Determination of free amino acids, saccharides and selected microbes in biogenic atmospheric aerosols - seasonal variations, particle size distribution, chemical and microbial relations

5 Jose Ruiz-Jimenez[1,5], Magdalena Okuljar[1,5], Outi-Maaria Sietiö[2,3,4], Giorgia Demaria[1], Thanaporn Liangsupree[1], Elisa Zagatti[1], Juho Aalto[4], Kari Hartonen[1,5], Jussi Heinonsalo[3], Jaana Bäck[4], Tuukka Petäjä[5] and Marja-Liisa Riekkola[1,5]

[1]Department of Chemistry, P.O. Box 55, FI-00014 University of Helsinki, Finland

10 [2] Department of Microbiology, P.O. Box 56, FI-00014 University of Helsinki, Finland

[3] Department of Forest Sciences, P.O. Box 27, FI-00014 University of Helsinki, Finland

[4]Institute for Atmospheric and Earth System Research/Forest Sciences, Faculty of Agriculture and Forestry, P.O. Box 64, FI-00014 University of Helsinki, Finland

[5]Institute for Atmospheric and Earth System Research, Faculty of Science, P.O. Box 64, FI-00014 University of Helsinki,
15 Finland

Correspondence to: Marja-Liisa Riekkola (marja-liisa.riekkola@helsinki.fi)

Abstract. Primary biological aerosol particles (PBAPs) play an important role in the interaction between biosphere, atmosphere and climate, affecting cloud and precipitation formation processes. The presence of pollen, plant fragments, spores, bacteria, algae and viruses in PBAPs is well known. In order to explore the complex interrelationships between airborne and particulate chemical traces (amino acids, saccharides), gene copy numbers (16S and 18S for bacteria and fungi, respectively), gas phase chemistry and the particle size distribution, 84 size-segregated aerosol samples from four particle size fractions (< 1.0, 1.0–2.5 µm, 2.5–10 µm and > 10 µm) were collected at the SMEAR II station, Finland in autumn 2017. The gene copy numbers and size distribution of bacteria, *Pseudomonas* and fungi in biogenic aerosols were determined by DNA extraction and amplification. In addition, free amino acids (19) and saccharides (8) were analyzed in aerosol samples by hydrophilic interaction liquid chromatography -mass spectrometry (HILIC-MS). Different machine learning (ML) approaches, such as cluster analysis, discriminant analysis, neural network and multiple linear regression (MLR) were used for the clarification of several aspects related to the composition of biogenic aerosols. Clear variations were observed for their composition as a function of the particle size. In most cases, the highest concentration values, gene copy numbers in the case of microbes, were observed for 2.5–10 µm particles followed by > 10 µm, 1–2.5 µm and < 1.0 µm. In addition, different variables related to the air and soil temperature, the UV radiation and the amount of water in the soil affected the composition of biogenic aerosols. From the used ML approaches, especially MLR clearly improved the interpretation of the results achieved by classical statistical approaches such as Pearson correlation. In all the cases, the explained variance was over 91%. The great variability of the samples hindered the clarification of common patterns in the evaluation of the relation between the presence of microbes and the chemical composition of biogenic aerosols. Finally, positive correlations were observed between the gas phase VOCs, such as acetone, toluene, methanol, 2-methyl-3-buten-2-ol, and the gene copy numbers of the microbes in biogenic aerosols.

1 Introduction

Primary biological aerosol particles (PBAPs) can be defined as solid airborne particles directly emitted by the biosphere into the atmosphere (Després et al., 2012). PBAPs constitute, expressed as mass concentration percentages, 30% of the coarse particle fraction in urban and rural air (Fröhlich-Nowoisky et al., 2016), up to 65% at boreal forest (Manninen et al., 2014) and even 80% in the case of the tropical forests (Elbert et al., 2007;Pöschl et al., 2010). PBAPs include both dead and alive microorganisms (i.e. algae, archaea, bacteria, fungi and viruses), fragments or excretions from plants and animals (i.e. plant debris and brochosomes) and dispersal units (i.e fungal spores and plant pollen) (Després et al., 2012;Šantl-Temkiv et al., 2020).

Large aerosol particles are usually removed from the atmosphere, close to the emission area by dry deposition (Pöschl, 2005). However, smaller ones have a relatively long residence time in air allowing their transport over long distances and interaction processes (Després et al., 2012). The role of PBAPs in atmosphere can be very important affecting cloud and precipitation formation processes by acting as cloud (CCN) and ice nuclei (IN) (Morris et al., 2011). However, their role is still poorly understood because the sources and distribution of PBAPs in the atmosphere are not well quantified. Thus, to clarify their atmospheric transport and ecosystem interactions, characterization and identification of chemical and microbial constituents in PBAPs are needed (Spracklen and Heald, 2014).

Chemical tracers, such as free amino acids and saccharides, have been traditionally used for the determination of particles of biological origin (Bauer et al., 2008;Helin et al., 2017). Free amino acids (AAs) are one of the most abundant compounds in bioaerosols and they are also important markers for deposition and atmospheric transport (Barbaro et al., 2011). Emission of AAs has been associated with the degradation of bacterial and biological materials (i.e. plants, pollens, algae, fungi and bacterial spores, etc.), but they can be also related to volcanic emissions and compounds from combustion (Dittmar et al., 2001;Ge et al., 2011). The exact impact of amino acids in the atmosphere is barely known, but there might be relation to the climate change and the atmospheric radiation balance (Chan et al., 2005). In addition, AAs can react with other oxidants present in the atmosphere acting as pollutant scavenger or seeds for secondary aerosols (Haan et al., 2009;Zhang and Anastasio, 2001).

Saccharides, frequently found in both urban and rural air (Yan et al., 2019), as primary saccharides (mono and disaccharides), saccharide polyols (reduced sugars) and/or anhydrosaccharide derivatives (especially levoglucosan), are often used as tracers for biomass burning (Samaké et al., 2019a;Samaké et al., 2019b). However, they are also closely related to fungal activity (Wan and Yu, 2007). In this way, fungal saccharide emissions can correlate with several factors, such as temperature, carbon, nutrient and oxygen availability (Pasanen et al., 1999). In addition, several studies have demonstrated the role of saccharides in the formation of clouds, ice nuclei and regional climate change (Goldstein and Nobel, 1991;Goldstein and Nobel, 1994;Krog et al., 1979).

Determination of chemical tracers in aerosol samples has clear advantages in qualitative analysis (Rathnayake et al., 2017;Staton et al., 2015). However, this approach provides very little information about the microbiological characterization of PBAPs (Gosselin et al., 2016;Zhu et al., 2015). Classical techniques such as cultivation and microscopy, are widely used for the clarification of the different microbial groups present in the samples and can provide information limited to viable and cultivable cells (Després et al., 2012;Manninen et al., 2014). Additional information, about uncultivable or dead microorganisms, as well as fragments of plant and animal cells can be obtained using molecular

genetic analysis techniques, such as quantitative polymerase chain reaction (qPCR) or next-generation sequencing (NGS) (Després et al., 2012).

Viruses have been frequently found attached to airborne particles (Yang et al., 2011). In this way, PBAPs might be considered a potential route of viruses' infection and transmission (Pica and Bouvier, 2012). However, unlike other living organism such as bacteria, fungi and algae; viruses have not repair systems and their inactivation in the atmosphere under the influence of different environmental factors (changes in temperature, relative humidity, solar radiation, etc.) should not be discarded (Després et al., 2012).

Bacteria, typical size range from 0.6 to 7.0 µm, can be found in the atmosphere as individual cells, attached to other particles or as an agglomerate (Lighthart, 1997). Bacterial air emission depends on many factors such as seasonality, meteorological factors, variability of bacterial sources and anthropogenic influence (Fang et al., 2018;Innocente et al., 2017). Detailed aerosol–cloud models have shown that bacteria can alter the properties of clouds if present in sufficiently high number concentrations (Phillips et al., 2009). In addition, especially bacteria from genus *Pseudomonas* have been shown to participate in cloud formation by functioning as ice nuclei (Huffman et al., 2013).

Fungi, fungal spores, and their fragments are one of the most common components of PBAPs (Crawford et al., 2009). They have a common size range between 0.5 and 15 µm but also larger spores can be detected depending on environmental conditions, fungal species or age of the sporocarp (Huffman et al., 2010). Their role in the environment is of critical importance because many species can act as plant pathogens or trigger respiratory diseases and allergenic processes in humans (Reinmuth-Selzle et al., 2017). In addition, global and regional models have been used to evaluate fungal spore emissions, transport and their impact on the hydrological cycle by acting as CCN and IN (Spracklen and Heald, 2014).

There are very few places where the airborne and particulate chemical and molecular genetic tracers, detailed gas phase chemistry and the particle size distribution can be simultaneously observed in field conditions. Even though the observations of concentrations and distribution of different PBAPs are accumulating, there is still lack of a comprehensive understanding of the processes behind the different observations and on detailed chemical characterisation of the particles. In our previous study (Helin et al., 2017), amino acids, bacteria and fungi were determined in aerosol samples collected at the SMEAR II station to establish seasonal variations and size distributions. Additionally, the effect of a few local meteorological factors and potential emission sources was also evaluated.

In this study, 84 size-segregated aerosol samples of four particle size fractions (< 1 µm, 1–2.5 µm, 2.5–10 µm and > 10 µm) were collected at the SMEAR II station (Station for Measuring forest Ecosystem-Atmosphere Relations, (Hari and Kulmala, 2005)) in Southern Finland in autumn 2017. The data from the SMEAR II station allows comparisons with >1200 simultaneously observed parameters from the forested ecosystem and the boundary layer, and thus provides a unique opportunity for comprehensive analysis of interrelationships. Concentrations of chemical compounds (amino acids and saccharides) were determined by hydrophilic interaction liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry (HILIC-MS) and microbes gene copy numbers (bacteria, fungi and *Pseudomonas)* and total DNA concentrations by DNA extraction and amplification. Different statistical tools, including classical techniques and machine learning (ML) approaches such as cluster analysis (CA), discriminant analysis (DA) and neural networks (NN) were used to clarify the relationship between particle size, environmental and meteorological conditions and the composition of biogenic aerosols. Pearson correlation and multiple linear regression (MLR) were used for the elucidation of possible microbial biomarkers in biogenic aerosol particles. Finally, the potential connections between gas phase VOCs and the microbiological

115   composition of the biogenic aerosol particles, bacterial, fungal or *Pseudomonas* gene copy numbers were also evaluated using CA, DA and MLR.

2 Experimental section

2.1 Materials and reagents

120   Detailed information of materials and reagents is given in the electronic supplemental file (S1).

2.2 Instruments and apparatus

Aerosol samples were collected using a Dekati PM10 impactor (Dekati Ltd, Kangasala, Finland) which allows the simultaneous sampling of four particle size fractions (< 1.0, 1–2.5 µm, 2.5–10 µm and > 10 µm). 25 mm polycarbonate

125   membranes from Whatman Nuclepore (Global Life Sciences Solutions, Pittsburgh, PA, USA) filters were used for the collection of the three largest particle size fractions. A 47 mm Teflon filter (Gelman Sciences LTD., Port Washington, NY, USA), smeared with diluted Apiezon L vacuum grease (Apiezon, Manchester, United Kingdom) to prevent bouncing, was used for the collection of the < 1.0 µm particles. A Branson 5510R-MT Ultrasonic Cleaner (Marshall Scientific, Hampton, NH, USA) was used for the extraction of saccharides and free amino acids from the filters.

130   An Agilent 1260 Infinity HPLC system (Agilent Technologies, Palo Alto, CA, USA) furnished with a SeQuant® ZIC®-cHILIC column (150 mm x 2.1 mm i.d., pore size 100 Å, 3 µm particle size) from MERCK coupled with an Agilent 6420 triple quadrupole mass spectrometer equipped with an electrospray ion source (Agilent Technologies), was used for the individual isolation and determination of amino acids and saccharides in a single HILIC-MS analysis. A KrudKatcherTM ULTRA HPLC In-Line Filter (0.5 mm) from Phenomenex (Phenomenex Inc., Torrance, CA, USA) was used to protect

135   the column from potential particulate impurities.

