that the results were not significantly sensitive to the number and the choice of 9 input markers for BB and traffic exhaust.

10

## 11 4 Results and Discussion

#### 12 **4.1 PM<sub>1</sub> composition**

13 An overview of the measured  $PM_1$  composition can be found in Fig. 1. Measured  $PM_1$ average concentrations were in general low, with lower values detected at the rural terrestrial 14 site of Rūgšteliškis (5.4  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup><sub>avg</sub>) than in Vilnius (6.7  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup><sub>avg</sub>) and Preila (7.0  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup><sub>avg</sub>). 15 16 OM represented the major fraction of measured PM1 for all seasons and stations, with 57% avg of the mass. The average OM concentrations were higher during winter (4.2  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup>) than in 17 summer (3.0 µg m<sup>-3</sup>) at all sites probably <u>due</u> to a combination of domestic wood burning 18 19 activity and accumulation of the emissions in a shallower boundary layer. For similar reasons, EC average concentrations showed higher values during winter (0.42  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup>) than in summer 20 (0.25  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup>). During summer, the average EC concentration was ~5 times higher in Vilnius 21  $(0.54 \ \mu g \ m^{-3})$  than in Preila and Rūgšteliškis (0.12 and 0.11 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}, respectively), indicating 22 23 an enhanced contribution from combustion emissions. In the absence of domestic heating 24 during this period, a great part of these emissions may be related to traffic. During winter, EC 25 concentrations were comparable at all sites (only 25% higher in Vilnius than in Preila and 26 Rūgšteliškis). This suggests that a great share of wintertime EC may be related to BB, the 27 average contribution of which is significant at all stations within  $3\sigma$  (table S2). It should be 28 noted that the highest measured PM<sub>1</sub> concentrations were detected at the remote rural coastal 29 site of Preila during three different pollution episodes. In particular, the early March episode 30 corresponded to the period analyzed by Ulevicius et al. (20152016) and Dudoitis et al. (20152016), and was attributed to regional transport of polluted air masses associated to an 31

1 intense land clearing activity characterized by large scale grass burning in the neighboring 2 Kaliningrad region.  $SO_4^{2-}$  represented the second major component of measured PM<sub>1</sub>  $(20\%_{med})$  at all sites and seasons. Its average concentration remained rather constant with only 3 slightly higher concentrations in summer than in winter (1.2 $\pm$ 0.7 µg m<sup>-3</sup>, and 1.1 $\pm$ 0.6 µg m<sup>-3</sup> 4 respectively). Overall  $SO_4^{2-}$  concentrations did not show large differences from site-to-site, 5 6 suggestive of regional sources. By contrast NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> showed a clear seasonality with larger contributions in winter (average  $0.9\pm0.8 \text{ }\mu\text{g} \text{ }\text{m}^{-3}$  equivalent to 12% of measured PM<sub>1</sub>) than in 7 8 summer  $(0.03\pm0.03 \ \mu g \ m^{-3})$ , as expected from its semi-volatile nature.

#### 9 4.2 OM source apportionment (Offline-AMS PMF)

The apportioned PMF factors were associated to aerosol sources/processes according to their mass spectral features, seasonal contributions and correlations with tracers. The four identified factors were BBOA, LOA, B-OOA, and S-OOA, which are thoroughly discussed below. The TEOA contributions instead were determined using a CMB approach.

14 BBOA was identified by its mass spectral features, with high contributions of  $C_2H_4O_2^+$ , and 15  $C_3H_5O_2^+$  (Fig. 2), typically associated with levoglucosan fragmentation from cellulose pyrolysis (Alfarra et al., 2007), accordingly the BBOA factor time series correlated well with 16 levoglucosan (Pearson correlation coefficient: R=0.90, Fig. S11). BBOA contributions were 17 18 higher during winter and lower during summer (Fig. 3a). We determined the biomass burning 19 organic carbon (BBOC) concentration from the BBOA time series divided by the 20 OM:OC<sub>BBOA</sub> ratio determined from the corresponding HR spectrum. The winter 21 levoglucosan/BBOC ratio was 0.16<sub>med</sub>, consistent with values reported in continental Europe for ambient BBOC profiles (levoglucosan/BBOC range: 0.10-0.21, Zotter et al., 2014; 22 23 Minguillón et al., 2011; Herich et al., 2014).

24 The second factor was defined as LOA because of its statistically significant contribution 25 (within  $3\sigma$ ) only in Vilnius during summer (table S2), in contrast to other potentially local 26 primary (e.g. BBOA) and secondary (S-OOA) sources which contributed at all sites. The 27 LOA mass spectrum was characterized by a high contribution of N-containing fragments 28 (especially  $C_5H_{12}N^+$ , and  $C_3H_8N^+$ ), with the highest N:C ratio (0.049) among the apportioned 29 PMF factors (0.029 for BBOA, 0.013 for S-OOA, 0.023 for B-OOA). This factor could be related to the activity of theA similar factor was also observed by Byčenkienė et al. (2016) 30 using an ACSM at the same station. In that work, high LOA concentrations were associated 31

with wind directions from N NW, and the authors suggested the sludge utilization system of
 Vilnius (UAB Vilniausvandenys) situated 3.9 km NW from the sampling station as a probable
 source.

Two different OOA sources (S-OOA and B-OOA) were resolved and exhibited different seasonal trends. <u>Separation-The separation</u> and classification of OOA sources from offline-AMS is typically different from that of <u>online-online-AMS</u> and ACSM measurements, mainly due to the different time resolution. <u>In this section we describe the separation and</u> classification of OOA factors retrieved from online- and offline-AMS.

9 Few online-AMS studies reported the separation of isoprene-related OA factor (Budisulistiorini et al., 2013; Hu et al., 2015, Xu et al., 2015) mostly driven by isoprene 10 epoxides chemistry. Xu et al. (2015) showed that nighttime monoterpene oxidation by nitrate 11 12 radical contributes to less-oxidized OOA. However, the large majority of online-AMS OOA factors are commonly classified based on their volatility (semi-volatile OOA and low-13 14 volatility OOA) rather than on their sources and formation mechanisms. Online AMS OOA 15 factors are commonly classified based on their volatility (semi-volatile OOA and low-16 volatility OOA). This differentiation is typically achieved only for summer datasets when the 17 temperature gradient between day and night is sufficiently high, yielding a detectable daily partitioning cycle of the semi-volatile organic compounds and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> between the gas and the 18 19 particle phases. Online-AMS datasets have higher time resolution than filter sampling, but 20 sampling periods typically cover only a few weeks. Therefore the apportionment is driven by daily variability rather than seasonal differences. By contrast, in the offline-AMS source 21 22 apportionment, given the 24-h time resolution of the filter sampling and the yearly cycle time 23 coverage, the separation of the factors is driven by the seasonal variability of the sources and 24 by the site-to-site differences.

