

Influence of urban pollution on the production of organic particulate matter from isoprene epoxydiols in central Amazonia

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1 **Abstract**

2 The atmospheric chemistry of isoprene contributes to the production of a substantial mass
3 fraction of the particulate matter (PM) over tropical forests. Isoprene epoxydiols (IEPOX)
4 produced in the gas phase by the oxidation of isoprene under HO₂-dominant conditions are
5 subsequently taken up by particles, thereby leading to production of secondary organic PM. The
6 present study investigates possible perturbations to this pathway by urban pollution. The
7 measurement site in central Amazonia was located 4 to 6 h downwind of Manaus, Brazil.
8 Measurements took place from February through March 2014 of the wet season, as part of the
9 GoAmazon2014/5 experiment. Mass spectra of organic PM collected with an Aerodyne Aerosol
10 Mass Spectrometer were analyzed by positive-matrix factorization. One resolved statistical
11 factor (“IEPOX-SOA factor”) was associated with PM production by the IEPOX pathway. The
12 IEPOX-SOA factor loadings correlated with independently measured mass concentrations of
13 tracers of IEPOX-derived PM, namely C₅-alkene triols and 2-methyltetrols ($R = 0.96$ and 0.78 ,
14 respectively). The factor loading, as well as the ratio f of the loading to organic PM mass
15 concentration, decreased under polluted compared to background conditions. For an increase in
16 NO_y concentration from 0.5 to 2 ppb, the factor loading and f decreased by two- to three-fold.
17 Overall, sulfate concentration explained 37% of the variability in the factor loading. After
18 segregation of factor loading into subsets based on NO_y concentration, the sulfate concentration
19 explained up to 75% of the variability. Considering both factors, the data sets show that the
20 suppressing effects of increased NO concentrations dominated over the enhancing effects of
21 higher sulfate concentrations. The pollution from Manaus elevated NO_y concentrations more
22 significantly than sulfate concentrations relative to background conditions. In this light,
23 increased emissions of nitrogen oxides, as anticipated for some scenarios of Amazonian
24 economic development, could significantly alter pathways of PM production that presently
25 prevail over the tropical forest, implying changes to air quality and regional climate.

26 **1. Introduction**

27 Organic compounds comprise up to 90% of the mass concentration of submicron organic
28 particulate matter (PM) over tropical forests (Kanakidou et al., 2005). Submicron PM has
29 adverse effects on human health (Nel, 2005; Pope III and Dockery, 2006) and influences air
30 quality and climate by scattering radiation and acting as cloud condensation nuclei (Ramanathan
31 et al., 2001; Kaufman et al., 2002). A significant fraction of the submicron organic material
32 originates from secondary processes, mainly by the atmospheric oxidation of volatile organic
33 compounds (VOCs) emitted as part of natural and human activities (Zhang et al., 2007; Hallquist
34 et al., 2009; Jimenez et al., 2009). The particle life cycle over Amazonia is in particular strongly
35 influenced by secondary processes that produce organic PM (Martin et al., 2010a; Pöschl et al.,
36 2010). Biogenic emissions from tropical forests are high, and environmental conditions favor
37 photooxidation reactions. The reactive chemistry and the relative importance of pathways
38 leading to PM production can be strongly guided by regulating species, such as sulfate and nitric
39 oxide (Surratt et al., 2007a; Worton et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2016a). The concentrations of these
40 species depend on their background occurrence, pollution sources, and the relative mix of
41 background and polluted air masses.

42 Over tropical forests such as Amazonia, the atmospheric chemistry of isoprene produces
43 a substantial fraction of the submicron organic PM (Chen et al., 2009; Robinson et al., 2011;
44 Chen et al., 2015; Isaacman-VanWertz et al., 2016). Isoprene (2-methyl-1,3-butadiene, C_5H_8) is
45 the non-methane VOC most abundantly emitted by tropical forests (Guenther et al., 2012), and
46 isoprene epoxydiols (IEPOX) have been identified as important intermediates in the production
47 of PM from isoprene (Paulot et al., 2009; Surratt et al., 2010; Lin et al., 2012). A chemical
48 sequence for the production of IEPOX-derived PM from the photooxidation of isoprene in the

49 atmosphere is represented in Figure 1. The sequence is initiated when isoprene peroxy radicals
50 (ISOPOO) are produced in the gas phase by reactions between isoprene and photochemically
51 generated hydroxyl radicals (OH). The reactive fate of the ISOPOO radicals can differ under
52 background compared to polluted conditions (Surratt et al., 2010; Crouse et al., 2011; Worton et
53 al., 2013).

54 Under background conditions, meaning that HO₂ pathways are favorable in the absence
55 of extensive NO pollution (Wennberg, 2013; Liu et al., 2016a), the ISOPOO radicals continue in
56 large part through the series of species highlighted in yellow in Figure 1. Through HO_x-
57 facilitated reaction steps, the ISOPOO radicals produce hydroperoxides (ISOPOOH) as major
58 first-generation products and subsequently isoprene epoxydiols (IEPOX) as major second-
59 generation products (Carlton et al., 2009; Paulot et al., 2009; Liu et al., 2013; St. Clair et al.,
60 2015; Liu et al., 2016a). Some of the produced IEPOX undergoes reactive uptake to particles, as
61 facilitated by hydronium ions at the surface (Surratt et al., 2007a; Lin et al., 2012; Gaston et al.,
62 2014; Kuwata et al., 2015; Lewandowski et al., 2015). This chemical sequence can contribute a
63 significant fraction of submicron PM mass concentration over tropical forests (Claeys et al.,
64 2004; Hu et al., 2015). Laboratory studies indicate that about half of the PM produced by
65 isoprene photooxidation under HO₂-dominant conditions in the presence of acidic sulfate
66 particles is associated with IEPOX production and uptake (Liu et al., 2015). Interaction of
67 IEPOX with cloud waters warrants investigation (Lim et al., 2005; Ervens et al., 2011;
68 Budisulistiorini et al., 2015; Chen et al., 2015). In addition to IEPOX pathways, laboratory
69 studies suggest that multifunctional hydroperoxides produced in the gas phase can contribute to
70 isoprene-derived PM production (Krechmer et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2016b; Riva et al., 2016b).

71 After reactive uptake of IEPOX, particle-phase reactions can produce several different
72 families of species. These species are collectively labeled “IEPOX-derived PM” and represent a
73 subset of the ambient organic PM, as labeled in Figure 1. The presence of 2-methyltetrols, C₅-
74 alkene triols, 3-methyltetrahydrofuran-3,4-diols, organosulfates, and related oligomers in
75 ambient PM is an indicator of PM production by IEPOX uptake under atmospheric conditions
76 (Claeys et al., 2004; Surratt et al., 2006; Surratt et al., 2007b; Surratt et al., 2010; Robinson et al.,
77 2011; Lin et al., 2012; Lin et al., 2014). Even though these species may differ in some cases from
78 the actual compounds in the atmospheric PM due to thermal decomposition during analysis
79 (Lopez-Hilfiker et al., 2016), they serve as chemical tracers for the atmospheric concentration of
80 IEPOX-derived PM (Hu et al., 2015; Isaacman-VanWertz et al., 2016). The analytical methods
81 highlighted in Figure 1, including that of the “IEPOX-SOA factor” of the AMS analysis used
82 herein, can lead to over- and underestimated IEPOX-derived PM concentrations. This
83 uncertainty is represented in the figure by the brown dashed lines that approximately but not
84 exactly correspond to IEPOX-derived PM.

85 Under polluted conditions, the reactive sequence of isoprene and ultimately PM
86 production can become significantly altered (Figure 1). NO concentrations can be sufficiently
87 high that ISOPOO radicals react almost entirely with NO in place of HO₂, thereby largely
88 producing methacrolein (MACR) and methyl vinyl ketone (MVK) in place of ISOPOOH (Liu et
89 al., 2016a). As a result, IEPOX production can be greatly decreased, ultimately reducing PM
90 production by IEPOX pathways. A minor channel along the NO pathway can still produce
91 IEPOX, although much less efficiently (Jacobs et al., 2014). Under NO-dominant conditions,
92 alternative pathways of PM production not involving IEPOX can become active, though in lower
93 yields. MACR can be oxidized to produce peroxyethylacrylic nitric anhydride (MPAN), which

94 is a precursor to methacrylic acid epoxide (MAE) and hydroxymethylmethyl- α -lactone
95 (HMML), and these compounds can undergo reactive uptake to produce PM (Kjaergaard et al.,
96 2012; Lin et al., 2013; Worton et al., 2013; Nguyen et al., 2015). Glyoxal produced from
97 isoprene oxidation can contribute to PM production (Volkamer et al., 2007; Ervens and
98 Volkamer, 2010; McNeill et al., 2012; Marais et al., 2016).

99 Another possible mechanism affecting PM production by IEPOX uptake under polluted
100 conditions is altered particle composition, especially particle acidity, largely driven by sulfate.
101 Laboratory studies show that IEPOX uptake increases with increasing acidity (Gaston et al.,
102 2014; Kuwata et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2015). A proposed reaction during uptake is the acid-
103 catalyzed ring opening of the IEPOX molecule (Surratt et al., 2010). The subsequent particle-
104 phase reactions include the addition of available nucleophiles, such as water to produce tetrols or
105 sulfate to produce organosulfates as well as their oligomers (Surratt et al., 2010; Lin et al., 2014;
106 Nguyen et al., 2014). In support of this proposed mechanism, analyses by positive-matrix
107 factorization (PMF) of mass spectra collected in the southeastern USA identified PMF factors
108 associated with IEPOX-derived PM, and these factors correlated positively with sulfate mass
109 concentrations (Budisulistiorini et al., 2013; Hu et al., 2015; Xu et al., 2015). In short, different
110 regimes of NO:HO₂ concentration ratios and different possible PM compositions between
111 polluted and background conditions can lead to different product distributions and different
112 production rates of IEPOX-derived PM.

113 The extent to which pollution may shift the production pathways of IEPOX-derived PM
114 over tropical forests remains to be elucidated. The study described herein is based on data sets
115 collected in the wet season downwind of Manaus, Brazil, during the *Observations and Modeling*
116 *of the Green Ocean Amazon* Experiment (GoAmazon2014/5) (Martin et al., 2016a). The research

117 site was influenced at times and to variable extents by the pollution outflow from the Manaus
118 metropolitan area. Compared to the background environment in Amazonia, the Manaus plume
119 had high number concentrations of particles and enhanced concentrations of pollutants, including
120 oxides of nitrogen and sulfate (Kuhn et al., 2010; Martin et al., 2016a). The reactive gas-phase
121 chemistry was strongly guided by the relative mix of background and polluted air masses (Trebs
122 et al., 2012; Liu et al., 2016a). The analysis herein focuses on how the pollution perturbed
123 IEPOX-derived PM production relative to background conditions.

