



1 **Chemical composition of ultrafine aerosol particles in central** 2 **Amazonia during the wet season**

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14 **Abstract** Central Amazonia serves as an ideal location to study atmospheric particle formation since it often can be
15 characterized as representing natural, pre-industrial conditions but can also experience periods of anthropogenic
16 influence due to the presence of emissions from large metropolitan areas like Manaus, Brazil. Ultrafine (sub-100 nm
17 diameter) particles are often observed in this region, although new particle formation events seldom occur near the
18 ground despite being readily observed in other forested regions with similar emissions. This study focuses on
19 identifying the chemical composition of ultrafine particles as a means of determining the chemical species and
20 mechanisms that may be responsible for new particle formation and growth in the region. These measurements were
21 performed during the wet season as part of the GoAmazon2014/5 field campaign at a site located 70 km southwest of
22 Manaus. A Thermal Desorption Chemical Ionization Mass Spectrometer (TDCIMS) measured the concentrations of
23 the most abundant compounds detected in ultrafine particles. Two time periods representing distinct influences on
24 aerosol composition, which we label as “anthropogenic” and “background” periods, were studied as part of a larger
25 ten-day period of analysis. The anthropogenic period saw higher particle number concentrations and modeled back-
26 trajectories indicate transport of emissions from the Manaus metropolitan area. The background period saw much
27 lower number concentrations and back-trajectories showed that air masses arrived at the site predominantly from the
28 forested regions to the north and northeast. TDCIMS-measured constituents also show distinct differences between
29 the two observational periods. Although bisulfate was detected in particles during the ten-day period, the
30 anthropogenic period had increased levels of particulate bisulfate overall. Additionally, with larger fractions of
31 bisulfate observed, increased fractions of ammonium and trimethyl ammonium were observed. The background period
32 had distinct diurnal patterns of particulate organic nitrogen species and acetate, while oxalate remained relatively
33 constant during the ten-day period. 3-Methylfuran, a thermal decomposition product of particulate phase isoprene
34 epoxydiol (IEPOX), was the dominant species measured in the positive ion mode. Principal Component Analysis
35 (PCA) was performed on the TDCIMS-measured ion abundance and Aerosol Mass Spectrometer (AMS) mass
36 concentration data. Two different hierarchical clusters representing unique influences arise: one relating ultrafine
37 particulate acetate, hydrogen oxalate, organic nitrogen species, trimethyl ammonium and 3-methylfuran with each



38 other and ultrafine particulate bisulfate, chloride, ammonium and potassium. A third cluster separated AMS-measured
39 species from the two TDCIMS-derived clusters, indicating different sources or processes in ultrafine aerosol particle
40 formation compared to submicron-sized particles.

41 1. Introduction

42 Atmospheric aerosols are ubiquitous in the troposphere, of which organics contribute a large fraction to the chemical
43 composition (Jimenez et al., 2009). Models continue to have difficulty estimating the organic contribution to aerosols
44 in regions with both biogenic and anthropogenic influence (Shrivastava et al., 2017). Anthropogenic emissions have
45 increased with global population and the resulting influences of such emissions on secondary organic aerosol (SOA)
46 formation continue to be assessed (Hofmann, 2015). The reactive chemistry of organics in the presence of different
47 regulating species from urban sources, like sulfur dioxide (SO₂) and oxides of nitrogen, remains uncertain (Shrivastava
48 et al., 2017), although recent efforts have successfully incorporated this chemistry into air quality models simulated
49 for the southeastern United States (Carlton et al., 2018). Models are unable to predict the impacts of particle physical
50 and chemical properties on cloud formation and precipitation (IPCC, 2013). Reducing this uncertainty would be aided
51 by an understanding of the mechanisms by which particles form and grow in the atmosphere, which mostly determine
52 the potential of these particles to serve as cloud condensation nuclei (CCN).

