Response to reviews

Reviewer comments are in **bold**. Author responses are in plain text. Excerpts from the manuscript are in *italics*. Modifications to the manuscript are in *blue italics*. Page and line numbers in the responses correspond to those in the ACPD paper.

Review #1

1. Line 155. As reported by (Zotter et al 2017) at 370 nm there maybe a nonnegligible light-absorption contribution from SOA compounds, I would use the wavelength at 430 nm.

In our manuscript, the assessment of brown carbon absorption aimed exactly at quantifying the contribution of all organic material, including SOA, to light absorption. Therefore, the choice of the lower bound of wavelength measured (370 nm) followed as the most appropriate.

Previous studies in Amazonia also used the 370 nm wavelength to estimate the brown carbon contribution to particle light absorption (e.g., Wang et al., 2016; Saturno et al., 2018). Zotter et al. (2017) had a different goal compared to our study, aiming to apportion the contribution of traffic and wood burning aerosols to light absorption, excluding the possible contribution of SOA to light absorption.

2. Line 166-170. I would use some references to support the assumptions made.

We appreciate this idea, and have added the following references in the text:

Line 166:

"... (1) babs, BC(700) 166 = babs(700) and babs, BC(880) = babs(880) assuming that babs, BrC = 0 at red wavelengths (e.g., Andreae and Gelencsér, 2006; Wang et al., 2016), (2) aabs, BC(700, 880) was calculated from Equation 2 using babs, BC(700) and babs, BC(880), (3) babs, BC(370) was calculated from Equation 2, using babs, BC(880) and aabs, BC(370, 880) = aabs, BC(700, 880) under the assumption that aabs, BC was independent of wavelength (e.g., Andreae and Gelencsér, 2006; Moosmüller et al., 2009), and finally (4) babs, BrC(370) was obtained by Equation 1 using babs, BC(370) and babs(370).

3. Line **528-537**. When you describe Figure 11 you don't comment on the Angström exponent

We thank the reviewer for catching this fault in completeness. We have adjusted the text as follows:

Line 534:

"... from 0.2 in the day to 0.4 at night. The absorption Angström exponent a_{abs} followed a similar diel trend, on average ranging from 2 during the day to 3 during the night (Figure 11d). Compared to the diel trends....

4. Figure 4 and Figure 11: I would write the values of the interquartile ranges:

25, 75 or 10, 90?

Our understanding is that an interquartile range is, by definition, the middle 50%, i.e. from 25% to 75%. Therefore, we have opted to keep the captions short.

5. Figure 11: I would write the wavelengths also on the graph to be clear, in particular on the Angstrom exponent

We appreciate this suggestion. However, in the interest of keeping the figure clean, the wavelengths are not added to the graph. We believe that this clarity is provided in the figure caption, where all wavelengths are explicitly mentioned. Please also note that all the variables plotted were explicitly defined in the Section 2.2 (Brown carbon light absorption), lines 173-174.

6. Figure 13: I would draw the correlation curve and write the correlation coefficient as in Figure 14.

To address this great suggestion by the reviewer, we have modified the figure to include the trend lines. The Pearson R values and the equation coefficients are provided in the figure caption.

Review #2

De Sá et al. have studied concentrations and light absorption properties of PM during the dry season in central Amazonia, as part of the GoAmazon2014/15 campaign. They present a wealth of data and analyze it in a comprehensive and detailed fashion to derive some interesting insights on anthropogenic impacts on PM and OA concentrations as well as light absorption properties over Amazonia. The paper is well written, the Figures are numerous, but clear and mostly justified (see comment below) and the conclusions are well-based on the measured data. The abstract could be improved (see comment below) and I have a few more comments listed below. I recommend publication of the paper after these have been addressed.

We thank the reviewer for reading our manuscript and providing this valuable feedback.

Comments:

1. The abstract is rather descriptive and would benefit from more detailed quantitative results, e.g. on the measured concentrations, PMF factor

contributions to OA, and contribution to BrC. Quantitative results would also be important to better understand some of the core findings mentioned in the abstract, e.g. on the BrC bleaching (L13), the relevance of sources other than BB (L17-19), and the suggested different oxidation pathways in the different clusters (L29-31). In turn, the parts that just describe what has been done could be condensed (e.g. L5-10, L13-15, L22-26, ...)

This feedback is highly appreciated. We have adjusted the abstract as follows:

Urbanization and deforestation have important impacts on atmospheric particulate matter (PM) over Amazonia. This study presents observations and analysis of submicron *PM*₁ concentration, composition, and optical properties in central Amazonia during the dry season, focusing on the anthropogenic impacts. The focus is on delineating the anthropogenic impact on the observed quantities, especially asrelated to the organic PM₊. The primary study site was located 70 km to the west downwind of Manaus, a city of over two million people in Brazil. A, as part of the GoAmazon2014/5 experiment., datasets from a large suite of instrumentation were employed. A high-resolution time-of-flight aerosol mass spectrometer (AMS) provided data on *PM*₁ composition, and aethalometer measurements were used to derive the absorption coefficient $b_{abs,BrC}$ of brown carbon (BrC) at 370 nm. Non-refractory PM_1 mass concentrations averaged 12.2 μ g m⁻³ at the primary study site, dominated by organics (83%) followed by sulfate (11%). A decrease in $b_{abs,BrC}$ was observed as the mass concentration of nitrogen-containing organic compounds decreased and the organic PM₁ O:C ratio increased, suggesting atmospheric bleaching of the BrC components. The relationships of babs. Brc with AMS-measured quantities showed that the absorption was associated with less-oxidized, nitrogen-containing organic compounds. Atmospheric processing appeared to bleach the BrC components. The organic PM₁ was separated into six different classes by positive-matrix factorization (PMF), and the mass absorption efficiency E_{abs} associated with each factor was estimated through multivariate linear regression of $b_{abs,BrC}$ on the factor loadings. Estimates of the effective mass absorption efficiency associated with each PMF factor were obtained. The largest E_{abs} values were associated with urban (2.04 \pm 0.14 m² g^{-1}) and biomass burning $(0.82 \pm 0.04 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1} \text{ to } 1.50 \pm 0.07 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1})$ sources. Together, these sources Biomass burning and urban emissions appeared to contributed at least 80% of $b_{abs,BrC}$ while accounting for 30 to 40 % of the organic PM₁ mass concentration. In addition, a comparison of organic PM_1 composition between wet and dry seasons revealed that only part a fraction of the nine-fold increase in mass concentration between the seasons can be attributed was due to biomass burning. Biomass-burning factor loadings increased by thirty-fold, elevating its relative contribution to organic PM_1 from about 10% in the wet season to 30% in the dry season. However, most of the PM_1 mass (>60%) in both seasons was accounted for by biogenic secondary organic sources, which in turn showed an eight-fold seasonalincrease in factor loadings. An eight-fold increase in biogenic secondary organic PM1 was observed. A combination of decreased wet deposition and increased emissions and oxidant concentrations. as

well as a positive feedback on larger mass concentrations are thought to play a role in the observed increases. *Furthermore*, *Fuzzy c-means clustering identified three* clusters, namely "baseline", "event", and "urban" to represent different pollution influences during the dry season., including "baseline" (dry season background, which includes biomass burning), "event" (increased influence of biomass burningand long-range transport of African volcanic emissions), and "urban" (Manaus*influence on top of the background*). The baseline cluster, representing the dry season background, was associated with a mean mass concentration of $9 \pm 3 \mu g m^{-3}$. This concentration increased on average by $3 \mu g m^{-3}$ for both the urban and the event clusters. The event cluster, representing an increased influence of biomass burning and long-range transport of African volcanic emissions, was characterized by remarkably high sulfate concentrations. The urban cluster, representing the influence of Manaus emissions on top of the baseline, was characterized by an organic PM_1 composition that differed from the other two clusters. The differences discussed Differences in the organic PM₊ composition for the urban cluster compared to the other two clusters suggested a shift in oxidation pathways as well as an accelerated oxidation cycle due to urban emissions, in agreement with findings for the wet season.

2. L142: Calculating a new trajectory every 12 min seems like quite a high frequency to me. Do they change at all within such short time? Also, here it says that 48 h back trajectories were calculated while the caption of Figure 9 says 10 h.

We thank the reviewer for bringing up these points. We have modified the text to clarify them as follows:

Line 141:

Air-mass backtrajectories were estimated using HYSPLIT4 (Draxler and Hess, 1998). Data sets of the S-band radar of the System for Amazon Protection (SIPAM) in Manaus (Machado et al., 2014) provided precipitation data, which allowed to filter out trajectories that intercepted precipitation. The HYSPLIT4 sSimulations started at 100 m above T3 and were calculated up to two days back in time for every 12 min to match with the radar data-up to two days back in time. Input meteorological data to the simulations were obtained on a grid of $0.5^{\circ} \times 0.5^{\circ}$ were obtained from the Global Data Assimilation System (GDAS). Precipitation along the trajectories was based ondata sets of the S-band radar of the System for Amazon Protection (SIPAM) in-Manaus (Machado et al., 2014). Additional information on the backtrajectory calculations and on the radar were described in de Sá et al. (2018).

Figure 9 caption:

Trajectories were calculated using HYSPLIT4 in steps of 12 min and are shown for 10 h (Draxler and Hess, 1998).

3. L171-174: I cannot follow here. Are all the parameter subscripts correct? If so, please be more specific.

We really appreciate that the reviewer caught this typo on the subscripts. We have corrected the issue as follows:

Line 172: *Based on babs.BC*(370) and *babs.BC*(430), *åabs*(370,430) was estimated.

4. L209: "highly correlated" is not very precise. Please provide Persons r. Also, if OA and sulfate are really "highly correlated", does it imply common sources?

Pearson R values were added to the text as shown below. In addition, we did not mean to say that organic and sulfate are highly correlated to each other. Rather, we meant that each of those species have their concentrations well correlated across sites. The text was adjusted to eliminate this ambiguity:

Line 209:

The time series of organic and sulfate mass concentrations across the three sites were well-highly correlated across over the two months when considering the timescale of a day (Figure 2a; 0.55 < R < 0.85). Similar behavior was observed for sulfate mass concentrations (Figure 2b; 0.86 < R < 0.93). The T0 and T3...

5. L211-212: I have difficulties resolving timescales of less than a day in Figure 2. Please also give r.

The R values were added to the text as follows:

Line 211:

The figure data also shows that for timescales of an hour less than a day the sites were less correlated (0.70 < R < 0.80 for sulfate, and 0.38 < R < 0.75 for organic mass concentrations).

6. L409: It is only at the very end of the discussion on possible drivers of lower concentrations during the wet season, that wet deposition is cautiously mentioned. To me this seems to be the most obvious and maybe also most relevant factor, as it efficiently removes both particles and precursor gases. Are there studies quantifying the effect of wet deposition in the area?

The reviewer brings up an excellent point about the way we presented our arguments. We reorganized the text as follows below, bringing the sentences on wet deposition to the beginning of the paragraph, in order to reflect its importance in the discussion. We also added a few more references that show different deposition patterns during the wet and dry seasons.

While it is known that wet deposition is important in regulating atmospheric concentrations in Amazonia, we are not aware of any quantitative field or modelling study on the effect of wet deposition on said concentrations. The challenge arises from the confounding nature of all the processes and sources that change simultaneously between the wet and dry seasons, making it difficult to apportion the reasons for differences in aerosol concentrations.

Line 395:

Therefore, reasons other than increased biomass burning in the dry season must have played a role in increasing organic PM1 concentrations. Importantly, the mass concentrations of sulfate and ammonium also increased by six-fold between seasons (Figure S10), indicating that atmospheric physical processes governing particle mass concentrations possibly played an important role. In this context, reduced wet deposition due to reduced convection in the dry season may be another appreciable one important contributor to the organic PM1 increases (Machado et al., 2014; Nunes et al., 2016; Chakraborty et al., 2018; Trebs et al., 2006; Pauliquevis et al., 2012). Another One-aspect is that BVOC emissions are typically higher...

7. L729-743: These paragraphs in the Summary seem to add new aspects to the discussion of BrC that were not addressed before. I think they would fit better into the Results section, which would also help to shorten the quite long Summary section.

We really like this suggestion and have moved the referred paragraph (lines 729-743) to the end of Section 3.2.2:

Line 689:

... and is discussed in the Supplementary Material (Figure S15). The BrC light absorption can have direct and indirect effects on radiative forcing...

8. Table 3: Statistical significance is mentioned in the caption, please include the significance level used (alpha = 0.05?) and ideally also the p-values of the model coefficients (i.e. Eabs).

We have adjusted the caption to address this suggestion. Note that the confidence intervals provided for E_{abs} values were stated as 95%. It thus follows that the significance level is 5%, and we have now explicitly added that to the caption. We have also reiterated from the text that the values listed were found by running the constrained least squares regression in bootstrap:

Table 3. Results of the constrained linear least squares regression analysis for the brown-carbon absorption coefficient (Equation 5). (a) Mass absorption efficiency E_{abs} associated with each PMF factor. (b) Model intercept. The mean, standard error (SE), and 95% confidence interval (CI) are listed in each panel. They were obtained through bootstrap of the regression analysis considering different samples (i.e., sets of points in time) for 10⁴ runs. Unit of Mm⁻¹ represents 10⁻⁶ m⁻¹. The coefficient of determination R² between predicted $b_{abs,BrC,pred}$ and observed $b_{abs,BrC}$ was 0.66. The symbol "*" indicates that the estimated value was statistically not higher than zero at the significance level of 5%.

9. Figure 12: Please indicate the binwidth used for the boxes.

The bin boundaries used for the boxes have been added to the figure caption:

Figure 12 caption:

... and horizontal lines within the boxes indicate medians. For panel a, each bin width is 0.1, from 0.5 to 1.0, and for panel b, each bin width is 0.2, from 0 to 1.0. In complement...

10. In order to somewhat reduce the quite high number of Figures, the authors could consider to move Figure 3 to the SI, as it does not present any results, and to remove Figure 15, which just seems to be a visual repetition of Table 4.

We really appreciate these thoughtful suggestions. After careful internal discussion, we decided to keep the figures as they are, following our belief that they add higher value to the paper as main figures by providing impactful visualizations of some important observations and results.

11. SI: As the SI will not get further typesetting I recommend giving captions together with the Figures, instead of listing them separately.

We agree with the reviewer that this change will make the Supplementary Material more easily readable. Therefore, we have adjusted the location of figures in the supplementary text.

Interactive comment by Dr. Marco Pandolfi:

I would like to offer a few comments based on a quick reading.

In Section 3.2.2 the authors estimated the mass absorption efficiency (MAE) of different PMF ACSM factors using multivariate linear regression (MLR). Using PMF factors in the MLR, rather than individual chemical species, has the great advantage of providing the MAE of atmospheric particles taking into consideration their mixing state in the atmosphere. However, as reported by the authors, the number of papers presenting MAE (or mass scattering efficiency; MSE) of pollutant sources is rather scarce. Here, I would like to suggest the authors to cite another recent paper (Ealo et al., ACP, 2018) where both the MAE and MSE of different PMF sources were reported. The chemical speciated data used in Ealo et al. (2018) were obtained from chemical analysis of 24h filters. In Ealo et al. (2018) the highest MAE was calculated for the Traffic source (around 1.7 m2/g at 637 nm).

Moreover, Ealo et al. (2018) also reported the correlation between measured and modelled aerosol particle scattering (R2 = 0.85) and absorption (R2 = 0.76).

