

1 Concentrations and Adsorption Isotherms for
2 Amphiphilic Surfactants in PM₁ Aerosols from
3 Different Regions of Europe

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13

14 ABSTRACT. Predicting the activation of sub-micron particles into cloud droplets in the
15 atmosphere remains a challenge. The importance of surface tension, σ (mN/m), in these
16 processes has been evidenced by several works but information on the “surfactants” lowering σ
17 for atmospheric particles remains scarce. In this work, PM₁ aerosols from urban, coastal and
18 remote regions of Europe (Lyon, France, Rogoznica, Croatia, and Pallas, Finland, respectively)
19 were investigated and found to contain amphiphilic surfactants in concentrations up to 2.8 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$
20 in the air and 1.3 M in the particle volume. In Pallas, correlations with the PM₁ chemical
21 composition showed that amphiphilic surfactants were present in the entire range of particle
22 sizes, thus confirming recent works. This implied that they were present in hundreds to
23 thousands particles cm^{-3} and not only in a few large particles, as it has been hypothesized. Their
24 adsorption isotherms and Critical Micelle Concentration (CMC) were also determined. The low
25 CMC obtained ($3 \times 10^{-5} - 9 \times 10^{-3}$ M) imply that surface tension depression should be significant
26 for all the particles containing these compounds, even at activation (Growth Factor = 10).
27 Amphiphilic surfactants are thus likely to enhance the CCN ability of sub-micron atmospheric
28 particles.

29 Introduction

30 Predicting the formation of cloud droplets from aerosol particles in the atmosphere is still beyond
31 current capacities, which leads to large uncertainties in predicting important cloud properties
32 such as their precipitation and radiative contribution to climate. For sub-micron particles, the
33 probability to become a cloud droplet, or CCN ability, is predicted by theory¹ to be affected by
34 its surface tension. For decades, however, the surface tension of such particles was assumed to be
35 constant and equal to that of pure water, and the role of this parameter ignored,²⁻³ mostly because

36 the conventional instruments to investigate particle CCN properties are not sensitive to surface
37 tension and also because information on the surfactants present in atmospheric aerosols was
38 scarce.⁴⁻⁶

39 Two main classes of compounds can lower the surface tension, σ (mN/m), of aqueous particles,
40 but employing very different mechanisms and resulting in very different efficiencies:
41 amphiphilic surfactants and water-soluble organic compounds. Amphiphilic surfactants, which
42 possess a hydrophilic moiety and one or more hydrophobic chains, lower σ by anchoring their
43 hydrophilic moiety into the aqueous surface and applying a force perpendicular to it with the
44 hydrophobic chains.⁷ Water-soluble organic compounds, on the other hand, lower σ by screening
45 off the hydrogen bonds that are responsible for the high surface tension of aqueous solutions.
46 This latter mechanism is much less effective in reducing σ than that of amphiphilic surfactants, so
47 that much larger concentrations are necessary to achieve the same effects. This is reflected in
48 their respective adsorption isotherms (σ vs concentration graphs): water-soluble organics such as
49 HULIS,⁸ organic acids⁹ or acetaldehyde¹⁰ display a gradual decrease of σ with increasing
50 concentration, typically 10 mN/m per decade of concentration, resulting in $\sigma = 40 - 60$ mN/m for
51 concentrations above 0.1 M.^{8-9, 11} By contrast, those for amphiphilic surfactants display a sharp
52 decrease, $\sim 30-40$ mN/m per decade of concentration, until a specific concentration called critical
53 micelle concentration or “CMC”, beyond which σ remains constant and low, $\sigma = \sigma_{\min}$, with
54 typically $\sigma_{\min} = 25 - 45$ mN/m.¹¹⁻¹² The CMC is thus a key parameter for the role of surfactant on
55 cloud droplet formation. For a particle containing initially 0.1 M of surfactant and with $\sigma = 50$
56 mN/m, reaching activation with a Growth Factor $GF = 5$ would lead to $\sim 10^{-3}$ M of surfactant.
57 For an amphiphilic surfactant, this concentration would likely be larger than or comparable to the

58 CMC (which are typically between 10^{-5} and 10^{-3} M), thus ensuring $\sigma = \sigma_{\min} \leq 50$ mN/m at
59 activation. But for a water-soluble surfactant, the same decrease in concentration would result in
60 an increase of σ by over 20 mN/M, thus practically to the value of pure water, $\sigma_{\text{water}} = 72.8$
61 mN/m. Amphiphilic surfactants are therefore the most likely compounds to lower the surface
62 tension of particles at activation.

63 Recent studies have started to demonstrate the role of surfactants in cloud droplet formation,¹³⁻¹⁶
64 which has prompted the development of methods to investigate these compounds in atmospheric
65 aerosols.^{4-6, 17-18} These methods provide valuable information on atmospheric surfactants, in
66 particular on their concentrations.^{5, 17-18} But, without a selective extraction, they do not allow to
67 distinguish between the different types of surfactants. Over the years we have developed
68 analytical methods to extract and characterize specifically amphiphilic surfactants in atmospheric
69 aerosols.^{11-12, 19-20} With them, the presence of such compounds in atmospheric PM₁₀,^{11, 19, 21} and
70 PM_{2.5}¹² aerosols was established. More recently, the selective extraction was applied to PM
71 collected on a cascade impactor and evidenced the presence of amphiphilic surfactants
72 throughout the entire size range, including sub-micron ones.¹⁸ As sub-micron particles are the
73 only ones for which surface tension effects are expected to affect the CCN ability, the
74 concentrations and properties (adsorption isotherms) of the surfactants present in such particles
75 in the atmosphere needed to be further characterized.