53 The Amazon basin is an ideal location to study how biogenic emissions, anthropogenic trace gases and oxidants, and
54 biomass burning impact the number and composition of atmospheric aerosol particles. The Amazon basin is one of
55 the few remaining tropical regions on Earth in which near-natural conditions, free of direct anthropogenic influence,
56 can be found. It has been referred to as the “Green Ocean,” since particle concentrations can be as low as that is seen
57 over the ocean and, like the marine atmosphere, small changes in particle properties can have a major impact on clouds
58 and climate (Andreae et al., 2004). While isoprene is the most abundantly emitted biogenic volatile organic compound
59 (BVOC), monoterpenes and sesquiterpenes are observed in significant amounts as to potentially influence particle
60 composition (Alves et al., 2016). While, on an annual basis, aerosol particle sources in the Amazon basin are
61 dominated by the oxidation of BVOCs by OH and O₃, in many parts of the Amazon, anthropogenic emissions of trace
62 gases and oxidants, as well as human-caused-biomass burning, can have a significant impact (Martin et al., 2010; de
63 Sá et al., 2017, 2019). Biomass burning events, both for land clearing as well as pasture and cropland maintenance,
64 can produce particles at high number and mass concentrations. Increased urbanization in the Amazon, for example
65 the city of Manaus, Brazil, with a 2017 population of 2.1 million, represents large area sources of emissions of both
66 gases and particles and has led to increased regional transportation infrastructure and resulting increases in oxides of
67 nitrogen (NO_x) (IBGE, 2017). The latter will have important implications on the reactive pathways of BVOCs and
68 the formation of secondary organic aerosol (SOA) (de Sá et al., 2018). With the ability to observe aerosol particles
69 under pristine conditions, combined with the presence of growing urban centers and increased land use change that
70 represent significant regional sources of oxidants and other key trace gases, this region presents opportunities to
71 understand both past and future drivers of atmospheric chemistry and climate.

72 Aerosol properties in the Amazon basin show a seasonal dependence, reflecting seasonal variability in emissions and



73 deposition. During the wet season (December through March), the region is dominated by natural emissions, as
74 accumulation and coarse mode particles tend to be lower in concentration due to wet deposition (Andreae, 2009). In
75 the wet season, ambient particle number concentrations often represent pristine, background concentrations and are in
76 the range of 300-600 cm³ (Zhou et al., 2002). Previous measurements of particle number-size distributions in
77 Amazonia during the wet season show ultrafine particles are present intermittently, most likely linked to times of local
78 pollution events, while both Aitken and accumulation mode are continuously present (Zhou et al., 2002). While the
79 wet season episodically experiences high particle number concentrations, the dry season (June through September)
80 experiences larger number concentrations most of the time, which can alter cloud microphysics, radiative effects and
81 influences the hydrological cycle (Andreae et al., 2002, 2004; Rcia et al., 2000). While it was previously thought that
82 particle composition during the dry period is dominated by biomass burning, recent measurements of sub-micron
83 particle (PM₁) composition show a larger influence from BVOCs due to decreased wet deposition, resulting in positive
84 feedbacks on oxidants and emissions (de Sá et al., 2019). Seasonal variations of isoprene, sesquiterpenes and
85 monoterpenes have been measured, with higher mixing ratios in the dry season (Alves et al., 2016). Additionally, with
86 the lack of rainfall, in-basin pollution may be more prevalent, especially in areas downwind of cities and settlements
87 (Martin et al., 2010).