Ealo, M., Alastuey, A., Pérez, N., Ripoll, A., Querol, X., and Pandolfi, M.: Impact of aerosol particle sources on optical properties in urban, regional and remote areas

in the north-western Mediterranean, Atmos. Chem. Phys., 18, 1149-1169, https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-18-1149-2018, 2018.

We thank Dr. Pandolfi for providing this thoughtful comment to improve our manuscript. The reference suggested has been added to the text in the following instances:

Line 629:

Other studies have also made use of multivariate linear regression to retrieve mass absorption efficiencies (Hand and Malm, 2007;Washenfelder et al., 2015; Ealo et al., 2018).

Line 650:

... light absorption. As a point of comparison, Ealo et al. (2018) conducted a study in the north-western Mediterranean and found the highest mass absorption efficiencies, ranging from 0.9 to $1.7 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ at 637 nm, for traffic and industrial sources. As another point of comparison...

References

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Contributions of biomass-burning, urban, and biogenic emissions to the concentrations and light-absorbing properties of particulate matter in central Amazonia during the dry season

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1 Abstract

2 Urbanization and deforestation have important impacts on atmospheric particulate matter 3 (PM) over Amazonia. This study presents observations and analysis of submicron PM₁ 4 concentration, composition, and optical properties in central Amazonia during the dry season, 5 focusing on the anthropogenic impacts. The focus is on delineating the anthropogenic impact on 6 the observed quantities, especially as related to the organic PM₁. The primary study site was 7 located 70 km downwindto the west of Manaus, a city of over two million people in Brazil, as-8 As part of the GoAmazon2014/5 experiment., datasets from a large suite of instrumentation were 9 employed. A high-resolution time-of-flight aerosol mass spectrometer (AMS) provided data on 10 PM₁ composition, and aethalometer measurements were used to derive the absorption coefficient 11 babs,BrC of brown carbon (BrC) at 370 nm. Non-refractory PM₁ mass concentrations averaged 12 12.2 μ g m⁻³ at the primary study site, dominated by organics (83%) and sulfate (11%). A 13 decrease in $b_{abs,BrC}$ was observed as the mass concentration of nitrogen-containing organic 14 compounds decreased and the organic PM₁ O:C ratio increased, suggesting atmospheric bleaching of the BrC components. The relationships of babs. BrC with AMS-measured quantities 15 16 showed that the absorption was associated with less-oxidized, nitrogen-containing organic 17 compounds. Atmospheric processing appeared to bleach the BrC components. The organic PM1 18 was separated into six different classes by positive-matrix factorization (PMF), and the mass 19 absorption efficiency E_{abs} associated with each factor was estimated through multivariate linear 20 regression of $b_{abs,BrC}$ on the factor loadings. Estimates of the effective mass absorption efficiency associated with each PMF factor were obtained. The largest Eabs values were associated with 21 urban $(2.04 \pm 0.14 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1})$ and biomass burning $(0.82 \pm 0.04 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1} \text{ to } 1.50 \pm 0.07 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1})$ 22 23 sources. Together, these sources Biomass burning and urban emissions appeared to contributed 24 at least 80% of $b_{\rm abs,BrC}$ while accounting for 30 to 40 % of the organic PM₁ mass concentration. 25 In addition, a comparison of organic PM_1 composition between wet and dry seasons revealed

26 that only parta fraction of the nine-fold increase in mass concentration between the seasons can 27 be attributed was due to biomass burning. Biomass-burning factor loadings increased by thirty-28 fold, elevating its relative contribution to organic PM1 from about 10% in the wet season to 30% 29 in the dry season. However, most of the PM_1 mass (>60%) in both seasons was accounted for by 30 biogenic secondary organic sources, which in turn showed an eight-fold seasonal increase in 31 factor loadings. An eight-fold increase in biogenic secondary organic PM₁ was observed. A 32 combination of decreased wet deposition and increased emissions and oxidant concentrations, as 33 well as a positive feedback on larger mass concentrations are thought to play a role in the 34 observed increases. Furthermore, Fuzzy c-means clustering identified three clusters, namely 35 "baseline", "event", and "urban" to represent different pollution influences during the dry 36 season., including "baseline" (dry season background, which includes biomass burning), "event" 37 (increased influence of biomass burning and long-range transport of African volcanic emissions), 38 and "urban" (Manaus influence on top of the background). The baseline cluster, representing the dry season background, was associated with a mean mass concentration of $9 \pm 3 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$. This 39 concentration increased on average by $3 \mu g m^{-3}$ for both the urban and the event clusters. The 40 41 event cluster, representing an increased influence of biomass burning and long-range transport of 42 African volcanic emissions, was characterized by remarkably high sulfate concentrations. The 43 urban cluster, representing the influence of Manaus emissions on top of the baseline, was 44 characterized by an organic PM₁ composition that differed from the other two clusters. The 45 differences discussed Differences in the organic PM₁ composition for the urban cluster compared 46 to the other two clusters suggested a shift in oxidation pathways as well as an accelerated 47 oxidation cycle due to urban emissions, in agreement with findings for the wet season.

48 **1. Introduction**

49 The Amazon basin has undergone significant urbanization and deforestation in the past 50 decades (Davidson et al., 2012; Martin et al., 2017; van Marle et al., 2017). An understanding of 51 how the composition of atmospheric particulate matter (PM) changes due to anthropogenic 52 activities and how these changes affect PM optical properties is essential for quantifying the 53 global anthropogenic radiative forcing (IPCC, 2013; Sena et al., 2013). Light absorption 54 coefficients, b_{abs} , and their spectral dependence, commonly referred to as the Ångström 55 absorption exponent, \dot{a}_{abs} , are needed for accurate interpretation of satellite-retrieved aerosol 56 optical depth (AOD) for climate modeling. Estimates of the mass absorption efficiency E_{abs} for 57 PM subcomponents are useful for models to estimate optical effects based on PM composition 58 and mass concentrations (Laskin et al., 2015).

59 Organic material that can efficiently absorb radiation in the near-ultraviolet through the 60 blue end of the visible spectrum, with decreasing absorption efficiency as wavelength increases, 61 is termed "brown carbon" (BrC) (Pöschl, 2003; Andreae and Gelencsér, 2006; Laskin et al., 62 2015). By comparison, black carbon (BC) absorbs light efficiently throughout the visible 63 spectrum. Although global climate models have typically treated organic PM as purely 64 scattering, several studies have shown that brown carbon can contribute substantially to light 65 absorption by PM, especially in regions affected by biomass burning and urban emissions 66 (Andreae and Gelencsér, 2006; Ramanathan et al., 2007; Bond et al., 2011; Bahadur et al., 2012; 67 Ma and Thompson, 2012; Feng et al., 2013). In addition to primary emissions of BrC, secondary 68 production of BrC can occur from the oxidation of volatile organic compounds (VOCs) present 69 in biomass smoke (Saleh et al., 2014) and from atmospheric multiphase reactions involving a 70 wide range of precursor VOCs (Nozière et al., 2007; De Haan et al., 2009; Nguyen et al., 2012;

71	Lee et al., 2013; Lin et al., 2014; Powelson et al., 2014). The specific sources, chemical
72	characteristics, and optical properties of BrC remain largely unconstrained.
73	Biomass burning and urban pollution can affect the concentrations, composition, and
74	properties of atmospheric PM. In Amazonia, urban pollution is significant downwind of large
75	cities such as Manaus, Brazil (Kuhn et al., 2010; Martin et al., 2017; Cirino et al., 2018; de Sá et
76	al., 2018). Martin et al. (2017) reported increased concentrations of particles, nitrogen oxides,
77	carbon monoxide, and hydroxyl radicals for in-plume compared to out-of-plume conditions
78	downwind of Manaus. Liu et al. (2016) and de Sá et al. (2017) demonstrated that the Manaus
79	pollution plume shifted the oxidation pathway of isoprene, thereby significantly affecting gas-
80	and particle-phase compositions. de Sá et al., 2018 determined that the submicron PM mass
81	concentration increased by up to three-fold for polluted compared to background conditions
82	downwind of Manaus during the wet season.
83	Most biomass burning in Amazonia is related to human activities (Davidson et al., 2012;
84	Artaxo et al., 2013; Aragão et al., 2014; van Marle et al., 2017). Among the main activities are
85	the clearing of land and the burning of waste for several agricultural purposes as well as the
86	burning of wood as fuel (Crutzen and Andreae, 1990; van Marle et al., 2017). Burning events are
87	most frequent in the period of August through October, corresponding to the dry season (Setzer
88	and Pereira, 1991; Artaxo et al., 2013; Martin et al., 2016). These activities can affect the
89	biogeochemical cycles, atmospheric chemistry, precipitation, and climate throughout Amazonia

90 (Crutzen and Andreae, 1990; Andreae et al., 2004; Lin et al., 2006). PM₁ mass concentrations

91 typically increase by an order of magnitude between the wet and dry seasons in the Amazon,

92 which has been commonly attributed to the increased biomass burning emissions (Artaxo et al.,

93 1994; Holben et al., 1996; Martin et al., 2010b; Artaxo et al., 2013, and references therein).

94	Related increases in b_{abs} by one order of magnitude have also been attributed to biomass burning
95	(Rizzo et al., 2011; Artaxo et al., 2013; Rizzo et al., 2013). Although black carbon is usually the
96	main light-absorbing component for atmospheric particles smaller than 1 μ m (PM ₁), absorption
97	by the organic BrC component of PM1 could also be significant (Rizzo et al., 2013; Wang et al.,
98	2016; Saturno et al., 2017). Palm et al. (2018) showed that the formation potential of secondary
99	organic PM1 increased by a factor of 1.7 in the dry season compared to the wet season, although
100	biomass burning gases were not dominant precursors in either season. An understanding of the
101	types and optical properties of organic components that may affect PM ₁ light absorption in the
102	Amazon and elsewhere is still emerging (Laskin et al., 2015).
103	The study herein investigates the contributions of biomass burning, urban emissions, and
104	biogenic emissions to the composition and optical properties of organic PM1 in central Amazonia
105	during the dry season. Positive-matrix factorization (PMF) of organic mass spectra measured by
106	an Aerosol Mass Spectrometer (AMS) was used to identify component classes of the organic
107	PM ₁ . A Fuzzy c-means clustering analysis of pollution indicators was employed to identify
108	different conditions at the measurement site, as influenced by biomass burning and urban
109	emissions. Connections are made between the optical properties of organic PM ₁ , including
110	$b_{\rm abs,BrC}$ and $E_{\rm abs}$, and its component classes. Taken together, these three pieces of analysis allow
111	for insights into the changes in particle concentration, composition, and optical properties
112	associated with the influences of biomass burning and urban pollution downwind of Manaus.
113	2. Methodology
114	2.1 Research sites and measurements
115	The primary site of this study was called "T3", located 70 km to the west of Manaus,

Brazil, in central Amazonia (Martin et al., 2016; inset of <u>Figure 1</u>Figure 1a). The pollution plume

117	primarily passed westerly of Manaus in the dry season and was modeled to intercept the T3 site
118	about 60% of the time (Martin et al., 2017). Analyses of observational datasets have labeled
119	pollution episodes for at least 15 to 30% of the time (Thalman et al., 2017; Cirino et al., 2018).
120	Auxiliary sites "T0a" and "T2" served as references for background and urban-polluted
121	conditions, respectively, in relation to T3. The T0a site was located at the Amazon Tall Tower
122	Observatory (Andreae et al., 2015), about 150 km to the northeast of Manaus, and the air masses
123	were typically upwind of the urban region without the influence of Manaus pollution. The T2 site
124	was located 8 km to the west of Manaus, directly downwind of the city, and air masses were
125	therefore typically heavily polluted at this site. During the dry season, the three sites were also
126	affected by both nearby and long-range transported biomass burning emissions. The study period
127	from August 15 to October 15, 2014, corresponded to the second Intensive Operating Period
128	(IOP2) of the GoAmazon2014/5 experiment (Martin et al., 2016).
129	At the T3 site, mass concentrations of non-refractory PM1 components (organic, sulfate,
130	ammonium, nitrate, and chloride) were measured by a High-Resolution Time-of-Flight Aerosol
131	Mass Spectrometer (AMS; DeCarlo et al., 2006; Sueper et al., 2018). A detailed description of
132	operation was provided in de Sá et al. (2017). In brief, the AMS was deployed inside a
133	temperature-controlled research container, and ambient data were collected every other 4 min.
134	Data analysis was performed using SQUIRREL (1.56D) and PIKA (1.14G) of the AMS software
135	suite (DeCarlo et al., 2006). The mean composition-dependent collection efficiency was 0.51
136	(Section S1; Figure S1) (Middlebrook et al., 2012). Organic and inorganic nitrate concentrations
137	were estimated from the AMS measurements based on the ratio of the signal intensity of NO_2^+ to
138	that of NO ⁺ (Supplementary Material, Section S1, Figure S2) (Fry et al., 2009; Farmer et al.,
139	2010; Fry et al., 2013). Sulfate measured by the AMS includes contributions from organo-

sulfates (Farmer et al., 2010; Glasius et al., 2018). The oxygen-to-carbon (O:C) and hydrogen-tocarbon (H:C) ratios of the organic PM_1 were calculated following the methods of Canagaratna et al. (2015).

143 Several other instruments complemented the AMS measurements. Gas- and particle-144 phase semi-volatile tracers were obtained by a Semi-Volatile Thermal Desorption Aerosol Gas 145 Chromatograph (SV-TAG) (Isaacman-VanWertz et al., 2016; Yee et al., 2018), and VOCs were 146 obtained by a Proton-Transfer-Reaction Time-of-Flight Mass Spectrometer (PTR-ToF-MS) (Liu 147 et al., 2016). In addition, measurements of NO_{ν} , O_3 , particle number, and CO concentrations 148 were employed in the analyses (Martin et al., 2016). Refractory black carbon (rBC) 149 concentrations were measured by a Single Particle Soot Photometer (SP2). Meteorological 150 variables, including temperature, relative humidity, and solar irradiance were also measured. 151 Particle absorption coefficients $b_{abs}(\lambda)$ were obtained by a seven-wavelength aethalometer (370, 152 430, 470, 520, 565, 700, and 880 nm; Magee Scientific, model AE-31) following the methods 153 and corrections of Rizzo et al., 2011. Additional measurements of non-refractory particle 154 composition and concentration from the T0a and T2 sites were made by an Aerosol Chemical 155 Speciation Monitor (ACSM) at each site (Ng et al., 2011; Andreae et al., 2015; Martin et al., 156 2016). 157 Air-mass backtrajectories were estimated using HYSPLIT4 (Draxler and Hess, 1998). 158 Data sets of the S-band radar of the System for Amazon Protection (SIPAM) in Manaus 159 (Machado et al., 2014) provided precipitation data, which allowed to filter out trajectories that 160 intercepted precipitation. The HYSPLIT4 sSimulations started at 100 m above T3 and were

161 calculated <u>up to two days back in time</u> for every 12 min<u>to match with the radar data-up to two</u>

162 days back in time. Input meteorological data to the simulations were obtained on a grid of $0.5^{\circ} \times$

163 0.5°-were obtained from the Global Data Assimilation System (GDAS). Precipitation along the

164 trajectories was based on data sets of the S-band radar of the System for Amazon Protection

165 (SIPAM) in Manaus (Machado et al., 2014). Additional information on the backtrajectory

166 calculations and on the radar were described in de Sá et al. (2018).

