



1 **Polyols and glucose particulate species as tracers of primary**
2 **biogenic organic aerosols at 28 french sites**

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33 **Abstract.** A growing number of studies are using specific primary sugar species, such as sugar alcohols or primary
34 saccharides, as marker compounds to characterize and apportion primary biogenic organic aerosols (PBOA) in the
35 atmosphere. To better understand their annual cycles, as well as their spatio-temporal abundance in terms of
36 concentrations and sources, we conducted a large study focusing on three major atmospheric primary sugar
37 compounds (i.e. arabinol, mannitol and glucose) measured in various environmental conditions on about 5,300
38 filter samples collected at 28 sites in France. Our results show significant atmospheric concentrations of polyols
39 (defined here as the sum of arabinol and mannitol) and glucose at each sampling location, highlighting their
40 ubiquity. Results also confirm that polyols and glucose are mainly associated with the coarse rather than the fine
41 aerosol mode. At nearly all sites, atmospheric concentrations of polyols and glucose display a well-marked
42 seasonal pattern, with maximum concentrations from late spring to early autumn, followed by an abrupt decrease
43 in late autumn, and a minimum concentration during wintertime. Such seasonal patterns support biogenic
44 emissions associated with higher biological metabolic activities (e.g. sporulation, growth, etc.) during warmer
45 periods. Results from a previous comprehensive study using Positive Matrix Factorization (PMF) based on an
46 extended aerosol chemical composition dataset of up to 130 species for 16 of the same sample series has also been
47 used in the present work. Results show that PBOA are significant sources of total OM in PM₁₀ (13±4 % on a yearly
48 average, and up to 40 % in some environments in summer) at most of the investigated sites. The mean PBOA
49 chemical profile is clearly dominated by OM (78±9 % of the mass of the PBOA PMF factor on average),
50 suggesting that ambient polyols are most likely associated with biological particle emissions (e.g. active spore
51 discharge) rather than soil dust resuspension.

52 1. Introduction

53 Airborne particles (or particulate matter, PM) are of concern due to their multiple deleterious effects on both human
54 health and climate (Boucher et al., 2013; Cho et al., 2005; Ntziachristos et al., 2007). The diversity of PM impacts
55 is closely linked to their complex and highly variable nature: size distribution, concentration and chemical
56 composition, or specific surface properties. PM consists of inorganic and elemental substances, and a large fraction
57 made of carbonaceous matter (organic carbon (OC) and elemental carbon (EC)) (Putaud et al., 2004a). Substantial
58 amounts of atmospheric OC remain unidentified and uncharacterized at the molecular level. In most studies, a
59 maximum of only 20 % of the mass of organic matter (OM) of PM can generally be speciated and quantified
60 (Alfarra et al., 2007; Fortenberry et al., 2018; Liang et al., 2017; Nozière et al., 2015). This detailed composition
61 of OM and its spatial and seasonal distribution can give important insights on the adverse effects of PM. So far,
62 the majority of air pollution studies have focused on organic atmospheric particles associated with anthropogenic
63 and secondary sources, whereas a significant fraction of OC is also associated with primary emissions from
64 biogenic sources (Bauer et al., 2008a; Jaenicke, 2005; Liang et al., 2016). Therefore, the characterization of primary
65 OC biogenic sources at the molecular level is still limited (Fuzzi et al., 2006; Liang et al., 2017; Zhu et al., 2015),
66 and should be further investigated for a better understanding of aerosol sources and formation processes.
67 Primary biogenic organic aerosols (PBOA) are emitted directly from the biosphere to the atmosphere where they
68 are ubiquitous and participate in many atmospheric processes (Elbert et al., 2007; Fröhlich-Nowoisky et al., 2016).
69 Additionally, their inhalation has long been associated with human respiratory impairments (e.g. asthma,
70 aspergillosis, etc.) (Després et al., 2012; Morris et al., 2011). PBOA comprises living and dead microorganisms



71 such as bacteria, fungi, viruses, bacterial and fungal spores, and microbial fragments, endotoxins, mycotoxins, or
72 pollens (Elbert et al., 2007; Jaenicke, 2005; Morris et al., 2011). It can account for an average of 25 % of the
73 atmospheric aerosol mass (Fröhlich-Nowoisky et al., 2016; Jaenicke, 2005; Manninen et al., 2014; Morris et al.,
74 2011). However, their sources and contribution to total airborne particles are still poorly documented, partly
75 because of the difficulty to recognize them by conventional microbiological methods (cells culture, or microscopic
76 examination) (Di Filippo et al., 2013; Heald and Spracklen, 2009; Jia et al., 2010a).

77 Several specific chemical components, such as primary sugar compounds (i.e. primary saccharides and sugar
78 alcohols) emitted persistently from biogenic sources, have long been suggested as powerful and unique biomarkers
79 in tracing sources, abundances, as well as atmospheric transport pathways of PBOA. For instance, ambient
80 concentrations of glucose have been used as markers for plant materials (such as pollen, leaves, and their
81 fragments) or soil emissions from several areas in the world (Fu et al., 2012; Jia et al., 2010a, 2010b; Pietrogrande
82 et al., 2014; Rathnayake et al., 2017). Many studies indicated that glucose is the most abundant monosaccharide
83 in vascular plants, where it serves as the common energy materials, and an important source of carbon for soil
84 active microorganisms (such as bacteria or fungi) (Jia et al., 2010a; Medeiros et al., 2006; Pietrogrande et al.,
85 2014; Zhu et al., 2015). Additionally, sugar alcohols (also called polyols) including arabitol and mannitol have
86 been proposed as markers for airborne fungi, and are widely used to quantify their contributions to PM mass (Bauer
87 et al., 2008a, 2008b; Golly et al., 2018; Srivastava et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2010). These sugar alcohols also
88 correlate very well with a factor identified as PBOA in AMS off-line studies (Vlachou et al., 2018b). Polyols are
89 produced in large amounts by many fungi and bacteria, and several functions have been described for these
90 compounds, such as common energy storage materials, intracellular protectants against stressful conditions (e.g.
91 heat or drought), storage or transport of carbohydrates, quencher of oxygenated reactive species, or regulators of
92 intracellular pH by acting as a sink or source of protons (Jennings et al., 1998; Medeiros et al., 2006; Véléz et al.,
93 2007). Hence, polyols, especially arabitol and mannitol, may represent a significant fraction of the dry weight of
94 fungi, and mannitol can contribute between 20 to 50 % of the mycelium dry weight (Ruijter et al., 2003; Véléz et
95 al., 2007). However, polyols are also often identified in the lower plants (leaves, pollens) and green algal lichens
96 (Medeiros et al., 2006; Véléz et al., 2007; Yang et al., 2012).

97 Although atmospheric concentrations of polyols, including arabitol and mannitol, as well as that of some primary
98 monosaccharides (e.g. glucose), have been previously quantified as part of several studies in various environments
99 including urban/suburban, rural, rainforest, mountain, and marine areas (Fu et al., 2012; Graham et al., 2003; Jia
100 et al., 2010a, 2010b; Liang et al., 2016; Pietrogrande et al., 2014; Simoneit, 2004; Verma et al., 2018; Yttri et al.,
101 2007; Zhu et al., 2015), large sets of data investigating their annual cycles and spatial distributions are still limited.
102 Such information could give important insights on environmental factors influencing their atmospheric levels such
103 as climate and biotope, and therefore help to elucidate patterns regarding their major sources and atmospheric
104 emission pathways. Even if numerous sources and emission mechanisms have been widely proposed, including
105 among others, metabolic active microbial wet emissions, entrainment of farmland or natural soils and associated
106 microbiota (Elbert et al., 2007; Fu et al., 2013; Gosselin et al., 2016; Jia et al., 2010a, 2010b; Medeiros et al., 2006;
107 Pietrogrande et al., 2014; Simoneit et al., 2004; Verma et al., 2018; Yttri et al., 2007), the dominant atmospheric
108 input processes have not been yet sufficiently elucidated.