88 Unlike other forested regions, particles with a diameter smaller than 30 nm are rarely observed over the Amazon basin,
89 suggesting that new particle formation events seldom occur near the ground (Martin et al., 2010). In other regions,
90 new particle formation has been seen to occur during the daytime under sunny conditions, suggesting that both
91 boundary layer dynamics and photochemistry are important factors (Bzdek et al., 2011). Rizzo et al. (2018) recently
92 analyzed four years of particle size distributions acquired at the TT34 tower site located 60 km northwest of Manaus.
93 Regional new particle formation and growth events were detected in only 3% of days, whereas bursts of ultrafine
94 particles that lasted as least an hour occurred during 28% of the days. Those “burst events” were equally likely to
95 occur during the daytime as the night, and the authors hypothesized that daytime events were caused by interrupted
96 photochemical new particle formation, whereas nocturnal events might be due to emissions of primary biological
97 particles. Recent airborne observations in the Amazon suggest that particle nucleation and growth can be initiated in
98 the upper troposphere, with upwelling air masses transporting reactants into the free troposphere and downwelling air
99 masses transporting aerosol particles and condensable compounds back into the boundary layer where particles can
100 continue to grow via condensation and coagulation (Andreae et al., 2018; Fan et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2016). Once
101 formed, ultrafine particles can have an oversized impact on atmospheric processes. One recent study by Fan et al.
102 (2018) has suggested that ultrafine particles can increase the convective intensity of deep convective clouds. High
103 concentrations of ultrafine particles, when present with high water vapor concentrations that are typical in the Amazon
104 atmosphere, can form high concentrations of small cloud droplets that release latent heat and thereby result in more
105 powerful updraft velocities.

106 While recent research is providing some clarity on the origin, transport, and climate impacts of ultrafine particles in
107 the Amazon, very little is known about the chemical composition of these particles. Globally, measurements show a
108 major component of atmospheric ultrafine aerosol are organic compounds produced from BVOC oxidation (Bzdek et



109 al., 2011; Riipinen et al., 2012; Smith et al., 2008; Smith and Rathbone, 2008). Many of these direct measurements of
110 the composition of atmospheric ultrafine particles have been performed using the Thermal Desorption Chemical
111 Ionization Mass Spectrometer (TDCIMS) (Voisin et al., 2003). For example, TDCIMS measurements performed
112 outside of Mexico City attribute about 90% of the growth of freshly nucleated particles to oxidized organics (Smith
113 et al., 2008). In the Boreal forest of Finland, the contribution of oxidized organics is close to 100% and an analysis of
114 composition suggests that marine emissions can play an important role in that process (Lawler et al., 2018). For the
115 smallest particles measurable by TDCIMS, with diameters from 8 to 10 nm, between 23% to 47% of the constituents
116 may be derived from organic salt formation, a reactive uptake mechanism that requires the presence of strong bases
117 such as gas phase amines (Smith et al., 2010).

118 Similar to other parts of the world, particles in the Amazon basin are typically composed of 70-80% organics by mass
119 in both the fine and coarse size ranges (Graham et al., 2003). The composition of ultrafine particles has not been
120 directly measured, although one study has proposed the major component could be oxidized organics that have
121 condensed onto potassium salt-rich primary particles emitted from active biota (Pöhlker et al., 2012). An
122 understanding of the origin and chemical composition of ultrafine particles in the Amazon gives insight into their
123 formation and growth processes. To improve upon modelling the coupling of chemistry and climate in this sensitive
124 region, incorporating accurate representations of particle formation and growth process is required.

125 The most recent, and currently the largest, field campaign to study the Amazon atmospheric chemistry and cloud
126 processes was the Observations and Modeling of the Green Ocean Amazon (GoAmazon2014/5), which took place
127 outside of Manaus, from 1 January 2014 to 31 December 2015 (Martin et al., 2016). Two intensive observational
128 periods (IOPs) were carried out during GoAmazon2014/5, corresponding to wet and dry seasons in 2014. This
129 manuscript explores the chemical composition of ultrafine particles observed by the TDCIMS during IOP1, which
130 took place from February 1 to March 31, 2014. Specifically, we focus on ten consecutive days that experienced air
131 mass from both clean, remote regions as well as from the large metropolitan region of Manaus. This study investigates
132 the influence of anthropogenic and biogenic emissions on the chemical composition of ultrafine particles in this region,
133 from which one can infer the chemical processes that led to the formation and growth of ambient ultrafine particles in
134 this region. The time evolution of select compounds in ambient ultrafine particles is analyzed, and compared to AMS
135 measurements, using Principal Component Analysis (PCA), in order to gain additional insights into the contribution
136 of various emission sources to ultrafine particle composition.