124 **2. Methodology**

125 Data sets were collected at the “T3” site (3.2133 °S, 60.5987 °W) located 70 km to the
126 west of Manaus, Brazil, in central Amazonia (Martin et al., 2016a). The site was situated in a
127 pasture (2.5 km × 2 km) surrounded by forest. The analysis herein focuses on data sets collected
128 during the wet season period of February 1 to March 31, 2014, corresponding to the first
129 Intensive Operating Period (IOP1) of the GoAmazon2014/5 experiment.

130 A High-Resolution Time-of-Flight Aerosol Mass Spectrometer (HR-ToF-AMS, hereafter
131 AMS; Aerodyne, Inc., Billerica, Massachusetts, USA) recorded the primary data set of this
132 study. The AMS provided quantitative bulk characterization of the atmospheric PM. The design
133 principles and capabilities of this instrument are described in the literature (DeCarlo et al., 2006;
134 Canagaratna et al., 2007). The instrument was housed within a temperature-controlled research
135 container, and the inlet to the instrument sampled from 5 m above ground level. Detailed aspects
136 of AMS operation are presented in the Supplement (Section S1). In brief, ambient measurements
137 were obtained every other 4 min. Organic, sulfate, ammonium, nitrate, and chloride PM mass
138 concentrations were obtained from “V-mode” data. The choice of ions to fit was aided by the

139 “W-mode” data, which were collected once every five days. Data analysis was performed using
140 *SQUIRREL* (1.56D) and *PIKA* (1.14G) of the AMS software suite.

141 Positive-matrix factorization was applied to the time series of the organic component of
142 the high-resolution mass spectra (Ulbrich et al., 2009). The present study focuses on one of the
143 resolved statistical factors, referred to as the “IEPOX-SOA factor” (Hu et al., 2015). Diagnostics
144 of the PMF analysis, especially as related to the resolved IEPOX-SOA factor, are presented in
145 the Supplement (Section S2). A separate account is forthcoming to present the other PMF factors
146 (de Sá, in preparation). Herein, “factor profile” and “factor loading” refer to the mathematical
147 products of the multivariate statistical analysis, whereas “mass spectrum” and “mass
148 concentration” refer to measurements.

149 In complement to the AMS data sets, mass concentrations of molecular and tracer organic
150 species were measured using a Semi-Volatile Thermal Desorption Aerosol Gas Chromatograph
151 (SV-TAG) at a time resolution of one hour. The instrument collected gas and particle samples,
152 followed by thermal desorption, derivatization, and gas chromatography coupled to mass
153 spectrometry (Isaacman et al., 2014). A summary of operational details for GoAmazon2014/5 is
154 presented in the Supplement (Section S1), and the main account is presented in Isaacman-
155 VanWertz et al. (2016).

156 Additional data sets used in the analysis were collected at the T3 site by instruments
157 housed in the research container of the Mobile Aerosol Observing System (MAOS) of the ARM
158 Climate Research Facility (ACRF) operated by the USA Department of Energy (Mather and
159 Voyles, 2013; Martin et al., 2016a). A temperature-controlled inlet was mounted at 10 m above
160 ground level. Measurements of nitrogen oxides were made using a chemiluminescence-based
161 instrument (Air Quality Design). The measured odd-nitrogen family “NO_y”, meaning NO_x +

162 reservoir species, included NO, NO₂, HNO₃, organonitrates, particle nitrate, and peroxyacetyl
163 nitrates. Further details of the NO_y measurements are presented in the Supplement (Section S1).
164 Ozone concentrations were measured by an Ozone Analyzer (Thermo Fisher, model 49i).
165 Particle number concentrations were measured by a Condensation Particle Counter (TSI, model
166 3772). Meteorological variables provided by the ARM Mobile Facility (AMF-1), which was also
167 part of the ACRF, included wind direction, solar irradiance, and precipitation rate. Measurements
168 of NO_y and particle number concentration onboard the G-1 aircraft of the ARM Aerial Facility
169 (AAF) were also used in the analysis (Schmid et al., 2014; Martin et al., 2016a).

170 **3. Results and Discussion**

171 The organization of the presentation herein is as follows. The factor profile obtained from
172 AMS PMF analysis is discussed (Section 3.1), a case study comparing factor loading under
173 background to polluted conditions is presented (Section 3.2), the roles of sulfate (Section 3.3)
174 and nitric oxide (Section 3.4) in affecting factor loading are explored, and the influence of NO on
175 production and loss processes of IEPOX-derived PM is considered (Section 3.5).

176 **3.1 Statistical IEPOX-SOA factor**

177 Positive-matrix factorization was carried out on the time series of AMS organic mass
178 spectra. One statistical factor had a similar profile of peak intensities as the “IEPOX-SOA
179 factor” identified in other studies (Figure S1) (Robinson et al., 2011; Slowik et al., 2011;
180 Budisulistiorini et al., 2013; Budisulistiorini et al., 2015; Chen et al., 2015; Xu et al., 2015). The
181 Pearson correlation coefficient R between this factor and the one obtained in the 2008 wet season
182 in central Amazonia as part of the AMAZE-08 experiment was 0.99 (Chen et al., 2015). The
183 ratio f of the factor loading to the mass concentration of submicron organic PM for the present
184 study was 0.17 ± 0.09 (mean \pm standard deviation). The IEPOX-SOA factor has been identified

185 previously over the maritime tropical forest of Borneo ($f = 0.23$) (Robinson et al., 2011), in a
186 rural area in Canada 70 km north of Toronto ($f = 0.17$) (Slowik et al., 2011), across several
187 locations in the summertime southeastern USA ($f = 0.17$ to 0.41) (Budisulistiorini et al., 2013;
188 Budisulistiorini et al., 2015; Hu et al., 2015; Xu et al., 2015; Budisulistiorini et al., 2016; Marais
189 et al., 2016), and in AMAZE-08 ($f = 0.34$) (Chen et al., 2015). A further review on the ubiquity
190 and characteristics of the IEPOX-SOA factor is presented in Hu et al. (2015).

191 The IEPOX-SOA factor reported herein had prominent peaks at m/z 53.04 and m/z 82.04
192 (Figure S1). The ion at m/z 82.04, corresponding to $C_5H_6O^+$, has been attributed to 3-methylfuran
193 (3-MF). The thermal degradation of isoprene-derived PM upon mass spectral analysis was
194 suggested as the source of 3-MF (Robinson et al., 2011). Lin et al. (2012) proposed that
195 sequential dehydrations upon mass spectral analysis of 3-methyltetrahydrofuran-3,4-diols, which
196 are an identified component of IEPOX-derived PM, can produce 3-MF. Other IEPOX-derived
197 species as well as non-IEPOX species might also contribute to the production of $C_5H_6O^+$ ions
198 (Surratt et al., 2010; Hu et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2016c).

199 Laboratory studies show that a mass spectrum having a pattern of peak intensities similar
200 to that of the IEPOX-SOA factor is produced both by the uptake of IEPOX into aqueous acidic
201 sulfate particles as well as by the photooxidation of isoprene under HO_2 -dominant conditions in
202 the presence of acidic sulfate particles (Budisulistiorini et al., 2013; Nguyen et al., 2014; Kuwata
203 et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2015). The possibility of similar uptake by a broader range of liquid media
204 remains to be fully tested, such as other acidic solutions as well as cloud waters. Compared to the
205 laboratory spectra of (Liu et al., 2015), representing about 4 h of OH exposure at atmospheric
206 concentrations (1.7×10^6 molec cm^{-3}), the main difference was the relative intensity of the m/z
207 44 peak. For the IEPOX-SOA factor of the present study, this peak was four times more intense

208 (Figure S1), suggesting that the atmospheric PM was more oxidized. Hu et al. (2016) showed
209 that heterogeneous aging of IEPOX-SOA can result in increased relative signal at m/z 44.

210 By contrast, laboratory studies show that a significantly different mass spectrum from
211 that of the IEPOX-SOA factor is obtained for PM produced from isoprene photooxidation in the
212 absence of aqueous particles (Krechmer et al., 2015; Kuwata et al., 2015). Under these
213 conditions, chemical pathways other than IEPOX uptake into a liquid medium appear to be
214 active, such as the condensation of low-volatility, multifunctional compounds produced by
215 additional oxidation of ISOPROOH (Krechmer et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2016b; Riva et al., 2016b).
216 This non-IEPOX pathway, however, is not expected to contribute a large fraction of the
217 produced PM during the study period because of the high RH conditions in Amazonia and the
218 prevalence of liquid particles for the prevailing atmospheric conditions (Bateman et al., 2016; de
219 Sá, in preparation).

220 The SV-TAG measurements of the concentrations of C₅-alkene triols and 2-methyltetrols
221 support the interpretation of the IEPOX-SOA factor as an indicator that PM was being produced,
222 at least in significant part, from the reactive uptake of IEPOX (Claeys et al., 2004; Wang et al.,
223 2005; Surratt et al., 2010). The factor loading strongly correlated with the concentrations of C₅-
224 alkene triols ($R = 0.96$) and 2-methyltetrols ($R = 0.78$) (Figure 2). These species have been
225 associated with the IEPOX reaction pathway in several laboratory studies (Surratt et al., 2010;
226 Riedel et al., 2016). The R value with respect to C₅-alkene triols was independent of the f_{peak}
227 value of the PMF solution, demonstrating the robustness of the relative time trend of factor
228 loading even though the factor profile and absolute loadings changed across f_{peak} values (Figure
229 S2d).

230 The loading of the IEPOX-SOA factor may be an overestimate or an underestimate of the
231 atmospheric concentration of the IEPOX-derived PM (Supplement, Section S2). The IEPOX-
232 SOA factor can be understood as the net result of (i) produced IEPOX-derived PM, (ii) less that
233 portion of the carbon that gets further oxidized and mixed into other PMF factors, and (iii) plus
234 that portion of non-IEPOX-derived PM that gives rise to a similar AMS mass spectral pattern as
235 the IEPOX-derived PM (Supplement, Section S2). Processes of type ii contribute to
236 underestimates and processes of type iii lead to overestimates when using IEPOX-SOA factor
237 loading as a surrogate for IEPOX-derived PM concentration. These uncertainties are
238 qualitatively represented in Figure 1 by the brown dashed lines that enclose the fraction of
239 particle material statistically captured by the factor analysis. The further analysis herein is based
240 on using the loading of the IEPOX-SOA factor as a scalar proxy for the mass concentration of
241 IEPOX-derived PM in a sampled air mass.

242 **3.2 Background compared to polluted conditions**

243 Under background conditions in the wet season, remote areas of the Amazon forest
244 constitute one of the least polluted continental regions on Earth (Martin et al., 2010a). Nitric
245 oxide (NO) concentrations characteristic of central Amazonia range from 20 to 70 ppt (Torres
246 and Buchan, 1988; Bakwin et al., 1990; Levine et al., 2015). Daytime maximum ozone
247 concentrations are 10 to 15 ppb (Rummel et al., 2007). Sulfate mass concentrations associated
248 with in-basin processes are on average $< 0.1 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, and total background sulfate concentrations
249 contributed by in- and out-of-basin processes rarely exceed $0.5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (Andreae et al., 1990;
250 Chen et al., 2009).

