1	Impact of vehicular emissions on the formation of fine particles in the Sao Paulo
2	Metropolitan Area: A numerical study with the WRF-Chem model
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19	Abstract
20	The objective of this work is to evaluate the impact of vehicular emissions on the
21	formation of fine particles (PM _{2.5} ; \leq 2.5 µm in diameter) in the Sao Paulo Metropolitan
22	Area (SPMA) in Brazil, where ethanol is used intensively as a fuel in road vehicles. The
23	Weather Research and Forecasting with Chemistry (WRF-Chem) model, which
24	simulates feedbacks between meteorological variables and chemical species, is used as
25	photochemical modelling tool to describe the physico-chemical processes leading to

26 evolution of number and mass size distribution of particles through gas-to-particle 27 conversion. A vehicular emission model based on statistical information of vehicular activity is applied to simulate vehicular emissions over the studied area. The simulation 28 29 has been performed for a one month period (7 August - 6 September 2012) to cover the 30 availability of experimental data from the NUANCE-SPS (Narrowing the Uncertainties 31 on Aerosol and Climate Changes in Sao Paulo State) project that aims to characterize 32 emissions of atmospheric aerosols in the SPMA. The availability of experimental 33 measurements of atmospheric aerosols and the application of the WRF-Chem model 34 made it possible to represent some of the most important properties of fine particles in 35 the SPMA such as the mass size distribution and chemical composition, besides 36 allowing us to evaluate its formation potential through the gas-to-particle conversion 37 processes. Results show that the emission of primary gases, mostly from vehicles, led to 38 a production of secondary particles between 20 and 30 % in relation to the total mass 39 concentration of PM_{2.5} in the downtown SPMA. Each of PM_{2.5} and primary natural 40 aerosol (dust and sea salt) contributed with 40-50% of the total PM₁₀ (i.e. those $\leq 10 \,\mu m$ 41 in diameter) concentration. Over 40% of the formation of fine particles, by mass, was 42 due to the emission of hydrocarbons, mainly aromatics. Furthermore, an increase in the 43 number of small particles impaired the ultraviolet radiation and induced a decrease in 44 ozone formation. The ground level O_3 concentration decreased by about 2% when the 45 aerosol-radiation feedback is taken into account.

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47 **1.** Introduction

The Sao Paulo Metropolitan Area (SPMA), in the southeast region of Brazil, is considered a megalopolis comprised of Sao Paulo city and more 38 municipalities. One of the main concern in the SPMA is the occurrence of violations of air quality standards 51 for ozone and fine particles at different air quality stations from the Sao Paulo

52 Environmental Agency (CETESB). The air pollutant emissions in the SPMA are related

53 to the burning of the fuels: ethanol, gasohol (gasoline with 25% ethanol) and diesel.

54 Recent work of Carvalho et al. (2014) reported a substantial increase in number of road 55 vehicles from 1 million in 2000 to almost 7 million in 2014, together with an overview 56 of the pollutants concentration, fuel use in the SPMA and the relationship between the 57 emissions and the improvement in the air quality in past years.

58 They constitute the main cause of impairment to air quality in the SPMA, but 59 the number of air quality standard violations has decreased for almost all pollutants with the exception of $PM_{2.5}$ and O_3 . Both these pollutants are impacted by the vehicular 60 61 emissions and have experienced an increase in the number of violations of local air 62 quality standards as discussed in detail by Carvalho et al. (2014). Pérez-Martínez et al. 63 (2015) have analyzed the monthly mean values for the regulated pollutants from 2000 to 64 2013 for the air quality stations in the SPMA. They found a decrease in the average concentration of NOx, CO and PM_{10} by 0.65, 0.37 and 0.71 % month⁻¹, respectively, 65 66 although the sales of the fuels (gasoline, ethanol, and diesel) had increased by 0.26, 1.96 and 0.38 % month⁻¹, respectively. 67

A recent report from CETESB (CETESB, 2013) highlighted that, in 2012, the vehicles contributed with about 40% of the total PM_{10} mass concentrations through direct emissions. If we consider the secondary aerosols, which were about 25% of PM_{10} as estimated by CETESB (2013), these were mainly found to be formed by chemical reactions between gases released from exhaust of vehicles.

The implementation of the Program for the Control of Vehicular Emission
(PROCONVE) established by the Brazilian Government in the 80's, enforcing measures
such as use of catalytic converters and ethanol as additive to gasoline in substitution of

76 tetraethyllead, led to decrease in emissions of CO and VOCs and hence their ambient 77 concentration. Although the emissions have been controlled by regulations, the number 78 of vehicles has increased substantially and faster than the replacement of the old 79 vehicles by the new ones (Pérez-Martínez et al., 2014). According to CETESB (2013), 80 the road vehicles contributed up to about 97, 87 and 80% of CO, VOCs and NOx 81 emissions in 2012, respectively, being most of NOx associated to diesel combustion and 82 most of CO and VOCs from gasohol and ethanol combustion. Receptor modelling 83 studies applied to six capital cities in Brazil (Andrade et al., 2012) showed that only 84 13% of PM_{2.5} in the SPMA is associated to the emission by the industrial processes (oil 85 burning and secondary aerosols).

To date, many studies assessing the impact of biofuels on the air quality have been performed in Brazil. For example, Anderson (2009) conducted a review concerning the use of ethanol fuel in Brazil. His work highlighted that the atmospheric concentrations of acetaldehyde and ethanol are much higher in Brazil in comparison with the other areas of the world. Costa and Sodré (2010) showed that exhaust emissions of hydrous ethanol reduced CO and Hydrocarbons (HC), but increased CO_2 and NOx levels.

93 A number of past studies has shown the significant participation of the 94 carbonaceous compounds in the concentration of fine particles in the SPMA 95 (Albuquerque et al., 2011; Miranda and Andrade, 2005; Ynoue and Andrade, 2004; 96 Castanho and Artaxo, 2001). Studies conducted on ambient air pollution in the SPMA 97 have also shown that BC explains 21% of mass concentrations of fine particles (PM_{2.5}; 98 \leq 2.5 µm in diameter) compared with 40% of organic carbon (OC), 20% of sulfates, and 99 12% of soil dust (Andrade et al., 2012). Most of the observed ambient PM_{2.5} mass 100 concentration usually originates from precursors gases such as sulphur dioxide (SO₂),

101 ammonia (NH_3), nitrogen oxides (NOx) and volatile organic compounds (VOCs) as 102 well as through the physico-chemical processes such as the oxidation of low volatile 103 hydrocarbons noted above transferring to the condensed phase (McMurry et al., 2004; 104 Heal et al., 2012). Since these processes are often photo-chemically driven, the resultant 105 aerosol usually falls into the category of secondary photochemical pollutant (Jenkin and 106 Clemitshaw, 2000). Oxidation of VOCs can produce species of sufficiently low vapor 107 pressure to be condensable, leading to the formation of secondary organic aerosol 108 (SOA) (Kroll and Seinfeld, 2008). Fine particles in SPMA have a great participation on 109 its composition of SOA, formed from the emissions of VOCs, which have the same 110 origin of the primary compounds involved in the formation of ozone, from the burning 111 of fuels. The participation of the biogenic emission is considered to be small in the 112 formation of particles in the metropolitan area of the city according to previous studies 113 of Martins et al. (2006).