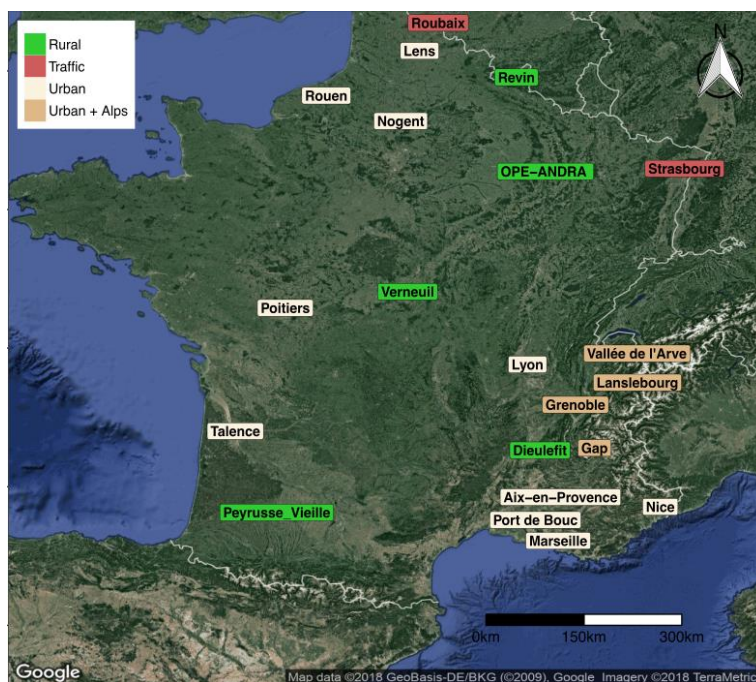


109 In this context, the present study was designed to provide a large overview of the spatial and seasonal variations
110 of polyols and glucose mass concentrations, as well as their contribution to the aerosol organic mass fraction, in
111 France. To do so, data was collected at many sites in different environments (rural, traffic, urban), in order to
112 represent various sampling conditions in terms of site typologies and meteorological conditions. Thanks to the
113 availability of results from an extended Positive Matrix Factorization (PMF) analysis performed for the
114 corresponding datasets, the overall contributions of the main polyols and glucose emission sources could also be
115 investigated in light of their spatial patterns. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first study providing such an
116 extended phenomenology of these compounds over multiple sites with different typologies.

117 2. Material and methods

118 2.1 Aerosol sampling

119 Ambient aerosol samples considered in the present work come from different research and monitoring programs,
120 conducted over the last 5 years in France (Figure 1). Each program includes at least one-year of field sampling,
121 providing a total number of 5,343 daily filter samples available for the sake of the present study. These sites offer
122 diverse conditions in terms of typologies (i.e. rural, traffic, urban sites, Alpine valley environments, etc.), local
123 climate and vegetation types and were selected in order to cover the complex and variable national environmental
124 conditions. These sites are assumed to represent typical environmental conditions in France, and our
125 observations/and general tendency could therefore be extrapolated to neighboring western European countries
126 presenting quite homogeneous environmental conditions.



127

128 **Figure 1:** Map of sampling site locations in France. Green: rural, red: traffic, yellow: urban and dark yellow: Urban in
129 Alps valley environment sites. Stations of Grenoble (Grenoble_LF, Grenoble_CB and Grenoble_VIF) and Vallée de



130 L'Arve (Marnaz, Passy and Chamonix) include each 3 sites. Station of Marseille includes four sites: Marseille, Mallet,
131 Meyreuil and Gardanne.

132 The site of OPE-ANDRA is a specific monitoring observatory in a very rural environment (description available
133 from: <http://www.andra.fr>). All other sites correspond to stations of regional air quality monitoring networks
134 (AASQA). The availability of filter samples was variable from one site to the other one, depending on the sampling
135 frequency (typically every third or sixth day). Filter collection was conducted within the PM₁₀ or the PM_{2.5} aerosol
136 size fraction, depending on the investigated site (Table S1). Moreover, co-located and simultaneous PM₁₀ and
137 PM_{2.5} samplings were conducted at OPE-ANDRA and Revin, allowing to investigate the distribution of primary
138 sugar compounds between the fine and the coarse aerosol size fractions at these two sites.

139 Ambient aerosols were collected onto quartz fiber filters (Tissu-quartz PALL QAT-UP 2500 150 mm diameter),
140 preheated at 500 °C for 4 h minimum before use. After collection, all filter samples were wrapped in aluminum
141 foils, sealed in zipper plastic bags and stored at <4°C until further chemical analysis. Field blank filters were also
142 collected, at least once a month, using the same handling procedure than for PM samples. More detailed
143 information on the sampling periods, air sampler, number of filters and nature of PM samples are provided in
144 Table S1 and Fig. S1.

145 2.2 Chemical analyses

146 PM samples were analyzed for various chemical species using sub-sampled fractions of the collection filters. In
147 the frame of the present study, the carbonaceous matter (organic carbon (OC) and elementary carbon (EC)) was
148 analyzed using a thermo-optical method on a Sunset Lab analyzer (Birch and Cary, 1996) as described by Aymoz
149 et al. (2007), using the EUSAAR2 temperature program (Cavalli et al., 2010), except for the five sites of Northern
150 France where the NIOSH870 protocol was employed (Birch and Cary, 1996). Particulate organic matter (OM)
151 contents were then estimated by multiplying the organic carbon mass concentrations by a fixed factor, with $OM =$
152 $1.8 \times OC$ (Li et al., 2018; Ruthenburg et al., 2014; Vlachou et al., 2018a).

153 For the analysis of anhydrosugars, sugar alcohols, and primary saccharides, filter punches (typically of about 10
154 cm²) were first extracted into ultrapure water, then filtered using a 0.22 μm Acrodisc filter. Depending on the site,
155 analyses were conducted either by IGE (Institut des Géosciences de l'Environnement) or by LSCE (Laboratoire
156 des Sciences du Climat et de l'Environnement) (Table S1). At IGE, extraction was performed during 20 min in a
157 vortex shaker and analyses were achieved using an HPLC with Pulsed Amperometric Detection. A first set of
158 equipment was used until March 2016, consisting of a Dionex DX500 equipped with three columns Metrosep
159 (Carb 1-Guard + A Supp 15-150 + Carb 1-150), the analytical run being isocratic with 70 mM sodium hydroxide
160 eluent, followed by a gradient cleaning step with a 120 mM NaOH eluent. This analytical technique enables to
161 detect anhydrous saccharides (levoglucosan, mannosan, galactosan), polyols (arabitol, sorbitol, mannitol), and
162 glucose (Waked et al., 2014). A second set of equipment was used after this date, with a Thermo-Fisher ICS 5000⁺
163 HPLC equipped with 4 mm diameter Metrosep Carb 2 × 150 mm column and 50 mm pre-column. The analytical
164 run is isocratic with 15 % of an eluent of sodium hydroxide (200 mM) and sodium acetate (4 mM) and 85 % water,
165 at 1 mL min⁻¹. This method allows for additional separation and quantification of erythritol, xylitol, and threose.
166 At LSCE, extraction was performed during 45 min by sonication and analyses were achieved using an IC (DX600,
167 Dionex) with Pulsed Amperometric Detection (ICS3000, Dionex). A CarboPAC MA1 columns has be used
168 (4 × 250 mm, Dionex), the analytical run being isocratic with 480 mM sodium hydroxide eluent. This analytical



169 technique enable to detect anhydrous saccharides (levoglucosan, mannosan, galactosan), polyols (arabitol,
170 mannitol), and glucose.

