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Arabitol, mannitol and glucose as tracers of primary biogenic organic aerosol: influence of environmental factors on ambient air concentrations and spatial distribution over France

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Abstract. The primary sugar compounds (SC, defined as glucose, arabitol and mannitol) are widely recognized as suitable molecular markers to characterize and apportion primary biogenic organic aerosol emission sources. This work improves our understanding of the spatial behavior and distribution of these chemical species and evidences their major effective environmental drivers. We conducted a large study focusing on the daily (24 h) PM₁₀ SC concentrations for 16 increasing space scale sites (local to nation-wide), over at least one complete year. These sites are distributed in several French geographic areas of different environmental conditions. Our analyses, mainly based on the examination of the short-term evolutions of SC concentrations, clearly show distance-dependent correlations. SC concentration evolutions are highly synchronous at an urban city-scale and remain well correlated throughout the same geographic regions, even if the sites are situated in different cities. However, sampling sites located in two distinct geographic areas are poorly correlated. Such pattern indicates that the processes responsible for the evolution of the atmospheric SC concentrations present a spatial homogeneity over typical areas of at least tens of kilometers. Local phenomena, such as resuspension of topsoil and associated microbiota, do no account for the major emissions processes of SC in urban areas not directly influenced by agricultural activities. The concentrations of SC and cellulose display remarkably synchronous temporal evolution cycles at an urban site in Grenoble, indicating a common source ascribed to vegetation. Additionally, higher concentrations of SC at another site located in a crop field region occur during each harvest periods, pointing out resuspension processes of plant materials (crop detritus, leaf debris) and associated microbiota for agricultural and nearby urbanized areas. Finally, ambient air temperature, relative humidity and vegetation density constitute the main effective drivers of SC atmospheric concentrations.

1. Introduction

- 21 Primary biogenic organic aerosols (PBOA), which notably comprise bacterial and fungal cells or spores; viruses; 22 or microbial fragments such as endotoxins and mycotoxins; and pollens and plant debris, are ubiquitous particles 23 released from the biosphere to the atmosphere (Amato et al., 2017; Després et al., 2012; Elbert et al., 2007; Fang 24 et al., 2018; Fröhlich-Nowoisky et al., 2016; Morris et al., 2011; Wéry et al., 2017). PBOA can contribute 25 significantly to the total coarse aerosol mass (Amato et al., 2017; Bozzetti et al., 2016; Coz et al., 2010; Fröhlich-26 Nowoisky et al., 2016; Jaenicke, 2005; Manninen et al., 2014; Morris et al., 2011; Samaké et al., 2019; Vlachou 27 et al., 2018; Yue et al., 2017). Besides their expected negative human health effects (Fröhlich-Nowoisky et al., 28 2009, 2016; Humbal et al., 2018; Lecours et al., 2017), they substantially influence the carbon and water cycles at 29 the global scale, notably acting as cloud and ice nuclei (Ariya et al., 2009; Elbert et al., 2007; Fröhlich-Nowoisky 30 et al., 2016; Hill et al., 2017; Humbal et al., 2018; Morris et al., 2014; Rajput et al., 2018). While recent studies 31 have revealed highly relevant information on the abundance and size partitioning of PBOA, their emission sources 32 and contribution to total airborne particles are still poorly documented, partly due to the analytical limitations to 33 distinguish PBOA from other types of carbonaceous particulate matter (Bozzetti et al., 2016; China et al., 2018; 34 Di Filippo et al., 2013; Heald and Spracklen, 2009; Jia et al., 2010). Notably, the global emissions of fungal spore 35 emitted into the atmosphere are still poorly constrained and range from 8 Tg.y-1 to 186 Tg.y-1 (Després et al., 2012;
- Recently, source-specific tracer methodologies have been introduced to estimate their contribution to aerosol loadings (Bauer et al., 2008a; Di Filippo et al., 2013; Gosselin et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2010, 2015). Indeed, atmospheric organic aerosols (OA) contain specific chemical species that can be used as reliable biomarkers in tracing the sources and abundance of PBOA (Bauer et al., 2008a; Gosselin et al., 2016; Holden et al., 2011; Jia and Fraser, 2011; Medeiros et al., 2006b). For instance, sugar alcohols (aka polyols)—including arabitol and

Elbert et al., 2007; Jacobson and Streets, 2009; Sesartic and Dallafior, 2011).

- 42 mannitol (two common storage soluble carbohydrates in fungi)—have been recognized as tracers for airborne
- fungi, and their concentrations are widely used to estimate PBOA contributions to OA mass (Amato et al., 2017;
- 44 Bauer et al., 2008a, 2008b; Golly et al., 2018; Medeiros et al., 2006b; Samaké et al., 2019; Verma et al., 2018;
- Weber et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2010; Zhu et al., 2015, 2016). Similarly, glucose has also been used as a specific