The impact of the fine particles has been discussed in previous works, with evaluation of the scattering and absorbing effects of the aerosol (e.g. Li et al., 2005; Real et al., 2011). Vehicular emissions of particulate matter (PM) in the SPMA have a high percentage of BC (Brito et al., 2013), which after emitted to the atmosphere can enhance the absorption coefficient and thus the attenuation rates.

One of the most important aspects of this work is the quantitative analysis of the formation of $PM_{2.5}$ and ozone (O₃) in the SPMA. Photolysis of O₃ by ultraviolet light in the presence of water vapor is the main source of hydroxyl radical (OH), the most important radical in the atmosphere in terms of reactivity (Monks, 2004). At the same time, OH levels in the atmosphere directly determine the oxidation rate of the precursors of secondary aerosols. Oxidation products of VOCs and semi-VOCs by OH are the most important precursors of SOA (Li et al., 2011a). Although VOCs and NOx are 126 precursors of both O_3 and a fraction of atmospheric PM (NO₃⁻ and secondary organics) 127 while they influence indirectly the formation of the rest of the secondary PM components like $SO_4^{=}$, their control strategies that are optimal for O_3 controls may even 128 129 increase PM_{2.5} concentrations (McMurry et al., 2004). Such an analysis is important to 130 evaluate the contribution of the vehicular fleet using different kind of fuels to the 131 concentration of fine particles. In this sense, a numerical study with an adequate 132 physical approach, representing particles in the modelling system, is important to 133 understand the formation of secondary aerosols from primary emission of gases in a metropolitan area where the composition of fuel in vehicular fleet has changed 134 135 significantly over the past years. Therefore, the goal of the present study is to evaluate 136 the impact of vehicular emissions on the formation of fine particles in the SPMA, 137 focusing especially on the potential formation of secondary particles from the primary 138 emission of gases coming from on-road vehicles. The impact of aerosol particles on the 139 ozone photochemistry is also examined by means of numerical simulations. 140 Measurements were performed to provide input data to evaluate the modelling 141 performance and estimate the vehicular emission factors. Aerosol measurements were 142 taken from field campaigns that were carried out as part of the Narrowing the 143 Uncertainties on Aerosol and Climate Changes in Sao Paulo State (NUANCE-SPS) 144 project (http://nuance-lapat.iag.usp.br/). These campaigns took place between July and 145 September 2012. An online-coupled meteorology and chemistry model, i.e., the 146 Weather Research and Forecasting with Chemistry (WRF-Chem) model, has been used 147 to characterize and describe the physico-chemical processes involved in both the 148 formation and growth of new particles over the SPMA in southern Brazil. The details of 149 the experimental campaigns, WRF-Chem model and emissions are described in Section

2. Results from modelling experiments and comparison with measurements are
presented in Section 3. Finally, the summary and conclusions are given in Section 4.

153 **2.** Methodology

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2.1. Observational datasets

155 The study period starting from 7 August until 6 September 2012 was selected for 156 comparison with the modelled results (Section 2.2) due to the availability of 157 experimental data from the NUANCE-SPS project. The aim of NUANCE-SPS was to evaluate the impact of emissions in the SPMA on the air quality and changing climatic 158 159 conditions, and feedback mechanisms between climatic perturbations produced by both 160 primary and secondary emissions and urban atmospheric processes. Aerosol observation 161 datasets used in this work were collected using a Dichotomous sampler (Wedding et al., 162 1980) and a Micro-Orifice Uniform Deposit Impactor (MOUDI, model 100; MSP 163 Corporation - Marple et al., 1986). The MOUDI impactor collected particles in 10 size 164 classes with nominal 50% cut-off diameters: 10, 5.6, 3.2, 1.8, 1.0, 0.56, 0.32, 0.18, 0.1 165 and 0.06 µm. Particles smaller than 0.06 µm were collected in a subsequent stage or after-filter. The samples collected with the MOUDI impactor were deposited on a 166 167 polycarbonate membrane filter with 0.4 µm porous and for the Dichotomous sampler 168 the substrate was a teflon membrane filter with 2 µm porous. The after-filter in the 169 MOUDI impactor is a 33 mm teflon membrane filter, which was not submitted to the 170 reflectance analysis. The collected membrane filters sampled with the Dichotomous and 171 MOUDI samplers were analyzed to the identification of trace elements of mass through 172 X-ray diffraction analysis, mass concentration through gravimetric analysis, and black 173 and organic carbon through reflectance and thermo analysis using a thermal-optical 174 transmittance (TOT) (Sunset Laboratory Inc. – Birch and Cary, 1996). Ion

175 concentrations were evaluated through the ion chromatography analysis of the soluble 176 material collected on the membrane filters (sulphate, nitrate, ammonium, sodium, and 177 chloride). All these samplings were performed on the roof of the main building of the 178 Institute of Astronomy, Geophysics and Atmospheric Sciences of the University of Sao 179 Paulo (IAG-USP) (hereafter also referred as IAG-USP measurement site or simply IAG-USP), which is inside a small green-park (approximately 7.4 km^2), with local 180 181 traffic during the day and surrounded by major roads with intense traffic by light and 182 heavy-duty vehicles (Nogueira et al., 2014). Table 1 lists the aerosol instrumentation 183 deployed roughly at the IAG-USP measurement site. In addition, ambient data from the 184 CETESB's air quality monitoring network and the IAG-USP's climatological station 185 (hereafter also referred as AF-IAG) were also considered for evaluation of numerical 186 simulations. The locations of measurement sites are depicted in Fig. 1 whereas 187 geographic coordinates, urban-suburban classification, and the list of pollutants and 188 meteorological parameters monitored at each site is available in Table 2.

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190 2.2. WRF-Chem model

191 The WRF-Chem model is a fully coupled online meteorological and chemical 192 transport model (Grell et al., 2005), supported by National Center for Atmospheric 193 Research (NCAR) of the USA and several other research institutions around the world. 194 This model is a system of two key components. The WRF-Chem meteorological 195 component, the Weather Research and Forecasting (WRF), is a system configured for 196 both research and operational applications. The dynamical core used in this study is the 197 Advanced Research WRF (ARW). Model's equations into ARW are solved to non-198 hydrostatic conditions on a fully compressible atmosphere. Further details on the 199 modelling system can be found on the WRF model website (http://www.wrf200 model.org). On the other hand, the WRF-Chem chemical component treats chemical 201 processes such as dry deposition, gas-phase chemistry, photolysis rates, and aerosols 202 chemistry. A detailed description of the WRF-Chem model can be found on its website 203 (http://ruc.noaa.gov/wrf/WG11). Since both meteorological and chemical components 204 are fully coupled, the transport of all chemical species is on-line. The gas-phase 205 chemistry and aerosol modules employed in this study are the Regional Acid Deposition 206 Model, version 2 (RADM2) (Chang et al., 1989) and the Modal Aerosol Dynamics 207 Model for Europe - Secondary Organic Aerosol Model (MADE - SORGAM) (Ackermann et al., 1998; Schell et al., 2001), respectively. The inorganic species 208 209 included in the RADM2 mechanism are 14 stable species, 4 reactive intermediates, and 210 3 abundant stable species (oxygen, nitrogen and water). Atmospheric organic chemistry 211 is represented by 26 stable species and 16 peroxy radicals. The RADM2 mechanism 212 represents organic chemistry through a reactivity aggregated molecular approach 213 (Middleton et al., 1990). Similar organic compounds are grouped together in a limited 214 number of model groups through the use of reactivity weighting. The aggregation 215 factors for the most emitted VOCs are given in Middleton et al. (1990). 216 On the other hand, the most important process for the formation of secondary 217 aerosol particles is the homogeneous nucleation in the sulfuric acid-water system. It is 218 parameterized in MADE, following the method of Kulmala et al. (1998). Aerosol 219 growth by condensation occurs in two steps: the production of condensable material 220 (vapor) by the reaction of chemical precursors, and the condensation and evaporation of 221 ambient volatile species on aerosols. The inorganic chemistry system, based on the 222 Model for an Aerosol Reacting System (MARS) (Saxena et al., 1986) and its 223 modifications by Binkowski and Shankar (1995), calculates the chemical composition 224 of a sulphate-nitrate-ammonium-water aerosol according to equilibrium