137 **2. Methodology**

138 **2.1 T3 Site Description**

139 All data presented were collected at the T3 site (3.2133 °S, 60.5987 °W), located 70 km west of Manaus, Brazil, during
140 the GoAmazon2014/5 campaign (Martin et al., 2016). The T3 site is located within pasture land located 10 km
141 northeast of Manacapuru, Brazil. The site included the Atmospheric Radiation Measurement (ARM) Mobile Facility
142 #1 (AMF-1), the ARM Mobile Aerosol Observing System (MAOS), and four modified shipping container laboratories
143 containing instruments deployed by universities and other research organizations.



144 2.2 Thermal Desorption Chemical Ionization Mass Spectrometry

145 Characterization of ambient ultrafine particle composition was obtained using TDCIMS. The TDCIMS is an
146 instrument designed specifically for the measurement of the molecular composition of size-resolved ultrafine aerosol
147 particles (Smith et al., 2004; Voisin et al., 2003). In brief, sampled atmospheric particles are charged by a unipolar
148 charger and are collected via electrostatic deposition on a platinum (Pt) filament over varying collection times. During
149 this campaign, collection times were either for 1 hour or 30 minutes, depending on the anticipated sample mass.
150 Typical sample mass collected on the filament ranged from 10 to 100 ng. After collection, the filament was moved
151 into an atmospheric pressure chemical ionization source region and resistively heated to desorb the particulate phase
152 components. These desorbed components were chemically ionized and detected using a quadrupole mass spectrometer
153 (Extrel Corp.). A zero air generator (Parker Hannifin, model HPZA-3500) provided the source of reagent ions
154 $(\text{H}_2\text{O})_n\text{H}^+$ and $(\text{H}_2\text{O})_n\text{O}_2^-$ ($n=1-3$); TDCIMS operation with these ion chemistries are, respectively, referred to as
155 positive and negative ion modes. Complete mass spectra of desorbed compounds were obtained at the beginning of
156 IOP1 (Fig. S1) to determine ions with the highest ion abundances. These ions were then measured for the duration of
157 the campaign by operating the quadrupole mass spectrometer in “selected ion mode,” in which the quadrupole mass
158 spectrometer rapidly switched among approximately 12 ions to optimize sensitivity with high temporal resolution.

159 Both positive and negative ion mode chemical analyses were performed during the two IOPs, and are publicly
160 available on the campaign data archive (Smith, 2016). During IOP1, several days of measurements were impacted by
161 intermittent power outages and brownouts. IOP2 was characterized by low concentrations of ultrafine particles, which
162 is consistent with prior observations (Martin et al., 2010; Rizzo et al., 2018). Because of this, we focus our analysis
163 on ten consecutive days during IOP1 when instruments were operating consistently. This period also happened to
164 coincide with the arrival of two distinct and consecutive air masses, which allows for more accurate side-by-side
165 comparison of aerosol properties during these periods.

166 Ambient particles were sampled through a 3 m length of Cu tubing with 0.63 cm inside diameter. The inlet extended
167 0.5 m above the roof of the laboratory, and was bent and covered with screen to prevent rain and insects from entering.
168 Ambient particles during GoAmazon2014/5 were not size-selected prior to collection on the filament because of low
169 ambient concentrations. The collection process, however, is inherently dependent on particle mobility (McMurry et
170 al., 2009). In order to determine the size-dependent collection efficiency, tests were run at the start of the campaign
171 by generating and collecting ammonium sulfate particles in the diameter range of 8-90 nm. The size-dependent
172 collection efficiency was used to determine the volume mean diameter and estimated mass of each sample.