Volatile organic compounds (VOCs) were measured by a high-sensitivity Proton-Transfer-Reaction Mass Spectrometer (PTR-MS, Ionicon Analytik GmbH, Innsbruck, Austria). The proton transfer reaction quadrupole mass spectrometer measured 13 different masses using a 2.0 s sampling time. Samples, were collected at 8.4 m above the ground level inside the canopy, continuous airflow was (43 L min^{-1}), were drawn down to the instrument using a heated 157 m line (14 mm

140   i.d. PTFE tubing). From this line, a side flow of 0.1 L min^{-1} was transferred to PTR-MS via a 4 m PTFE tube with 1.6 mm i.d. The instrumental background was determined every third hour by measuring VOC free air, produced with a zero air generator (Parker ChromGas, model 3501).

2.3 Sampling place and aerosol sampling

145   Samples and measurements were collected/conducted at the SMEAR II station in Hyytiälä, southern Finland (61°51′N, 24°17′E, in autumn 2017 (4.09.2017-22.11.2017). The SMEAR II station is located in the middle of a forest that consists mostly of Scots pine (*Pinus sylvestris L.*) trees (Hari et al., 2013). In addition to Scots pine, there are some Norway spruce (*Picea abies*) and broadleaved trees such as European aspen (*Populus tremula*) and birch (*Betula sp.*). The forest is about 50-years old and the canopy height is currently ca. 18 m. SMEAR II is classified as a rural measurement station and there

150   are no large pollution sources near the station. The nearest larger cities, Tampere (220 000 inhabitants) and Jyväskylä (140 000 inhabitants), are located about 60 km and 100 km from the measurement station. Otherwise, there are no large pollution sources nearby the station.

84 aerosol samples from 4 different particle size fractions (21 from each) were collected using the device and filters described in the previous section. The sampling inlet was placed 5 m above the ground, sampling flow rate was on average

155   30 L min^{-1} and the collection time was approximately 48 h (sampling volume 89–94 m^3). Additional information about the samples including sampling period and volume can be found in Table S1. After collection, filters were stored at –20°C inside a closed polystyrene Petri dish covered with aluminum foil. Before analysis, filters were cut into 2 pieces. One half was submitted to microbiological characterization of the samples by DNA extraction and amplification; and the second half was used for the simultaneous determination of amino acids and saccharides.

160

2.4 Chemical and microbiological characterization of the aerosol samples

The methods used for the chemical and microbiological characterization of the samples are based on those, described by Helin et al. in 2017 with some modifications. These changes are mainly related to the analytical procedure applied for the simultaneous determination of amino acids and saccharides.

165   ### 2.4.1 Microbiological characterization

Total nucleic acids were extracted from the half of the filter selected for the microbiological evaluation using a commercial DNA extraction kit (PowerWater DNA Isolation Kit, MoBio Laboratories, USA). Briefly, DNA in the filters was extracted by 30 min incubation at 65 °C, using 1 mL of pre-warmed lysis buffer as extractant, and subsequent homogenization, vortexing horizontally for 2.5 min. The remaining steps were carried out according to the supplier´s

170   protocol, and the DNA was eluted with 100µl of 10 mM Tris. The extracted DNA was further concentrated by precipitating it with 5µl of 3 M NaCl and 200 µl of 99% cold ethanol at –20°C for an hour before centrifugation at 10 000 × g for 5min. The liquid was decanted and the pellet was dried in ambient air before re-dissolving the DNA to 50µl of 10 mM Tris. The DNA concentration and purity was measured fluorometrically with Qubit 2.0 Fluorometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). The DNA samples were stored at −20 °C prior to qPCR.

175   The qPCR reactions were carried out with Bio-Rad CFX96 iCycler on 96-well white polypropylene plates (Bio-Rad, USA). The amounts of bacterial 16S and fungal 18S ribosomal DNA in the samples were quantified with qPCR using target-specific primer pairs, Eub338F and Eub518R (Fierer et al., 2005), and FF390 and FR1 (Vainio and Hantula, 2000). Genus-specific primers, Eub338F (Fierer et al., 2005) and PseudoR (Purohit et al., 2003), were utilized to detect the bacteria belonging to the genus *Pseudomonas*. The selected qPCR reaction conditions were similar as in Helin et al.

180   (2017). From each DNA sample and standard, three technical replicates were prepared, and from each master mix three negative controls were analyzed. The bacterial and Pseudomonas genus specific reaction mixtures, 20 µL final reaction volume adjusted with nuclease-free water, contained SsoAdvanced universal SYBR Green supermix (Bio-Rad, USA) at final concentration of 1x, 5 µL of template DNA, 250 nM of forward and reverse primers. The same reaction mixture was used for fungal primers. In this case, 250 nM was the concentration of FF390 and 200 nM that of FR1 primers.

185   Manufacturer´s protocol, combining annealing and extension, was followed for the development of qPCR reactions. In this case, different conditions and times were used for bacteria and fungi (55 °C, 30 s for bacterial and Pseudomonas primers, and 60°C, 45 s for fungal primers). In all the cases, fluorescent measurements during the elongation step were

used for the quantitation. Specifically, 1.5 % (w/v) agarose gel (BioTop) and 0.3 % (w/v) ethidium bromide (Sigma-Aldrich) were used for the analysis and visualization under UV-light of the qPCR products. In the bacterial and *Pseudomonas*-specific qPCR reactions, standard curves were generated with DNA extracted from *Pseudomonas fluorescens* H-27 (Hambi culture collection, University of Helsinki), and for the fungal-specific qPCR, the DNA from the whole-genome-sequenced Phlebia radiata FBCC43 (FBCC culture collection, University of Helsinki) was used (Kuuskeri et al., 2016). Results, expressed as gene copies, were normalized by the total amount of sampled air.

In addition to the actual samples, we extracted DNA from eight blank filters, determined their DNA concentrations and used the extracts as templates in qPCR. All the blank filters were below detection limit in both DNA concentration assay with Qubit as well as in all of three qPCR assays.

2.4.2 Chemical characterization

For determination of amino acids and saccharides, half of the filters were spiked with internal standard solutions and transferred to a test tubes for extraction assisted with ultrasounds at room temperature using 0.1% formic acid as extraction solvent. Three extraction cycles (2 mL (15 min), 2 mL (10 min) and 1 mL (10 min)) were needed to ensure the complete extraction of the analytes. After removal of lipids and other non-polar interferences by liquid-liquid extraction (1 mL of hexane as extractant), the aqueous phase, approximatively of 5 mL, was concentrated to 1 mL with a gentle flow of nitrogen at 50 °C. A final centrifugation step was used to eliminate all possible non-soluble particles before analysis. The samples were stored at 4 °C and analyzed within 72 hours. Blank filters were processed simultaneously with the real samples and used for the correction of the results.

The developed HILIC method allowed the simultaneous determination of amino acids and saccharides in the extracts. The column temperature was set to 50°C. The mobile phase A was acetonitrile with 0.1% formic acid, and the mobile phase B was MQ water with 0.1% formic acid. The separation of the target analytes was performed using following gradient program: 20% B for 15 min (0.4 mL min^{-1}), 20-80% B for 5 min (0.3 mL min^{-1}), followed by 80-20% B for 3 min (0.3 mL min^{-1}). The total analysis time was 23 min, with 12 min being required to re-establish the initial conditions. The injection volume was 3 µL. The entire effluent was fed to electrospray source for ionization (ESI; positive and negative mode for amino acids and sugars, respectively) and monitored by MS^2 detection in multiple reaction monitoring mode (MRM), with the exception of levoglucosan analyzed in selected ion monitoring mode. Ionization conditions and MRM parameters for the different compounds are found from Table S2 and S3. Results were normalized by the total amount of sampled air.

2.5 Additional background data

Meteorological and environmental parameters are continuously measured at the SMEAR II station and the data are available from the AVAA portal (Junninen et al., 2009). From all the data available, more than 1200 simultaneously observed parameters from the forested ecosystem and the boundary layer, 41 parameters, including aerosol parameters, concentration of atmospheric gases, meteorological and environmental data, were selected for further statistical analysis. Detailed information about these variables is described in supplementary information (Table S4). Data from the portal (half-hourly averaged) were further averaged according to each sampling time-period by using arithmetic mean.

Volatile Organic Compounds (VOCs) were measured by a high-sensitivity Proton-Transfer-Reaction Mass Spectrometer. Detailed information of the instrument used for the measurements, the measured masses, the potential relation between these mases and individual VOCs and the instrumental calibration are found from instruments and apparatus section and the electronic supplemental file S2.

2.6 Statistical analysis

A number of R, version 3.6.3, tools were used in this research for statistical analysis (Team, 2019). Standardized Skewness and Kurtosis tests were used for the evaluation of the data distribution normality. Additional logarithmic transformation was needed to ensure normal data distribution of the input variables. Variables quantified in less than one fourth of the samples ($N < 5$) were not considered for further statistical analysis.

Pearson product moment correlations were evaluated between each pair of variables (normal distributed data) to measure the strength of their linear relationship. P-values were used to evaluate the statistical significance of the estimated correlations. P-values ≤ 0.05 indicate statistically significant non-zero correlations at 95% confidence level.

Cluster analysis, a ML tool based on non-supervised pattern recognition approach, was used to group the samples into clusters according to the similarities in the meteorological and environmental data. The different variables used for the development of the model are listed in Table S4. In addition, samples were also grouped according to the gas phase emissions of VOCs. In all the cases, furthest neighbour method and squared Euclidean distance were utilized for model development.

Linear discriminant analysis and probabilistic NN, based on Bayesian classifiers, ML algorithms were used to clarify the seasonal distribution of chemical compounds and microbes in biogenic aerosol particles. The concentration of amino acids and saccharides (expressed as ng m^{-3}), the amount of bacteria, *Pseudomonas* and fungi (as gene-copy numbers m^{-3}); and the total amount of DNA in the samples (as ng m^{-3}) were used as input variables. These ML algorithms, DA and NN, were also used to elucidate potential connections between gas phase VOCs and the microbiological composition of the biogenic aerosol particles and the particle size on aerosol composition.

Multiple linear regression, via backward stepwise selection to remove non-statistically significant variables, was used to identify potential microbial biomarkers in airborne particles. The same approach was selected for the clarification of potential gas phase VOCs connections to the microbiological composition of biogenic aerosols. The amount of bacteria, *Pseudomonas* and fungi, expressed as gene copy numbers m^{-3}, was used as dependent variable in all the cases. The concentration of amino acids and saccharides in the samples (expressed as ng m^{-3}) and the concentration of gas phase VOCs (expressed as ppbv) were used as independent variables. Different parameters were used for the evaluation of the MLR models. P-value will determine a statistically significant relationship between the variables at the 95.0% confidence level. The explained variance of the data was provided by the R^2 values. Finally, the residuals of the model were evaluated using the standard error of the estimate, the mean absolute error and the Durbin-Watson test, which allows the elucidation of the prediction limit for new observations the average value and the potential autocorrelation between the residuals, respectively.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1 Analytical features of the methods used for chemical and microbiological analysis of the biogenic aerosol samples

The analytical approach used for the chemical characterization of the biogenic aerosol particles allowed the simultaneous determination of free amino acids and saccharides in a single HILIC-MS run. Typical chromatograms obtained for standard solutions and natural samples, the features of the method (regression coefficient, linear range, LOD and LOQ), extraction recoveries and the effect of the sample matrix in the results are found from electronic supplementary information (Figure S1 and Tables S5–S7).

Good linearities were achieved for all the analytes under study. In addition, linear ranges of at least two orders of magnitude were achieved for most of the compounds under study. Tryptophan (Trp) gave the shortest linear range, one order of magnitude and glutamine (Gln), arginine (Arg) and fructose that of three order of magnitude. Detection limits were calculated for each compound using the standard deviation of the estimate and the slope values (Shrivastava and Gupta, 2011). In the case of free amino acids, LODs ranged between 0.01 (Arg) and 0.04 (Histidine (His)) ng m^{-3}. Similar results were also achieved for saccharides whose LODs ranged between 0.01 (arabitol) and 0.05 (fructose) ng m^{-3} (Table S5).