171 Field blank filters were handled as real samples for quality assurance. The present data were corrected with field
172 blanks. The reproducibility of the analysis of primary sugar species (polyols, glucose), estimated from the analysis
173 of extracts of 10 punches from the same filters are generally in the range of 10-15 %.

174 Additional chemical analyses were conducted for most of the sites, allowing to quantify up to 130 different
175 chemical species (Table S1) in order to achieve PMF analyses, as will be presented in a forthcoming paper
176 (Salameh et al., in prep.).

177 2.3 Statistical analysis

178 Species concentration measurements were first analyzed for normality using Shapiro-Wilk's method with the
179 statistical program *R studio interface* (version 3.4.1). Since data were generally not distributed normally, we used
180 non-parametric statistical methods. The strength of the relationship between species concentrations was
181 investigated using the non-parametric Spearman rank correlation method. Multiple mean comparison analyses
182 were performed with the Kruskal-Wallis test method. Statistical significance was set at $p < 0.05$.

183 Positive Matrix Factorization for the source apportionment of the PM was previously performed at several sites of
184 this study, as part of the SOURCES (Favez et al., 2016; Salameh et al., in prep.) and DECOMBIO (Chevrier, 2017)
185 projects. We used the US EPA PMF 5.0 software (US EPA, 2015), following the general recommendation
186 guidelines of the JRC (Belis et al., 2014). Briefly, the SOURCES program aimed at performing source
187 apportionment at 15 sites using a harmonized methodology, i.e. using the same chemical species, uncertainties,
188 constraints, and criteria for factor identification. The PMF conducted within SOURCES project uses about 30
189 different species, including carbonaceous fraction (OC, EC), ions (Cl^- , NO_3^- , SO_4^{2-} , NH_4^+ , K^+ , Mg^{2+} , Ca^{2+}), organic
190 markers (polyols i.e. sum of arabitol, mannitol and sorbitol; levoglucosan; mannosan) and metals (Al, As, Ba, Cd,
191 Co, Cs, Cu, Fe, La, Mn, Mo, Ni, Pb, Rb, Sb, Se, Sn, Sr, Ti, V, Zn). The PMF conducted within the DECOMBIO
192 project, for the sites of Marnaz, Chamonix, and Passy, used in addition to the 30 different species, aethalometer
193 (AE 33) measurements for the separation between BC_{wb} and BC_{f} (black carbon from wood burning and fossil fuel,
194 respectively). For simplicity, BC_{wb} and BC_{f} were summed up and labeled as EC in the present study. PMF
195 modelling was performed separately for each site. Statistical significance was validated with bootstrap higher than
196 80 % for each factor. Detailed methodology and results about these studies are given in their respective papers
197 (Chevrier, 2017; Favez et al., 2016; Salameh et al., in prep.). It should be noted that glucose was not included in
198 the final solution for any of these PMF, since it generally produced statistical instability of the solutions (this point
199 is further discussed in Sect. 3.2).

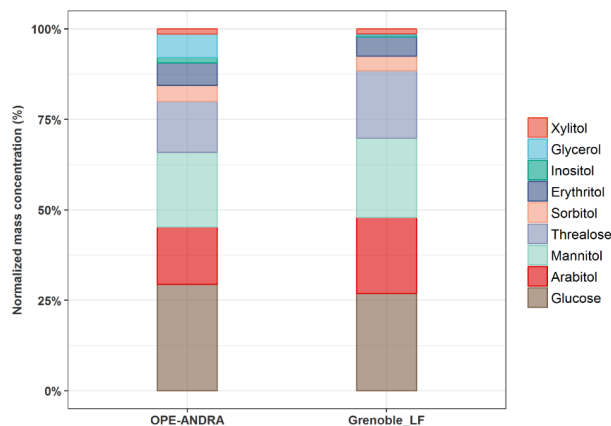
200 Also, the PMF in the SOURCES project took advantage of the possibility to add constraints in the solution
201 chemical profiles. In the PBOA profiles that are systematically obtained when polyols are included in the initial
202 datasets, we “pulled up maximally” their concentrations, while levoglucosan and mannosan were set to zero and
203 EC was “pulled down” maximally. It means that the PMF model tried to enrich the polyols mass in the PBOA
204 factor and deplete EC. Other constraints were added parsimoniously, targeting specific proxies of sources and are
205 further discussed in the respective papers.



206 3. Results and discussion

207 3.1 Relative distribution between sugar alcohols and glucose

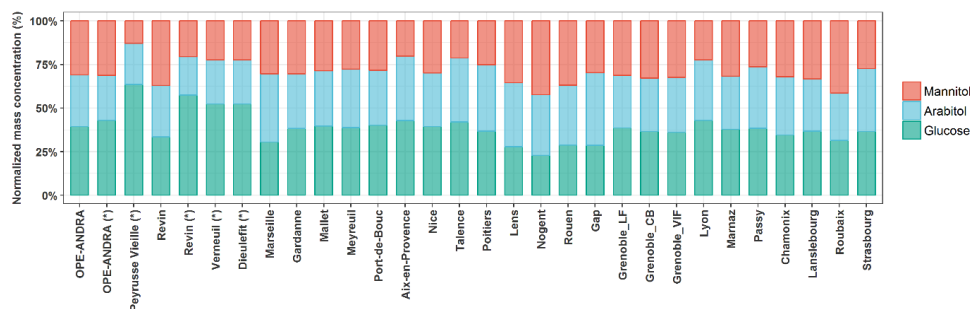
208 Figure 2 presents an overview of the relative mass concentration distributions of individual chemical species
209 quantified at two sites with very different characteristics, an urban site in Grenoble and the rural site of OPE-
210 ANDRA. Data are presented for the warmer season (e.g. during summer and fall), when concentrations were at
211 their maximum (see Sect. 3.4). Glucose is the most abundant species measured (range 3.2–297.2 ng m⁻³; average
212 37.6±26.4 ng m⁻³), accounting on average for 25 % of primary sugar compound (SC) total mass at both sites.
213 Mannitol (1.4–199.1 ng m⁻³; 37.3±24.6 ng m⁻³) and arabitol (0.2–133.9 ng m⁻³; 32.0±22.2 ng m⁻³), are the second
214 and third most abundant species, accounting respectively for 25 and 23 % of SC mass. Threalose is relatively
215 abundant in samples from these two sites (4.3–104.1 ng m⁻³; 20.1±16.2 ng m⁻³), accounting for 14 % of SC mass,
216 but in general its concentration is frequently below the limit of quantification for samples from other sites in France
217 (Fig. SI-3). The other identified polyols (i.e. erythritol, inositol, glycerol, sorbitol, and xylitol) present lower
218 concentration levels (0.01–33.8 ng m⁻³, 4.9±2.1 ng m⁻³), corresponding altogether to 13 % of SC total mass.
219 Such ambient mass concentration distribution patterns are similar (but with variable intensities) to those previously
220 reported for aerosol samples collected at various locations around the world. For example, Verma et al. (2018)
221 found that glucose, and arabitol together with mannitol, contributed to 16.7 and 48.1 %, respectively, of total
222 primary sugar compounds in aerosols from Chichijima Island. Similarly, Yttri et al. (2007) showed that glucose
223 and the pair arabitol-mannitol were the main contributors of total primary monosaccharides and sugar alcohols in
224 aerosols collected from four various background sites in Norway. In addition, Carvalho et al. (2003) reported that
225 arabitol, mannitol and glucose as the most dominant primary sugar compounds in aerosols from rural background
226 and boreal forest sites in Germany and Finland, respectively.