167 **2.2 Brown carbon light absorption**

168 The analysis partitioned the total absorption $b_{abs}(\lambda)$ measured by the aethalometer

169 between BrC and BC contributions, as follows:

$$b_{\rm abs} = b_{\rm abs,BrC} + b_{\rm abs,BC} \tag{1}$$

171 The dependence on wavelength was expressed by the absorption Ångström exponent a_{abs} , as 172 follows:

173
$$\dot{a}_{abs}(\lambda_1, \lambda_2) = -\frac{\log_{10}[b_{abs}(\lambda_1)/b_{abs}(\lambda_2)]}{\log_{10}(\lambda_1/\lambda_2)}$$
(2)

174 For the characterization of BrC absorption, the value of at 370 nm was sought. To 175 calculate $b_{abs,BrC}(370)$, an assumption has to be made about the spectral dependency of BC light 176 absorption. In this study, $\dot{a}_{abs,BC}$ was assumed to be wavelength-independent, and $\dot{a}_{abs,BC}$ (700,880) 177 was calculated for each sample based on b_{abs} at the wavelengths 700 and 880 nm (Eq. 22), 178 assuming absorption to be insignificant for BrC and dominated by BC in this spectral range. 179 Calculations of $b_{abs,Brc}(370)$ using alternative treatments to retrieve $a_{abs,Bc}$ were also carried out. 180 These treatments included the assumption that $a_{abs,BC}$ is equal to 1.0 and wavelength-independent 181 (e.g., Yang et al., 2009), or the assumption that $a_{abs,BC}$ has a spectral dependency itself (Wang et 182 al., 2016; Saturno et al., 2018b). The results from these different treatments correlated with one another ($R^2 > 0.9$), and the $b_{abs,BrC}$ estimate used in this study and detailed in the steps below 183 184 represented a lower bound among the differing assumptions (Section S4).

185	For each point in time, $b_{abs,BrC}(370)$ was estimated by the following steps: (1) $b_{abs,BC}(700)$
186	= $b_{abs}(700)$ and $b_{abs,BC}(880) = b_{abs}(880)$ assuming that $b_{abs,BrC} = 0$ at red wavelengths (e.g.,
187	Andreae and Gelencsér, 2006; Wang et al., 2016), (2) $\mathring{a}_{abs,BC}(700,880)$ was calculated from
188	Equation 22 using $b_{abs,BC}(700)$ and $b_{abs,BC}(880)$, (3) $b_{abs,BC}(370)$ was calculated from Equation 22.
189	using $b_{abs,BC}(880)$ and $\mathring{a}_{abs,BC}(370,880) = \mathring{a}_{abs,BC}(700,880)$ under the assumption that $\mathring{a}_{abs,BC}$ was
190	independent of wavelength (e.g., Andreae and Gelencsér, 2006; Moosmüller et al., 2009), and
191	finally (4) $b_{abs,BrC}(370)$ was obtained by Equation 14 using $b_{abs,BC}(370)$ and $b_{abs}(370)$. The value
192	of $b_{abs,BrC}$ at 430 nm was also obtained by the same process. Based on $b_{abs,BrC}$ (370) and
193	$b_{abs,BC}(430)$, $a_{abs}(370,430)$ was estimated. Hereafter, b_{abs} and $b_{abs,BrC}$ refer to 370 nm, and a_{abs}
l 194	refers to the range of 370 to 430 nm.

195 The aethalometer, like other filter-based measurement schemes (e.g., PSAP, TAP, or 196 MAAP), is prone to artifacts. These artifacts may originate from light scattering by the filter 197 media itself, the influence of the filter media on the microphysical properties of the collected 198 particle (e.g., potential change in hygroscopic particle size), and the impact of the multiple 199 scattered photons on the measured optical extinction (e.g., enhanced particle absorption as 200 discussed by Nakayama et al., 2010). While several correction schemes have been developed to 201 address these artifacts, the individual schemes do not approach these problems in the same way, 202 which may lead to different results among them (Weingartner et al., 2003; Schmid et al., 2006; 203 Collaud Coen et al., 2010; Rizzo et al., 2011; Ammerlaan et al., 2017). For the present analysis, 204 the correction scheme used was described by Rizzo et al., 2011. The potential impact of the 205 different correction schemes on the analysis interpretation was not examined.

206 **3. Results and discussion**

207 3.1 Contributions of biomass burning and urban emissions to fine-mode PM

208 3.1.1 Comparison of PM concentration and composition across sites

209 A comparison between the T3 site and the upwind sites can provide a first-order estimate 210 of the effects of Manaus urban pollution on PM₁ concentration and composition (de Sá et al., 211 2018). During the dry season of 2014, organic compounds dominated the composition at T3, 212 contributing $83 \pm 6\%$ (mean \pm one standard deviation) of the non-refractory PM₁ (NR-PM₁), 213 followed by sulfate $(11 \pm 5\%)$ (Figure 1a). Mean NR-PM₁ mass concentrations and relative 214 compositions at T3 and at T0a and T2 are represented in Figure 1b for comparison. Organic 215 material consistently constituted 80% to 85% of NR-PM1 across all three sites. By comparison, 216 the contribution of organic material to NR-PM₁ typically ranged from 70 to 80% during the wet

217 season (de Sá et al., 2018).

218 The NR-PM₁ mass concentrations across the three sites differed slightly (Figure 1b, top panel). The mean concentration at the T0a site upwind of Manaus was 10.5 µg m⁻³. The mean 219 220 concentrations at the T2 site just downwind of Manaus and at the T3 site further downwind were 12.5 µg m⁻³ and 12.2 µg m⁻³, respectively, representing an increase of about 20% relative to the 221 222 upwind site. By comparison, increases of 200 to 300% relative to the upwind site were observed 223 during the wet season (de Sá et al., 2018). In absolute mass concentration, however, the difference between upwind and downwind sites of 1 to $2 \mu g m^{-3}$ was similar between seasons, 224 225 suggesting contributions from urban pollution in the same order of magnitude in both seasons. 226 The larger percent increase for the wet season is explained by background concentrations of 1 µg m^{-3} which are an order of magnitude lower compared to the dry season. 227

228 The time series of organic and sulfate mass concentrations across the three sites were 229 wellhighly correlated across the two months when considering the timescale of a day (Figure 2a; 230 0.55 < R < 0.85). Similar behavior was observed for sulfate mass concentrations (Figure 2b; 0.86) 231 < R < 0.93). The T0a and T3 sites were separated by 215 km. This result shows that sources and 232 processes of PM_1 production at a regional scale were important during the dry season. The 233 datafigure also shows that for timescales of an hour less than a day the sites were less correlated 234 (0.70 < R < 0.80 for sulfate, and 0.38 < R < 0.75 for organic mass concentrations). The large 235 spikes in organic mass concentrations observed at T3 but generally smaller at T2 and absent at 236 T0a could be explained by episodic fires along the Solimões River, especially during nighttime 237 (Figure 3).

238 In addition to the widespread and frequent occurrence of fires in the Amazon basin 239 during the dry season (Figure 3), meteorological conditions may also favor a regional reach of 240 events (Section S3). For example, high organic concentrations were observed during the period 241 of August 17 to 23. During that week, widespread biomass burning activity in the basin (beyond 242 the scale of Figure 3) in conjunction with a lack of precipitation events, clear skies, and 243 temperatures of 35 °C during daytime allowed for intense photochemical activity and buildup of 244 PM₁. There appeared to be an offset in PM₁ concentrations by 1 day between T0a and T3 during 245 that time, which would be consistent with the transport across 215 km from T0a to T3 for typical easterlies averaging 3 m s⁻¹ over the course of a day. In short, a combination of regional-scale 246 247 biomass burning activity and meteorological conditions greatly influenced the mass 248 concentration of PM₁ at the three sites.

The diel variability of organic and sulfate mass concentrations for the three sites is shown in Figure 4. Organic mass concentrations were slightly higher at the T2 and T3 sites compared to

the T0a site, as expected. The variability was larger at the T2 and T3 sites, especially so at night.
These two sites are closer to populated areas along the path of the Solimões River and thus are
also closer to local biomass burning sources. Activities include burning of crops and trash in
houses and farms as well burning of wood in brick kilns (Martin et al., 2016; Cirino et al., 2018).
Stagnant air and a shallow boundary layer during the night might explain how variable biomass
burning emissions lead to larger organic mass concentrations and variability at night compared to
the day.

258 The influence of anthropogenic emissions on daytime chemistry is apparent in the diel 259 trends of the sulfate mass concentrations. Sulfate concentrations had low variability throughout 260 the day at T0a, indicating a prevalence of diffuse regional sources that had variations dampened 261 after many hours or days of transport. Possible sources include the atmospheric oxidation of 262 biogenic emissions (DMS, H₂S) from the upwind forest and ocean, as well as long-range 263 transport of fossil fuel combustion emissions from cities in northeastern Brazil and of biomass 264 burning and volcanic emissions from Africa (Andreae et al., 1990; Martin et al., 2010a; Saturno 265 et al., 2018a.) Biomass burning can be an important source of sulfate and its precursors (Andreae 266 and Merlet, 2001; Fiedler et al., 2011). For the T2 and T3 sites, sulfate concentrations increased 267 in the morning hours and peaked in the afternoon. The Manaus sulfate source consists of the 268 burning of heavy fuel oil for electricity production, refinery operations, and more diffuse traffic 269 sources, and these emissions reach the T3 site in the afternoon, when OH levels are also the 270 highest (de Sá et al., 2017). In addition, biomass burning emissions around T2 and T3 might also 271 have contributed to the increase in sulfate concentrations during the afternoons.

272 **3.1.2** Comparison of PM concentration and composition across clusters for the T3 site

273 A second approach to investigate the changes in concentrations and compositions of the 274 PM with pollution influences employed a combination of positive-matrix factorization (PMF) 275 and Fuzzy c-means (FCM) clustering. The PMF analysis was applied to the organic mass spectra 276 to separate the organic PM_1 into representative component classes (section 3.1.2.1). The FCM 277 clustering algorithm was applied to auxiliary measurements to identify times of urban and 278 biomass burning influences at the T3 site (section 3.1.2.2). The results of the FCM analysis were 279 crossed with the findings of the PMF analysis for further insights into pollution-related 280 variability of PM concentration and composition (section 3.1.2.3).

281 **3.1.2.1** Classification of organic PM by positive-matrix factorization

282 The organic mass spectra recorded by the AMS at the T3 site were analyzed by PMF 283 (Ulbrich et al., 2009). Details and diagnostics of the PMF analysis are presented in the 284 Supplementary Material (Section S1). Following the nomenclature used in de Sá et al. (2018), 285 "mass spectrum" and "mass concentration" refer to the direct AMS measurements, while "factor 286 profile" and "factor loading" are their counterpart mathematical products obtained from the 287 PMF analysis. A six-factor solution was obtained, and the factor profiles, diel trends of the factor 288 loadings, and the time series of the factor loadings and other related measurements are plotted in 289 Figure 5. The correlations of factor loadings with co-located measurements of gas- and particle-290 phase species are presented in Figure 6.

The factors were interpreted considering the mass spectral characteristics of the factor profiles and the correlations between factor loading and mass concentrations of co-located measurements. Three resolved factors interpreted as secondary production and processing closely matched the counterpart profiles of the wet season ($R \ge 0.99$; Table 1) (de Sá et al.,

295 2018). These three factors consisted of a more-oxidized oxygenated factor ("MO-OOA"), a less-296 oxidized oxygenated factor ("LO-OOA"), and an isoprene epoxydiols-derived factor ("IEPOX-297 SOA"). Temporal correlations with external tracers and oxidation characteristics were also 298 similar to those of the wet season, corresponding to IOP1 (Figure 6; Table 1; de Sá et al., 2018). 299 Although a hydrocarbon-like factor ("HOA") was analogous to its counterpart in IOP1 (R =300 0.94), it also had characteristics of an IOP1 anthropogenic-dominated factor ("ADOA") tied to 301 other urban sources including cooking. The HOA factor of IOP2 therefore represented a mix of 302 the HOA and ADOA factors of IOP1, which could not be separated by PMF in IOP2 due to their 303 lower relative contributions. The interpretation of the HOA, IEPOX-SOA, LO-OOA, and MO-304 OOA factors follows that of IOP1, as presented in de Sá et al. (2018). The following discussion 305 focuses on the two biomass burning factors of IOP2.

306 A less-oxidized factor ("LO-BBOA") and a more-oxidized factor ("MO-BBOA") were 307 resolved for IOP2. For IOP1, a single "BBOA" factor was resolved, and it accounted for 9% of 308 the organic PM_1 mass concentration. For IOP2, there were enough differences in mass spectral 309 features and temporal contributions, as well as larger overall contributions of biomass burning, 310 that the PMF analysis identified two different factors. The MO-BBOA and LO-BBOA factors 311 respectively accounted for 18% and 12% of the mean organic PM₁ mass concentration. 312 Therefore, the relative contribution of biomass burning to organic PM_1 during the dry season was 313 at least a factor of three higher compared to the wet season (a more detailed discussion is 314 presented at the end of this section).

The LO-BBOA and MO-BBOA factor profiles had a distinct peak at nominal m/z 60 (C₂H₄O₂⁺) (Figure 5a). The fractional intensity f_{60} at m/z 60 was larger for LO-BBOA (0.051) than for MO-BBOA (0.013). A peak at m/z 73 (C₃H₅O₂⁺) was also present in both profiles,

318	although its intensity was three to four times smaller than that at m/z 60. The peaks at m/z 60 and
319	m/z 73 are attributed to fragments of levoglucosan and other anhydrous sugars that are produced
320	by the pyrolysis of biomass (Schneider et al., 2006; Cubison et al., 2011). Accordingly, the
321	loadings of both factors correlated with the concentrations of several biomass-burning tracers in
322	the particle phase, including levoglucosan, vanillin, 4-nitrocatechol, syringol, mannosan,
323	syringaldehyde, sinapaldehyde, and long-chain alkanoic acids (C20, C22, C24) and of tracers in the
324	gas phase (acetonitrile) (Figure 6). The loadings also correlated with less-specific tracers,
325	including CO concentration and particle number concentration. The Pearson-R correlations were
326	typically higher for the LO-BBOA factor than for the MO-BBOA factor.
327	The LO-BBOA profile had the greatest ratio of signal intensity of the $C_2H_3O^+$ ion (<i>m</i> / <i>z</i>
328	43) to that of the CO_2^+ ion (<i>m</i> / <i>z</i> 44) compared to all other factors (Figure 5a). In comparison, the
329	MO-BBOA profile had a high intensity for the CO_2^+ ion and a low intensity for the $\text{C}_2\text{H}_3\text{O}^+$ ion.
330	The MO-BBOA and LO-BBOA factors had O:C ratios of 0.70 ± 0.07 and 0.53 ± 0.04 ,
331	respectively. In addition, the LO-BBOA factor loading had higher correlation with the estimated
332	inorganic nitrate concentrations than with the total nitrate concentrations whereas the MO-
333	BBOA factor did not (Figure 6; Supplementary Material, Section S1 describes the nitrate
334	estimates). Taken together, these results point to a less-oxidized, higher-volatility character of
335	the LO-BBOA factor and a more-oxidized, lower-volatility character of the MO-BBOA factor,
336	both with biomass-burning characteristics (Jimenez et al., 2009; Cubison et al., 2011; Gilardoni
337	et al., 2016; Zhou et al., 2017).
338	The extent of the biomass burning influence and atmospheric oxidation on the
339	composition of organic PM ₁ can be visualized in a scatter plot of f_{44} and f_{60} (Figure 7a) (Cubison

340 et al., 2011). A background f_{60} value of $0.3\% \pm 0.06\%$ (vertical black dashed line) indicates a

341 threshold for negligible or completely oxidized biomass-burning PM₁. Points in the lower right 342 of the f_{44} - f_{60} representation usually characterize PM₁ tied to recent biomass burning emissions. 343 For IOP1 (blue markers), all points lie on or close to the background value suggested by Cubison 344 et al. (2011), indicating the absence of a strong influence from biomass burning. During the wet 345 season, biomass burning was limited to local sources or to sources far enough away such as 346 Africa that the PM₁ was extensively oxidized by arrival in central Amazonia (de Sá et al., 2018). 347 For IOP2 (red markers), the f_{60} values are greater for most observations, showing that for most 348 times T3 was influenced to some extent by biomass burning (see Section 3.1.2.3). This finding is 349 in line with the widespread occurrence of fires during the dry season (Figure 3). As suggested by 350 the robust trend in Figure 7a, the f_{44} value increases and the f_{60} value decreases from the bottom 351 right to the upper left as the organic PM₁ emitted by biomass burning is oxidized in the 352 atmosphere. The f_{60} and f_{44} values of the LO-BBOA and MO-BBOA profiles, plotted as 353 diamonds, lie on the linear trend.