Recovery experiments were done using the approach proposed by Helin et al. in 2017. Extraction recoveries ranged from 73% (Tyrosine (Tyr)) to 134% (Serine (Ser)) for AAs, and from 82% (mannitol) to 125% (levoglucosan) for saccharides (Table S6).

A pool of samples containing different particle sizes (1.0–2.5 µm and > 10 µm particles), spiked at three different concentration levels (8, 77 and 111 ng of each analyte), were used to establish the accuracy of the method and the potential matrix effects on the ionization. Average recoveries from 93.5% (Gln) to 116.4% (Asparagine (Asn)) and from 80.3% (fructose) to 99.6% (inositol) were obtained for amino acids and saccharides, respectively (Table S7).

In addition, the detection limit of the Qubit method for the determination of the total amount of DNA in the biogenic aerosol particles was 0.51 ng of DNA/filter.

3.2 Chemical and microbiological composition of the biogenic aerosol particles

Results achieved for the chemical and microbiological characterization of the biogenic aerosol particles collected from the SMEAR II station in 2017 are shown in Figure 1 and Tables S8-S11. For total biogenic aerosol particles, the average concentration ranged between 0.3 (Trp) to 9.4 (Gln) ng m^{-3} for AAs and between, 1.3 (inositol) and 19.0 (mannitol) ng m^{-3} for saccharides. In addition, the average gene copies numbers m^{-3} for bacteria, *Pseudomonas* and fungi were 72, 3.3 and 134.0, respectively. Finally, the average total DNA concentration was 0.05 ng m^{-3}. These values are relatively low in comparison with those found in our previous research (Helin et al., 2017) and other publications. Specifically the values obtained for the total DNA concentration and the bacteria gene copy numbers are below the ranges reported in the literature. However, these results might be explained considering the climatic conditions/meteorological variables. As can be seen in Table S12, the total number of particles in 2017 was around a half of that in 2014 supporting the difference between the results for genes copies m^{-3}. Namely, in Finland the annual variation in air microbial concentrations can be

very high due to large differences in seasonal weather conditions. Helin et at. also reported low concentration/gene copy numbers for the samples collected during winter season. Additionally, the use of the same sample for chemical and DNA analysis, dividing the filter into two equal pieces, might affect the detection limit of the method used of DNA analysis due to the use of a lower amount of sample, but not affect the values achieved for gene copy numbers m^{-3}.

In general, the number and concentration of saccharides and amino acids as well as gene copy numbers increased with particle size until 10 µm. A detailed study of the results found for the smallest, i.e. < 1.0 µm particles, reveals that bacteria and fungi were present in almost all the samples. However, *Pseudomonas* was found just in 50% of them. In addition, the total DNA concentration was under the LOQ for 66% of the samples. The average gene copy numbers of bacteria were higher than fungi. The chemical composition of < 1.0 µm particles was quite simple in comparison with bigger particle sizes. Just five free amino acids, alanine (Ala), glutamic acid (Glu), glycine (Gly), valine (Val) and proline (Pro) were found at least in 70% of the samples. From these, Gly and Pro were at the highest and lowest concentration, respectively. The relevance of saccharides was very limited in this fraction, only arabitol and mannitol were found in approximately half of the samples. These results are in good agreement with those found for remote source aerosol particles (Scalabrin et al., 2012).

In the case of mid-size range, i.e. 1.0–2.5 µm particles, the total concentration of DNA was over the LOQ at least in 50% of the samples. In addition, compared to < 1.0 µm particles the chemical complexity of the samples clearly increased. Arabitol, mannitol and trehalose were found at least in 70% of the samples. Mannitol and trehalose were the saccharides present at the highest concentration. A detailed examination of the results for free amino acids showed the presence of two different groups as a function of the detection frequency in the samples under study. Gln and Glu, Arg, Ala, Pro and phenylalanine (Phe) were detected at least in 70% of the samples. However, His was found only in 50% of them. Finally, Gln and Phe were the amino acids found with the highest and lowest concentration, respectively.

Microbiological results gave clear differences between the large particles, i.e. 2.5–10.0 µm particles and the other size classes. Exceptionally high ribosomal 18S gene copy numbers were determined for fungi and total DNA in all the samples. The results provided by the chemical analysis of the samples demonstrated a clear increase in the number of saccharides (7) and free amino acids (11) found at least in 70% of the samples, compared with the smaller size classes. Also in these particles mannitol and trehalose were the saccharides detected with the highest concentration. In addition, Arg and Trp were the amino acids with the highest and the lowest concentration, respectively. These results, including those achieved for 1.0–2.5 µm particles, are in good agreement with those reported previously for aerosol particles collected from the SMEAR II station (Helin et al., 2017).

Finally, the microbiological analysis of largest particle size class, i.e. > 10 µm particles showed that bacteria, fungi and total DNA were above LOQ in all the samples under study. As observed for smaller sizes, the 16S gene copy numbers of bacteria were higher than those of fungi also in this size class. In addition, *Pseudomonas* were detected just in 40% of the samples. Focusing on the chemical analysis, the number of saccharides detected at least in 70% of the samples decreased to 4 in comparison with the 2.5–10.0 µm particles where 7 saccharides were detected. This can be explained by considering a clear decrease of the fungi ribosomal 18S gene copy numbers in ≥ 10 µm particles and the role of saccharides as typical fungal markers (Bauer et al., 2008). However, the number of amino acids present at least in 70 % of the samples remained the same (11) as in smaller particles. In this case, Trp and leucine (Leu) were the amino acids with the highest and the lowest concentration, respectively. Leu is one of the most abundant AAs in plants, which could indicate its
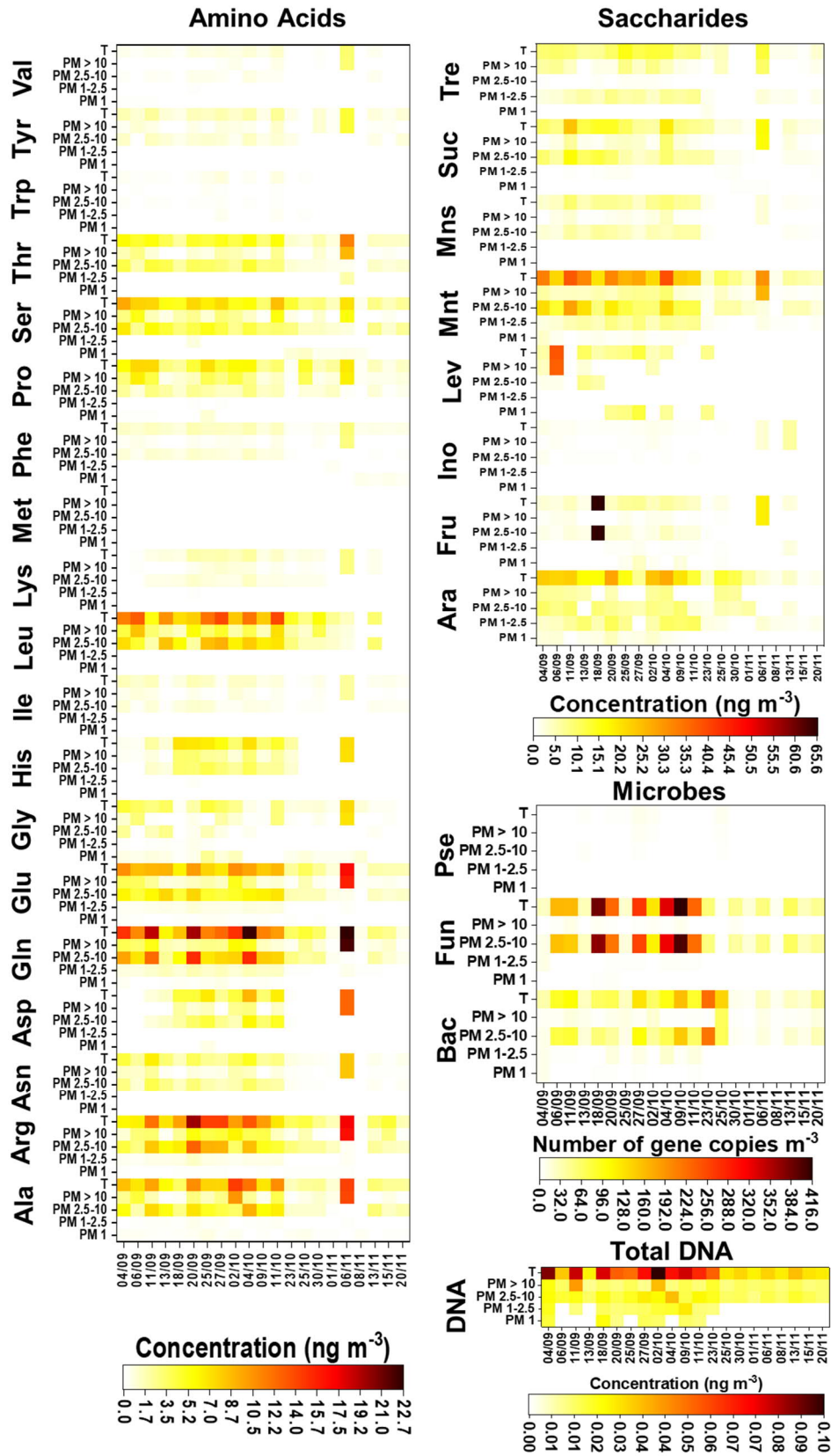
Figure 1. Chemical and microbiological composition of the analyzed filters. Start sampling day was represented in x-axis. Bac, bacteria; Pse, *Pseudomonas*; and Fun, fungi.

340 participation in > 10 µm particles though plant debris and pollen grains emissions to the air (Mashayekhy Rad et al., 2019;Nicolson and Human, 2013).

3.3 Evaluation of the relationship between the particle size and the composition of biogenic aerosol particles

The relationship between different particle sizes for the microbial groups and chemical compounds detected in biogenic
345 airborne particles was evaluated using two different statistical approaches. The first one, based on classical correlation (Pearson), was used to find statistically significant relations between the particle sizes for the individual species (chemical and microbial). The concentration of the individual compounds, number of gene copies for the microbes, determined for the different particle sizes were used as variables. The second method allowed the clarification of potential variations on the composition of biogenic aerosol particles with different sizes based on the use of microbiological and chemical
350 profiles. This approach required the use of more complex statistical algorithms (ML approaches) such as, DA and NN. In this case, 84 samples were divided into training and validation sets, containing 68 (80%) and 16 (20%) samples, respectively. These sets were used for development of the models and subsequent unbiased evaluation, respectively.

The evaluation of the potential correlations between different particle sizes, using as variables the individual chemicals and microbes, can be useful to identify the presence of a common emission source and/or the participation of these
355 compounds and microbes in the growth of the biogenic aerosol particles. However, a surprisingly low number of correlations were found between the different particle sizes for the individual compounds and microbial groups under study (Figure S2). None of the evaluated variables, chemical or microbial, provided simultaneous correlations between all the particles sizes under study. In addition, the highest number of correlations between particle sizes were achieved for fungi and Gln. In both cases, it was possible to find correlations between the samples with a particle size shorter than
360 10 µm. Additional correlations for different compounds were observed between 1.0–2.5 µm and 2.5–10.0 µm particles (Figure S2).

Discriminant analysis was able to provide correct classification of 61 (89.7%) and 14 (87.5%) of the samples included in the training and validation sets, respectively, demonstrating a clear relationship between the particle size and the biogenic aerosol particle composition. A detailed study of the influence of the variables on the model indicated three different
365 trends (Figure 2). The first, found for *Pseudomonas* 16S gene copy numbers, inositol, His and Pro, showed an increase of the concentration (gene copy numbers in the case of *Pseudomonas*) with the particle size. The second, observed for levoglucosan and Gly revealed the highest concentrations for the smallest particle size (< 1 µm) and then a drop to the lowest concentration values for 1.0–2.5 µm particles followed by a progressive increase of the concentration with the particle size. The last one, found for most of the compounds and the microbial groups, gave the highest concentration
370 values for 2.5–10 µm particles followed by > 10 µm and 1–2.5 µm. The concentrations of the different chemicals and gene copy numbers of microbial groups in the latter, 1–2.5 µm, were higher or at least similar to that achieved in the smallest particle size under study (< 1 µm) with some exceptions.