173 2.3 Meteorological data and complementary datasets

174 To complement the TDCIMS dataset, High-Resolution Time-of-Flight Aerosol Mass Spectrometry (AMS; Aerodyne,
175 Inc.) was used to characterize non-refractory compounds in PM_{10} at the T3 site (ARM, 2018d.; de Sá et al., 2018). A
176 Scanning Mobility Particle Sizer (ARM, 2018b) determined the number-size distributions spanning the mobility
177 diameter range of 10 - 460 nm. Eight-hour back-trajectory simulations were determined for the time period of interest
178 using NOAA HYSPLIT transport model, using the GDAS 1° meteorology (Rolph et al., 2017; Stein et al., 2015).
179 Wind direction, wind speed, relative humidity, temperature and rainfall were measured at AMF-1 (ARM, 2018c) and



180 the planetary boundary layer height (ARM, 2018a), determined using the Heffter number method (Heffter, 1980), was
181 measured at MAOS.

182 2.4 Principal Component and Hierarchical clustering analyses

183 Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was performed using the “princomp” function of the R statistical software
184 package (R, 2011). A hierarchical cluster analysis is performed using Ward’s averaging method in the “hclust”
185 function in R. Ward’s minimum variance method of hierarchical clustering was used, which groups species within the
186 same cluster to minimize the total variance (Wilks, 2011). The purpose of this analysis is to identify species or groups
187 of species that may have unique sources, trajectories or other physicochemical characteristics. Cluster analysis was
188 done for the following TDCIMS negative and positive ion mode species: $C_2H_4N^-$ (m/z 42), $C_2H_3O_2^-$ (m/z 59), HSO_4^-
189 (m/z 97), Cl^- (isotopes m/z 35 and 37), $HC_2O_4^-$ (m/z 89), $NH_4^+(H_2O)$ (m/z 36), K^+ (m/z 39 and 41), $C_3H_{10}N^+$ (m/z 60),
190 $C_5H_7O^+$ (m/z 83), $C_5H_8NO^+$ (m/z 98), and $C_7H_9O_2^+$ (m/z 125) and the following AMS species: organic, ammonium,
191 nitrate, sulfate and chloride. A separate cluster analysis was performed for quality assurance and demonstrated that
192 the three clusters presented in Section 3.3 are statistically significant and different from one another.

193 3. Results and Discussion

194 3.1 Meteorological Data and Classification of Air Masses

195 The ten consecutive days that are the focus of this study can be characterized by two distinct air mass types, as
196 determined from meteorological data and AMS-derived PMF factors (de Sá et al., 2018). The first period, referred to
197 as the “anthropogenic period,” was from 14 March until mid-morning 19 March and the second period, the
198 “background period,” was from mid-morning 19 March until 24 March. The AMS-derived biomass burning factor
199 (BBOA), associated with levoglucosan, and anthropogenic-dominated factor (ADOA), associated with mass fragment
200 91 or “91fac” ($C_7H_7^+$), were as much as three times larger during the anthropogenic period than background period
201 (de Sá et al., 2018). Anthropogenic influence during this campaign, as determined using ADOA, most strongly
202 resembled cooking emissions. Correlations between the ADOA factor, cooking emissions, aromatics like benzene,
203 toluene and xylene and increased particle counts verify the link to anthropogenic influence from Manaus (de Sá et al.,
204 2018). The particle number-size distribution, shown in Figure 1, for the anthropogenic period saw higher number
205 concentrations of particles over the diameter range of 10 – 200 nm. The average total mass concentration as determined
206 by the AMS for the anthropogenic period was $2.5 \pm 0.9 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. The T3 site experienced approximately four hours of
207 rain on 19 March ending at about noon UTC (all times are presented as UTC time, which is four hours ahead of local
208 time) and the first and only new particle formation event of this ten-day period was observed. After this event on 19
209 March, number concentrations of particles were, on average, much lower than the prior period. The average total mass
210 concentration for the background period was determined to be $1.2 \pm 0.8 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. A similar trend in total mass
211 concentration between background and polluted conditions was observed during the Southern Oxidant and Aerosol
212 Study (SOAS), where larger particle mass concentrations were observed during times with polluted air mass influence
213 and, when followed by a period of rainfall, smaller mass concentrations were observed (Liu and Russell, 2017).