354 The LO-BBOA factor of high f_{60}/f_{44} and low O:C thus appears associated with primary 355 PM₁ emitted by biomass burning. The MO-BBOA factor, characterized by low f_{60}/f_{44} and high 356 O:C, may represent a combination of primary PM₁ of higher oxygen content as well as secondary 357 PM₁ tied to biomass burning in its early stages of atmospheric processing (Cubison et al., 2011; 358 Gilardoni et al., 2016). These secondary pathways could include (i) the heterogeneous oxidation 359 of primary PM₁, such as that represented by the LO-BBOA factor, and (ii) the oxidation of gas-360 phase biomass-burning emissions or of species evaporated from primary PM₁, followed by the 361 condensation of the gas-phase products onto the PM₁.

The LO-BBOA and MO-BBOA factor loadings had greater magnitude and variability at night compared to during day (Figure 5b). Their summed loading, represented as "BBOA_T",

364 accounted for 40% and 13% of the organic PM₁ during night and day, respectively. Overall, they 365 accounted for 30% of the organic PM₁. This result reflects the importance of fire activity during 366 all times of day and during the entirety of IOP2 (Figure 3). The surface concentrations were 367 lower during the day because biomass burning emissions are diluted with the development of the 368 planetary boundary layer (PBL) and with the increased wind speeds as compared to the stagnant 369 air and shallower PBL at night. The occurrence of significant dilution indicates that the emission 370 sources were at least in part within a day of transport, meaning a distance on the order of a few 371 hundred kilometers. The fractional contribution of the MO-BBOA factor to $BBOA_T$ shifted from 372 0.7 to 0.5 from day to nigh, while that of LO-BBOA correspondingly shifted from 0.3 to 0.5 373 (Figure 7b). This result is consistent with an additional secondary contribution to the MO-BBOA 374 loading during daytime, including from LO-BBOA oxidation and possibly tied to photochemical 375 processing, on top of a primary source from biomass burning. 376 Although the footprint of biomass burning is geographically more widespread throughout 377 the basin compared to the urban footprint of nearby Manaus, fire incidence and large-scale 378 emissions have historically concentrated in a region known as the arc of deforestation along the 379 southern rim of the forest (Fuzzi et al., 2007; Artaxo et al., 2013). Several campaigns have 380 focused on the effects of biomass burning during the dry season at locations that are highly 381 affected by fires, usually in the states of Rondônia or Mato Grosso, within the arc of 382 deforestation (SCAR-B, Kaufman et al., 1998; LBA-SMOCC, Fuzzi et al., 2007; LBA-383 EUSTACH, Andreae et al., 2002; TROFEE, Yokelson et al., 2007; SAMBBA, Morgan et al., 384 2013). At a ground site in Porto Velho, Rondônia, a PMF analysis of ACSM data showed that

385 70% of the organic PM₁ could be attributed to biomass burning (Brito et al., 2014). Compared to

386 the present study, in which at least 30% of the organic PM_1 can be directly attributed to biomass

387 burning, the contributions of fires to PM₁ in the arc of deforestation region are considerably388 larger.

389 The combined contribution of 30% by MO-BBOA and LO-BBOA at T3 represents a 390 lower bound of biomass burning influence because more-oxidized material from biomass 391 burning could be accounted for by the MO-OOA factor. In the limiting assumption that all MO-392 OOA loadings originated from BBOA loadings, an upper limit of 50% can be established for the 393 mean contribution of biomass burning to organic PM₁ concentrations at T3. Considering that all 394 organic PM1 components have been observed to age into MO-OOA at similar rates (Jimenez et 395 al., 2009), a more likely estimate of 38% can be derived by assuming that all factors contribute to 396 MO-OOA proportionally to their ambient concentrations.

397 An important implication of these results, together with those of the wet season, is that 398 although PM_1 concentrations increase on average by a factor of 8.5 between seasons, not all of 399 the increase is due to biomass burning, which has been a common assumption in previous studies 400 (Artaxo et al., 1994; Holben et al., 1996; Echalar et al., 1998; Maenhaut et al., 1999; Andreae et 401 al., 2002; Artaxo et al., 2002; Mace et al., 2003; Martin et al., 2010b; Artaxo et al., 2013; Rizzo 402 et al., 2013; Brito et al., 2014; Pöhlker et al., 2016). In absolute mass concentrations, the contribution from biomass burning increased from 0.12 μ g m⁻³ in the wet season to 3.4 μ g m⁻³ in 403 404 the dry season, which represents a 30-fold increase. This result corresponds to a change in 405 percentage contribution to organic PM_1 from 9% to 30% (not counting with the mass presumably 406 present in MO-OOA). Nevertheless, the contribution from secondary biogenic sources (and their 407 anthropogenically affected processes), as represented by the LO-OOA and IEPOX-SOA factors, also increased by around 8-fold from 0.6 µg m⁻³ to 4.8 µg m⁻³. In absolute terms, this mass 408 increase (of 4.2 μ g m⁻³) is comparable to the one associated with biomass burning (3.3 μ g m⁻³). 409

410	Because the 8-fold mass increase of LO-OOA and IEPOX-SOA was similar to the 8.5-fold
411	increase in total organic PM ₁ , these factors show a similar mass percentage contribution of 42%
412	to organic PM_1 for both seasons. The MO-OOA factor loadings increased by 6-fold from 0.4 μ g
413	m ⁻³ to 2.3 μ g m ⁻³ . Because this relative increase was smaller than that of the total organic PM ₁ ,
414	the MO-OOA factor had a decrease from 30% to 20% of contribution to organic PM_1 . The
415	contribution from urban sources, as represented by the HOA and ADOA factors, increased by
416	three-fold between seasons, from 0.24 μg m^-3 to 0.76 μg m^-3, representing a decrease in mass
417	percentage contribution from 18% to 7%.
418	Therefore, reasons other than increased biomass burning in the dry season must have
419	played a role in increasing organic PM1 concentrations. Importantly, the mass concentrations of
420	sulfate and ammonium also increased by six-fold between seasons (Figure S10), indicating that
421	atmospheric physical processes governing particle mass concentrations possibly played an
422	important role. In this context, reduced wet deposition due to reduced convection in the dry
423	season may be one important another appreciable contributor to the organic PM1 increases
424	(Machado et al., 2004; Nunes et al., 2016 Chakraborty et al., 2018). One Another aspect is that
425	BVOC emissions are typically higher in the dry season (Yáñez-Serrano et al., 2015; Alves et al.,
426	2016), which might partly explain the increases in LO-OOA, IEPOX-SOA, and MO-OOA
427	factors. In addition, the directly-measured biogenic (total) secondary organic PM1 formation
428	potential of ambient air increased by a factor of 2.4 (1.7) between seasons (Palm et al., 2018).
429	Increased organic mass available for partitioning may account for another factor of 2 (Palm et
430	al., 2018). As a consequence of increased PM1 mass concentrations, the lifetime of semi-volatile
431	gases may also be increased, since lifetime against dry deposition is much larger for particles
432	than for gases (Knote et al., 2015). Increased oxidant levels during the dry season could also be a

433 contributing factor (Rummel et al., 2007; Artaxo et al., 2013; Andreae et al., 2015; Yáñez-

434 Serrano et al., 2015; Fuentes et al., 2016). Importantly, the mass concentrations of sulfate and

435 ammonium also increased by six-fold between seasons (Figure S10), indicating that atmospheric

436 physical processes governing particle mass concentrations possibly played an important role. In

437 this context, reduced wet deposition due to reduced convection in the dry season may be another

438 appreciable contributor to the organic PM₁-increases (Machado et al., 2004; Nunes et al., 2016)
439 Chakraborty et al., 2018).

440 **3.1.2.2** Cluster Analysis

441 The time series of the afternoon concentrations of particle number, NO_{ν} , ozone, rBC, 442 carbon monoxide, and sulfate were analyzed by Fuzzy c-means clustering at the time resolution 443 of the AMS measurements. The algorithm attributed degrees of cluster membership to each data 444 point based on similarity in the sets of input concentrations (Section S2). The scope was 445 restricted to data sets for which ten-hour air mass back trajectories did not intersect precipitation. 446 The scope also excluded data sets tied to the lowest 10% of solar irradiance averaged over the 447 previous 4 h at T3 (Supplementary Material, Section S2). This approach aimed to capture fair-448 weather conditions and thereby minimize the role of otherwise confounding processes that 449 influence mass concentrations, such as boundary layer dynamics and wet deposition. 450 Three clusters, labeled "baseline," "event," and "urban," were identified based on a 451 combination of minimization of the FCM objective function and an assessment of 452 meaningfulness of the resolved set of clusters. Illustrative examples of the obtained degrees of 453 membership (0 to 1) are plotted in Figure 8a for several time windows. The concentrations of the 454 input and additional species are plotted in Figures 8b and 8c. The PMF results of section 3.1.2.1

455 are plotted for comparison in Figure 8d. Air-mass backtrajectories are plotted in Figure 9 for456 time windows predominantly associated with only one cluster.

457 All three clusters reflected, albeit to different degrees, some influence of biomass 458 burning. For the wet season, de Sá et al. (2018) identified clusters representing background 459 conditions, which were characterized by low concentrations of particle number, NO_y , and O_3 . For 460 the dry season, no similar cluster was identified. As shown in Figure 3, there were fires in the 461 region at all times (cf. Martin et al., 2017).

The baseline cluster had the lowest concentrations of pollutant indicators, representing influences of far-field biomass burning on top of natural (i.e., biogenic) emissions and atmospheric processing. The cluster centroid corresponded to 1.3 ppb NO_y, 30 ppb ozone, and 2000 particles cm⁻³ (Table S1). Results for August 27, August 28, and September 9 illustrate these lower concentrations compared to the other days (Figure 8). The backtrajectories associated with the baseline cluster did not intersect the urban area of Manaus, especially the southern region of presumed higher emissions (Figure 9a; de Sá et al., 2018).

469 The event cluster referred to conditions of increased influence from biomass burning and 470 long-range transport of volcanic emissions from Africa. The cluster corresponded to a 10-day 471 period from Sep 22 to Oct 1 in which biomass burning intensified in the surroundings of T3 as 472 well as more broadly in the Amazon basin (Figures 3f and 3g). Coincidentally, plumes carrying 473 emissions from the Nyamuragira-Nyiragongo volcanoes in Africa were also observed to reach 474 central Amazonia during that time period, as demonstrated by Saturno et al. (2018a). This 475 cluster was characterized by higher concentrations of all species in relation to the baseline cluster (Table S1). In particular, the sulfate concentrations (2.3 μ g m⁻³ at the centroid) were the highest 476 477 among the three clusters. Results for September 23, September 27, and September 28 illustrate

these findings for T3, with sulfate concentrations reaching 4 μ g m⁻³ (Figure 8). This trend in sulfate concentrations was consistent across all three sites (Figure 2). The backtrajectories associated with the event cluster were variable, passing to the north, directly over, and to the south of Manaus, although always with an east component (Figure 9b). The long-range transport and increased regional fire count during the event period thus appeared more important in defining this cluster than did the directions of the backtrajectories in a smaller scale, making Manaus emissions of secondary importance.

485 The urban cluster had the highest centroid concentrations of NO_{ν} (2.6 ppb), ozone (56.4 ppb), and particle number (4600 cm⁻³) among the three clusters (Table S1). It represented 486 487 conditions for which both biomass burning and urban emissions were relevant, and these 488 emissions may have interacted before reaching the T3 site. The results for August 24, September 489 11, September 14, and October 8 illustrate the high pollutant concentrations (Figure 8). The 490 backtrajectories associated with the urban cluster consistently passed over Manaus and, more 491 specifically, over the southern region where human activities were more concentrated (Figure 492 9c).

493 **3.1.2.3** Comparison of PM₁ composition among clusters

494 Species mass concentrations and PMF factor loadings associated with the cluster 495 centroids were determined (Section S2). The resulting organic, sulfate, ammonium, nitrate, and 496 chloride mass concentrations associated with each cluster are represented in Figure 10a. The 497 PMF factor loadings associated with each cluster are likewise represented in Figure 10b. 498 The summed NR-PM₁ mass concentrations for the centroids of the event and urban 499 clusters were both 12.3 μ g m⁻³. This concentration was 33% higher than that representing the 496 baseline cluster (9.2 μ g m⁻³). This result thus agrees with that based on direct comparison of PM₁

mass concentrations between the T3 and the T0a sites (Section 3.1.1). Therefore, the overall effect of Manaus pollution was to add 1 to 3 μ g m⁻³ on top of the upwind concentrations. Increases in the organic mass concentration dominated the overall increase in PM₁ mass concentration because organic species dominated the composition for all three clusters. The increases in organic mass concentration for the event and urban clusters relative to the baseline cluster were 26% and 33%, respectively (Figure 10a).

507 Sulfate concentrations also increased relative to the baseline cluster, corresponding to 508 65% for the event cluster and 31% for the urban cluster. This result indicates that strong biomass 509 burning emissions reaching areas downwind of Manaus as well as long-range transport of 510 volcanic emissions from as far away as Africa may increase sulfate concentrations in those areas 511 beyond the sulfate values driven by the anthropogenic activities in the city. In other words, 512 there were several other in-basin as well as out-of-basin sources of sulfate besides Manaus that 513 could sustain relatively high sulfate concentrations (Chen et al., 2009; de Sá et al., 2017; Saturno 514 et al., 2018a).

515 The relationship between clusters and PMF factors is represented in Figure 10b. All three 516 clusters were associated with an organic PM₁ composition dominated by secondary production. 517 The baseline cluster was largely dominated by the LO-OOA factor (40%). By comparison, the 518 event cluster had significant increases in the LO-BBOA, MO-BBOA, and IEPOX-SOA factor 519 loadings. The increase in LO-BBOA and MO-BBOA loadings (40%) can be associated with the 520 increased contributions of primary and secondary particle components from biomass burning, respectively. The LO-BBOA factor had the highest loading (0.5 μ g m⁻³) for the event cluster, 521 522 consistent with the high incidence of fires during the period represented by this cluster. The 523 increase of 65% in IEPOX-SOA loading can be explained by the disproportionally higher

524 increase of 65% in the sulfate concentration (which favors higher IEPOX-SOA loadings),

525 accompanied by the relatively moderate increase of 34% in NO_y concentration, (which

526 suppresses IEPOX-SOA loadings), leading to a net increase in IEPOX-SOA loadings (Table S1;

527 de Sá et al., 2017).

