



- 1 Six-year source apportionment of submicron organic aerosols from near-
- 2 continuous measurements at SIRTA (Paris area, France)
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Abstract

change. However, highly-time resolved year-round characterizations of their composition and sources in ambient air are still very limited due to challenging continuous observations. Here, we present an analysis of long-term variability of submicron OA using the combination of

Organic aerosol (OA) particles are recognized as key factors influencing air quality and climate

- 22 Aerosol Chemical Speciation Monitor (ACSM) and multi-wavelength aethalometer from
- 23 November 2011 to March 2018 at a background site of the Paris region (France). Source
- 24 apportionment of OA was achieved via partially constrained positive matrix factorization (PMF)
- 25 using the multilinear engine (ME-2). Two primary OA (POA) and two oxygenated OA (OOA)
- 26 factors were identified and quantified over the entire studied period. POA factors were
- 27 designated as hydrocarbon-like OA (HOA) and biomass burning OA (BBOA). The latter factor
- 28 presented a significant seasonality with higher concentrations in winter with significant

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monthly contributions to OA (18-33%) due to enhanced residential wood burning emissions. HOA mainly originated from traffic emissions but was also influenced by biomass burning in cold periods. OOA factors were distinguished between their less- and more-oxidized fractions (LO-OOA and MO-OOA, respectively). These factors presented distinct seasonal patterns, associated with different atmospheric formation pathways. A pronounced increase of LO-OOA concentrations and contributions (50-66%) was observed in summer, which may be mainly explained by secondary OA (SOA) formation processes involving biogenic gaseous precursors. Conversely high concentrations and OA contributions (32-62%) of MO-OOA during winter and spring seasons were partly associated with anthropogenic emissions and/or long-range transport from northeastern Europe. The contribution of the different OA factors as a function of OA mass loading highlighted the dominant roles of POA during pollution episodes in fall and winter, and of SOA for highest springtime and summertime OA concentrations. Finally, longterm trend analyses indicated a decreasing feature (of about 200 ng m-3 yr-1) for MO-OOA, very limited or insignificant decreasing trends for primary anthropogenic carbonaceous aerosols (BBOA and HOA, along with the fossil fuel and biomass burning black carbon components), and no trend for LO-OOA over the 6+-year investigated period.



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1 Introduction

Organic aerosol (OA) particles account for a large mass fraction of submicron aerosol (PM₁) in the atmosphere (Zhang et al., 2007) and play a key role in regional air pollution and climate (Boucher et al., 2013). OA originates from i) primary emission sources (primary OA, POA), directly emitted into the atmosphere by anthropogenic activities (e.g., fossil-fuel and biomass combustions) or biogenic emissions (e.g., pollen, bacteria, fungal and fern spores, viruses, and fragments of plants), and ii) secondary formation via atmospheric oxidation processes of gas precursors, i.e., biogenic and anthropogenic volatile or semi-volatile organic compounds (VOCs or SVOCs) (Kroll and Seinfeld, 2008; Hallquist et al., 2009; Nozière et al., 2015). Due to their multiplicity and complexity, these various sources and physicochemical mechanisms remain poorly documented and understood. Although numerous time-limited field campaigns allowed to greatly improve our knowledge of OA properties in the last decade (e.g., Jimenez et al., 2009; Lanz et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2011; Shrivastava et al., 2017; Li et al., 2017; Srivastava et al., 2018a, and references therein), similar studies performed on a multi-year scale remain scarce and particularly challenging (Fröhlich et al., 2015a; Schlag et al., 2016; Sun et al., 2018). Long-term observations and source apportionment of OA are nevertheless necessary to better quantify the contribution of airborne OA particles to air quality and to setup scientifically-sound emission control strategies. They can also contribute to a better understanding of the atmospheric fate of OA and reduce uncertainties associated with its (in)direct radiative forcing.

Online aerosol characterization techniques, such as aerosol mass spectrometry (AMS), have demonstrated their capacity to improve our knowledge of key aerosol chemical components – such as OA - by providing highly time-resolved mass spectral data for the nonrefractory PM₁ fraction (NR-PM₁) (Jayne et al., 2000; Canagaratna et al., 2007). Using receptor model approaches, especially positive matrix factorization (PMF) (Paatero and Tapper, 1994), OA measured by AMS techniques can be further portioned into various source factors using statistic models (Ulbrich et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2011). For example, hydrocarbon-like OA (HOA) is frequently identified within urban environments and attributed to primary emissions from fuel consumption (Zhang et al., 2007; Jimenez et al., 2009), while biomass burning OA (BBOA) is often resolved specifically during cold seasons or within wild fire plumes (Alfarra et al., 2007; Lanz et al., 2010; Zhou et al., 2017). Oxygenated OA (OOA),

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commonly considered as a surrogate for SOA, is ubiquitously observed in urban, suburban and remote environments (Zhang et al., 2007; Srivastava et al., 2018a; Zhang et al., 2011; Crippa et al., 2014). OOA can be further separated into different fractions, being for instance classified according to its atmospheric ageing (OOA-type 1 vs. OOA-type 2) or alternatively described as more oxidized (MO-OOA) or less oxidized (LO-OOA) compared to each other (Jimenez et al., 2009; Ng et al., 2011a; Sun et al., 2018). Different OOA factors can also be identified as relevant to various sources of SOA precursors, such as anthropogenic activities (e.g., traffic and biomass burning emissions) (Gilardoni et al., 2016; Gentner et al., 2017) and biogenic emissions (e.g., isoprene and monoterpenes) (Xu et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2018; Freney et al., 2018) in specific regions and/or seasons. Such source apportionment has the potential to support air quality strategies and shall be able to assess the efficiency of mitigation measures of emission pollutants.

Over the last decades, particulate matter (PM) and anthropogenic VOCs emissions in Europe have been drastically reduced in many activity sectors by stringent emission regulations (EMEP, 2016). However, their impacts on both ambient POA and SOA concentrations are poorly assessed and still suffer from the lack of long-term observational data. Based on a less-advanced but more robust technology than AMS, the aerosol chemical speciation monitor (ACSM) has been designed to provide continuous measurements of the main non-refractory chemical species within submicron aerosols (Ng et al., 2011b). As for the AMS, OA mass spectra obtained by the ACSM can be used in PMF analysis for quantification of OA sources (e.g., Sun et al., 2012; Fröhlich et al., 2015b; Zhang et al., 2015). So far, several long-term OA source apportionment studies have been reported based on ACSM measurements at various sites (Canonaco et al., 2015; Fröhlich et al., 2015a; Schlag et al., 2016; Reyes-Villegas et al., 2016; Rattanavaraha et al., 2017; Sun et al., 2018). However, these studies have been limited to periods up to 2-years durations.