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46 tracer for plant materials (such as pollen, leaves, and their fragments) or soil emissions within various studies 47 around the world (Chen et al., 2013; Fu et al., 2013; Liang et al., 2016; Medeiros et al., 2006b; Pietrogrande et al., 48 2014; Rathnayake et al., 2017; Rogge et al., 2007; Simoneit et al., 2004b; Wan and Yu, 2007; Wan et al., 2019). 49 In this context, atmospheric concentrations of specific polyols and/or primary monosaccharides (including 50 glucose) have been previously quantified at sites in several continental, agricultural, coastal or polar regions 51 (Barbaro et al., 2015; Chen et al., 2013; Fu et al., 2012; Golly et al., 2018; Graham et al., 2003; Jia et al., 2010; 52 Liang et al., 2016; Pietrogrande et al., 2014; Rogge et al., 2007; Simoneit et al., 2004a; Verma et al., 2018; Yttri 53 et al., 2007; Zhu et al., 2018). However, large datasets investigating their (multi)annual cycles, seasonal and 54 simultaneous short-term variations at multiple spatial scale resolutions (i.e. from local to continental) are still 55 lacking (Liang et al., 2013; Nirmalkar et al., 2018; Pietrogrande et al., 2014; Yan et al., 2019). Such records are 56 essential to better understand the spatial behavior of primary sugar compound (SC) concentrations (i.e., glucose, 57 arabitol and mannitol) and PBOA emission processes, and to isolate their potential key drivers (e.g., vegetation 58 type and density, topography, weather conditions, etc.), which are still unclear (Bozzetti et al., 2016). This 59 information would be essential for further implementation into chemical transport models (Heald and Spracklen, 60 2009; Tanarhte et al., 2019). 61 It is commonly acknowledged that SC (particularly arabitol and mannitol) originate from primary biogenic derived 62 sources such as bacterial, fungal spores, and plant materials (Di Filippo et al., 2013; Golly et al., 2018; Gosselin 63 et al., 2016; Graham et al., 2003; Holden et al., 2011; Medeiros et al., 2006b; Simoneit et al., 2004b; Wan et al., 2019; Yan et al., 2019; Yttri et al., 2007, 2011a; Zhu et al., 2015). Some studies have characterized the composition 64 65 of SC in topsoil samples (for fractions larger than PM10) from both, natural (i.e., uncultivated) and agricultural 66 regions (Medeiros et al., 2006a; Rogge et al., 2007; Simoneit et al., 2004b; Wan and Yu, 2007). The authors 67 suggested that the particulate arabitol, mannitol and glucose are introduced into the atmosphere mainly through 68 resuspended soils or dust particles and associated biota derived from natural soil erosion, unpaved road dust or 69 agricultural practices. Conversely, Jia and Fraser (2011) reported higher concentrations of SC relative to PBOA in 70 size-segregated aerosol samples collected at a suburban site (Higley, USA) compared to the local size-fractionated 71 soils (equivalent to atmospheric PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀). This suggested that direct emissions from biota (microbiota, 72 vascular plant materials) could also be a significant atmospheric input process for SC at this suburban site. 73 A large database on SC concentrations was obtained over France in the last decade. It already allowed the 74 investigation of the size distribution and seasonal variabilities of SC concentrations in aerosols at 28 French sites, 75 notably showing that SC are ubiquitous primary aerosols, accounting for a significant proportion of PM₁₀ organic 76 matter (OM) mass (Samaké et al., 2019). Results confirmed that their ambient concentrations display a well-77 marked seasonality, with maximum concentrations from late spring to early autumn, followed by an abrupt 78 decrease in late autumn, and a minimum concentration during wintertime in France. This study also showed that 79 the mean PBOA chemical profile is largely dominated by organic compounds, with only a minor contribution of 80 dust particle fraction. The latter result indicated that ambient polyols could most likely be associated with direct 81 biological particle emissions (e.g. active spore discharge, microbiota released from phylloplane or phyllosphere, 82 etc.) rather than with the microorganism-containing soil resuspension. These observations call for more 83 investigations of the predominant SC (and PBOA) emission sources. 84 Cellulose, a linear polymer composed of D-glucopyranose units linked by β -1,4 bonds, is the most frequent 85 polysaccharide occurring in terrestrial environments (Ramoni and Seiboth, 2016). Plant materials contain cellulose

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which has been reported as a suitable proxy to evaluate the vegetative debris contribution to OM mass (Bozzetti et al., 2016; Glasius et al., 2018; Puxbaum and Tenze-Kunit, 2003; Sánchez-Ochoa et al., 2007; Yttri et al., 2011b). The ambient PM₁₀ cellulose has been shown to be abundant in the European semi-rural or background environments (accounting for 2 to 10 % of OM mass) (Glasius et al., 2018; Sánchez-Ochoa et al., 2007) and Nordic rural environments in Norway (contributing to 12 to 18 % of total carbon mass) (Yttri et al., 2011b). Thus, simultaneous concentration measurements of cellulose and SC can provide essential information into their emission source dynamics.

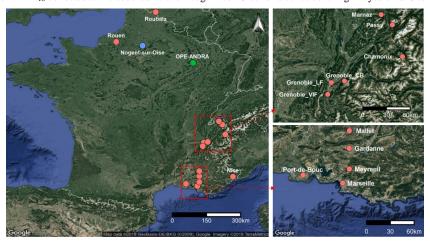
As the continuation of our previous work (Samaké et al., 2019), the present paper aims to delineate the processes that drive the atmospheric concentrations of SC and then PBOA. This is achieved through (i) the analysis of simultaneous annual short-term time series of particulate SC concentrations over pairs of sites across multiple space ranges, including local, regional and nationwide sites, and (ii) the investigation of links between concentrations and series key parameters such as meteorological and phenological ones. Simultaneous annual

short-term concentration measurements of SC and cellulose was performed to better understand of their sources

2. Material and methods

2.1 Sampling sites

Daily PM_{10} concentrations reported in the present work were obtained from different research and monitoring programs conducted over the last six years in France. Within the framework of the present study, we carefully selected sites sharing at least one complete year of concurrent monitoring with another one, to be representative of the annual variation cycles. The final dataset includes data from 16 sites, which are distributed in different regions of France (Figure 1) and cover several main types of environmental conditions in terms of site topography, local vegetation, and climate. The characteristics and data available at each sampling site are listed in Table S1 of the supplementary material (SM), together with the information on the annual average concentrations of aerosol chemical composition (Table S2). Detailed information on the sampling conditions can be found in Samaké et al. (2019), such as the campaign periods, number of collected PM samples, sampling flow rates, sample storage and handling, etc. Note that, the previous database (Samaké et al., 2019) has been updated here with arabitol and mannitol in PM_{10} collected at the suburban site of Nogent-sur-Oise for a series covering the years 2013 to 2017.



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Figure 1: Geographical location of the selected sampling sites. The red and blue dots indicate respectively urban and suburban sites while the green one corresponds to a rural site, surrounded by field crop areas.