25 In general, OOA factors with different seasonal behaviors can be characterized by different volatilities. However in this work the offline-AMS OOA separation is not driven by volatility, 26 27 given the low correlation between NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and our OOA factors (also reflected by the low NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> related SOA correlation with B-OOA and S-OOA, Table 2). Additionally, the partitioning of 28 29 semi-volatile OA at low temperatures would lead to a less oxidized OOA fingerprint during 30 winter than in summer; however, this was not the case. We observed a less oxidized OOA 31 factor during summer, whose mass spectral fingerprint closely resembles that of SOA from 32 biogenic precursors. Meanwhile similar to OOA from aging of biomass burning emissions,

1 OOA during the cold season is more oxidized. This has been also reported in an urban

2 <u>environment in central Europe (Zurich) using an online-ACSM (Canonaco et al., 2015).</u>

Therefore, the offline-AMS source apportionment <u>tends to</u> separates <u>OOA</u> factors by seasonal
 trends rather than volatility.

5 Table 2: Pearson correlation coefficients between non-combustion factors (Other-OA

6 <u>components</u>) from offline-AMS and marker-source apportionment.

. . . .

		<u>Other-OA<sub>marker</sub></u>			
		SO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup> -related SOA	MSA-related SOA	<u>NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-related SOA</u>	PBOA
Other-	<u>LOA</u>	<u>0.33</u>	<u>0.16</u>	<u>-0.08</u>	<u>0.10</u>
<u>OA<sub>offline-</sub></u>	<u>B-OOA</u>	<u>0.70</u>	<u>0.22</u>	<u>0.21</u>	<u>0.47</u>
AMS	<u>S-00A</u>	<u>0.60</u>	<u>0.45</u>	<u>-0.47</u>	<u>0.05</u>

7

8 In this work,  $\underline{T}_{th}$  resolved B-OOA factor explained a higher fraction than S-OOA. It was 9 associated with background oxygenated aerosols as no systematic seasonal pattern was 10 observed. However, B-OOA correlated well with NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> (*R*=0.69, Fig. S11), and had the 11 highest OM:OC ratio among the apportioned PMF factors (2.21).

12 Analyzing the B-OOA and S-OOA time series and seasonal trends, we could obtain more 13 insights into the origin of two factors. Unlike B-OOA, S-OOA showed a clear seasonality 14 with higher contributions during summer, increasing exponentially with the average daily 15 temperature (Fig. S12a). During summer the site-to-site S-OOA concentrations were not statistically different within a confidence interval of 95%, while during winter the site-to-site 16 17 agreement was lower, possibly due to the larger model uncertainty associated with the low S-18 OOA concentrations. A similar S-OOA vs. temperature relationship was reported by Leaitch 19 et al. (2011) for a terpene dominated Canadian forest using an ACSM and by Daellenbach et 20 al. (2016) and Bozzetti et al. (2016) for the case of Switzerland (Fig. S12b), using a similar 21 source apportionment model. This increase in S-OOA concentration with temperature is 22 consistent with the exponential increase in biogenic SOA precursors (Guenther et al., 2006). 23 Therefore, even though the behavior of S-OOA at different sites might be driven by several 24 parameters, including vegetation coverage, available OA mass, air masses photochemical age 25 and ambient oxidation conditions (e.g.  $NO_x$  concentration), temperature seems to be the main 26 driver of S-OOA concentrations. Overall more field observations at other European locations 27 are needed to validate this relation. While the results indicate a probable secondary biogenic 28 origin of the S-OOA factor, the precursors of the B-OOA factor are not identified. In section 4.4.2 more insights into the OOA sources <u>deriving from the comparison with the markers</u>
 <u>source apportionment will be discussed.</u>

#### 3 The B-OOA and S-OOA mass spectra were also compared with OOA profiles from literature.

The S-OOA profile showed a  $CO_2^+/C_2H_3O^+$  ratio of  $0.61_{avg}$ , placing it in the region of semi-4 volatile SOA from biogenic emissions in the f44/f43 space (Ng et al., 2011), as attributed by 5 Canonaco et al. (2015). Despite the higher summer photochemical activity, the water-soluble 6 7 bulk OA showed more oxidized mass spectral fingerprints during winter (O:C=0.61<sub>avg</sub>) than 8 in summer (O:C= $0.55_{avg}$ ), similar to the results presented by Canonaco et al. (2015) for 9 Zurich. Accordingly, the S-OOA profile also showed a less oxidized water-soluble mass spectral fingerprint than B-OOA, with an O:C ratio of 0.40<sub>avg</sub>, in comparison with 0.80<sub>avg</sub> for 10 11 B-OOA. Considering the sum of B-OOA and S-OOA, the median  $OOA:NH_4^+$  ratios for 12 Rūgšteliškis, Preila, and Vilnius were 3.2, 2.4, and 2.5 respectively, higher than the average 13 but within the range of the values reported by Crippa et al. (2014) for 25 different European 14 rural sites  $(2.0_{avg}; minimum value 0.3; maximum 7.3)$ .

15

#### 16 **4.3 PM<sub>1</sub> source apportionment (marker-PMF)**

17 The PMF factors in this analysis were associated with specific aerosol sources/processes 18 according to their profiles, seasonal trends and relative contributions to the key variables. Fig. 19 4 displays factor profiles, and the relative contribution of each factor to each variable. The  $Na^+$ -rich factor explained a large part of the variability of  $Ca^{2+}$ ,  $Mg^{2+}$ , and  $Na^+$  (Fig. 4) and 20 21 showed higher contributions during winter than in summer (Fig. 5), suggesting a possible 22 resuspension of sand and salt typically used during winter in Lithuania for road de-icing. This 23 seasonal trend is also consistent with wind speed, which showed the highest monthly values 24 during December 2013 and January 2014. We cannot exclude the possibility that this factor 25 may include contributions from sea salt, although  $Na^+$  and  $Cl^-$  were not enhanced at the 26 marine station in comparison with the other stations. The overall contribution of this Na<sup>+</sup>-rich 27 factor to measured  $PM_1$  was relatively small ( $1\%_{avg}$ ), but may be larger in the coarse fraction.