The use of a more complex ML algorithm such as NN for the classification of the samples allowed the correct classification of 52 (76.5%) and 12 (75.0%) of the samples included in the training and validation sets, respectively. The
375 relative limited number of samples used for the development of the different models have a clear influence on their classification performance.
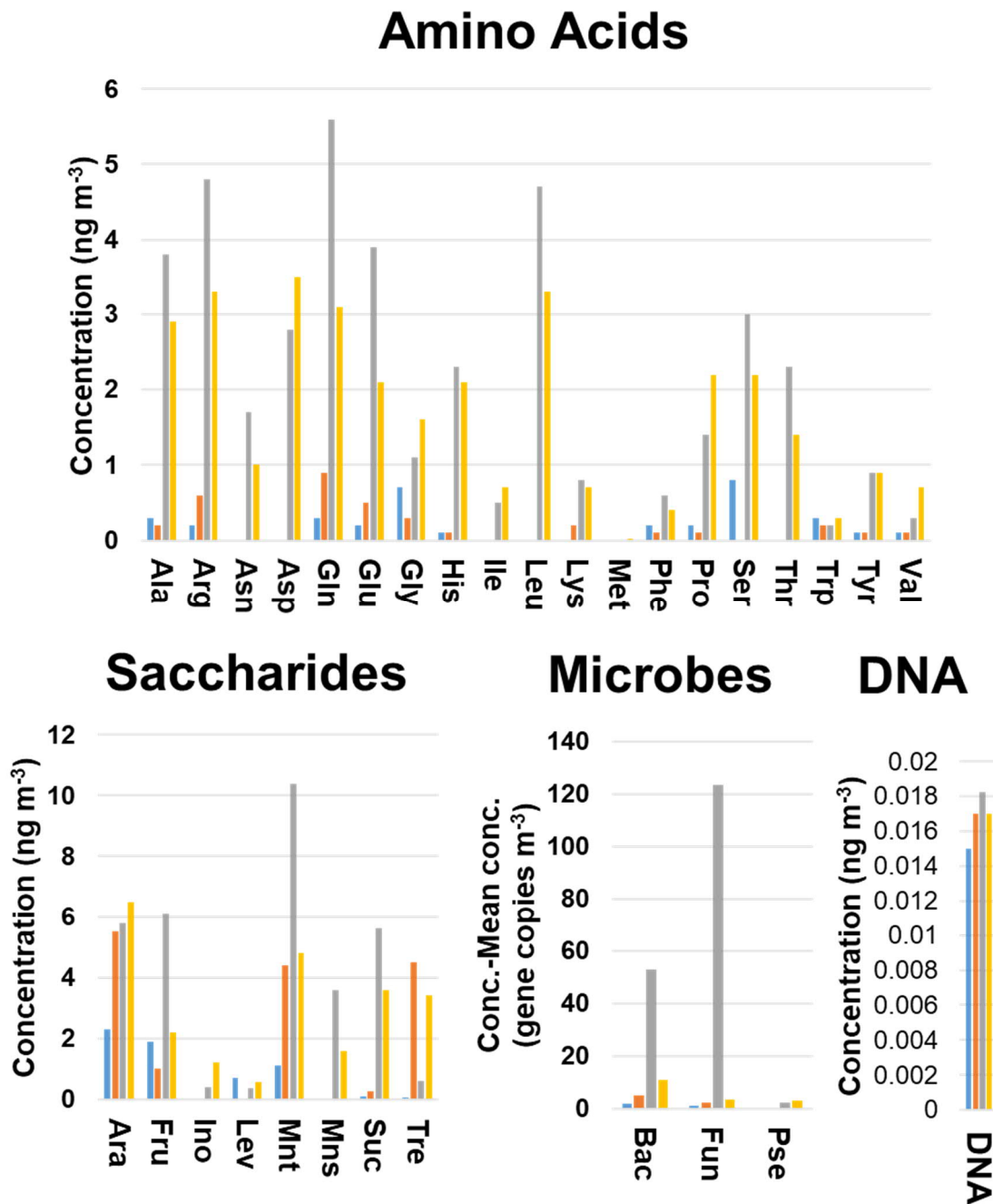
Figure 2. Comparison of the concentration profiles obtained for the different chemical and microbiological species and total DNA found in the filters as a function of the particle size. ■, < 1.0 µm particles; ■, 1.0–2.5 µm particles; ■, 2.5–10.0 µm particles; and ■, 10 > µm particles. Bac, bacteria; Pse, *Pseudomonas*; and Fun, fungi.

3.4 Seasonal distribution of chemical compounds and microbes in biogenic aerosol particles

The seasonal distribution of chemical compounds and microbes in the atmospheric biogenic aerosol particles was evaluated using a two-step approach.

First, samples were classified into different sampling periods according to the differences observed for the concentration of atmospheric gas, aerosol, meteorological and environmental parameters. From all the parameters, simultaneously monitored at the SMEAR II station (>1200) for the forested ecosystem and the boundary layer, 41 (Table S4) were selected as CA data input for the visualization of seasonal differences between samples. Farthest neighbour approach and squared Euclidean distance were applied for clustering. The final number of clusters, sample groups, was optimized according to the distribution provided by CA, avoiding the presence of clusters containing a very limited number of samples, which would hinder the development of additional statistical analysis (Table S13).

Two different sampling periods (clusters) were found for the campaign under study. The first period (group 1) contains 48 samples collected from 04 September to 13 October, 2017. The second period (group 2) consists of 36 samples collected from 23 October to 22 November, 2017. Differences between periods, based on the different variables used in this study, can be found in Figure S3. The main differences were observed for snow (M21) and water precipitations (M22), the temperature of both air (M14) and soil, the latter at different layers (M33–M36), the solar radiation (M23–M25) and other parameters such as evapotranspiration (M03), soil heat flux (M41) and gross primary production derived from net ecosystem exchange (M05). For these variables, the highest values were found for group 1 samples, with the exception of the snow precipitation.

Once differences between the different sampling periods were established, ML tools such as DA and Bayesian NN were used to clarify the seasonal distribution of chemical compounds and microbes in biogenic aerosol particles. Sample groups obtained from the previous step were used for the classification of the biogenic aerosol particles using their chemical and microbiological composition as input data. As stated in the previous section, samples (84) were divided into training and validation sets containing 68 (80.0%) and 16 (20.0%) samples, respectively. The performance (accuracy) of the supervised models was evaluated by cross validation using the training set. The rest of the samples formed the validation set that was used for the evaluation of the prediction capability of the models. In this way, the percentage of correct classified samples could be easily associated with a real differentiation of the samples into the selected groups based on the variables used for model development and their validity. This is especially important in the case of the validation set samples because they were not used in the model development. However, the presence of incorrectly classified samples, meaning samples not following the trend found for their group, could not be easily estimated using this approach. The incorrect classification could be related to experimental errors in the calculation of the chemical compounds and microbes, missing data, or the potential influence of meteorological and environmental variables not considered in this study.

Discriminant analysis provided the correct classification of 60 (88.2%) and 13 (81.2%) of the samples included in the training and validation sets, respectively. In addition, 5 (45.5%) of the samples incorrectly classified were found in < 1.0 µm particles. This could be explained by the limited information achieved for the chemical and microbiological composition of these samples (Figure 1). As can be seen from Figure 3, a clear trend was found for the average concentrations calculated for all the particle sizes under study. The gene copy numbers of bacteria and fungi, and concentration of chemical species were higher in the biogenic aerosol particles collected during Period 1 compared to Period 2. The same trend was observed for the individual particle sizes. These results are in good agreement with those recently found in the literature for the evaluation of the influence of environmental factors on ambient air concentrations of saccharides and microbes (Innocente et al., 2017;Samaké et al., 2019b). In addition, DA results were supported by the use of Bayesian NN for the classification of the samples allowing the correct classification of 49 (72.1%) and 10 (62.5%) of the samples included in the training and validation sets, respectively. From all the samples incorrectly classified, 11

(43.8%) of the samples belonged to < 1.0 μm particles. Once again, the classification performance of more complex
algorithms such as NN was clearly affected by the limited number of samples analyzed. The use of a larger dataset would
improve the reliability of these results.
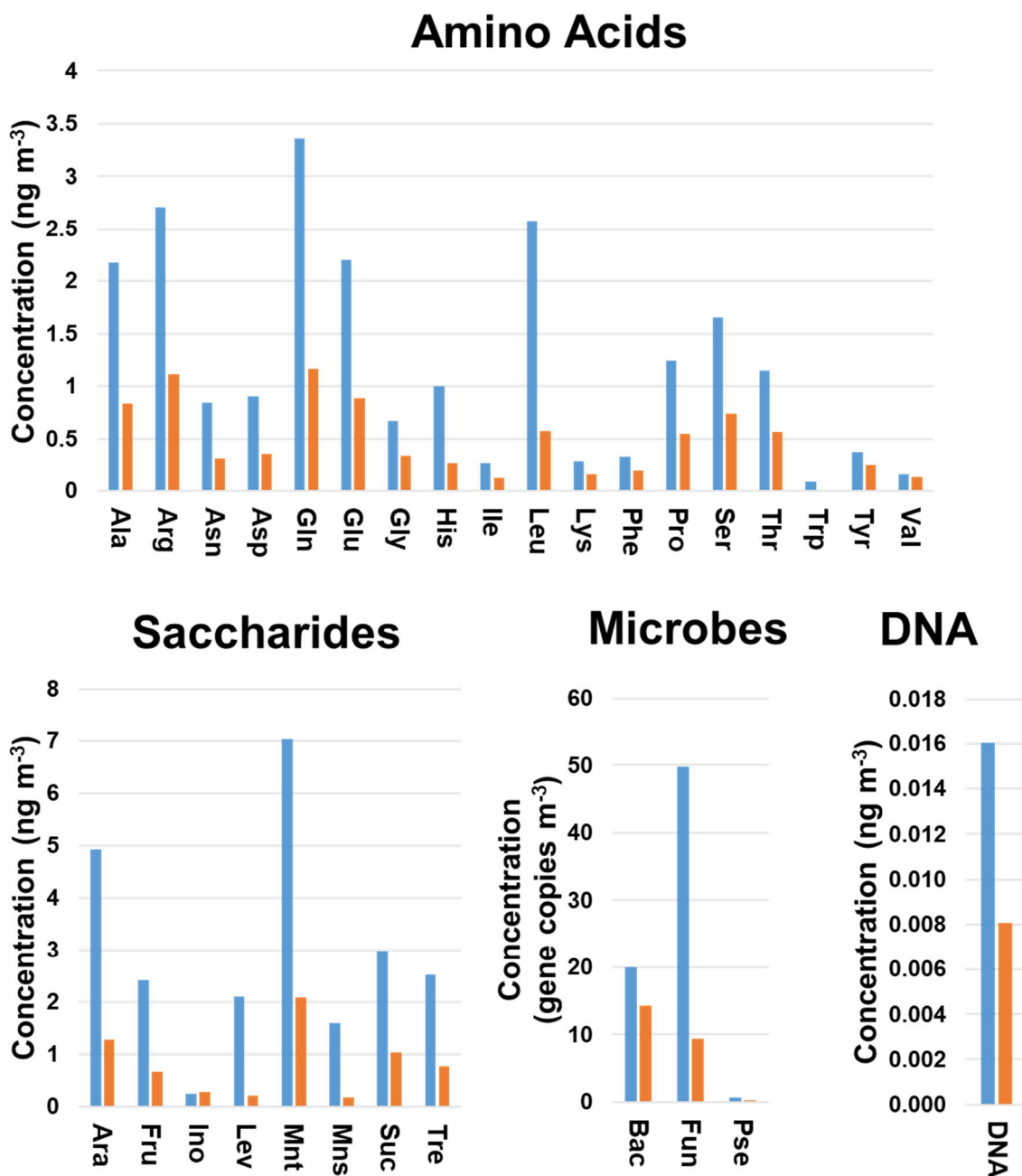
Figure 3. Differences in the chemical and microbiological composition of the biogenic aerosols according to the sampling
period. Average concentrations were calculated for all filter sizes analyzed. ■ Sampling period 1 (04.09.2017 to
13.10.2017) and ■ Sampling period 2 (23.10.2017 to 22.11.2017). Bac, bacteria; Pse, *Pseudomonas*; and Fun, fungi.