 $Daily~(24~h)~PM_{10}~samples~were~collected~onto~prebaked~quartz~fiber~filter~(Tissuquartz~PALL~QAT-UP~2500~150~prebaked~quartz~fiber~filter~(Tissuquartz~PALL~QAT-UP~2500~150~prebaked~quartz~fiber~filter~(Tissuquartz~PALL~QAT-UP~2500~150~prebaked~quartz~fiber~filter~(Tissuquartz~PALL~QAT-UP~2500~150~prebaked~quartz~fiber~filter~(Tissuquartz~PALL~QAT-UP~2500~150~prebaked~quartz~fiber~filter~(Tissuquartz~PALL~QAT-UP~2500~150~prebaked~quartz~fiber~filter~(Tissuquartz~PALL~QAT-UP~2500~150~prebaked~quartz~fiber~filter~(Tissuquartz~PALL~QAT-UP~2500~150~prebaked~quartz~fiber~filter~(Tissuquartz~PALL~QAT-UP~2500~150~prebaked~quartz~fiber~filter~(Tissuquartz~PALL~QAT-UP~2500~150~prebaked~quartz~fiber~filter~quartz~fiber~filter~quartz~fiber~filter~quartz~fiber~filter~quartz~fiber~filter~quartz~fiber~filter~quartz~filter~quar$

2.2 Chemical analyses

118 mm diameter) every third or sixth day, but not concurrently at all sites. They were then analyzed for various 119 chemical species using subsampled fractions of the collection filters and a large array of analytical methods. Details 120 of all the chemical analysis procedures are reported elsewhere (Golly et al., 2018; Samaké et al., 2019; Waked et 121 al., 2014; Weber et al., 2018). Briefly, primary sugar compounds were extracted from filter aliquots (punches 122 typically about 10 cm²) into ultrapure water. The extracts are then filtered using a 0.22 µm Acrodisc filter. 123 Depending on the site, analyses were conducted either by the IGE (Institut des Géosciences de l'Environnement) 124 or by the LSCE (Laboratoire des Sciences du Climat et de l'Environnement) (Samaké et al., 2019). At the IGE, 125 extraction was performed during 20 min in a vortex shaker and analyses were achieved using high-performance liquid chromatography with pulsed amperometric detection (HPLC-PAD). A first set of equipment was used until 126 127 March 2016, consisting of a Dionex DX500 equipped with three columns Metrosep (Carb 1-Guard + A Supp 15-128 150 + Carb 1-150), the analytical program was isocratic with 70 mM sodium hydroxide (NaOH) as eluent for 11 129 min, followed by a gradient cleaning step with a 120 mM NaOH as eluent for 9 min. This procedure allows the 130 analysis of arabitol, mannitol and glucose (Waked et al., 2014). A second set of equipment was used after March 131 2016, with a Thermo-Fisher ICS 5000+ HPLC equipped with 4 mm diameter Metrosep Carb 2 × 150 mm column 132 and 50 mm pre-column. The analytical run was isocratic with 15 % of an eluent of sodium hydroxide (200 mM) and sodium acetate (4 mM) and 85 % water, at 1 mL min⁻¹. At the LSCE, extraction was performed for 45 min by 133 134 sonication and analyses were achieved using ion chromatography instrument (IC, DX600, Dionex) with Pulsed 135 Amperometric Detection (ICS3000, Thermo-Fisher). In addition, a CarboPAC MA1 column has been used (4 × 136 250 mm, Dionex) along with an isocratic analytical run with 480 mM sodium hydroxide eluent. This analytical 137 technique allows to quantify arabitol, mannitol and glucose (Srivastava et al., 2018). 138 For cellulose quantification, we used an optimized protocol based on that described by (Kunit and Puxbaum, 1996; 139 Puxbaum and Tenze-Kunit, 2003), in which the cellulose contained in the lignocellulosic material is enzymatically 140 hydrolyzed into glucose units before analysis. Since the alkaline peroxide pretreatment step used to remove lignin 141 in the original protocol results in a loss of sample material, it has been avoided in this study. Therefore, only the 142 "free cellulose" is reported in our samples. Note that Sánchez-Ochoa et al., (2007) consider that this free cellulose 143 could represent only about 70 % of the total cellulose in air samples and that the total cellulose could represent 144 only about 50 % of the "plant debris" content of atmospheric PM. Very few other results are available on this topic 145 (Bozzetti et al., 2016; Glasius et al., 2018; Vlachou et al., 2018; Yttri et al., 2011b). The protocol has been improved 146 to increase sensitivity and accuracy, by reducing the contribution of glucose in the blanks and by using an HPLC-147 PAD as the analytical method for the determination of glucose concentrations. Trichoderma reesei cellulase (>700 148 u g-1, Sigma Aldrich) and Aspergilus Niger glucosidase (>750 u g-1, Sigma Aldrich) have been used as 149 saccharification enzymes. The protocol is detailed in Section 2 of the SM. 150 Field blank filters (about 10 % of samples) were handled as real samples for quality assurance. The present data 151 have been corrected from field blanks. The reproducibility of the analysis of primary sugar compounds (polyols, 152 glucose) and cellulose, estimated from the analysis of sample extracts from 10 punches of the same filters were in

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- the range of 10-15 %. About 2 800 samples are considered in this work for the polyols and glucose series, while
- 154 290 samples (from the sites of Grenoble_LF and OPE-ANDRA) are considered for the cellulose series.

155 2.3 Meteorological data and LAI measurements

- 156 Ambient weather data were not available at all monitoring sites (see Table S1). In this study, data including daily
- 157 relative humidity (%), night-time temperature (°C), average and maximum temperatures (°C), wind speed (m s⁻¹),
- 158 solar radiation (W m⁻²), and rainfall level (mm) for the sites of Marnaz and OPE-ANDRA (Figure 1), representing
- 159 different climatic regions and environmental conditions, were obtained from the French meteorological data
- 160 sharing service system (Météo-France) and ANDRA (French national radioprotective agency, in charge of the
- 161 OPE-ANDRA site), respectively.
- 162 The leaf area index (LAI), which is defined as the projected area of leaves over a unit of land, is an important
- measure of the local vegetation density variation (Heald and Spracklen, 2009; Yan et al., 2016a, 2016b). For this
- 164 study, we used the MODIS Collection 6 LAI product because it is considered to have the highest quality among
- all the MODIS LAI products (Yan et al., 2016a, 2016b). The MCD15A3H product uses both Terra and Aqua
- reflectance observations as inputs to estimate daily LAI at 500 m spatial resolution, and a 4-day composite is
- 167 calculated to reduce the noise from abiotic factors. Using a 2 × 2 km grid box around the monitoring site, the local
- 168 vegetation density variation was retrieved from LP DAAC (https://lpdaac.usgs.gov/, last accessed: 15 March 2019)
- for the sites of Marnaz, OPE-ANDRA, and Grenoble_LF.

