Source apportionment study on particulate air pollution in two highaltitude Bolivian cities: La Paz and El Alto

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20 Abstract. La Paz and El Alto are two fast-growing high-altitude Bolivian cities forming the second-largest metropolitan area in the country, located between 3200 and 4050 m a.s.l. Together they host., these cities are home to a growingburgeoning population of aroundapproximately 1.8 million peopleresidents. The air quality in this conurbation is stronglyheavily influenced by urbanization. However, however, there are no comprehensive studies that have assessed evaluating the sources of air pollution and their health impacts on health. Despite being neighboring cities their proximity, the drastic changesubstantial variation in

- 25 altitude-and, topography-, and socio-economic activities between La Paz and El Alto together with different socio-economic activities lead to differentresult in distinct sources, dynamics, and transport of particulate matter (PM). In this investigation, PM₁₀ samples were collected at two urban background stations located in La Paz and El Alto between April 2016 and June 2017. The samples were later analyzed for a wide range of chemical species including numerous source tracers (OC, EC, water-soluble ions, sugar anhydrides, sugar alcohols, trace metals, and molecular organic species). The US-EPA Positive Matrix Factorization (PMF)
- 30 v.5.0) receptor model was then applied<u>employed</u> for the source apportionment of PM₁₀. This is <u>one of</u> the first source apportionment studystudies in South America that incorporates a large setincorporating an extensive suite of organic markers (such as, including levoglucosan, polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons PAH₂(PAHs), hopanes, and alkanes) together with, alongside inorganic species. The multisite PMF resolved 11 main sources of PM. The largest annual contribution to PM₁₀ came from two major sources: the ensemble of the four vehicular emissions sources (exhaust and non-exhaust), together responsibleaccountable for 35% and 25% of the measured PM in La Paz and El Alto, respectively, and dust contributing, which

<u>contributed</u> 20% and 32% to the total <u>PM mass</u>. Secondary aerosols <u>contributed accounted for</u> 22% (24%) in La Paz (El Alto). <u>Agriculture relatedAgricultural</u> smoke <u>resulting</u> from biomass burning <u>originated</u> in the Bolivian lowlands and neighboring countries contributed to <u>9% (8% (7%)</u> of the total PM₁₀ mass annually. <u>This contribution increased</u>, increasing to 17% (13%) between August-October. Primary biogenic emissions were responsible for 13% (7%) of the measured PM₁₀ mass. <u>Finally</u>, it was

- 40 possible to identifyAdditionally, a profile related to associated with open waste burning occurring between the months of from May andto August. Despite the fact that was identified. Although this source contributed only to 2% (5%) of the total PM₁₀ mass, it constitutes the second largest source of PAHs, compounds potentially hazardous to health. Our analysis resulted in the identification of additionally resolved two specified ifferent traffic_related sources. In addition, we also identified factors, as well as a lubricant source (not frequently identified) and a non-exhaust emissions source. ThisOverall, this study showsdemonstrates
 45 that PM₁₀ concentrations in La Paz and El Alto region are mostly impacted predominantly influenced by a limited number of local
- 45 that PM₁₀ concentrations in La Paz and EI Alto region are mostly impacted predominantly influenced by a limited number of local sources. In conclusion, to improve air quality in both cities, efforts should primarily focus on addressing dust, traffic emissions, open waste burning, and biomass burning are the main sources to target in order to improve air quality in both cities.

1 Introduction

- Outdoor air pollution has undeniably proven to be an important threat for public health, being responsible for about 4.2 million 50 yearly premature deaths around the world every year (WHO, 20212021a). The exposure to air pollution becomes more complex at higher altitudes due to the decrease in oxygen per volume of air since, as people have developed a higher lung capacity in order to fulfill the body oxygen demand (Frisancho, 1977; Frisancho, 2013; Frisancho et al., 1999; Madueño et al., 2020; U.S. EPA, 2011).
- Many of the high-altitude large cities in the world (> 2000 m a.s.l., ≥2 million inhabitants) are located in Latin American low and middle-income countries, among which are Mexico City, Bogotá and Quito. These cities are also subject of a developing industry and a growing vehicular fleet that translatesresults in a constantly increasing energy consumption that is grounded, heavily dependent on non-renewable energy sources (Pardo-Martínez, 2015; Molina et al., 2019; Castro-Verdezoto et al., 2019; Molina et al., 2019; Pardo Martínez, 2015;). Most of the cities in thethis region with for which data is available data, face a deteriorated air quality, with particulate matter (PM) concentrations that exceed the World Health Organization (WHO, 2021)
- guidelines (Gutiérrez-Castillo et al., 2005; Mugica et al., 2009; Ramírez, et al., 2018; Zalakeviciute, et al., 2020, WHO, 2021b).
 High-altitude cities share some specificexhibit distinct characteristics due to complex topography and relatedassociated meteorology, influencing the transport, accumulation and dispersion of air pollution. In additionMoreover, high altitude is linked to strong solar radiation and thus favoringthat favors photochemical activity and high daily temperature variations. Compared withto other regions at similar latitudes, high altitude cities in South America experience lower temperature, lower atmospheric pressure and thus related lower saturation vapor pressures, moreas well as complex wind patterns and reduced precipitation (Vega
- et al., 2010; Zalakeviciute et al., 2018; Vega et al., 2010). Previous studies have shown that these specific high-altitude

atmospheric and thermodynamic conditions can strongly favor new aerosol particle formation (NPF) (Boulon et al., 2010; Brines et al., 2015; Hallar et al., 2011; Sellegri et al., 2019; Singla et al., 2018; Sorribas et al., 2015). He Additionally, it has also been observed that low oxygen environments alter the performance and reduce the efficiency of combustion engines (Martínez et al.,

- 70 2022; X--Wang, et al., 2013a). This, consequently, changes), thus, changing the vehicular emissions of gaseous and particulate pollutants (Bishop et al., 2001; Giraldo & Huertas, 2019; He et al., 2011; Nagpure et al., 2011; X--Wang et al., 2013b). Listed amongst the highest metropolitan areas in the world, La Paz (between 3200-3600 m a.s.l.) and El Alto (4050 m a.s.l.) are two Bolivian cities that form part of the same constituting a conurbation; with a population of approximately 1.8 million people. Despite their close proximity, there are largesignificant topographical, meteorological and socio-economic differences exist
- 75 between them. AlthoughWhile Bolivian legislation regulates concentrations of somecertain pollutants are regulated by the Bolivian law (CO, SO₂, NO₂, O₃, TSP, PM₁₀, Pb⁺; Table S1), very few air quality studies which include long term measurements at moderate time resolution have been performed in the country or in the region. FewThe few previous existing studies have reported PM₁₀ mass concentrations betweenranging from 10 and 100 µg m⁻³ measured inat urban and urban-background stations in La Paz and El Alto (Red MoniCA, 2016 a,b, 2017, 2018; Wiedensohler et al., 2018). However, no particle chemical speciation
- 80 was ever performed that would permit identifyinghas been conducted to identify the major sources responsible for<u>contributing to</u> the high PM concentrations. <u>MoreoverFurthermore</u>, measurements <u>performed intaken at</u> the nearby Chacaltaya GAW station (CHC-GAW: 16.350500°S, 68.131389°W, 5240 m a.s.l.) show that the emissions of the city not only <u>have aimpact the</u> local <u>impact,environment</u> but <u>ean</u>-also act as a point source influencing <u>regional</u> atmospheric composition at <u>regional scale</u> (Aliaga et al., 2021).
- 85 While little is known about the sources of PM in the country, since industry is not largely developed, vehicular emissions potentially represent an important source of contributor to air pollution, particularly considering the lackabsence of restrictions regardingon the age of the vehicle fleet. It has been reportedStatistics indicate that 43% of the circulating vehicles are less than 10 years old, 15% are 10-20 years old and another 24% are 20-30 years old (INE, 2020a, 2020bb). At a regional scale, agricultural biomass burning in the Bolivian and Brazilian valleys and rain-forests constitutes an important seasonal source of particulate
- 90 pollutants (Mataveli et al., 2021). The latter has a significant impact on the air quality of the cities close to where the fires take place (Nawaz &and Henze, 2020) and can be transported over large distances. Studies have shown that air masses coming from the Amazon can travel and carrytraverse the Andes, carrying pollutants across the Andes, thusand ultimately reaching the Bolivian Altiplano (Bourgeois et al., 2015; Chauvigne et al., 2019; Magalhães et al., 2019; Segura et al., 2020). In addition; Bourgeois et al., 2015). Additionally, previous studies based on emission inventories adapted to the data availability in LP-EA pointed out
- 95 road dust, food industry, cooking and vehicle emissions as the major sources of PM₁₀, whereas for Cochabamba (the third largest urban area in Bolivia) estimations showed mobile sources to be responsible for almost 90% of PM₁₀ emissions (Herbst, 2007; Pareja et al., 2011). Although there are some indications of the most outstanding sources of particulate matter in La Paz and El Alto, currently there is not comprehensive study on the composition and sources of particulate matter air pollution.

¹-A more extensive description of the permissible air quality limits policies can be found in the supplementary material (SI)

Hence<u>Therefore</u>, the aim of this study is to apportion and characterize the sources of PM that affect air quality in the metropolis of La Paz-El Alto, which can be used as a baseline for future policy making.

To achieve thethis goal-described above, we applied, the EPA-Positive Matrix Factorization (PMF v.5.0) receptor model was applied on the PM₁₀ chemical speciation obtained from 24-h filter samples collected simultaneously in La Paz and El Alto duringover a 15-months campaign. This isstudy represents one of the very-few studies characterizingconducting PM characterization in Bolivia over an extended time-period. WithGiven the limited number of studies in this region, identifying the sources and chemical profiles of PM in the study sites proved to be more challenging. A<u>The analysis included a</u> comprehensive chemical speciation was included in the analysis; encompassing ionic species, monosaccharide anhydrides, polyols, metals, PAHs, alkanes, and hopanes. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first study on source apportionment at high-altitude cities which includethat incorporates such a large set of organic and inorganic species.