The longest ACSM timeseries recorded so far (from end of 2011 onwards) is used here to investigate OA sources at a regional background site of the Paris region (France), which is one of the largest urbanized regions in Europe. It has already been demonstrated that OA plays a dominant role in controlling atmospheric pollution in this region (Bressi et al., 2013; Petit et al., 2015). Furthermore, time-limited (typically, 1–2 months) measurement campaigns demonstrated that primary fine aerosols are mainly influenced there by traffic emissions all

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over the year and residential wood burning during cold seasons, while secondary aerosols originate from both local production and regional transports (Sciare et al., 2011; Crippa et al., 2013a, Crippa et al., 2013b, Petit et al., 2014; Srivastava et al., 2018b). In the present study, main OA factors were identified and quantified from 25 successive and seasonal PMF analyses over 6+ years, with the objective of keeping consistency between these factors from one PMF analysis to another. In this respect, sporadic and/or minor OA sources were not accounted in this study. The seasonal variations, weekly and diel cycles, as well as the long-term temporal trends of the major OA factors were investigated. The relative contributions of the various POA and SOA fractions were also plotted as a function of total submicron OA loadings with the objective to better identify the main OA sources responsible for regional pollution episodes. Finally, the geographical origins of high loadings of SOA factors were investigated using air mass back-trajectory analyses.



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2 Sampling site and instrumentation

Long-term submicron aerosol on-line measurements used in this study were performed from 1st of November 2011 to 26th of March 2018 at the SIRTA facility (Site Instrumental de Recherche par Télédétection Atmosphérique, 2.15 °E, 48.71 °N; http://sirta.ipsl.fr/). This exploratory platform is part of the European Aerosols, Clouds, Trace gases Research InfraStructure (ACTRIS, www.actris.eu) (e.g., Pandolfi et al., 2018). It is located 25 km southwest of Paris city center and is considered as representative of the background air quality of the Paris region (Haeffelin et al., 2005; Petit et al., 2015).

Major submicron aerosol chemical species i.e., OA, nitrate, sulfate, ammonium, and chloride, were measured using quadrupole ACSM. These measurements were achieved continuously, always using the same instrument, during the investigated period. Data was missing only for a few periods corresponding to two field campaigns performed elsewhere (in fall 2012 and March 2013) and to few technical breakdown and maintenance periods. Detailed descriptions of the ACSM measurement principles and basic data analysis are given by Ng et al. (2011b). Briefly, fine aerosols are sampled into the ACSM system through a 100 mm diameter critical orifice mounted at the inlet of the PM₁ aerodynamic lens (Liu et al., 2007; Ng et al., 2011b). Then, submicron aerosol particles are impacted and vaporized at the temperature (T) of about 600 °C and detected using electron impact (70 eV) ionization mass spectrometry. The ACSM was operated at a time resolution of about 30 min with a scan rate of 0.2 s amu-1 from m/z 12 to 150 amu (atomic mass unit). Coarse particles were removed upstream using an URG cyclone separator (with the size cut-off diameter of 2.5 μm). Calibrations of the detector response factor were performed regularly (typically every 6 months) using ammonium nitrate solutions (Ng et al., 2011b; Freney et al., 2019). The 1.4 default value was used for the OA relative ion efficiency for the whole dataset (Canagaratna et al., 2007). The accuracy of these ACSM measurements and the overall good working conditions of the instrument were verified through the participation to the ACTRIS ACSM intercomparison exercises that took place at SIRTA in November - December 2013 and March - April 2016 (Crenn et al., 2015; Fröhlich et al., 2015b, Freney et al., 2019).

Co-located multi-wavelength aethalometer (Magee Scientific) datasets were also available for the purpose of the study, providing complementary information on equivalent Black Carbon (eBC) concentrations and sources. Two aethalometers were used successively:



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from November 2011 to February 2013 (AE31 model) and then from March 2013 to March 2018 (AE33 model). Both instruments measure aerosol light attenuation at seven wavelengths, i.e., 370, 470, 520, 590, 660, 880 and 950 nm. The detailed descriptions of the AE31 operation at SIRTA and aethalometer data analysis can be found in Petit et al. (2015). The AE33 is an advanced aethalometer version, which allows better assessment and compensation of the filter-loading effect using two simultaneous light attenuation measurements performed at different rates of particle accumulation onto the filter tape (Drinovec et al., 2015; Drinovec et al., 2017). The mass concentration of equivalent black carbon (eBC) was estimated from attenuation measurement performed at 880 nm as described by Petit et al. (2015) and Zhang et al. (2018). A correction factor of 1.64 was applied to raw absorption data delivered by the instrument as recommended within the ACTRIS network (Zanatta et al., 2016). Furthermore, eBC could be discriminated between its two main combustion sources, i.e., fossil-fuel combustion (eBC_{ff}) and wood burning emissions (eBC_{wb}) using the aethalometer model (Sandradewi et al., 2008; Favez et al., 2010; Sciare et al., 2011; Drinovec et al., 2015). For these calculations, eBC_{ff} and eBC_{wb} were associated with absorption Angström exponents - in the wavelength range 470-950 nm - of 0.9 and 1.7, respectively. These values are also in agreement with a recent study by Zotter et al. (2017).

In addition to ACSM and AE33 measurements, co-located off-line analyses were performed from daily (24 h) PM_{2.5} filter samples, collected and analyzed for their content in Elemental and Organic Carbon (OC and EC, respectively) following the ACTRIS recommendations (Zanatta et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2018). Briefly, filters were collected using a low volume sampler (Partisol Model 2025; Thermo Scientific) equipped upstream with a VOC denuder system. Mass concentrations of OC and EC from August 2012 to March 2018 were then quantified using a Sunset Lab OC/EC analyzer implemented with the EUSAAR-2 thermal-optical protocol (Cavalli et al., 2010). As shown on Figure S1, good agreements were obtained between eBC and EC measurements ($r^2 = 0.79$, slope = 0.94; N=1185 as well as between OA and OC measurements ($r^2 = 0.68$). The slope of 2.14 obtained between submicron OA measured by the ACSM and PM_{2.5} OC filter-based measurements corresponded to the higher range of values generally observed at (sub)urban background sites - typically 1.6-2.2 (e.g., Bae et al., 2006; Aiken et al., 2008; Favez et al., 2010; Sun et al., 2011; Canagaratna et al., 2015 and references therein) - and may be partly explained by the fact that the filter sampling set-





up has been designed to minimize positive sampling artefacts but do not prevent from negative ones. Results obtained from these comparisons with filter-based measurements supported the validity of the datasets used in the present study.

Co-located measurements of nitric oxide (NO) and nitrogen dioxide (NO₂) were performed with a NO₂/NO/NOx analyzer (model T200UP, Teledyne API, USA). Data measurements were used for further constrain traffic related OA sources. The meteorological parameters, including meteorological parameters including temperature (*T*), relative humidity (RH), wind speed (WS), boundary layer height (BLH), and precipitation were obtained from the main SIRTA ground-based meteorological station, (located at about 4 km North-East of the aerosol monitoring site).