170 2.4 Data analyses

- 171 All the statistical analyses were carried out using the open-source R software (R studio interface, version 3.4.1).
- 172 Several statistical analyses were performed on the concentrations to identify the spatial patterns of emission
- sources and the potential parameters of influence as explained below.
- 174 The normalized cross-correlation (NCC) test was chosen to examine the potential similarities among the
- 175 monitoring sites for particulate SC concentrations, in terms of short-term temporal trends (e.g. synchronized
- 176 periods of increase or decrease, simultaneous fluctuations during specific episodes). The main advantage of NCC
- 177 over the traditional correlation tests is that it is less sensitive to linear changes in the amplitudes of the two-time
- 178 series compared. Therefore, to reduce the possibility of spurious "anti-correlation" due to highly variable
- 179 concentration ranges, data were amplitude-normalized prior to correlation analysis. A thorough discussion on the
- 180 normalized cross-correlation method can be found elsewhere (Kaso, 2018; Yoo and Han, 2009). To achieve pair-
- 181 wise correlation analysis between the sampling sites collected during the same periods, the original daily
- measurements were processed as follows: starting on identical days, arrangement on the original daily data into
- 183 consecutive 3-day intervals (or 6-day intervals in the case of OPE-ANDRA) and calculation of the average
- 184 concentration values for the middle-day were performed. The resultant data were used for correlation analysis
- 185 (Table S3).
- 186 Multiple linear regression (MLR) was used to assess the strength of the relationships between atmospheric
- 187 concentrations of particulate SC and local environmental factors including the daily mean relative humidity, night-
- time temperature, average and maximum temperature, wind speed, solar radiation, rain levels and LAI. Because
- the LAI is a 4-day composite, daily values of the other variables were re-scaled into consecutive 4-day averaged
- $190 \qquad \text{values. The linear regression (lm) package in R was employed for multiple regression analyses. The concentration} \\$
- 191 data were log-transformed to obtain regression residual distributions as close as possible to the normal Gaussian

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one (Figure S1). Stepwise forward selection was used to select the predictors that explain well the temporal

variation of SC concentrations at the site of Marnaz.

It should be noted that due to the limited availability of external parameters, the environmental factors driving SC atmospheric levels have been extensively investigated for only two monitoring sites with contrasted characteristics: the urban background site of Marnaz located in an Alpine valley, and the rural OPE-ANDRA site

197 surrounded by field crop areas spreading over several tens of km.

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3. Results and discussion

3.1 Example of spatial coherence of the concentrations at different scales

Our previous work (Samaké et al., 2019) showed that particulate polyols and glucose are ubiquitous primary compounds with non-random spatial and seasonal variation patterns over France. Here, an inter-site comparison of their short-term concentration evolutions has been carried out at different space scales (from local to national) for the pairs that can be investigated in our data base. Figure 2 presents some of these comparisons for 3 spatial

205 scales (15, 120, and 205 km).

The daily average concentrations of polyols (defined as sum of arabitol and mannitol) and glucose display highly synchronous evolutional trends (i.e., homogeneity in the concentrations, the timing of concentration peaks, simultaneity of the daily specific episodes of increase/decrease of concentrations) over 3 neighboring monitoring sites located 15 km apart in the Grenoble area (Figures 2A and B). Interestingly, remarkable synchronous patterns both for short term (near-daily) and longer term (seasonal) still occur for sites located 120 km apart, as exemplified for 2 sites in Alpine environments (Grenoble and Marnaz) (Figures 2C and D). However, as shown in Figures 2E and F, the evolutions of concentrations become quite dissimilar and asynchronous in terms of seasonal and daily fluctuations for more distant sites (Grenoble and Nice, 205 km apart), that are located in different climatic regions (Alpine for Grenoble, Mediterranean for Nice). This is contrasting with results from the rural background site of OPE-ANDRA and the suburban site of Nogent-sur-Oise, both located in a large field crop region of extensive agriculture, and about 230 km apart from each other (Figure 2G). Indeed, they present very similar variations of daily concentrations for multi-year series, despite their distance apart, with concentration peaks generally more

218 pronounced at the rural site of OPE-ANDRA.

219 The following sections are dedicated to the investigation of the processes that can lead to these similarities and

differences according to these spatial scales.

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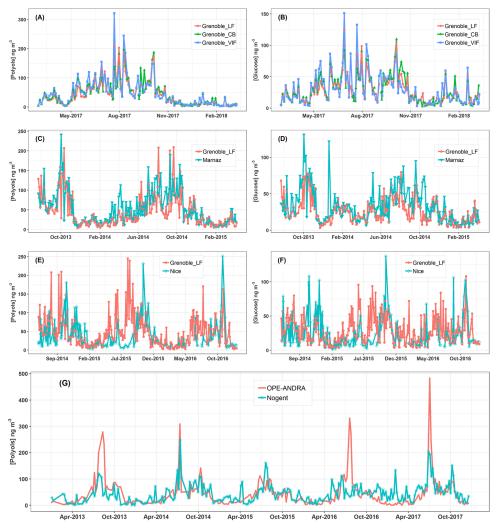


Figure 2: Concentrations (in ng m^3) of (left) ambient particulate polyols (defined as the sum of arabitol and mannitol) and glucose (right) over different monitoring sites in France. Since PM_{10} were collected every 3-days at Nogent-sur-Oise and 6-days at OPE-ANDRA, the original data sets are averaged over consecutive 6-day intervals (bottom graph).