76 In this work, PM₁ samples were collected with a resolution of 12 or 24 h in urban, coastal and
77 remote regions of Europe (Lyon, France; Rogoznica, Croatia; and Pallas, Finland, respectively)
78 and analyzed with the objective to determine the presence of amphiphilic surfactants, their
79 concentration, adsorption isotherms, CMC, and any other information (geographic and time

80 variability...) that might be useful to predict their effects on cloud droplet activation in the real
81 atmosphere.

82 **Experimental Section**

83 **Aerosols sampling.** Aerosol samples were collected on pre-baked 150 mm-Quartz filters with a
84 DIGITEL DA80 through a PM₁ inlet with a flow of 30 m³ h⁻¹ and a frequency of 12 or 24 h.
85 Three locations were chosen, representative of different types of environment. The first site was
86 the campus of Université Lyon 1, France (45°47'00.3"N 4°52'02.9"E), in the middle of the Lyon-
87 Villeurbanne agglomeration, thus an urban environment. The sampler was positioned on a top of
88 the "Dirac" building at ~ 205 m a.s.l. The sampling took place from 1 December 2014 to 19
89 January 2015, resulting in 53 samples, including 8 blanks. The second site was at the Marina
90 Frapa, Rogoznica, Croatia (43°31'47.9"N 15°57'35.1"E), on a peninsula surrounded by the
91 Adriatic Sea, thus representative of a coastal region. The sampler was placed at close to sea level
92 and the sampling lasted from 01 February 2015 to 20 March 2015 but resulted only in 17
93 samples, of which 2 were blanks, due to technical problems with the sampler. The third site was
94 the sub-Arctic site of Sammaltunturi (67°58'23.8 N, 24°07'57.3 E) of the Pallas-Sodankylä
95 GAW (Global Atmosphere Watch) operated by the Finnish Meteorological Institute, Finland,²²⁻²⁴
96 a remote site. The sampler was placed at the research station at the top of the Sammaltunturi hill
97 (565 m a.s.l) and the sampling took place from 21 April 2015 to 03 December 2015 and resulted
98 in 255 samples, of which 23 were blanks. But only 142 of those samples were analyzed for
99 surfactants and are presented in this work. In Lyon and Rogoznica, the samples were taken over
100 12 h (7:00 am/7:00 pm, thus alternating day/night) and in Pallas they were taken over 24 h

101 (midnight- midnight). All the filters were dried for 72 h and weighted before and after sampling
102 with a precision of ± 0.1 mg, to determine the mass of aerosol sampled.

103 **Sample extraction and analysis.** The protocols for the extraction and determination of the
104 concentrations and adsorption isotherms for the amphiphilic surfactants have been described in
105 detail in several publications.^{12, 20} Briefly, the extraction method involves two consecutive steps,
106 a water extraction and a SPE-based one, ensuring that only amphiphilic surfactants are collected
107 and not water-soluble ones. For all the atmospheric aerosol samples studied until now, however,
108 the second extraction step was found to remove all the effective surfactants from the samples
109 (i.e. all the compounds contributing to lower σ), which was demonstrated by the σ of the first
110 water extract increasing back to the value for pure water, σ_{water} , after the second extraction. This
111 implies that amphiphilic surfactants are, in practice, the only effective surfactants in atmospheric
112 aerosols, water-soluble ones having only modest (non-measurable) contributions. The
113 concentrations in the final extracts (after the two steps) are determined separately for anionic,
114 cationic, and non-ionic surfactants by preparing three aliquots and adding specific dyes in each
115 of them. The absolute molar concentration of each ionic surfactant fraction is then determined by
116 UV-visible absorbance and comparison with absolute calibration curves (i.e. independent of the
117 identity of the surfactant). The concentrations in the initial aerosol samples were then determined
118 from the ratio of the extract volume to the sampled aerosol volume, the latter being obtained
119 from weighing the samples and assuming a density of 1 g cm^{-3} .

120 The adsorption isotherms were determined for all the surfactants extracted from the Lyon and
121 Rogoznica samples, and for about half of those from the Pallas samples (75 out of 142) because
122 of the large number of samples at this site and the time-consuming nature of the analysis. These

123 isotherms were determined point by point by measuring the surface tension of the extracts and of
124 their successive dilutions. In each case, surface tension was measured with the hanging droplet
125 technique, using a Dataphysics OCA 15EC tensiometer.¹² On these isotherms, the CMC was
126 determined graphically as the intersection between the sharp decrease of the curve and the
127 plateau corresponding to σ_{\min} at large concentration. Although it has been argued that surface
128 tension measurements made on macroscopic droplets, as with the hanging droplet technique,
129 might not be representative of σ for microscopic droplets, all the experimental works that have
130 explored this question so far, in particular with single-particle techniques, have confirmed the
131 good agreement between these approaches.²⁵⁻²⁶

132 **PM₁ mass concentrations.** For the Lyon and Rogoznica sites, the PM₁ mass concentration in air
133 was determined for each sample by dividing the sampled mass weighed on the filters by the
134 volume of air sampled (360 m³). In Pallas, where the site was in clouds for a significant fraction
135 of the time, the PM₁ volume concentration was obtained by comparing the PM_{0.5} size distribution
136 measured with a differential mobility particle sizer (DMPS) filtering out cloud droplets with the
137 PM₁ volume measured with an Aerodynamic Particle Sizer (APS) in the absence of cloud to
138 avoid the contributions from activated particles.^{22, 27} This volume concentration was converted
139 into a mass concentration assuming a density of 1 g cm⁻³.