3. Atmospheric data treatment procedures

3.1 PMF analysis

Positive Matrix Factorization (PMF) algorithm is a bilinear receptor model (Paatero and Tapper, 1994) which has been widely used in source apportionment of ambient OA measured by AMS or ACSM (e.g., Ulbrich et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2011; Crippa et al., 2014; Li et al., 2017). As expressed in Eq. (1), observed OA mass spectral matrix (m/z-based x_{ij} , dimensions: $m \times n$) can be discriminated into several variables:

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$$x_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{p} (g_{ik} \cdot f_{kj}) + e_{ij}$$
 (1)

where g_{ik} and f_{kj} refer to factor (source) timeseries and mass spectra profiles, respectively, and e_{ij} correspond to residuals that could not be fitted by the PMF model. In this equation, i and j refer to row (timely resolved ACSM measurement data point) and column (m/z) indices in the organic matrix, respectively, while p indicates the number of factors in the PMF solution. Based on a least-squares algorithm, PMF algorithm aims to iteratively minimize residuals and a fit parameter Q, defined in Eq. (2):

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$$Q = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} (e_{ij}/\sigma_{ij})^{2}$$
 (2)



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where σ_{ij} is the estimated uncertainty of each m/z (j) concentration at each time-step (i) in the so-called error matrix. Organic concentration and error matrices (with m/z ranging from 13 to 100) were exported from the ACSM Local software (v 1.5.11.2). Downweighting of the m/z 44-group ions for the PMF model analysis was performed following procedures implemented in the ACSM Local software and following data treatment strategy proposed by Ulbrich et al. (2009).

When using PMF, it may be difficult to distinguish between factors with similar spectral profiles, especially for ACSM datasets, which are associated with larger uncertainties compared to AMS (Sun et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2015; Fröhlich et al., 2015b). The source finder (SoFi) toolkit, implemented with the ME-2 solver (Paatero, 1999), has recently been developed by Canonaco et al. (2013) to better address this limitation. SoFi provides robust functions which allow to constrain chosen factor profiles and/or timeseries. In particular, the so-called a-value approach makes use of range-defining scalar values (with a values ranging from 0 to 1) in order to better elucidate specific PMF factor(s) profile(s) with a chosen degree of freedom; the highest the a -value the less constrained the OA profile (Canonaco et al., 2013). In the present work, this a-value approach has been used to constrain profiles of POA factors. Some previous studies have already been performed at SIRTA using high resolution time-offlight AMS (HR-ToF-AMS) along with PMF analysis during short-time campaigns (typically around 3-4 weeks), leading to the identification of HOA, BBOA, as well as a cooking OA (COA) factor (Crippa et al., 2013a; Crippa et al., 2013b; Fröhlich et al., 2015b). Mass spectra obtained from these studies were used here as references to constrain POA factors, because of the prior know source information as constraints. Conversely, mass spectral profiles of possible OOA factors were left unconstrained. It should be noted that Crippa et al. (2013c) resolved up to 3 different type of OOA factors and/or a marine OA (MOA) factor when combining HR-ToF-AMS and proton-transfer-reaction mass spectrometer (PTR-MS) datasets obtained during a summer and a winter campaign at SIRTA.

OOA factor profiles may differ with time, notably due to seasonal variations of a several parameters such as meteorological conditions, photochemistry, atmospheric lifetime, air masses origin, and/or of gaseous precursor origins. In order to better account for such variability, individual PMF analyses were performed on a 3-month basis, i.e., winter (December-January-February), spring (March-April-May), summer (June-July-August), and fall





(September-October-November), with a total number of 25 different PMF runs (7 for winters and 6 for each of the other seasons). November 2011 and March 2018 data were included in the winter 2011-2012 and winter 2017-2018 analyses, respectively.

To evaluate the influence of the chosen temporal PMF window (i.e., time duration of data used in ME-2 runs) on the seasonal ME-2 model results, different timeframes (i.e., 15, 30, 60 and 90 days) were tested. As shown in Figure S2 (with winter 2017 data as an example), the excellent consistency of those results from different scenarios suggest very limited influence of PMF windows on determining the outputs of ME-2 analyses. To better assess the variations in primary and secondary OA in different seasons over the 6+-years period and to allow for some degrees of freedom within the model runs, the main OA factors, including both POA factors (HOA and BBOA) and two SOA factors (a less oxidized OOA (LO-OOA) and a more oxidized OOA (MO-OOA)), were calculated as the average of 50 convergent ME-2 runs with avalues varying from 0 to 0.4. Moreover, results obtained with an a-value of 0.2 were also compared to these results for sensitivity analyses (Fig. S3). The diagnostics of the final OA-factor solution are further discussed in section 4.1.

3.2 Influence of biogenic SOA

Biogenic SOA (BSOA) might have a significant influence on OA loadings in mid-latitude regions during summertime and be further apportioned using AMS techniques (e.g., Leaitch et al., 2011; Canonaco et al., 2015). For that reason, influence of this biogenic OA source was specifically investigated in the present study. To do so, BSOA derived from terpene emissions (BSOA_t) was taken as a surrogate for total BSOA and the temperature (T) dependence of the BSOA_t formation process yield during summertime was simulated using a simple terpene emission model (Goldstein et al., 2009; Schurgers et al., 2009; Leaitch et al., 2011 and references therein), where an exponential curve function is describing the relation between terpene emission rate (γ) and the air T, following Eq. 3:

$$\gamma = \gamma_0 \times e^{\beta(T-303)} \tag{3}$$

where γ_0 stands for the emission rate (µg g⁻¹ h⁻¹) at standard conditions, and β is an empirical constant chosen here to be equal to 0.09 K⁻¹ (Schurgers et al., 2009; Leaitch et al., 2011). As





reported by previous studies, biogenic terpene emissions could be a major source of such PMF LO-OOA factor observed during summertime in western Europe (e.g., Canonaco et al., 2015; Daellenbach et al., 2017; Daellenbach et al., 2019). Given that, BSOA_t was assumed to be mainly included in the LO-OOA fraction in the present work, and BSOA_t estimated concentrations were compared to LO-OOA concentrations data points corresponding to the daytime maximum T (at approximately 16:00-17:00 local time) in summer. Assuming that LO-OOA could actually be mostly composed of BSOA_t during this period of the day and following the procedure described by Leaitch et al. (2011), the daily mass concentrations of BSOA_t were estimated as follows:

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$$BSOA_{t,estimated} = LO - OOA_{(Observed\ at\ Tmin)} \times \frac{\gamma}{\gamma_{(Tmin)}}$$
 (4)

where T_{min} corresponds to the lowest daily maximum T observed across the investigated summer seasons (i.e., $12^{\circ}\text{C} \pm 1^{\circ}\text{C}$) and LO-OOA_(observed at T_{min}) corresponds to the mean LO-OOA concentration obtained for these data points (0.7 \pm 0.3 μ g m⁻³, N = 17).