3.2 Inter-site correlations and spatial scale variability

Figures 3A and 3B provide an overview of the cross-correlation coefficients for the daily evolution of concentrations (for glucose and polyols (SC)) between pairs of sites located at multiple increasing space scales across France (Table S3). Time series of concentrations for both SC show a clear distance-dependent correlation. The strength of the correlations is highly significant for distances up to 150-190 km (R > 0.72, p < 0.01) and gradually decreases with increasing inter-site distances. One exception is the pair OPE-ANDRA and Nogent-sur-Oise (high correlation for a distance above 230 km), both sites being located in highly-impacted agricultural areas. This overall pattern suggests that the processes responsible for the atmospheric concentrations of SC present a spatial homogeneity over typical areas of at least several tens of km

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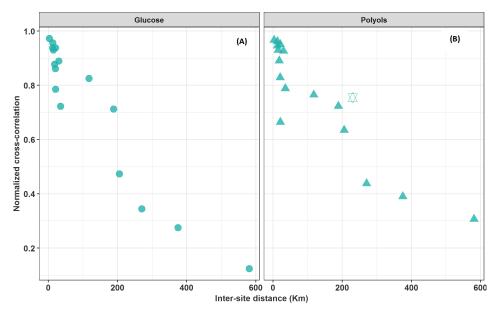


Figure 3: Normalized cross-correlation values for the daily evolution of particulate glucose (A) and polyols (B) concentrations over pairs of sites located at multiple increasing space scales across France. The hexagram corresponds to the correlation between the sites of OPE-ANDRA and Nogent-sur-Oise, both sites being surrounded by crop field areas.

Unlike SC, ambient air concentrations of sulfate, associated with long-range aerosol transport (Abdalmogith and Harrison, 2005; Amato et al., 2016; Coulibaly et al., 2015; Pindado and Perez, 2011; Waked et al., 2014) display stronger positive correlations (R > 0.72-0.98, p < 0.01) at all pairs of sites considered in the present work (Figure S2). Moreover, ambient concentrations of calcium, associated with local fugitive dust sources or/and long-range aerosol transport (Ram et al., 2010; Wan et al., 2019) display random correlation patterns (Figure S2). These results are in agreement with Zhu et al. (2018) who also reported non-significant correlations between SC and sulfate in $PM_{2.5}$ aerosols measured at Shanghai, China. The distinct spatial behaviors between sulfate (or Ca^{2+}) and SC in the present work further suggest a dominant regional influence for atmospheric SC, as opposed to processes associated with either local sources for calcium or long-range transport for sulfate.

Mannitol and arabitol are well-known materials of fungal spores, serving as osmo-regulatory solutes (Medeiros et al., 2006b; Simoneit et al., 2004b; Verma et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2010, 2015). Based on parallel measurements of spore counts and PM_{10} polyol concentrations at three sites within the area of Vienna (Austria), Bauer et al. (2008a) found an average arabitol and mannitol content per fungal spores of respectively 1.2 pg spore⁻¹ (range 0.8-1.8 pg spore⁻¹) and 1.7 pg spore⁻¹ (range 1.2-2.4 pg spore⁻¹). Mannitol and arabitol have also been often identified in the green algae and lower plants (Buiarelli et al., 2013; Di Filippo et al., 2013; Vélèz et al., 2007; Xu et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2010). Being important chemical species for the metabolism of these microorganisms (Shcherbakova, 2007), it may well be that the concentration ratio of mannitol-to-arabitol could deliver some information on the spatial or temporal evolution of their emission processes (Gosselin et al., 2016). The annual average mannitol-to-arabitol ratio at all sites is about 1.15 \pm 0.59, with ratios for the warm period (Jun-Sept) being 1 to 2 times higher than those in the cold period (Dec-May) (Table S1). These ratios are within the range of those previously reported for PM_{10} aerosols collected at various urban and rural background sites in Europe (Bauer et

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261 al., 2008a; Yttri et al., 2011b). Similarly, Burshtein et al., (2011) also reported comparable ratios for PM₁₀ aerosols 262 collected during autumn and winter from a Mediterranean region in Israel. Similarly, the annual average glucose-to-polyols ratio at all sites is about 0.79 ± 0.77 . No literature data are 263 264 currently available for comparison. Further work is needed to relate these variations with microorganism 265 communities and plant growing stages. 266 However, as evidenced in Figure 4, both mannitol-to-arabitol and glucose-to-polyols ratios show a clear distance-267 dependent correlation, with higher correlations (R = 0.64 to 0.98, p < 0.01) observed for pairs of sites within 150-268 190 km distance. This spatial consistency highlights once again that the dominant emission processes should be 269 effective regionally, rather than being specific local input processes, and that atmospheric dynamics of the 270 concentration levels (i.e., driven by the interplay of emission and removal processes) are determined by quite 271 similar environmental factors (e.g. meteorological conditions, vegetation, land use, etc.) at such a regional scale. 272 This implies that local events and phenomena, such as the mechanical resuspension of topsoil and associated biota 273 (like bacteria, fungi, plant materials, etc.) might not be their major atmospheric input processes, particularly in 274 urban background areas typically characterized by less bare soil, and with a variable nature of the unpaved topsoil 275 at the regional scale (Karimi et al., 2018). Furthermore, Karimi et al. (2018) also recently reported heterogeneous 276 topsoil microbial structure within patches of 43 to 260 km across different regions of France. It follows that the 277 hypotheses of emissions related to mechanical resuspension of topsoil particles and associated biota, or microbiota 278 emitted actively from surface soil into the air generally assumed in most pioneering reports (Medeiros et al., 2006b; 279 Rogge et al., 2007; Simoneit et al., 2004b; Wan and Yu, 2007) are most probably not valid. 280 Alternatively, the vegetation leaves have also been suggested as sources of atmospheric SC (Golly et al., 2018; Jia 281 and Fraser, 2011; Pashynska et al., 2002; Sullivan et al., 2011; Verma et al., 2018; Wan et al., 2019). In fact, 282 vascular plant leaf surfaces is an important habitat for endophytic and epiphytic microbial communities (Kembel 283 and Mueller, 2014; Lindow and Brandl, 2003; Whipps et al., 2008). Our results are more in agreement with a 284 dominant atmosphere entrance process closely linked to vegetation, which is more homogeneous than topsoil at 285 the climatic regional scale. Consistent with this, Sullivan et al. (2011) also observed evident distinct regional 286 patterns for daily PM_{2.5} polyols and glucose concentrations at ten urban and rural sites located in the upper Midwest 287 (USA). The authors attributed such a spatial pattern to the differences in vegetation types and microbial diversity 288 over distinct geographical regions. Accordingly, the vegetation structure and composition have been previously

shown to play essential roles on airborne microbial variabilities in nearby areas (Bowers et al., 2011;

Lymperopoulou et al., 2016; Mhuireach et al., 2016).