140 **ACSM measurements.** In Pallas, the concentrations of the organic fraction and main ions, SO₄²⁻
141 , NO₃⁻, NH₄⁺, and Cl⁻, in the PM₁ particles were monitored with an Aerosol Chemical Speciation
142 Monitor (ACSM, Aerodyne)²⁸ with a 50-min resolution.²⁹

143 **Results and discussion**

144 **Surfactant concentrations.** Amphiphilic surfactants were found in all the samples analyzed
145 (Fig. 1) with concentration between (0.01 ± 0.003) and $(2.8 \pm 0.9) \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ in the air, assuming a
146 typical molecular weight of 500 g mol^{-1} , and between $(6.8 \pm 2.2) \text{ mM}$ and $(1.3 \pm 0.4) \text{ M}$ in the
147 particle volume. The lowest concentrations were recorded in Rogoznica (median: $0.08 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ or
148 22 mM) and Pallas (median: $0.03 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ or 47 mM), and the largest at the urban site of Lyon
149 (median: $0.6 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ or 73 mM) (Fig. 1). The concentrations obtained at the coastal site of
150 Rogoznica, Croatia, were consistent with those of amphiphilic surfactants measured previously
151 in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ aerosols at the coastal site of Askö, Sweden (median: $0.1 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ or 38 mM),¹² in spite
152 of the different sampling resolution (72 h). The concentrations obtained in this work were also
153 generally consistent with those recently reported ($0.07 - 0.95 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) for amphiphilic surfactants
154 in $0.038 - 1 \mu\text{m}$ size fractions of aerosols from Ljubljana, Slovenia.¹⁸ All this supported the
155 validity of our results and indicated that amphiphilic surfactants are present in sub-micron
156 aerosol particles in many different regions of Europe.

157 As in previous works,^{12, 20} the surfactants extracted from the samples were divided into three
158 ionic types: anionic, cationic and non-ionic surfactants. In all the samples studied in this work,
159 anionic and non-ionic surfactants largely dominated over cationic ones, the latter being detected
160 only in a few occurrences and at very small concentrations (Fig. 1). In Lyon and Pallas, non-
161 ionic surfactants were more abundant than anionic ones (by about a factor 2, both in $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ and
162 in mM). In Rogoznica the opposite trend was observed (Fig.1), as it had been also observed in
163 the $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ from Askö, Sweden, thus confirming this trend in coastal regions. At all the sites, these
164 ionic fractions displayed some degree of correlation with each other, in particular the anionic and
165 non-ionic ones ($r^2 = 0.8$ over 15 samples in Rogoznica; $r^2 = 0.62$ over 43 samples in Lyon and r^2
166 $= 0.43$ over 142 samples in Pallas) (Fig. S1 of the Supplementary Information), suggesting

167 common background sources. However, these ionic fractions also displayed important sample-
168 to-sample variability, much larger than the uncertainties and which could not be accounted for by
169 constant ratios between them. This suggested the existence of several sources, contributing
170 differently to the different ionic fractions, in addition to a potential common background source.

171 It was important to determine if the observed sample-to-sample variability in concentration
172 reflected an actual variability in the particles (internal mixing of different surfactants at different
173 times on the particles) or resulted from mixing different particles containing different surfactants
174 during the analysis (external mixing). For this, the concentrations were compared with the PM₁
175 volume (or mass), surface, and number concentrations. First, this comparison showed that, in
176 average, the surfactants accounted for small fractions of the PM₁ mass (in $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$): 7.3 % in
177 Lyon, 1.5 % in Rogoznica, and 4.7 % in Pallas. Then, for the Rogoznica and Lyon samples, for
178 which only the mass concentration of PM₁ was available (Fig. S2), comparing it with the total
179 and ionic concentrations showed no correlation ($r^2 < 0.1$), which seemed to exclude internal
180 mixing as the cause for the variability in surfactant concentration. However, because PM₁
181 number concentrations were not available at these sites, it was not possible to confirm definitely
182 the occurrence of external mixing in these samples. In Pallas, no correlation was found between
183 the surfactant concentrations and the PM₁ number concentrations (Fig. S2), thus excluding
184 external mixing. But correlations were found with the PM₁ volume concentration ($r^2 = 0.52$ over
185 142 samples) and, more clearly, with their surface concentration ($r^2 = 0.57$) (Fig. S3), confirming
186 internal mixing as the cause for the observed variability in surfactant concentration. The larger
187 correlation obtained with the PM₁ surface than with the volume concentrations implied that this
188 mixing was surface-dependent rather than bulk-dependent, which was consistent for compounds
189 that are present exclusively at the surface of particles. The apparent correlation between

190 surfactant concentration and PM_1 volume was likely to be indirect and result from the strong
191 correlation between PM_1 surface and volume concentration at this site. These results thus implied
192 that the variability in the surfactant concentrations in the Pallas samples reflected an actual
193 variability in the surfactant mixtures present at the surface of the particles.

194 Interestingly, the strongest correlation with the PM_1 surface concentration was obtained with the
195 total surfactant concentration, while correlations with each of the ionic fractions were markedly
196 weaker ($r^2 = 0.50$ with non-ionic concentration; $r^2 = 0.39$ with anionic concentration; Fig. S3).

197 As discussed below, the opposite was observed with particulate-phase concentrations, for which
198 correlations with the total surfactant concentration always clearly resulted from a much stronger
199 correlation of one of the ionic fraction. This might indicate that the surfactant mass
200 concentrations (in $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ in air) were controlled (i.e. limited) by the aerosol surface, while the
201 particulate-phase concentrations (in M) were controlled by the sources, determining the ratios
202 between the different ionic fractions and other chemical components.