225 thermodynamics. The organic aerosol chemistry is based on the SORGAM, which 226 assumes that SOA compounds interact and form a quasi-ideal solution (Grell et al., 227 2005). The SOA formation in SORGAM follows the two-product approach (Odum et 228 al., 1996) where the oxidation of hydrocarbons produces two types of modelled 229 semivolatile compounds that are partitioned between the gas and particle phases after 230 considering the absorptive partitioning theory (Pankow, 1994a; b). The primary organic 231 aerosol (POA) in MADE is calculated from the primary anthropogenic emission of OC. 232 Then, one may calculate the predicted OC concentration from the sum of both SOA and 233 POA. The concurrent organic matter (OM) can be obtained from the OC concentration 234 by application of a conversion factor. Brown et al. (2013) showed that the average 235 OM:OC ratio was 1.54 (with a standard deviation of 0.2) for sites with low amount of 236 secondary aerosol formation. It is important to note that this ratio can change from one 237 place to another. In areas impacted by biomass burning the ratio can be higher. Gorin et 238 al. (2006) assumed a ratio of 1.6 for the conversion from OC to OM over an area that 239 experiences a significant wood smoke influence.

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241 **2.2.1. Model configuration**

242 WRF-Chem version 3.5 was configured with three nested grid cells: coarse (75 243 km), intermediate (15 km) and fine (3 km). The coarse grid cell covered a big region of 244 Brazil and also of the Atlantic Ocean. The intermediate grid covered the southeast 245 Brazil while the fine grid cell covered barely the SPMA and metropolitan areas nearest 246 to it. Fig. 1 shows the arrangement of measurement sites and topography in the downtown area of the 3-km modelling domain. The initial and boundary meteorological 247 248 conditions are from the National Center for Environmental Prediction's Final Operational Global Analysis with 1° of grid spacing, 26 vertical levels and are available 249

250 every six hours: 00, 06, 12 and 18 UTC (http://rda.ucar.edu/datasets/ds083.2/). The 251 initial and boundary chemical conditions for representing gases and aerosols 252 background concentration were obtained from the Model for Ozone and Related 253 chemical Tracers, version 4 (MOZART-4; Emmons et al., 2010). This model was 254 driven by meteorological inputs from the Goddard Earth Observing System Model, 255 version 5 at a horizontal resolution of $1.9^{\circ} \times 2.5^{\circ}$, 56 vertical levels that are also available 256 every six hours. Table 3 lists the WRF-Chem configuration options employed by this 257 study.

WRF-Chem simulation with coupled primary aerosol (dust, sea salt and 258 259 anthropogenic) and gas (biogenic and anthropogenic) emission modules, together with the direct effect of aerosol particles turned on, is performed as the control simulation in 260 order to evaluate the model performance (hereafter referred to as Case 0). For 261 262 secondary aerosols, a simulation scenario (Case_1) with biogenic and anthropogenic 263 gases emission is performed to evaluate its formation potential. An additional 264 simulation (Case_2) is also performed to evaluate the impact of aerosols on ozone 265 photochemistry. Notation and description of simulations are listed in Table 4. The first seven days of each simulation were not analyzed and used for model spin-up. 266 267

268 **2.3.** Emissions

269 2.3.1. Anthropogenic emissions

Because on-road vehicles are the most important sources of air pollution in southeast Brazil's metropolitan areas, particularly in SPMA where, according to CETESB, more than 80% of pollutant emissions are generated by vehicular emissions; the anthropogenic emissions of trace gases and particles in both 3 and 15 km modelling domains were considered to include emissions only coming from on-road vehicles 275 through the use of a vehicular emission model developed by the IAG-USP's Laboratory 276 of Atmospheric Processes (LAPAt). Basically, this model considers the number of 277 vehicles, vehicular emission factors, and average driving kilometers for vehicle per day 278 as basic parameters for the calculation of exhaust emissions considering different 279 vehicle types (light-duty vehicles, heavy-duty vehicles, and motorcycles) and different 280 fuel types (ethanol, gasohol, combination of any proportion of gasohol and ethanol, and 281 diesel) according to CETESB (2012). The details of this model are available in Andrade 282 et al. (2015). In the case of VOCs, there are other two relevant emissions (fuel transfer 283 and evaporative processes) associated with the vehicles, besides the exhaust emissions. 284 Because of the complexities in the spatial representation due to a numerous factors such 285 as emissions at service stations, such emission sources are assumed to be emitted by 286 exhaust of vehicles for the sake of simplicity. The vehicular fleet and intensity of use 287 datasets are provided by the National Department of Traffic (DENATRAN) and the Sao 288 Paulo Transporte (SPTrans), respectively. Emission factors for road vehicles for most 289 pollutants were considered from previous studies performed inside road tunnels (i.e. 290 Janio Quadros, referred as JQ tunnel, and the tunnel 3 of the Rodoanel Mario Covas that 291 is referred hereafter as RA tunnel) located within the SPMA (Pérez-Martínez et al., 292 2014; Nogueira et al., 2014). However, emission factors for VOCs are considered from dynamometer protocols (CETESB, 2010). VOCs and PM speciation profiles used by 293 294 gas-phase and aerosol chemical modules were also obtained from NUANCE-SPS 295 experimental campaigns performed in 2011 (tunnel measurements) and 2012 (ambient 296 data). It is important to note that due to the lack of information on vehicular emission factors and intensity of use for most of the other metropolitan areas inside both 297 298 modelling domains (e.g. the Campinas Metropolitan Area, which is shown by the 299 second largest grey stain in Fig. 2), the calculation of vehicular emissions for these 300 urban areas was carried out on the basis of the parameters found for the SPMA. The 301 number of vehicles in any modelling domain is calculated from the sum of the number 302 of vehicles in each one of the main urban areas inside the modelling domain in question. 303 Spatial distribution of emissions for the 3 km modelling domain resolution was 304 based on road density products compiled by the OpenStreetMap project and extracted 305 from the Geofabrik's free download server (http://download.geofabrik.de). Urban areas 306 were assumed to allocate high emissions since these concentrate a road density greater 307 than other areas. In the case of the 15 km modelling domain, emissions are based on 308 night-time lights data from the Defense Meteorological Satellite Program 309 (http://ngdc.noaa.gov/eog/dmsp/downloadV4composites.html). These images are 30 arc second grids, spanning from -180° to $+180^{\circ}$ longitude and -65° to $+75^{\circ}$ latitude and 310 311 contain the lights from cities, towns and other sites with persistent lighting, including 312 gas flares. Cleaned up night-time light points with no ephemeral events such as forest 313 fires are used to allocate emissions. To estimate the number of vehicles in each grid 314 point of both domains, the sum of individual intensities at each point (i.e. total road 315 length for the 3 km modelling domain and night-time light for the 15 km modelling 316 domain) is firstly normalized by the total fleet, and then distributed uniformly using the 317 total fleet distribution so that emissions in urban areas are mainly represented by 318 emissions coming from their vehicles. Furthermore, due to the complexity involved in 319 describing the temporal variation of emissions at each grid point, median values for 320 vehicular traffic obtained from measurements inside the JQ and RA tunnels (Pérez-321 Martínez et al., 2014) were used for distributing the emissions during the day in both 322 domains. This approximation followed the approach used by Fast et al. (2006) where 323 emission profiles were calculated from median diurnal variations on weekdays and 324 weekends. We have applied the same constant diurnal cycle at all grid points where