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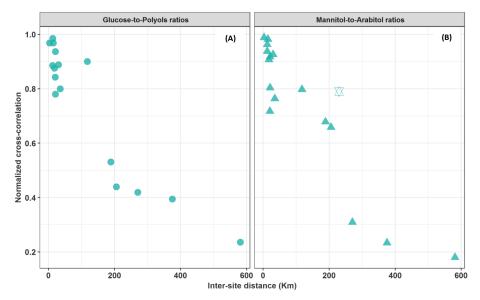


Figure 4: Normalized cross-correlation values for daily evolution of particulate glucose-to-polyols (A) and mannitol-toarabitol (B) ratios over pairs of sites located at multiple increasing space scales across France. The hexagram corresponds to the correlation between the sites of OPE-ANDRA and Nogent-sur-Oise, both sites being surrounded by crop field areas.

3.3 Influence of the vegetation on polyols and glucose concentrations

The relationships between SC PM_{10} concentrations and vegetation (plant materials) can be examined at the site of Grenoble Les Frênes (Grenoble_LF) by comparing the annual evolutions of SC and the free atmospheric cellulose concentrations, together with LAI ones.

The daily ambient concentration levels of SC and cellulose range respectively from 5.0 to 301.9 ng m⁻³ (with an average of 41.2 ± 39.9 ng m⁻³) and 0.7 to 207.2 ng m⁻³ (with an average of 52.9 ± 44.2 ng m⁻³), which corresponds to respectively to 0.1 to 6.6% and 0.01 to 5.3% of total organic matter (OM) mass in PM₁₀. These values are comparable to those previously reported for various sites in Europe (Daellenbach et al., 2017; Sánchez-Ochoa et al., 2007; Vlachou et al., 2018; Yttri et al., 2011b). Thus, a major part of PBOA could possibly be ascribed cellulose and SC derived sources.

As evidenced in Figure 5A, ambient free cellulose concentrations vary seasonally, with maximum seasonal average values observed in summer ($81.4 \pm 47.6 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$) and autumn ($64.2 \pm 49.2 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$), followed by spring ($52.6 \pm 37.8 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$), and lower levels in winter ($23.0 \pm 19.9 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$). This is the same global pattern for polyols, that are also more abundant in summer ($82.4 \pm 47.4 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$) and autumn ($48.7 \pm 41.6 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$), followed by spring ($24.9 \pm 16.3 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$), and winter ($10.2 \pm 9.6 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$) in the Grenoble area. On a daily scale, the episodic increases or decreases of polyols in PM₁₀ are very often well synchronized with that of cellulose (figure 5A). Moreover, the maximum atmospheric concentrations of polyols also mainly occur when the vegetation density (LAI) is at its highest in late summer (Figure 5B). Similar global behaviors are also observed for atmospheric particulate glucose and LAI (Figs. 5A and B). To further assess the relationships between SC PM₁₀ concentrations and vegetation at a rural area, a two-year measurement of cellulose concentrations at the highly-impacted agricultural rural site of OPE-ANDRA has been conducted. The average concentration of cellulose at OPE-ANDRA (197.9 $\pm 217.8 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$)

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317 3) is 3.5 times higher than that measured in the urban area of Grenoble. In terms of temporal dynamics, the 318 evolution cycles (i.e., peaks and decreases) of both polyols and glucose are also very often well synchronized with 319 that of cellulose at OPE-ANDRA (Fig. 5C). 320 Altogether, these findings highlight that particulate SC PM₁₀ and cellulose in both urban background and rural 321 agricultural areas most probably share a common source related to the vegetation. This is an additional evidence 322 in support of the hypothesis suggested in previous studies (Bozzetti et al., 2016; Burshtein et al., 2011; Daellenbach 323 et al., 2017; Pashynska et al., 2002; Verma et al., 2018; Vlachou et al., 2018; Yttri et al., 2007). It is also in line 324 with studies indicating that the PBOA source profile identified using offline aerosol mass spectrometry (offline-325 AMS) correlates very well with coarse cellulose concentrations (Bozzetti et al., 2016; Vlachou et al., 2018). 326 Noticeable contribution of cellulose to PBOA mass (26 %) at the rural background site of Payerne (Switzerland), 327 during summer 2012 and winter 2013, was reported by (Bozzetti et al., 2016). 328 As also evidenced in Figure 5, the cellulose concentration peaks are not systematically correlated to those of 329 polyols. The development stage of the plants (developing or mature leaves, flowering plants) in addition to the 330 metabolic activities of endophytic and epiphytic biota (growth, sporulation), all closely related to meteorological 331 conditions (Bodenhausen et al., 2014; Bringel and Couée, 2015; Lindow and Brandl, 2003; Moricca and Ragazzi, 332 2011; Reddy et al., 2017), could explain such observations. The influence of local meteorological conditions for 333 an urban Alp valley site is discussed in Section 3.4. Consistent with our observations, previous studies conducted 334 at various urban background sites in Europe have suggested that particulate polyols are associated to mature plant 335 leaves and microorganisms (bacterial and fungal spores) while glucose, which is a monomer of cellulose, would 336 most likely be linked to the developing leaves (Bozzetti et al., 2016; Burshtein et al., 2011; Pashynska et al., 2002; 337 Yttri et al., 2007).