2 Method

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110 2.1 Sampling sites

The Significant topographical differences exist between the two study sites, La Paz (LP) and El Alto (EA), possess significant topographical differences, apart from the important difference in addition to the notable disparity in altitude and pressure. While the city of El Alto lies on the open and flat Altiplano plateau, an open and flat area, the city of La Paz sprawls along the mountain valleys formed below the Altiplano in a closed area with steep and complex topography. Although the characteristic tropical seasonal change between a dry and a wet season governs the The meteorological conditions throughout the year, temperature are governed by the seasonal transition between a dry and a wet season, typical of tropical regions. Temperature and wind patterns

differvary substantially between boththe two cities largely due to the differences in altitude and local topography. FurthermoreMoreover, the city of El Alto beganoriginally developed as a peri-urban zone of the city of La Paz, welcoming migrants from nearby towns and communities who moved togettled on the outskirts of the city of La Paz (Fernández, 2021). This

- 120 gave rise to largesignificant economic and social differencesdisparities between the cities that, to some extent still, persist and are observableevident among the general population (Foster & and Irusta, 2003). Such differences could have an impact on air pollutant emissions associated, due to the different practices in each of the cities together with, in addition to the daily commute of a significant part of the population of El Alto towards the city of La Paz.
- The few existing industries are mostly <u>foundlocated</u> within or in the surroundings of El Alto, and the vehicular fleet observed in both cities is not homogeneous. The density of heavy vehicle traffic – trucks and buses, is <u>highermore prevalent</u> in El Alto, since it is the main regional and international connection from and to the metropolis. <u>All theseThese</u> factors uphold the need for having independent representative sampling sites for each city rather than <u>just one</u>, in <u>spite of themrelying on a single site</u>, <u>despite both</u> being part of the same conurbation.

The sampling campaign was carried between April 2016 and June 2017. Several ambient and meteorological parameters were measured simultaneously at two urban background sites, one in each city. The sampling sites were located 7 km apart, with an altitude difference of more thanover 400 m, and located at approximately 20 km distance from the Chacaltaya Global Atmosphere Watch (CHC-GAW) monitoring station (Figure).(Fig. 1).

The El Alto measurement site was installed within the El Alto International Airport, in the facilities of the meteorological observatory (16.5100° S, 68.1987° W, 4025 m a.s.l.). The observatory wasis situated at a distance of approximately 250 m from the airport runway and 500 m from the nearest major road and has been described elsewhere (Wiedensohler et al., 2018). Precampaign measurements were madeconducted to assess ifwhether the airplanes-takeoff and landing influencedof airplanes had any significant influence on the measurements, findingrevealing no significant influence insubstantial impact on CO₂, PM₁ and PM_{2.5} atduring each airplane arrival and departure. Road traffic within the airport perimeter is almost non-existentwas minimal.

The area around the sampling site is unpaved, hence dusty, and there are no other buildings in the proximity of the observatory. In March 2016, just prior the beginning of the sampling, the airport administration cleared the ground within the perimeter fence of the meteorological observatory, leaving the site dustier than the rest of the airport.

La Paz measurement site (LP) was placed on the rooftop of the city's Museum Pipiripi (Espacio Interactivo Memoria y Futuro Pipiripi: 16.5013°S, 68.1259°W, 3600 m a.s.l.). This municipal building is located <u>onatop</u> a small <u>hilltophill in</u> downtown La Paz. Unlike the EA site, within a 1 km radius, the LP site is surrounded by many busy roads and dense residential areas, with a

145 horizontal and vertical minimum distance to the nearest road of approximately 70 and 45 m respectively. Otherwise, the site's immediate surroundings (~100 m radius) are covered by green areas and a municipality buses parking lot at the base of the hill.

2.2 Sampling methods

High-volume samplers (MCV CAV-A/mb with an MCV PM1025UNE ($PM_{\mu 0}$) head) were usedemployed to collect 24-h filter samples of PM every third day at both sites. Sampling started at 9:00 a.m. and the flow was automatically keptmaintained at 30

150 m³ h⁻¹. The samplers were placed on the rooftop of the buildings in order to <u>To</u> avoid interference of near-ground particle resuspension. During the period, the samplers were placed on the rooftop of the buildings. Throughout the analyzed inperiod of the present study, an impactor with a 50% collection efficiency <u>offor</u> aerosol particles with an aerodynamic equivalent diameter of 10 μ m was <u>placedinstalled</u> at the inlet of the samplers <u>at both sites</u> to <u>provideestablish</u> an upper size-cut at both sites.

The mass concentrations measured at both sampling sites are hereafter reported in ambient conditions (EA: $\overline{T} = 280.8 \text{ K}$, $\overline{P} = 628.2 \text{ hPa}$, LP: $\overline{T} = 286.0 \text{ K}$, $\overline{P} = 664.7 \text{ hPa}$), unless stated otherwise (e.g. when compared to literature reported concentrations). In order toTo convert to standard conditions of temperature and pressure ($\overline{T} = 273 \text{ K}$, $\overline{P} = 1013.5 \text{ hPa}$) the concentrations must be multiplied by a factor of 1.66 and 1.60 in El Alto and La Paz, respectively. Since the difference in ambient concentrations between the sites due toresulting from a difference in mean temperature and pressure is of approximately 4%, ambient concentrations are directly compared between the sites in the followingsubsequent sections.

160 The aerosol particles were collected onto pre-heated (8 hours at 500°C) and pre-weighted 150 mm-diameter quartz fiber filters

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(Pallflex 2500QAT-UP). After sampling, the filters were folded and wrapped in aluminum foil, sealed in impermeable plastic bags, and stored in a cool environment before being transportedprior to transportation for analysis. Mass concentrations were first measuredinitially determined gravimetrically, and then the samples were divided for chemical analysis inamong three European laboratories. The resulting chemical speciation comprised–of elemental carbon (EC), organic carbon (OC), sugar anhydrides (Levoglucosan, mannosan), sugar alcohols (arabitol, mannitol), water soluble ions (SO4²⁻, NO3⁻, Cl⁻, MSA⁻, NH4⁺, Na⁺, K⁺, Mg²⁺, Ca²⁺) measured at IGE, Grenoble, France; metals (Al, Ca, K, Na , Mg, Fe, Ti, V, Mn, Cu, Zn, Rb, Sn, Sb, Pb) measured at IDAEA, CSIC, Barcelona, Spain; Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs: Fla, Pyr, Tri, BaA, Chr, BaP, BghiP, IP, BbF, Cor), alkanes (C21-C26), methyl PAHs, thiophens, hopanes (HP3-HP4) alkane methoxyphenols, and methylnitricatechols measured at EDYTEM, Chambéry, France², (Table S2), A total of 92 and 103 filter-samples were collected in the cities of El Alto and La Paz, respectively, excluding samples having sampling flow issues or influenced by specific events (c.a. San Juan local festivity, Christmas, New Year's Eve). In addition, laboratory blank filters were used to calculate the limits of quantification (QL). The average concentrations measured from the laboratory-blanks were then subtracted from the samples measured atmospheric concentrations-measured from the filter samples.

2.3 Source apportionment (PMF)

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175 The Positive Matrix Factor PMF 5.0 tool (Norris & Duvall, et al., 2014; Paatero & and Tapper, 1994), developed by the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA), was used to apportion the sources that contribute to the observed particulate material in the collected samples at both sites. This non-negative multivariate factor analysis seeks to solve the chemical mass balance equation [1], applying a weighted least-squares fit algorithm, *x_{ij}* representing each of the elements of the concentration matrix (having *n* number of samples and *m* number of chemical species measured), *g_{ik}* are the contributions of each *k* factor to the *i*th sample, *f_{kj}* are the chemical profile of the factors, and *e_{ij}* are the residuals (i.e. the difference between the calculated and the measured concentration).

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

The optimal solution is then achieved by minimizing the function Q defined as:

$$Q = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{m} \left[\frac{x_{ij} - \sum_{k=1}^{p} g_{ik} f_{kj}}{u_{ij}} \right]^2$$
(2)

185 where u_{ij} are the uncertainties associated to each measurement.

2.3.1 Sample and chemical species selection

Out of the 197 PM_{10} samples initially included, 12 of them were later excluded from the analysis for having over 6 species with missing values (EA: 19 Sep 2016, 11 Jan 2017; LP: 14 May 2016, 07 Jun 2016, 12 Dec 2016, 02 May 2017) or because they

²-A more exhaustive and detailed table of all the measured species and the analysis methods can be found in the SI.