emissions have values greater than zero. VOC and PM emission profiles were assumed
to be the same as for CO and NOx emission profiles since these pollutants are also
characteristic tracers of emissions of light-duty and heavy-duty vehicles, respectively.
Fig. 2 shows the maximum hourly emission rates for aromatic VOCs in the 3 km
modelling domain. Anthropogenic emissions were not considered in the 75 km
modelling domain.

The Another Assimilation System for WRF-Chem (AAS4WRF) chemical emissions pre-processor developed by the Latin American Observatory (OLE2; Muñoz et al., 2010; 2012) was used to scale emission rates on WRF curvilinear coordinates. AAS4WRF is appropriate to write chemical emission rates from both surface and elevated sources in the proper WRF data file format, providing an alternative tailored way to assimilate emissions to WRF-Chem. The method is explained in the OLE2 Wiki pages in detail (http://www.cmc.org.ve/mediawiki/index.php?title=Calidad_de_Aire).

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339 **2.3.2.** Other emissions

340 Biogenic emissions are calculated online based on the Guenther scheme 341 (Guenther et al., 1993; 1994). The Guenther biogenic emissions model calculates the 342 emission rates using temperature, photo-synthetically active radiation flux and land-use 343 data as the U.S. Geological Survey (USGS) land-use cover system classification if 344 coupled with the WRF model. However, as indicated in the WRF-Chem emissions 345 guide (http://ruc.noaa.gov/wrf/WG11/Emission_guide.pdf), several key chemical 346 species would have been representing relatively low emission rates because of the 347 limited vegetation types in the simulation, and thus their impacts are anticipated to be 348 much lower than those from vehicular emissions.

349 Dust and sea salt emissions are calculated online following the works of Ginoux 350 et al. (2001) and Gong (2003), respectively. The calculation of Ginoux et al. (2001) for 351 the uplifting of dust particles is based on the surface wind speed, wetness and 352 information on soil characteristics. The model then solves the continuity equation 353 including the emission, chemistry, advection, convection, diffusion, dry deposition, and 354 wet deposition of each species. The parameterization of sea salt aerosol source function 355 of Gong (2003) is an extended parameterization of Monahan et al. (1986), which scales 356 the generation of marine aerosols from mechanical disruption of wave crests by the wind and sea surface covered by whitecaps. 357

358

359 **3.** Results and discussion

360 3.1. Characterization of meteorological conditions

In order to study and understand the spatial and temporal variability of atmospheric aerosols, O₃, and other pollutants (i.e. CO, NOx) during the study period, it was first necessary to analyze the behavior of main meteorological systems acting on the atmospheric environment of the SPMA and surrounding areas.

365 According to the monthly climate reports from the IAG-USP's Climate Research 366 Group (GrEC), the observed precipitation rates were lower than the climatological value 367 in SPMA (anomaly of -38.6 mm) and larger part of the Sao Paulo State during August 368 2012. Negative anomalies on the precipitation were caused by the intensification of the 369 South Atlantic Subtropical High (SASH). These conditions established an easterly wind 370 anomaly pattern at the 850 hPa level. Conditions were unfavorable for relative humidity coming from the Amazon due to the Low Level Jet (LLJ) and less intense Alisian winds 371 372 in the Tropical Atlantic (GrEC, 2012a). However, the action of frontal systems favored 373 the rain accumulation in September 2012, mainly in western Sao Paulo State where the

374 greater positive amount of anomalies was observed. Precipitation events were 375 predominantly observed during the second half of the month. In this case, the wind pattern showed an opposite configuration to that observed in August 2012 as a result of 376 377 the weakening of the SASH (GrEC, 2012b). The IAG-USP's climatological station 378 recorded an accumulated precipitation of about 1.3 mm on three days of occurrence (28 379 August, 30 August and 4 September 2012) and an easterly wind pattern with a median intensity of 2 m s⁻¹ during the period between 07 August and 06 September 2012. Fig. 3 380 381 shows the hourly accumulated precipitation and relative humidity observed at the IAG-USP's climatological station. 382

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384 **3.2.** Analysis of aerosol species

385 Aerosol analysis included species such as organic carbon (OC), elemental 386 carbon (EC), sulphate, nitrate, ammonium, sodium and chloride in addition to other 387 elemental constituent of PM. All the samplings for these species were performed at 388 IAG-USP. Results showed that the major contributors to the concentration of fine 389 particles are OM (55.7%; OM:OC ratio of 1.5 found by Brito et al. (2013)) and EC 390 (15%), followed by sulphate (2.9%), ammonium (2.1%), sodium (1.9%), nitrate (0.5%) 391 and chloride (0.3%). The remaining mass (21.6%) is calculated by determining of the 392 difference between the total mass of PM_{2.5} (from the gravimetric analysis) and the sum 393 of the masses of 7 individual compounds, as noted above. Part of this remaining mass is 394 related to the water content of aerosols (Andrade et al., 2012).

On the other hand, PM_{2.5}, PM₁₀ and size distribution of particles measured at
 IAG-USP show that the study period was characterized by a reduction in the

397 concentrations up to the end of August 2012 when their minimum values were 398 achieved. This reduction was related to the action of a semi-stationary front between the 399 coasts of Sao Paulo and Parana States. After the passage of this system, aerosol 400 concentrations have significantly increased what could be related to an increase in 401 relative humidity once the SASH system is moved away from the continent, as well as 402 the transport of aerosol particles produced by forest fires in the central-west region of 403 Brazil and the Sao Paulo State. Several studies have shown the contribution of forest 404 fires on the atmospheric aerosol concentrations in SPMA (Vieira-Filho et al., 2013; Vasconcellos et al., 2010). One way to qualitatively evaluate the contribution of forest 405 406 fires on aerosol concentrations is by using the air mass trajectories. The Hybrid Single-407 Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory (HYSPLIT) model (Draxler and Hess, 1998) 408 was used to calculate backward trajectories of air masses in order to identify 409 atmospheric transport of air mass from forest fire areas. Fig. 4 shows the three-day 410 backward trajectories of air masses starting at IAG-USP for the days 9 and 31 August 411 and 5 September, when increases in the OC and EC concentrations were observed at 412 IAG-USP. The pink markers on the map represent the observed fire locations during the study period considering different satellite products (GOES, AQUA, TERRA, NOAA). 413 414 Fig. 5 shows the concentration of OC, EC and some species of PM_{2.5} during the

study period at IAG-USP. We can observe eleven exceedances of $PM_{2.5}$ concentration with respect to the air quality standard of 25 µg m⁻³ (see grey line in Fig. 5a) established by the World Health Organization (WHO). These exceedances have mainly occurred at the beginning and at the end of the study period when an increase in the concentrations of OC and EC were observed. The increasing organic matter could be associated to traffic incidents which may raise the emissions, which in case of less favorable meteorological conditions (e.g. lower height of lower planetary boundary layer, PBL, or slow transport of air pollutants) may have led to a more efficient formation of secondary
particles. Castanho and Artaxo (2001) analyzed the behavior of the aerosol composition
in SPMA and showed the increase in the concentration of inorganic and organic
material in the winter season compared to the summer season, explaining this behavior
with the meteorological characteristics: dry conditions with low height inversion layer
in the wintertime and a rainy summer.