3.3 Trend analysis

The multi-year trends of OA factors obtained from the ME-2 analysis were analyzed using the Mann-Kendall (MK) trend test. The MK test is a nonparametric test for monotonic trend in a timeseries (Mann, 1945). The MK test is better suitable for nonnormally distributed, censored and missing data, compared to parametric statistical tests, such as the t test. The normality of the mass concentrations of the OA factors was examined by the Shapiro-Wilk normality test (Shapiro and Wilk, 1965). As a result of the Shapiro-Wilk normality test, all datasets of the mass concentrations of the four OA factors were not normally distributed cases. The MK test associated with Sen's estimator of slope (Sen, 1968) is insensitive to outliers, while it is not appropriate for the chosen dataset with significant seasonality. Thus, the seasonal MK test was used for the trend analysis when observed data had a significant seasonality with the Kruskal-Wallis test (Kruskal and Wallis, 1952). The trend computation was performed here using a R trend package (Pohlert, 2018). We applied monthly average data for all those tests to illustrate the smoothed structure.





3.4 Air mass back-trajectory analysis

The HYbrid Single Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory model (Hysplit) Draxler and Rolph, 2003; Stein et al., 2015) was applied to calculate 72-h back trajectories hourly arriving at SIRTA at a height of 100 m above ground level, based on GDAS meteorological data. The potential source contribution function model (PSCF) (Polissar et al., 1999) was used in this study to investigate the potential source origins that may contribute to high concentrations of OA factors at SIRTA. This analysis was achieved with a resolution of $0.2^{\circ} \times 0.2^{\circ}$ for each grid cell, using the ZeFir toolkit (Petit et al., 2017). The probability function for a given grid cell (i, j), where i stands for the latitude and j for the longitude, is related to observed concentrations that are higher than a threshold value, which is defined by Eq. (6):

$$PSCF_{(i,j)} = \left(\frac{m_{ij}}{n_{ij}}\right) \cdot w_{ij} \tag{6}$$

where m_{ij} is the total number of selected trajectory endpoints (i, j) associated with receptor concentrations of PMF factors higher than the threshold value, and n_{ij} is the total number of back trajectory endpoints at each grid cell (i, j). The 75th percentile of each OA factors during the entire study was used as the threshold value to calculate m_{ij} . To reduce uncertainty caused by small n_{ij} values for the PSCF modelling, an arbitrary weighting function (w_{ij}) was applied using Eq. (7) (Waked et al., 2014). To minimize the influence of some trajectories on the possible pathways of air mass transport, observed data points associated with low wind speed conditions (WS < 4 m s⁻¹) were filtered out. In addition, observed data points at SIRTA during the period with any hourly precipitation events (precipitation > 0 mm) were removed to reduce influence of wet deposition on ambient aerosol concentrations.

$$w_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 \ for \log(n_{ij} + 1) \ge 0.85 \max \log(n_{ij} + 1) \\ 0.725 \ for \ 0.6 \ \max \log(n_{ij} + 1) \le \log(n_{ij} + 1) < 0.85 \ \max \log(n_{ij} + 1) \\ 0.475 \ for \ 0.35 \ \max \log(n_{ij} + 1) \le \log(n_{ij} + 1) < 0.6 \ \max \log(n_{ij} + 1) \\ 0.175 \ for \log(n_{ij} + 1) < 0.35 \ \max \log(n_{ij} + 1) \end{cases}$$
(7)

4 Results and discussion

4.1 Identification of the main OA factors





4.1.1 Determination of the optimum factor number

The optimal number of PMF OA factors shall be determined by the distribution of the main sources at a given sampling site. Based on results obtained from the compilation of previous AMS studies reported in the Paris region, two POA factors - HOA and BBOA - and two OOA fractions - MO-OOA and LO-OOA – are undoubtedly major fraction of submicron aerosols in Paris area over the year (Crippa et al., 2013a; Crippa et al., 2013b; Freutel et al., 2013; Petit et al., 2014; Fröhlich et al., 2015b). Another POA source, i.e., COA, has also been identified using HR-ToF-AMS during previous campaigns in Paris region (Crippa et al., 2013a; Crippa et al., 2013b; Fröhlich et al., 2015b). However, the distinction between COA and HOA factors based solely on ACSM measurements remains challenging due to highly similar mass spectra and uncertainties associated with the ACSM low mass spectral resolution (Petit et al., 2014; Fröhlich et al., 2015b).

To better assess a potential role of COA in our source apportionment study, several ME-2 runs were conducted constraining either three POA factors (HOA, BBOA, COA) or two (HOA, BBOA). In these tests, POA reference mass spectra determined by Fröhlich et al. (2015b) were employed as anchor profiles (with *a*-values ranging from 0 to 0.4 with steps of 0.05). PMF solutions with a factor number ranging from 3 to 6 were investigated on ACSM datasets corresponding to different seasons of different years (December 2011 - February 2012, March - May 2015, June - August 2017, September - November. 2017, December 2017 - February 2018). Results obtained from these preliminary individual PMF runs showed very good consistency between them with two unconstrained OOA factors - MO-OOA and LO-OOA - always appearing in the 4-factor (with constrained HOA and BBOA factor) and 5-factor (with constrained HOA, BBOA and COA factor) solutions. Conversely, 3- and 6-factor PMF analyses generally led to unsatisfactory solutions.

Figures 1 and S4 present results obtained for the 4- and 5-factor solutions, respectively, for the winter 2017-2018 period, taken here as an example. In both cases, mass spectra were in good agreement with those reported in the literature. However, the COA and BBOA factors are displaying very similar diel patterns, leading to surprisingly good correlations between these two factors (see Figure S5). It could then be concluded that COA-like aerosols at SIRTA were primarily linked with wood burning emissions and pure cooking aerosols were probably present in too low loadings to be properly quantified within the present study. This





assumption is consistent with conclusions drawn by other studies performed at SIRTA (Petit et al., 2014; Srivastava et al., accepted for publication) as well as other studies showing that the COA factor could not be solely attributed to cooking aerosols (e.g., Freutel et al., 2013, Dall'Osto et al., 2015).

Therefore, the 4-factor solution, including two constrained POA factors (BBOA and HOA) and two unconstrained factors, was chosen here as the "best estimate" for the PMF runs performed over the long-term dataset. A total of 25 seasonal and individual PMF analyses were then conducted using a similar procedure. The seasonal OOA factor mass spectra are presented in Figure S6, showing high seasonal consistency for each OA factor. Moreover, as shown in Figure S7, the distribution of residuals derived from the these 4-factor solution ME-2 runs was sharply centered around 0, suggesting insignificance of possible unresolved OA factor(s).

4.1.2 Source attribution

BBOA mass spectra are quite constant throughout the seasons, and present characteristic peaks at m/z 29, 60, and 73 indicative of biomass burning combustion (Figure S6). As shown on Figure 2a, BBOA diel cycles displayed well-marked patterns with strong nighttime maxima, especially during the weekend. This confirms the predominance of residential wood burning activities on BBOA concentrations at SIRTA and in the Paris region, as already shown previously (e.g., Favez et al., 2009; Sciare et al., 2011; Crippa et al., 2013b; Petit et al., 2014). As expected, BBOA diel cycles are similar to the ones obtained for eBCwb, except for small eBCwb morning peaks that were not observed for BBOA (possibly due to uncertainties of the aethalometer model) and for lunch-time shouldering within BBOA patterns, which might be related to limited COA emissions (see above). Interestingly, both of this eBCwb and BBOA daytime rises were not observed during week-end, suggesting the influence of local emissions related to working activities (e.g., eBC from commuting road transport and staff canteens).