528 The composition of the organic PM_1 associated with the urban cluster differed from that 529 of the two other clusters, as indicated by the factor contributions (Figure 10). Compared to the 530 baseline cluster, the loadings of all factors except IEPOX-SOA increased. An increase in HOA 531 loading is consistent with emissions in the city, including from vehicles and power plants. An 532 increase in the loadings associated with secondary processes, as represented by the MO-OOA, 533 LO-OOA, and MO-BBOA factors, can be explained by the accelerated oxidation cycle in the 534 plume. In brief, an increase in the concentrations of both precursors and oxidants provided by 535 urban emissions accelerates the production of secondary PM_1 and thereby increases the PM_1 536 concentrations downwind of the city (Martin et al., 2017; de Sá et al., 2018).

537 The similarity in IEPOX-SOA factor loading for the baseline and the urban clusters may 538 be explained by the following aspects. First, the lifetime of IEPOX-derived PM in the boundary 539 layer is thought to be around 2 weeks (Hu et al., 2016). Therefore, a substantial fraction of this 540 component observed at T3 will be formed upwind of the Manaus plume. Second, favored 541 conditions for IEPOX production and uptake are low NO concentrations (i.e., HO₂-dominant 542 pathway for the ISOPOO radical) and high sulfate concentrations (de Sá et al., 2017). Sulfate 543 concentrations increased by 31%, and NO_{ν} concentrations, used as an indicator for exposure of 544 the airmass to NO concentrations, increased by 100% for the urban compared to the baseline 545 cluster. These two changes work against one another with respect to IEPOX production and 546 uptake. For the wet season, de Sá et al. (2017) reported that the IEPOX-SOA factor loading was
547 more sensitive to changes in NO_y concentration for 1 ppb and less. By comparison, NO_y548 concentrations in the dry season were consistently greater than this value. Due to this lower549 sensitivity, large increases in NO_y may not be tied to large decreases in IEPOX-SOA factor550 loading in the dry season. In sum, the opposite roles of sulfate and NO_y concentrations can551 explain the net zero change in IEPOX-SOA factor loadings between baseline and urban clusters.552 Because all of the loadings for other factors increased, the fractional loading of IEPOX-SOA553 decreased from 26% to 15%.

554 **3.2** Contributions of biomass burning and urban emissions to brown carbon

555

3.2.1 Brown carbon light absorption

556 The diel trends of b_{abs} , $b_{abs,BrC}$, $b_{abs,BrC}/b_{abs}$, and a_{abs} are shown in Figure 11. Both b_{abs} and 557 $b_{\rm abs,BrC}$ were larger and had greater variability at night compared to day. The variability of the 558 fractional contribution of BrC to the total absorption, represented by $b_{abs,BrC}/b_{abs}$, was smaller 559 than the variability of its components b_{abs} and $b_{abs,BrC}$ (i.e., Figure 11c compared to Figures 11a-560 b). The absorptive contributions of BC and BrC thus co-varied to some extent, suggesting a 561 partial overlap in sources, which is consistent with previous studies (Collier et al., 2016; Jen et 562 al., 2018). Furthermore, the fractional contribution $b_{abs,BrC}/b_{abs}$ increased from 0.2 in the day to 563 0.4 at night. The absorption Angström exponent åabs followed a similar diel trend, on average 564 ranging from 2 during the day to 3 during the night (Figure 11d). Compared to the diel trends of 565 the six PMF factor loadings, the diel trends of the absorption properties were most similar to 566 those of the MO-BBOA, LO-BBOA, and HOA factors (Figure 5b). 567 Figure 12 illustrates connections between $b_{abs,BrC}$ and the organic PM₁ chemical

568 composition. Brown-carbon light absorption decreases for increases in the O:C ratio (Figure

569 12a). Conversely, light absorption increases for decreases in the concentration of nitrogen-

containing species, as represented by the $C_xH_yO_zN_p^+$ family (Figure 12b). In addition, light 570 571 absorption increases as the fractional contribution of the $C_x H_v O_z N_p^+$ family to organic PM₁ 572 increases and that of the $C_x H_v O_z^+$ family decreases (Figure S14). The diel trends of Figure 11 and 573 the O:C ratios of Figure 12a support an association of brown-carbon light absorption with HOA 574 and LO-BBOA factor loadings. These factors had the lowest O:C values (Table 1), and they are 575 associated with recent urban and biomass burning emissions, which are typically important 576 sources of brown carbon (Laskin et al., 2015, and references therein). 577 The decrease in $b_{\rm abs,BrC}$ as O:C increases suggests that the atmospheric processing of 578 organic material bleaches the BrC components under the conditions of central Amazonia. This 579 behavior has been observed in several laboratory studies: BrC species and thus their optical 580 properties can be modified through atmospheric processing, which may involve reactions at the 581 gas-particle interface, reactions in the aqueous phase of particle and cloud droplets, and 582 photolysis driven by sunlight (Laskin et al., 2015; Zhao et al., 2015; Sumlin et al., 2017;Lee et 583 al., 2014; Romonosky et al., 2015). In addition, Saleh et al. (2014) provided evidence that both 584 primary and secondary material from biomass burning may absorb light, and that the secondary 585 component may be less absorptive than the primary component in the visible spectral range. Lin 586 et al. (2016) found that the absorbance at 300 nm by biomass burning particles decayed with a 587 half-life of approximately 16 h against photolysis under typical atmospheric conditions. Forrister 588 et al. (2015) followed plumes from wildfires onboard an aircraft during the 2013 NASA 589 SEAC4RS mission over the continental USA and estimated a half-life of 9 to 15 h for the decay 590 of BrC light absorption in the plumes. 591 An important contribution of nitrogen-containing organic molecules to $b_{abs,BrC}$ is 592 suggested by the relationship in Figure 12b. The percent contribution of the $C_x H_y O_z N_p^+$ family to

593 each PMF factor profile is listed in Table 22 and is highest for the HOA and LO-BBOA factors. 594 The correlations of factor loadings with the $C_x H_v O_z N_p^+$ mass concentrations as well as with the 595 $b_{\rm abs,BrC}$ values are highest for these two factors (R > 0.8 and R > 0.6, respectively) (Table 22). 596 The correlations of the MO-BBOA factor loading with these two parameters are lower but still 597 significant. By comparison, the corresponding correlations for the IEPOX-SOA, LO-OOA, and 598 MO-OOA factor loadings are all lower than 0.5. These results further support that the HOA and 599 LO-BBOA factors to a larger extent and the MO-BBOA factor to a lesser extent were tightly 600 associated with nitrogen-containing, light-absorbing organic molecules. 601 In contrast to the $C_x H_v O_z N_p^+$ family, the correlations between PMF factor loadings and 602 mass concentrations of organic nitrates are low (R < 0.4, Table 22; Figure S12). For the HOA, 603 LO-OOA, and MO-OOA factors associated with BrC light absorption, the correlations are small 604 (R < 0.25). The implication could be that the $C_x H_v O_z N_p^+$ family is closely tied to PM₁ 605 constituted by reduced nitrogen compounds and nitrogen-aromatic compounds. By comparison, 606 organic nitrates are more strongly tied to photochemical production of secondary PM₁ and 607 represent more oxidized forms of nitrogen, including in aliphatic molecules. 608 Several studies have suggested that nitrogen-containing organic molecules are important 609 absorbers in organic PM (Sun et al., 2007; Lin et al., 2016). Claeys et al. (2012) characterized 610 humic-like substances (HULIS) present in PM collected during the biomass burning season in 611 Amazonia and identified nitro-aromatic catechols and aromatic carboxylic acids among the main 612 constituents. Nitrophenol derivatives have been identified as major BrC components in several 613 other urban and rural locations worldwide (Kitanovski et al., 2012; Desyaterik et al., 2013; Kahnt 614 et al., 2013; Mohr et al., 2013). Importantly, Lin et al., 2016 further verified that compounds that 615 are usually interpreted as secondary, such as nitro-phenols and derivatives, can be produced in

616 the heat-laden, VOC-rich, high-NOx conditions of the biomass burning process, being 617 subsequently emitted as primary material. Furthermore, Yee et al. (2013) observed the quick 618 conversion of guaiacol and syringol to nitro-guaiacol and nitro-syringol, respectively, in the 619 presence of HONO even without heat or photo-oxidation. It is possible that BrC from other 620 combustion sources could have similar characteristics based on this reasoning, helping to explain 621 the association found in this study between BrC absorption and the LO-BBOA and HOA factors. 622 Regarding the further atmospheric processing of these nitrogen-containing organic compounds, 623 laboratory studies have shown that hydroxy radical oxidation of nitro-aromatic species in 624 aqueous solutions leads to fragmentation into smaller organic acids (e.g., oxalic, glycolic, 625 malonic, and isocyanic) or, in general, reduce the size of the conjugated molecular systems, 626 leading to a decrease in light absorption at visible wavelengths (Sumlin et al., 2017; Hems and 627 Abbatt, 2018). These findings may help to explain the bleaching of BrC as the material becomes 628 more oxidized. In the context of the PMF factors, these smaller later-generation products may 629 then be associated with the MO-OOA factor or may partition to the gas phase depending on their 630 volatility.

631 Scatter plots of a_{abs} against markers of biomass burning are shown in Figure 13. The 632 Pearson-*R* correlations against $\log_{10}(f_{60}/f_{44})$ and (BBOA_T/organic PM₁) are 0.87 and 0.75, 633 respectively. The f_{60}/f_{44} ratio is a tracer for the influence of fresh biomass burning, and an 634 association of a_{abs} and with this quantity was also reported for Boulder, Colorado, USA (Lack et 635 al., 2013). These relationships could be useful parameterizations to estimate a_{abs} when optical 636 measurements are not available but AMS / ACSM measurements are, at least during times of 637 biomass burning influence in central Amazonia. Worldwide, observed values of a_{abs} range from 638 <2 to 11 for particles tied to biomass burning (Chakrabarty et al., 2010; Saleh et al., 2014). The

value of a_{abs} reached 6 for the highest observed values of (f_{60}/f_{44}). It approached 1.0 in the limit of $f_{60}/f_{44} < 0.02$, which indicates little influence of proximate biomass burning (Figure 13a; cf. upper left of Figure 7a). Further observations elsewhere in the Amazon and on other regions are needed before the parameterizations suggested by Figure 13 between a_{abs} and markers of

643 biomass burning can be generalized with confidence.

644 3.2.2 Contribution of organic PM components to BrC absorption

Herein, advantage is taken of the representation of the organic PM in its subcomponents provided by the PMF factors to estimate a mass absorption efficiency for each of them. The absorption coefficient is the sum of the absorption coefficient of the *n* parts of the organic PM ("Org"):

$$b_{\text{abs,BrC}} = b_{\text{abs,Org}_1} + b_{\text{abs,Org}_2} + \dots + b_{\text{abs,Org}_n}$$
(3)

650 The treatment assumes the absence of cross-interactions among the parts and holds for a single 651 wavelength. The absorption coefficient $b_{abs,i}$ of part *i* is defined as follows:

 $b_{\text{abs},i} = E_{\text{abs},i} \times C_i \tag{4}$

where $E_{abs,i}$ is the mass absorption efficiency and C_i is the mass concentration of part *i*. Based on equations 33 and 44, the following model was constructed for $b_{abs,BrC}$ by using the PMF factor loadings as a proxy for the mass concentrations of organic PM₁ components:

656
$$b_{abs,BrC} = E_{abs,MO-OOA} G_{MO-OOA} + E_{abs,LO-OOA} G_{LO-OOA} + E_{abs,IEPOX-SOA} G_{IEPOX-SOA} + E_{abs,MO-BBOA} G_{MO-BBOA} + E_{abs,LO-BBOA} G_{LO-BBOA} + E_{abs,HOA} G_{HOA} + B$$
(5)

657 where
$$G_i$$
 correspond to loadings of factor *i*, and the unknowns are the mass absorption
658 efficiencies $E_{abs,i}$ associated with each PMF factor. An intercept *B* was added to account for the
659 variability not explained by the PMF factors. Other studies have also made use of multivariate
660 linear regression to retrieve mass absorption efficiencies (Hand and Malm, 2007;Washenfelder et
661 al., 2015; Ealo et al., 2018).

662	Estimates of $E_{abs,i}$ were obtained using a constrained linear least-squares algorithm
663	applied to Eq. 55, where the inputs were the observed $b_{abs,BrC}$ and the factor loadings for each
664	point in time during IOP2. The input data are represented in the scatter plots of G_i against $b_{abs,BrC}$
665	shown in Figures 14a to 14f. A non-negative constraint on the model coefficients $E_{abs,i}$ was
666	included for physical meaning. The algorithm was applied in bootstrap with replacement of
667	residuals for 10 ⁴ runs, and convergence of the bootstrap results was checked by varying the
668	number of samples. The resulting estimates of mean and standard error of E_{abs} for all PMF
669	factors are listed in Table 3.
670	A scatter plot of the predicted $b_{abs,BrC,pred}$ against the observed $b_{abs,BrC}$ is shown in Figure
671	14h. The model captured 66% of the variance in $b_{abs,BrC}$, and the PMF factor loadings can be
672	considered good predictors of the BrC absorption under the study conditions. Physical factors not
673	directly represented in this statistical model, such as the effects of mixing state, size distribution,
674	and so on for BrC absorption, either have low variability under the study conditions or
675	alternatively have co-variability also captured in the PMF factor loadings.
676	The highest values of E_{abs} at 370 nm were associated with the HOA and LO-BBOA
677	factors (2.04 \pm 0.14 and 1.50 \pm 0.07 m ² g ⁻¹ , respectively). These results support the interpretation
678	presented in the previous section about the association of the HOA and LO-BBOA factors with
679	light absorption. As a point of comparison, Ealo et al. (2018) conducted a study in the north-
680	western Mediterranean and found the highest mass absorption efficiencies, ranging from 0.9 to
681	<u>1.7 m² g⁻¹ at 637 nm, for traffic and industrial sources.</u> As another point of comparison, E_{abs} of 2
682	to 3 m^2 g ⁻¹ at 300 nm was reported for HULIS extracts from PM _{2.5} filter samples collected under
683	biomass burning conditions during the Amazon dry season in Rondônia, Brazil (Hoffer et al.,
684	2006). HULIS have been recognized as important components of BrC from biomass burning

685 (Mukai and Ambe, 1986; Andreae and Gelencsér, 2006; Graber and Rudich, 2006). The E_{abs} 686 value of the MO-BBOA factor was $0.82 \pm 0.04 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$. The result of $E_{abs,MO-BBOA} < E_{abs,LO-BBOA}$ is 687 consistent with an interpretation of photochemically driven oxidation and bleaching during the 688 atmospheric transport of biomass burning emissions.