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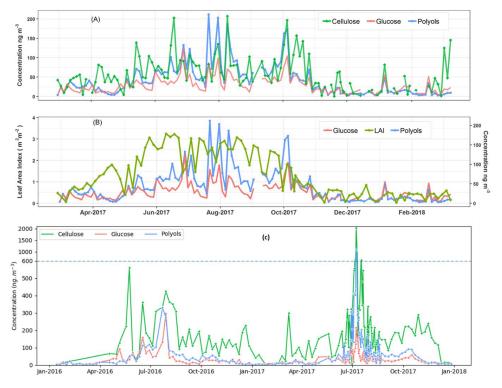


Figure 5: Temporal covariation cycles of the daily particulate polyols and glucose concentrations along with vegetation indicators at the urban background site of Grenoble (A and B) and the rural agricultural background site of OPE-ANDRA (C), respectively. Note that PM_{10} aerosols are intensively collected at OPE-ANDRA every day (24-h) from 12 June 2017 to 22 August 2017, and that the concentration scale is changing above 600 ng m⁻³ in Figure C, due to extreme concentration peak in July 2017.

3.4 Influence of meteorological parameters on ambient concentrations of polyols and glucose

We used here a multiple linear regression analysis (MLR) approach to gain further insight about the environmental factors influencing the annual and short time variation cycles of atmospheric SC concentrations. This tentative MLR analysis is focused on the urban background site of Marnaz only since meteorological and other data are readily available for this site and are not influenced too much by some large city effects. Several variables were tested, that are already mentioned in the literature as drivers of SC concentrations. It includes the ambient relative humidity, rainfall level, wind speed, solar radiation, night-time temperature, average (or maximum) temperature, and LAI. Night-time temperature was selected since the time series in Marnaz and Grenoble indicate that the major drop of concentrations in late fall (Figure 2C) is related to the first night of the season with night-time temperature below 5° C. The use of the night-temperature is also consistent with the bi-modal distribution of polyols during night and day time found in previous studies (Claeys et al., 2004; Graham et al., 2003).

Overall, the environmental factors including the mean night-time temperature, relative humidity, wind speed and the leaf area index explain up to 82 % (adjusted $R^2 = 0.82$, see Table 1) of the annual temporal variation cycles of SC concentrations. The mean night-time temperature and LAI contribute respectively to 54 % and 37 % of the observed annual variabilities of SC concentrations. The atmospheric humidity is also a driver for these chemical species (3 % of the explained variation). These results are consistent with previous studies showing that

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concentrations of mannitol (in both PM_{10} and $PM_{2.5}$ size fractions) linearly correlate best with the LAI, atmospheric water vapor and temperature (Heald and Spracklen, 2009; Hummel et al., 2015). All of these drivers have been previously shown to induce the initial release and influence the long-term airborne microbial (i.e. bacteria, fungi) concentrations (China et al., 2016; Elbert et al., 2007; Grinn-Gofroń et al., 2019; Jones and Harrison, 2004; Rathnayake et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2015).

Besides, the wind speed (range of 0.2 to 5.6 m s⁻¹) seems an additional effective driver affecting the contribution of the local vegetation to SC concentrations in the atmosphere. Albeit enough air movement is required to passively release microorganisms along with plant debris into the atmosphere, strong air motions induce higher dispersion. These observations are in good agreement with those previously reported (Jones and Harrison, 2004; Liang et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2010, 2015; Zhu et al., 2018). For instance Liang et al. (2013) have found a negative correlation between wind speed and polyols concentrations, and the highest atmospheric fungal spores concentrations were observed for a wind speed range of 0.6 to 1.0 m s⁻¹.

Table 1: Multiple linear regression for ambient polyols and glucose concentrations and their effective environmental factors at the Marnaz site. Contributions of predictor are normalized to sum 1. "Relaimpo package under R" was used to compute bootstrap confidence intervals for importance of effective predictors (n=1000) (Grömping, 2006).

	Dependent variable	Variability explained by effective predictors
	log(Polyols + Glucose)	
Night-time temperature (°C)	0.112*** (0.090, 0.133)	0.538 (0.453, 0.604)
Relative Humidity (%)	0.017*** (0.005, 0.030)	0.030 (0.018, 0.067)
Leaf Area Index	0.386** (0.034, 0.737)	0.372 (0.286, 0.444)
Wind speed (m s ⁻¹)	0.226 (-0.203, 0.655)	0.021 (0.015, 0.058)
Leaf Area Index × Wind Speed ^a	-0.596*** (-1.001, -0.191)	0.039 (0.014, 0.085)
Constant	2.023*** (0.787, 3.260)	
Observations	87	
R ²	0.837	
Adjusted R ²	0.824	
Residual Std. Error	0.297 (df = 81)	
F Statistic	66.677*** (df = 5; 81)	
Note	**p < 0.01; ***p < 0.001	^a stands for interaction between predictors

One of the limitations of this study is that 4-day averaged observations do not allow to evaluate the driver contributions that might explain some short term events for which the influence of meteorological parameters such as rainfall or solar radiation could also be significant (Grinn-Gofroń et al., 2019; Heald and Spracklen, 2009; Jones and Harrison, 2004). However, such simple parameterizations could be a first step in considering SC concentrations in CTM models, and further work is required in this direction in order to generate a robust parametrization of the emissions.

3.5 Specific case of a highly-impacted agricultural area

This section focuses on evidencing the environmental drivers of PM_{10} SC concentrations specific to agricultural areas. To achieve this objective, the site of OPE-ANDRA has been selected because it is extensively impacted by agricultural activities, without being too prone to influences by other sources. OPE-ANDRA is a specific rural background observatory located at about 230 km east of Paris at an altitude of 293 m. It is characterized by a low population density (< 22 inhabitants km⁻² within an area of 900 km²), with no surrounding major transport road or industrial activities. The air monitoring site itself lies in a "reference sector" of 240 km², in the middle of a field crop area (tens of kilometers in all directions). The daily agricultural practices within this reference sector are

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recorded and made available by ANDRA. The parcels within the agricultural area are submitted to a 3-year croprotation system. The major crops are wheat, barley, rape, pea and sunflower. Additionally, OPE-ANDRA is also characterized by a homogeneous type of soil, with a predominance of superficial clay-limestone.

Figure 6 shows the daily evolution of polyols concentrations in the PM₁₀ fraction at OPE-ANDRA from 2012 to 2018, together with the agricultural activities recorded daily and averaged over 12 days.