227

228 **Figure 2: Overview of relative mass distributions of individual primary sugar alcohols and saccharide compounds**
229 **quantified in PM₁₀ samples at two sites over summer and autumn periods (June to November) corresponding to**
230 **maximal atmospheric concentrations of sugar alcohols/saccharide compounds.**

231



232

233 **Figure 3: Mass concentration distributions of arabitol, mannitol, and glucose. Symbol (*) indicates PM_{2.5} aerosol**
 234 **samples. Only data for warmer season (e.g. during summer and fall), corresponding to maximal atmospheric**
 235 **concentration of polyols and glucose are shown.**

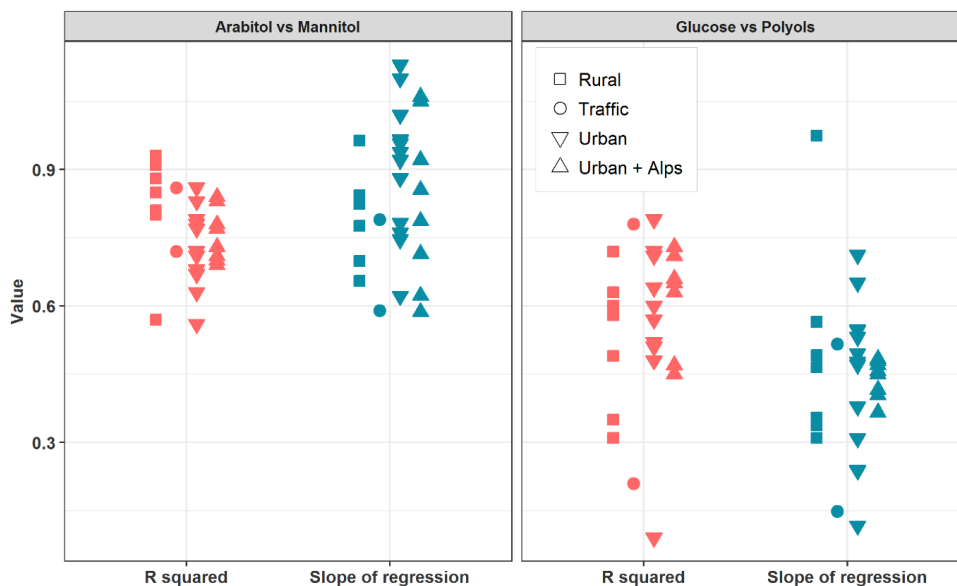
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237 Although various primary sugar alcohols and saccharides have been detected and quantified for most of the
 238 investigated sites, the following study focuses only on the three major and ubiquitous species, namely arabitol,
 239 mannitol and glucose. Figure 3 presents their average relative contributions at all sites, for the warmer period,
 240 displaying very similar features at a first glance. However, discrepancies could be observed from site to site, as
 241 discussed in following sections.

242 3.2 Relationships between selected primary sugar compounds

243 Figure 4 summarizes linear correlations obtained between arabitol and mannitol concentrations at each site during
 244 the warmer period. Medium to very high correlation coefficients could be observed ($0.58 \leq R^2 \leq 0.93$; $30 \leq n \leq$
 245 143 or $45 \leq n \leq 341$ for PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀ series, respectively), with slopes in a rather narrow range (between 0.59
 246 and 1.10), and quite low intercepts (always below 9 ng m^{-3}). Such covariations indicate that both species are most
 247 probably co-emitted, by one or several type(s) of sources, at each site during the summer-autumn period. These
 248 observations are in agreement with previous studies also showing strong covariations between arabitol and
 249 mannitol (Kang et al., 2018; Verma et al., 2018; Zhu et al., 2015). Therefore, it seemed reasonable to consider both
 250 species together, so that their concentrations are summed up and labelled as "polyols" in the following sections.
 251 Conversely, linear correlations between glucose and polyols concentrations are generally weaker
 252 ($0.10 < R^2 \leq 0.78$), with slopes varying over a much larger range (between 0.12 and 0.94), and variable intercepts
 253 (between -5.6 and 16.4 ng m^{-3}). This suggests that glucose concentrations might follow a different pattern
 254 compared to that of polyols, either due to different emission sources, or different chemical stability in the
 255 atmosphere. It is therefore reasonable to keep glucose as a separate chemical species in the following discussion.
 256 Also, this distinct behavior is most probably one reason why we were not able to obtain stable solutions when
 257 including glucose in the PMF studies described in Sect. 3.5.

258 It should be emphasized that the slope of the regressions between the chemical concentrations are most probably
 259 related to the emissions and atmospheric processing. Particularly in the case of mannitol and arabitol, they may be
 260 influenced by biogenic or biotope characteristics. Nevertheless, no evident relationship between the slope values
 261 and the typology or the geographical location of the sites could be observed (Fig. 4).

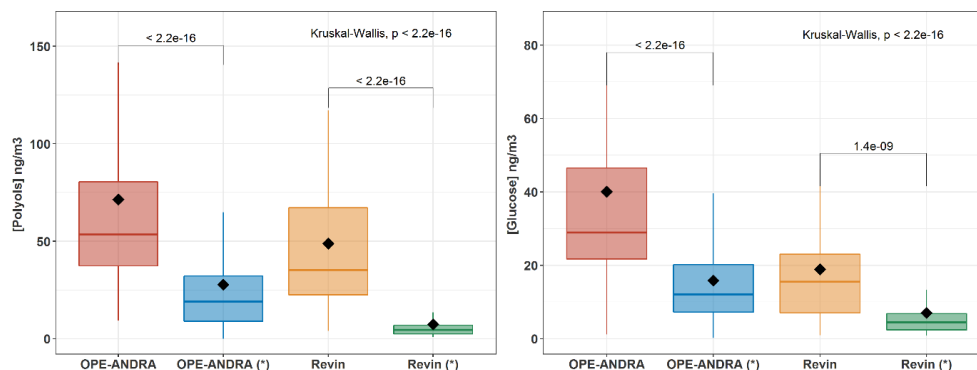


262

263 **Figure 4: Linear regression analysis between selected primary sugar compounds mass concentrations (i.e. arabitol,**
264 **mannitol and glucose) during summer and autumn seasons, for all the sites considered in this study.**

265 3.3 Relative distributions between PM₁₀ and PM_{2.5}

266 Figure 5 shows the average PM₁₀ and PM_{2.5} concentrations of polyols and glucose at OPE-ANDRA and Revin
267 during the summer and autumn seasons. The polyols mass concentrations ranged from 7.5 ± 10.9 to 27.8 ± 33.3 ng m⁻³
268 ³ in PM_{2.5}, and from 48.9 ± 38.2 to 73.5 ± 61.8 ng m⁻³ in PM₁₀, in Revin and OPE-ANDRA sites, respectively. PM₁₀-
269 to-PM_{2.5} were then on average of about 3 to 5. Similar size distribution patterns, with variable intensity, were
270 observed for glucose (Fig. 5). These results indicate that polyols and glucose are mainly associated with the coarse
271 PM fraction. This observation is in good agreement with several previous investigations where polyols (especially
272 arabitol and mannitol), together with glucose, were prevalent in the coarse fraction (Fu et al., 2012; Fuzzi et al.,
273 2007; Pio et al., 2008; Yttri et al., 2007). However, Carvalho et al. (2003) reported different size distributions for
274 polyols and glucose, with variable fine or coarse mode maxima depending upon sampling location. For instance,
275 maximum atmospheric concentrations of mannitol were associated to fine and coarse aerosols from boreal forest
276 (Finland) and rural background sites (Germany), respectively. The authors hypothesized that these observations
277 are due to different assemblages of dominant fungal biota (with variable aerodynamic characteristics) at different
278 sites. Some other previous studies showed aerodynamic diameters typically ranging from 2 to 10 μm, even though
279 a few airborne bacterial/fungal spores could exceed that size (Bauer et al., 2008a; Elbert et al., 2007; Huffman et
280 al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2015).