The BB factor showed a well-defined seasonality, with high contributions during winter. This factor explained a large part of the variability of typical wood combustion tracers such as methoxyphenols, sugar anhydrides (including levoglucosan, mannosan, and galactosan), K<sup>+</sup>, Cl<sup>-</sup>, EC, PAHs, and methyl-PAHs (Fig. 4). Using the <u>OM:OC<sub>BBOA</sub></u> ratio (1.88) calculated from offline-AMS, we estimated the levoglucosan:BBOC ratio to be  $0.18_{avg}$ , which is within

1 the range of previous studies (Ulevicius et al., 2015–2016 and references therein). Note that this factor explained also large fractions of variables typically associated with non-vehicular 2 3 fossil fuel combustion, such as benzo(b)naphtho(2,1-d)thiophene (BNT[2,1]) and 6,10,14trimethyl-2-pentadecanone (DMPT, Fig. 4, Manish et al., 2007; Subramanian et al., 2007), 4 5 indicating a potential mixing of BB with fossil fuel combustion sources. However, the fossil 6 fuel combustion contribution to BB is unlikely to be large, considering the low concentrations 7 of fossil fuel tracers such as hopanes (66% of the samples below quantification limit ( $\langle QL \rangle$ ), 8 BNT[2,1] (64%<QL), and DMPT (55%<QL). Moreover, the above mentioned agreement of 9 the levoglucosan:BBOC ratio with previous studies corroborates the BB estimate from the 10 marker-PMF.

The traffic exhaust factor explained a significant fraction of the alkane variability, with a preferential contribution from light alkanes (Fig. 4). Its contribution was <u>never</u> statistically significant within  $1\sigma_{3\sigma}$  only for one filter collected in Vilnius. However on average the concentration was higher in Vilnius than at the other stations and in general higher in winter than in summer.

16 The PBOA factor explained the variability of the primary biological components, such as 17 glucose, mannitol, sorbitol, arabitol, and alkanes with an odd number of carbon atoms 18 (consistent with Bozzetti et al., 2016 and references therein). Highest PBOA concentrations 19 were observed during spring, especially at the rural site of Rūgšteliškis. Overall the 20 contribution of this factor was uncertain with an average relative model error of 160% 21 probably due to the small PBOA contributions (0.6% avg of the total OM), which hampers a 22 more precise determination by the model. In particular  $OM_{res}$  was the variable showing the 23 highest mass contribution to the PBOA factor, Hhowever, the large contribution and the large uncertainty of  $OM_{res}$  to this factor (0.3±0.4) resulted in a large uncertainty in the PBOA 24 25 estimated concentration.

The last three factors were related to SA, as indicated by the large contributions of secondary species such as oxalate,  $SO_4^{2-}$ , MSA, and  $NO_3^{-}$  to the factor profiles (Fig. 4). The three factors showed different spatial and temporal contributions.

The  $NO_3^-$ -related SA exhibited highest contributions during winter, suggesting temperaturedriven partitioning of secondary aerosol components. Moreover the  $NO_3^-$ -related SA, similarly to BB and TE, showed the highest concentrations in Vilnius, and the lowest in Rūgšteliškis suggesting its possible relation with anthropogenic gaseous precursors (e.g.
 NO<sub>x</sub>), as already reported in other studies (e.g. Xu et al., 2016; McMeeking et al., 2012).

The MSA-related SA factor manifested the highest concentrations at the marine site of Preila during summer, and in general larger contributions during summer than winter, suggesting its relation with marine secondary aerosol. MSA has been reported to be related to marine secondary biogenic emissions deriving from the photo-oxidation of dimethyl sulfide (DMS) emitted by the phytoplankton bloom occurring during the warm season (Li et al., 1993, Crippa et al., 2013 and references therein).

9 The last factor  $(SO_4^{2^2}$ -related SA) showed higher contributions during summer than in winter 10 without clear site-to-site variability, following the seasonal behavior of  $SO_4^{2^2}$  showing slightly 11 higher concentrations during summer than in winter, which is probably driven by the 12 secondary formation from gaseous photochemical reactions and aqueous phase oxidation. 13 This factor explained the largest part of the oxalate and  $SO_4^{2^2}$  variability and represented 14  $48\%_{avg}$  of the measured PM<sub>1</sub> by mass.

#### 15 **4.4 Comparison of the source apportionment methods**

In this section we compare the offline-AMS PMF and marker-PMF results. We begin with 16 BBOA and TEOA emissions which were resolved by-<u>marker-PMF and offline-AMS (as</u> 17 18 already mentioned TEOA was actually not resolved by offline-AMS but determined through a 19 <u>CMB approach</u>) both approaches. The remaining OM fraction (Other-OA = OA - BBOA -20 TEOA) was apportioned by the offline-AMS source apportionment to B-OOA, S-OOA and LOA (Other-OAoffline-AMS). However, the LOA contribution was statistically significant 21 22 (within  $3\sigma$ ) only in Vilnius during summer (Table S2), while no data were available for these periods from the marker source apportionment. The marker source apportionment instead 23 24 attributed the Other-OA mass fraction to 4 factors (Other-OA<sub>marker</sub>): PBOA, as well as to  $SO_4^{2-}$ ,  $NO_3^{-}$ , and MSA-related secondary organic aerosols (SOA, Fig. S13). The OA 25 concentrations of the factors retrieved from the  $PM_1$  markers source apportionment were 26 27 obtained by multiplying the factor time series by the sum of the organic markers and OM<sub>res</sub> contributions to the normalized factor profiles. The PM concentrations from the marker PMF 28 29 factors are displayed in Fig. 5.

## 1 4.4.1 Primary OA sources

2 Offline-AMS and marker source apportionments provided comparable BBOA estimates, with 3 concentrations agreeing within a 95% confidence interval (Fig. 6). Results revealed that 4 BBOA contributed the largest fraction to the total OM during winter in Preila and Vilnius, while in Rūgšteliškis the largest OA source derived from B-OOA. The average winter BBOA 5 concentration was  $1.1\pm0.8 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$  in Rūgšteliškis and  $2\pm1 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$  in Vilnius (errors in this 6 7 section represent the standard deviation of the temporal variability). Overall the average 8 BBOA concentrations were higher at the urban background site of Vilnius and lower at the rural terrestrial site of Rūgšteliškis. Preila showed the higheshigher values  $(3\pm3 \ \mu g \ m^{-3})$ 9 driven by the grass burning episode occurred at the beginning of March (Ulevicius et al., 10 11 2016). Excluding this episode, the BBOA winter concentration was lower than in Vilnius (1.8  $\mu g$  m<sup>-3</sup>). During winter, considering only the samples collected concomitantly, Preila and 12 Vilnius showed well correlated BBOA time series (R = 0.91) and significantly positive 13 14 correlations were observed for also for Preila and Rūgšteliškis (R = 0.72) and for Vilnius and 15 Rūgšteliškis (R = 0.66) (offline-AMS BBOA time series). These results highlight the effect of 16 regional meteorological conditions on the BBOA daily variability in the south east Baltic region. During winter, Preila and Vilnius showed well correlated BBOA time series (R=0.91). 17 18 These results highlight the important role of regional meteorological conditions on the air 19 quality in the south east Baltic region.