Compared to BBOA, HOA shows a more complex weekly diel pattern (Figure 2b). Its pattern is generally similar to eBC_{wb} and NO_x (both being considered here as markers for traffic emissions). HOA presents two peaks during working day, one in the morning and another in



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the evening. Morning peaks, occurring during traffic rush hours are clearly indicative of road transport contributions, confirming HOA as a proxy for traffic emissions. However, HOA evening peaks occurs globally later than eBCff and NOx ones (9:00-10:00 PM vs. 7:00 PM, respectively) and much lower ratio are observed between HOA and eBCff in the morning than in the evening. This might be partly explained by i) higher eBC traffic emission factor in the morning and/or ii) impacts of biomass burning sources on HOA concentrations in the late evening. Moreover, eBCff shows a clear weekend effect, with less-pronounced pattern on Saturday and Sunday due to road transport reduction, while HOA displays intense nighttime peaks during weekend. This HOA mean pattern was substantially influenced by winter data, whereas summertime patterns display better consistency between HOA, eBCff and NO_x (Figure S8). Altogether, these results claimed for considering HOA as a mixed factor partly composed of traffic and biomass burning aerosols. This statement is in good agreement with conclusions from complementary studies showing wood burning contribution to HOA at the same site (Petit et al., 2014; Srivastava et al., accepted for publication). It was further supported by higher m/z 44 contribution within HOA mass spectra in fall and winter than during the spring and summer seasons (Figure S6), which could be characteristic of the presence of processed biomass burning emissions (e.g., Grieshop et al., 2009; Fröhlich et al., 2015b).

As presented in Figures 1 and S6, MO-OOA mass spectra present a strong peak at m/z 44. In fact, this spectrum has been widely reported as low volatility OOA (LV-OOA) and considered as composed of highly oxidized and aged SOA (Lanz et al., 2007; Ulbrich et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2011; Ng et al., 2011a). Compared to the poorly pronounced diel variability of sulfate, this MO-OOA factor exhibits a slight enhancement at nighttime (Figure 2c), suggesting a possible local formation mechanism involving nighttime chemistry, on top of its overall regional feature. The geographic origins of the MO-OOA factor are further discussed in section 4.2.1 for each season.

The mass spectra of LO-OOA in this study present a higher m/z 43 and a lower m/z 44 (Figures 1a and S6), compared to MO-OOA, which is consistent with the mass spectral pattern of previously reported freshly-formed semi-volatile OOA (SV-OOA) (Jimenez et al., 2009; Ng et al., 2010). The diel variations of LO-OOA display higher concentrations during nighttime than daytime (Figure 2d), with relative variations much more pronounced than for the MO-OOA diel pattern. These results support different formation pathways of the two OOA



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fractions. In winter, LO-OOA mass spectra has higher contributions of m/z 29 as well as elevated m/z, i.e., starting from m/z 60, than during other seasons (Figure S6). Such characteristics suggest a major influence of biomass burning emissions onto the LO-OOA factor during wintertime, as previously proposed from measurements at SIRTA (e.g., Crippa et al., 2013c). Conversely, in summer, this factor may be significantly influenced by BSOA formation (Canonaco et al., 2015; Daellenbach et al., 2017). To investigate this possible origin, we checked if summertime LO-OOA concentrations at higher daily T were following temperature dependence similar to the one expected for the formation of terpene SOA, as explained in section 3.2. Results of these calculations are presented in Figure 3. LO-OOA concentrations substantially increase with T, showing a good agreement with the estimated BSOAt formation exponential profiles. However, when comparing with estimation derived from Eq. (4) (referred to Figure 3), observed LO-OOA displays substantially higher loadings than estimated $BSOA_t$ at highest concentration range. This could be partly due to the influence of regional transports and atmospheric dilution on aerosol loadings and some possible uncertainties (such as unclear formation schemes of biogenic SOA at SIRTA), which were not considered in the BSOAt estimation. These comparison results between observation and estimation indicates that the LO-OOA factor observed in summer might be mainly associated with biogenic sources. This was aligned with the VOC seasonal patterns observed in the Paris region (Baudic et al., 2016), although the underlying SOA formation mechanism is still unclear and needs to be further investigated (Beekmann et al. 2015).

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4.2 OA factor temporal variations

Figure 4 presents timeseries of total submicron OA and its four main factor components (namely HOA, BBOA, MO-OOA and LO-OOA) together with key meteorological parameters: boundary Layer height (BLH), relative humidity (RH) and temperature (T), during the entire investigated period. Most meteorological parameters present seasonal cycles. For example, the highest and lowest air T were observed during summertime and wintertime, respectively, while the highest RH was frequently observed in winter for each year. The highest BLH was mainly observed in summer among all seasons. Total submicron OA presented dynamic variations during all seasons with hourly average concentrations ranging from 0.03 to 77.5 μ g m⁻³ and daily average values from 0.2 to 41.3 μ g m⁻³. There was no clear seasonality for the





total monthly average OA concentrations, varying from 4.8 to 5.1 μ g m⁻³. However, each individual OA factors displayed intra and inter-annual variations, which are discussed in this section.

4.2.1. Monthly and seasonal variations of OA factors

Figure 5 illustrates monthly average concentrations obtained for each OA factor over the studied period. HOA monthly concentrations vary from 0.4 to 1.3 μg m⁻³ and display a statistically insignificant seasonal trend (p > 0.05, Figure 5a). Nevertheless, the mass concentration of HOA is nearly twice higher during cold months (in the range of $0.9 - 1.3 \,\mu g$ m⁻³, from November to March) than in other months (in the range of $0.4 - 0.5 \,\mu g$ m⁻³ from April to October). This monthly cycle of HOA could be partially explained by lower BLH conditions and influence of more intense emissions of biomass burning in cold seasons than in warm seasons (Figures 4 and S9). As illustrated by Figure S10, HOA clearly presents two peaks (in the morning and late evening) for each season. The evening HOA peak is significantly higher than the morning peak in winter and fall seasons when high loadings of BBOA are observed as well. Although dynamic processes (establishment of a stable nighttime boundary layer) cannot be excluded, these results point to a possible contribution of biomass burning emissions to the HOA factor in the evening during cold months, as discussed before from the diel cycles of OA factors.

As shown in Figure 5b, BBOA displays a statistically significant seasonal pattern trend (p < 0.0001) with higher monthly mean concentrations ($1.1 - 1.9 \, \mu g \, m^{-3}$) during cold months (November – March) than during the April – September period ($0.3 - 0.5 \, \mu g \, m^{-3}$). This seasonal dependence of wood burning emissions is associated with the residential heating activities over the Paris region. BBOA presents a seasonal dependence of its diel cycle, as presented in Figure S10. In particular, BBOA shows an evident peak at evening/nighttime in winter, spring, and fall, while it presents a stable diel cycle during summertime. The highest seasonally-averaged nighttime peak (up to $2.4 \, \mu g \, m^{-3}$) is observed in winter, highlighting a significant enhancement of wood burning emissions and influence of meteorological conditions (such as low BLH) during this season.