428 Size distributions of aerosol mass indicate that the majority of sulphate, 429 ammonium and PM_{10} mass concentration is distributed in the size range with diameters 430 between 0.1 and 1 µm, commonly known as accumulation mode particles (Kumar et al., 431 2010). In the cases of nitrate, sodium, and chloride, most part of mass was concentrated 432 in particles with diameters greater than 1 µm.

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434 **3.3.** Comparison of baseline simulation with observations

435 All the numerical results presented in this section, for the purpose of comparison 436 with the measurements, were obtained from the baseline simulation (Case_0). The 437 predicted temperature, humidity, and 10-m wind speed and direction have been 438 compared to measurements from the AF-IAG and INT measurement sites. Overall, the 439 model captured the diurnal variation of temperature, relative humidity, and wind 440 directions reasonably well. However, the predicted wind speeds were higher than the 441 observed values. To evaluate the model performance in solving the meteorology and 442 chemical species, we computed the statistics correlation coefficient (R), mean bias 443 (MB), mean fractional bias (MFB), mean fractional error (MFE), and root mean square 444 error UB (RMSE_{UB}). The definitions of these statistics are given in the Appendix. Fig. 6 445 shows the predicted average of 10-m wind vectors and 2-m temperature for the whole 446 study period in the 3 km modelling domain. Blue dots represent the locations of AF-

447 IAG and INT sites, while the numbers in cyan indicate the observed average 448 temperatures (i.e. 17.7 °C at AF-IAG and 17.8 °C at INT). On an average, the predicted 449 wind direction was easterly in SPMA, which has somewhat affected the spatial 450 distribution of aerosol particles as examined later in this section. Likewise, the statistics 451 used to quantify the model performance in the representation of PM concentration show 452 that, in general, most of prediction-observation pairs present good correlation 453 coefficients, mainly those for PM_{10} , but with negative biases and standard deviations 454 lower than those for observations (see Fig. 10). Table 5 summarizes the performance 455 statistics used in this study showing comparisons between WRF-Chem predictions and 456 observations. The evaluation of WRF-Chem predictions for meteorology and chemical 457 species on a site-by-site basis is presented in the sections 1 and 2, respectively, of the supplementary material. Figs. 7, 8 and 9 show the observed and predicted temporal 458 459 variations of PM_{2.5}, PM₁₀ and O₃ concentrations at 3, 10 and 6 sites in the SPMA, 460 respectively, with some measurement sites sharing the same grid point for comparisons 461 due to the geographical proximity (e.g. the sites IAG-USP and IPEN-USP both 462 separated around 900 m from each other). These figures suggest that predicted 463 concentrations did not present any significant spatial variation in the downtown SPMA 464 and were generally underestimated when compared to measurements. This under 465 prediction could be associated with an underestimation on the vehicular emissions as well as other emission sources (e.g. emissions coming from industry) that are 466 467 disregarded in this study, in addition to predicted surface winds more intense than those 468 observed, leading to a dilution of aerosol particles in the SPMA. The high 469 concentrations of PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀ observed at the beginning and at the end of the study 470 period, whose variability and trends were reasonably well captured by the model, could 471 be related with the emission of high aerosol loadings due to traffic incidents as well as

the establishment of lower PBL heights, commonly observed under post-frontal
situations. The results for this simulation (Case_0) show that overall the predicted PBL
heights (not shown here) have a regular diurnal variation in the downtown SPMA with
averaged daily values around 500 m at both the beginning and the end, and of up to 700
m in the middle of the study period, when lower concentrations of aerosols were
observed.

478 Figures 11-13 show the predicted average surface distribution of PM_{2.5}, PM₁₀ 479 and PM_{2.5}:PM₁₀ ratio for the 3 km modelling domain, respectively. Red dots and cyan 480 numbers represent the locations and the observed mean PM concentrations (or mean 481 PM concentration ratios) at the measurement sites, respectively. Major contributions of 482 PM_{2.5} on the total PM₁₀ concentration were observed mainly over offshore continental 483 areas (see Fig. 13). High PM_{2.5}:PM₁₀ concentration ratios would be firstly associated 484 with the transportation of fine particles and gases from upwind regions (see Fig. 6), 485 followed by a production of fine particles from biogenic emissions. Additional 486 comparisons between the observed and predicted concentrations of OC and EC at IAG-487 USP (the only site with measurements of OC and EC) are shown in Fig. 14. As it has 488 been pointed out in the section 2 of the supplementary material, under predicted OC 489 concentrations could be associated, among others (e.g., underestimation of POA 490 emissions, inaccurate meteorological predictions), with an underestimation of SOA, 491 probably due to the absence of oxidation of monoterpenes and a limited treatment of 492 anthropogenic VOCs oxidation in the RADM2 mechanism, as discussed by Tuccella et 493 al. (2012). The SORGAM aerosol module considers the formation of anthropogenic 494 SOAs from the oxidation of alkane, alkene and aromatic VOCs as well as the biogenic 495 SOA formation from the oxidation of alpha-pinene, limonene and isoprene VOCs. 496 Recent studies coupling non-traditional SOA models (volatility basis set approaches) in WRF-Chem show improvements in the predicted SOA concentrations, although these
are still lower than those observed (e.g. Li et al., 2011b; Ahmadov et al., 2012;
Shrivastava et al., 2013).