281

282 **Figure 5: Box plots of mass concentrations of polyols (left) and glucose (right) in PM₁₀ and PM_{2.5} (with symbol (*)**
 283 **samples). Black markers inside each boxplot indicate the mean concentration value, while the top, middle and bottom**
 284 **lines of the box represent the 75th, median and 25th percentile, respectively. The whiskers at the top and bottom of the**
 285 **box extend from the 95th to the 5th percentile. Statistical differences between average mass concentrations were analyzed**
 286 **with the Kruskal-Wallis methods ($p < 0.05$).**

287 Hence, although if the precise mechanisms of atmospheric emission of particulate polyols and glucose are not fully
 288 resolved, our observations are in good agreement with ambient mass concentrations of polyols and glucose being
 289 likely associated with biological particles, as already suggested elsewhere (Fu et al., 2012; Verma et al., 2018;
 290 Zhang et al., 2015). These species could enter the atmospheric compartment through either natural or
 291 anthropogenic resuspension of surface soils and associated bacterial/fungal spores (containing polyols and primary
 292 sugar compounds), or via a direct input resulting from microbial activities (e.g. sporulation). Another hypothesis
 293 would be the abrasion of leaves and the subsequent release of microbial organisms and plant debris (Fu et al.,
 294 2012; Medeiros et al., 2006; Simoneit et al., 2004).

295 3.4 Spatial and seasonal distribution of atmospheric concentrations

296 3.4.1 Spatial and seasonal patterns of polyol concentrations

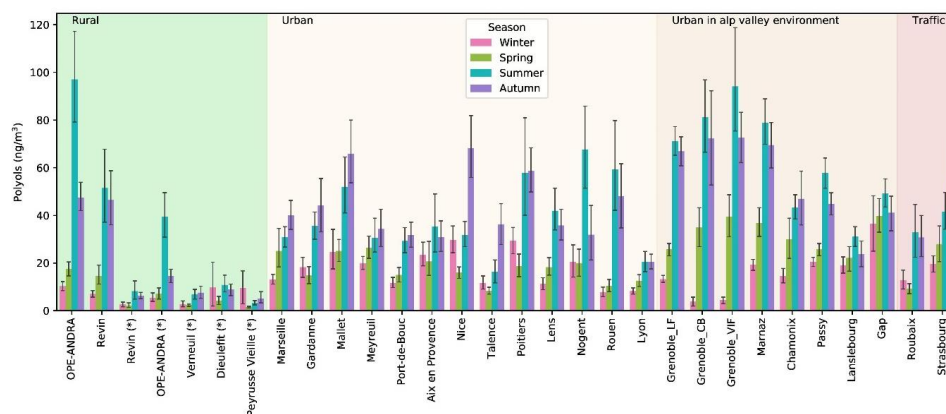
297 As illustrated in Fig. 6, significant concentrations of polyols were measured at each investigated site, evidencing
 298 the ubiquity of these organic compounds. Polyols mass concentrations clearly exhibit seasonal trends, with variable
 299 intensity according to the sampling sites. On a seasonal average, polyols are more abundant in summer
 300 ($46.8 \pm 43.6 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$) and autumn ($43.0 \pm 36.7 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$), followed by spring ($19.0 \pm 13.6 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$) and winter
 301 ($16.2 \pm 11.5 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$). The average concentrations of polyols are then at least 2 to 3 times higher during summer or
 302 autumn months than during the cold months, with a ratio that can be as high as 8 to 10.

303 Previous studies also reported similar seasonal variation pattern for urban and rural aerosol samples collected at
 304 various locations. For example, Pashynska et al. (2002) measured higher atmospheric polyol (arabitol, mannitol)
 305 contents during late summer and autumn, in Belgium. Several other studies reported higher concentrations of
 306 polyols in summer than spring and winter time, in aerosols collected from Texas, USA and Jeju Island, respectively
 307 (Fu et al., 2012; Jia et al., 2010a, 2010b). More recently, Liang et al. (2016) and Verma et al. (2018) also reported
 308 similar seasonal distributions for aerosols sampled at Beijing, China and north-western Pacific, respectively.

309 The higher atmospheric polyols concentrations observed are likely due to the increased contribution from
 310 metabolically active microbial derived sources (fungi, bacteria, green algal lichens) as a result of external stressors



311 such as heat, drought and relative moisture. Indeed, fungal and prokaryotic cells activities, including their growth
312 and sporulation, are promoted by high temperature and humid conditions occurring in summer and autumn (China
313 et al., 2016; Elbert et al., 2007; Jones and Harrison, 2004; Rathnayake et al., 2017).
314 As also evidenced from Fig. 6, atmospheric polyols concentrations do not present any significant seasonal
315 differences related to the site typology (rural, traffic, urban sites with/without Alpine influences), or latitude. There
316 is some tendency toward higher concentrations in summer in Alpine environments, but some other sites (like the
317 rural site of OPE-ANDRA, in the North-East of France) can reach the same levels of concentrations. We tested
318 several types of hierarchical classifications, including variables like monthly or seasonal mean polyols
319 concentrations, the ratio arabitol-to-mannitol, or linear regression parameters (slope, R square) but none of them
320 led to a simple clustering of the sites that would explain the variability of the concentrations.



321

322 **Figure 6: Spatial and seasonal distributions of atmospheric polyol average concentrations (ng m^{-3}) for various types of**
323 **sites in France. Error bars correspond to standard deviations calculated with seasonal concentrations. Symbol (*)**
324 **indicates $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ aerosol samples.**

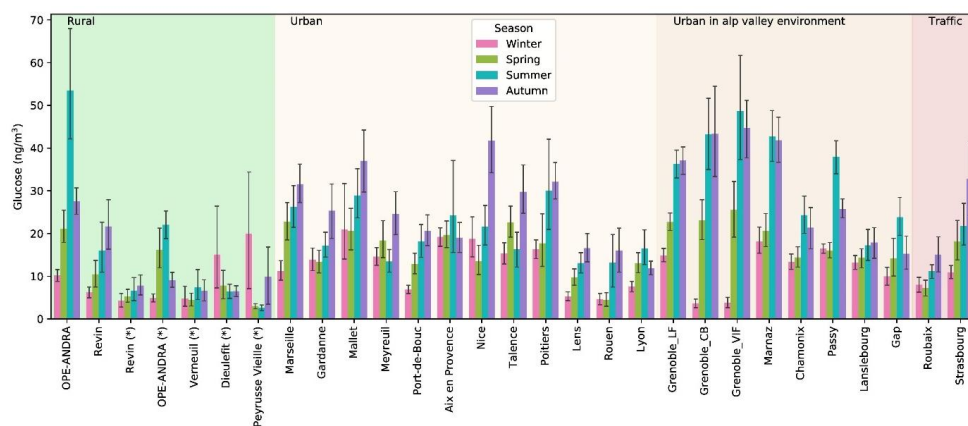
325 3.4.2 Spatial and seasonal patterns of glucose concentrations

326 Likewise polyols, the atmospheric concentrations of glucose also display seasonal and site-to-site variations
327 (Fig. 7). Except for Peyrusse-Vieille and Dieulefit, both rural sites with $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ sampling, ambient seasonal mean
328 concentrations (with standard deviations) of glucose are maximum in summer ($25.0 \pm 24.2 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$) and autumn
329 ($24.6 \pm 19.8 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$), followed by spring ($15.8 \pm 12.4 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$) and winter ($12.6 \pm 10.2 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$). The summer / winter
330 ratio for glucose seems generally lower than that of polyols, with higher ratios in the Alpine areas than in other
331 parts of France. However, as for polyols, it remains difficult to classify the sites according to any criteria linked to
332 site typology or latitude.