203 In Pallas, over the last 6 weeks of sampling (15 October – 24 November 2015, corresponding to
204 38 samples), the surfactants concentrations could also be compared with the PM_1 chemical
205 composition in term of organic, SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^- , NH_4^+ and Cl^- fractions measured with an ACSM
206 (Aerodyne). The average PM_1 composition over this period, including both the surfactants and
207 the chemical composition given by ACSM, is presented in Fig. 2, where a molecular weight of
208 200 g mol^{-1} was assumed for the organic fraction. The surfactant concentration represented a
209 small fraction of the total organic compounds: 5.6 % in average in the air ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) and 2.3 % in
210 the particulate phase (mM).

211 Potential correlations between the surfactants concentrations and the chemical fractions were
212 explored. First, studying the concentrations in the air (in $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) provided mostly information on
213 the largest particles of the population, that contributed most to the PM_{10} mass. The mass
214 concentration of the organic and NO_3^- fractions in air correlated with each other ($r^2 \sim 0.65$) and
215 moderately with the PM_{10} mass ($r^2 = 0.57$) (Fig. S4), while no correlation was found with the
216 other chemical fractions. The total surfactant concentration in air correlated weakly with the
217 organic ($r^2 = 0.46$) and NO_3^- ($r^2 = 0.31$) fractions and with the PM_{10} mass ($r^2 = 0.48$) (Fig. S4), but
218 with no other ions. This suggested that some of the surfactants were present in the large particles
219 of the population that contributed most to the organic and NO_3^- masses in the PM_{10} . The absence
220 of correlation with the SO_4^{2-} fraction suggested that these large particles did not originate from
221 anthropogenic pollution. As above, these correlations with the surfactant concentrations in air
222 were stronger with the total concentration than with each of the ionic fractions, probably because
223 these total surfactant concentrations were controlled by the PM_{10} surface concentration (which
224 correlated strongly with the PM_{10} mass concentration).

225 Then, examining the concentrations in the particulate phase (in M or mM) provided information
226 on the smallest particles of the population, as these concentrations were obtained by dividing the
227 gas-phase concentration by the PM_{10} volume. As shown in Fig. 2 the particulate-phase
228 composition of these small particles was dominated by NH_4^+ . Strong correlations were found
229 between NH_4^+ and Cl^- ($r^2 = 0.91$), NO_3^- ($r^2 = 0.88$), and the organic fraction ($r^2 = 0.78$) (Fig. S4),
230 implying that these small particles mostly contained NH_4Cl , NH_4NO_3 and some organic
231 compounds (or organo-nitrates) rather than ammonium sulfate. The total surfactant concentration
232 also correlated strongly with NH_4^+ ($r^2 = 0.67$). But, unlike with the concentrations in air, this
233 could be clearly attributed to the non-ionic fraction, which displayed a much stronger correlation

234 ($r^2 = 0.82$) (Fig. 2), while the anionic surfactants had a much weaker one ($r^2 = 0.49$) (Fig. S4). As
235 with NH_4^+ , strong correlations were also found between non-ionic surfactants and Cl^- ($r^2 = 0.77$),
236 NO_3^- ($r^2 = 0.69$), and the organic fraction ($r^2 = 0.53$) (Fig. 2). In all cases, the anionic and
237 cationic fractions followed the same trends but with weaker correlations. These strong
238 correlations between specific ionic surfactants and other particulate-phase components show that
239 the particulate-phase composition of the PM_{10} and relative abundance of the surfactant ionic
240 fraction were controlled by the sources, unlike the mass concentrations in air, which were
241 controlled by the PM_{10} surface.

242 The strong correlations between non-ionic surfactants and the organic and inorganic composition
243 implied that these surfactants were present together with NH_4Cl and NH_4NO_3 in the smallest
244 particles. This, together with the evidence reported above for the presence of amphiphilic
245 surfactant in the large particles, indicated that these compounds were present in the entire
246 particle size range, including the smallest ones. These results were consistent with recent works
247 reporting the presence of amphiphilic surfactants in size fractions from 38 nm to 1 μm in
248 aerosols from Ljubljana, Slovenia¹⁸ and confirmed that amphiphilic surfactants are present
249 throughout the entire range of particle sizes in the atmosphere.

250 **Number of sub-micron particles containing amphiphilic surfactants.** Although the analyses
251 in this work do not determine directly the number of particles in the aerosol populations that
252 contain amphiphilic surfactants, this number can be estimated from the concentrations measured
253 and the fact that the surfactants are present in all particle sizes. First, a lower limit can be
254 calculated by assuming that all the surfactants are contained in particles made only of surfactant,
255 with a density of 1 g cm^{-3} and a diameter of 150 nm (typical for the maximum of a PM_{10} size
256 distribution). Each pure surfactant-particle would thus contain 3.5×10^{-18} mol, so that the

257 concentrations measured in this work would be accounted for by 20 to 430 cm^{-3} of these
258 particles. If, as indicated by the surfactant/ PM_{10} mass ratios obtained in this work, the surfactants
259 did not exceed 10 % of the particle mass instead of 100 %, the concentrations measured at the
260 different sites implied that these compounds were present in 200 to 1500 particles cm^{-3} in
261 average. These numbers are significant and in the range reported for CCN numbers.³ These
262 results thus clearly show that surfactants are not present only in a few, large particles in the
263 atmosphere, as it has been hypothesized.