3.5 Identification of potential microbial biomarkers in biogenic aerosol particles

435 A simple way to elucidate biomarkers from microbes in biogenic aerosol particles might be the evaluation of the correlation between the concentration of the chemical species and the number of gene copies of multiple microbes in the biogenic aerosol particles. However, it is well known that different chemical compounds, such as saccharides and amino acids are produced and in some cases emitted to the atmosphere by microbes via metabolic activities (Bauer et al., 2008). Accordingly, it is extremely difficult to associate any specific correlation between the airborne microbe and the

440 atmospheric chemical compounds. The correlations achieved between the atmospheric compounds and the microbes might help to elucidate potential biomarkers for microbes in the airborne if the relation between the airborne microbes and their presence in the forest ecosystems, and the presence of multi-emission sources in the sampling place for the chemicals under study are considered. In this way, the unique and exceptional characteristics of the SMEAR II station, a remote measurement station with no large pollution sources nearby, minimizes the problems diverted from the latter.

445 Two different approaches, based on statistical analysis of the results, were selected for the elucidation of the chemical fingerprint from microbes in the biogenic aerosol particles. The first one, based on Pearson correlation, uses the individual microbial groups (bacteria, *Pseudomonas* and fungi) and chemical compounds as dependent and independent variables, respectively. The second one, based on MLR, uses the individual microbial groups as dependent variables and the chemical profiles, including AAs and saccharides, as independent variables.

450 The irregular occurrence of chemical compounds and microbes present in the biogenic aerosol particles of different sizes (Figure 1) hinders the development of general statistical models containing all the samples under study. Individual models for the different particle sizes were evaluated to minimize these problems. In addition, the limited number of samples used for the development of the different models (<20) could affect the reliability of the results, including their predictive capacity. However, these MLR models might be still useful for the identification of the potential microbial biomarkers in

455 the samples.

The results achieved for the Pearson correlations between chemical compounds and microbial groups (P-value < 0.05) can be seen in Figure S4. In the case of MLR, backward stepwise selection approach was used to remove non-statistically significant variables. This approach is especially relevant considering the potential limitations of MLR. As stated before, the concentration of the different amino acids (19) and sugars (8) present in the biogenic aerosol particles were used as

460 independent variables. When the number of independent variables was higher than the number of samples, the variables were split into two shorter batches, each of them containing 50% of the variables. Preliminary MLR models were developed to identify statistically significant variables, which were subsequently selected for the development of definitive equations. Detailed information of the different developed MLR models can be found in Figure 4 and Table S14.

465 The evaluation of Pearson correlations for < 1.0 μm particles (Figure S4) gave positive correlations between all the microbial groups and Pro. The simultaneous use of different AAs and saccharides for the development of the MLR equations clearly improved the results in comparison with Pearson correlation (Table S14). The evaluation of the statistically significant MLR coefficients (Figure 4) indicated clear correlations between the gene copy numbers of the microbial groups, the concentration of Pro (not for *Pseudomonas*) and different saccharides such as arabitol and fructose.

470 As stated before, saccharides are produced by biological sources like bacteria and fungi via metabolic activities (Bauer et

al., 2008). Specifically, arabitol is well known as fungal spore tracer (Jia and Fraser, 2011;Yang et al., 2012). In addition, Pro is a widely recognized degradation product of the organic matter by bacteria and fungi (Li, 2019).
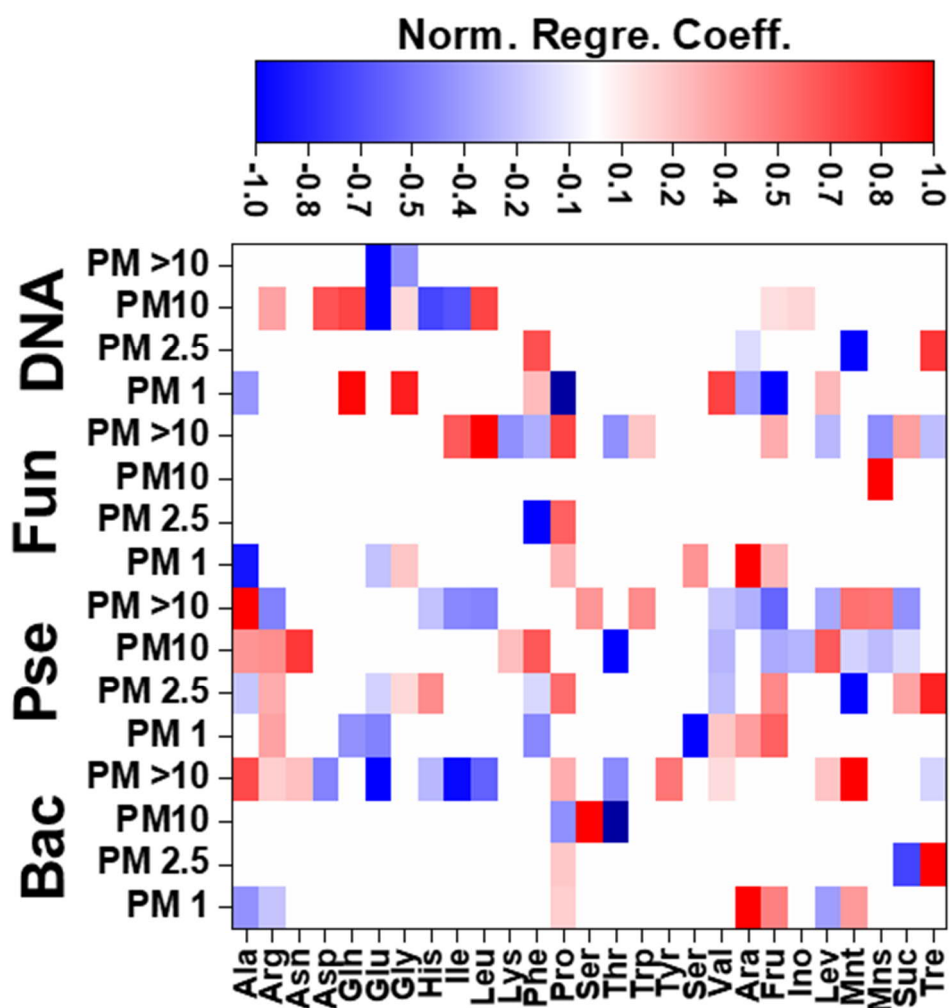
Figure 4. Normalized regression coefficient obtained for the MLR models developed for the potential elucidation of chemical fingerprints from microbes in the biogenic aerosol particles. Maximum normalization was applied in all the cases. Bac, bacteria; Pse, *Pseudomonas*; and Fun, fungi.

In the case of 1.0–2.5 µm particles, it should be emphasized that Pearson correlations indicated a clear negative correlation between the total DNA concentration and His (Figure S4). The role of His as catalyser to produce DNA double-strand breakage in presence of oxidants has been reported in the literature. This could affect the results reported for the DNA concentration in the samples (Cantoni et al., 1992). However, it is not possible to establish a relation between the concentration of His and the potential dead airborne microorganisms. Additional positive correlations were observed between microbial groups and Glu, Gln and mannitol. The first is a well-known fermentation by product of bacteria and fungi (Kinoshita et al., 2005). Mannitol, synthesized by plants, is released into bacteria and fungi during the degradation of the organic matter (Upadhyay et al., 2015). In addition, Gln, a metabolite of central importance in bacterial and fungal physiology, is the base of a large variety of nitrogen-containing compounds and close related with bacterial and fungal

ammonia assimilation (van Heeswijk et al., 2013). It should also be noted, that MLR clearly improved the correlation results in comparison with Pearson correlation (Table S14). The detailed evaluation of the regression coefficients (Figure 4) indicated that trehalose correlates with the 16S gene copy numbers of bacteria and *Pseudomonas*. Finally, Phe correlates with the gene copy numbers of *Pseudomonas* and fungi. The presence of trehalose has been reported as a microbial cellular component in a wide variety of microorganisms, including bacteria, yeast, fungi and insects (Elbein et al., 2003). Finally, microorganisms utilize Phe for the production of more complex compounds as cinnamic acid (Hyun et al., 2011).

The correlation between sucrose and the microbial groups could be of special interest. This saccharide has a key role in the symbiotic association between bacteria and fungi with plants (Vargas et al., 2009). The evaluation of the results, achieved from Pearson correlation studies in the case of 2.5–10.0 µm particles (Figure S4), gave a positive and weak correlation between bacteria, fungi, Gln and sucrose. This correlation was already observed for 1.0–2.5 µm particles. The use of more complex statistical approaches, such as MLR, could explain higher number of data variability in comparison with Pearson correlation (Table S14). The evaluation of the regression coefficients with a statistically significant influence on the MLR models (Figure 4) showed a clear correlation between mannose and the ribosomal 18S gene copy numbers of fungi. The role of mannose in fungi as cell wall component is very important, providing integrity and microbiological viability (Meyer-Wentrup et al., 2007).

Finally, detailed evaluation of the results performed for the biogenic aerosol particles with a diameter over 10 µm gave correlations between bacteria and saccharides, such as mannose and trehalose (Figure S4). Mannose is used by bacteria as lectin like substances to bind to cells and perhaps to find its way also to aerosol particles (Sharon et al., 1981). Additional correlation was found between bacteria and some important AAs in the Krebs cycle. *Pseudomonas* had a clear correlation with Gly (P-value < 0.01, R^2 > 0.95). The simplest AA, Gly, is used as a metabolic product in some bacteria. Specifically, Gly is used as carbon source in the biosynthesis of complex structures in the case of *Pseudomonas* (Lundgren et al., 2013). The explained variance of the data was clearly improved by the use of MLR models, as can be seen in Table S14. The detailed evaluation of the regression coefficients (Figure 4) showed a clear positive correlation between 16S gene copy numbers of bacteria and *Pseudomonas* in the samples and the concentrations of mannitol and Ala. The latter has an important role in bacteria, especially in *Pseudomonas*, as a constituent of pantothenic acid (Boulette et al., 2009). In addition, it was possible to find significant correlation coefficients between fungi and three AAs such as Ile, Leu and Pro. These AAs, essential for humans, can be easily synthetized by fungi (Jastrzębowska and Gabriel, 2015).

3.6 Elucidation of potential connections between gas phase VOCs and the microbiological composition of the biogenic aerosol particles

Soil microorganisms, bacteria and fungi are able to produce large quantities of highly diverse VOCs diverted from organic matter mineralization and nutrient accumulation processes. Some of these VOCs are emitted to the atmosphere. Once in the atmosphere they can be intake by other organisms, released to the underground habitat or participate in the formation and growing of secondary aerosol particles. In this way, the evaluation of the potential connections between gas phase VOCs and the microbiological composition of the biogenic aerosol particles might give information about their role as potential emission sources or at least about common emission conditions for both VOCs and microbes.