presented unusual concentrations of PM or several multiple species (LP: 04 Apr 2016, 22 May 2017, 30 May 2017, 11 Jun 2017, 190 15 May 2017, 19 Jun 2017). For each filter, A total of 178 chemical species were measured. The species that presented for each filter. Species displaying irregularities in their time series were excluded from the analysis together, as were those with the ones that had over 25% of the data falling below the quantification limit (<QL, defined as the mean field-blank concentrations measured per specie, plus two times the standard deviation). From the remaining 86 species, the ones that were measured through both Ion Chromatography (IC) and Inductive Coupled Plasma--Mass Spectrometry (ICP-MS), only the ICP-MS metals were included in 195 order to avoid <u>doubled</u>uplicative counting, except for K^+ , for which the IC measurements were used since water soluble K^+ is a known tracer for biomass Burningburning (BB), soil resuspension, and fertilizers (Li et al., 2021)-: Urban et al., 2012). Galactosan and sorbitol were eonsidered/deemed unnecessary tracers for biomass burning and primary biogenic aerosols, respectively, given the presence of as other specific tracers such as levoglucosan, mannosan, mannitol and arabitol. Thus were present. Consequently, they were excluded from the analysis. FinallyAdditionally, other non-specific-tracer metal species were 200 excluded after several attempts ofto including them in the PMF input data, since as they proved to only addintroduced instability to the solution. Based on Following the results findings of Samaké et al., (2019a), arabitol and mannitol were added as one Polyolrepresentative polyol specie, given that they are emitted by the same source and have a Pearson correlation of _r>0.7, forat both sites. The same was done for PAHs that presented a r>0.9 (PAH 1: [BghiP]+[IP]+[BbF]; PAH 2: [Fla]+[Pyr]). Lastly, OC was replacedFinally, in the PMF analysis-by, OC was substituted with OC*, which is defined asrepresents the subtraction of difference 205 between the measured OC concentrations and the carbon mass concentration of all the included organic compounds out of the measured OC concentrations, to avoid double counting (e.g. Weber et al., 2019):

$$OC^* = OC - \begin{pmatrix} 0.12 \cdot [MSA] + 0.40 \cdot [Polyols] + 0.44 \cdot ([Levoglucosan] + [Mannosan]) + \\ 0.95 \cdot ([BghiP] + [IP] + [BbF] + [Fla] + [Pyr] + [BaA] + [Chr] + [Tri] + [BaP] + [Cor]) + \\ 0.85 \cdot ([C21] + [C22] + [C23] + [C24] + [C25] + [C26]) + \\ 0.87 \cdot ([HP3] + [HP4]) \end{pmatrix}$$
(3)

2.3.2 Uncertainty calculation and species pecies weight-assignment

- ForIn the uncertainty matrix, a 10% uncertainty was assigned to PM mass measurements, used as the total variable in the PMF.concentrations. The uncertainty calculation for polyols, monosaccharide anhydrides, and ions was performed usingfollowed the formula proposed by Gianini et al. (2012), usingemploying the variation coefficients (CV) and the additional coefficients of variation (a) proposed and used by Weber et al. (2019), with the average QL associated to each species instead of DL. The uncertainties associated to EC, OC, and metals, were calculated following the method proposed by Amato et al. (2009) and Escrig et al. (2009). FinallyFurthermore, the uncertainties assigned to the molecular organic species were calculated usingaccording to the formulas proposed by Polissar et al. (1998) and Reff et al. (2007), replacingwith the substitution of DL values by QL. Values underbelow the QL in the concentration matrix were replaced by the average of QL divided by 2; for each specie; and the.
 - <u>The</u> corresponding uncertainties were <u>then</u> set to $\frac{5}{6}$ QL (Norris & <u>Duvall, et al.</u>, 2014). The outliers encountered in the time series of some species (a total of 4 values) were replaced by NA. <u>ThenSubsequently</u>, the missing values in the input file were set to be

replaced in the software by the median value of the corresponding species and their associated uncertainty was automatically set to four times the species-specific median.

The weight of the species in the factor analysis was determined based on their signal to noise ratio (S/N). Species with a S/N>2 were definedset as strong. Species with a signal to noise ratio: _0.2≤ S/N≤2 were defined as weak, which resulting in a down weighs its_weighing of their influence in the analysis by triplicating their uncertainties. Species with a S/N<0.2 were not included in the analysis. Finally, PM was set as total variable, automatically thus setting it as a weak variable. After <u>conducting</u> several tests, <u>somecertain</u> variables were also set as weak (K⁺, V), <u>because for</u> setting them as strong would create a separate specific factory ariables resulted in the creation of artificial factors, without any relevant geochemical meaning. The PAHs, alkanes and hopaeshopanes were set as weak species, to prevent them from driving the solution.

2.3.3 Solution evaluation criteria

Solutions ranging A range of solutions, spanning from 8 to 13 factors were explored, in order, was examined to selectdetermine
 the appropriatesuitable number of factors contributing to each site. A series of Subsequently, a final solution was chosen based on the evaluation of various statistical and geochemical control parameters were then evaluated in order to choose the final solution (, as described by Belis C.A. et al. (2019):

- $Q_{true}/Q_{robust} < 1.5$.
- Residuals per species were centered and symmetrically distributed exhibited a symmetrical distribution around 0, andfalling within the range of -3 and 3-(, with the exception of a few exceptions for outliers).
- Bootstrap (BS) evaluation of the statistical robustness of the selected base run having a correlation coefficient for every factor > 0.8 after 100 iterations, before and after constraints.
- Displacements (DISP) analysis evaluatingwas performed to evaluate the rotational ambiguity and the solution's tolerance of the solution to smallminor perturbations (No observed rotation was rotations were observed for dQmax = 4, 8).
- Geochemical consistency of the obtained factor chemical profiles based on literature and knowledge of the study site.

2.3.4 Multisite PMF

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Single<u>Initial parallel runs of single</u>-site PMF analysis were initially run in parallel, showing indeedrevealed similar main sources contributing to particulate matter. Increasing the number of factors showed a promising possibility of splittingpotential for separating the traffic profile-but at the cost of altering, albeit with a compromise on the statistical stability of the solution. These results were a motivation to runMotivated by these findings, a multisite PMF analysis was conducted. Such approach has proven its ability to reduce the rotational ambiguity in factor analyses (Dai et al., 2020; Hernández-Olmo, 2019; Hopke, 2021; Pandolfi et al., 2020; Hernández-Pellón and Fernández-Olmo, 2019), increasing the statistical robustness while increasing thethrough an increased number of samples. For this purpose, in order to

To combine both datasets as one into a single dataset (EA-LP) the dates ofin the La Paz dataset were shifted in time by two years and then appended to El Alto's dataset, thus avoiding repeated. Thus, duplicated dates were avoided and while composing a single input matrix for PMF that respected the natural seasonal variability of the original datasets. The dimensions of the resulting matrix were 185 rows (samples) x 40 columns (species). The multisite approach stands on the hypothesis that the major sources contributing to PM₁₀ in both sites are similar and displayexhibit similar chemical profiles, which has been verified within the single site solutions.

255 2.3.5 Set of constraints

Once the optimum number of factors was selected in the multisite base solution, a set of "soft" constraints (Table 1)(Table 1) was applied to the selected solution based on previous studies (Borlaza et al., 2021; Samaké, et al., 2019b; Weber et al., 2019) Table1

2.3.6 Additional analysis of one local specific source: fuel chemical fingerprint

260 In order toTo further investigate the differences between the two main types of fuel used in LP-EA, 3 samples of both gasoline and diesel were taken at 3 randomly chosen gas-stations located in different partsareas of the city. The samples were analyzed for main metal composition as followsof these samples was subsequently analyzed using the following procedure: 1 ml of sample (gasoline, diesel) was transferred into a Teflon microwave vessel (Anton Paar microwave laboratory unit). Then, 10 ml of HNO₃ (double distilled, suprapure level) were added and the solution was decomposed by increasing temperature and pressure (175°C and 10 bar). In the microwave, the EPA 3051A method was run twice to assure that the solutions were indeed decomposed (USEPAUS EPA, 2007). After cooling down the vessels, the solutions were diluted by a factor of 10 and directly measured using inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometer (ICP-MS). A complete descriptive table of the analyzed species can be found in the SI (Table S3)..

3 Results

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270 3.1 Seasonal variations of chemical components of PM₁₀

A yearly alternation between the dry and the wet season as presented in Figure, Fig. 2, shows an annual maximum of PM_{10} concentrations coinciding with the middle of the dry season (Southern hemisphere winter). During this season, almost nonegligible wet deposition takes placeoccurs and favorable conditions for particle resuspension are common prevalent. Maximum daily ambient PM_{10} -daily concentrations of $37.2 \pm 10.5 \,\mu g \,m^3$ and $33.2 \pm 7.5 \,\mu g \,m^3$ were measured during this period (May-August) in El Alto and La Paz, respectively. The opposite is observed during Conversely, the wet season (Southern hemisphere summer, December-March), where) exhibits frequent precipitation events are very frequent and the highest daily minimum-temperatures reach their highest values.

Similar <u>PM₁₀</u> variability and concentrations of <u>PM₁₀</u> were measuredobserved at the International Airport of El Alto, using the C¹⁴ beta--attenuation technique, between 2011 and 2015 (ranging between ca. 10-50 µg m⁻³ throughout the year, Red MoniCA, 2016a2016b). In the case of La Paz, the variability reported by city's <u>Municipal Secretary of Environmental Management</u> (<u>MSEM)observed while also</u> using the C¹⁴ beta-attenuation technique was similar to the one observed in the present study. However, the reported PM₁₀ concentrations were higher (Red MoniCA, 2016<u>2016a</u>, 2017, 2018). The differencediscrepancy in the measured concentrations in the case of La Paz can probablylikely be explained byattributed the different measurement site locations-of, as the measurement sites sincesampling site in La Paz described in the site of MSEM measurements isRed MoniCA (2016a, 2017, 2018) reports was located in the downtown area, next to a busy avenue.