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Monthly average mass concentrations of MO-OOA present a significant seasonal trend (p < 0.05), varying from 1.0 in September to 3.5 µg m⁻³ in March (Figure 4c), in agreement with previous studies performed in Europe (Schlag et al., 2016; Daellenbach et al., 2017; Bozzetti et al., 2017). The highest MO-OOA mass concentrations observed in the cold months are somehow similar to the seasonal variation of BBOA. MO-OOA diel cycles also present a seasonal variation, with significant increase during evening/nighttime in winter, spring, and fall (Figure S10). In order to minimize the effect of atmospheric dilution and regional transport, the mass concentration of MO-OOA was normalized to sulfate, the latter one being considered as a regional secondary production marker (Petit et al., 2015 and Figure S11). As shown in Figure S11, the correlations between MO-OOA and sulfate are found to be strongly BBOA- and wind speed-dependent. For high wind speed and low BBOA concentrations, the mean MO-OOA-to-sulfate ratio is close to 1, while it reaches up to 8 under high BBOA and low-to-medium wind speed. This is consistent with the assumption of an enhancement of MO-OOA formation in the presence of substantial biomass burning emissions, which have been reported as a major anthropogenic SOA source (Heringa et al., 2011; Tiitta et al., 2016; Bertrand et al., 2017). Furthermore, high concentrations of MO-OOA are generally observed at high RH (> 80 %) and low T (< 0 °C) conditions during wintertime (Figure S12) and the MO-OOA-to-sulfate ratio shows a significant enhancement as a function of RH (Figure S13), suggesting that the aqueous-phase heterogeneous processes may represent an important pathway for the local MO-OOA formation in winter as proposed by Gilardoni et al. (2016). Conversely, there are no obvious RH-T dependent patterns for the MO-OOA in spring (Figure S12), indicative of more complex formation processes during this season. In summer, MO-OOA displays evident increase from early afternoon to evening (Figure S10), suggesting significant local photochemical production of SOA particles in summer with higher T and increased solar radiation (Petit et al., 2015). As a matter of fact, MO-OOA presents high concentrations under high T (> 25 °C) and low RH (< 65%) summertime conditions (Figure S12). In conclusion, and despite relatively constant mass spectra all over the year, MO-OOA appears to originate from various seasonal-dependent formation pathways and sources (such as biomass burning and biogenic sources), that should still be investigated in more details.

The LO-OOA mass spectra with high f_{43} / f_{44} ratios are frequently observed in spring, summer and fall, whereas a lower ratio is obtained for winter (Figure S6). These different mass





spectra of LO-OOA could be partially explained by seasonal-dependent formation mechanisms and sources. The monthly mean mass concentrations of LO-OOA vary from 0.8 to 3.6 μ g m⁻³ (Figure 5d) and shows a statistically significant seasonality (p < 0.001) with higher concentrations during warm months and lower during cold months. As discussed above, the highest summertime LO-OOA concentrations are assessed to be mainly linked with BSOA formation. As presented in Figure S12, T-RH dependence of the LO-OOA factor is very different according to the season. In particular, the highest wintertime LO-OOA concentrations are mainly observed at low T and high RH conditions, suggesting that gas-particle partitioning may play an important role in LO-OOA formation during this season. In summer, the LO-OOA concentrations present strong T positive dependence while RH dependence is not clear, indicating that photochemical production of LO-OOA became more important in summer than in winter. Moreover, high concentrations of LO-OOA are observed at daytime in summer, which is different from the diel variations in other seasons with high concentrations only during nighttime (Figure S10). Such LO-OOA diel variations could further support the photochemical processing dominating the LO-OOA production in summer.

4.2.2. Long-term trends

Figure 6 presents the results obtained from the trend analysis of the 6-year timeseries of the four OA factors as well as eBC_{ff} and eBC_{wb} components. The significance and magnitude of these trends were examined using the MK p-value and Sen's slope, respectively. BBOA presents a statistically significant decreasing trend (p < 0.05) with a Sen's slope of about 80 ng m⁻³ per year in the Paris region. On the other hand, eBC_{wb} concentration trends appear quite stable over the investigated period. Two possible reasons may explain the discrepancy trend results between BBOA and eBC_{wb} . It may be hypothesized that a limited overall improvement of wood stove performances in the Paris region could have influence BBOA emission factors more than eBC_{wb} ones, but no evidence has been found to support this assumption. Similarly, but in the opposite way, eBC_{ff} was found to have a significant decreasing trend, while HOA trend was found to be statistically insignificant (p-value > 0.05). However, if removing the high concentration peak observed in December (for which an important contribution of wood burning HOA can be expected), the MK p-value is reduced to be 0.024, which would be indicative of a significant decreasing trend (with a related Sen's slope of 72 ng m⁻³ per year).





These results would be in line with a reduction of PM traffic emissions over the past years in France, as estimated by the French emission inventory state operator (CITEPA, 2018). However, such trends analysis should be performed on longer datasets for a much better evaluation of the pollution control strategies (both on road transport and residential heating emissions) in the Paris region.

MO-OOA shows a significant decreasing trend (p < 0.05) with a Sen's slope of 204 ng m⁻³ per year. Considering the overwhelming secondary origin of this factor, this significant decreasing trend may be partially explained by a reduction of anthropogenic VOCs emissions in France over the investigated period (CITEPA, 2018). LO-OOA presents no significant trend (with p = 0.29). As discussed above, higher LO-OOA loadings may be linked to BSOA formation, especially at summertime. The stability of LO-OOA concentrations over time may be linked to limited changes in biogenic VOC emissions and/or in relevant oxidant concentrations, that control the SOA burden in the atmosphere. Effect of anthropogenic-biogenic interaction mechanisms on biogenic SOA formation - e.g., involving NO_x, as reported by previous studies in urban regions (Budisulistiorini et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2017) - could also partially explain the limited changes for the long-term trend of LO-OOA at SIRTA. Detailed LO-OOA formation processes involved here still need to be further investigated. Nevertheless, it may be assumed that reductions of anthropogenic VOC emissions only cannot be sufficient to weaken the total SOA background concentrations in the Paris area.

4.3 OA source contribution as a function of OA concentrations

Figure 7 presents the contribution of the four OA sources as a function of total submicron OA mass loadings or each season along with percent changes of meteorological conditions. In winter and fall, all meteorological parameters - except limited changes in RH - show negative relationships as a function of the OA mass concentrations, confirming the coincidence of low T, low WS, and/or low BLH in the formation of pollution episodes (Dupont et al., 2016). POA contributions gradually increase with increasing OA concentrations: an OA increase from below 5 μ g m⁻³ to above 25 μ g m⁻³ leads to a POA contribution increase from 35 % (resp. 27 %) up to 64 % (resp. 70 %) in winter (resp. fall). These results illustrate the major role of primary sources during periods with high OA concentrations during the cold seasons. In particular,





BBOA contribution gradually increase from 21 % (15 %) to 41 % (40 %) in winter (fall) along with OA mass loading increase.