264 **Isotherms and CMC.** Adsorption isotherms were determined for all the surfactant samples from
265 Lyon and Rogoznica, and about half of those from Pallas. The results are presented in Fig. 3.
266 They all displayed a sharp decrease of the surface tension at low concentration and a minimum
267 surface tension values between 25 and 45 mN/m, that are typical of amphiphilic surfactants.
268 These curves are comparable to those obtained previously from amphiphilic surfactants extracted
269 from PM_{10} ^{11, 19} and $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ ¹²

270 As explained in the Experimental Section and illustrated in Fig. 3B, the CMC was determined
271 graphically on these isotherms, which, depending on the sample led to uncertainties between
272 30 to 50 % ($\times 1.5/1.5$). The results are presented in Fig. S5. In Rogoznica and Pallas, the CMC
273 were all lower than 10^{-3} M, with averages of 1.9×10^{-4} M and 2.1×10^{-4} M, respectively. In Lyon
274 they were nearly 10 times larger, but all lower than 10^{-2} M, with an average of 2×10^{-3} M. As the
275 CMC is mainly a characteristic of the molecular structure of the surfactant, and the environment
276 (particle composition) affects it by less than a factor of 2,³⁰ the very different CMC values
277 obtained in Lyon compared to the other sites clearly indicated the presence of very different
278 surfactants at this site.

279 Fig. S5 also shows that, at most sites, the CMC varied by more than one order of magnitude from
280 sample to sample, thus also indicating the presence of different surfactants at different times in
281 the samples. As the CMC is a key parameter for the role of surfactants on cloud droplet
282 formation, it was important to determine if this variability was actually occurring in the particles
283 (internal mixing) or resulted from the mixing of different particles containing surfactants with
284 different CMC during the analysis (external mixing). For this, the CMC values were compared
285 with the PM₁ volume (or mass), surface, and number concentrations. In the Lyon samples, no
286 correlation was found between the CMC and PM₁ mass concentration. This, together with the
287 absence of correlation between the PM₁ mass concentration and surfactant concentration
288 discussed above, and the significant number of samples in the series, seemed to exclude internal
289 mixing as a cause for the concentration and CMC variability in these samples. But the absence of
290 data on PM₁ number concentrations at this site prevented to conclude definitely that external
291 mixing was the cause for this variability. In Rogoznica, an anti-correlation was found between
292 the CMC and the PM₁ mass concentration ($r^2 = 0.54$) (Fig. S6), indicating that the strongest
293 surfactants (with smallest CMC) were present in the largest particles and, more generally, that
294 the variability in the CMC resulted from the internal mixing of surfactants at the surface of the
295 particles. The lack of correlation between the surfactant concentration and the PM₁ mass
296 concentration reported above, which seemed to exclude internal mixing, might thus have resulted
297 from the limited number of samples in the series. In Pallas, weak correlations were found
298 between the CMC and the PM₁ mass concentration ($r^2 = 0.32$) and surface concentration ($r^2 =$
299 0.29) (Fig. S6), but none with the number concentration ($r^2 < 0.1$). This confirmed that external
300 mixing could be excluded and that internal mixing was responsible for the variability in
301 surfactant concentration and CMC in these samples. But, in contrast with the Rogoznica samples,

302 the stronger surfactants were present in the smallest particles in Pallas. All these results show
303 that, at least at two of the sites studied, the wide variability in the surfactant concentration and
304 CMC reflected actual variabilities at the particle level, and resulting from the mixing of different
305 surfactants at different times at their surface.

306 **Implications for the CCN ability of atmospheric sub-micron particles.** As explained above,
307 the CMC is a key parameter for the surfactant efficiency in droplet activation, as it determines
308 the concentration at which the σ of a particle is minimum, thus how much this particle can take
309 up water before σ increases. To determine if the surfactants studied in this work can maintain a σ
310 lower than σ_{water} at activation, the ratio of surfactant concentration, C , over the CMC for each
311 sample was thus used to calculate the σ as function of the Growth Factor, GF. For this, GF was
312 converted into a volume change (i.e. a dilution factor on the concentration), which was then
313 reported on the isotherm of the sample. To simplify, only three domains of σ were considered,
314 reflecting a typical isotherm: for $C/\text{CMC} > 1$, $\sigma = \sigma_{\text{min}}$, with typically $\sigma_{\text{min}} < 45$ mN/m (cf. Fig.
315 3); for $1/10 < C/\text{CMC} < 1$, $\sigma_{\text{min}} < \sigma < \sigma_{\text{water}}$; for $C/\text{CMC} < 1/10$, $\sigma = \sigma_{\text{water}}$. The results are
316 presented in Fig. 4. They show that σ for PM_{10} particles is lower than σ_{water} for $\text{GF} = 5$ in 98 % of
317 the samples, and in 60 % of them for $\text{GF} = 10$. The σ of sub-micron particles at these sites is thus
318 very likely to be significantly depressed at activation ($\text{GF} = 5$ to 10). Note, however, that these
319 calculations were based on concentrations averaged over the entire samples, thus assuming that
320 the surfactants were uniformly present in all the particles. But if, more realistically, the
321 surfactants are only present in a fraction of the particles, their typical concentration in the particle
322 phase increases accordingly and the value of GF for which σ becomes lower than σ_{water} is much
323 larger. For instance, if the surfactants are present in a fraction of the particles representing only

324 10 % of the total PM₁ volume concentration, the particulate-phase concentrations used in the
325 above calculations would have to be increased by a factor 10, thus leading to $\sigma < \sigma_{\text{water}}$ for GF=
326 10 in the totality of the samples studied in this work. These results clearly show that the
327 amphiphilic surfactants present in of sub-micron particles in the atmosphere are very likely to
328 lower their σ compared to water even at activation, thus enhance their activation into cloud
329 droplets.

330 ASSOCIATED CONTENT

331 **Supporting Information.** The following files are available free of charge.

332 **Figure S1:** Correlations between anionic and non-ionic surfactants in PM₁ (gif file)

333 **Figure S2:** Variations of the PM₁ mass, surface and volume concentration at the different sites
334 (gif file).

335 **Figure S3:** Correlations between the ionic fractions of surfactants and PM₁ surface concentration
336 in Pallas, Finland (gif file).