333 The seasonal trend of glucose concentrations in the present work is similar to that recently observed for aerosols
334 (PM_{10} or total suspended particles) collected at various environmental background (suburban, urban and coastal)
335 sites around the world (Liang et al., 2016; Srithawirat and Brimblecombe, 2015; Verma et al., 2018). On average,
336 a wide range of daily glucose concentrations (expressed as min-max, mean) in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ ($0.02\text{-}162.0 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$,
337 $10.5 \pm 15.1 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$) and PM_{10} ($0.1\text{-}297.2 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$, $20.6 \pm 18.7 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$) were observed in the present study. These values
338 are comparable to those in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ ($4.3\text{-}12.0$, 7.2 ng m^{-3}) and PM_{10} ($8.4\text{-}93.0$, 47.0 ng m^{-3}) reported from an urban



339 site in Belgium (Yttri et al., 2007). More recently, Liang et al. (2016) also reported similar concentrations in PM_{2.5}
340 (7.1–202.8, 22.1±15.7 ng m⁻³) and PM₁₀ (3.1–343.6, 46.2±27.5 ng m⁻³) from Beijing (China).
341 The sources and formation processes of glucose in the atmosphere are not currently well known and are rarely
342 discussed. Glucose is an important carbon source for soil metabolic active microbiota, and it is commonly present
343 in vascular plants. Additionally, cellulose (a linear polymer made of glucose subunits linked by β-1,4 bonds) is
344 one of the most important form of organic compounds in terrestrial ecosystems and a major plant structural
345 polymer (Boex-Fontvieille et al., 2014). It can also be quite abundant in the atmosphere (Puxbaum and Tenze-
346 Kunit, 2003). Hence, it is hypothesized that ambient glucose could be formed through active microbial (i.e.
347 bacteria, fungi etc.) enzymatic hydrolysis of cellulose in plant debris. Consistent with these observations, glucose
348 could be released into the atmosphere from both vascular plant materials (e.g. leaves, fruits, pollens, etc.) growing
349 in spring and decomposing in autumn/summer, and soil microbiota, as already suggested elsewhere (Di Filippo et
350 al., 2013; Jia et al., 2010a; Medeiros et al., 2006; Verma et al., 2018; Zhu et al., 2015).



351

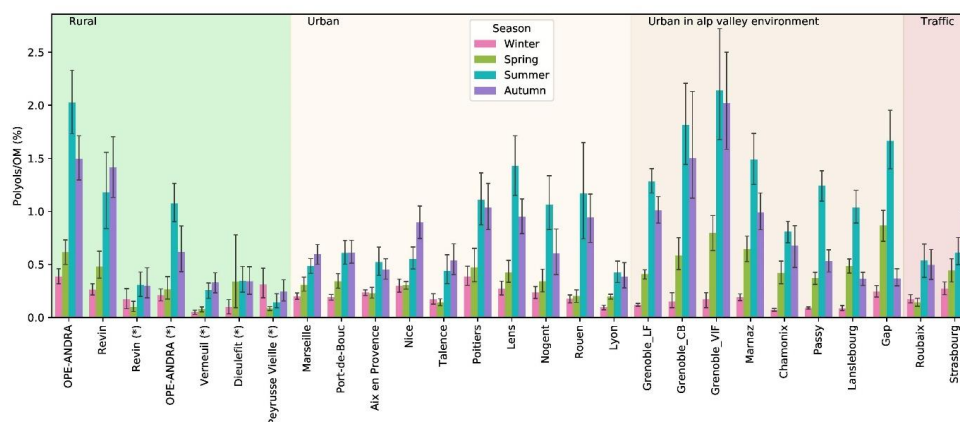
352 **Figure 7: Spatial and seasonal distributions of atmospheric glucose levels (ng m⁻³) for various types of sites in France**
353 **(except the site of Nogent, which presented too many missing values. Error bars correspond to standard deviations**
354 **calculated with seasonal concentrations).**

355 3.4.3 Relative contributions to aerosol organic matter concentrations

356 The average contribution of polyols to the organic matter content (OM) of PM clearly displayed a seasonal
357 behavior, as shown in Fig. 8. Here again, contributions are 2 to 10 times higher during summer and autumn
358 compared to winter and spring, consistent with the assumption of higher emissions during these periods. The
359 seasonal mean contribution of polyols to OM fluctuates from site to site, and accounts for 0.1 to 2.1 % of overall
360 OM for these French sites (Fig. 8). Similarly, the seasonal mean concentrations of polyols together with glucose
361 represent between 0.2 to 3.1 % of total OM at these sites (Fig. S4). However, on a daily basis (Samake et al., in
362 prep.), atmospheric polyols mass concentrations can represent up to 6.3 % of total OM in PM₁₀, indicating that
363 polyols can be amongst the major molecular species identified in aerosol organic matter (Fig. S5). Again, we could
364 not find any simple way to group the sites according to their characteristics (typology or latitude, or climatic
365 region), in order to better understand the drivers behind the variability of this mass fraction. Further studies are
366 currently conducted using multi criterion examinations.



367 The seasonal polyols-to-OM distribution patterns in this study are comparable to those found for different urban
 368 or rural sites in Europe (around 0.2 to 2.5 % of OM) (Pashynska et al., 2002; Yttri et al., 2007). Zhu et al. (2015)
 369 also reported similar seasonal polyols-to-OM contribution trend for aerosols sampled at Cape Hedo (coastal site,
 370 Japan).



371

372 **Figure 8: Spatial and seasonal distributions of mean contributions (in %) of polyols to the organic matter content of**
 373 **PM for various types of sites in France. Daily time-series of organic carbon (OC) were not available for the following**
 374 **sites: Gardanne, Mallet, and Meyreuil. Error bars correspond to standard deviations calculated with seasonal**
 375 **concentrations.**

376 3.5 Primary biogenic factor in PMF studies

377 The sum of polyols (arabitol + mannitol) represent only a small fraction of the total OM. However, as proxies of
 378 PBOA, they are most probably emitted with other chemical species. Emission from biological particles is a
 379 complex topic since it may include a wide variety of compounds, both organic and inorganic (Elbert et al., 2007;
 380 Zhang et al., 2015). Moreover, it is not clear if polyols are mainly emitted directly in the atmosphere or are linked
 381 to other materials, for example with soil dust during resuspension processes. To investigate the relationship
 382 between polyols and other species, it would have been possible to perform simple correlation analysis with
 383 individual chemical species. This approach has the disadvantage of being a one-to-one relation and thus highly
 384 sensitive to the dynamics of all PM emission sources, not only the one we are interested in. Alternatively, another
 385 way is to use a PMF approach, also based on correlations but including much more information on the temporal
 386 variations of the different sources influencing the PM chemistry at a given receptor site.