20 By contrast, during summer BBOA concentrations were much lower, with 40% of the points 21 showing statistically not significant contributions within  $3\sigma$  for the offline-AMS source 22 apportionment and 100% for the marker source apportionment. Between late autumn and 23 early March the offline-AMS source apportionment revealed three simultaneous episodes 24 with high BBOA concentrations at the three stations, while the maker source apportionment 25 which is characterized by lower time resolution did not capture some of these episodes. The 26 first episode occurred between 19 and 25 December 2013 during a cold period with an 27 average daily temperature drop to -9.7 °C as measured at the Rūgšteliškis station (no 28 temperature data were available for the other stations). The third episode occurred between 5 29 and 10 March 2014 and was associated with an intense grass burning episode localized mostly 30 in the Kaliningrad region (Ulevicius et al., 20152016, Dudoitis et al., 20152016, Mordas et 31 al., 2016). The episode was not associated with a clear temperature drop, with the highest concentration (14 µg m<sup>-3</sup>) found at Preila on 10 March 2014, the closest station to the 32

1 Kaliningrad region. Similarly, at the beginning of February high BBOA concentrations were 2 registered at the three stations, without a clear temperature decrease. Other intense BBOA 3 events were detected but only on a local scale, with intensities comparable to the regional 4 scale episodes. Using the  $OM:OC_{BBOA}$  ratio calculated from the HR water-soluble BBOA spectrum (1.88), we estimated the BBOC<sub>avg</sub> concentrations during the grass burning episode 5 (5-10 March 2014) to span between 0.8 and 7.2  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup>. On a daily basis our BBOC 6 7 concentrations are consistent with the estimated ranges reported by Ulevicius et al. (20152016) for non-fossil primary organic carbon  $(0.6-6.9 \ \mu g \ m^{-3} \ during the period under$ 8 consideration), showing also a high correlation (R=0.98). 9

10 TEOA estimates obtained by CMB offline-AMS and marker-PMF always agreed with each 11 other agreed well with each other, with 99% of the points being not statistically different 12 within 1030 (Fig. 6). The two approaches confirm that TEOA is a minor source (Fig. 6), at all 13 three stations with on average higher concentrations in Vilnius (up to 0.8  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup>), than in Preila and Rūgšteliškis (up to 0.2  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup>). HopaneConsistently, hopane concentrations (used 14 in this work as TEOA treacers), <u>concentrations</u> were below detection limits (7 pg m<sup>-3</sup>) for 15 16 66% of the collected samples. Similarly to NO<sub>x</sub>, hopanes, TEOA, similarly to hopanes and  $NO_{xx}$  showed a clear spatial and seasonal variability with higher concentrations in Vilnius 17 18 during winter, suggesting an accumulation of traffic emissions in a shallower boundary layer 19 (Fig. 3b,  $NO_x$  data available only for Vilnius). During the grass burning event, we observed a peak in the total hopane concentration, and therefore also a peak of the estimated TEOA (2.4 20 21  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup> maximum value). This relatively high concentration is most probably not due to a local 22 increase of TE, but rather due to a regional transport of polluted air masses from neighboring 23 countries (Poland and the Russian Kaliningrad enclave). By assuming an (OM:OC)<sub>TEOA</sub> ratio 24 of 1.2±0.1 (Aiken et al., 2008, Mohr et al., 2008, Docherty et al., 2011, Setyan et al., 2012), 25 we determined the corresponding organic carbon content (TEOC). Our TEOC concentration was consistent within  $\frac{1630}{16}$  with the average fossil primary OC over the whole episode as 26 estimated by Ulevicius et al.  $(20152016)_{\tau}$  (0.4-2.1 µg m<sup>-3</sup>) although on a daily basis the 27 28 agreement was relatively poor.

Overall, offline-AMS source apportionment and marker-PMF returned comparable results for
 BBOA and similarly the TEOA estimate by markers-PMF and CMB were
 comparable
 comparable
 comparable
 for TEOA and BBOA emissions, therefore not surprisingly the two

1 approaches yielded OA concentrations also for the Other-OA fractions which agreed within

- 2 1σ3σ-for 90% of the points (Figure 6). This agreement was better for Rūgšteliškis and Preila
- 3 (94% and 90%, respectively of the points not statistically different within  $1\sigma$ ), and worse for
- 4 Vilnius (71% of the points not statistically different within  $1\sigma$ ).

# 5 4.4.2 Other-OA sources: offline-AMS and marker-source apportionment 6 comparison

7 The marker-source apportionment, in comparison to the offline-AMS source apportionment 8 enables resolving well-correlated sources (e.g. BBOA and NO3 related SOA) as well as 9 minor sources (e.g. MSA-related SOA and PBOA) because source-specific markers were 10 used as model inputs. By contrast, the offline-AMS source apportionment is capable of 11 resolving OA sources for which no specific markers were available such as LOA, which was 12 separated due to the distinct spatial and temporal trends of some N-containing AMS 13 fragments. We first briefly summarize the Other-OA factor concentrations and their site-to-14 site differences retrieved by the two techniques; subsequently we compare the two source 15 apportionment results.