251 In the wet season, Manaus emissions were the most important anthropogenic influence on
252 observations at the T3 research site (Martin et al., 2017). The afternoons of March 3 and 13,

253 2014, are presented herein as representative cases of background and polluted conditions,
254 respectively. Both days were sunny, and major precipitation events were absent. Particle number
255 concentrations measured onboard the G-1 aircraft within the atmospheric boundary layer show
256 the position of the pollution plume on these two afternoons (Figure 3). NO_y concentrations
257 measured during the same flight are shown in Figure S3. The visualization in Figure 3 shows that
258 on March 3 the Manaus plume passed south of the T3 site. By comparison, on March 13 the
259 central portion of the plume passed over T3. Aircraft-based observations to track the Manaus
260 plume were available for 16 afternoons of the two-month study period.

261 Measurements at ground level at the T3 site are plotted in Figure 4 for the afternoons of
262 March 3 (left panel) and March 13 (right panel). Based on wind speeds, the research site was 4 to
263 6 h downwind of Manaus (Martin et al., 2016a). Anthropogenic-biogenic interactions affecting
264 the production of IEPOX-derived PM were driven in large part by atmospheric photochemistry
265 at daybreak. Morning urban emissions followed by atmospheric processing arrived at the T3 site
266 during the local afternoon. The afternoon period, in addition to the connection to the Manaus
267 plume, was also characterized by reduced variability in other possible confounding variables,
268 such as temperature, radiation, and relative humidity. Figure 4 shows that on the afternoon of
269 March 3 ozone concentrations were below 10 ppb, particle number concentrations were below
270 1000 cm^{-3} , NO_y concentrations were less than 1 ppb, and sulfate concentrations were 0.3 to 0.4
271 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. Species concentrations were stable throughout the afternoon. On March 13, ozone
272 concentrations exceeded 30 ppb for most of the afternoon, particle concentrations reached 10,000
273 cm^{-3} , NO_y concentrations consistently exceeded 1 ppb, and sulfate concentrations were 0.3 to 0.6
274 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. Concentrations fluctuated markedly throughout the afternoon on March 13, reflecting
275 different levels of pollution influence in the air passing over the T3 site during that period.

276 Elevated concentrations of ozone, particle number, and NO_y were reliable markers of
277 pollution influence over the course of the study period (Supplement, Section S3). Pollution was
278 associated with stronger relative enhancements in NO_y concentrations than in sulfate
279 concentrations (Sections 3.3 and 3.4). With respect to the IEPOX-SOA factor, Figure 4 shows
280 that the absolute and relative loadings decreased for the polluted compared to background
281 conditions. Relative loadings are expressed by the ratio f of IEPOX-SOA factor loading to the
282 organic PM mass concentration. Decreased absolute and relative factor loadings under polluted
283 conditions, presented in Figure 4 as a case study, also characterized the data sets of the entire
284 study period. Other examples are presented in the Supplement (Figure S4).

285 **3.3 Sulfate as a driver of IEPOX-derived PM production**

286 A scatter plot between sulfate mass concentrations and IEPOX-SOA factor loadings for
287 all afternoon periods is shown in Figure 5a. Background and polluted conditions are represented
288 in the data set. For further visualization, the data set was organized into six subsets based on
289 sulfate concentration. The medians and the means of the subsets are plotted in the figure. The
290 visualization shows that sulfate concentration served as a first-order predictor of the IEPOX-
291 SOA factor loading in central Amazonia in the wet season. The explanation can be a
292 combination of increased acidity, greater reaction volume including by enhanced hygroscopic
293 growth, and possibly a nucleophilic role for sulfate (Xu et al., 2015; Marais et al., 2016). An
294 analysis of the relative importance of each is out of the scope of the present study (Supplement,
295 Section S4).

296 For Figure 5a, the coefficient R^2 of determination between sulfate mass concentration and
297 factor loading was 0.37, meaning that 37% of the variance of the IEPOX-SOA factor loading
298 was explained by sulfate mass concentration. As a point of comparison, R^2 varied between 0.4

299 and 0.6 for observations in the southeastern USA, which seasonally is a region of high isoprene
300 emissions (Budisulistiorini et al., 2013; Budisulistiorini et al., 2015; Hu et al., 2015; Xu et al.,
301 2015). A chemical transport model that predicted IEPOX-derived PM mass concentration for the
302 southeastern USA obtained R^2 of 0.4 for the relationship to predicted sulfate mass concentration
303 (Marais et al., 2016). The model attributed the correlation to the acidity and particle volume
304 provided by sulfate, both of which favored IEPOX uptake. Central Amazonia and the
305 southeastern USA differ considerably in terms of meteorology, chemistry, and levels of regional
306 pollution, yet they have in common an important role of sulfate concentration as a predictor of
307 IEPOX-derived PM concentration, even as the sulfate concentrations themselves differ by an
308 order of magnitude. Sulfate concentrations typically had an interquartile range of [1.5, 3.0] μg
309 m^{-3} in the studies in the southeastern USA, which can be compared to a range of [0.11, 0.36] μg
310 m^{-3} under background conditions during the wet season in central Amazonia.

311 A key difference between the southeastern USA and central Amazonia is the role of
312 sulfate concentration as a clear or ambiguous indicator, respectively, of urban influence. For the
313 relatively low sulfate mass concentrations ($<0.5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) characteristic of the study period,
314 background air in central Amazonia contributed significantly to the variability in sulfate
315 concentration measured at the T3 site. Background concentrations of sulfate in Amazonia,
316 distinguished from sulfate tied to the urban Manaus plume, originated from in-basin emissions of
317 gas-phase precursors such as dimethyl sulfide (DMS) and hydrogen sulfide (H_2S) from the forest
318 as well as from out-of-basin marine emissions from the Atlantic Ocean (Andreae et al., 1990;
319 Chen et al., 2009; Martin et al., 2010a). In the wet season, biomass burning from Africa and to a
320 lesser extent from South America also episodically contributed significantly to sulfate
321 concentrations in the Manaus region. In addition, emissions from large cities on the eastern coast

322 of Brazil were important at times when rare meteorological events shifted the northeasterlies
323 typical of the wet season to easterlies (Martin et al., 2017). Manaus contributions to sulfate mass
324 concentrations in an air mass were in addition to these various background sources.

325 The relative importance of Manaus contributions to the sulfate concentrations in the air
326 masses that passed over T3 was assessed by comparison of the probability density function of
327 sulfate concentration at T3 to those of sites upwind of Manaus (Figure 5b). The distributions of
328 the two upwind sites had a central tendency of 0.05 to 0.3 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, suggesting the range of natural
329 concentrations, and a rightside skewness up to 0.6 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, suggesting the importance of episodic
330 long-range transport (Chen et al., 2009). The figure shows that the distribution at T3 did not
331 differ greatly from those of the upwind sites even though the air masses over T3 regularly
332 transported Manaus pollution. The implication is that Manaus sulfate sources, whether primary
333 or secondary, had small contributions relative to background sources when averaged over time.
334 In short, elevated sulfate concentrations on any one afternoon at the T3 site might have arisen
335 because of elevated background concentrations on that day rather than the influence of the
336 Manaus pollution plume. The implications are that (i) sulfate concentration was an ambiguous
337 indicator of urban influence at the T3 site and (ii) increases in sulfate concentrations in pollution
338 events were moderate relative to background concentrations.

339 **3.4 NO as a modulator of IEPOX-derived PM production**

340 In the transport from Manaus to the T3 research site, NO concentration was not
341 conserved, in part because of reactions with ozone and organic peroxy radicals (Martin et al.,
342 2017). In this case, the instantaneous NO concentrations measured at the T3 site did not directly
343 provide information about the fate of ISOPOO radicals along the transport time of 4 to 6 h from
344 Manaus to the T3 site. The collective contributions of NO, NO₂, and their oxidation products

345 were, however, reflected in measurements of NO_y concentrations at the T3 site. The NO_y family
346 is expected to have a longer lifetime than the transport time from Manaus to the T3 site (Romer
347 et al., 2016). The NO_y concentration measured at T3 therefore served as a surrogate for the
348 integrated exposure of the airmass to NO chemistry between Manaus and T3 (Liu et al., 2016a).

349 Unlike the ambiguity associated with the sulfate concentration, an elevated NO_y
350 concentration served as a clear indicator of anthropogenic influence in an air mass passing over
351 the T3 site. For background conditions over the forest, NO_y originates from NO emitted from
352 soils and other natural sources such as lightning (Bakwin et al., 1990; Jacob and Wofsy, 1990).
353 The probability density function of NO_y concentration under background conditions in the wet
354 season of the central Amazon basin is shown in Figure 6b (Bakwin et al., 1990). The distribution
355 for measurements at T3 is also shown. Relative to the narrow distribution around 0.5 ppb for
356 background conditions, there is high-side skewness extending up to 4 ppb for the T3
357 measurements, indicating the clear influence of Manaus emissions on NO_y concentrations.

358 NO_y concentration was incorporated into the analysis by segregation of the dataset of
359 Figure 5a into five subsets (Supplement, Section S5). Linear fits to the NO_y-segregated data
360 subsets are plotted in Figure 6a. Each subset is represented by a different color. Parameter values
361 of the associated fits are listed in Table 1. In conjunction with sulfate concentration, the
362 visualization presented in Figure 6a shows that NO_y concentration further explained the
363 variability in IEPOX-SOA factor loadings. The R^2 values, representing the extent to which
364 sulfate was able to explain variability in IEPOX-SOA factor loading once isolated for NO_y
365 concentration, were higher for the data subsets having lower and higher extremes of NO_y
366 concentrations (Table 1). These conditions represent the limiting cases of fully background
367 conditions for the former and the strongest effects of Manaus pollution for the latter. By

368 comparison, intermediate NO_y concentrations could arise from air masses that mixed together
369 background air with Manaus pollution during the transport to T3 (e.g., by entrainment) and thus
370 represent complex processing. Single or multiple mixing points could occur anywhere along the
371 path from Manaus to T3, thus introducing variability into the effective photochemical age of the
372 air mass arriving at T3 and resulting in lower R^2 values for intermediate NO_y concentrations. In
373 caveat, this explanation assumes that NO emissions from Manaus had low day-to-day variability.

374 In relation to the influence of Manaus pollution, sulfate concentration was affected by a
375 mixture of background and urban sources (cf. discussion in Section 3.3) whereas NO_y
376 concentration largely had urban sources (cf. Figures 5b and 6b). As an approximation to keeping
377 the sulfate concentration constant and thus focusing on the role of NO in the urban pollution, the
378 visualization of the dependence of IEPOX-SOA factor loading on NO_y concentration was further
379 refined by taking data subsets segregated by low ($< 0.1 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) and high ($> 0.3 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) sulfate
380 concentrations. Figures 7a, 7b, and 7c show the factor loading, organic PM mass concentration,
381 and the ratio f of the IEPOX-SOA factor loading to the organic PM mass concentration,
382 respectively, plotted against NO_y concentration for low and high sulfate concentrations.