337 **Figure S4:** Correlations between the PM₁ chemical fractions and the surfactant concentrations in
338 Pallas, Finland (gif file).

339 **Figure S5:** Variations of the CMC obtained for the amphiphilic surfactants in the PM₁ samples at
340 the different sites (gif file).

341 **Figure S6:** Correlations between the surfactant CMC and the PM₁ mass and surface concentrations
342 (gif file).

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350 **Author Contributions**

351 V.G. performed most of the sampling and analyses, with some assistance from L.F. and from
352 D.K.S on some samples and equipment made available by C.F. Access to the site in Rogoznica
353 was obtained from S.F and sampling was assisted by A.C.K. Access to the site in Pallas was
354 obtained from E.A. and H.L. Setting the sampling was assisted by L.F and A.A.F. and other data
355 (PM₁ size distribution, ACSM measurements...) were made available by N.K., M.A. and D.B.
356 B.N. and R.C.C supervised the joint project and scientific discussions. B.N. wrote most of the
357 manuscript but all the authors discussed the results and contributed to the manuscript.

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FIGURES

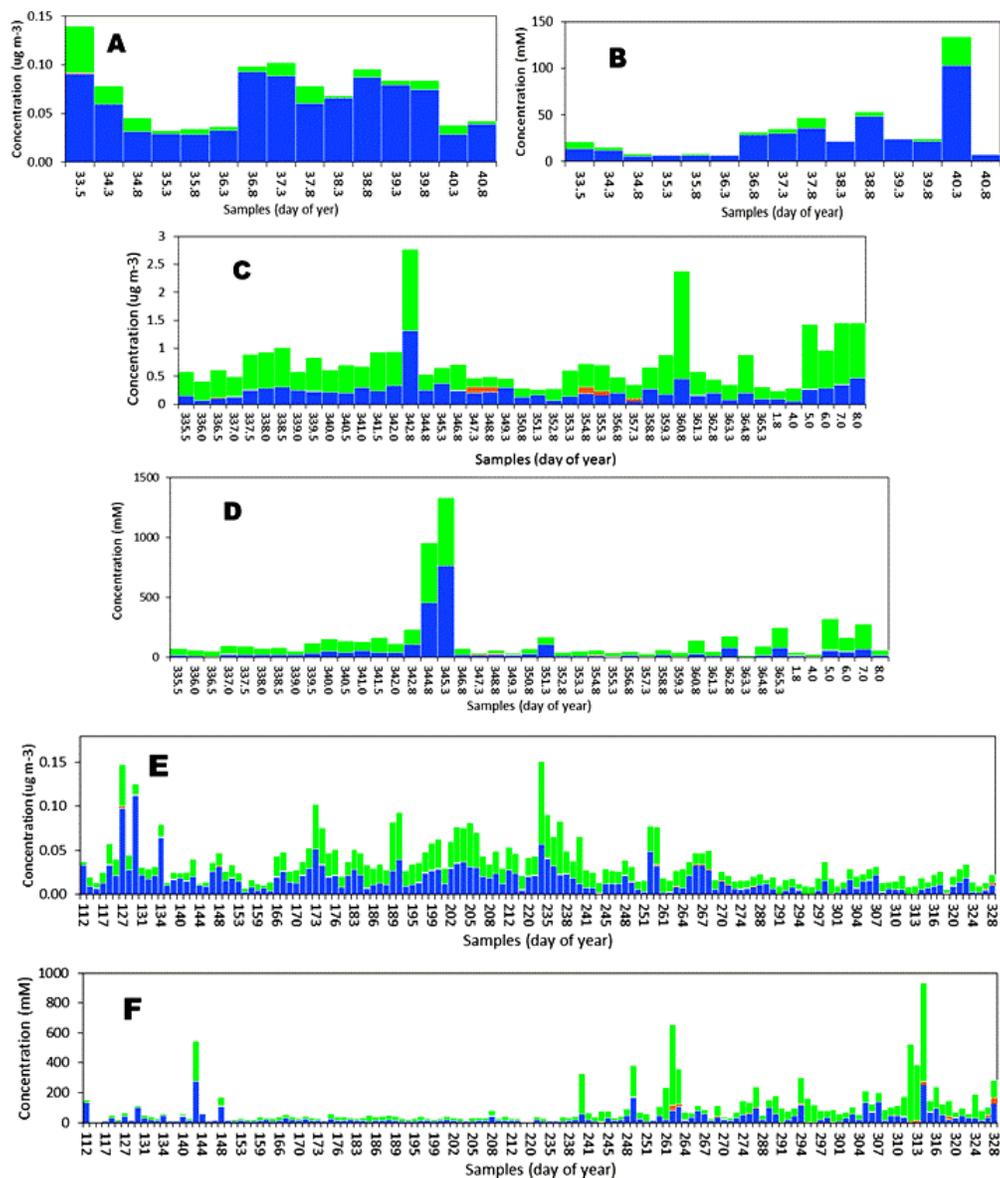


Figure 1: Concentration of amphiphilic surfactants in PM₁ Rogoznica, Croatia (A in $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$; B in mM) and Lyon, France (C in $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$; D in mM), and Pallas, Finland (E in $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, F in mM).

Blue areas: anionic surfactants; red: cationic ones; green: non-ionic ones.