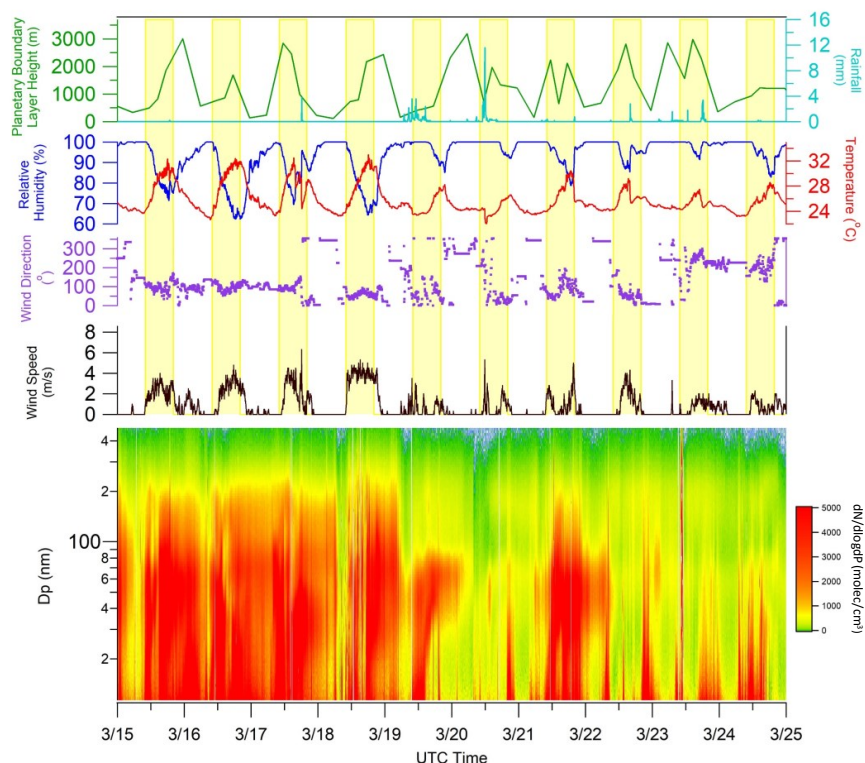


Figure 1: Meteorological data from the T3 site, showing planetary boundary layer height (green), rainfall (light blue), relative humidity (dark blue), temperature (red), wind direction (purple) and wind speed (black). The highlighted yellow bars signify daylight hours (10:00-22:00, UTC time). The particle number- size distribution contour plot shows size distribution function (molecules cm^{-3}) for particles sizes between 10 nm and 400 nm.

214 Occasional rainfall was seen during the background period, resulting in wet deposition of aerosol particles.
215 Additionally, a backtrajectory analysis, presented next, provides a more likely reason for these two distinct periods.

216 Wind direction data shown in Figure 1, as well as NOAA HYSPLIT data shown in Figure 2, suggest a reason for the
217 two distinct periods. Back-trajectories show that air masses during the anthropogenic period either pass through
218 Manaus or south of Manaus prior to arrival at the T3 site. During this period, air masses often also pass over the main
219 roadway that connects Manaus with Manacapuru, a neighbouring city with a population of 93,000. Along this roadside
220 are homes, agriculture and brick kilns, all of which contribute to local gas and particle emissions. In contrast, during
221 the background period, air masses arrived at the T3 site from the northeast to northwest ~70% of the time (Figure 2).
222 During the evening of 21 March there was a period of increased number concentration and, as winds were quite
223 stagnant at night, it is possible that a local emission source could have impacted the site during that period.

224 Estimated masses of ultrafine particles sampled by the TDCIMS were determined and compared for the two periods
225 (Fig. S2). During the anthropogenic period there was no distinct diurnal pattern observed, with an average of ~100



226 ng/sample. This lack of a diurnal pattern in the sampled
227 particles suggests that sources or processes that are
228 responsible for these particles could have persisted
229 throughout the day and night or could be from different
230 processes that persisted both day and night. In contrast to
231 this, the background period has a diurnal peak in estimated
232 mass collected between 18:00 to 22:00 UTC, with sampled
233 masses of ~ 70 ng/sample. The minimum sample sizes
234 occurred in the early morning where averages reached as
235 low as 16 ng/sample. Peaks in collected mass during the
236 early afternoon could be linked to photochemically
237 produced sources and appear to be unique to the
238 background period.