383 Figure 7a shows that for both low and high sulfate concentrations an increase in NO_y
384 concentration from background to polluted concentrations was associated with a decrease in the
385 IEPOX-SOA factor loading by two to three times. For low sulfate concentration, the interquartile
386 range of the factor loading decreased from [0.037, 0.093] to [0.022, 0.039] $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ for an increase
387 in NO_y concentration from 0.5 to 2 ppb. For high sulfate concentration, the factor loading
388 decreased from [0.57, 0.95] to [0.21, 0.35] $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ for the same transition in NO_y concentration.
389 The greatest changes in factor loading were in the region of 1 ppb NO_y . This region of greatest
390 sensitivity coincided with the transition from background to polluted conditions.

391 For the same time period of these PM analyses of IEPOX-SOA factor loading, Liu et al.
392 (2016a) observed a shift in dominant isoprene gas-phase products from ISOPOOH to
393 MVK/MACR across the transition in NO_y concentration. Liu et al. (2016a) further simulated the
394 dependence on NO concentration of the ratio of the production rate of ISOPOOH to that of MVK
395 + MACR. The highest ratios (0.6 to 0.9) were obtained for background concentrations of NO_y.
396 The calculated HO₂ concentration was $< 4 \times 10^8 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ (0.016 ppb). The simulated transition for
397 the dominant fate of the ISOPOO radicals occurred for an NO concentration of < 0.05 ppb.

398 Figure 7b shows that for both low and high sulfate concentrations the organic PM mass
399 concentration M_{org} and the IEPOX-SOA factor loading had opposite trends for low compared to
400 intermediate NO_y concentrations, even though the trend in M_{org} was less steep. The factor
401 loadings decreased by 60% whereas the M_{org} increased by 25% for 0.5 to 2 ppb NO_y (Figures 7a
402 and 7b). Increases in M_{org} can include contributions from secondary PM produced by enhanced
403 concentrations of hydroxyl radicals and ozone in the pollution plume as well as from primary
404 PM emitted from the Manaus urban region (Martin et al., 2017; de Sá, in preparation). For higher
405 NO_y concentrations (> 2 ppb), however, Figure 7b shows that M_{org} decreased after a peak value,
406 approaching values close to background under the most polluted conditions. The chemistry can
407 become sufficiently shifted that more-volatile gas-phase products can be produced (Pandis et al.,
408 1991; Kroll et al., 2005; Carlton et al., 2009). In addition, hydroxyl radical concentrations can
409 also decrease because of titration by NO₂ (Valin et al., 2013; Rohrer et al., 2014). An increase in
410 total organic mass concentration could possibly contribute to a decrease in IEPOX-derived PM
411 production by kinetically limiting the uptake of IEPOX (Gaston et al., 2014; Lin et al., 2014;
412 Riva et al., 2016a). The dominant effect of the urban plume, however, seems to be that of

413 shifting the fate of ISOPOO radicals through the increase in NO, thereby significantly decreasing
414 the production of ISOPOOH (Liu et al., 2016a) (Section 3.5).

415 The combined trends of Figures 7a and 7b for increasing NO_y are represented in Figure
416 7c as the ratio f . The figure shows that f decreased for increasing NO_y concentration for both low
417 and high sulfate concentrations. The greatest decrease occurred across the range of NO_y
418 concentrations that represented the shift from background to polluted conditions. For low sulfate
419 concentration, the interquartile range of f decreased from [0.09, 0.18] to [0.04, 0.09] for an
420 increase in NO_y concentration from 0.5 to 2 ppb. These ranges shifted to [0.35, 0.40] and [0.07,
421 0.18] for high sulfate concentration. As a limiting statement, for the most favorable conditions
422 with respect to the production of IEPOX-derived PM in central Amazonia (i.e., lowest NO_y and
423 highest sulfate), f exceeded 0.40 at 25% frequency. The implication is that at all times significant
424 additional pathways for PM production were active. This conclusion is subject to the accuracy of
425 the IEPOX-SOA factor loading as a scalar proxy of IEPOX-derived PM concentration (cf.
426 discussion of Figure 1 in Section 3.1). The magnitude of the decrease in f for high sulfate
427 concentrations suggests that IEPOX-derived PM shifted from being a major to a minor
428 component of the PM. Taken together, the results shown in Figure 7 demonstrate how urban
429 pollution affected the production and composition of regional IEPOX-derived PM.

430 The data sets presented in Figures 5, 6, and 7 lead to the conclusion that the additional
431 NO concentrations contributed by Manaus emissions typically suppress the production of
432 IEPOX-derived PM to a greater extent than the additional sulfate concentrations enhance it.
433 Figure 8 presents a systematic visualization. The factor loadings at T3 are represented as
434 contours for axes of sulfate and NO_y concentrations. Higher factor loadings are favored for
435 higher sulfate and lower NO_y concentrations. Factor loadings are most sensitive to changing

436 concentration in the high-sulfate, low-NO_y region. The gray dashed line in Figure 8 represents a
437 qualitative divisor between domains of typical background and polluted conditions downwind of
438 Manaus.

439 **3.5 Influence of NO on production and loss processes of IEPOX-derived PM**

440 Elevated NO may affect both the production and loss processes of IEPOX-derived PM.
441 On the one hand, production may be reduced because of increased scavenging of ISOPOO by
442 NO, thus obviating production of IEPOX and consequently of IEPOX-derived PM. Production
443 may also be reduced because of more rapid gas-phase loss of IEPOX in response to elevated OH
444 and O₃ concentrations. On the other hand, loss of IEPOX-derived PM may be enhanced due to
445 faster processing of its characteristic compounds by the elevated oxidant concentrations.

446 A Lagrangian model is employed to help delineate the relative importance of reduced
447 production compared to enhanced loss on the observed IEPOX-derived PM concentrations. The
448 model is initialized by background air that passes over Manaus in the mid-morning. The
449 evolution of IEPOX-derived PM in that air mass is modeled under either polluted or background
450 conditions for arrival at the T3 site in the afternoon. The governing differential equation of the
451 model represents the sum of production and loss processes affecting the concentrations of
452 IEPOX-derived PM, as follows:

$$453 \quad \frac{dM}{dt} = -\alpha_L k_L M + \alpha_P k_P \quad (1)$$

454 where M designates the IEPOX-derived PM mass concentration, t designates time, and the first
455 and second terms on the right-hand side represent loss and production processes, respectively.

456 Table 2 lists other symbol definitions and units.

457 The analytic solution of Equation 1 for time t is presented in the Supplement (Section
458 S6). From this solution, characteristic times τ for production and loss processes for polluted

459 compared to background conditions are as follows: $\tau_{P,pol} = M_0 / (\alpha_P k_P)$, $\tau_{P,bg} = M_0 / k_P$, $\tau_{L,pol} = 1 /$
460 $(\alpha_L k_L)$, and $\tau_{L,bg} = 1 / k_L$ (Supplement, Section S6). The term M_0 represents the IEPOX-derived
461 PM mass concentration just upwind of Manaus. Under background conditions, the enhancement
462 factors α_L and α_P are unity by definition. Under polluted conditions, $\alpha_L = 2$ and $\alpha_P = 0.1$ to reflect
463 enhanced loss and decreased production, respectively. Further descriptions of the model and
464 assumptions are presented in the Supplement (Section S6).

465 The analysis strategy is to compare τ_P and τ_L to the transport time τ_{tr} under polluted and
466 background conditions to assess the relative importance of altered production and loss processes
467 for IEPOX-derived PM from Manaus to T3. The statistical mode value for τ_{tr} of 4 h based on
468 trajectory analysis is used in the model (Martin et al., 2016a). Intervals for the characteristic
469 times τ_P and τ_L are constrained by the T3 afternoon data sets. Concentration ratios ζ , defined as
470 $\zeta = M_{pol} / M_{bg}$, are used to constrain the model (Table 3). The quantities M_{pol} and M_{bg} denote $M(t$
471 $= \tau_{tr})$, meaning the mass concentration at T3 under polluted or background conditions,
472 respectively. The use of the ratio quantity ζ in the analysis, rather than absolute concentrations,
473 provides increased robustness because of low variability in ζ across the observed range of sulfate
474 concentrations, even as M_{pol} and M_{bg} vary greatly (Table 3). The possible impact of over- or
475 underestimates of IEPOX-derived PM mass concentration, as a consequence of using IEPOX-
476 SOA factor loading as a surrogate, is also mitigated by the use of ζ .

477 Two cases of the model (1 and 2) are presented, respectively focusing on constraining k_P
478 or k_L and consequently τ_P or τ_L (Table 4). The results for Case 1 of the analysis are shown in
479 Figure 9a. The value of k_P is varied from 0 to $0.2 \mu\text{g m}^{-3} \text{h}^{-1}$ while the other model parameters are
480 held constant. The loss rate coefficient k_L is fixed at 0.015 h^{-1} , corresponding to a characteristic
481 time of 2.8 days (Supplement, Section S6). Based on observed values of ζ (gray shaded area in

482 Figure 9a), an interval for k_P of $[0.07, 0.13] \mu\text{g m}^{-3} \text{h}^{-1}$ is obtained, as indicated by the vertical
483 dashed lines. Across this interval, M_{bg} and M_{pol} vary from 0.49 to 0.72 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ and 0.23 to 0.25 μg
484 m^{-3} , respectively, which are consistent with the observed IEPOX-SOA factor loadings (Table 3).
485 The modeled production times have intervals of $[1.8, 3.3] \text{h}$ for $\tau_{P,bg}$ and $[18, 33] \text{h}$ for $\tau_{P,pol}$.

486 Case 2 of the analysis evaluates constraints on the loss rate coefficient k_L , and results are
487 shown in Figure 9b. Loss processes can include chemistry, such as heterogeneous oxidation or
488 other in-particle reactions that reduce the IEPOX-SOA factor loading, as well as physical
489 mechanisms, such as particle deposition and particle dilution by entrainment that reduce mass
490 concentrations of IEPOX-derived PM (Supplement, Section S6). The value of k_L is varied over
491 three orders of magnitude, representing characteristic times of hours to weeks, while the other
492 model parameters are held constant (Table 4). The production rate coefficient k_P is fixed at 0.10
493 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3} \text{h}^{-1}$, corresponding to the interval midpoint of Case 1. The observed values of ζ (gray
494 shaded area) in intersection with the modeled values of ζ imply an upper limit on k_L at 0.043h^{-1} ,
495 corresponding to characteristic times of a day to weeks (Figure 9b). Correspondingly, $\tau_{L,bg} > 24$
496 h under background conditions, and $\tau_{L,pol} > 12 \text{h}$ under polluted conditions.