In spring, OA composition is radically changed and is dominated by the two OOA fractions, with almost constant average contributions (68 – 77%) regardless OA concentration levels, indicating the major role of SOA during this season. MO-OOA presents higher contributions to OA (45-53%) than LO-OOA (15-31%), suggesting that the formation of aged SOA plays a key role on the build-up of episodes with high OA concentrations during springtime. As shown in Figure 8f, the percent changes in T, WS, and BLH gradually decrease with increasing OA concentrations. By contrast, RH shows a positive relationship with OA mass concentrations, with the largest RH enhancement (16%) at highest OA-loading bin (> 25 μ g m⁻³). This may suggest that high RH being the most favorable environment condition for SOA formation during springtime OA pollution episodes, as supported by a high contribution of OOA factors at the highest OA concentration level (Figure 7b). In addition, although BBOA contributions remained relatively limited, it increases from 11% to 17% when OA increased from less than 10 μ g m⁻³ to > 25 μ g m⁻³. This may reveal a non-negligible influence of wood burning emissions during early spring pollution episodes.

In summer, OA was also dominated by the two OOA fractions (around 80-85% at all OA-loading bins). The LO-OOA contribution gradually increase from 51 % to 69% as a function of OA mass loadings associated with a significant increase of *T*. Other meteorological variables (i.e., RH, WS and BLH) showed relatively stable changes across different OA mass loadings (Figure 7h). These results confirm that high OA concentrations during summer are strongly determined by *T*-driven biogenic SOA formation processes.

4.4 Potential geographic origins of SOA factors

Figure 8 shows maps of the most probable geographic origins of the two OOA factors for each season based on PSCF analysis. In winter, MO-OOA presents high PSCF values over the Benelux, Germany and Poland, showing a major influence of long-range transport of OA from northeastern sectors. Similar results are obtained from wind-dependent analyses (Figure S14). This could be associated with more stable conditions with anticyclonic conditions, but could also suggest more intense SOA production and aging processes at regional scale for





continental air masses. As a matter of fact, MO-OOA shows wider potential source regions than LO-OOA, which is assessed as fresh SOA and could be mainly formed at more local scale in winter. Moreover, the impact of transport from northeastern regions — hosting intense industrial activities - onto MO-OOA concentrations may also support a significant anthropogenic origin for this SOA factor.

As shown in Figures 8c-d and S14, both MO-OOA and LO-OOA present high springtime PSCF values originating from the northeastern regions too, which can participate in pollution episodes frequently observed during this season (Petit et al., 2015; Srivastava et al., 2018b). Therefore, mitigation of VOCs emissions at the regional scale could help to reduce the substantial influence of OA on PM limit value exceedances during this season.

Narrower distribution of potential source regions was observed in summer and fall, compared to winter and spring. MO-OOA presents potential source regions mainly from the northeast in summer (Figure 8e), while it has a high potential source region originating from the south in fall (Figure 8g). Finally, summertime LO-OOA, possibly from biogenic sources, presented potential source regions from both northeast and south, suggesting the contribution of a regional transport to the biogenic SOA production in summer.

All these results indicated that significant reduction of the SOA burden in the Paris region does not only require the limitation of local source emissions, but also needs a synergistic control strategy for the regional sources, especially from northeastern European regions. In this respect, they confirmed conclusions reached by previous short-term campaigns (e.g., Sciare et al., 2010; Crippa et al., 2013b; Freutel et al., 2013; Beekman et al., 2015).

5. Conclusions

A comprehensive OA source apportionment has been achieved over the region of Paris from November 2011 to March 2018. 4 factors, comprising HOA, BBOA, MO-OOA and LO-OOA, have been identified and selected to ensure consistency of PMF factor solution over 6 years in this study. Mean annual contributions of these factors to OA were of 11-16 % (HOA), 14-19% (BBOA), 25-42 % (LO-OOA), and 30-45 % (MO-OOA), respectively. BBOA presented a





statistically significant seasonal pattern with highest concentrations during cold months, due to residential wood burning emissions. The contribution of BBOA increased with increasing concentration of OA mass in winter and fall – along with decreasing boundary layer height and wind speed – highlighting the importance of biomass burning emissions for OA pollution under stagnant meteorological conditions. HOA presented temporal variations similar to BBOA in cold months, which was partly related to the fact that wood burning emissions also contributed to HOA burden. BBOA and HOA exhibited very limited (< - $0.1 \mu g m^{-3} y r^{-1}$) or not significant trends during the 6+-years investigated period. These results imply that specific mitigation strategy, especially for residential wood burning, are still necessary for substantial improvement of air quality in cold season in the Paris region.

LO-OOA and MO-OOA presented different seasonal variations, reflecting different formation mechanisms and/or precursor sources. LO-OOA displayed a pronounced seasonal cycle, with highest contribution total OA in summer (50-66 %) and lowest ones in winter (12-19 %). Enhanced LO-OOA production during the warm season was assessed to be mainly driven by biogenic SOA formation. This factor showed no significant long-term trend for the studied period. MO-OOA presented higher contribution to OA at wintertime (35-51 %) and springtime (32-62 %) than during the rest of the year. PSCF analyses suggested a high probability of MO-OOA long-range transport from northeastern Europe towards the Paris region. MO-OOA displayed a significant decreasing trend (of about 0.2 µg m⁻³ yr⁻¹), which might reflect the effect of emission control strategy of anthropogenic SOA precursors at the regional scale over the last decade. However, future work is needed to fully understand chemical properties of these SOA factors corresponding to different origins over different seasons in the Paris region and to quantify the impact of emission control on ambient SOA burden.

- Data availability. The data have been presented in the text and figures as well as supplement.
- Additional-related data will be available upon request.

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

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656 Author contribution. O.F., A.A., and V.G. designed and led the study. Y.Z. conducted the data analyses. 657 J-E.P., F.T., N.B., V.C., T.A., and J.S. provided the field observation. F. C. and A.P. supported the source apportionment analyses. Y.Z. and O.F. interpreted the data, and wrote the manuscript, with inputs 658 659 from all coauthors. 660 661 Acknowledgements. This work has been part of the EU-FP7 and H2020 ACTRIS projects (grant agreements no. 262254 and 654109) as well as the COLOSSAL COST action CA16109. It has also been 662 directly supported by the French Research Council (CNRS), the French alternatives energies and atomic 663 energy commission (CEA), and the French ministry of Environment through its funding to the reference 664 665 laboratory for air quality monitoring (LCSQA). Finally, Y. Zhang acknowledges the China Scholarship 666 Council (CSC) for PhD scholarship.