- From Among all the samples collected samples during the measurements campaign, 5 and 12% of the daily samples collected in La Paz and El Alto exceeded, respectively, the 24-hour $PM_{\underline{u}0}$ concentration of 45 µg m⁻³; not to be exceeded more than 3-4 days per year, according to the short-term $PM_{\underline{u}0}$ Air Quality Guideline (AQG) level recommended by the World Health Organization (WHO, 2021). Moreover, the annual $PM_{\underline{u}0}$ concentrations in both cities are at least 1.2 times higher than the $PM_{\underline{u}0}$ levels of 15
- μ g m⁻³ recommended as annual AQG by the same organization (WHO, $\frac{2024}{2021b}$). Average measured PM₁₀ concentrations were found to be 29.9 ± 12.0 µg m⁻³ (STP: 49.6 ± 19.9 µg m⁻³) in El Alto and 27.2 ± 8.9 µg m⁻³ in La Paz³ (STP: 43.5 ± 14.2 µg m⁻³). However, the annual average values can be relatively lower due to the under sampling during the wet season. The observed concentrations are lower compared to what wasthose reported for Mexico City, a high-altitude (2850 m a.s.l) Latin-
- American megacity (Table 2), <u>but</u> higher to what wasthan those observed in the cities of Bogotá; and comparable, in the case of
 La Paz, to what was reported for Quito. Nevertheless, Quito is the only one comparable in terms of population density. Moreover,
 The average concentrations found in La Paz-El Alto are almost twicenearly double the reported average concentrations for most suburban and urban background sites in Europe with average normalized PM₁₀ concentrations comparable to what was, and similar to those measured in Turkey, somecertain regions in Poland (Rybnik: 44.1 µg m⁻³), Bulgaria (Vidin: 41.3 µg m⁻³), North Macedonia (Skopje: 48.7 µg m⁻³) and Italy (Napoli: 46.9 µg m⁻³) in 2019 (EEA, 2020; EEA, 2022).
- The reconstruction of the measured PM₁₀ mass resulted from the mass closure procedure<u>of the major components of PM, as</u> described for organic matter in Favez <u>et al. (2010) and)</u>, Putaud <u>et al. (2004)</u>; non sea salt sulfate in). Seinfeld & Pandis (1998) and dust in Alastuey (2016) and). Chan et al., (1997), Pérez <u>et al. (2008)</u>; and Cesari et al., (2016). Thus:
 PM(recons) = (1.8 · [0C]) + [EC] + ([SO²₄] 0.252 · [Na⁺]) + [NO²₄] + (1.89 · [Al]) + (3 · (1.89 · [Al])) + (1.5 · [Ca]) +

(4)

[Ca] + [Fe] + [K] + [Mg] + [Mn] + [Ti] + [P]

 $PM(recons) = \{(1.8[OC])\} + \{[EC]\} + \{([SO_4^{2-}] - 0.252[Na^+]) + [NO_3^-] + [NH_4^-]]\} + \{2.54[Na^+]\} + \{1.15 \cdot ((1.89[Al]) + (2.14 \cdot (2.65[Al])) + 1.67[Ti] + (1.4 \cdot ([Ca] - [Ca^{2+}])) + (1.2 \cdot ([K] - [K^+])) + 1.36[Fe]) + (1.5[Ca^{2+}] + 2.5[Mg^{2+}]) \}$

Mis en forme : Indice	
Mis en forme : Indice	
Mis en forme : Anglais (États-Unis), Indice	
Mis en forme : Anglais (États-Unis), Indice	

³-The statistics presented hereafter refer only to the period in which measurements were made, and to the samples collected during that period.

where the first curly bracket accounts for the organic matter, the third one accounts for the sum of the mass of secondary inorganic aerosol particles (non-sea-salt sulfate, nitrate, and ammonium), the fourth accounts for sea salt, and the fifth curly bracket accounts for the mass of the main components of crustal material: Al₂O₃, SiO₂, TiO₂, CaO, K₂O, FeO and Fe₂O₃ (multiplied by 1.15 to take into account sodium and magnesium oxides), and the mass of unmeasured carbonates.

- Average PM_{10} (recons.)⁴ / PM_{10} (meas.) ratios of 0.8691 in El Alto and 0.7782 in La Paz were found. The remaining unidentified mass fraction may be attributed to the loss of volatile organic matter and secondary aerosols after the post-weighing, throughoutduring the transport until the analysis of the samples.filter fractions to be analyzed. The difference can also be associated to the presence of non-measured species (i.e. carbonates) or to the adsorption of water in the aerosol particles or the
- B15 <u>filter (Pio et al., 2013). Moreover</u> A 10% uncertainty associated with the <u>PM massgravimetry</u> measurements could also have a role in the observed difference.

The total average partitionpercentage contribution of the chemical species that significantly contribute to the measured PM₁₀ concentrations in El Alto during the campaign—was: 22±5% OM (i.e. 1.8- \cdot OC), 5±2% EC, 9±5% the sum of secondary inorganic aerosol aerosol (NH₄⁺, NO₃⁻, and SO₄⁻), and 12±3% of crustal material (Al, Fe, Ti, Ca, K, Mg, Mn, P). In La Paz, 25±5% OCOM, 6±2% EC, 8±5% the sum the secondary inorganic aerosols, and 10±2% of crustal material. Moreover, figS3Fig.

- 320 25±5% OCOM, 6±2% EC, 8±5% the sum the secondary inorganic aerosols, and 10±2% of crustal material. Moreover, figS3Fig. S3 in the SI shows the monthly behavior of the principal species contributing to PM, togetheralong with somecertain specific source tracers.
- Mean OC/EC mass ratios of 2.6±1.1 and 2.8±1.6 were found for El Alto and La Paz, respectively, during the measurements period. This average OC/EC ratio results from the combination of differentvarious sources such asincluding vehicle emissions together withand other primary and secondary local and regional sources of carbonaceous particles (such as biomass burning, primary biogenic emissions and secondary organic aerosols). Highest The highest OC/EC ratios during this period deviation, were obtainedobserved between August and October, peaking in September. The mean OC/EC ratios during this period is of 3.5±1.3 for El Alto and 3.8±1.6, pointing out not onlyindicating to the long-range influence of biomass burning emissions at the end of the agricultural year, but also toas well as the the influence of primary organic emissions (Mariola Brines et al. 2019; Hays et al. 2002; Robert et al. 2007; Robert, Kleeman, and Jakober 20072007a, b; Samaké, et al. 2019a, b; Waked et al. 2014). It was observed that biomass burning tracers peak in August, while polyols display an increase in concentrations peaking in
 - was observed that biomass burning tracers peak in August, while polyois display an increase in concentrations peaking in September. In contrast, minimum OC/EC ratios that display a smaller dispersion around the mean were observed between March and April: 1.9 ± 0.6 and 2.0 ± 0.6 in El Alto and in La Paz, respectively.

3.2 Source apportionment

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After approaching the analysis individually for each site and seeingobserving that both sites shared similar sources, as well as considering the proximity of both cities, the multisite approach allowed to overcome the challenge posed by the relatively low

⁴-A sea salt term was excluded from the equation due to the little influence from marine aerosols sources in this Mediterranean site. Moreover, an important source of chloride related to anthropogenic activities was observed, misleading the reconstruction of sea salt.

number of samples compared to the number of species included in the single site analysis. This approach immediately provided a solution with greater stability, maintaining the previously observed profiles and making it possible to achieve a stable 11-factor solution. Figure 3 displays the percentage contribution attributed by the PMF analysis to each of the resolved sources after applying the constraints described in the previous section.

The modeled PM₁₀ versus the measured PM₁₀ concentrations versus the modeled PM₁₀ concentrations through the multisite approach presented exhibited a linear behaviorrelationship with a slope of 1.01 and an R²=0.95, meaningindicating that the factor analysis was capable to reproduce adequately reproduced the measured concentrations. The 11 resolved sources include: dust, secondary sulfate, secondary nitrate, primary biogenic aerosols (PBA), MSA-rich, biomass burning (BB), traffic 1 (TR2), traffic

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2 (TR2), lubricant, non-exhaust emissions, and waste burning (Fig. 3). Most of the resolved sources are consistent with the emission sources observed in previous studies performed in other sites (Chevrier, 2016; Weber et al., 2019; Waked et al., 2014; Weber et al., 2019; H. Yang et al., 2016; Chevrier, 2016). A comparison of the chemical profile of the sources resolved in the present study, and the chemical profile of the sources resolved by Borlaza et al. (2021) and Weber et al. (2019) using the PD-SID method described in Belis et al. (2015) and, Pernigotti & and Belis (2018) can be found in the SI. In additionFurthermore, a separation of the traffic exhaust emissions (TR1, TR2) linked to the type of fuel used will also be presented in the following sections.

Dust and the ensemble of vehicular contributions (i.e. Traffic 1, Traffic 2, Lubricant, Non-exhaust emissions) are together responsibleaccount for 55% and 57% of the measured PM₁₀ mass concentrations in La Paz and El Alto-, respectively. The dust factor has exhibits outstanding contributions of 32% in the city of El Alto, becomingmaking it the dominant source in this city. For Although the volume sampler was placed on the roof of the observatory building, it cannot be excluded that the samples

- For Although the volume sampler was placed on the roof of the observatory building, it cannot be excluded that the samples were influenced by the local dust. In La Paz, the vehicular emissions take the lead in terms of percentage contributions (35%). The factors associated towith secondary aerosols factors aerosol particles (secondary sulfate, secondary nitrate, MSA-rich) were responsible for nearly 22% and 24% of total PM (La Paz and El Alto respectively), only a slight difference can be observed between the cities except for the nitrate rich profile. Finally, the biomass burning factor was responsible for an average of 9 and
- 8% of the total measured PM₁₀ (in LP and EA, respectively<u>)</u>. The chemical profiles and seasonality of each factor are displayed in Fig. 4 and Fig. 5, respectively, and will be discussed in more detail later.
 In our case, amongOne of the advantages of performing a multisite PMF in the present study is the possibility of differentiatingto differentiate between two traffic profiles that could hardly be observed in the individual solutions. Similarly, some factor profiles
- that remained mixed in the single-site-solution for one site were polished as a result of the combination of combining both datasets.
 That was the case for the dust, MSA-rich, traffic 2, and non-exhaust profiles (Single site solutions can be found in the SI for comparison with the multisite solution.