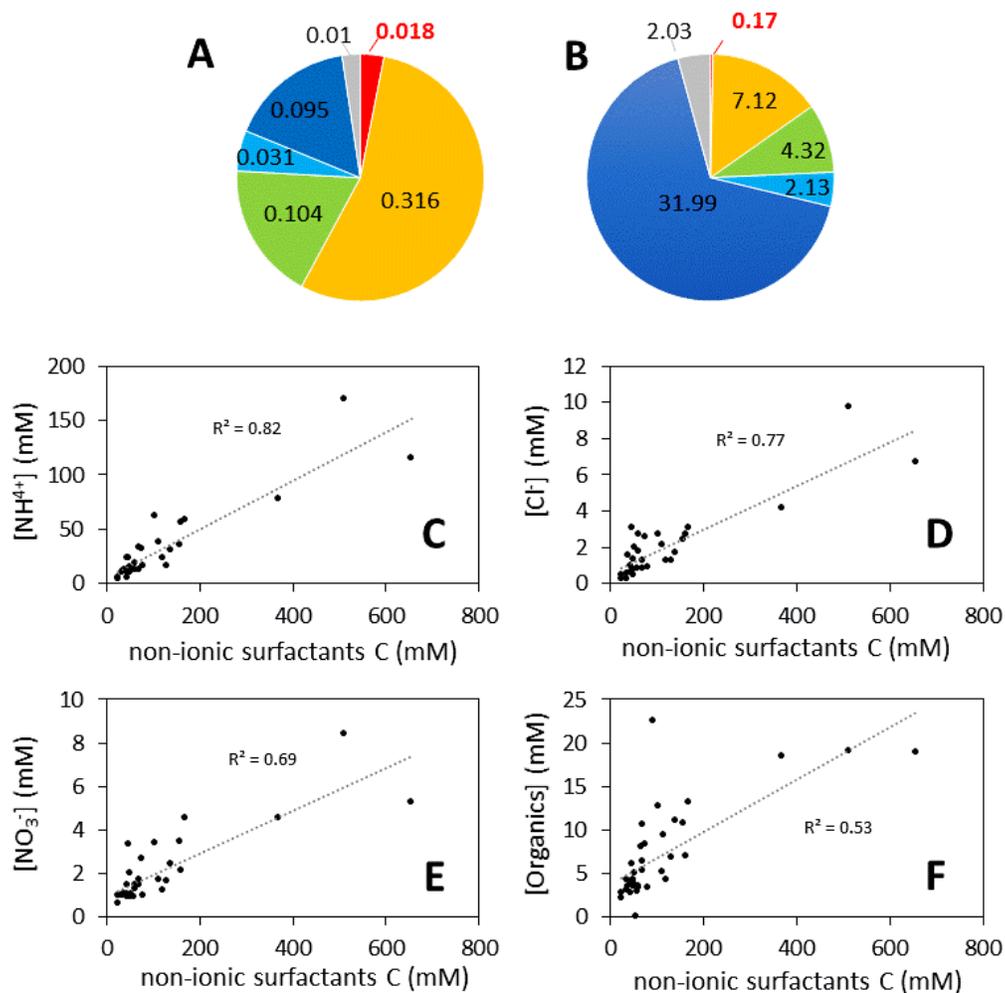


Figure 2: Average PM₁ composition measured by ACSM in Pallas, Finland, for the period 10/15-11/24/2015 (A: in $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ in air; B: in mM in the particle volume), and correlations with the ionic fractions (C-F). For A) and B): red = surfactants; yellow: organic; dark blue = NH_4^+ ; clear blue = NO_3^- ; green = SO_4^{2-} ; grey = Cl^- .