Although the concentration of polyols fluctuates from a year to another, they display clear annual variation cycles, with higher values in the warm periods (Jun. to Nov.) and lower concentration values in the cold periods (Oct. to May). Interestingly, the annual concentrations of polyols in 2015 (4.2-111.7 ng m $^{-3}$; annual average: 37.0 ± 29.1 ng m $^{-3}$) are significantly lower than those observed for the other years (0.6-1084.6 ng m $^{-3}$; annual average: 62.9 ± 96.8 ng m $^{-3}$). Similar inter-annual evolution trends, but with variable intensities, are also observed for glucose concentrations (Figure 6). Year 2015 has been found to be particularly hot and dry at OPE-ANDRA (Figure 7) whereas the local averaged wind conditions are quite stable over the years within the period of study, suggesting that the wind conditions are not the main driver of the observed inter-annual variability. These results highlight that ambient air temperature and humidity are key meteorological drivers of the annual variation cycles of polyols and glucose concentrations. Hot and dry ambient air conditions may decrease the metabolic activity of the microorganisms (e.g. microbial growth and sporulation) (Fang et al., 2018; Liang et al., 2013; Meisner et al., 2018)

Finally, maximum ambient concentration levels for both SC and cellulose are observed in excellent temporal agreement with the harvest periods (late summer) at the ANDRA-OPE site (Figure 6). Harvesting activities have been previously reported as the major sources for particulate polyols and glucose to the atmosphere in agricultural and nearby urbanized areas (Golly et al., 2018; Rogge et al., 2007; Simoneit et al., 2004b). Hence, the resuspension of plant materials (crop detritus, leaves debris) and associated microbiota (e.g., bacteria, fungi) originating from cultivated lands are most-likely major input processes of PM₁₀ polyols and glucose at field crop sites.

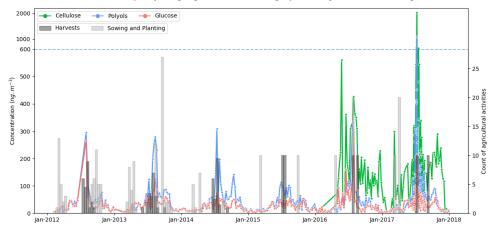


Figure 6: Daily evolution cycles of polyols and glucose concentrations in aerosols collected from the OPE-ANDRA monitoring site, from 2012 to 2018. Cellulose concentrations have been measured from January 2016 to January 2018. Colored bars correspond to the sum of the various agricultural practices performed (data for 69 parcels are averaged over 12 days for better clarity). Records of agricultural activities after October 2014 were available for only two parcels within the immediate vicinity of the PM_{10} sampler. Records are multiplied by 10 for this period.

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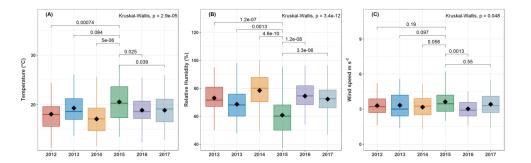


Figure 7: Boxplots of (A) maximum ambient temperature, (B) relative humidity and (C) wind speed at OPE-ANDRA from 2012 to 2017. Analyses are performed for warmer periods (June to November). Only statistically different meteorological factors are presented. The black marker inside each boxplot indicates the average value, while the top, middle and bottom of the box represent the 75^{th} , median and 25^{th} percentiles, respectively. The whiskers at the top and bottom of the box extend from the 95^{th} to the 5^{th} percentiles. Statistical differences between average values were assessed with the Kruskall-Wallis method (p < 0.05).

4. Conclusions

The short-term temporal (daily) and spatial (local to nation-wide) evolutions of particulate polyols and glucose concentrations are rarely discussed in the current literature. The present work aimed at investigating the spatial behavior of these chemicals and evidencing their major effective environmental drivers. The major results mainly showed that:

- The short-term evolution of ambient polyols and glucose concentrations is highly synchronous across an urban city-scale and remains very well correlated throughout the same geographic areas of France, even if the monitoring sites are situated in different cities at about 150-190 km. However, sampling sites located in two distinct geographic areas are poorly correlated. This indicates that emission sources of these chemicals are uniformly distributed, and their accumulation and removal processes are driven by quite similar environmental parameters at the regional scale. Therefore, local phenomena such as atmospheric resuspension of topsoil particles and associated microbiota, microbial direct emissions (e.g. sporulation), cannot be the main emission processes of particulate polyols and glucose in urban areas not directly influenced by agricultural activities.
- The atmospheric concentrations of polyols (or glucose) and cellulose display remarkably synchronous temporal evolution cycles at the background urban site of Grenoble, indicating a common source related to plant debris.
- Higher ambient concentrations of polyols and glucose at the rural site of OPE-ANDRA occur during each
 harvest period, pointing out resuspension processes of plant materials (crop detritus, leaves debris) and
 associated microbiota for agricultural and nearby urbanized areas. This is associated with higher PM₁₀
 cellulose concentration levels, as high as 0.4 to 2.0 μg.m⁻³ on a daily basis (accounting up to 7.5 to 32.4 %
 of the OM mass).
- Multiple linear regression analysis of the yearly series from the site of Marnaz gave insightful information
 on which parameter controls the ambient concentrations of polyols and glucose. Ambient air night-time
 temperature, relative humidity and vegetation density are the most important drivers, whilst wind speed
 conditions tend to affect the contribution of local vegetation.

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- 452 Altogether, these results improve our understanding of the spatial behavior tracers of PM₁₀ PBOA emission sources
- 453 in France, and in general, which is imperative for further implementation of this important mass fraction of OM
- 454 into chemical transport models. Further investigations of airborne microbial fingerprint (bacteria and fungi) are
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- 478
- participated to the visualization of the results. SC is supervising the OPE station and collected the agricultural
- 479 activities records. All authors from AASQA (author affiliation nos. 7 to 14) are representatives for each network
- 480 that conducted the sample collection and the general supervision of the sampling sites. All authors reviewed and
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- 482 **Competing interests:** The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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