500 On the other hand, measurements of mass size distribution were also made with 501 a MOUDI impactor at IAG-USP, following the protocol describe in Miranda and 502 Andrade (2005). Constituents of aerosol were subsequently determined by X-Ray 503 fluorescence analysis and ion chromatography analysis. As previously indicated in this 504 section, the main identified species are SO₄, NO₃, NH₄, Na and Cl. The observed 505 average aerosol composition is derived using measurements from both MOUDI 506 impactor and SUNSET analyzer. To perform the comparisons of mass size distribution, 507 we adequately joined the MOUDI bin sizes according to the three modes used by the 508 MADE aerosol module: Aitken ($<0.1 \mu m$), accumulation ($0.1-1 \mu m$) and coarse (>1509 μm). The observed and predicted aerosol mass size distributions averaged over the same 510 sampling time period (16 days along the study period) are shown in Fig. 15. Over the 511 downtown SPMA, both the observed and predicted fine particles from accumulation 512 mode account for majority of the total PM_{2.5} mass. Since the formation-growth 513 processes of aerosols in question are explicitly treated in the Aitken and accumulation 514 modes, the predicted concentrations for particles larger than 1 µm are assumed to be 515 zero. In this case, the mass of particles larger than 1 µm is allocated to the PM₁₀ aerosol 516 variable (see Fig. 15). The comparison between the observed and predicted average 517 contributions for the main identified aerosol constituents at IAG-USP is shown in Fig. 518 16. Both the observed and predicted OC and EC make up the largest fraction of $PM_{2.5}$ 519 mass with contributions of 55 and 40%, respectively. In addition, it was found that the 520 predicted SOA concentrations contribute 17% of the predicted total OC concentration at 521 this measurement site. Various global and regional scale SOA simulations have been

522 conducted using mass-based yield and partitioning coefficients, but they have 523 underestimated the SOA concentrations by roughly an order of magnitude, especially 524 over urban regions (Matsui et al., 2014). Using the same SOA formation approach 525 employed by this study and a conversion factor of 1.6 to convert the emissions of OC to 526 OM, Tuccella et al. (2012) found simulated SOA:OM ratios in the 5-40% range against 527 the observed range of 50-80%. Although the predicted average $PM_{2.5}$ concentration $(14.48 \ \mu g \ m^{-3})$ was lower than observed $(22.32 \ \mu g \ m^{-3})$, the mean aerosol chemical 528 529 composition was reasonably well represented by the model (see Fig. 16).

530 3.4. Contribution of dust-sea salt and coarse anthropogenic aerosols to PM 531 concentration

532 The evaluation of the contribution of dust and sea salt aerosols on PM_{10} 533 concentration is performed from the sum of their concentrations divided by the PM₁₀ 534 concentration. The simulated average ratio between dust-sea salt aerosols and the total 535 PM_{10} mass concentration is shown in Fig. 17b. High concentration ratios have been 536 observed over the ocean where sea salt emissions are by far the most important aerosols 537 source. Unlike high concentration ratios over the ocean, lower concentration ratios are 538 observed over the continent far away from the coast. In this region, the main sources of 539 atmospheric aerosols would be the emission of primary biological aerosol, SOA formed 540 from the emission of biogenic volatile organic compounds (BVOCs), and forest fires. 541 However, particles could also be transported from remote areas. In addition, we can also 542 observe that dust and sea salt aerosols have a contribution between 40 and 50% of the 543 total PM₁₀ concentration in the downtown SPMA. Furthermore, it is possible to estimate 544 the contribution of all the other PM_{10} (i.e., the coarse anthropogenic aerosol) to the total PM₁₀ mass concentration. It may be directly calculated from the model or estimated 545 from the Figs. 13 and 17b once the sum of concentrations of PM_{2.5}, dust and sea salt, 546

and coarse anthropogenic aerosol represents 100% of the total PM_{10} mass concentration. For example, we found that the coarse anthropogenic aerosol represents around 10% of PM₁₀ in the downtown SPMA.

550 **3.5**.

5. Evaluation of secondary aerosol formation

551 As described in Section 2.1, aerosol module employed by this study 552 (MADE/SORGAM) includes the homogeneous nucleation in the sulphuric acid-water 553 system. The sulphuric acid is the most significant condensable molecule formed in the 554 atmosphere, which has also been long recognised as the most important molecule from 555 the point of view of the nucleation of new particles (Jenkin and Clemitshaw, 2000; 556 Seinfeld and Pandis, 2006). However, for the SPMA, the importance of SOA formed 557 from the anthropogenic emission of fuel used by the transport sector was noted (Salvo 558 and Geiger, 2014). According to the official emission inventory developed by the Sao 559 Paulo Environmental Protection Agency (CETESB, 2013), the SOA explains 51% of 560 the fine particle mass concentration, with the vehicular emission being its main source. 561 The subsequent growth processes involve aerosol growth by condensation of 562 condensable material onto existing particles, and by coagulation of particles to form 563 larger particles (Kumar et al., 2011; 2014). For example, particles in the accumulation 564 mode emerge through coagulation of particles from the Aitken mode (Kumar et al., 565 2011). It is important to emphasize that the boundaries were updated with gas and 566 aerosol background concentrations coming from the 15 km modelling domain during 567 the whole simulation period. Thereafter, the impact of vehicular emissions on the formation of fine particles was calculated from the predicted $PM_{2.5}$ concentration 568 569 considering an emission scenario (Case 1) in which only emission of gases from 570 vehicles and vegetation are taken into account to be emitted to the atmosphere from the 571 surface. The predicted average PM_{2.5} (Case_1):PM_{2.5} (Case_0) ratio is shown in Fig.

17a. A contribution between 20 and 30% in the predicted baseline PM_{2.5} concentration 572 573 in downtown SPMA is found to correspond to the fine particles formation and transportation processes. Higher concentration ratios over the SPMA surroundings (30-574 575 50%) could be associated with more efficient biogenic emissions. Overall, it is observed 576 that the formation efficiency increases towards the northwest from the ocean. Deep red 577 areas in Fig. 17a could also be associated with the transportation of fine particles and 578 gases from other regions, in addition to having a more efficient production of fine 579 particles from biogenic emissions. For example, given the distribution of winds in Fig. 6, the northern boundary could represent the main source of particles and gases over this 580 581 part of the simulation domain. Additionally, the comparison between the predicted and 582 observed OC and EC concentrations at IAG-USP shown in Fig. 14 includes the Case_1 583 simulation in which only emission of primary gases is taken into account in the 584 assessment of fine particles formation. The concentration peaks observed at the 585 beginning and at the end of the study period may be associated with the transport of aerosol particles from both biomass and fossil fuel burning areas (see Fig. 4). 586 587 Considering the Case_1 simulation, we can observe very low concentrations for EC (mean concentration of 0.01 μ g m⁻³), as expected. This is because these particles are not 588 589 produced by photochemical processes in the atmosphere, but associated mainly with the 590 diesel exhaust.

591 **3.6**.

Aerosol impact on O₃ photochemistry

592 Ozone photochemistry production mainly depends on the two key photolysis 593 rates, as shown in Eqs. (1) and (2), i.e., shortwave radiation able to reach the surface to 594 break molecules of O_3 and NO_2 .

595
$$O3 + hv \to O2 + O(^{1}D) (\lambda < 320 \text{ nm})$$
 (1)

 $NO_2 + hv \rightarrow NO + O(^{3}P) (\lambda < 420 \text{ nm})$ (2)

596

597 Therefore, the impact of aerosols on O_3 photochemistry has been evaluated from 598 the impact of aerosols on downward shortwave radiation. Attenuation (scattering and 599 absorption) of downward shortwave radiation by aerosols may substantially modify the 600 photolysis rates, and thereby affecting the ozone photochemistry production.