The Other-OAoffline-AMS factor time series are displayed in Fig. S13. The B-OOA factor 16 showed relatively stable concentrations throughout the year with 0.9±0.8  $_{avg}~\mu g~m^{\text{-3}}$  during 17 summer and  $1.1\pm0.9_{avg}$  µg m<sup>-3</sup> during winter. Although B-OOA concentrations were relatively 18 stable throughout the year, higher contributions were observed in Preila and Rūgšteliškis 19 20 compared to Vilnius. The extreme average seasonal concentrations were between 0.8 and 1.3  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup> at Rūgšteliškis during fall and winter, between 0.9 and 1.1  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup> at Preila during 21 spring and winter, and between 0.4 and 0.6  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup> in Vilnius during summer and winter. 22 23 These values do not evidence clear seasonal trends, but highlight a site-to-site variability 24 which will be further discussed in the following. S-OOA instead was the largest contributor to total OM during summer with an average concentration of  $1.2\pm0.8 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$ , always agreeing 25 between sites within a confidence interval of 95% (2 tails t-test). By contrast, during winter 26 the S-OOA concentration dropped to an average value of  $0.3\pm0.2 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$ , with 81% of the 27 points not statistically different from 0  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup> within 3 $\sigma$ . Finally, the LOA factor showed 28 29 statistically significant contributions within  $3\sigma$  only during summer and late spring in Vilnius. 30 Despite its considerable day-to-day variability this fraction-factor contributed  $1.0\pm0.8 \ \mu g \ m^{-1}$ <sup>3</sup><sub>avg</sub> in Vilnius during summer. 31

The markers source apportionment instead attributed  $85\%_{avg}$  of the Other-OA<sub>marker</sub> mass to the 1 SO42-related SOA, while NO3-related SOA, MSA-related SOA, and PBOA explained 2 respectively 9%<sub>avg</sub>, 5%<sub>avg</sub> and 1%<sub>avg</sub> of the Other-OA<sub>marker</sub> mass (Fig. S13). The SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>-related 3 SOA average concentration was 2.4  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup> during summer and 1.7  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup> during winter with 4 5 no significant differences from station to station, suggesting a regional origin of the factor. The NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-related SOA concentration was 0.4  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup><sub>avg</sub> during winter and, only 0.03<sub>avg</sub>  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup>, 6 7 during summer, corresponding to 10% avg and 1% of the OA, respectively. Moreover, the NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> 8 -related SOA during winter showed the highest average concentrations in Vilnius with 0.5 µg m<sup>-3</sup> and the lowest in Rūgšteliškis with 0.3  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup><sub>avg</sub>. The MSA-related SOA instead 9 manifested the highest concentrations during summer with an average of 0.12  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup><sub>avg</sub>. 10 11 Higher The highest values were observed during summer at the rural coastal site of Preila where the average concentration was 0.28  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup><sub>avg</sub> corresponding to 10%<sub>avg</sub> of the OM. 12 Finally, the PBOA factor exhibited the largest seasonal concentrations during spring at the 13 rural terrestrial site of Rūgšteliškis with an average of 0.05  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup><sub>avg</sub>, while the summer 14 average concentration was 0.02  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup> consistent with the low PBOA estimates reported in 15 16 Bozzetti et al. (2016) for the submicron fraction during summer.

17 Many previous studies reported a source apportionment of organic and inorganic markers concentrations (Viana et al., 2008 and references therein). In these studies  $SO_4^{2^-}$ ,  $NO_3^{-}$ , and 18 NH4<sup>+</sup> were typically used as tracers for secondary aerosol factors commonly associated with 19 20 regional background and long-range transport; here we compare the apportionment of the 21 SOA factors obtained from the marker source apportionment and the OOA factors separated 22 by the offline-AMS source apportionment. Moreover, contrasting the two source 23 apportionments may provide insight into the origin of the OOA factors retrieved from the 24 offline-AMS source apportionment, and into the origin of the SOA factors resolved by the 25 offline-AMS source apportionment. To our knowledge an explicit comparison has not yet 26 been reported in the literature.

27 28

Table 2: Pearson correlation coefficients between Other-OA components from offline-AMS

29	and marker source apportionment
2)	and marker source apportionment.

		Other OA <sub>marker</sub>			
		SO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2</sup> -related SOA	MSA related SOA	NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup> related SOA	PBOA
Other-	LOA	<del>0.33</del>	<del>0.16</del>	<del>-0.08</del>	<del>0.10</del>
OA <sub>offline</sub> -	B-OOA	<del>0.70</del>	<del>0.22</del>	<del>0.21</del>	<del>0.47</del>

## AMS

1

S-OOA 0.60

<del>0.45</del>

<del>-0.47</del>

0.05

Table 2 reports the correlations between the time series of the Other-OA<sub>marker</sub> factors and the
Other-OA<sub>offline-AMS</sub> factors (Figs. 6 and S13). These correlations are mostly driven by seasonal
trends as none of these sources shows clear spikes except for LOA during summer in Vilnius.
Using the correlations coefficients we can identify the mostly related factors from the two
source apportionments.

The SO42-related SOA explained the largest fraction of the Other-OAmarker mass (85% avg), 7 and it was the only Other-OA<sub>marker</sub> factor always exceeding the individual concentrations of 8 B-OOA and S-OOA, indicating that the variability explained by the  $SO_4^{2-}$ -related SOA in the 9 marker-source apportionment is explained by both OOA factors in the offline-AMS source 10 apportionment. Moreover, the SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>-related SOA seasonality seems consistent with the sum 11 of S-OOA and B-OOA with higher concentrations in summer than in winter. This observation 12 13 suggests that the OOA factors resolved by offline-AMS are mostly of secondary origin and the SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>-related SOA, typically resolved by the marker source apportionment, explains the 14 largest fraction of the OOA factors apportioned by offline-AMS which includes both biogenic 15 16 SOA and aged background OA.

17 The NO<sub>3</sub>-related SOA and the PBOA were mostly related to the B-OOA factor as they showed higher correlations with B-OOA than with S-OOA (Table 2). The B-OOA factor 18 19 therefore may explain a small fraction of primary sources (PBOA), which however represents 20 only 0.6% avg of the total OA. The NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-related SOA and the PBOA were mostly related to the 21 B-OOA factor as they showed higher correlations with B-OOA than with S-OOA. The B-22 OOA factor therefore may explain a small fraction of primary sources (PBOA), which however represents only 0.6% avg of the total OA. In detail, the NO3-related SOA correlation 23 24 with B-OOA was poor (R = 0.21), but the correlation with LOA and S-OOA was negative 25 (Table 2), suggesting that the mass attributed by the markers source apportionment to NO<sub>3</sub>related SOA was fully attributed to the B-OOA factor in the offline-AMS source 26 27 apportionment. This is also confirmed by the fact that the sum of LOA and S-OOA 28 concentrations during winter (when the NO<sub>3</sub>-related SOA substantially contributes) was much 29 smaller than the NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-related SOA mass, which therefore was attributed to B-OOA.

30 The NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> related SOA and the PBOA were mostly related to the B-OOA factor as they
 31 showed higher correlations with B-OOA than with S-OOA. The B-OOA factor therefore may

explain a small fraction of primary sources (PBOA), which however represents only 0.6%<sub>avg</sub>
 of the total OA.