387 As mentioned in Sect. 2.3, the PMF results used in this study come from two different programs (SOURCES and
 388 DECOMBIO) (Chevrier, 2017; Favez et al., 2016; Salameh et al., in prep.) and include sites of different typologies
 389 (rural, traffic, urban sites in Alpine valley environments, etc.) for 16 different locations spread over France and
 390 part of the current dataset. At each site, the PMF studies allowed to identify a PBOA factor, characterized by the
 391 presence of more than 90 % of the total polyols content (sum of arabitol, mannitol and sorbitol), as presented in
 392 Fig. S2. Hence, the chemical composition of this factor may be informative to investigate the PBOA source
 393 components (Table S2), and to evaluate the importance of PBOA emissions in term of OM mass apportionment.

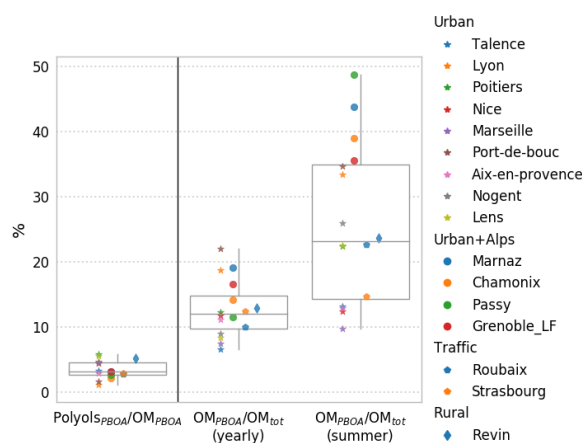


394 3.5.1. Contributions of PBOA to OM and polyols to PBOA

395 Altogether, the results from these 16 sites highlight the importance of the PBOA source contribution to total OM.
 396 As shown in Fig. 9, the OM apportioned by the PBOA factor represents a significant fraction of the total OM mass
 397 on a yearly average (range 6–28 %; average 13 ± 6 %). When considering only the summer period (June-July-
 398 August), this contribution is even larger and can exceed 40 % of the total OM at sites in the Alpine area (Marnaz,
 399 Passy, Chamonix, Grenoble_LF) which are partially protected from large regional influences due to the local
 400 topography. Interestingly, some previous work using the same samples from the sites in the Arve valley (Passy,
 401 Chamonix) showed that about 90 % of the OM is from modern origin (using ^{14}C measurements) during summer,
 402 with no apparent correlation between this modern carbon and polyols concentrations (Bonvalot et al., 2016).
 403 Hence, despite being an important contributing source, PBOA is not the major biogenic source in this type of
 404 environment. Tracers of secondary biogenic formation processes (like pinic acid or 3-MBTCA) were measured in
 405 these series.

406 Interestingly, opposite to the case of the Alpine valleys where this proportion is the highest, the ratios $\text{OM}_{\text{PBOA-to-}}$
 407 OM_{total} are amongst the lowest for coastal environments (Talence, Marseille, Nice), a possible indication that the
 408 marine environment is not a large emitter for these species. Recently, much lower concentrations of polyols in
 409 aerosols from marine environments than those in terrestrially influenced sites were also reported off the coast of
 410 Japan, also suggesting a higher contribution from terrestrial sources (Kang et al., 2018).

411 As illustrated in Fig. 9, polyols represent only a small fraction of the OM apportioned in the PBOA factor (1.2 %–
 412 6.0 %; average 3.0 ± 1.5 %) for the 16 studied sites. This variability is indeed rather small, considering the wide
 413 range of sites and the diversity of other potential sources (on average 8 to 10 PMF factors were obtained for the
 414 different sites). Indeed, this narrow range of the polyols fraction to the OM_{PBOA} highlights the stability of the
 415 chemical profile of this source over a large regional scale. It indicates also that, if polyols are good proxies of the
 416 PBOA sources, a large amount of other organic species are co-emitted, that still remain unknown.



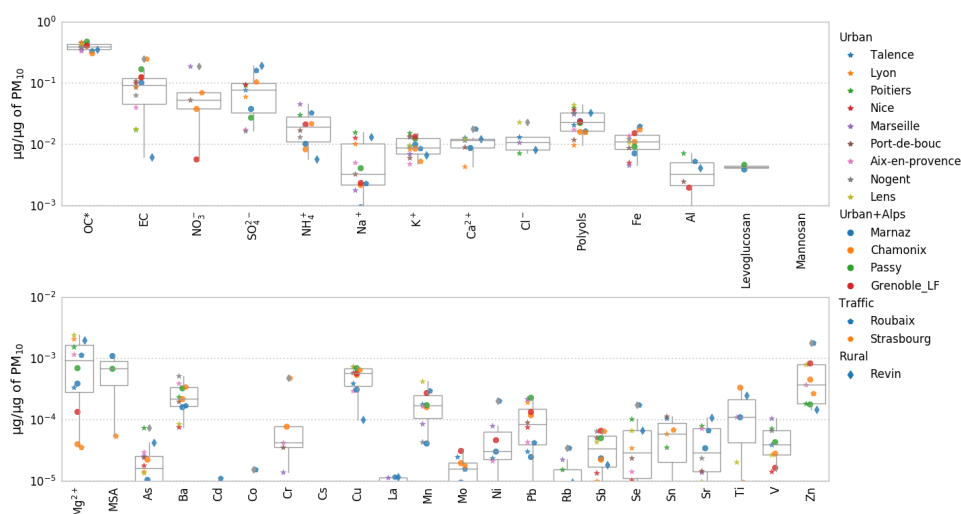
417

418 **Figure 9:** Mass contribution of polyols to OM in the PBOA factor, and relative contributions of the OM_{PBOA} factor to
 419 the total OM in PM for the 16 studied sites where PMF model was run, over the year and summertime only. Stars and
 420 circle refer to urban sites without/and with Alpine valley influence, respectively. Pentagon corresponds to traffic sites
 421 and diamond to rural sites.



422 3.5.2 PBOA profile constituents and emission process

423 Figure 10 shows the contribution (in μg of species per μg of PM in the PBOA factor profile) of each chemical
 424 species included in the averaged PBOA factor from the 16 PMF studies. The principal contributors are OC and
 425 EC, and significant fractions of crustal material also appear (Na^+ , K^+ , Ca^{2+} , Al, Ba, Cu, Fe, Mn, Ti, Zn) as well as
 426 secondary elements such as nitrate and sulfate. On average, the PBOA factor does not comprise a large fraction of
 427 metals and trace elements, most of them being below $1 \text{ pg } \mu\text{g}^{-1}$. Here again, the low variability of the PBOA
 428 chemical profile encountered across a large array of sites is remarkable.