3.2.1 Dust

This factor is the major contributor to the observed PM₁₀ mass at both sites and is traced by crustal elements, such as Al, Fe, Ti, Mg, Mn, Ca, Na, K, V, Rb. The confidence interval for these species is very smallnarrow around the average displacement value. 370 which means indicating that these species are mainly the ones that define this source profile. The presence of other elements-such as, including sulfate, OC, Zn and Pb (with tight confidence interval), togetheralong with $EC_{\overline{1}}$ and Cu (with confidence intervals that allow negligible concentrations), supports the influence of road traffic in this source, through road dust resuspension. This factor has an average contribution of 32% (Ambient: 10.6±7.6 µg m⁻³, STP: 15.7±11.2 µg m⁻³) to the total PM₁₀ mass observed in El Alto during the measurements period, and 20% (Ambient: 5.5±4.1 µg m⁻³)⁵, STP: 8.0±5.7 µg m⁻³) in the city of La Paz. This 375 factor is largely responsible for significantly contributes to the difference in PM mass concentrations observed between La Paz and El Alto. ThisThe factor contribution can rise up to 46% of the mass in El Alto during winter time (specifically in June), whereas its percentage contribution in La Paz reached their maximum during the transition month of October (27%).

The difference in contribution between these two sites can be attributed to difference in La Paz and El Alto characteristics.

Particularly, El Alto is a fast-growing city located on the edge of the Altiplano region, a dry and arid area with mostly unpaved 380 streets and active construction works. On the other hand, the city of La Paz shows to be less influenced by this factor, likely because it has due to a higher fraction of paved roads compared to El Alto. In additionAdditionally, La Paz is situated at a lower elevation, surrounded by mountains and hillsides, which reduces the impact of strong winds from the Altiplano. Although both stations were considered to represent urban background, the terrain surrounding the two stations is very different. The El Alto station is located in the middle of the airport facilities, in a rather dusty area, while the La Paz station is located on the rooftop of 385 a building located in the middle of the city. Nevertheless, combining the time series obtained from the PMF analysis for this factor and the meteorological information from both sites, it was observed that the highest contributions from this factor were associated with higher wind speeds coming from the North West (NW). The seasonality observed in this factor is also consistent with the variation in precipitation favoring the main removal mechanism of dust in air (i.e., wet deposition). Similar contributions of dust to PM₁₀ (with comparable toor lower mass concentrations) werehave been reported by other studies in South America, like Sao Paulo: 25.7% (11.3 µg m⁻³, Martins Pereira et al. 20172017a), Bogotá: 30% (11.228% (10.5 µg m⁻³ (STP), Ramírez, et 390 al 2018⁶), or), and Quito: 19-21%,11-20.79.% (4.8-5.3 µg m⁻³, Zalakeviciute et al. 2020) (Absolute mass concentrations of dust

[µg m⁻³] were calculated based on the percentage contributions reported on the studies mentioned and the reported average PM mass concentrations).

malized concentrations to standard conditions of temperature and pressure: EA: 15.7+11.2 ug m⁻³: LP: 8.0+5.7 ug m⁻³

entrations reported in standard conditions of temperature and pressure

3.2.2 Primary biogenic aerosol (PBA)

395 The Primary biogenic aerosol (PBA) factor is linked to associated with the highest fraction of polyols-concentrations. These compounds are well known, which serve as tracers for foil and fungi activity, and plants as well as plant debris (Elbert et al., 2007; Samaké, et al., 2019 a, 2019a, b). The following most important contributors to this factor, with narrow confidence intervals are OC, K⁺ and heavier alkanes, species that have been observed accompanying this source in other similar studies (Borlaza, et al., 2021; Chevrier, 2016). Contributing to On average, PBA contributes 7 and 13% (1.5±1.0 µg m⁻³ and 2.8±1.8 µg m⁻³) in average 400 to the annual PM₁₀ mass observed in El Alto and La Paz, respectively. However, its sharecontribution increased up to 11 and 17% (2.1±1.1 µg m⁻³ and 3.4±1.7 µgmµg m⁻³) of the mass concentrations during early autumn (March-April). Minimum concentrations were observed during winter. Similar results were found in France by Chevrier (2016) and Samaké et al. (2019b) found similar results in France observing where maximum concentrations of primary biogenic tracers were observed between late spring and early autumn. Highest contribution of this factor was observed in late summer (February) in La Paz 4.4±2.4 µg m⁻³, 405 becoming the second largest source in terms of mass during this month (28%). However, it should be noted that there are fewer number of samples collected in the other rest of the summer months. Higher contributions of this factor were consistently observed in LP compared to EA, most likely due to its closer proximity to vegetation (both, local and in the valleys to the East).

3.2.3 MSA rich

This factor is almost entirelypredominantly identified by MSA, and responsibleaccounting for 100% of the MSA present in the samples. A-very small fraction of OC, V, Mn, Zn, and somecertain heavy alkanes areis also present in this factor possibly hinting, suggesting a small mixing with somepotential minor contribution from anthropogenic sources. It contributes to 7% (2.0±0.9 µg m⁻³ and 2.0±1.4 µg m⁻³) ofto the observed PM₁₀ mass observed in El Alto and La Paz. MSA is known to result from the oxidation of the primary emissions of dimethylsulfide (DMS) typically produced by marine phytoplankton, however studies have shown other possible sources of DMS as terrestrial biogenic sources, forest biota or lacustrine phytoplankton (Saltzman et al., 1983; Jardine et al., 2015; Du et al., 2017; Ganor et al., 2000; Jardine et al., 2015; Saltzman et al., 1983). No clear seasonality was observed, except for the slight decrease in concentrations in the months of March and October.

Neither back trajectory analysis nor association with local wind direction were useful to elucidate on the specific origin of this factor. However, Aliaga <u>et al.</u> (2021) showed that air masses passing by the Titicaca Lake formed part of the third main air mass pathway arriving to the nearest GAW station (CHC-GAW) between December 2017 and May 2018. Moreover, Scholz <u>et al.</u>

420 (2022) showed that the observed DMS in CHC-GAW during the same period was mostly linked to long-range transport of marine air masses, with a smaller contribution from the Titicaca Lake. GivenConsidering that air masses comingoriginating from the coast do not represent an important source of PM in the conurbation, terrestrial or lacustrine sources could be more likely to be the origin of this factor. The Titicaca Lake, the largest freshwater lake in South America, is located about 50 kilometers outside the metropolitan area (about 50 km) and long-range transport of air masses from the Amazon can also be observed at our twothe sampling sites.

3.2.4 Secondary sulfate

This factor contributes to 8% of the overalltotal observed mass concentrations at both sites $(1.9\pm2.1 \,\mu gm\mu g \,m^{-3}$ and $2.0\pm2.1 \,\mu g$ m⁻³ in El Alto and La Paz, respectively) and is characterized by the presence of sulfate and ammonium. This factor is generally associated to long range transport of air masses in preceding European studies (Fulvio-Amato et al., 2016; Borlaza et al., 2021; Waked et al., 2014) due to the time scales and conditions necessary to form ammonium sulfate from its gaseous precursors: sulfuric acid (H₂SO₄) and ammonia (NH₃) (Viana et al., 2008). It can be seen that Additionally, a small fraction of other inorganic elements such as Na, K, Mg, Ca are also found with tight confidence intervals in this factor. These elements have also been observed to be associated towith sulfate rich factors in previous European studies, at times associated occasionally linked to longrange transport factors (aged sea salt) (Weber et al., 2019; Veld et al., 2021; Borlaza et al., 2021; Dai et al., 2020; Veld et al., 2021; Cai et al., 2020; Veld et al., 2020; Veld et al., 2021; Cai et al., 2020; Veld et al., 2021; Cai et al., 2020; Veld et al., 2021; Cai et al., 2020; Veld et al., 2020; Veld et al., 2021; Cai et al., 2020; Veld et al., 2020; Veld et al., 2021; Cai et al., 2020; Veld et al., 2020; V

- 435 2021; Weber et al., 2019). Nevertheless, the small contribution of Zn and some heavy alkanes in the factor shows there could also be an influence of local sources to this factor. This could be attributed to the loserelaxed regulations of sulfur concentrations in imported fuels (<5000 ppm for diesel and <500 ppm for gasoline, Decree 1499/2013 of the Bolivian government), which represents 41 to 46% of the national consumption (Correo del Sur, 2022). FurtherFurthermore, this factor also includes a small fraction of OC, that could ariseoriginate either from anthropogenic emissions or from biogenic SOA formation (Borlaza et al., 2021). .440

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The highest contributions from this factor were observed during October and November (local spring) where a good combination of the key ingredients favorable conditions for ammonium sulfate formation is achieved: are met, including strong solar radiation, moderate temperature and relative humidity (Korhonen et al., 1999; Karamchandani & and Seigneur, 1999; Korhonen et al., 1999). A similar temporal variability was observed in the city of Arequipa (Peru) (Olson et al., 2021), the closest urban high-altitude

- large agglomeration (ca. 2300 m a.s.l., ~1 million inhabitants²) located 300 km to the west of LP-EA. The aforementioned study 445 found urban combustion emissions to be the main sources of sulfate aerosols in the city (50%), followed by dust (20%), despite its proximity to the coast and to the Central Andes volcanic region. However, it is important to highlight that an increase in sulfur concentrations associated to an increase in the regional volcanism activity took placeoccurred during the same period (Manrique et al., 2018; Masías et al., 2016), which could play a role incontribute to the observed seasonality. Nonetheless, the fact that the
- 450 average contributions of this factor to total PM₁₀ is basically the same forare nearly identical in both cities points toindicates an even distribution of this factor throughout the metropolitan region. Although the overall contribution of this factor to total PM is relatively low compared to other factors, it is responsible accounts for 14-15% of the observed mass in both sites during spring, while comprising only 3-4% of the total mass during winter.