The MSA-related SOA showed the highest correlation with the S-OOA factor, as the two 3 sources exhibited the highest concentrations during summer, although the MSA-related SOA 4 5 preferentially contributed at the rural coastal site of Preila. While we already discussed the probable secondary biogenic origin of S-OOA, the correlation with the MSA-related SOA 6 7 suggests that the S-OOA factor, especially at the rural coastal site of Preila, explains also a 8 large fraction of the marine biogenic SOA. The correlation between the two factors is 9 therefore not surprising as the precursor emissions (dimethyl sulfide, isoprene and terpenes) 10 are strongly related to the temperature leading to higher summer MSA-related SOA and S-11 OOA concentrations. Assuming all the MSA-related SOA to be explained by the S-OOA factor, we estimate a marine biogenic SOA contribution to S-OOA of 27% avg during summer 12 at Preila, while this contribution is lower at the other stations (12% avg in Rūgšteliškis during 13 14 summer, 7% in Vilnius during spring, no summer data for Vilnius Fig. S13). As already 15 mentioned, here we assume all the MSA-related SOA to be related to marine secondary 16 biogenic emissions, however other studies also report MSA from terrestrial biogenic 17 emissions (Jardine et al., 2015), moreover a certain fraction of the MSA-related SOA can also 18 be explained by the B-OOA factor. Overall these findings indicate that the terrestrial sources 19 dominate the S-OOA composition, nevertheless the marine SOA sources may represent a 20 non-negligible fraction, especially at the marine site.

21 Another advantage obtained in coupling the two source apportionment results is the 22 possibility to study the robustness of the factor analyses by evaluating the consistency of the two approaches as we already discussed for the primary OA and Other-OA fractions. Figure 23 S14b displays the ratio between PMF modelled WSOC and measured WSOC for the offline-24 25 AMS case. A clear bias between Vilnius and the rural sites can be observed, with a WSOC 26 overestimate of ~5% in Preila and Rūgšteliškis. While this overestimate is negligible for the 27 WSOC mass, it might have significant consequences on single factor concentrations. By 28 contrast, for the markers source apportionment (Fig. S14a), OM residuals are more 29 homogeneous. As we show in Fig. S6, these residuals marginally affect the apportionment of 30 combustion sources, as suggested by the well comparing estimates of BBOA and TEOA using 31 the two methods. Therefore, these residuals are more likely affecting non-combustion sources 32 S-OOA and B-OOA). For the common days, the S-OOA concentration is not

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1	statistically different at the different stations during summer (confidence interval of 95%),
2	indicating that the residuals are more likely affecting LOA and B-OOA, which instead show
3	site-to-site differences. Now, the PMF WSOC residuals appear at all seasons, also during
4	periods without significant LOA contribution in Vilnius. Therefore, we conclude that B-OOA
5	is the factor most significantly affected by the difference in the WSOC residuals. We could
6	best assess the residual effects by comparing the B-OOAoffline-AMS with that estimated
7	using the other technique that seem to yield more homogeneous residuals: B-OOAmarker.
8	Here B-OOAmarker is estimated as Other-OAmarkers - LOA - S-OOA. While B-
9	OOAoffline-AMS shows site-to-site differences, B-OOAmarkers did not show statistically
10	different concentrations at all stations within a confidence interval of 95%. Based on these
11	observations, we conclude that observed site-to-site differences in B-OOA concentrations are
12	likely to be related to model uncertainties. Another advantage obtained in coupling the two
13	source apportionment results is the possibility to study the robustness of the factor analyses by
14	evaluating the consistency of the two approaches as we already discussed for the primary OA
15	and Other OA fractions. By subtracting LOA and S OOA from Other OA <sub>marker</sub> we can
16	estimate the equivalent B OOA concentration from the marker source apportionment (B-
17	OOA <sub>marker</sub> ). Unlike the B OOA factor from offline AMS, whose contribution is lower at
18	Vilnius, B OOA <sub>marker</sub> did not show statistically different concentrations at all stations within a
19	confidence interval of 95%. This discrepancy could indicate some PMF residual uncertainties
20	or biases not considered in our error estimate for offline AMS and/or markers source
21	apportionments for Vilnius, which could not be detected without coupling the 2 source
22	apportionment approaches.

23

# 24 4.5 fCO<sup>+</sup> vs. fCO<sub>2</sub><sup>+</sup>

Figure 7 displays the water-soluble  $fCO^+$  vs.  $fCO_2^+$  scatter plot. A certain correlation (*R*=0.63) 25 is seenobserved, with  $fCO^+$  values being systematically lower than  $fCO_2^+$  ( $CO^{2+}:CO^+: 1^{st}$ 26 quartile 1.50, median 1.75, 3<sup>rd</sup> quartile 2.01), whereas a 1:1 CO<sub>2</sub><sup>+</sup>:CO<sup>+</sup> ratio is assumed in 27 standard AMS/ACSM analyses (Aiken et al., 2008; Canagaratna et al., 2007). Comparing the 28 measured CO2+:CO+ values for the bulk WSOM and for pure gaseous CO2 might provide 29 insight into the origin of the CO<sup>+</sup> fragment in the AMS. The fragmentation of pure gaseous 30 31  $CO_2$  returned a  $CO_2^+:CO^+$  ratio of  $8.21_{avg}$  which is significantly higher than our findings for 32 the water-soluble bulk OA (1.75<sub>med</sub>). Assuming thermal decarboxylation of organic acids as 1 the only source of  $CO_2^+$  does not explain the observed  $CO_2^+$ : $CO^+$  ratio of  $1.75_{med}$  and another 2 large source of  $CO^+$  has to be assumed. Therefore, the carboxylic acid decarboxylation can be 3 considered as a minor source of  $CO^+$ .-suggesting that the WSOM decarboxylation on the 4 AMS vaporizer represents only a minor source of  $CO^+$ .