The E_{abs} value of the IEPOX-SOA factor was $0.40 \pm 0.05 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$, and the E_{abs} values of 689 the MO-OOA and LO-OOA factors $(0.01 \pm 0.02 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1})$ were not statistically different from 690 691 zero. Laboratory studies suggest that biogenic PM does not appreciably absorb light in the near-692 UV and visible range although this result may change with atmospheric exposure to ammonia 693 and amines, changes in particle acidity, and other factors (Nakayama et al., 2012; Liu et al., 694 2013; Flores et al., 2014; Lin et al., 2014; Laskin et al., 2015). Biogenic PM is typically 695 characterized by carbonyls, carboxyls, and hydroxyls without substantial conjugation; this 696 composition does not have the low-energy electronic transitions relevant for brown-carbon light 697 absorption (Laskin et al., 2015). By contrast, PM produced by the photo-oxidation of aromatic 698 VOCs, such as toluene, *m*-xylene, naphthalene, and trimethylbenzene, tends to absorb 699 significantly, and the light absorption is greater for PM produced under conditions of higher NO_x 700 concentrations because of the production of nitro-aromatic compounds (Zhong and Jang, 2011; 701 Liu et al., 2012; Lee et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2015). This absorption, however, may decrease with 702 atmospheric processing as previously discussed for the case of biomass burning emissions, 703 which is also reflected in the negligible value of E_{abs} for MO-OOA. In central Amazonia, the 704 organic PM is dominated by biogenic forest precursors even in the pollution plume of Manaus, 705 which helps to explain the negligible E_{abs} value for LO-OOA. It may also be that some aromatic 706 PM is associated with the HOA factor, which has a high E_{abs} value.

707	A comparison of the relative contributions of PMF factor loadings to organic PM1 mass
708	concentration and to light absorption is presented in Figure 15 (left and right panels,
709	respectively). The contribution of each class of organic compounds to total absorption by organic
710	PM_1 was estimated for each point in time by multiplication of the E_{abs} value and the loading of
711	each PMF factor during IOP2. The means and standard deviations of the resulting percentage
712	contributions are listed in Table 4. Biomass burning and urban emissions, as represented by the
713	BBOA and HOA factors, appeared to contribute 80% of $b_{abs,BrC}$ while accounting for at least
714	30% of the organic PM_1 mass concentration. The IEPOX-SOA factor was associated with the
715	balance of $b_{abs,BrC}$ while representing 16% of the organic PM ₁ mass concentration. Studies with
716	further information on black carbon size distribution, particle mixing state, and the effect of RH
717	on particle absorption are warranted to refine the estimates of E_{abs} for the components of organic
718	PM ₁ and therefore their contributions to BrC light absorption. A similar attribution analysis as
719	the right panel of Figure 15 was carried out for the baseline, event, and urban clusters separately
720	and is discussed in the Supplementary Material (Figure S15).
721	-The BrC light absorption can have direct and indirect effects on radiative forcing, which
722	ought to be further investigated for the Amazon region. The inclusion of BrC absorption in
723	models may result in a positive direct radiative forcing in regions of high BrC concentrations, in
724	contrast to models that assume organic PM as a purely scattering component (Ramanathan and
725	Carmichael, 2008; Myhre et al., 2013). Recent models have estimated the global BrC
726	contribution to DRF to be in the range of 0.1 to 0.25 W m ⁻² , corresponding to 10 to 25% of the
727	DRF by BC (Feng et al., 2013). In addition, BrC in cloud water can absorb light and thereby
728	facilitate water evaporation and cloud dispersion (Hansen et al., 1997). This effect may
729	compensate the cooling that aerosol particles offer by serving as seeds for cloud droplet

formation and may also provide a positive feedback as increased fire activity may provoke more
 fire-prone conditions by suppressing precipitation (Nepstad et al., 1999; Bevan et al., 2009;

732 Gonçalves et al., 2015; Laskin et al., 2015). Another implication is that light absorption by BrC

733 <u>in the ultraviolet may significantly decrease photolysis rates, thereby affecting the concentrations</u>

of precursors and oxidants such as ozone and OH radicals in the atmosphere (Li et al., 2011;

735 <u>Jiang et al., 2012; Laskin et al., 2015).</u>

736

4.

Summary and Conclusions

737 The influence of urban and biomass burning emissions on the otherwise natural 738 concentrations, composition, and optical properties of organic PM1 in central Amazonia were 739 investigated during the dry season. Positive-matrix factorization was used to classify the organic 740 PM into subcomponents. The MO-OOA, LO-OOA, and IEPOX-SOA together accounted for 741 about 62% of the organic PM. The MO-BBOA and LO-BBOA factors together accounted for 742 31%, and HOA for the remaining 7%. An important conclusion is that the 8.5-fold increase in 743 organic PM_1 concentrations between the wet and dry seasons is not all due to biomass burning, 744 but also to a concurrent increase of biogenic secondary organic PM₁ of eight-fold and smaller 745 increases in urban PM₁. Reasons that possibly played a role in such increases for the dry season 746 are: increased BVOC emissions, increased formation potential of biogenic secondary organic 747 PM₁, reduced wet and dry deposition and PBL ventilation of PM₁ particles, and increased 748 partitioning due to larger organic PM₁ mass concentrations in the dry season. 749 The FCM clustering analysis identified the baseline, event, and urban clusters. Relative to 750 the baseline cluster (9.2 μ g m⁻³), both the event and the urban cluster had an increase of 3 μ g m⁻³. 751 For the event cluster, the increased sulfate concentrations together with only moderate increases

in NO_v, resulted in remarkable increases of almost 1 μ g m⁻³ (65%) in IEPOX-SOA factor

753	loadings relative to the baseline cluster. Regarding the urban cluster, increases in the factor
754	loadings of MO-BBOA (40 to 90%) and LO-OOA (20 to 25%) were observed in comparison to
755	the other two clusters. At the same time, the IEPOX-SOA contribution was either the same or
756	lower (by 40%) in absolute loadings, and always lower in relative contribution to organic PM
757	(15% of organic PM compared to 20-30% for the other clusters). These changes in the make-up
758	of organic PM were consistent with the changes observed for the wet season (de Sá et al., 2017;
759	de Sá et al., 2018). They were attributed partly to (i) a shift in oxidation pathways from HO ₂ - to
760	NO-dominant, and partly to (ii) an accelerated oxidation cycle that increases the mass
761	concentration of secondary organic PM.
762	Optical properties of the PM1 were investigated, focusing on the organic component. The
763	BrC absorption coefficient $b_{abs,BrC}$ had an inverse relationship with O:C ratio and a positive
764	relationship with the $C_x H_y O_z N_p^+$ family, indicating that BrC light in this region was associated
765	with less-oxidized and N-containing organic compounds. The LO-BBOA and HOA factors had
766	the lowest O:C ratios and highest relative contribution of $C_x H_y O_z N_p^+$ family ions, suggesting that
767	these factors represent BrC components. In addition, a tight relationship between \mathring{a}_{abs} and
768	$log_{10}(f_{60}/f_{44})$ was found, corroborating the importance of BBOA factors for absorption properties
769	of organic PM, and possibly providing a parameterization for a_{abs} in the region. Further analysis
770	determined the E_{abs} associated with each of the PMF factors. The results implied that the MO-
771	OOA and LO-OOA factors were associated with non-absorbing components. The MO-BBOA
772	($E_{abs} = 0.8 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$), LO-BBOA (1.5 m ² g ⁻¹), and HOA (2.0 m ² g ⁻¹) factors were associated with
773	80% of the light absorption by organic PM in the region. The remaining absorption (<10%) was
774	attributed to IEPOX-SOA ($E_{abs} = 0.4 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$).

775	The BrC light absorption can have direct and indirect effects on radiative forcing, which
776	ought to be further investigated for the Amazon region. The inclusion of BrC absorption in
777	models may result in a positive direct radiative forcing in regions of high BrC concentrations, in
778	contrast to models that assume organic PM as a purely seattering component (Ramanathan and
779	Carmichael, 2008; Myhre et al., 2013). Recent models have estimated the global BrC
780	contribution to DRF to be in the range of 0.1 to 0.25 W m ⁻² , corresponding to 10 to 25% of the
781	DRF by BC (Feng et al., 2013). In addition, BrC in cloud water can absorb light and thereby
782	facilitate water evaporation and cloud dispersion (Hansen et al., 1997). This effect may
783	compensate the cooling that acrosol particles offer by serving as seeds for cloud droplet
784	formation and may also provide a positive feedback as increased fire activity may provoke more
785	fire-prone conditions by suppressing precipitation (Nepstad et al., 1999; Bevan et al., 2009;
786	Gonçalves et al., 2015; Laskin et al., 2015). Another implication is that light absorption by BrC
787	in the ultraviolet may significantly decrease photolysis rates, thereby affecting the concentrations
788	of precursors and oxidants such as ozone and OH radicals in the atmosphere (Li et al., 2011;
789	Jiang et al., 2012; Laskin et al., 2015).
790	Given the importance of biomass burning and the increasing importance of urban
791	pollution in the Amazon forest, light absorption by atmospheric particulate matter could become
792	more prevalent in this region in the future. Further field, laboratory, and modeling studies are
793	warranted to (i) more finely map the importance of both urban and biomass burning emissions at
794	different locations in the Amazon region, (ii) characterize BrC components at the molecular level
795	for structure-absorption relationships, and (iii) quantify the effects of BrC absorption on radiative
796	forcing in the regional and global scales for current and future scenarios of increased human
797	impacts.

Data availability

The data sets used in this publication are available at the ARM Climate Research Facility database for the GoAmazon2014/5 experiment (https://www.arm.gov/research/campaigns/amf2014goamazon, last access: 1 August 2018).

Author contributions

SSdS, LVR, and STM defined the scientific questions and scope of this study. STM, JLJ, MLA, AHG, and PA designed, planned, and supervised the broader GoAmazon2014/5 field experiment. SSdS, BBP, PCJ, and DAD carried out the AMS measurements and data processing. AS collected and quality-checked the aethalometer data. LVR performed the BrC calculations based on the aethalometer data. LDY, RW, GYV, JB, SC, YJL, SS, and HMJB performed auxiliary data collection/processing and simulations. SSdS carried out the scientific analysis involving PMF and FCM. SSdS prepared the paper with contributions from all co-authors.

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Table 1.Characteristics of the PMF factor profiles. Listed are f_{44} and f_{60} , corresponding to the
organic signal fraction at m/z 44 and m/z 60, respectively, as well as the oxygen-to-
carbon (O:C) and hydrogen-to-carbon (H:C) ratios. Values and uncertainties were
calculated by running the PMF analysis in "bootstrap mode" (Ulbrich et al., 2009).
The Pearson-*R* correlations between the factor profiles of IOP2 and their
counterparts in IOP1 are also listed (i.e., dry season compared to wet season). "N/A"
means "not applicable". Elemental ratios were calibrated by the "improved-ambient"
method, which has an estimated uncertainty of 12% for O:C and 4% for H:C
(Canagaratna et al., 2015).

PMF factor	f_{44}	f_{60}	O:C	H:C	Pearson- <i>R</i> against IOP1 counterpart
MO-OOA	0.24 ± 0.01	< 0.001	1.20 ± 0.10	1.25 ± 0.08	1.00
LO-OOA	0.15 ± 0.01	0.001 ± 0.001	0.86 ± 0.08	1.51 ± 0.06	0.99
IEPOX-SOA	0.14 ± 0.01	< 0.001	0.74 ± 0.02	1.51 ± 0.01	0.99
MO-BBOA	0.13 ± 0.01	0.011 ± 0.003	0.70 ± 0.07	1.59 ± 0.11	N/A
LO-BBOA	0.02 ± 0.01	0.05 ± 0.01	0.53 ± 0.04	1.79 ± 0.06	N/A
НОА	0.05 ± 0.01	0.001 ± 0.001	0.22 ± 0.03	1.82 ± 0.03	0.94

Table 2. Relationship of PMF factors to organo-nitrogen characteristics. Listed for each factor are the mean loading of the time series, the percent contribution of the $C_xH_yO_zN_p^+$ family to the factor profile, the mean mass concentration of the $C_xH_yO_zN_p^+$ family (based on multiplication of columns 2 and 3), as well as the Pearson-*R* correlation of factor loading against the mass concentration of $C_xH_yO_zN_p^+$, the mass concentration of organic nitrates, and $b_{abs,BrC}$. The $C_xH_yO_zN_p^+$ family corresponds to the sum of all ions containing at least one C atom and one N atom, as measured by the AMS. Detailed family-colored spectra showing the nitrogencontaining ions for all PMF factors are presented in Figure S6, and the most important ion fits are shown in Figure S7. The AMS method characterizes organic nitrates through the NO⁺ and NO⁺ fragments, which remain distinct from the larger fragments of the $C_xH_yO_zN_p^+$ family (Section S1 and discussion therein).

		Nitrogen characteristics of factor profile		Pearson <i>R</i> of factor loading		
PMF factor	Mean factor loading (µg m ⁻³)	$C_xH_yO_zN_p^+$ family contribution (%)	Mass concentration of the $C_xH_yO_zN_p^+$ family (µg m ⁻³)	Against the mass concentration of $C_xH_yO_zN_p^+$ family	Against the mass concentration of organic nitrates	Against b _{abs,BrC}
MO- OOA	1.6	5.7	0.09	0.33	0.38	0.17
LO- OOA	2.2	3.7	0.08	0.10	0.15	-0.19
IEPOX- SOA	1.2	6.6	0.08	0.39	0.40	0.17
MO- BBOA	1.5	2.9	0.04	0.65	0.24	0.53

LO- BBOA	1.0	10.4	0.11	0.89	0.13	0.69
HOA	0.6	9.0	0.05	0.82	0.20	0.68

Table 3.Results of the constrained linear least squares regression analysis for the brown-
carbon absorption coefficient (Equation 55). (a) Mass absorption efficiency E_{abs}
associated with each PMF factor. (b) Model intercept. The mean, standard error
(SE), and 95% confidence interval (CI) are listed in each panel. They were obtained
through bootstrap of the regression analysis considering different samples (i.e., sets
of points in time) for 10⁴ runs. Unit of Mm⁻¹ represents 10⁻⁶ m⁻¹. The coefficient of
determination R^2 between predicted $b_{abs,BrC,pred}$ and observed $b_{abs,BrC}$ was 0.66. The
symbol "*" indicates that the estimated value was statistically not higher than zero at
the significance level of 5%.

(a)	$E_{\rm abs}({ m m}^2~{ m g}^{-1})$			
PMF factors	Mean	SE	CI	
MO-OOA	0.01*	0.02	[0.00, 0.08]	
LO-OOA	0.01*	0.02	[0.00, 0.08]	
IEPOX-SOA	0.40	0.05	[0.31, 0.50]	
MO-BBOA	0.82	0.04	[0.75, 0.90]	
LO-BBOA	1.50	0.07	[1.37, 1.63]	
НОА	2.04	0.14	[1.76, 2.31]	
(b)	$b_{\rm abs}({\rm Mm}^{-1})$			
Model intercept	Mean	SE	CI	

<i>B</i> 0.13* 0.	10 [0.00, 0.33]
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Table 4. Contribution of PM₁ components as represented by the PMF factors to organic mass concentrations and BrC light absorption. The contribution of the model intercept to BrC light absorption is also included. Values listed are resulting means and standard deviations of the contributions calculated throughout IOP2. Small differences between the values in column 2 and the values represented in the inset of Figure 55a are due to differences in data coverage by the aethalometer and AMS.