601 The average percentage change in surface O₃ concentrations at 16:00 h (local 602 time) with and without the aerosol-radiation feedback module turned on are shown Fig. 603 17c. Overall O₃ is destroyed or formed (incoming transport from other regions) in small 604 quantities between -1 and +1% in relation to its total concentration. In addition, it was 605 observed that the surface O₃ concentration decreased by around 2% in the downtown 606 SPMA. Li et al. (2011a) found that the impact of aerosols on O_3 formation in Mexico 607 City was most pronounced in the morning with the O_3 reduction of 5-20%, but the 608 reduction is less than 5% in the afternoon. Low reductions in the O₃ concentration in the 609 downtown SPMA compared to results from other studies may be explained by the lower 610 predicted PM₁₀ concentrations, which can lead to a minor attenuation of the incoming 611 solar radiation. Simulated mean downward shortwave fluxes at ground surface (not 612 shown) were up to 5% higher for the Case_2 than for the Case_0 during the afternoon. 613 The inclusion of the direct effect of aerosol particles was found to have small reductions 614 in the surface temperature (changes by around 2%), presumably due to an increase in 615 the number of atmospheric processes involving downward longwave fluxes over this 616 area. Forkel et al. (2012) found an underestimation of predicted downward longwave 617 radiation over the southern Baltic Sea when the direct effect of aerosol particles was 618 neglected. Despite the highly non-linear behavior of tropospheric O₃, the reduction in 619 the predicted O_3 concentrations indicates a high efficiency of aerosols to attenuate the

620 downward shortwave radiation, what is plausible once it was found that low PM_{10} 621 concentrations have a capability to reduce ground level O₃ concentrations in a few ppb.

622

4. Summary and conclusions

The WRF-Chem community model has been used to evaluate the impact of vehicular emissions on the fine particles formation in the SPMA. Three thirty-one day simulations, covering a period from 7 August to 6 September 2012, have been performed. The aims were to evaluate the impact of fine particles formation (both inorganic and SOA) from gases emitted by road vehicles as well as the aerosol impacts on the ozone formation photochemistry. The results were compared with the

629 measurements available from the NUANCE-SPS project.

630 The predicted temporal variations of meteorology, PM_{2.5}, PM₁₀ and O₃ were 631 found to agree well with the measurements at most of the sites during the entire simulation period. However, the predicted concentrations of PM_{2.5}, PM₁₀ and O₃ (but in 632 633 minor intensity) were lower than the observed values. This difference could be 634 associated with an underestimation of the vehicular emissions and other emission 635 sources such as industry, heating and cooking, which are not considered in this study. 636 Wind speed and direction played an important role in the distribution of fine particles 637 over the simulation domain. Backward trajectories analysis suggested that aerosol particles from biomass burning were transported to SPMA, impacting on the PM 638 639 concentration over this region.

640 The baseline simulation (Case_0) showed that dust and sea salt aerosols made a 641 contribution between 40 and 50% of the total PM_{10} concentration in the downtown 642 SPMA. On the other hand, the Case_1, which represents simulations with gaseous 643 emissions only, indicates that the emissions of primary gases coming mainly from vehicles have a potential to form new particles between 20 and 30% in relation to the baseline $PM_{2.5}$ concentration found in the downtown SPMA. Finally, the Case_2, which represents simulations with aerosol-radiation feedback turned on, reveals a reduction in the surface O₃ concentration by around 2% in the afternoon (16:00 h; local time) when the aerosol-radiation feedback is taken into account.

649 This study provides a first step to understand the impact of vehicular emissions 650 on the secondary particles formation in the SPMA. Nevertheless, more experimental 651 campaigns are recommended for future work in order to characterize aerosols in ambient air and to improve their emission estimates so that a better understanding of 652 653 physical and chemical properties and their formation can be established. This study also evaluates the importance of the VOCs in the formation of not only O₃ but also of fine 654 655 particles. These compounds play an important role concerning health impacts and 656 climate change, and the control of their concentrations requires the description of their 657 formation mechanisms.

658 Appendix

659 The statistics used in this study are defined as follows:

660 1. Mean bias (MB)

$$MB = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (M_i - O_i)$$

661

662 2. Mean fractional bias (MFB)

MFB =
$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{2(M_i - O_i)}{M_i + O_i} 100\%$$

663

664 3. Mean fractional error (MFE)

MFE =
$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{2|M_i - O_i|}{M_i + O_i} 100\%$$

665

666 4. Root mean square error UB (RMSE_{UB})

RMSE_{UB} =
$$\sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} [(M_i - \overline{M}) - (O_i - \overline{O})]^2}$$

667

668 5. Correlation coefficient (R)

$$\mathbf{r} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (\mathbf{M}_{i} - \overline{\mathbf{M}}) * (\mathbf{O}_{i} - \overline{\mathbf{O}})}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (\mathbf{M}_{i} - \overline{\mathbf{M}})^{2}} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (\mathbf{O}_{i} - \overline{\mathbf{O}})^{2}}}$$

669

670 Where

671 $\overline{O} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} O_i$ and $\overline{M} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} M_i$ are the average values of the individual observed and

672 predicted values, **O**_i and **M**_i, respectively. "n" is the number of observations.

673

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692

693 **6. References**

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 901 the Sao Paulo Metropolitan Area of Brazil, Aerosol Science and Technology, 1,
- 902 52-62, 2004.

903 Table 1. Description of aerosol sampling campaigns performed at IAG-USP.

Parameter	Sampling frequency	Period of sampling	Sampling device
Aerosol mass size	24 hours	July-September	MOUDI
distribution			impactor
PM _{2.5} and PM ₁₀	12 hours	July-September	Dichotomous
concentration			sampler
OC and EC	12 hours	August-September	Sunset OC-EC
concentration			analyser

Site	Initials	Latitude	Longitude	Classification	Measured species	
Nossa S. do	NSO	-23.4796	-46.6916	Urban	PM ₁₀ , O ₃	
Santana	SAN	-23.5055	-46.6285	Urban	PM_{10}	
Parque D.	PDP	-23.5448	-46.6276	Urban	PM_{10}, O_3	
Mooca	MOO	-23.5497	-46.5984	Urban	PM ₁₀ , O ₃	
Cerqueira	CCE	-23.5531	-46.6723	Urban	PM_{10}	
IAG-USP	IAG-USP	-23.5590	-46.7330	Suburban	PM ₁₀ , PM _{2.5} , OC, EC,	
					aerosol mass size distrib. ^a	
IPEN-USP	IPEN-USP	-23.5662	-46.7374	Suburban	PM _{2.5} , O ₃ , NOx, CO	
Ibirapuera	IBI	-23.5914	-46.6602	Suburban	PM ₁₀ , O ₃ , NOx, CO	
Congonhas	CON	-23.6159	-46.6630	Urban	PM ₁₀ , PM _{2.5}	
AF-IAG	AF-IAG	-23.6500	-46.6167	Suburban	T, RH, WS, WD ^b	
Santo	SAM	-23.6545	-46.7095	Urban	PM_{10}	
Interlagos	INT	-23.6805	-46.6750	Urban	PM ₁₀ , O ₃ , T, RH, WS, WD	
$\frac{1}{2}$ 1 1 0 $\frac{2}{2}$ NO - NH + N + OF - 1 DM						

906 Table 2. Description of measurement sites.

907 aincludes $SO_4^{2^-}$, NO_3^- , NH_4^+ , Na^+ , Cl^- and PM_{10} .

908 bT, RH, WS, and WD denote temperature, relative humidity, wind speed and wind

909 direction, respectively.