Figure  $\frac{7b}{7a}$  and Fig. 8 show that not only does the water-soluble (WS)  $CO_2^+:CO^+$  ratio 5 systematically differ from 1, but it also varies throughout the year with higher  $CO_2^+:CO^+$ 6 7 values associated with warmer temperatures (Fig.  $\frac{7b7c}{C}$ ). The lower CO<sub>2</sub><sup>+</sup>:CO<sup>+</sup> ratios in winter 8 are primarily due to BB, as the WSBBOA factor profile showed the lowest  $CO_2^+:CO^+$  ratio 9 (1.20<sub>avg</sub>) among all the apportioned WS factors (2.00<sub>avg</sub> for B-OOA, 2.70<sub>avg</sub> for S-OOA, and  $2.70_{avg}$  for LOA). We observed a seasonal variation of the CO<sub>2</sub><sup>+</sup>:CO<sup>+</sup> ratio also for the water-10 11 soluble OOA (S-OOA + B-OOA) mass spectral fingerprint. The  $CO_2^+:CO^+$  ratio was slightly 12 lower for B-OOA than for S-OOA (2.00<sub>avg</sub> for B-OOA, 2.70 for S-OOA). Nevertheless, given the low S-OOA relative contribution during winter (Fig. 3), we note that the total OOA 13 14 showed a slightly lower  $CO_2^+:CO^+$  ratio during winter than in summer (Fig. S14S15), indicating that the OOA mass spectral fingerprint evolves over the year, possibly because of 15 16 different precursor concentrations, and different photochemical activity.

17 Fig. 7a shows that most of the measured  $\{fCO_2^+, fCO_2^+\}$  combinations lies within the triangle 18 defined by the BBOA, S-OOA and B-OOA { $fCO_2^+$ } combinations. The LOA factor 19  $\{fCO^+; fCO_2^+\}$  combination lies within the triangle as well, but is anyways a minor source and thus unlikely to contribute to the  $CO_2^{++}CO^+$  variability. We parameterized the  $CO^+$ 20 variability as a function of the CO2<sup>+</sup>, and C2H4O2<sup>+</sup> fragment variabilities using a multi-21 22 parameter fit according to Eq. (8).  $CO_2^+$  and  $C_2H_4O_2^+$  were chosen as B-OOA and BBOA 23 tracers, respectively, with B-OOA and BBOA being the factors that explained the largest fraction of the  $fCO^+$  variability (85% together). 24

25  $CO_{i}^{+} = a \cdot CO_{2i}^{+} + b \cdot C_{2}H_{4}O_{2i}^{+}$ 

(8)

Although this parameterization is derived from the WSOM fraction  $CO_2^+$ ,  $C_2H_4O_2^+$ , and  $CO^+$ originate from the fragmentation of oxygenated, i.e. mostly water-soluble compounds. Accordingly, this parameterization might also well represent the total bulk OA (as the offline-AMS recoveries of these oxygenated fragments are relatively similar:  $R_{CO_2^+}=0.74$ ,  $R_{C_2H_4O_2^+}=0.61$ , Daellenbach et al., 2016). Note that this parameterization may represent very well the variation of CO<sup>+</sup> in an environment impacted by BBOA and OOA, but should be used with caution when other sources (such as COA) may contribute to CO<sup>+</sup>, CO<sub>2</sub><sup>+</sup> and

69

 $C_2H_4O_2^+$ . In order to check the applicability of this parameterization to a PMF output, we 1 2 recommend monitoring the  $CO_2^+$  and  $C_2H_4O_2^+$  variability explained by the OOA and BBOA factors. In case a large part of the  $CO_2^+$  and  $C_2H_4O_2^+$  variability is explained by OOA and 3 4 BBOA, the parameterization should unlikely return accurate uncertain CO<sup>+</sup> values. The coefficients a and b of Eq. (8) were determined as 0.52 and 1.39 respectively, while the 5 6 average fit residuals were estimated to be equal to 10% (Fig. S15S16). In contrast, parameterizing  $CO^+$  as proportional to  $CO_2^+$  only (as done in the standard AMS analysis 7 scheme with coefficients updated to the linear fit between  $CO^+$  and  $CO_2^+$  (1.75)) yielded 8 9 20%<sub>avg</sub> residuals, indicating that such a univariate function describes the CO<sup>+</sup> variation less 10 precisely.

11 An alternative parameterization is presented in the SI in which the contribution of moderately oxygenated species (such as S-OOA) to  $CO^+$  was also considered by using  $C_2H_3O^+$  as an 12 independent variable. We show that the dependence of  $CO^+$  on  $C_2H_3O^+$  is statistically 13 14 significant (Fig. 767c) as also suggested by the PMF results (S-OOA contributes 12% to the  $CO^+$  variability). However, the parameter relating  $CO^+$  to  $C_2H_3O^+$  is negative, because the 15  $CO^+:CO_2^+$  and  $CO^+:C_2H_4O_2^+$  ratios are lower in moderately oxygenated species compared to 16 17 species present in BBOA and B-OOA. While this parameterization captures the variability of 18  $CO^+$  across the seasons better compared to a 2-parameter fit for the present dataset, it may be 19 more prone to biases in other environments due to the known contributions of other factors to  $C_2H_3O^+$  – For example, cooking-influenced organic aerosol (COA) often accounts for a 20 significant fraction of  $C_2H_3O^+$ . For ambient datasets we propose the use of  $CO_2^+$  and  $C_2H_4O_2^+$ 21 22 only, which may capture less variation but is also less prone to biases. Although our results 23 suggest that the available  $CO^+$  and O:C estimates (Aiken et al., 2008; Canagaratna et al., 24 2015) may not well capture the  $CO^+$  variability, our  $CO^+$  parameterization should not be applied to calculate the O:C ratios or recalculate the OA mass from AMS datasets, as those 25 are calibrated assuming a standard fragmentation table (i.e.  $CO_2^+ = CO^+$ ). 26

In a recent work, Canagaratna et al. (2015) reported the Ar nebulization of water soluble single compounds to study the HR-AMS mass spectral fingerprints in order to improve the calculation of O:C and OM:OC ratios. Following the same procedure, we nebulized a subset of the same standard compounds including malic acid, azalaic acid, citric acid, tartaric acid, cis-pinonic acid, and D(+)-mannose. We obtained comparable  $CO_2^+:CO^+$  ratios (within 10%) to those of Canagaratna et al. (2015) for all the analyzed compounds, highlighting the