497 The analyses of Cases 1 and 2 constrain the values of $\tau_{P,pol}$, $\tau_{P,bg}$, $\tau_{L,pol}$, and $\tau_{L,bg}$ based on
498 the observed values of ζ . The lower limits of the characteristic times for loss, meaning $\tau_{L,bg} > 24$
499 h and $\tau_{L,pol} > 12 \text{h}$, are considerably longer than the transport time of 4 h under both background
500 and polluted conditions. Enhanced loss, therefore, does not explain alone the observed values of
501 ζ . By comparison, the observed values of ζ imply a shift in the characteristic time for production
502 from $[1.8, 3.3] \text{h}$ under background conditions to $[18, 33] \text{h}$ under pollution conditions. The shift
503 in timescale is significant in light of the transport time of 4 h. Therefore, reduced production,
504 rather than enhanced loss, is consistent with the lower IEPOX-derived PM concentrations under

505 polluted conditions. A few afternoon hours of altered isoprene chemistry is sufficient to
506 significantly shift the atmospheric concentration of IEPOX-derived PM.

507 **4. Summary and conclusions**

508 The influence of anthropogenic emissions on the production of organic particulate matter
509 from isoprene epoxydiols was studied during the wet season of the tropical forest in central
510 Amazonia. The IEPOX-derived PM concentration at the T3 site, as indicated by the IEPOX-
511 SOA factor loading, was lower under polluted compared to background conditions. Sulfate
512 concentration was an important first-order predictor of the IEPOX-SOA factor loading,
513 corroborating the understanding of the role of sulfate in the production of IEPOX-derived PM
514 that has been developed in laboratory studies as well as in investigations in the southeastern USA
515 (Surratt et al., 2007b; Budisulistiorini et al., 2013; Budisulistiorini et al., 2015; Hu et al., 2015;
516 Kuwata et al., 2015; Xu et al., 2015). Unlike the southeastern USA, however, where
517 anthropogenic influences dominated variability in sulfate concentrations, contributions by the
518 Manaus urban region to sulfate concentrations were of approximately equal magnitude to the
519 background variability in central Amazonia. By comparison, Manaus urban emissions of NO
520 dominated over background concentrations, and the NO_y concentration measured 4 to 6 h
521 downwind of Manaus at the T3 site was an important predictor of the IEPOX-SOA factor
522 loading. In net effect, the suppression of IEPOX production because of elevated NO
523 concentrations in the pollution plume dominated over any enhancements in IEPOX uptake
524 because of greater sulfate concentrations.

525 The dependence of the IEPOX-SOA factor loadings on both sulfate and NO_y
526 concentrations, as shown in Figure 8, suggests that altered net anthropogenic effects may be
527 expected for different geographic regions, even within Amazonia, and different time periods,

528 such as the wet and dry seasons. The T3 site experienced a wide range of NO_y concentrations,
529 allowing for the systematic demonstration of the dependence of IEPOX-derived PM
530 concentrations on NO_y concentrations. The results show that the transition in isoprene
531 photochemistry related to the production of IEPOX-derived PM is most sensitive precisely at the
532 transition between background and polluted conditions, around 1 ppb of NO_y, at least for central
533 Amazonia in the wet season. These findings suggest that the fraction of PM derived from IEPOX
534 might be lower and have lower variability for other geographic regions characterized by higher
535 NO_y baseline concentrations (e.g., upward of 1 to 2 ppb). For regions further downwind of the
536 urban center, the effects of the plume are expected to phase out both due to dilution and to
537 consumption of NO, and a gradual transition to background chemistry is expected to take place.
538 Adequately representing background conditions and the transition to polluted conditions within
539 models, including the dependence of the production of IEPOX-derived PM not only on sulfate
540 but also on NO concentration, is thus important for making accurate predictions of PM
541 concentrations, both in Amazonia and around the globe.

542 The findings herein can be considered in the context of Amazonia in transition (Davidson
543 et al., 2012). In the past 50 years, the metropolitan area of Manaus, today at more than 2 million
544 inhabitants, has experienced rapid economic and population growth (Martin et al., 2016a).
545 Changes in the fuel matrix, such as the ongoing shift from high-sulfur to low-sulfur oil in the
546 vehicle fleet as well as from fuel oil to natural gas in many power plants (Medeiros et al., in
547 preparation), are changing the composition of the Manaus pollution plume. Based on the findings
548 presented herein, a reduction in sulfate sources from Manaus, whether primary or secondary,
549 would not be expected to considerably affect the mass concentration of IEPOX-derived species
550 in forest regions affected by the plume. Background sources independent of Manaus appear

551 sufficient to sustain sulfate concentrations regionally. On the other hand, in the absence of
552 pollution control technologies, NO emissions can be expected to increase in coming years due to
553 the development of more efficient (i.e., higher temperature) sources of electricity associated with
554 the development of natural gas resources in the basin, as well as from growth in transportation
555 associated with increased population. Increased NO concentrations can be expected to reduce the
556 mass concentration of IEPOX-derived species in forest regions affected by the plume. Changes
557 in the atmospheric particle population can have follow-on effects on cloud type, duration, and
558 rainfall (Pöschl et al., 2010). In addition to PM derived from IEPOX as discussed herein, a better
559 understanding of other pathways that also contribute to organic PM, as well as possible changes
560 to those pathways with increasing pollution in the region, warrants further study so as to achieve
561 sufficient knowledge for decision-making related to air quality and climate in Amazonia.

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List of Tables

| Group | NO _y range (ppb) | Fit slope | Fit intercept | Fit R^2 |
|-------|-----------------------------|-----------|---------------|-----------|
| 1 | < 0.66 | 2.16 | -0.13 | 0.75 |
| 2 | 0.66 – 0.92 | 1.48 | -0.04 | 0.64 |
| 3 | 0.92 – 1.55 | 0.78 | 0.06 | 0.24 |
| 4 | 1.55 – 2.45 | 0.71 | -0.01 | 0.44 |
| 5 | > 2.45 | 0.55 | -0.02 | 0.62 |

Table 1. Parameters associated with NO_y groupings in Figure 6. Listed are the NO_y concentrations and the parameters for least-squares linear fits to each group. R^2 represents the coefficient of determination.

| Symbol | Description | Unit |
|-----------------|---|------------------------------------|
| M | mass concentration of IEPOX-derived PM | $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ |
| t | time | h |
| k_P | zero-order rate coefficient for production under background conditions | $\mu\text{g m}^{-3} \text{h}^{-1}$ |
| k_L | first-order rate coefficient for loss under background conditions | h^{-1} |
| α | multiplicative factor representing the effects of Manaus pollution on rate coefficients | |
| τ | characteristic time of a process (e.g., production, loss, or transport) | h |
| Subscript tr | Refers to transport | |
| Subscript bg | Refers to background conditions | |
| Subscript pol | Refers to polluted conditions | |
| Subscript 0 | Refers to an initial state (i.e., just upwind of Manaus) | |
| Subscript P | Refers to production processes | |
| Subscript L | Refers to loss processes | |

Table 2. Descriptions and units of symbols in the model.

| | Loading ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) for background conditions | | Loading ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) for polluted conditions | | Ratio ζ | |
|----------------------|--|-----------------|--|-----------------|---------------|---------|
| | Low | High | Low | High | Low | High |
| | sulfate | sulfate | sulfate | sulfate | sulfate | sulfate |
| IEPOX- SOA factor | [0.037, 0.093] | [0.57, 0.95] | [0.022, 0.039] | [0.21, 0.35] | 0.47 | 0.35 |

Table 3. Interquartile intervals of IEPOX-SOA factor loadings observed for background and polluted conditions. Background and polluted conditions correspond to approximately 0.5 ppb and 2 ppb of NO_y , respectively. The table also lists the resulting ratio ζ of the median factor loading under polluted compared to background conditions.

| Model case | Parameter values | | | | Initial condition |
|---------------|------------------|------------|------------|------------|-------------------|
| | k_P | k_L | α_P | α_L | M_0 |
| 1. Vary k_P | 0 to 0.2 | 0.018 | 0.1 | 3 | 0.23 |
| 2. Vary k_L | 0.065 | 0.001 to 1 | 0.1 | 3 | 0.23 |

Table 4. Parameter values and initial conditions used in model cases. Descriptions and units are listed in Table 2. The M_0 value is based on the mean IEPOX-SOA factor loading that was measured from 14:00-16:00 UTC (10:00-12:00 local time) at a regional background site during two months of the wet season in 2008 (Chen et al., 2015). For comparison, a similar value of $0.19 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ was obtained during the present study as the mean value observed at the T3 site for $\text{NO}_y < 1$ ppb (14:00-16:00 UTC).