²-https://m.inei.gob.pe/prensa/noticias/arequipa-alberga-a-1-millon-316-mil-habitantes-9903/

3.2.5 Secondary nitrate

- This factor is responsible of 53% of the nitrate found in the samples and represents the second largest source for the ammonium found at both sites (23%). This factor also presents<u>exhibits</u> a secondary contribution with a narrow interval of confidence interval for EC, OC, Zn, Pb, and heavy alkanes, tracers of traffic emissions. This evidences that the main source of the nitrates observed in La Paz and El Alto is linked to the combustion of fossil fuels, and is mostly locally produced from the oxidation of NO_x emitted from traffic. Previous studies of emission inventories in the country <u>have</u> also estimated <u>that</u> mobile (transportation-related) sources to be the main source of NO_x (Herbst, 2007; Pareja et al., 2011).
- The contribution of this factor to total PM_{10} was of 9 and 6% (2.3±2.0 µg m⁻³ and 1.6±1.6 µg m⁻³) in El Alto and La Paz, respectively. <u>LargerHigher</u> concentrations are observed in El Alto compared to La Paz. Since NO_x concentrations were not monitored at either of the stations, we can only speculate that the difference between La Paz and El Alto is partly dueattributed to <u>the difference in</u> ambient temperature difference between both cities, given thatas colder temperatures favor <u>the</u> partitioning of nitrate in particulate phase.

3.2.6 Biomass combustion

- The main source of for biomass burning pollution in the tropical South America areis agricultural practices and land use change (Mataveli et al., 2021). Even if Although it is not a common practice in the Andean region, long-range transport of air masses coming from the Bolivian lowlands and neighboring countries produces this factor_contributes to PM at both sites—with a significant contribution to PM. The main species represented in this factor are OC, levoglucosan, mannosan, and K⁺, which are typical tracers of biomass burning (Li et al., 2021Simoneit and Elias, 2000; Simoneit, 2002; Simoneit & Elias, 2000). AlthoughLi et al., 2021). While 100% of mannosan is explained by this factor, only-about 76% of the levoglucosan present in the samples can be explained by this source (despite the applied constraint). Low contributions of EC to this factor produce a median OC/EC ratio of 17.8. This factor eontributes to exhibits similar annual contributions of 9% and 8% of theto PM₁₀ concentrations-annually in La Paz and El Alto, with maximum average contributions of 17% and 13% (6.4±5.4 µg m⁻³ and 5.4±4.7 µg m⁻³) in the middle of the dry season (July-September), peaking in August. In contrast, the values<u>concentrations</u> during autumn are much lower (1.0±1.0 µg m⁻³ and 1.3±0.9 µg m⁻³). The median levoglucosan to mannosan ratios (Lev/Man=9.1) of this profile were found to be close to ratios previously reported byfor sugarcane burning (one of the main plantations in the Brazilian Amazon region) in laboratory and field studies (Hall et al. 2012: 10; Martins-Pereira et al. 20172017a: 11; Pereira et al. 20172017b: 12, Zhang et al.,
- 480 2015). The difference between cities in the observed concentrations assigned to this factor during the biomass burning season might be explained by the fact that EA, located higher up on Altiplano, is potentially less influenced by long range transport from the low lands.

Even if <u>Although</u> agricultural biomass burning practiced in the Andean valleys and the Amazon region of Bolivia and neighboring countries has a relatively low <u>annual</u> contribution-<u>on annual basis</u>, it is important during the dry season. <u>Over theOn</u> days
 wherewhen PM₁₀ concentrations exceeded the short-<u>term</u> exposure AQG recommended by the WHO (45 µg m⁻³ in 24-hr), the

biomass burning factor was responsible accounted for 13% of the total mass in EA (7.0 \pm 5.9 µg m⁻³) and 23% in LP (11.9 \pm 7.4 µg m⁻³. This makes, making biomass burning the second most important source of PM after dust during those episodes.

3.2.7 Non-exhaust vehicular emissions

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This factor is identified by the presence of metals such as Cu, Sn, SnSb, and Pb, andalong with a significant contribution of Fe in terms of mass. These species have been previously reportedidentified as tracers for break and tire wears (F-Amato et al., 2011; Charron et al., 2019; Fukuzaki et al., 1986), generated by vehicles through mechanical abrasion. However, some studies have also found these tracers to be associated with industrial emissions (La Colla et al., 2021), for which we could not entirely neglect the possibility of having an influence of industrial emissions masked within this factor. This factor appeared at an early stage in the single site PMF in El Alto but it was not observable in La Paz. The multisite PMF allowed to clearly identify this factor in La Paz, splitting it from another traffic related source. This factor contributes to 3% of the total PM₁₀ mass at both sites, with slightly higher contributions during the dry season, following a similar seasonality pattern as the dust factor. However, this factor frequently presents high concentration spikes in El Alto that are not observed in La Paz.

3.2.8 Open waste burning

- Thanks toWith the additioninclusion of PAHs and alkanes into the PMF analysis, a specific factor was identified, tentatively ascribedassociated to waste burning was identified. This factor is characterized by the presence of levoglucosan, K⁺, EC, OC, metal species such as Al, Ti, V, Rb, Pb, PAHs and alkanes, being accountable. It accounts for 57% of the Triphenylene observed in the samples. This factor also contributes in median to 10-20% of the observed concentrations of PAH_1, PAH_2, BaA and Chr, and 15 to 35% of the measured alkanes, and. It represents the second major source of the observed alkanes. Although Cl⁻ was not included in the final PMF solution because of<u>due to</u> the instability it added to all the <u>explored</u> solutions-explored, it was
- 505 observed that, preliminary runs indicated a significant fraction of total Cl⁻ appears in associated with this factor in, A Spearman correlation >0.67 was found between the preliminary runs. All these concentrations of Cl⁻ and the PM concentrations attributed to this factor (Table S6). These elements are typical byproducts of the combustion of plastic mixed with vegetation or wood (Simoneit, 2002; Cash et al., 2021; Christian et al., 2010; Guttikunda et al., 2013, 2019; Kumar et al., 2018; Lanz et al., 2008; Rivellini et al., 2017; Simoneit, 2002; Lanz et al., 2008; Guttikunda et al., 2019, 2013; Christian et al., 2008).
- 510 Similar factors have been previously observed in prior studies (Martins Pereira et al., 2017; Rai et al., 20202017a; Zíková et al., 2016), but; Rai et al., 2020), although only very few of these studies were able to distinguish it as a separate factor from biomass burning or traffic, given the ubiquity of some of the tracers.

This factor is responsible for On an annual average, the total mass of PM₁₀ attributed to this factor amounts to only 5% and 2% (1.8±1.8 µg m⁻³ and 0.8±1.2 µg m⁻³) on a yearly average of the total mass of PM₁₀ observed in El Alto and La Paz, respectively;
 but. However, during winter, its contribution can increase up to 9 and 6% (3.4±1.6 µg m⁻³ and 2.1±1.2 µg m⁻³) during winter.). The seasonality of this factor is elearevident, with rising up sharehigher contributions in May and decliningdecreasing

contributions in August. TheAlthough the exact source of this factor has not been identified yet, but remains unidentified, the higher contributions in El Alto than incompared to La Paz tend to point to suggest the presence of local sources, within the El Alto area. Analysis of windswind characteristics shows that higher concentrations of this factor are linked to low windswind speeds blowing from the North in the case of El Alto, and are from the northwest and with higher wind speeds in the case of La Paz; (Fig. S7). The local emissions could come whether from punctual-sources of waste burning, or the emissions of industrial and open commercial areas in El Alto, beinglater transported to the city of La Paz. Similar behavior was observed when associating Cl⁻ to wind speed and wind direction (not presented here).

3.2.9 Traffic sources 1 and 2 (gasoline/diesel)

- 525 The first resolved traffic factor resolved (TR1) is annually responsible for 6 and 8% of the observed PM mass in La Paz and El Alto, respectively (1.9±2.0 μg m⁻³ and 2.3±2.0 μg m⁻³). The main tracers of this factor are a small fraction of EC and OC, the presence of metals such as Na, Ca, Mg, Al, Fe, Ti, V, Mn, Zn, Rb, Pb, and over 40% of most PAH concentrations, consistent with previously observed vehicular emission factor profiles (F.-Amato et al., 2011; Waked et al., 2014; Charron et al., 2019; Waked et al., 2014). Some traces of sulfate, and lighter alkanes can also be observed in the chemical profile of this factor.
- 530 The second traffic factor (TR2) contributed with an average of 23% and 13% to total PM₁₀ in La Paz and El Alto, respectively (5.7±3.5 µg m⁻³ and 3.6±2.5 µg m⁻³). The chemical species identified in this factor are similar to those offound in TR1, including: EC, OC, Zn, PAH_1 and Cor, with small contributions of sulfate, Na, Ca, Mg and Mn. It is noteworthy that no alkanes and almost no hopanes are contributingfound in TR2, even if these compounds are in principle emitted by road traffic.
- The median OC/EC ratios obtained from the traffic chemical profiles of TR1 (0.4) and TR2 (are 0.4 and 1.1). Having, respectively
 The low OC/EC ratios observed in high-altitude conditions is no surprise, since are not surprising, as combustion processes are less efficient under low O₂ availability (Wang, et al., 2013a). However, because of the very different conditions for combustion, literature values of the ratio OC/EC (> 1 for gasoline, and < 1 for diesel, ¥.Brito et al., 2013, Cheng et al., 2010; ¥an-Cheng et al., 2021; Ka-Wong et al., 2020; H. H.-Yang et al., 2019) cannot be usedwere not useful to identify which of the traffic factors can be associated to gasoline- or diesel-powered vehicles. An important difference, being both OC/EC ratios in the present study
- 540 <u>close to 1.</u>

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<u>A key distinction</u> between the two <u>traffic</u> factors is that the Mn/Zn ratio, with TR1 exhibiting a ratio of Mn/Zn>1 is found in TR1, which isgreater than 1 and TR2 showing the opposite in the case of TR2:trend. The fuel analysis (pre-combustion) showedrevealed that the largest differences difference in the chemical composition between local gasoline and diesel fuels was the relative abundance of Mn compared to Zn. Whilst the measured prior-combustion ratios of Mn/Zn are not preserved, the

545 Mn/Zn ration isratio remains a characteristic feature of each of the profiles. Moreoverprofile. Additionally, TR1 have higher PAH concentrations, whereas TR2 showedshows much lower contributions of PAHs. Previous studies have showndemonstrated that gasoline-powered vehicles indeed emit more long-chain PAHs than diesel fuel (IFP, 2021; Leoz-garziandiaLeotz-Garziandia et al., 20141999; Zielinska, et al., 2004a). While gasoline-powered vehicles represent over 80% of the vehicle fleet in Bolivia,

literature has shown that diesel-powered vehicles can emit 10 to 30 times more particles than gasoline-<u>powered vehicles</u> (Zielinska et al., 2004b).