429

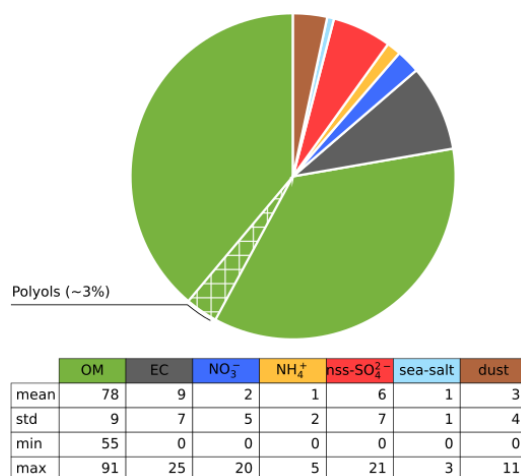
430 **Figure 10: PMF chemical profile of the PBOA factor in the DECOMBIO and SOURCES programs expressed as a**
 431 **fraction of the PM mass. Values lower than a few $\text{pg } \mu\text{g}^{-1}$ are not displayed on purpose. For each boxplot, the top,**
 432 **middle and bottom lines represent the 75th, median and 25th percentile, respectively. The whiskers at the top and bottom of the**
 433 **box extend from the maximum to the minimum.**

434 The contribution from some crustal material could agree with the coarse mode distributions of polyols (Sect. 3.3)
 435 and could be indicative of an emission process with the entrainment of spores with soil dust resuspension. To
 436 investigate the importance of mineral dust in the PBOA factor, we clustered the chemical components of PM from
 437 PBOA into 7 classes: OM ($= 1.8 \times \text{OC}$), EC, NO_3^- , NH_4^+ , non-sea-salt sulfate (nss- SO_4), sea-salt, and dust. nss-
 438 SO_4^{2-} is calculated from the measured SO_4^{2-} minus the sea-salt fraction of SO_4^{2-} ($nss\text{SO}_4^{2-} = \text{SO}_4^{2-} - ss\text{SO}_4^{2-}$
 439 where $ss\text{SO}_4^{2-} = 0.252 \times \text{Na}^+$) according to Seinfeld and Pandis (1997). The sea-salt fraction is calculated
 440 according to Putaud et al. (2010): $sea - salt = \text{Cl}^- + 1.47 \times \text{Na}^+$. Finally the dust fraction is estimated from
 441 Putaud et al. (2004b) as: $dust = (nss - \text{Ca}^{2+}) \times 5.6$ with nss- Ca^{2+} stands for non-sea salt Ca^{2+} and is computed
 442 thanks to $nss - \text{Ca}^{2+} = \text{Ca}^{2+} - \text{Na}^+ / 26$.

443 Figure 11 presents the normalized average contributions of these 7 classes to the PBOA mass for the 16 sites with
 444 PMF modelling. It clearly revealed that the PBOA factor is dominated by OM ($78 \pm 9\%$), followed by EC ($9 \pm 7\%$),
 445 and only a minor fraction of the dust class ($3 \pm 4\%$). This result tends to infirm the hypothesis associating PBOA
 446 to mineral dust resuspension. Indeed, our findings rather suggest that a main part of PBOA (and polyols) are most
 447 likely associated with biological particle direct emissions. It leaves only a minor fraction that could be linked to
 448 the mechanical resuspension of PBOA with crustal elements and long-term deposited EC particles, being



449 accumulated in topsoil. Previous works indicate that a large proportion of produced EC ends up in soil, where it
 450 can reside for thousands of years, being relatively resistant to biological and chemical degradation (Forbes et al.,
 451 2006; Hammes et al., 2007; Zhan et al., 2016).
 452



453

454 **Figure 11: Average contribution (%) of species in the PBOA factor for the sites in SOURCES and DECOMBIO. The**
 455 **hatched area represents the proportion of the OM apportioned by the polyols (see text for reconstruction method).**

456 4. Conclusion

457 The contribution of primary biogenic organic aerosols to PM is barely documented in the scientific literature. The
 458 present study aimed at providing a large overview of the spatial and temporal evolution of concentrations and
 459 contributions to aerosol organic matter of dominant primary sugar alcohols and saccharide compounds, for a large
 460 selection of environmental conditions in France. With 28 sites and more than 5,340 samples, it is to our knowledge
 461 the most comprehensive dataset for these compounds. The main results obtained indicate that:

- 462 • among the identified polyols, arabitol together with mannitol are the major species by mass, with lesser
 463 amounts of others polyols (e.g., erythritol, inositol, glycerol, sorbitol, and xylitol). Glucose is the
 464 dominant primary monosaccharide and its relative abundance is comparable to the sum of arabitol and
 465 mannitol;
- 466 • the two main polyols (arabitol and mannitol) together with glucose are mainly present within the coarse
 467 aerosol mode;
- 468 • at nearly all sites, ambient levels of the main polyols and glucose displayed clear seasonal variation cycles,
 469 with a gradual increase from spring and maximum in summer and autumn aerosols, followed by a sudden
 470 decrease in late autumn, and a winter minimum;
- 471 • atmospheric concentrations of the main polyols and glucose fluctuate according to site and season, and
 472 account each for between 0.1 to 2.1 % of OM on a seasonal average basis at these French sites;



- 473 • ambient mass concentrations of arabitol and mannitol are comparable. Meanwhile, they display very good
474 temporal covariation, with ratios varying between sites. Conversely, linear correlations between the main
475 polyols and glucose concentrations are much lower, suggesting different atmospheric sources, or
476 atmospheric processes;
- 477 • Arabitol and mannitol are efficient organic markers for PBOA. PMF studies of the yearly series from 16
478 sites give contributions of the primary biogenic emission (traced with the main polyols) to the total OM
479 around $13\pm 6\%$ on a yearly average and $26\pm 12\%$ during summer, thereby showing that PBOA is an
480 important source of total OM in PM_{10} for all sites across France. Furthermore, the average PBOA
481 chemical source profile is made out of a very large fraction of OM ($78\pm 9\%$ of the total PBOA mass on
482 average), suggesting it is mainly related to direct biogenic emissions from biological particles. The low
483 crustal fraction indicates that this factor is weakly linked to soil dust resuspension associated with
484 biological material;
- 485 • however, the PBOA source remains chemically poorly characterized as the main polyols represent only
486 a small fraction of its total OM mass ($3.0\pm 1.5\%$ on average);
- 487 • despite comparable high concentrations in the atmosphere, the sources and processes leading to glucose
488 concentrations and seasonal evolutions are still elusive. Indeed, the different PMF performed with glucose
489 in input variable do not lead to statistically stable solution;
- 490 Further investigations of the emission pathways and chemical characterization of the PBOA source associated with
491 polyols are on-going, which may improve our understanding of its dynamic at various geographical scales, for a
492 potential implementation in emission models in the future.

493

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506

507 **Author contributions:** JLJ was the supervisor for the PhD for AS, FC, SW, and for the post-doc of DS. He
508 directed all the personnel who performed the analysis at IGE. He was coordinator or PI for the programs that
509 generated the data for 18 of the 28 sites in this study (OPE-ANDRA, Part'Aera, CAMERA, SRN 2013, 3 Villes
510 PACA, DECOMBIO, QAMECS) and co-PI for programs for 5 other sites. He is the coordinator for the CNRS
511 LEFE-EC2CO CAREMBIOS program that is funding the work of AS. GU was the co-supervisor for the PhD of



512 AS and SW. OF is the coordinator of the CARA program, (co-)funding and supervising the filter sampling and
513 chemical analyses at 12 of the 28 sites. EP, OF, and VR supervised the PhD of DMO who investigated the 5 sites
514 in northern France. Finally, JLB was the coordinator (program Lanslebourg) or partner of several programs whose
515 data were used in this study (OPE-ANDRA, Part'Aera, 3 Villes PACA, DECOMBIO), and OF was the coordinator
516 of the SOURCES program, which includes the work of DS as a post-doctoral fellow under the supervision of JLJ
517 to gather and prepare most of the datasets used in the present studies.

518 All authors from the ANDRA (#5) and AASQA (#6 to 13) are representatives for each network that conducted the
519 sample collection and the general supervision of the sampling sites.

520 FC and DS ran the PMF analysis. AS, SW and JLJ processed the data and wrote up the manuscript. All authors
521 reviewed and commented on the manuscript.

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

523

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