Preliminary studies were carried out following section 3.4 described two-step methodology. First, the gas phase concentrations of 13 VOCs (Figure S5) were used for the development of CA models. These models allowed the visualization of seasonal differences between samples. The samples were collected during two different time periods (clusters) at the SMEAR II station. The first 32 samples were collected from September 4 to September 15, 2017 and from September 25 to October 6, 2017 (Period 1). Then 52 samples were collected from September 18 to September 22, 2017 and from October 9 to November 22, 2017 (Period 2). In all the cases, the highest concentrations of VOCs in gas phase were found during Period 1 (Figure S6a). These periods were used for the development of DA models, which enabled the classification of the biogenic aerosol particles using their chemical and microbiological composition as input data. Discriminant analysis was able to provide correct classification of 72 samples, 85.7% of the total. Period 1 samples gave the highest values for all the chemical and microbial groups with the exception of fructose, confirming a clear connection between the gas phase concentrations of VOCs and the chemical and microbial groups in the biogenic aerosol particles (Figure S6b). These results were quite similar, only small variations were seen, compared to those found using the concentration of atmospheric gases, aerosol, meteorological and environmental parameters as variables. In this way, the connection between these variables, the gas phase VOCs and the chemical and microbiological composition of the biogenic aerosol particles is clear.

The second approach based on the statistical tools was used to evaluate the correlations between the concentration of gas phase VOCs and the gene copy numbers of bacteria and fungi in the biogenic aerosol particles by Pearson correlation and MLR algorithms. The amount of the different microbes, expressed as number of genes copies m^{-3}, was used as dependent variables. The gas phase concentration of 13 VOCs was used as independent variables. The limited number of independent variables used in this study, smaller than the number of samples in all the cases, allowed the use of ordinary least squares as fitting algorithm, instead of the backward stepwise algorithm used in the previous section. The limitations diverted from the small number of samples used for the development of the different statistical models, discussed in the previous section, were considered in the present study. As described in the previous section, the results achieved from these models should be carefully interpreted. Correlations between different VOCs and specific microbes should not be used to identify these microbes in the air as their unique emission source. It is well known that large amounts of microbes are present in the different forest ecosystems (trees, plant leaves, etc.) and their VOC emission to the air cannot be discarded. However, the presence of certain microbes in the air can be associated with their presence in the forest and therefore with the emission of these VOCs.

The results achieved form Pearson correlations can be found in Figure S7. The detailed evaluation of these results for < 1.0 μm particles (Figure S7) gave positive correlations between *Pseudomonas* and seven of the VOCs analyzed. However, no correlation with the gas phase VOCs was observed in the case of other bacteria and fungi. In most of the cases, with exception of methacrolein, these compounds have been reported to be produced and emitted to the atmosphere by *Pseudomonas* (Effmert et al., 2012). As stated before, the use of relatively complex ML approaches, such as MLR, clearly improved the results. Successful models were achieved for all themicrobies under study. Detailed information of the MLR models can be found in Table S15. The evaluation of the statistically significant MLR coefficients (Figure 5) indicated that air concentrations of acetone, toluene and isoprene correlate with the variations in the gene copy numbers of the different microorganisms. All these compounds can be produced and emitted by a large variety of bacterial and fungal species (Effmert et al., 2012). However, their other biogenic and anthropogenic emission sources should not be discarded (Spaulding et al., 2003).

Multiple correlations (Figure S7) were found between bacteria-fungi and different VOCs (6) present in the gas phase in the case of 1.0–2.5 μm particles. As can be seen from Table S15, the use of a combination of variables in the MLR algorithm clearly improved these results in comparison with Pearson correlation. The detailed evaluation of the regression coefficients for MLR (Figure 5) showed a clear correlation between the concentrations of isoprene and benzene and the variations in the gene copy numbers of the different microorganisms. It should be emphasized the correlations observed for benzene. It is widely believed that benzene is emitted only by anthropogenic sources. However, several bacterial and fungal species such as *Bacillus simplex* (Gu et al., 2007)*, Acremonium obclavatum* or *Aspergillus versicolor* (Ezeonu et al., 1994) can also produce and emit benzene to the atmosphere. In addition, ethanol, acetic acid and toluene correlated with bacteria and fungi variations in our study.
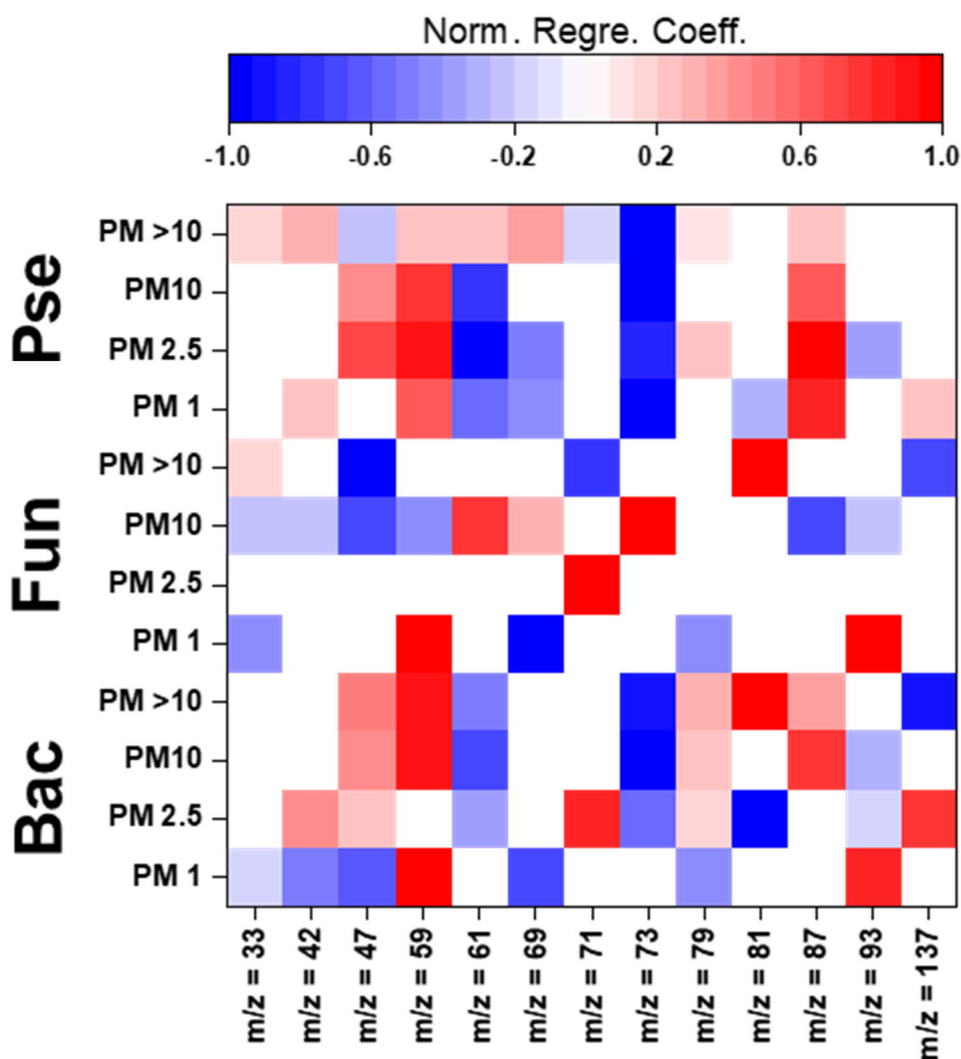
Figure 5. Normalized regression coefficient obtained for the MLR models developed for the elucidation of potential connections between gas phase VOCs and the microbiological composition of the biogenic aerosol particles. Maximum normalization was applied in all the cases. Bac, bacteria; Pse, *Pseudomonas*; and Fun, fungi.

It was not possible to find any correlation between the concentration of the VOCs in the gas phase and the microbial groups detected in 2.5–10.0 μm particles. However, successful models were achieved in the case MLR as can be observed

580 in Table S15. The analysis of the regression coefficients (Figure 5) indicated that gas phase concentration of ethanol, acetone, 2-methyl-3-buten-2-ol and acetic acid correlate with the variations in the gene copy numbers of bacteria and fungi. These results are in good agreement with those achieved for 1.0–2.5 µm particles. However, the opposite trend was observed in the case of *Pseudomonas*. A potential explanation might be a wide variability of *Pseudomonas* in the samples (Fröhlich-Nowoisky et al., 2016).

585 Finally, weak positive correlations (Figure S7) were found between bacteria, fungi and several VOCs such as acetone and isoprene in the case of biogenic aerosol particles with a diameter over 10 µm. It should be, however, emphasized that the sign of the correlation in the case of isoprene was opposite to that observed for < 1.0 µm and 1.0–2.5 µm particles. The use of MLR algorithms improved the results obtained from Pearson correlations (Table S15). The evaluation of the statistically significant regression coefficients (Figure 5) revealed some interesting results. The concentration of different

590 VOCs such as acetone, 2-methyl-3-buten-2-ol, benzene and 2-butanone correlated with bacteria and fungi gene copy number variations. In addition, terpenes, including monoterpene fragments, correlated with the variations in the gene copy numbers of bacteria and *Pseudomonas*. Monoterpenes are primarily emitted to the atmosphere by terrestrial vegetation (Acosta Navarro et al., 2014). However, some species of bacteria, including *Pseudomonas*, can synthesize and emit these compounds to the air (Effmert et al., 2012). In this way, it is not possible to discard common emission of

595 terpenes and airborne bacteria under certain environmental and meteorological parameters. In addition, it is not possible to discard the contribution of monoterpene airbone bacteria emission to the total monoterpene concentration in the air considering the very specific environmental and meteorological conditions during the experiments.

4. Conclusions

600 Chemical compounds and microbial species were determined in biogenic aerosol particles collected at the SMEAR II station in September-November 2017. The use of these unique observations, integrated to the abundant chemical, meteorological and environmental information as input data for the development of different statistical models including classical techniques and ML approaches, allowed the elucidation of several aspects related to the composition ofbiogenic aerosols.

605 The use of different approaches, based on ML as DA or Bayesian NN, confirmed a clear relationship between the composition of the biogenic aerosol particles and the sizes. Different trends were observed for the distribution of the chemical compounds and microbial species between the samples. These results were surprising considering the relative low number of correlation observed using traditional Pearson correlation. It should also be emphasized that the limited number of samples analyzed can affect the performance of Bayesian NN decreasing the prediction capacity.

610 In addition, ML approaches allowed the clarification of the effect of concentration of atmospheric gases, aerosol, meteorological and environmental parameters on the biogenic aerosol particles composition. The different conditions observed for the two sampling periods established by CA were clearly connected to the variations observed for the chemical and microbial composition of the biogenic aerosol particles. High concentrations were observed for the different chemical compounds and microbes (gene copy numbers) in the samples collected during the period 1. The quality and

615 quantity of the data used had a clear influence on the model performance affecting specially those belonging to < 1.0 µm particles.

The elucidation of chemical fingerprints from microbes in biogenic aerosols was possible due to the exceptional characteristics of the SMEAR II station, a rural measurement station with no large pollution sources nearby, which minimize the presence of interferences in the study. These markers might be related to the presence of the chemical compounds in a microbial species or at least to a common emission source. The complexity of the system due to the great variety of the microbial species present in the biogenic aerosol particles and the potential emission sources hindered the clarification of common trends for all the particle sizes under study. Multiple connections between the microbial and the chemical composition of the biogenic aerosol particles were observed for the different sizes using classical and more advanced statistical approaches. These connections can be mainly associated to metabolic processes but in some cases they are also related to protection or interaction mechanisms.

Finally, the elucidation of potential connections between gas phase VOCs and the microbiological composition of the biogenic aerosol particles confirmed a clear relationship between the VOCs in the gas phase and the presence of chemicals and microbes in the biogenic aerosol particles. This might confirm the presence of common emission sources or at least emission conditions. The results achieved are promising, even if the number of samples used for the model development was very limited. Additional studies are needed to provide more reliable statistical models that could provide in the boreal environment proxy concentration of aerosol particles that relies on the more standard observations performed continuously on the site.

Data Availability

Data used in this work are available from the authors upon request (marja-liisa.riekkola@helsinki.fi).

Author contribution

Author contributions. JR-J, OMS, JH, JB, KH, TP and M-LR designed the experiments. JR-J, MO, OMS, GD, EZ, JA and TL carried them out. JR-J and OMS performed the statistical analysis. JR-J, MO, OMS KH, JB, TP and M-LR prepared the manuscript with contributions from other co-authors.