- In terms of contribution, the<u>TR2 has a greater</u> overall influence of <u>TR2 is more important</u> than TR1 in La Paz, and is almost twice as highinfluential as the influence of TR2 in El Alto. This candifference could be related to the difference in the topography, since severalas previous studies have shown that steep slopes can significantly increase the vehicle fuel consumption (Carrese et al., 2013; <u>Y</u>.-Wang & and Boggio-marzet, 2018). AlsoAdditionally, the proximity of the LP sampling site to the nearest main avenue (~100 m) and to the parking lot of the municipality buses (~100 m, horizontal distance; ~45 m vertical distance), which are diesel powered vehicles, mightmay play an important role in the respective influences of TR1 and TR2 in LP.
- The PD-SID comparison of both traffic factors with the road traffic profiles of several urban/urban-background French sites presented in Borlaza (2021) and Weber (2019) (SI) showed<u>revealed</u> there is a significant similarity between TR2 and the French road_traffic factors (where diesel is the dominant fuel used). However, TR1 presented<u>exhibits</u> PD values outside the similarity thresholds established by Pernigotti & Belis (2018).
- Based on the previous description of factors TR1 and TR2, we consider <u>likely</u> that TR1 is <u>likely</u>-related to the emissions offrom gasoline-powered vehicles, whereas TR2 is most likely associated to diesel-powered vehicles. However, the number of registered cars reported by the Municipal Tax Administration in 2011 showed that the number of gasoline-powered vehicles in the city of La Paz (~90% of the registered vehicle fleet in La Paz) was 2.4 times larger than the ones registered in El Alto (~80% of the registered vehicle fleet in El Alto). In contrast, similar number of diesel-powered vehicles were registered at both sites. If these numbers would bewere directly related to the flow of vehicles in the metropolitan area, they could imply the opposite of what
- can be concluded from the chemical profiles, i.e. TR1 associated to diesel powered-vehicles and TR2 associated to gasolinepowered vehicles. However, it should be kept in mindnoted that vehicle registration in one city does not mean that the vehicle eirculates in that locationnecessarily imply those are operating vehicles. This could be especially the case for trucks and buses that move between La Paz and El Alto. In addition, it is known that large contributions of emissions could come from a small
- number of vehicles (Ježek et al., 2015). All these; La Colla et al., 2021; Brito et al., 2013). These factors make difficultit challenging to estimate the contribution of the different typetypes of vehicles vehicles circulating in the metropolitan area to the measurements taken onobtained from the filters.
- The ensemble of both factors constitutesTogether, TR1 and TR2 constitute the major source of particulate matter in the case of La Paz, and the second largest source of PM₁₀ particles in the case of El Alto. TR1 displays a slight seasonality displaying with higher concentrations during the dry season of 2016. InOn the case of other hand, TR2, does not much display significant seasonality is observed, except for the higher concentrations observed between April-May 2016 and May-June 2017. Although, one could expect to have might similar variability for traffic-related profiles, this is not the first study to observe a difference in the yearly variability between of gasoline and diesel factors missions (Squizzato et al., 2018, for a study in New York State).

580 3.2.10 Lubricant oil

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The additioninclusion of molecular organic species (PAH, alkanes, and hopanes) allowedenabled the identification of a factor attributable to associated with lubricant combustion, likely associated tooriginating from vehicle emissions. This factor is marked by the presence of hopanes and alkanes, some of them being univocal in the chemical profile, which serve as unequivocal tracers of oil combustion (Charron et al., 2019; El Haddad et al., 2009). It is responsible of contributes to 36–47% of the total mass of alkanes present in the samples, and constitutes the major source of thehopanes, accounting for 65% of their total mass of hopanes (65%). This, Additionally, this factor-also presents smaller percentage contributions of OC, K⁺, Na, Ca, V, Mn, Cu, Zn, and somecertain PAHs, elements alsocommonly present in fuel combustion emissions. The contribution of this source to annual PM₁₀ mass is of 3 and 1% (0.9±0.8 µg m⁻³ and 0.4±0.6 µg m⁻³) in La Paz and El Alto, respectively. A clear increase in contributions during the coldest months of the year can be observed in the variability of this factor. A similar evolution of the hopanes with maximum concentrations during winter was observed in Marnaz (France) by Chevrier (2016). Likewise, a study in three cities of the United statesStates of America (USA) observed an increase of concentrations of hopanes and alkanes during the coldest

- months of the year (Kioumourtzoglou et al., 2013). This seasonality could be associated to the cold start of vehicle engines duringin the early morning and late-night hours, in the period when minimum temperatures drop.decrease.
- In generalOverall, the contribution of this factor is greater in the city of La Paz is higher than in-compared to El Alto. This
 discrepancy can be associatedattributed to the stress of additional strain experienced by vehicle engines when driving through while
 navigating the steep streets of La Paz, efforta challenge that is minimizedless pronounced in El Alto due to its flat topography.
 Even if Although the contributions of this factor to total PM₁₀ mass are relatively low, it becomes importantits significance in terms of air quality since it isshould not be underestimated, as it represents one of the major sources of alkanes and hopanes; the The latter beingcompound is considered hazardous for human health since it has proven to be associated to systemic inflammation biomarkers (Delfino et al., 2010).

3.3 Methodology discussions

The sampling strategy, the complete chemical characterization, and the multisite PMF, coupled with the specific geographical patterns, <u>permittedenabled</u> this quite unique study to offer an extensive characterization of PM sources in high-altitude cities and <u>should provide</u>. The present investigation provides important information that can help policy-making towards better air quality in the region. <u>However</u>, however, we are aware of some limitations.

PMF limitations

Having enough samples in the multisite approach and a fairly large chemical speciation including organic tracers allowed to resolve the identification of 11 factors in the PMF analysis. It is worth notingnoteworthy that only <u>a</u> few studies have been able to resolve similar number of sources with good statistical indicators (Borlaza et al., 2021; Chevrier, 2016; Pandolfi et al., 2020; Waked et al., 2014; Weber et al., 2019). However, when; Borlaza et al., 2021). Nevertheless, attempting a larger number of factors

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generatesgenerated instability in the otherwise geochemically stable profiles. There can be several<u>Several</u> factors contributingmay contribute to this observed limitation, among which can be found including:

- The collinearityCollinearity between sources, creatingresulting in mixed factors. The presence of OC in both secondary sulfate and primary biogenic emissions could speak of a possible mixing of these factors with biogenic secondary organic aerosols (BSOA). _A detachment of BSOA was not possible due to the lack of the specific tracers of this source (3-MBTCA, or cellulose, or methyltetrols).
- . Even though industryAlthough the industrial sector is not fullyhighly developed, there are factories within and the surroundingsyecinity of the Metropolitan area that were not resolved by the PMF (e.g. cement plants, brickyards, PVC manufactory plants). This could be due to the lack of specific tracers for these sources in the analysis, a similarity of the chemical profile and temporal variability of the emissions compared to the resolved sources, or simply because they represent a very small fraction of PM₁₀.

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- The need for removingremoval of chloride from the analysis for bringing instability to the solution. This instability was likely associated to the large variability of this volatile compound.

Multisite approach limitations

Although the use of While the multisite approach has added valueenhanced the findings compared to the results obtained with the single-site approach, it is important to note that *a priori* this method cannot be <u>directly</u> applied to sites that differ greatly from each other. It was important to verify the similarity of the single-site solutions. However, <u>aone</u> drawback of the multisite approach is that it <u>will forceenforces</u> the similarity of the common factors found between the two sites, smoothing out the specificity of them. <u>Some examplesExamples</u> of this forced similarity are <u>listed belowas follows</u>:

- The multisite approach allowed the separation of successfully separated EC (a traffic tracer) out offrom the dust profile successfully. However, considering that the Altiplano is a major source of dust and that the only path that the air masses take when transporting dust from the Altiplano to La Paz is acrosstraversing both cities, it is not surprising that the dust factor in the city of La Paz (single-site solution) is highly influenced by traffic tracers. For the multisite solution the indirect information of the mixing of sources during transport is lost.
- The <u>average</u> molar ratio of sulfate and ammonia concentrations <u>in each of differs between</u> the <u>two</u> cities <u>gives different</u> average values (2.05 and 1.63 in El Alto and La Paz, respectively), which provides information that in the city of La Paz there is less available indicating a lower availability of ammonium to neutralize sulfate and nitrate ions <u>in the city of La Paz</u>. However, this <u>distinction</u> is no longer <u>observableevident</u> in the multisite analysis, <u>in</u> which <u>yields</u> a median molar ratio of 1.96 is <u>found</u> representative of both cities.

- The MSA-rich profile shows in El Alto <u>exhibits</u> strong mixing with metallic species, among them crustal material, which hinted its path through the Altiplano towards the city of El Alto. This <u>in exchangemixing pattern</u> is no longer <u>seen</u> afterevident in the multisite analysis.

Given that<u>Considering</u> the <u>benefitsadvantages</u> of a more specific characterization of <u>the sources</u> <u>thanks toprovided by</u> the multisite approach outweigh the <u>associated</u> drawbacks-<u>of using it</u>, we <u>consider</u> that <u>thisbelieve it</u> was the <u>bestmost appropriate</u> technique to <u>be appliedapply</u> in the metropolitan region of La Paz and El Alto with such database in hand.