239 3.2 Ultrafine particle chemical composition

240 The five most abundant negative ions, as observed in full
241 mass spectra (Fig. S1) taken at the start of the wet season campaign, are attributed to $C_2H_4N^-$ (organic nitrogen species,
242 m/z 42), $C_2H_3O_2^-$ (acetate, m/z 59), HSO_4^- (bisulfate, m/z 97), Cl^- (chloride, isotopes m/z 35 and 37) and $HC_2O_4^-$
243 (hydrogen oxalate, m/z 89). The six most abundant positive ions measured were attributed to $NH_4^+(H_2O)$ (ammonium
244 hydrate, m/z 36), K^+ (potassium, isotopes m/z 39 and 41), $C_3H_{10}N^+$ (trimethyl ammonium, m/z 60), $C_5H_7O^+$ (protonated
245 3-methylfuran, m/z 83), $C_5H_8NO^+$ (m/z 98), and $C_7H_9O_2^+$ (m/z 125). We will refer to $C_5H_8NO^+$ (m/z 98), and $C_7H_9O_2^+$
246 (m/z 125) collectively as “other” in our positive ion mode analysis as these were minor components. The major
247 isotopes of chloride were measured to understand the role chloride may have had on particle formation, with potential
248 influence from marine aerosol and fungal spores (Pöhlker et al., 2012). Potassium (isotopes m/z 39 and 41) was
249 measured during positive ion mode analysis to determine the potential influence of potassium-rich primary biological
250 particles (China et al., 2016; Pöhlker et al., 2012). Mass-normalized ion abundances, defined as ion abundance divided
251 by collected sample mass, for the five most abundant negative ions displayed similar diurnal patterns within each
252 period. During the anthropogenic period, peaks in mass-normalized ion abundance were observed for all measured
253 species between 6:00-8:00 and 16:00-18:00. For the background period, there was no sharp peak observed between
254 16:00-18:00 for any of the five measured species, but peak in the diurnal pattern between 6:00-8:00 for m/z 42, m/z
255 59 and m/z 89 (Fig. S3). Diurnal trends in mass-normalized ion abundances give little insight, per se, into sources of
256 individual ions, but it is interesting to note that ion abundances are typically the lowest when sample mass is largest.
257 A potential reason for this is that TDCIMS is not sensitive to the specific compounds present in these ultrafine particles
258 when the mass loading is highest. This could be true, for example, if refractory black carbon is the main constituent
259 during the period of highest sampled mass, as chemical ionization would be unable to detect these compounds. Since
260 the diurnal patterns of all individual ions are similar, a comparison of ion fractions, defined as ion abundance divided
261 by the sum of the total ion abundances measured at the time of analysis, provides a measurement of ion concentration
262 in collected particles and shows distinct differences between the background and anthropogenic periods.

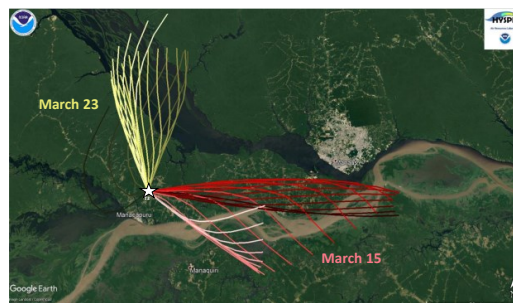


Figure 2: Back trajectories were performed using HYSPPLIT to show the difference between the types of air masses that travel to the T3 site during the anthropogenic period (red traces) and biogenic period (yellow traces). Each set of traces show 8-hour back trajectories every 1 hour during the day denoted. The lightest color indicates the first back trajectory on the denoted day arriving to the T3 site at midnight and the darkest color indicates the last back trajectory arriving to the T3 site at 23:00. Image data: Google Earth