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

Acknowledgements

The study was financially supported by Academy of Finland Centre of Excellence program (project no. 307331). We acknowledge financial support also via Academy of Finland NANOBIOMASS (decision number 307537), Biogeochemical and biophysical feedbacks from forest harvesting to climate change (decision number 324259), Molecular understanding on the aerosol formation in the high Arctic (decision number 333397), Belmont Forum project "Community Resilience to Boreal Environmental change: Assessing Risks from fire and disease" (ACRoBEAR) via

Academy of Finland, decision number 334792. European Union's Horizon 2020 research and innovation programme under grant agreement No 689443 via project iCUPE (Integrative and Comprehensive Understanding on Polar Environments)" and funding from the European Union's Horizon 2020 research and innovation programme under grant agreement No 821205 (Understanding and reducing the long-standing uncertainty in anthropogenic aerosol radiative forcing, FORCeS). University of Helsinki and Academy of Finland support to ACTRIS infrastructure and INAR RI Ecosystems are gratefully acknowledged (decision numbers 329274, 328616 and 304460). The staff of the SMEAR II station are thanked for the valuable help.

References

Acosta Navarro, J. C., Smolander, S., Struthers, H., Zorita, E., Ekman, A. M. L., Kaplan, J. O., Guenther, A., Arneth, A., and Riipinen, I.: Global emissions of terpenoid VOCs from terrestrial vegetation in the last millennium, J Geophys Res Atmos, 119, 6867-6885, 10.1002/2013JD021238, 2014.

Barbaro, E., Zangrando, R., Moret, I., Barbante, C., Cescon, P., and Gambaro, A.: Free amino acids in atmospheric particulate matter of Venice, Italy, Atmospheric Environment, 45, 5050-5057, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2011.01.068, 2011.

Bauer, H., Claeys, M., Vermeylen, R., Schueller, E., Weinke, G., Berger, A., and Puxbaum, H.: Arabitol and mannitol as tracers for the quantification of airborne fungal spores, Atmospheric Environment, 42, 588-593, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2007.10.013, 2008.

Boulette, M. L., Baynham, P. J., Jorth, P. A., Kukavica-Ibrulj, I., Longoria, A., Barrera, K., Levesque, R. C., and Whiteley, M.: Characterization of alanine catabolism in pseudomonas aeruginosa and its importance for proliferation in vivo, Journal of Bacteriology, 191, 6329, 10.1128/JB.00817-09, 2009.

Cantoni, O., Sestili, P., Guidarelli, A., Giacomoni, P. U., and Cattabeni, F.: Effects of L-histidine on hydrogen peroxide-induced DNA damage and cytotoxicity in cultured mammalian cells, Molecular Pharmacology, 41, 969, 1992.

Chan, M. N., Choi, M. Y., Ng, N. L., and Chan, C. K.: Hygroscopicity of water-soluble organic compounds in atmospheric aerosols: amino acids and biomass burning derived organic species, Environmental Science & Technology, 39, 1555-1562, 10.1021/es049584l, 2005.

Crawford, C., Reponen, T., Lee, T., Iossifova, Y., Levin, L., Adhikari, A., and Grinshpun, S. A.: Temporal and spatial variation of indoor and outdoor airborne fungal spores, pollen, and (1→3)-β-d-glucan, Aerobiologia, 25, 147-158, 10.1007/s10453-009-9120-z, 2009.

Després, V., Huffman, J. A., Burrows, S. M., Hoose, C., Safatov, A., Buryak, G., Fröhlich-Nowoisky, J., Elbert, W., Andreae, M., Pöschl, U., and Jaenicke, R.: Primary biological aerosol particles in the atmosphere: a review, Tellus B: Chemical and Physical Meteorology, 64, 15598, 10.3402/tellusb.v64i0.15598, 2012.

Dittmar, T., Fitznar, H. P., and Kattner, G.: Origin and biogeochemical cycling of organic nitrogen in the eastern Arctic Ocean as evident from D- and L-amino acids, Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta, 65, 4103-4114, https://doi.org/10.1016/S0016-7037(01)00688-3, 2001.

Effmert, U., Kalderás, J., Warnke, R., and Piechulla, B.: Volatile Mediated Interactions Between Bacteria and Fungi in the Soil, Journal of chemical ecology, 38, 665-703, 10.1007/s10886-012-0135-5, 2012.

Elbein, A. D., Pan, Y. T., Pastuszak, I., and Carroll, D.: New insights on trehalose: a multifunctional molecule, Glycobiology, 13, 17R-27R, 10.1093/glycob/cwg047, 2003.

Elbert, W., Taylor, P. E., Andreae, M. O., and Pöschl, U.: Contribution of fungi to primary biogenic aerosols in the atmosphere: wet and dry discharged spores, carbohydrates, and inorganic ions, Atmos. Chem. Phys., 7, 4569-4588, 10.5194/acp-7-4569-2007, 2007.

Ezeonu, I. M., Price, D. L., Simmons, R. B., Crow, S. A., and Ahearn, D. G.: Fungal production of volatiles during growth on fiberglass, Applied and environmental microbiology, 60, 4172-4173, 10.1128/AEM.60.11.4172-4173.1994, 1994.

Fang, Z., Guo, W., Zhang, J., and Lou, X.: Influence of heat events on the composition of airborne bacterial communities in urban ecosystems, International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health, 15, 10.3390/ijerph15102295, 2018.

700

Fierer, N., Jackson, J. A., Vilgalys, R., and Jackson, R. B.: Assessment of soil microbial community structure by use of taxon-specific quantitative PCR assays, Applied and Environmental Microbiology, 71, 4117, 10.1128/AEM.71.7.4117-4120.2005, 2005.

Fröhlich-Nowoisky, J., Kampf, C. J., Weber, B., Huffman, J. A., Pöhlker, C., Andreae, M. O., Lang-Yona, N.,
705 Burrows, S. M., Gunthe, S. S., Elbert, W., Su, H., Hoor, P., Thines, E., Hoffmann, T., Després, V. R., and Pöschl, U.: Bioaerosols in the earth system: climate, health, and ecosystem interactions, Atmospheric Research, 182, 346-376, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosres.2016.07.018, 2016.

Ge, X., Wexler, A. S., and Clegg, S. L.: Atmospheric amines – Part I. A review, Atmospheric Environment, 45, 524-546, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2010.10.012, 2011.

710 Goldstein, G., and Nobel, P. S.: Changes in osmotic pressure and mucilage during low-temperature acclimation of Opuntia ficus-indica, Plant Physiology, 97, 954, 10.1104/pp.97.3.954, 1991.

Goldstein, G., and Nobel, P. S.: Water relations and low-temperature acclimation for cactus species varying in freezing tolerance, Plant Physiology, 104, 675, 10.1104/pp.104.2.675, 1994.

Gosselin, M. I., Rathnayake, C. M., Crawford, I., Pöhlker, C., Fröhlich-Nowoisky, J., Schmer, B., Després, V. R.,
715 Engling, G., Gallagher, M., Stone, E., Pöschl, U., and Huffman, J. A.: Fluorescent bioaerosol particle, molecular tracer, and fungal spore concentrations during dry and rainy periods in a semi-arid forest, Atmos. Chem. Phys., 16, 15165-15184, 10.5194/acp-16-15165-2016, 2016.

Gu, Y.-Q., Mo, M.-H., Zhou, J.-P., Zou, C.-S., and Zhang, K.-Q.: Evaluation and identification of potential organic nematicidal volatiles from soil bacteria, Soil Biology and Biochemistry, 39, 2567-2575,
720 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2007.05.011, 2007.

Haan, D. O. D., Corrigan, A. L., Smith, K. W., Stroik, D. R., Turley, J. J., Lee, F. E., Tolbert, M. A., Jimenez, J. L., Cordova, K. E., and Ferrell, G. R.: Secondary organic aerosol-forming reactions of glyoxal with amino acids, Environmental Science & Technology, 43, 2818-2824, 10.1021/es803534f, 2009.

Hari, P., and Kulmala, M.: Station for measuring Ecosystem-Atmosphere relations (SMEAR II), Boreal
725 Environment Research, 10, 2005.

Hari, P., Nikinmaa, E., Pohja, T., Siivola, E., Bäck, J., Vesala, T., and Kulmala, M.: Station for Measuring Ecosystem-Atmosphere Relations: SMEAR, in: Physical and Physiological Forest Ecology, edited by: Hari, P., Heliövaara, K., and Kulmala, L., Springer Netherlands, Dordrecht, 471-487, 2013.

Helin, A., Sietiö, O. M., Heinonsalo, J., Bäck, J., Riekkola, M. L., and Parshintsev, J.: Characterization of free
730 amino acids, bacteria and fungi in size-segregated atmospheric aerosols in boreal forest: seasonal patterns, abundances and size distributions, Atmos. Chem. Phys., 17, 13089-13101, 10.5194/acp-17-13089-2017, 2017.

Huffman, J. A., Treutlein, B., and Pöschl, U.: Fluorescent biological aerosol particle concentrations and size distributions measured with an Ultraviolet Aerodynamic Particle Sizer (UV-APS) in Central Europe, Atmos.
735 Chem. Phys., 10, 3215-3233, 10.5194/acp-10-3215-2010, 2010.

Huffman, J. A., Prenni, A., DeMott, P., Pöhlker, C., Mason, R., Robinson, N., Fröhlich-Nowoisky, J., Tobo, Y., Després, V., and Garcia, E.: High concentrations of biological aerosol particles and ice nuclei during and after rain, Atmos. Chem. Phys., 13, 6151, 2013.

Hyun, M. W., Yun, Y. H., Kim, J. Y., and Kim, S. H.: Fungal and plant phenylalanine ammonia-lyase,
740 Mycobiology, 39, 257-265, 10.5941/MYCO.2011.39.4.257, 2011.

Innocente, E., Squizzato, S., Visin, F., Facca, C., Rampazzo, G., Bertolini, V., Gandolfi, I., Franzetti, A., Ambrosini, R., and Bestetti, G.: Influence of seasonality, air mass origin and particulate matter chemical composition on airborne bacterial community structure in the Po Valley, Italy, Science of The Total Environment, 593-594, 677-687, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2017.03.199, 2017.

745 Jastrzębowska, K., and Gabriel, I.: Inhibitors of amino acids biosynthesis as antifungal agents, Amino Acids, 47, 227-249, 10.1007/s00726-014-1873-1, 2015.

Jia, Y., and Fraser, M.: Characterization of saccharides in size-fractionated ambient particulate matter and aerosol sources: The contribution of primary biological aerosol particles (PBAPs) and soil to ambient particulate matter, Environmental Science & Technology, 45, 930-936, 10.1021/es103104e, 2011.

750 Junninen, H., Lauri, A., Keronen, P., Aalto, P., Hiltunen, V., Hari, P., and Kulmala, M.: Smart-SMEAR: On-line data exploration and visualization tool for SMEAR stations, Boreal Environment Research, 14, 447-457, 2009.

Kinoshita, S., Udaka, S., and Shimono, M.: Studies on the amino acid fermentation - Part I. Production of L-glutamic acid by various microorganisms, The Journal of general and applied microbiology, 50, 331-343, 2005.

Krog, J. O., Zachariassen, K. E., Larsen, B., and Smidsrød, O.: Thermal buffering in Afro-alpine plants due to 755 nucleating agent-induced water freezing, Nature, 282, 300-301, 10.1038/282300a0, 1979.

Kuuskeri, J., Häkkinen, M., Laine, P., Smolander, O.-P., Tamene, F., Miettinen, S., Nousiainen, P., Kemell, M., Auvinen, P., and Lundell, T.: Time-scale dynamics of proteome and transcriptome of the white-rot fungus Phlebia radiata: growth on spruce wood and decay effect on lignocellulose, Biotechnology for Biofuels, 9, 192, 10.1186/s13068-016-0608-9, 2016.