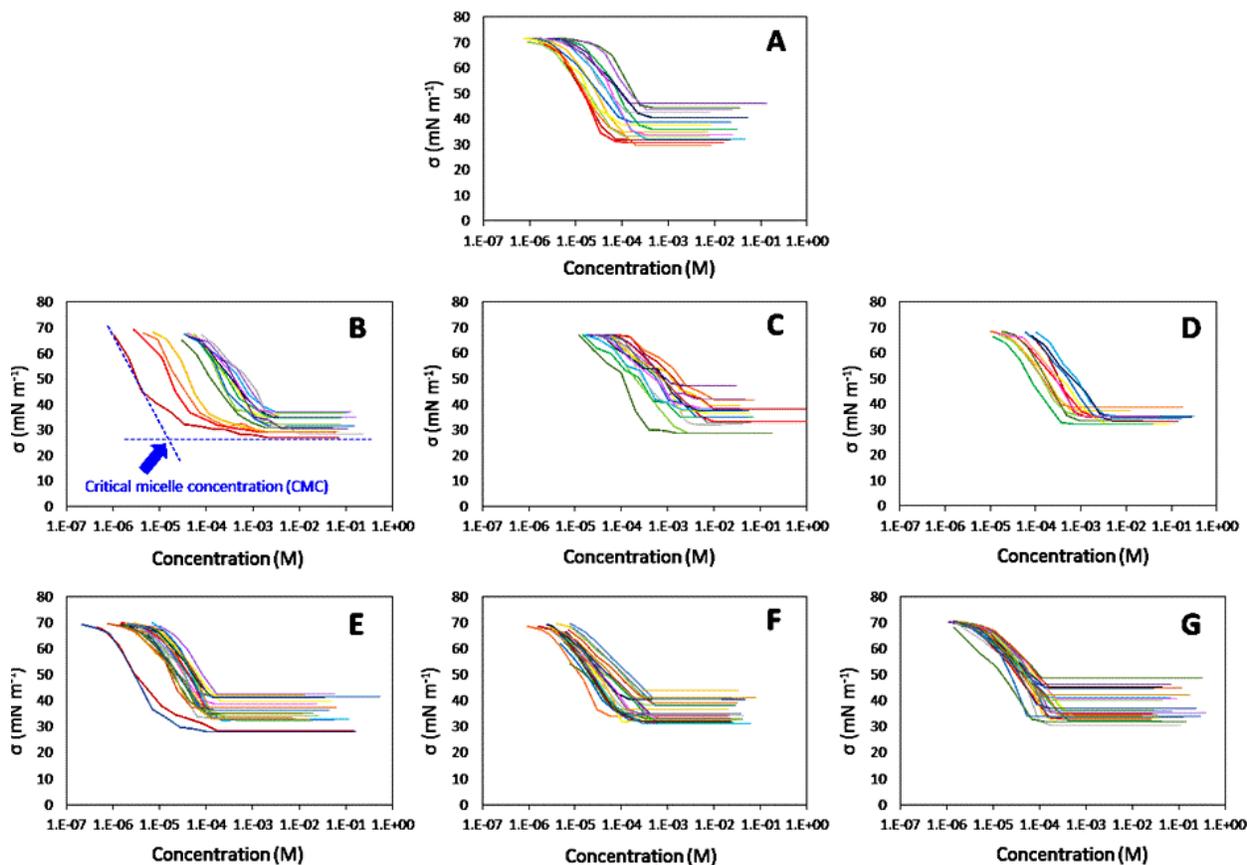


Figure 3: Adsorption isotherms for the surfactant mixtures extracted from PM1: A) Rogoznica, Croatia, 02 -09/02/2015; B-D) Lyon, France, B: 1 – 8/12/2014, C: 9 – 17/12/ 2014, D: 12 – 19/01/2015; E-G) Pallas, Finland, E: 22/04 – 30/05/2015, F: 31/05 – 31/07/2015, G: 31/07 – 14/11/2015.

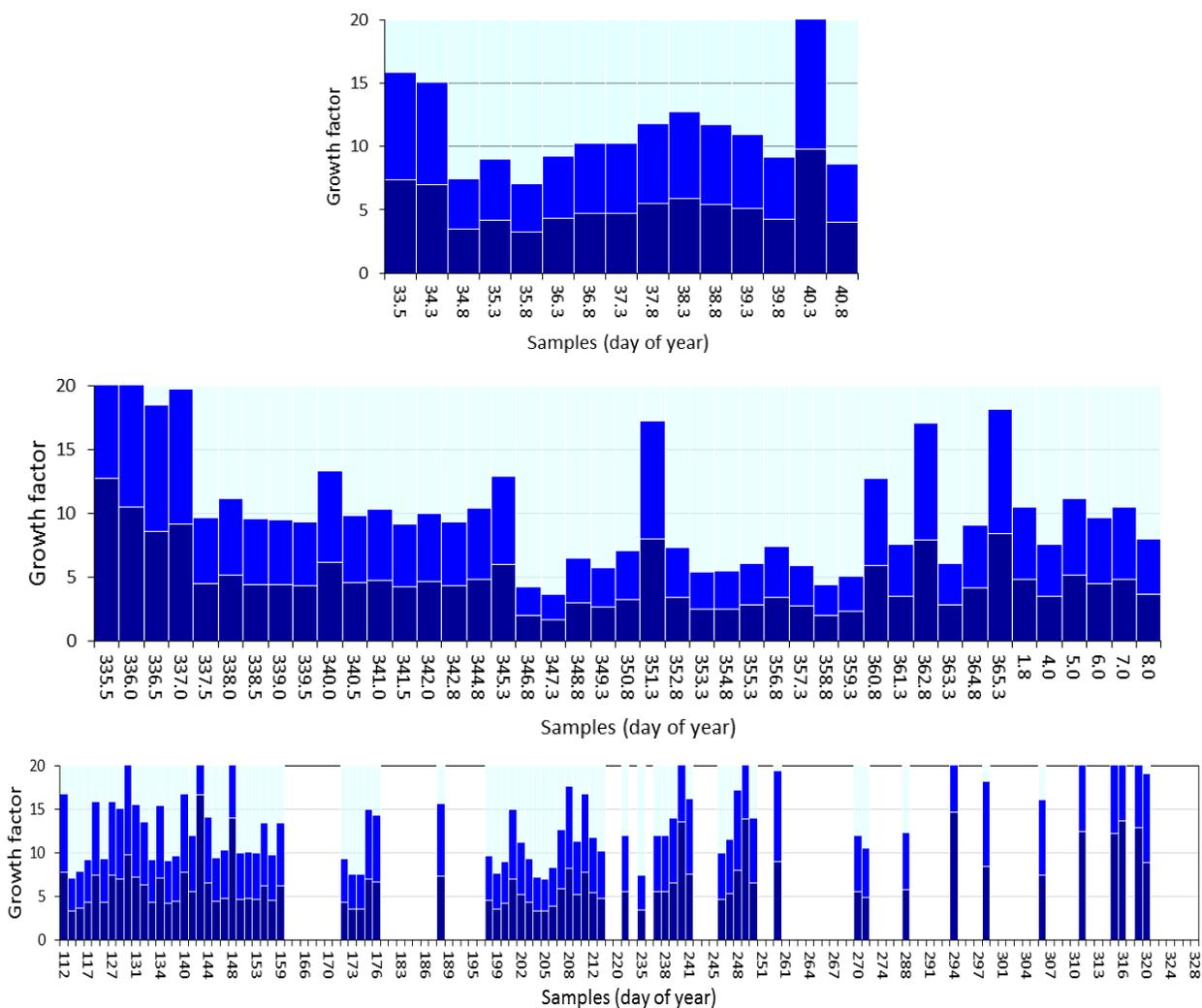


Figure 4: Surface tension domains for the PM_{10} particles as function of the Growth Factor. Pale blue: $\sigma = \sigma_{\text{water}}$; light blue: $\sigma_{\text{min}} < \sigma < \sigma_{\text{water}}$; dark blue: $\sigma = \sigma_{\text{min}}$. Top: Rogoznica, Croatia; Middle: Lyon, France; Bottom: Pallas, Finland.