1 comparability of results across different instruments. With the exception of some 2 multifunctional compounds (citric acid, malic acid tartaric acid, ketobutyric acid, hydroxyl methylglutaric acid, pyruvic acid, oxaloacetic acid, tartaric acid, oxalic acid and malonic 3 4 acid), the water-soluble single compounds analyzed by Canagaratna et al. (2015) mostly 5 showed  $CO_2^+:CO^+$  ratios <1, systematically lower than the  $CO_2^+:CO^+$  ratios measured for the bulk WSOM in Lithuania (1<sup>st</sup> quartile 1.50, median 1.75, 3<sup>rd</sup> quartile 2.01), which represents a 6 large fraction of the total OM (bulk EE: median = 0.59,  $1^{st}$  quartile = 0.51,  $3^{rd}$  quartile = 0.72). 7 8 Considering the relatively high extraction efficiency, and considering that the  $CO^+$  and  $CO_2^+$ 9 fragmentation precursors tend to be more water soluble than the bulk OA, the aforementioned 10 compounds could be representative of a large part of the  $CO^+$  and  $CO_2^+$  fragmentation precursors. With the exception of some multifunctional compounds, the water soluble single 11 compounds analyzed by Canagaratna et al. (2015) mostly showed CO2+;CO+ ratios <1, 12 systematically lower than the CO<sub>2</sub><sup>+</sup>:CO<sup>+</sup> ratios measured for the bulk WSOM in Lithuania (1<sup>st</sup> 13 quartile 1.50, median 1.75, 3<sup>rd</sup> quartile 2.01), which represents a large fraction of the total OM 14 (bulk EE: median = 0.59,  $1^{\text{st}}$  quartile = 0.51,  $3^{\text{rd}}$  quartile = 0.72). This indicates that the 15 16 selection of appropriate reference compounds for ambient OA is non-trivial, and the 17 investigation of multifunctional compounds is of high importance.

18

#### 19 **5** Conclusions

20  $PM_1$  filter samples were collected over an entire year (November 2013 to October 2014) at 21 three different stations in Lithuania. Filters were analyzed by water extraction followed by 22 nebulization of the liquid extracts and subsequent measurement of the generated aerosol with an HR-ToF-AMS (Daellenbach et al., 2016). For the first time, the nebulization step was 23 24 conducted in Ar, enabling direct measurement of the  $CO^+$  ion, which is typically masked by  $N_2^+$  in ambient air and assumed to be equal to  $CO_2^+$  (Aiken et al., 2008).  $CO_2^+$ : $CO^+$  values >1 25 were systematically observed, with a mean ratio of  $1.7\pm0.3$ . This is likely an upper limit for 26 27 ambient aerosol, as only the water-soluble OM fraction is measured by the offline-AMS technique.  $CO^+$  concentrations were parameterized as a function of  $CO_2^+$ , and  $C_2H_4O_2^+$ , and 28 29 this two-variable parameterization showed a superior performance to a parameterization based 30 on  $CO_2^+$  alone, because  $CO^+$  and  $CO_2^+$  show different seasonal trends.

31 PMF analysis was conducted on both the offline-AMS data described above and a set of 32 molecular markers together with total OM. Biomass burning was found to be the largest OM

1 source in winter, while secondary OA was largest in summer. However, higher concentrations 2 of primary anthropogenic sources (biomass burning and hopanes here used as traffic 3 markerstraffic and biomass burning) were found at the urban background station of Vilnius. 4 The offline-AMS and marker-based analyses also identified local emissions and primary biological particles, respectively, as factors with low overall but episodically important 5 6 contributions to PM. Both methods showed traffic exhaust emissions to be only minor 7 contributors to the total OM; which is not surprising given the distance of the three sampling 8 stations from busy roads.

9 The two PMF analyses apportioned SOA to sources in different ways. The offline-AMS data 10 yielded factors related to regional background (B-OOA) and temperature-driven (likely 11 biogenic-influenced) emissions (S-OOA), while the marker-PMF yielded factors related to nitrate, sulfate, and MSA. For the offline-AMS PMF, S-OOA was the dominant factor in 12 13 summer and showed a positive exponential correlation with the average daily temperature, 14 similar to the behavior observed by Leaitch et al. (2011) in a Canadian boreal forest. Combining the two source apportionment techniques suggests that the S-OOA factor includes 15 16 contributions from both terrestrial and marine secondary biogenic sources, while only small 17 PBOA contributions to submicron OOA factors are possible. The analysis highlights the 18 importance of regional meteorological conditions on air pollution in the southeastern Baltic 19 region, as evidenced by simultaneous high BBOA levels at the three stations during three 20 different episodes in winter and by statistically similar S-OOA concentrations across the three 21 stations during summer.

22

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## 1 Figures main text







7 Figure 3. a) Temporal evolutions of relative contributions to the OA factors; b) OA sources

8 and corresponding tracers: concentrations and uncertainties (shaded areas).





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3 Figure 4. Marker-PMF factor profiles (bars) and relative contributions of the factors to the

4 measured variables (symbols). <u>Factor list and abbreviations: NO<sub>3</sub>-related secondary aerosol</u>

5 (NO<sub>3</sub>-related SA), SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>-related-SA, MSA-related-SA, Na<sup>+</sup>-rich aerosol, primarybiological

6 organic aerosol (PBOA), traffic exhaust (TE), biomass burning (BB),





- 3 Figure 5. PM<sub>1</sub> marker source apportionment: factor time series and relative contributions.
- 4 Shaded areas indicate uncertainties (standard deviation) of 20 bootstrap runs.



1 2

Figure 6. Marker-PMF and offline-AMS OM source apportionment comparison.





Figure 7. a) water-soluble  $fCO_2^+$  vs  $fCO^+$  scatter plot. Color code denotes the average daily 4 5 temperature [°C], diamonds indicate the  $fCO_2^+/fCO^+$  ratio for different PMF factor profiles. 6 The 1:1 line is displayed in red. Few points from Rūgšteliškis lie outside the triangle, 7 suggesting they are not well explained by our PMF model. However, Fig. S5 displays flat 8 residuals for Rūgšteliškis, indicating an overall good WSOM explained variability by the model. b) water-soluble  $fC_2H_3O^+$  vs  $fCO^+$  scatter plot. Color code denotes the average daily 9 temperature [°C] c) Scatter plot of the water-soluble  $CO^{2+}$  to  $CO^{+}$  ratio vs. average daily 10 temperature. Grey code denotes  $fC_2H_4O_2^+$ . 11



2 3 4 5 6 7

Figure 7. a) water soluble  $fCO_2^+$  vs  $fCO^+$  scatter plot. Color code denotes the average daily temperature [°C], diamonds indicate the  $fCO_2^+/fCO^+$  ratio for different PMF factor profiles. The 1:1 line is displayed in red. Few points from Rūgšteliškis lie outside the triangle, suggesting they are not well explained by our PMF model. However, Fig. S5 displays flat residuals for Rūgšteliškis, indicating an overall good WSOM explained variability by the model. b) Scatter plot of the water soluble  $CO^{2+}$  to  $CO^+$  ratio vs. average daily temperature. Grey code denotes  $fC_2H_4O_2^+$ .







11 Figure 8. Time-dependent fractional contributions (*f*) of typical AMS tracers.