4 Conclusions

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- 550 This study bringspresents innovative information and a unique analysis of air pollution sources in the high-altitude urban environment of the fast-growing cities of La Paz and El Alto in Bolivia. It also provides a detailed description of the chemical profiles of 11 identified source types, resolved by the multisite PMF method and, along with their temporal and spatial variability. The wideextensive and comprehensive dataset-and, combined with the eombinationinclusion of inorganicsinorganic and organicsorganic species allowsin the analysis, enabled an advanced source apportionment going-beyond classical solutions, allowing for the identification of several biogenic factors and combustion-related factors that otherwise would have goneremained
- unresolved. For instance otherwise. Notably, waste burning was separated from biomass burning, and traffic exhaust emissions were separated into two independent profiles.

On average, vehicular emissions represent 35 and 25% of the PM₁₀ concentrations measured in La Paz and El Alto-, respectively. Then, dust stands outemerges as one of the two main sources contributing to 20 and 32%. The factors factors associated with secondary inorganic aerosols account for 22 and 24% and the primary biogenic emissions account for 7 and 13% at the annual level. Oneannually. Although one of the smallest factors in terms of contribution to the total massbut the second most important factor responsible for the observed PAHs is the , the non-regulated burning of waste happening mostly, predominantly occurring in El Alto between May and August, is the second most significant factor responsible for observed PAH concentration levels.

- The observations in this study are from were made at urban background sites, representing wider regionregional pollution levels in La Paz and El Alto. Locally, especially near roads or landfills, the mass concentrations are expected to be higher. Even if While most of the resolved sources are associated with local activities (dust resuspension, primary and secondary vehicular emissions, and waste burning), there is a significant contribution of regional natural and anthropogenic sources of PM (Primary and secondary biogenic emissions, and biomass burning).
- Based on our resultsfindings, we can outline relevant actions towards the improvement of air quality in La Paz and El Alto:
 1) Regulation of Vehicularvehicular emissions have to improved. As the Metropolitan area continues to grow, more efficient means of transportation and stricter policies and control on combustion practices are needed to ensure that air quality is not further degraded.

2) Waste burning should be prohibited. It is a major source of PAHs and other pollutants with high human health risk factor.

3) Agricultural biomass burning is a seasonal source, a decrease in their emissions would result in a significant improvement in 675 the air quality during the most polluted season, not only for the metropolis but also for the rest of the country.

4) Dust is an important source in terms of mass and it also that has an anthropogenic component in it (e.g. vehicle resuspension, construction activities, mining).) and should be addressed.

5) Updated policies of pollutant emissions are essential to regulate also the growing industry sector.

In order to have a comprehensive understanding of the pollution sources in the metropolitan area of La Paz and El Alto, 680 information on the gaseous components is of utmost importance. A longer sampling time period together with an updated emissions inventory of the resolved sources would be beneficial for a better understanding of the resolved sources and their evolution in time. Furthermore, analyzing the potential impact on health of the resolved sources is crucial for efficiently targeting the most hazardous sources of PM.

Code availability.

685 The software code is available upon request.

Data availability.

The chemical and PMF datasets are available upon request.

Authors contribution.

- GU, MA, PL, JLJ, AA, JLB, RK, IM, NP and AW participated in the conceptualization of the experimental set up and design. 690 IM participated in the data curation. VM, MP and LJB participated in the formal analysis and the development of the methodology, GU, MA, PL, JLJ, AA, JLB, RK, PG were involved in the funding and resource acquisition. JLB, IM, NP and VC contributed to the investigation by organizing the samples collection and performing the experiments. GU, MA, PL, MP, LJB, GM and JLJ helped with mentoring, supervision and validation of the methodology, techniques and results. VM was responsible for the data processing and the writing of the original draft. GU, PL and JLB revised the original draft. All the authors reviewed and edited the manuscript.
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Competing interests.

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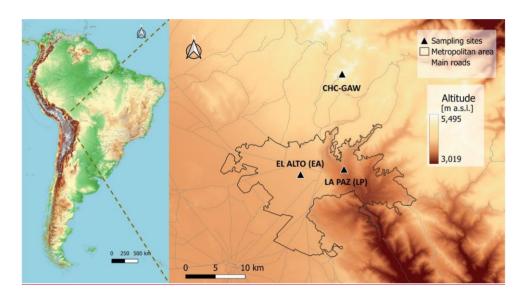


Figure 1. Geographical location of the sampling sites (left panel) La Paz (LP) and El Alto (EA) zoomed in (right panel) and positioned with respect to the regional Chacaltaya-GAW monitoring station (CHC-GAW). Color scale represents the altitude above sea level 1185 (ESRI Streets 2022).

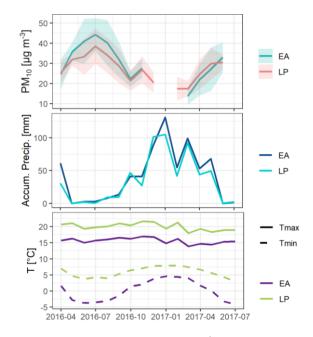


Figure 2. Monthly PM₁₀ mean concentrations (µg m⁻³), monthly accumulated precipitation (Accum. Precip., mm), and monthly mean maximum/minimum temperature (°C).

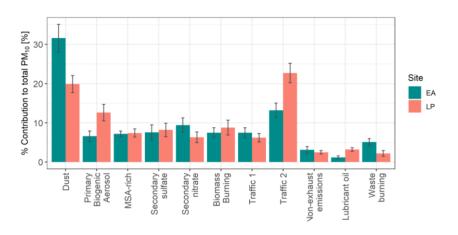


Figure 3. Average factor contributions to total PM_{40} at each site, resulting from the multisite PMF. The bars represent the 95% confidence interval of the mean values.

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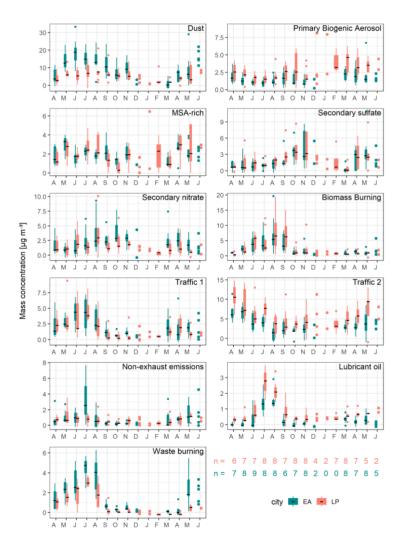
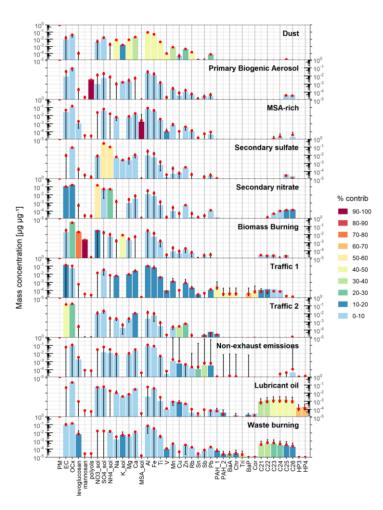


Figure 4. Source mass-contribution monthly variations (n = number of modelled data points included in the average) between April 2016 and July 2017.



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Figure 5. Source chemical profiles (bars representing median bootstrap mass contributions of each speciespecies per µg of PM mass attributed to each source in y-axis, red dots represent mean DISP values, error bars represent DISP confidence intervals, color scale represent the contribution in percentage). The name of each source is further described and developed in the individual factor descriptions⁸.

⁸ PAH_1: [BghiP]+[IP]+[BbF]; PAH_2: [Fla]+[Pyr]).

1205 Table 1. Set of constraints applied to final solution

FACTOR	SPECIE	CONSTRAINT	VALUE
Biomass Burning	Levoglucosan	Pull up maximally	%dQ 0.50
Biomass Burning	Mannosan	Pull up maximally	%dQ 0.50
Primary Biogenic Aerosol	Polyols	Pull up maximally	%dQ 0.50
MSA-Rich	MSA	Pull up maximally	%dQ 0.50

Table 2. Air quality studies at high-altitude Latin American cities.

	Average PM ₁₀	Period	Study	Population ⁹ Population ¹	Altitude
	(Min-Max)				[m a.s.l.]
	[µg m ⁻³]				
Mexico_City,	(51-132)<u>(</u>45.38-	March,	-(Mugica(Cárdenas-	18,457,000	2,850
Mexico	<u>80.10) ⁱⁱ</u>	2006 2015-	Moreno et al.,		
		2016	2009) 2021)		
	(19-174)	Jul-Dec, 2000	- (Gutiérrez-Castillo et al., 2005)	19,444,000	
Quito, Ecuador	24.9-26.2 ^{iii.iv}	Jan -Oct, 202 Dec 2018	17 <u>-</u> –(Zalakeviciute, – al., 2020)	-et 1,793,000	2,240
Bogota, Colombia	37.5 (9. <mark>9<u>89</u>-</mark>	Jun, 20	15- –(Ramírez, et	al., 9,989,000	2,620
	160) ¹⁰ <u>iii, iv</u>	May 20	016 2018)		
El Alto, Bolivia		April 20	16- —Present study		4050
	59.0) ⁴⁴ _iii,v	June 20)17		
La Paz, Bolivia	<u>27.2_(11.6-</u>	April 20	16- —Present study		3200-3600
	50.9) ^{6_iii, v}	June 20)17		

9-https://populationstat.com/

¹⁰ Concentrations reported in standard conditions of temperature and pressure. 1210

¹¹-Campaign average PM₁₀ concentrations that could slightly over estimate annual mean values due to a low number of samples

collected during the wet season, where the minimum mass concentrations expected.

i https://populationstat.com/

iv Concentrations reported in standard conditions of temperature and pressure

^v Campaign average PM_{10} concentrations that could slightly over estimate annual mean values due to a low number of samples collected during the wet season, where the minimum mass concentrations expected.

ⁱⁱ Range of spatial variation ⁱⁱⁱ Range of seasonal variation