PMF factor	Contribution to organic	Contribution to BrC
	mass concentration (%)	light absorption (%)
MO-OOA	21.1 ± 10.0	0.5 ± 0.4
LO-OOA	30.9 ± 11.4	0.8 ± 0.5
IEPOX-SOA	16.3 ± 9.8	15.7 ± 11.2
MO-BBOA	16.7 ± 12.0	28.9 ± 18.0
LO-BBOA	9.5 ± 7.5	27.8 ± 14.3
HOA	5.5 ± 3.9	21.7 ± 10.5
Model intercept	N/A	4.6 ± 2.6

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- Figure 1. PM₁ composition during the dry season from August 15 to October 15, 2014, representing the second Intensive Operating Period (IOP2) of the GoAmazon2014/5 experiment. Results are shown for measurements at T3 in comparison to other sites. (a) PM₁ mass concentrations of non-refractory AMS organic, sulfate, ammonium, nitrate, and chloride. Mass concentrations of SP2 refractory black carbon (rBC) are also plotted. rBC refers to the carbon content of graphite-like components that are strongly light-absorbing (Pöschl, 2003). (b) (Top) Summed mass concentrations and (bottom) segregated mass fractions of the non-refractory species at the T0a, T2, and T3 sites. The inset of panel a shows the locations of the relevant research sites for this study. A larger map is shown in Figure 3Figure 3. T0a is the Amazonian Tall Tower Observatory (Andreae et al., 2015). T2 is a site 8 km downwind of Manaus, just across the Black River ("Rio Negro") (Cirino et al., 2018). Measurements at T0a and T2 were made by an ACSM. Concentrations in both panels were adjusted to standard temperature (273.15 K) and pressure (10⁵ Pa) (STP).
- Figure 2. Time series of (a) organic and (b) sulfate mass concentrations at the T0a, T2, and T3 sites. Concentrations were adjusted to standard temperature (273.15 K) and pressure (10⁵ Pa).
- Figure 3. Fire locations in the upwind region of the T3 site for each week of IOP2. Transport times from the fires to the T3 site represent up to 15 h at the scale of this figure and typical wind speeds. The plotted data was obtained from the fire database of the Brazilian National Institute of Spatial Research (INPE, 2018). Underlying image: Google Maps.

- **Figure 4.** Diel trends of (top) organic and (bottom) sulfate mass concentrations at the T0a, T2, and T3 sites. Lines represent means, solid markers show medians, and boxes span interquartile ranges. Local time is UTC minus 4 h. Concentrations were adjusted to standard temperature (273.15 K) and pressure (10⁵ Pa).
- Figure 5. PMF analysis of the time series of AMS organic mass spectra collected at the T3 site. (a) Mass spectral profile of each factor represented at unit mass resolution. The inset shows the mean fractional loading of each factor. The factor profiles are shown in more detail, colored by ion families, in Figure S5. (b) Diel trends for the loadings of each PMF factor. Local time is UTC minus 4 h. Lines represent means, solid markers show medians, and boxes span interquartile ranges. (c) Time series of the factor loadings.
- **Figure 6.** Pearson-*R* correlations between the loading of each PMF factor and concentrations of selected measurements at the T3 site. Abbreviations include tricarballylic acid (TCA), methyl-butyl-tricarboxylic acid (MBTCA), methyl vinyl ketone (MVK), methacrolein (MACR), isoprene hydroxyhydroperoxides (ISOPOOH), and refractory black carbon (rBC). SV-TAG measurements refer to particle-phase concentrations, except for sesquiterpenes which refer to total concentrations and mostly occurred in the gas phase. The C₈ and C₉ aromatics include the xylene and trimethylbenzene isomers, respectively. The C₂₀, C₂₂, and C₂₄ acids include eicosanoic, docosanoic, and tetracosanoic acids, respectively.
- Figure 7. Analysis of the organic PM₁ sampled at the T3 site in relation to biomass burning.
 (a) Scatter plot of the AMS signal fraction at *m/z* 44 (*f*₄₄) against that at *m/z* 60 (*f*₆₀). Red circles represent measurements during the dry season (IOP2), and blue squares
represent measurements at the same site during the wet season (IOP1) (de Sá et al., 2018). Diamonds represent the MO-BBOA and LO-BBOA factors of IOP2. The dashed line represents a reference for negligible influence by biomass burning based on several field studies (Cubison et al., 2011). (b) Diel trends of the fractional loadings of the MO-BBOA and LO-BBOA factors relative to their sum BBOA_T. Local time is UTC minus 4 h.

- Figure 8. Results of the cluster analysis by Fuzzy c-means (FCM) for afternoon periods (12:00 to 16:00) presented by several case studies. The shown case studies represent 30% of the FCM results. (a) Degree of membership in each of the three clusters. The sum of degrees of membership across all clusters is unity. (b) Pollution indicators: concentrations of NO_y, O₃, CO, refractory black carbon (rBC), and particle number count are plotted. (c) PM₁ mass concentrations for organic, sulfate, nitrate, and ammonium species. (d) Fractional contribution of each factor to the PM₁ organic mass concentration.
- Figure 9. Air-mass backtrajectories associated with the three clusters of the FCM analysis. Trajectories were calculated using HYSPLIT4 in steps of 12 min and are shown for 10 h (Draxler and Hess, 1998). Twenty trajectories are plotted for each cluster, corresponding to the times of highest degree of membership to that cluster.
- Figure 10. PM₁ characterization represented by the centroids of the FCM clusters. (a) Mass concentrations of AMS species. (b) PMF factor loadings. Results are for afternoon time periods. Table S1lists the values presented in this figure.
- Figure 11. Diel trends of PM₁ optical properties. (a) Total absorption coefficient b_{abs} (370 nm).
 (b) Absorption coefficient b_{abs,BrC} of brown carbon (370 nm). (c) Fractional

contribution of $b_{abs,BrC}$ to b_{abs} . (d) Absorption Ångstrom exponent a_{abs} from 370 to 430 nm. Local time is UTC minus 4 h.

- **Figure 12.** Relationships between the brown-carbon absorption coefficient and the organic PM₁ composition. Scatter plots of $b_{abs,BrC}$ against (a) the oxygen-to-carbon ratio (O:C) and (b) the mass concentration of the nitrogen-containing $C_xH_yO_zN_p^+$ family. For the $C_xH_yO_zN_p^+$ family, all ions contain at least one C atom and one N atom, meaning x > $0, y \ge 0, z \ge 0$, and p > 0. Boxes indicate interquartile ranges, and horizontal lines within the boxes indicate medians. For panel a, each bin width is 0.1, from 0.5 to 1.0, and for panel b, each bin width is 0.2, from 0 to 1.0. In complement, Figure S14 shows the relationships between the brown-carbon absorption coefficient and the fractional contributions of the $C_xH_yO_z^+$ and $C_xH_yO_zN_p^+$ families to organic PM₁.
- Figure 13. Relationships between the absorption Ångstrom exponent and indicators of biomass burning. Scatter plots of a_{abs} against (a) $\log_{10}(f_{60}/f_{44})$ of the AMS analysis (R = 0.87), and (b) the ratio of the BBOA_T loading to the organic PM₁ mass concentration (R =0.75). BBOA_T loading is the sum of the MO-BBOA and LO-BBOA factor loadings. The a_{abs} value corresponds to 370 to 430 nm. In panel a, the slope and intercept are 3.2 ± 0.1 and 6.8 ± 0.1 , respectively. In panel b, they are 5.2 ± 0.1 and 1.1 ± 0.1 .
- **Figure 14.** Scatter plots against $b_{abs,BrC}$ of (a-f) PMF factor loadings, (g) organic PM₁ mass concentration, and (h) $b_{abs,BrC,pred}$ values predicted by a multivariate linear regression model using PMF factor loadings as parameters as described by Equation 55.
- Figure 15. Comparative relationship of the relative contributions of PMF factor loadings to (left) organic PM₁ mass concentration and (right) organic PM₁ light absorption.
 Results represent means for the full datasets of IOP2. The means and standard

deviations are listed in Table <u>44</u>. Results are for 370 nm. "Other" refers to the model intercept *B* (Equation 55).



Figure 1











Figure 6



Figure 7









Figure 11



Figure 12



Figure 13



Figure 14



Supplementary Material for

Contributions of biomass-burning, urban, and biogenic emissions to the concentrations and light-absorbing properties of particulate matter in central Amazonia during the dry season

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Supplementary Text

S1. Aerosol mass spectrometry and positive-matrix factorization

S1.1 AMS collection efficiency

The collection efficiency (CE) of the AMS was calculated as composition dependent (Middlebrook et al., 2012) with a default value of 0.5, which yielded a CE of 0.51 ± 0.02 throughout IOP2. A comparison of particle volume concentrations measured by the AMS with the CE applied and two co-located Scanning Mobility Particle Sizers (SMPS) is shown in Figure S1. The volume of refractory black carbon (rBC) accounted for 2 ± 1 % of the total volume measured by SMPS, for an assumed material density of 1.8 g cm⁻³ for BC. Therefore, the BC concentration was not subtracted from the abscissa of Figure S1.

S1.2 Estimates of organic and inorganic nitrates from AMS data

The total nitrate reported by the AMS includes fragments originating from both organic and inorganic nitrates. In the absence of external measurements of inorganic nitrate, the speciation of nitrate was estimated using the ratio of NO₂⁺ to NO⁺ signals according to the methods of Farmer et al. (2010); Fry et al. (2013). Results are shown in Figure S2. Calculations were done on a 60-min time base to increase signal over noise, and the resulting inorganic and organic nitrate time series were then interpolated into the original AMS timestamp for ambient measurements. The analysis excluded points that had total nitrate below the estimated detection limit, *DL_{Nitrate}*, which was estimated as three times the standard deviation for "closed AMS spectra", i.e., when the chopper was in closed position and particles did not reach the vaporizer. Mathematically, DL_{Nitrate} = $3 \times \sqrt{E}$, where *E* is the "closed" error calculated by the standard *PIKA* software (Ulbrich et al., 2009). The resulting mean fraction of organic nitrate in total nitrate was 92% for IOP2 (Figure S2b).

S1.3 Diagnostics of positive-matrix factorization

The time series of organic mass spectra measured by the AMS was analyzed by positivematrix factorization (PMF) using a standard analysis toolkit (Ulbrich et al., 2009). While the higher-resolution "W"-mode data was used to aid the choice of ions to fit, the higher-sensitivity "V-mode" data were used for quantification of mass concentrations and for the PMF analysis. The first week of collected data (August 18 to August 24, 2014) was excluded from the PMF analysis due to the unusual and overwhelming signal intensities at m/z 44 during that period, which would bias the characterization of the PMF factors as representative of IOP2 as a whole. Technical diagnostics of the six-factor solution are presented in Figures S3 and S4. The analysis was run for a number of factors from 1 to 10, and the rotational ambiguity parameter f_{peak} was varied from -1 to 1 in intervals of 0.2. In Figure S3, panel c shows the quality of fit parameter $Q/Q_{expected}$ (Ulbrich et al., 2009) as a function of the number of factors, suggesting that the solution should have at the very least three factors. Based on panels a and b, there was a large improvement in residuals by inclusion of a fifth factor for IOP2, indicating that the best solution for this dataset should contain at least five factors.

The six-factor solution offered meaningful factors, which showed important correlations with external measurements and allowed for the study of specific sources and processes (Figure 6). Figure S4 corroborates this analysis, showing the factor profiles and loading time series of the 5- and 7-factor solutions. In the 5-factor solution, only one characteristic BBOA factor is resolved. Although this solution was also physically meaningful, the separation of BBOA factors in the 6-factor solution allowed for a more detailed scientific investigation into their sources and properties. In the 7-factor solution, the factors associated with primary sources are further split

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(factors 4 through 7) and their interpretation becomes difficult. In conjunction with all the other diagnostics described, these results suggested that the 6-factors solution was the best choice.

Finally, panel d of Figure S3 shows $Q/Q_{expected}$ as a function of the rotational ambiguity parameter f_{peak} (Ulbrich et al., 2009) for the six-factor solution. A plausible range for f_{peak} was determined according to the best practice of limiting $Q/Q_{expected}$ to a value that does not exceed 0.1% of the minimum value (occurring at $f_{peak} = 0$). The default value of $f_{peak} = 0$ was chosen for the final six-factor solution. It yielded the minimum quality of fit parameter $Q/Q_{expected}$, and no significant improvements in the external validation of factors were observed by varying f_{peak} .

S2. Fuzzy c-means clustering

Fuzzy c-means (FCM) clustering was applied to datasets consisting of pollution indicators, namely concentrations of particle number, NO_y, ozone, rBC, CO, and sulfate (Bezdek et al., 1984). The use of a fuzzy clustering method stems from the understanding that any point in time may be affected by a combination of different sources and processes and could therefore be anywhere on the scale between pristine background and extreme polluted conditions, as opposed to a simpler binary classification. Given the scope of the analysis as non-overcast afternoon times, data points were restricted to (i) local 12:00-16:00 h, (ii) local solar radiation over the past 4 h not in the lowest 10 percentile, and (iii) no precipitation over the previous 10 h along backward trajectory. The data were normalized prior to the FCM analysis using the z-score method, which transforms all variables into a common scale with a mean of 0 and a standard deviation of 1.

The FCM algorithm used was the same as in de Sá et al. (2018). It minimizes the objective function represented in Eq. S2-1, which is a weighted sum of squared errors where the error is the Euclidean distance between each data point and a cluster centroid.

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$$J(U,v) = \sum_{k=1}^{N} \sum_{i=1}^{c} u_{ik}^{m} \|y_{k} - v_{i}\|^{2}$$
(S2-1)

The input data is given by the matrix $Y = [y_1, y_2, ..., y_N]$, where y_k is a vector of length Xat the *k*-th time point. X is the number of variables (i.e., measurements) used as input in the analysis. The number of time points is represented by N, and the associated running index is k. Nwas 397 for this study. The number of clusters is represented by c, and the corresponding running index is i. The coordinates of the centroid of each cluster i are represented by v_i , a vector of length X. The exponent of the Fuzzy partition matrix is represented by m. The algorithm returns (1) the Fuzzy partition matrix of Y, given by $U = [u_{ik}]$ where u_{ik} is the degree of membership of time point k to cluster i, (2) the vectors of coordinates of cluster centers, given by $v = [v_i]$, as well as (3) the value J of the objective function.

The analysis was performed in MATLAB® using the "fcm" function in the Fuzzy logic toolboxTM. A default value of 2 was used for the exponent *m* of the partition matrix (Bezdek et al., 1984; Hathaway and Bezdek, 2001; Chatzis, 2011). Further technical details have been described in de Sá et al. (2018). The analysis was run for a number of clusters ranging from two to ten, and the value of the objective function after convergence is shown in Figure S8. The choice of number of clusters hinges on a trade-off between additional information provided by each extra cluster and increased complexity. The objective function largely improved from two to four clusters, with marginal improvements beyond four clusters. The location of cluster centroids was also examined for evaluation of cluster overlap (Figure S9 for IOP2). In this study, three clusters described the system in a meaningful way. The backtrajectories and PM chemical composition typically associated with each of the clusters corroborated the physical interpretation of the 3-cluster solution.

The PM composition associated with each of the clusters was determined by calculating the corresponding coordinates of the centroids for AMS species concentrations and PMF factor loadings, which were not input to the FCM analysis (except for sulfate). The calculation followed the mathematical definition of the centroid (Eq. S2-2). The typical particle optical properties and concentrations of nitrogen-containing families for each cluster in were also determined by the same equation. The resulting characterization of clusters was shown in Figure 10 and Table S1.

$$v_{i} = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^{N} (u_{ik})^{m} y_{k}}{\sum_{k=1}^{N} (u_{ik})^{m}}$$
(S2-2)

In analogy to the weighted mean of Eq. S2-2, a weighted standard deviation was defined as a measure of cluster variability (Eq. S2-3). All points are considered in the calculation of the standard deviation for a variable in any given cluster. Because clusters have a fuzzy nature, large standard deviations may be expected (Table S1).

$$\sigma_{i} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{k=1}^{N} (u_{ik})^{m} (v_{k} - v_{i})^{2}}{\sum_{k=1}^{N} (u_{ik})^{m}}}$$
(S2-3)

S3. Comparison of PM₁ between IOP1 and IOP2

PM₁ mass concentrations at the T3 site during the dry and wet seasons differed by almost an order of magnitude. Figure S10a shows the statistics of mass concentrations of the NR-PM₁ components. The organic mass concentrations had the largest increase between IOP1 (wet season) and IOP2 (dry season), corresponding to a factor of 8. Mass concentrations increased by a factor of 6 for sulfate and ammonium, of 4 for nitrate, and of 2 for chloride. Mass concentrations of PM in the basin seem to have large interannual variability especially in the dry season due to the variability in biomass burning emissions (van Marle et al., 2017). Even so, the inter-season increases found in this study for the year of 2014 are in line with values previously reported for other years, which vary between 3 and 10 (Artaxo et al., 1994; Holben et al., 1996; Fuzzi et al., 2007).