911 Table 3. Selected WRF-Chem configuration options.

Atmospheric Process	WRF-Chem option			
Longwave radiation	RRTM			
Shortwave radiation	Goddard			
Surface layer	Monin-Obukhov			
Land surface	Noah			
Boundary layer	YSU			
Cumulus clouds ^a	Grell 3D			
Cloud microphysics	Lin			
Gas-phase chemistry	RADM2			
Aerosol chemistry	MADE/SORGAM			
Photolysis	Fast-J			
^a Outer domains only				

Description
Emission of gases
Emission of aerosols
Aerosol-radiation feedback turned on
Emission of gases
No emission of aerosols
Aerosol-radiation feedback turned on
Emission of gases
Emission of aerosols
Aerosol-radiation feedback turned off

914 Table 4. Description of WRF-Chem simulations.

917 Table 5. Performance statistics for WRF-Chem predictions at all sites^a

Index	PM _{2.5}	PM ₁₀	O ₃	NOx	СО	Т	RH	WS	WD
MB	-8.84	-14.10	-0.85	-8.75	-0.27	0.65	-5.74	0.54	31.12
MFB (%)	-47.62	-38.19	22.63	12.68	-32.53	1.94	-7.95	41.21	31.66
MFE (%)	47.90	39.90	72.85	82.82	80.93	14.16	23.84	71.12	54.40
RMSE _{UB}	6.83	10.59	27.45	30.35	0.57	3.21	20.06	1.08	79.38
R	0.73	0.72	0.63	0.42	0.54	0.71	0.62	0.41	0.43

918 ^aValues are averaged from all the individual indexes found at the measurement sites.

919 Individual indexes are calculated from both hourly observed and predicted values.

Figure 1. Downtown area of the 3 km modelling domain (d03) showing the locations of
measurement sites and WRF topography in the vicinity of the SPMA. Red dots
represent sites with information on O₃ and PM. Yellow dots represent only
sites with information on PM. Blue dot represents the location of the IAG-USP's
climatological station.

- 925 Figure 2. Emission rates for Aromatic VOCs at 19 UTC in the 3 km modelling926 domain.
- Figure 3. Hourly accumulated precipitation and relative humidity observed at the
 IAG-USP's climatological station during the study period.
- Figure 4. HYSPLIT three-day backward trajectories and locations of fires in Sao Paulo
 State and part of central-west region of Brazil. Pink markers represent the
 observed fire locations during the study period considering different satellite
 products (GOES, AQUA, TERRA, NOAA). The backward trajectories starting
 at IAG-USP were calculated for the days 9 and 31 August and 5 September 2012
 at three different altitudes: 500 m (red lines), 1000 m (blue lines), and 2000 m
 (green lines).
- Figure 5. Daily (top), diurnal (bottom), and nocturnal (middle) mean concentrations for EC, OC, PM_{10} , $PM_{2.5-10}$, $PM_{2.5}$ (left panels), and Na, Fe₂SO₃, SiO₂, K₂O, and S (right panels). The $PM_{2.5-10}$ aerosol variable is defined as particulate matter with aerodynamic diameter between 2.5 and 10 µm. The grey line indicates the WHO air quality standard for PM2.5 (25 µg m⁻³).
- Figure 6. The predicted average of wind vectors at 10 m and temperature at 2 m from the baseline simulation (Case_0) for the whole study period in the 3 km modelling domain. Blue dots represent the locations of the measurement sites,

- 944 whereas cyan numbers represent the observed average temperature in those
 945 sites: 17.7 °C in AF-IAG and 17.8 °C in INT.
- Figure 7. The observed and predicted daily variations of $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations at three sites in SPMA for the 3 km modelling domain.
- Figure 8. The observed and predicted daily variations of PM_{10} concentrations at ten sites in SPMA for the 3 km modelling domain.
- Figure 9. The observed and predicted hourly variations of O₃ concentrations at six sites
 in SPMA for the 3 km modelling domain.
- 952 Figure 10. Taylor diagram (Taylor, 2001) showing the individual correlation 953 coefficients, mean biases, and normalized standard deviations for the PM_{10} , $PM_{2.5}$, OC 954 and EC concentrations.
- Figure 11. The predicted average surface distribution of $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations for the whole study period in the 3 km modelling domain. Red dots represent the
- 957 locations of the measurement sites with information on $PM_{2.5}$, whereas cyan 958 numbers represent the observed average $PM_{2.5}$ concentration in those sites: 23.4

959 $\mu g m^{-3}$ in IPEN-USP, 21.3 $\mu g m^{-3}$ in IAG-USP, and 22.2 $\mu g m^{-3}$ in CON.

- Figure 12. The predicted average surface distribution of PM_{10} concentrations for the whole study period in the 3 km modelling domain. Red dots represent the locations of the measurement sites with information on PM_{10} , whereas cyan numbers represent the observed average PM_{10} concentration in those sites: 49.5 $\mu g m^{-3}$ in IAG-USP and 38.7 $\mu g m^{-3}$ in CON.
- Figure 13. The predicted average surface distribution of the $PM_{2.5}$: PM_{10} ratio for the whole study period in the 3 km modelling domain. Red dots represent the locations of the measurement sites with information on both $PM_{2.5}$ and PM_{10} ,

- 968 whereas cyan numbers represent the observed average $PM_{2.5}$: PM_{10} ratio in those 969 sites: 0.43 in IAG-USP and 0.57 in CON.
- 970 Figure 14. The observed and predicted daily variations of OC and EC concentrations971 at IAG-USP.
- Figure 15. The observed and predicted average aerosol mass size distribution for SO₄, 972 973 NO₃, NH₄, Na, Cl, and other PM₁₀ constituents at IAG-USP. The observed 974 aerosol distributions were collected in ten size classes using a rotated impactor 975 (MOUDI) and joined adequately according to the three modes used by the 976 MADE aerosol scheme: Aitken ($<0.1 \mu m$), accumulation (0.1-1 μm) and coarse (>1 µm). The five inorganic ions carried in MADE are only calculated for the 977 978 Aitken and accumulation modes. The WRF's PM₁₀ aerosol variable does not 979 include neither OC nor EC for this comparison.
- Figure 16. The observed and predicted average contributions for the main identifiedconstituents of PM_{2.5} at IAG-USP.

982 Figure 17. The impact of (a) emissions of primary gases on the fine particles formation,

- 983 (b) emissions of dust-sea salt aerosols on the PM_{10} concentration, and (c) aerosol
- 984 direct effect on the ground level O_3 concentrations at 16:00 h (local time).







Minas Gerais

o Paraguai Mato Grosso do Sul

8/9/2012, 3 tarde/noite

09/02/2012 18 UTC - 500 m

09/02/2012 18 UTC - 2000 m

Paraguai

Assunção

Paraná

Itapúa

Chaco

Iberá Wetlands

Santa Catarina

Rio Grande do Sul

anta Fé

Rivera

Uruguai

Lagoa dos Patos

Lagoa Mirim

Image Landsat © 2015 Google Data SIO, NOAA, U.S. Navy, NGA, GEBCO US Dept of State Geographer

Data das imagens: 4/9/2013 🛛 lat -25.364396° lon -46.185469° elev -108 m 🖉 altitude do ponto de visão 2297.00 km 🔘





Espírito Santo

Rio de Janeiro 09/02/2012 18 UTC - 1000 m 10 Paul 08/06/2012 18 UTC - 500 m

08/06/2012 18 UTC - 2000 m





08/28/2012 18 UTC - 500 m 08/28/2012 18 UTC - 1000 m Google earth

























PM2.5 aerosol composition (%)