760 Li, Q.: Progress in Microbial Degradation of Feather Waste, Front. microbiol., 10, 10.3389/fmicb.2019.02717, 2019.

Lighthart, B.: The ecology of bacteria in the alfresco atmosphere, FEMS Microbiology Ecology, 23, 263-274, 10.1111/j.1574-6941.1997.tb00408.x, 1997.

Lundgren, B. R., Thornton, W., Dornan, M. H., Villegas-Peñaranda, L. R., Boddy, C. N., and Nomura, C. T.: Gene 765 PA2449 is essential for glycine metabolism and pyocyanin biosynthesis in Pseudomonas aeruginosa PAO1, Journal of Bacteriology, 195, 2087, 10.1128/JB.02205-12, 2013.

Manninen, H., Bäck, J., Sihto-Nissilä, S.-L., Huffman, J., Pessi, A.-M., Hiltunen, V., Aalto, P., Hidalgo, P., Hari, P., Saarto, A., Kulmala, M., and Petäjä, T.: Patterns in airborne pollen and other primary biological aerosol particles (PBAP), and their contribution to aerosol mass and number in a boreal forest, Boreal Environment 770 Research, 19, 383–405, 2014.

Mashayekhy Rad, F., Zurita, J., Gilles, P., Rutgeerts, L. A. J., Nilsson, U., Ilag, L. L., and Leck, C.: Measurements of Atmospheric Proteinaceous Aerosol in the Arctic Using a Selective UHPLC/ESI-MS/MS Strategy, Journal of the American Society for Mass Spectrometry, 30, 161-173, 10.1021/jasms.8b05923, 2019.

Meyer-Wentrup, F., Cambi, A., Figdor, C. G., and Adema, G. J.: Detection of Fungi by Mannose-based 775 Recognition Receptors, in: Immunology of Fungal Infections, edited by: Brown, G. D., and Netea, M. G., Springer Netherlands, Dordrecht, 293-307, 2007.

Morris, C. E., Sands, D. C., Bardin, M., Jaenicke, R., Vogel, B., Leyronas, C., Ariya, P. A., and Psenner, R.: Microbiology and atmospheric processes: research challenges concerning the impact of airborne micro-organisms on the atmosphere and climate, Biogeosciences, 8, 17-25, 10.5194/bg-8-17-2011, 2011.

780 Nicolson, S. W., and Human, H.: Chemical composition of the 'low quality' pollen of sunflower (Helianthus annuus, Asteraceae), Apidologie, 44, 144-152, 10.1007/s13592-012-0166-5, 2013.

Pasanen, A. L., Yli-Pietila, K., Pasanen, P., Kalliokoski, P., and Tarhanen, J.: Ergosterol content in various fungal species and biocontaminated building materials, Applied and environmental microbiology, 65, 138-142, 10.1128/AEM.65.1.138-142.1999, 1999.

785 Phillips, V. T. J., Andronache, C., Christner, B., Morris, C. E., Sands, D. C., Bansemer, A., Lauer, A., McNaughton, C., and Seman, C.: Potential impacts from biological aerosols on ensembles of continental clouds simulated numerically, Biogeosciences, 6, 987-1014, 10.5194/bg-6-987-2009, 2009.

Pica, N., and Bouvier, N. M.: Environmental factors affecting the transmission of respiratory viruses, Curr Opin Virol, 2, 90-95, 10.1016/j.coviro.2011.12.003, 2012.

790 Purohit, H. J., Raje, D. V., and Kapley, A.: Identification of signature and primers specific to genus Pseudomonas using mismatched patterns of 16S rDNA sequences, BMC Bioinformatics, 4, 19, 10.1186/1471-2105-4-19, 2003.

Pöschl, U.: Atmospheric Aerosols: Composition, Transformation, Climate and Health Effects, 44, 7520-7540, https://doi.org/10.1002/anie.200501122, 2005.

795 Pöschl, U., Martin, S., Sinha, B., Chen, Q., Gunthe, S., Huffman, J., Borrmann, S., Farmer, D., Garland, R., Helas, G., Jimenez, J., King, S., Manzi, A., Mikhailov, E., Pauliquevis, T., Petters, M., Prenni, A., Roldin, P., Rose, D., and Andreae, M.: Rainforest Aerosols as Biogenic Nuclei of Clouds and Precipitation in the Amazon, Science (New York, N.Y.), 329, 1513-1516, 10.1126/science.1191056, 2010.

Rathnayake, C. M., Metwali, N., Jayarathne, T., Kettler, J., Huang, Y., Thorne, P. S., O'Shaughnessy, P. T., and 800 Stone, E. A.: Influence of rain on the abundance of bioaerosols in fine and coarse particles, Atmos. Chem. Phys., 17, 2459-2475, 10.5194/acp-17-2459-2017, 2017.

Reinmuth-Selzle, K., Kampf, C. J., Lucas, K., Lang-Yona, N., Fröhlich-Nowoisky, J., Shiraiwa, M., Lakey, P. S. J., Lai, S., Liu, F., Kunert, A. T., Ziegler, K., Shen, F., Sgarbanti, R., Weber, B., Bellinghausen, I., Saloga, J., Weller, M. G., Duschl, A., Schuppan, D., and Pöschl, U.: Air Pollution and Climate Change Effects on Allergies in the Anthropocene: Abundance, Interaction, and Modification of Allergens and Adjuvants, Environmental Science & Technology, 51, 4119-4141, 10.1021/acs.est.6b04908, 2017.

Reponen, T., Grinshpun, S. A., Conwell, K. L., Wiest, J., and Anderson, M.: Aerodynamic versus physical size of spores: Measurement and implication for respiratory deposition, Grana, 40, 119-125, 10.1080/00173130152625851, 2001.

Rocha, Á., and Serrhini, M.: Information Systems and Technologies to Support Learning: Proceedings of EMENA-ISTL 2018, Springer, 2018.

Samaké, A., Jaffrezo, J. L., Favez, O., Weber, S., Jacob, V., Albinet, A., Riffault, V., Perdrix, E., Waked, A., Golly, B., Salameh, D., Chevrier, F., Oliveira, D. M., Bonnaire, N., Besombes, J. L., Martins, J. M. F., Conil, S., Guillaud, G., Mesbah, B., Rocq, B., Robic, P. Y., Hulin, A., Le Meur, S., Descheemaecker, M., Chretien, E., Marchand, N., and Uzu, G.: Polyols and glucose particulate species as tracers of primary biogenic organic aerosols at 28 French sites, Atmos. Chem. Phys., 19, 3357-3374, 10.5194/acp-19-3357-2019, 2019a.

Samaké, A., Jaffrezo, J. L., Favez, O., Weber, S., Jacob, V., Canete, T., Albinet, A., Charron, A., Riffault, V., Perdrix, E., Waked, A., Golly, B., Salameh, D., Chevrier, F., Oliveira, D. M., Besombes, J. L., Martins, J. M. F., Bonnaire, N., Conil, S., Guillaud, G., Mesbah, B., Rocq, B., Robic, P. Y., Hulin, A., Le Meur, S., Descheemaecker, M., Chretien, E., Marchand, N., and Uzu, G.: Arabitol, mannitol, and glucose as tracers of primary biogenic organic aerosol: the influence of environmental factors on ambient air concentrations and spatial distribution over France, Atmos. Chem. Phys., 19, 11013-11030, 10.5194/acp-19-11013-2019, 2019b.

Šantl-Temkiv, T., Sikoparija, B., Maki, T., Carotenuto, F., Amato, P., Yao, M., Morris, C. E., Schnell, R., Jaenicke, R., Pöhlker, C., DeMott, P. J., Hill, T. C. J., and Huffman, J. A.: Bioaerosol field measurements: Challenges and perspectives in outdoor studies, Aerosol Science and Technology, 54, 520-546, 10.1080/02786826.2019.1676395, 2020.

Scalabrin, E., Zangrando, R., Barbaro, E., Kehrwald, N. M., Gabrieli, J., Barbante, C., and Gambaro, A.: Amino acids in Arctic aerosols, Atmos. Chem. Phys., 12, 10453-10463, 10.5194/acp-12-10453-2012, 2012.

Sharon, N., Eshdat, Y., Silverblatt, F. J., and Ofek, I.: Bacterial adherence to cell surface sugars, Ciba Found Symp, 80, 119-141, 10.1002/9780470720639.ch9, 1981.

Shrivastava, A., and Gupta, V. B.: Methods for the determination of limit of detection and limit of quantitation of the analytical methods, Chron Young Sci, 2, 15-21, 2011.

Spaulding, R. S., Schade, G. W., Goldstein, A. H., and Charles, M. J.: Characterization of secondary atmospheric photooxidation products: Evidence for biogenic and anthropogenic sources, 108, https://doi.org/10.1029/2002JD002478, 2003.

Spracklen, D. V., and Heald, C. L.: The contribution of fungal spores and bacteria to regional and global aerosol number and ice nucleation immersion freezing rates, Atmos. Chem. Phys., 14, 9051-9059, 10.5194/acp-14-9051-2014, 2014.

Staton, S. J. R., Woodward, A., Castillo, J. A., Swing, K., and Hayes, M. A.: Ground level environmental protein concentrations in various ecuadorian environments: Potential uses of aerosolized protein for ecological research, Ecological Indicators, 48, 389-395, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolind.2014.08.036, 2015.

Team, R. C.: R: A language and environment for statistical computing. R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria., 2019.

Upadhyay, R., Meena, M., Prasad, V., Zehra, A., and Gupta, V.: Mannitol metabolism during pathogenic fungal–host interactions under stressed conditions, 6, 10.3389/fmicb.2015.01019, 2015.

Vainio, E. J., and Hantula, J.: Direct analysis of wood-inhabiting fungi using denaturing gradient gel electrophoresis of amplified ribosomal DNA, Mycological Research, 104, 927-936, https://doi.org/10.1017/S0953756200002471, 2000.

Wan, E. C. H., and Yu, J. Z.: Analysis of sugars and sugar polyols in atmospheric aerosols by chloride attachment in liquid chromatography/negative ion electrospray mass spectrometry, Environmental Science & Technology, 41, 2459-2466, 10.1021/es062390g, 2007.

van Heeswijk, W. C., Westerhoff, H. V., and Boogerd, F. C.: Nitrogen assimilation in Escherichia coli: putting molecular data into a systems perspective, Microbiology and Molecular Biology Reviews, 77, 628, 10.1128/MMBR.00025-13, 2013.

855 Vargas, W. A., Mandawe, J. C., and Kenerley, C. M.: Plant-derived sucrose is a key element in the symbiotic association between Trichoderma virens and maize Plants, Plant Physiology, 151, 792, 10.1104/pp.109.141291, 2009.

Yan, C., Sullivan, A. P., Cheng, Y., Zheng, M., Zhang, Y., Zhu, T., and Collett, J. L.: Characterization of saccharides and associated usage in determining biogenic and biomass burning aerosols in atmospheric fine particulate

860 matter in the North China Plain, Science of The Total Environment, 650, 2939-2950, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2018.09.325, 2019.

Yang, W., Elankumaran, S., and Marr, L.: Concentrations and size distributions of airborne influenza A viruses measured indoors at a health centre, a day-care centre and on aeroplanes, Journal of the Royal Society, Interface / the Royal Society, 8, 1176-1184, 10.1098/rsif.2010.0686, 2011.

865 Yang, Y., Chan, C.-y., Tao, J., Lin, M., Engling, G., Zhang, Z., Zhang, T., and Su, L.: Observation of elevated fungal tracers due to biomass burning in the Sichuan Basin at Chengdu City, China, Science of The Total Environment, 431, 68-77, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2012.05.033, 2012.

Zhang, Q., and Anastasio, C.: Chemistry of fog waters in California's Central Valley—Part 3: concentrations and speciation of organic and inorganic nitrogen, Atmospheric Environment, 35, 5629-5643,

870 https://doi.org/10.1016/S1352-2310(01)00337-5, 2001.

Zhu, C., Kawamura, K., and Kunwar, B.: Organic tracers of primary biological aerosol particles at subtropical Okinawa Island in the western North Pacific Rim, 120, 5504-5523, 10.1002/2015jd023611, 2015.