The observed increases can be rationalized in terms of important differences between the wet and dry seasons. One relevant aspect is that meteorological factors such as less precipitation and lower relative humidity (RH) in the dry season may lead to lower wet deposition (Figure S11). In addition, higher solar irradiance may favor the photochemical processing of VOCs and thereby the production of PM, in spite of higher temperatures which may favor partitioning to the gas phase (Figure S11). As a direct result of lower wet deposition, higher particle number and mass concentrations may be maintained (Figure S10a-b). As an indirect result, particles with a longer atmospheric lifetime can continue to grow to larger sizes through condensation, especially given the increased solar irradiance, also leading to increased mass concentrations. A comparison of volume-diameter distributions for the two seasons (Figure S10c) shows that there was a shift from peak $D_{\rm m}$ of 340 nm in IOP1 to 400 nm in IOP2.

Another relevant feature of the dry season is the basin-wide increased occurrence of fires (Artaxo et al., 2013; Martin et al., 2016). Biomass burning can contribute both primary particles and gaseous emissions that may be precursors for the production of secondary material. As shown in Figure S10b, there was a significant shift to large particle number concentrations from IOP1 to IOP2, with median values of 1060 cm⁻³ and 3240 cm⁻³, respectively. Taken together, these results suggest that the increased mass concentrations observed in the dry season compared to the wet season were due to a combination of larger number concentrations and larger particle diameters, driven both by meteorological and anthropogenic factors.

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S4. Calculations of PM optical properties

In order to estimate the absorption coefficient of BrC at 370 nm, $b_{abs,BrC}$, the absorption coefficient of BC at the same wavelength, $b_{abs,BC}$, had to first be determined (Eq. 1). The calculation of $a_{abs,BC}$ and consequently of $b_{abs,BC}$ was done through four methods, of which Method 2 was used in the analysis described in the main text. Herein, details and assumptions of the four methods as well as a comparison among their results are presented.

The assumptions of each method and a description of their meaning is presented in Table S2. Methods 1 and 2 assume a constant absorption Ångstrom exponent $a_{abs,BC}$ across the spectrum. Methods 3 and 4 assume a varying $a_{abs,BC}$, and the difference between $a_{abs,BC}$ at longer wavelengths and shorter wavelengths is accounted for by δ , which is the wavelength dependence of the absorption Ångstrom exponent, also known as WDA (Wang et al., 2016). The value of δ is calculated theoretically using Mie Theory and assuming spherical particles. The calculation also assumes a range of BC size distributions and coatings unless measurements are available. Once $a_{abs,BC}$ is estimated, $b_{abs,BC}$ can be calculated through Eq. 2.

A comparison of the estimated values for $b_{abs,BrC}$ through the different methods is presented in Figure S13. On average, $b_{abs,BrC}$ values from method 1 are 45% larger than method 2, and values from methods 3 and 4 are 6 to 20% larger than method 2. Method 2 was chosen because (i) it represents an improvement over method 1, as it calculates $a_{abs,BC}$ sample by sample and does not simply assume a value of 1, and (ii) although methods 3 and 4 consider a wavelength dependence of $a_{abs,BC}$, this dependence is unknown for our study. Method 3 relies purely on Mie modeling, and assumes spherical particles and ranges of BC size distribution and coating taken from global averages that might not be representative of our site. Method 4 uses BC size distribution data from a different site, which is an improvement but might still not be

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representative, and the mixing state is also not known. Because these methods might bring additional uncertainty, method 2 is chosen as the base case. Because method 2 yields the lowest values, it can also be seen as a conservative method that establishes a lower bound for the particle absorption properties.

S5. Attribution of BrC absorption for the clusters

The attribution of BrC absorption for the three clusters is shown in Figure S15. The differences were overall small. Biomass burning factors represented the dominant brown carbon components in the dry season afternoons, accounting for about 50% of $b_{abs,BrC}$ under all conditions. For the urban cluster, between the two BBOA factors, a larger proportion of absorption was attributed to the MO-BBOA factor. This result highlights that the increased concentrations of secondary products from biomass burning emissions possibly driven by the interaction with the oxidant-rich Manaus plume affected the total absorption by organic PM₁. Regarding the IEPOX-SOA factor, its relative importance was larger when the influence of urban emissions was lower, corresponding to the baseline and event clusters. The HOA factor was associated with the largest estimated E_{abs} but its loadings were usually small. As a result, its contribution to BrC absorption became comparable to the LO-BBOA and IEPOX-SOA factors only for the urban cluster, which had the highest HOA loadings due to Manaus emissions.

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List of Supplementary Figures



Figure S1. Scatter plot of AMS PM volume concentrations and SMPS PM volume concentrations for IOP2. SMPS1 measured particles having mobility diameters of 10 to 461 nm, and SMPS 2, 10 to 510 nm. SMPS1 measurements were available from August 16 to October 10, and SMPS2 measurements were available from August 16 to October 15. Material densities used in the calculation of AMS volume from AMS mass were based on a mixing rule for the five AMS-measured species. The material density of the organic component was calculated following the method of Kuwata et al. (2011) based on O:C and H:C values, which in turn were calculated following the method of Canagaratna et al. (2015).



Figure S2. Summary of the analysis for estimating organic and inorganic nitrates from AMS bulk measurements for IOP2. (a) Resulting time series of organic and inorganic nitrates are shown together with the original nitrate AMS times series. (b) Time series of the fraction of organic nitrate in total nitrate. (c) Time series of the measured NO2+/NO+ ratio is shown in red and values of NO2+/NO+ from ammonium nitrate calibrations are shown in gray triangles. The reference ratio for inorganic nitrate over time is represented by the dashed dark blue line, which was the mean of the calibration values (grey triangles). The reference ratio for organic nitrates over time is represented by the dashed light blue line, and it was assumed to be a factor of 2.25 lower than that or inorganic nitrate based on previous field studies (Farmer et al., 2010; Fry et al., 2013). Calculations were done for data binned to one hour (as plotted), and the resulting time series were interpolated to the native time stamp for employment in data analyses.



Figure S3. Diagnostics of the PMF analysis for IOP2. (a) Time series of total ion residuals of PMF solutions from one to six factors, (b) Statistics of the sum of residuals presented in panel a. Box plots show the interquartile ranges, including the medians as a horizontal line. Red markers show the means. Whiskers show the 5 and 95 percentiles. (c) Dependence of the quality-of-fit parameter $Q/Q_{expected}$ on the number of factors for $f_{peak} = 0$, (d) Dependence of the quality-of-fit parameter $Q/Q_{expected}$ on f_{peak} for number of factors = 6. The red line represents $Q/Q_{expected}$ that exceeds in 0.1% the minimum value at $f_{peak} = 0$. This limit determines the range of plausible f_{peak} values as indicated by the dashed black lines.



Figure S4. Results of the PMF analysis for 5 factors (a and b) and 7 factors (c and d) for IOP2. Panels on the left (a and c) show the time series of factor loadings and panels on the right (b and d) show the profiles of factors. The signals shown in panels b and d were summed to unit mass resolution.



Figure S5. Average total organic mass spectra (top row) and PMF factor profiles. The signals are classified by their ion families and colored accordingly. For m/z > 60, signals are multiplied by three for clearer visualization.



Figure S6. Average mass spectra for nitrogen-containing organic material (top row) and PMF factor profiles showing only the nitrogen-containing ion families.



Figure S7. Peak fitting for important nitrogen-containing ions measured: (a) CHN (m/z = 27.011), (b) CH₄N (30.034) (c) C₂HN (39.011), (d) C₂H₃N (41.027), (e) CHNO (43.042), (f) CH₂NO₂ (60.009). For each panel, the rows show₁(a) spectra with chopper open, **Continues on next page**
Figure S7 (continued). (b) spectra with chopper closed, and (c) the difference spectra between the cases of open and closed chopper. The spectra shown correspond to V-mode data averaged over IOP2. The black circles are data, and the purple lines are the overall fits. The fits to each individual ion are shown in different colors. All ions that were fitted are labeled by vertical arrows and tags. In each panel, the column on the right shows the fitting that was used in the analysis, with the nitrogen-containing ion indicated in dark red, and the column on the left offers a comparison for the case when the ion is not included.



Figure S8. Value of the objective function of the FCM analysis in the last iteration plotted against the number of clusters.



Figure S9. Locations of cluster centroids from the FCM analysis for IOP2 as visualized by a 2-D projection on the plane defined by each pair of input variables. Results for two to five clusters are shown in panels a to d. Red circles are observational data and black squares are cluster centroids.



Figure S10. Statistical comparison of NR-PM₁ at T3 between the wet and dry seasons (IOP1 and IOP2, respectively). **Continues on the next page.**

Figure S10 (continued). The left axis scale refers to organic species, and the right axis refers to the inorganic species, as indicated by arrows at the top of plot. Solid markers represent means, whiskers show 5 percentiles and 95 percentiles, boxes span interquartile range, and horizontal line inside boxes indicates medians. Concentrations were adjusted to standard temperature (273.15 K) and pressure (10⁵ Pa). (b) Probability density function for particle numbers concentrations. Vertical dashed lines indicate the medians of distributions. (c) Volume-diameter distributions measured by a Scanning Mobility Particle Sizer (SMPS). D_m represents the mobility diameter.



Figure S11. Statistical comparison of meteorological variables at T3 between the wet and dry seasons (IOP1 and IOP2, respectively). (a) Relative humidity, (b) Temperature, and (c) Solar irradiance. Boxes represent interquartile ranges, markers inside boxes represent medians, and lines represent means.



Figure S12. Diel trends of families of nitrogen-containing ions. Organic and inorganic nitrates were estimated based on the ratio of NO⁺ and NO₂⁺ ions measured by the AMS (Section S1.2). $C_x H_y O_z N_p^+$ refers to the sum of ions containing at least one carbon atom and one nitrogen atom as measured by the AMS.



Figure S13. Comparison of $b_{abs,Brc}$ values calculated through method 2 and through the three other methods. Scatter plots depict results from methods (a) 1, (b) 3, and (c) 4 on the ordinate against method 2 on the abscissa.



Figure S14. Relationships between the brown-carbon absorption coefficient and the fractional contributions to organic PM_1 of (a) the $C_xH_yO_z^+$ family and (b) the $C_xH_yO_zN_p^+$ family. Boxes indicate interquartile ranges, and horizontal lines within the boxes indicate medians.



Figure S15. Attribution of BrC absorption, as represented by $b_{abs,BrC}$, to the components of organic PM₁, as represented by the PMF factors. Calculations were made based on the typical cluster composition as described by centroid values (Table 1) and on the estimated E_{abs} values for each of the PMF factors (Table 3). Absorption by "other" corresponds to the contribution of the model constant *B*.

List of Supplementary Tables

Table S1. Coordinates of cluster centroids for input variables, AMS species concentrations, PMF factor loadings and other PM characteristics and properties. Table entries for AMS species and PMF factors are plotted in Figure 10. Concentrations of NO_y, O₃, BC, CO, sulfate, and particle number were used as input in the clustering analysis.

Species	Clusters		
	Baseline	$\frac{100 \pm \text{standard dev}}{\text{Event}}$	Urban
Input variables			
Particle number (cm ⁻³)	2007 ± 752	3179 ± 938	4638 ± 1040
$NO_y(ppb)$	1.27 ± 0.36	1.70 ± 0.44	2.64 ± 0.56
O ₃ (ppb)	32.5 ± 6.4	42.8 ± 7.2	56.4 ± 8.9
rBC (µg m ⁻³)	0.18 ± 0.10	0.28 ± 0.12	0.33 ± 0.14
CO (ppb)	159 ± 30	179 ± 35	178 ± 33
Sulfate (µg m ⁻³)	1.41 ± 0.51	2.32 ± 0.87	1.85 ± 0.50
AMS species concentrations (µg m ⁻³)			
Organic	7.28 ± 2.54	9.19 ± 2.60	9.67 ± 2.49
Ammonium	0.38 ± 0.12	0.59 ± 0.19	0.52 ± 0.12
Nitrate	0.11 ± 0.04	0.15 ± 0.04	0.22 ± 0.05
Chloride	0.012 ± 0.004	0.014 ± 0.004	0.014 ± 0.004
PMF factor loadings (µg m ⁻³)			
MO-OOA	1.64 ± 0.98	2.12 ± 1.16	2.48 ± 0.87
LO-OOA	2.84 ± 0.83	2.88 ± 0.97	3.52 ± 0.99
IEPOX-SOA	1.39 ± 0.82	2.30 ± 1.06	1.41 ± 0.58
MO-BBOA	0.70 ± 0.70	0.95 ± 0.85	1.30 ± 0.92
LO-BBOA	0.34 ± 0.37	0.49 ± 0.53	0.39 ± 0.51
HOA	0.12 ± 0.20	0.22 ± 0.27	0.31 ± 0.22
Optical properties			
$b_{\rm abs,BrC} ({\rm Mm}^{-1})$	1.5 ± 1.6	2.6 ± 1.9	2.4 ± 1.9
å _{abs}	1.5 ± 0.4	1.7 ± 0.4	1.7 ± 0.4
Nitrogen-containing families			
$C_x H_y O_z N_p^+$ family (µg m ⁻³)	0.25 ± 0.09	0.34 ± 0.10	0.33 ± 0.09
Organic nitrates (µg m ⁻³)	0.12 ± 0.04	0.15 ± 0.04	0.21 ± 0.04
Inorganic nitrates (µg m ⁻³)	0.005 ± 0.014	0.007 ± 0.020	0.005 ± 0.016

Table S2. Assumptions and description of the four methods used to calculate the absorption

Ångstrom exponent of BC, $a_{abs,BC}$.

Method	Assumptions	Description
1	$\mathring{a}_{\rm abs,BC} = 1$	 å_{abs,BC} is not wavelength dependent å_{abs,BC} is equal to 1 at any point in time (absorption is constant over the spectrum)
2	$\dot{a}_{\rm abs,BC} = \dot{a}_{\rm abs}(700,880)$	 å_{abs,BC} is not wavelength dependent å_{abs,BC} is calculated for each point in time from aethalometer measurements at the two largest wavelengths
3	$\dot{a}_{abs,BC} = \dot{a}_{abs}(700,880) + \delta$ $\delta = -0.1$	 <i>å</i>_{abs,BC} is wavelength dependent δ value was based on the theoretical calculations of Wang et al. (2016)
4	$\dot{a}_{abs,BC} = \dot{a}_{abs}(700,880) + \delta$ $\delta = -0.3$	 <i>å</i>_{abs,BC} is wavelength dependent δ value was based on Saturno et al. (2017), which relied on BC size distribution measurements at the T0a site