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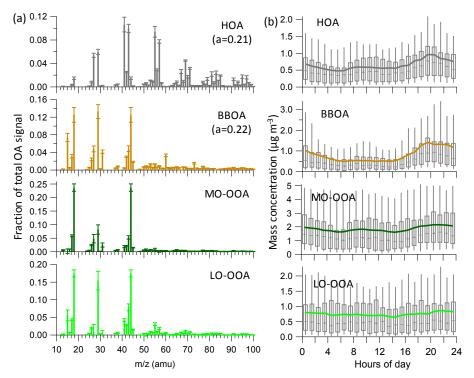


Figure 1. Mass spectra (a) and diel variations (b) of four OA factors obtained from the 4-factor solution of ME-2 runs for winter 2017-2018. In (a), error bars in each plot present 1 standard deviation. Stick lines indicate average values over all selected ME-2 runs. Averaged a-values for constrained factors during the ME-2 runs are also shown. In (b), the upper and lower boundaries of boxes indicate the 75th and 25th percentiles; the vertical lines within the box correspond to median values; the whiskers above and below boxes refer to 95th and 10th percentiles; and solid colored lines represent mean values.

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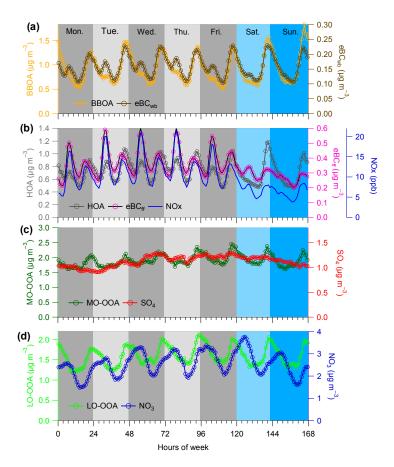


Figure 2. Weekly cycles averaged for the entire period of study for (a) HOA, (b) BBOA, (c) MOOOA and (d) LO-OOA, along with possible external tracers (eBC_{wb}, eBC_{ff} and NO_x, sulfate, and nitrate, respectively). Weekdays (24 h) are colored in different gray and weekend days in different blue.

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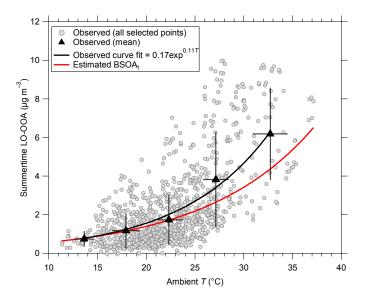
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Figure 3. Temperature dependence of summertime LO-OOA obtained from observation and observationally constrained calculation based on biogenic terpene emissions model (Schurgers et al., 2009; Leaitch et al., 2011).



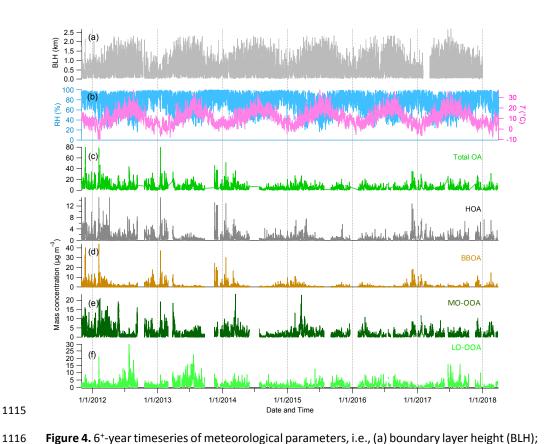
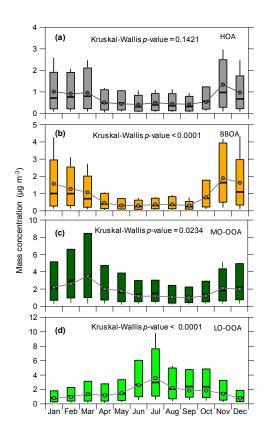


Figure 4. 6^+ -year timeseries of meteorological parameters, i.e., (a) boundary layer height (BLH); and (b) relative humidity (RH) and temperature (T), and mass concentrations of (c) total OA and four OA PMF factors, i.e., (c) HOA, (d) BBOA, (e) MO-OOA, and (f) LO-OOA.





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Figure 5. Monthly variations of the four OA factors and associated Kruskal-Wallis p-value for detecting seasonality. The box plots describe the different percentiles (10th, 25th, 50th, 75th, and 90th) and the mean (gray solid circle).



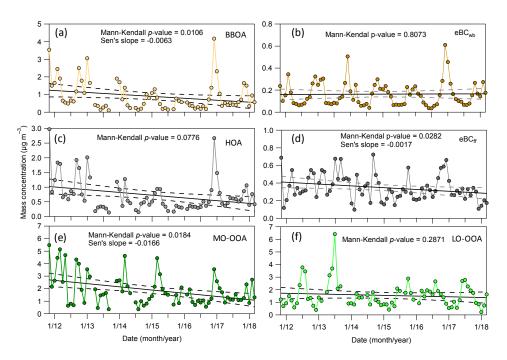


Figure 6. 6^+ -year trends of four OA factors. The (seasonal) Mann-Kendall testes associated with estimated Sen's slope (only given here when trends are assumed significant, i.e., if MK p-value < 0.05) were used for the trend analysis.

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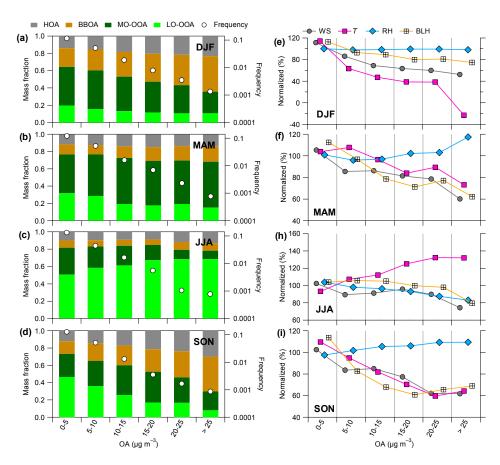


Figure 7. (a-d) mass fraction of OA factors and (e-i) meteorological parameters (i.e., WS, T, RH, and BLH) as a function of OA mass loadings in four seasons: winter (DJF), spring (MAM), summer (JJA), and fall (SON), along with frequency distributions (white circle points). The percent change of all meteorological parameters was normalized based on the average values over the 6^+ -years period considered here.

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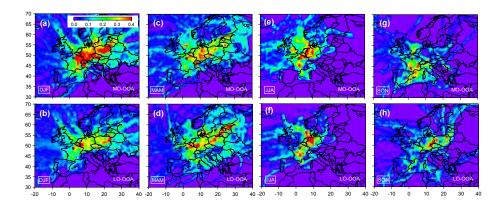


Figure 8. Maps for potential source origins of regional transports that may contribute to SOA (including MO-OOA and LO-OOA) burdens at SIRTA. Observed data points with wind speed (less than 4 m s⁻¹) and in the presence of precipitation events are filtered for the PSCF calculation. Black solid point in each plot presents the location of the sampling site.