List of Figures

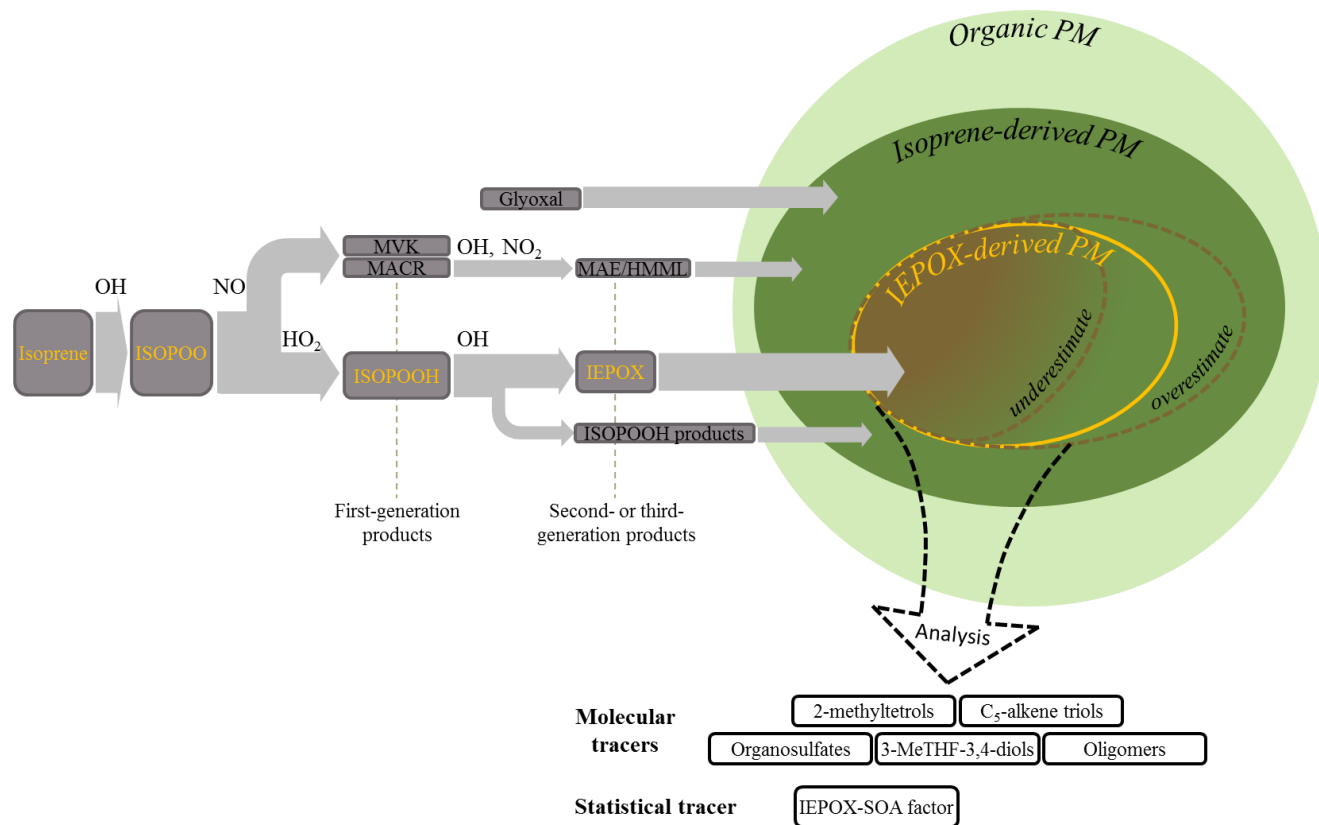


Figure 1. Schematic diagram for the production of IEPOX-derived PM from the photooxidation of isoprene. Organic peroxy radicals (ISOPOO), produced by OH attack and O₂ addition to isoprene, are scavenged along NO or HO₂ pathways. By the HO₂ pathway, organic hydroperoxides (ISOPOOH) are first-generation products that react with additional OH to produce isoprene epoxydiols (IEPOX). The IEPOX species undergo reactive uptake into particles, ultimately producing IEPOX-derived particulate matter. Arrow thickness qualitatively illustrates the relative importance (i.e., mass flux) of a reaction channel under background conditions. Gray and green background colors indicate species in the gas and particle phases, respectively. The light-green disk represents the total organic PM. Within that disk, the contribution by isoprene-derived PM, including compounds produced both IEPOX and non-IEPOX pathways, is represented by the dark-green oval. Inside that oval, the contribution by IEPOX-derived PM is represented by the yellow oval region. The color gradient between brown and dark green illustrates the chemical modification of the IEPOX-derived PM over time. The large dashed black arrow represents the analytical methods that use different types of molecular and statistical tracers (listed in the boxes) to quantify the IEPOX-derived PM mass concentrations. For simplicity, the figure omits the many routes leading to the production of glyoxal (Fu et al., 2008), possible ISOPOO isomerization when NO and HO₂ concentrations are sufficiently low (Crouse et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2016a), second-generation production of peroxyacetic nitric anhydride (Lin et al., 2013; Nguyen et al., 2015), and particle water and other inorganic components. 3-methyltetrahydrofuran-3,4-diols are abbreviated as 3-MeTHF-3,4-diols. Other abbreviations are provided in the main text.

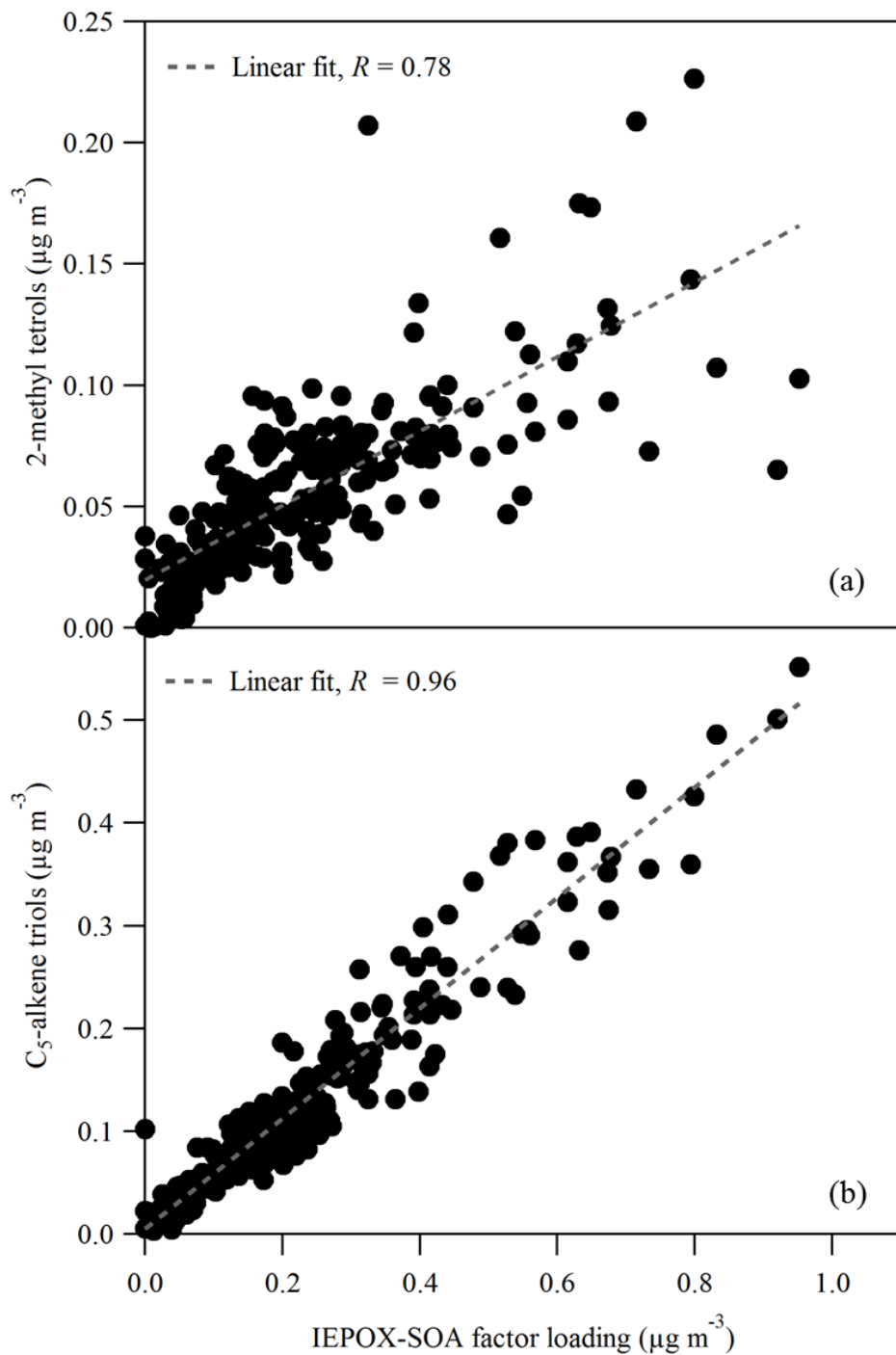


Figure 2. Scatter plot of the loading of the IEPOX-SOA factor derived from analysis of the AMS data set and the mass concentrations of C_5 -alkene triols and 2-methyltetrols measured by SV-TAG. All data collected during IOP1 are included, meaning that the plotted data are not limited to afternoon time periods.

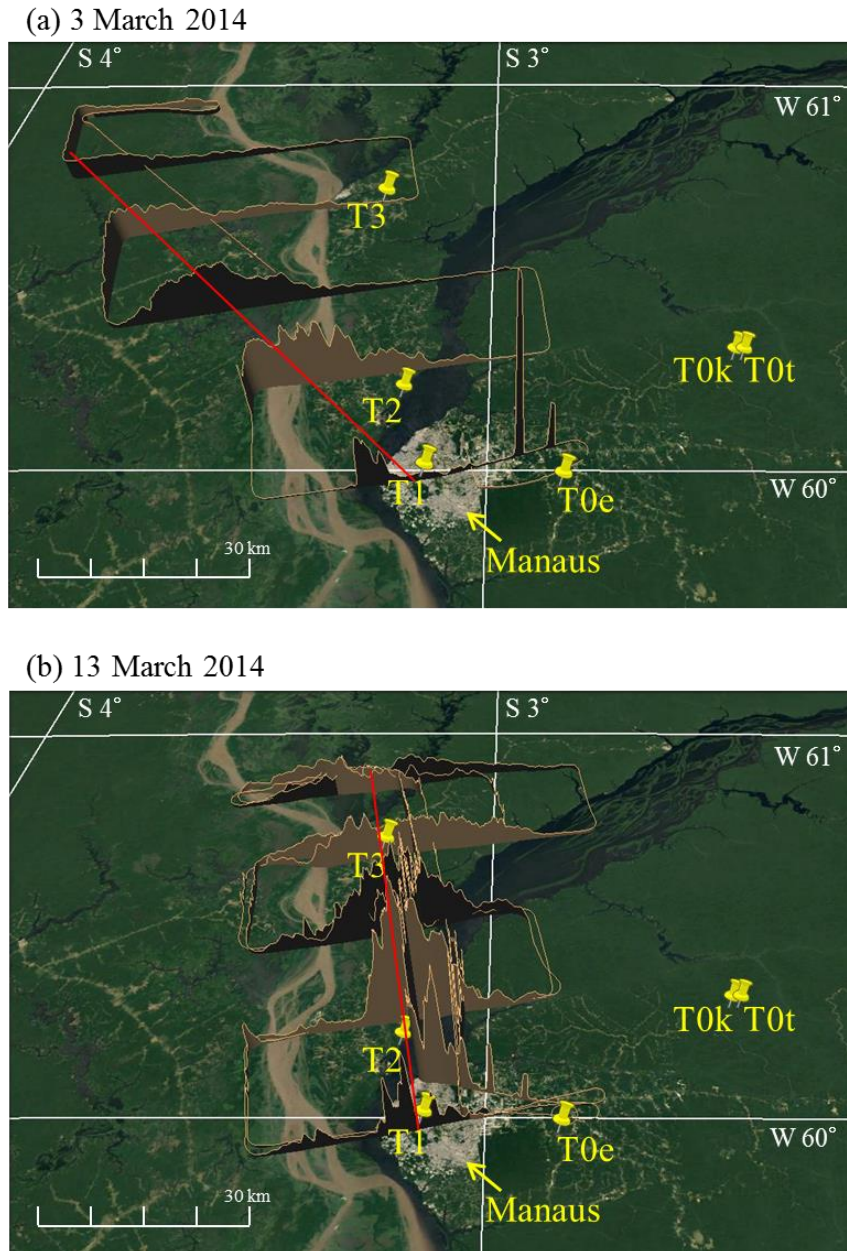


Figure 3. Visualization of the Manaus pollution plume by plotting particle number concentrations in the vertical axis. Observations took place on flights from late morning to early afternoon on (a) March 3, 2014, 17:45 – 19:26 UTC, and (b) March 13, 2014, 14:14 – 17:21 UTC. Local time is UTC minus 4 h. The red lines guide the eye through the central axis of the plume. The direction and extent of the plume was observed by the G-1 aircraft within the atmospheric boundary layer downwind of Manaus. Measured particle number concentrations are plotted on a vertical axis on top of an image of land cover in the horizontal plane. Particle concentrations in the center of the plume ranged from 10,000 to 25,000 cm^{-3} nearby Manaus. Yellow pins indicate the locations of some of the GoAmazon2014/5 research sites, including T3 (Martin et al., 2016a).

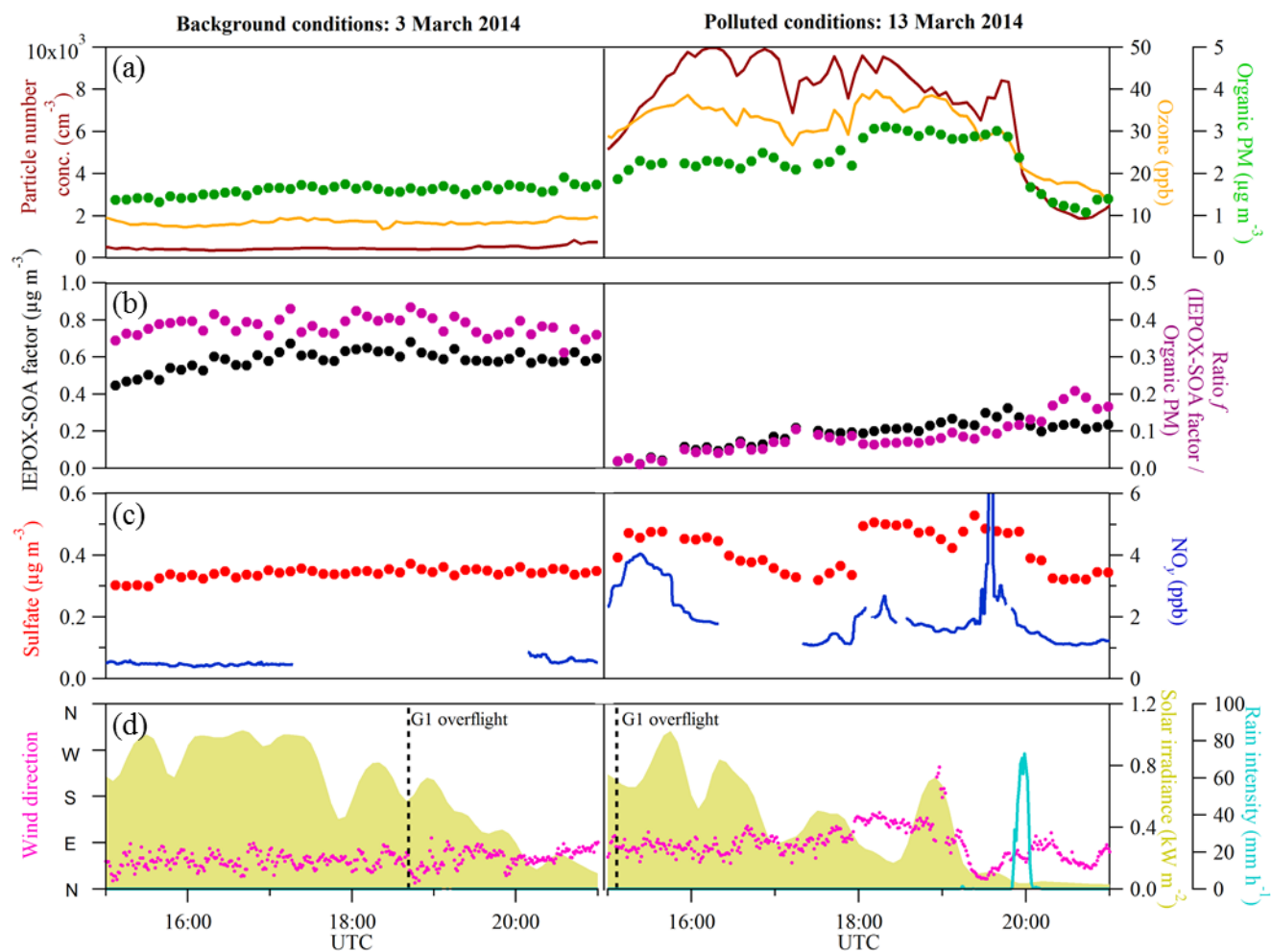


Figure 4. Case studies of (left) background and (right) polluted air masses passing over T3 on afternoons of March 3 and 13, 2014. (a) Ozone, particle number, and organic mass concentration. (b) IEPOX-SOA factor loading and the ratio f of the factor loading to the organic PM concentration. (c) Sulfate and NO_y concentrations. (d) Wind direction, rain intensity, and solar irradiance. Local time is UTC minus 4 h. Time points of overflights at 500 m by the G-1 research aircraft are marked by the dashed line (Martin et al., 2016a).

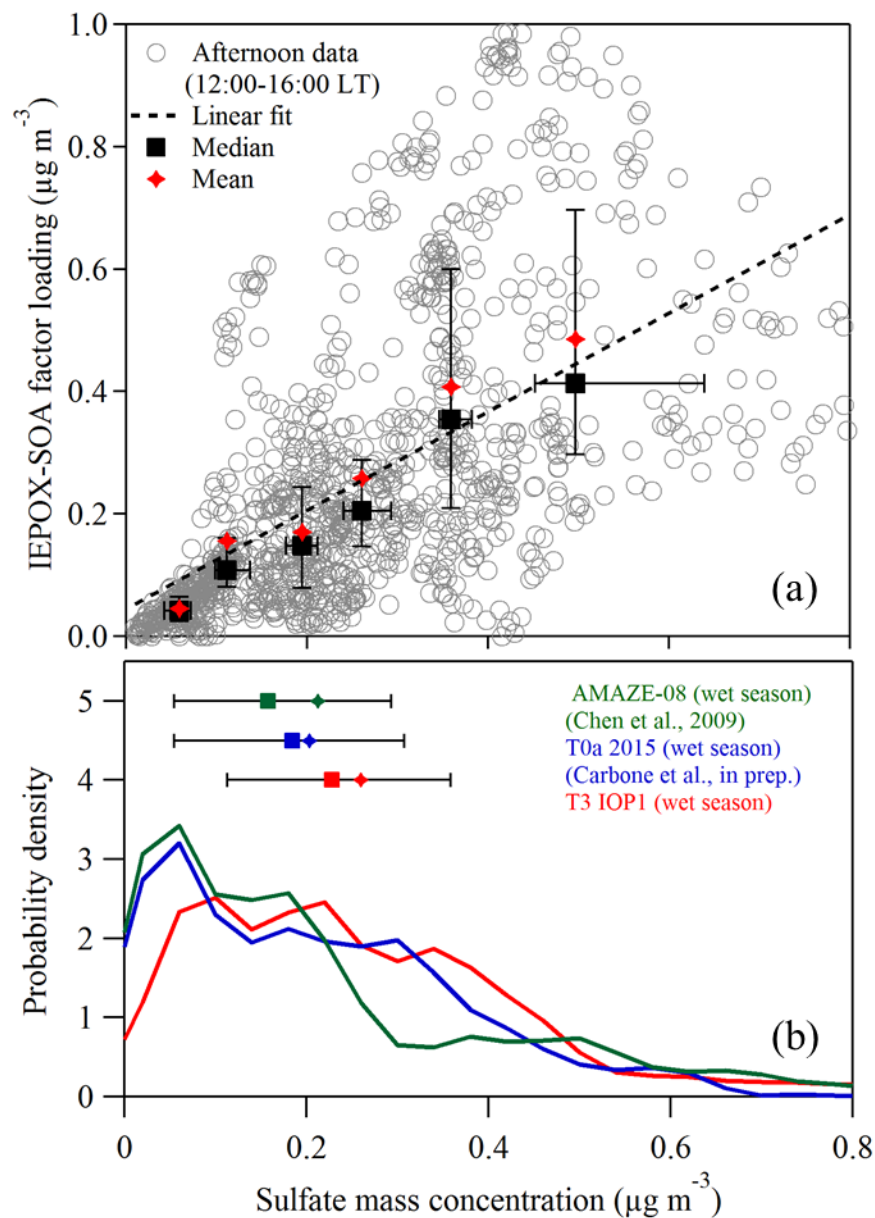


Figure 5. (a) Scatter plot of sulfate mass concentration and IEPOX-SOA factor loading. A least-squares linear fit is represented by the dashed line ($R^2 = 0.37$). The data set was collected into six subsets based on sulfate concentration to calculate statistics. Medians (squares) and means (diamonds) of each subset are plotted. Whiskers on the medians represent the interquartile ranges. (b) Probability density function of sulfate mass concentration at the background site T0t (“TT34”) north of Manaus in the wet season of 2008 (Chen et al., 2009; Martin et al., 2010b; Martin et al., 2016b), at the background site T0a (“ATTO”) northeast of Manaus in the wet season of 2015 (Andreae et al., 2015), and at T3 during the wet season of 2014 (IOP1). The plotted data sets were recorded during local afternoons (12:00-16:00 local time; 16:00-20:00 UTC). Means (diamonds), medians (squares), and interquartile range (whiskers) are shown for the probability density functions.

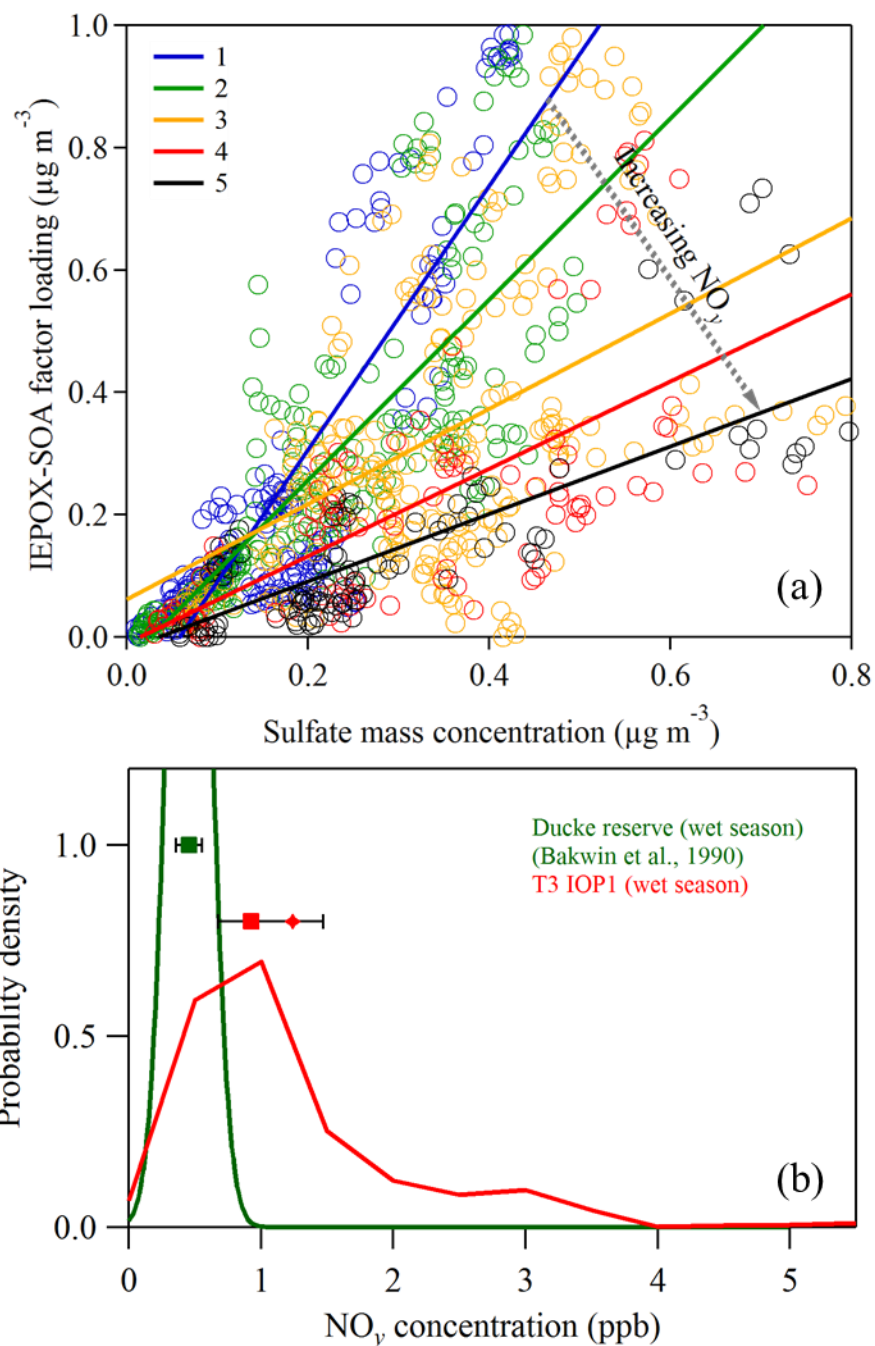


Figure 6. (a) Scatter plot of sulfate mass concentration and IEPOX-SOA factor loading for local afternoon (12:00-16:00 local time; 16:00-20:00 UTC). The data sets were collected into five subsets, colored and labeled 1 to 5, based on NO_y concentration. Table 1 presents the parameters of the five least-squares linear fits represented by the colored lines in the figure. (b) Probability density function of NO_y concentration at a background site nearby Manaus in the wet season of 1987 (Bakwin et al., 1990) and at T3 during the wet season of 2014 (IOP1) (afternoon data). Means (diamonds), medians (squares), and interquartile range (whiskers) are shown for the probability density functions. Additional analysis of panel (a) is discussed in the Supplement (Section S5) related to Figure S5.

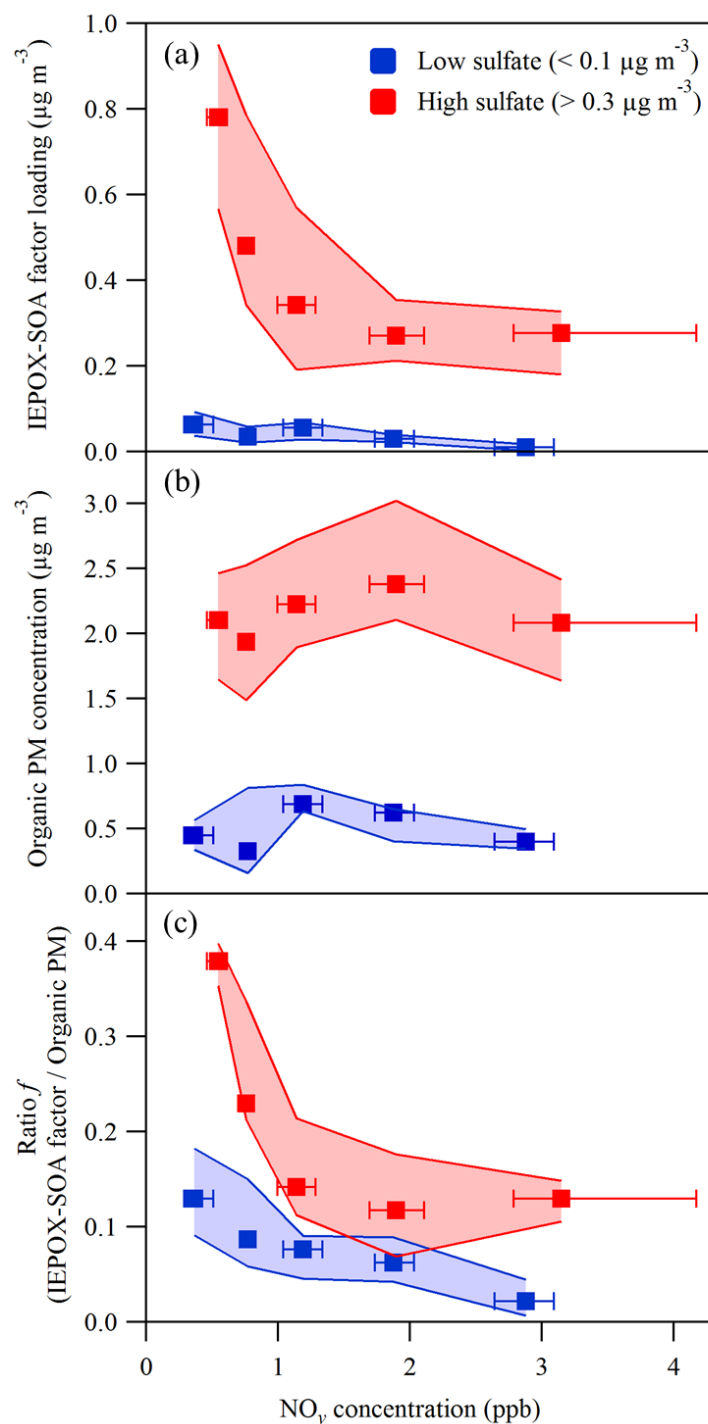


Figure 7. Dependence on NO_y concentration of (a) IEPOX-SOA factor loading, (b) organic mass concentration, and (c) the ratio f of the IEPOX-SOA factor loading to the organic PM concentration. Data are segregated by low ($< 0.1 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) and high ($> 0.3 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) sulfate mass concentration and grouped into five levels of NO_y concentration (Figure 6). Squares represent medians of each group. Interquartile ranges are represented by whiskers along the abscissa and shading along the ordinate. The plotted data sets were recorded during local afternoon (12:00-16:00 local time; 16:00-20:00 UTC).

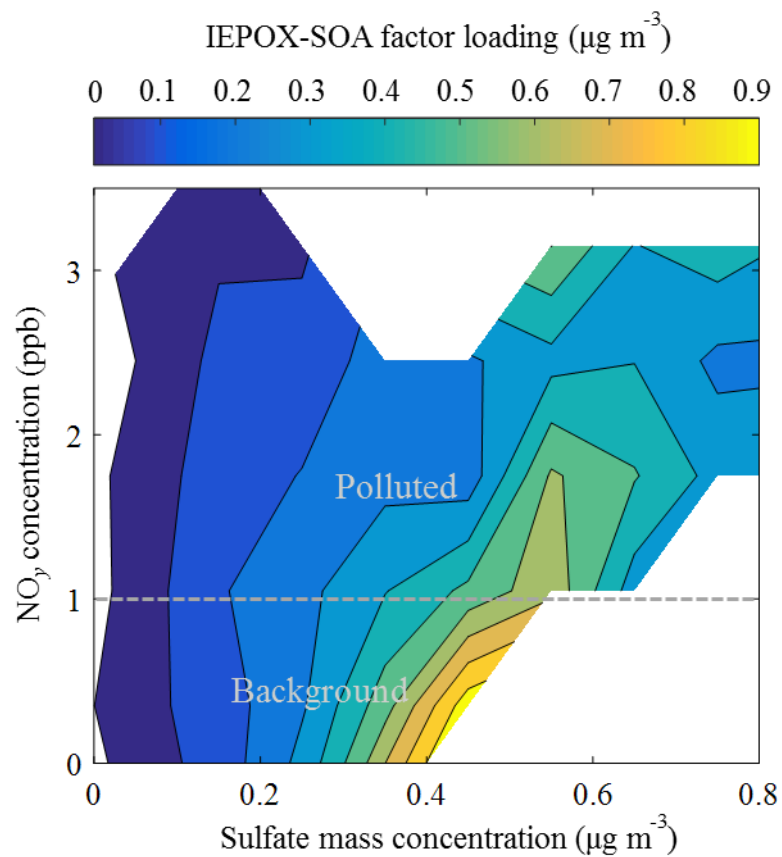


Figure 8. Contours of IEPOX-SOA factor loading for sulfate and NO_y concentrations. The plotted data were recorded during local afternoon (12:00-16:00 local time; 16:00-20:00 UTC). Typical transition between regimes of background and polluted conditions for the region downwind of Manaus are approximately represented by the dashed gray line.

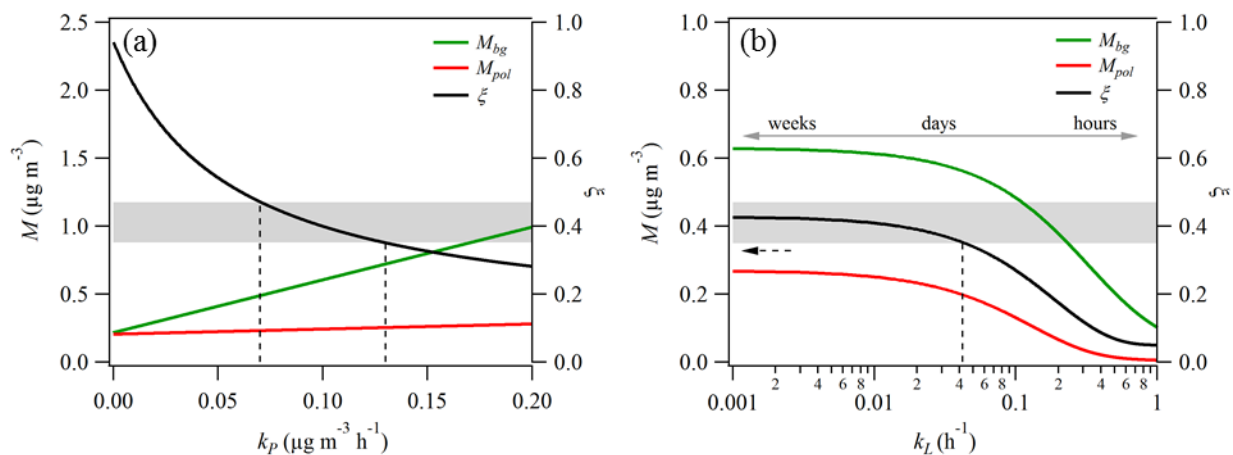


Figure 9. Modeled IEPOX-derived PM mass concentrations M_{pol} and M_{bg} at the T3 site under polluted compared to background conditions. The ratio ζ of concentrations (i.e., M_{pol}/M_{bg}) is also plotted. Panels a and b correspond to the two model Cases 1 and 2 listed in Table 4 and described in the text. Gray shading indicates the range of observed values of ζ across low and high sulfate concentrations. Dashed lines indicate the intersection of modeled and observed values of ζ and the corresponding constrained values of k_p or k_L along the abscissa. Labels above the double-headed arrow in panel b correspond to characteristic times (i.e., k_L^{-1}). The dashed black arrow in panel b communicates that the observed values of ζ provide no constraint on the lower limit of k_L .