263 Figure 3a shows the trend in ion fraction for five most abundant negative ions and four most abundant positive ions
264 during the ten-day period of analysis. During the anthropogenic period, the observed bisulfate ion (m/z 97) fraction
265 was larger than during the background period. Of the ions measured, bisulfate is the predominant indicator of urban
266 influence. The bisulfate anion has been previously noted in TDCIMS analysis as a stable ion formed from the thermal
267 desorption of particulate sulfate (Voisin et al., 2003), and it is likely that emissions from Manaus could serve as the
268 major source for sulfate found at the T3 site. Thus as air masses during the anthropogenic period primarily traveled

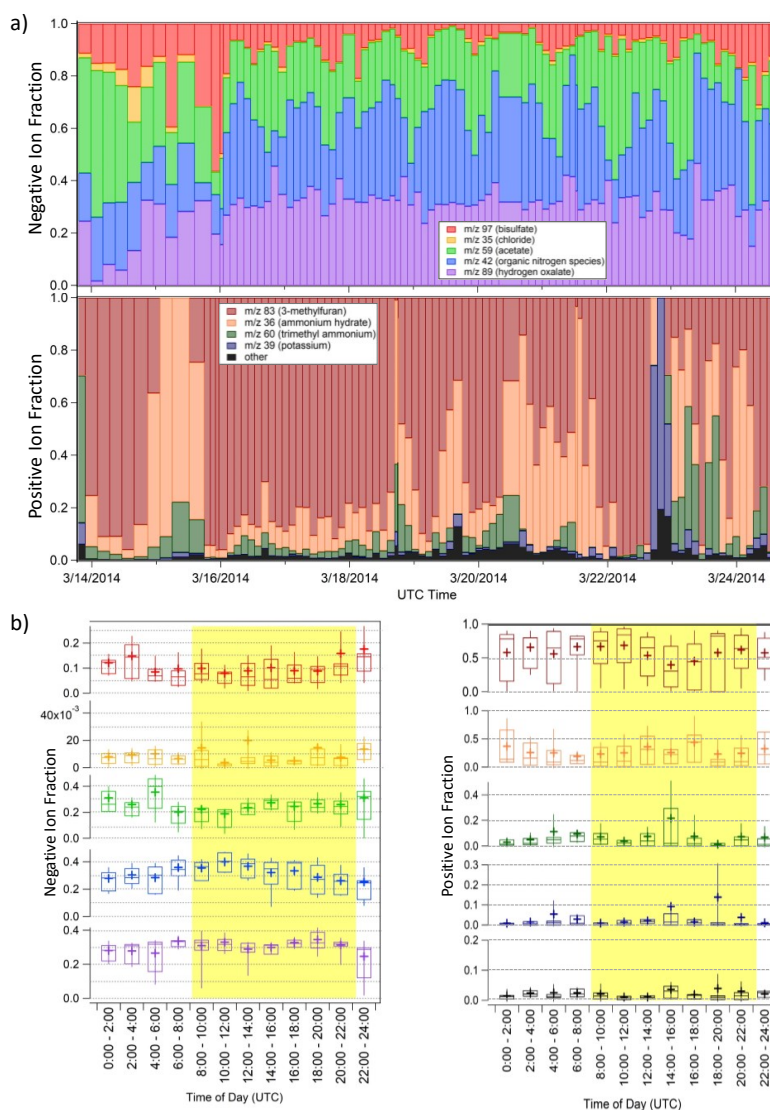


Figure 3: a) The negative ion fraction and positive ion fraction shown over the ten-day period of interest. b) Diel patterns of the five measured negative ions shown and of the four major positive ions, “other” refers to sum of fractions of m/z 125 and m/z 98. Highlighted region denotes daylight hours.



269 from, or south of, Manaus, bisulfate is expected to have a higher measured ion fraction. When the bisulfate ion was
270 the largest of the negative ions, the largest fractions of ammonium (m/z 36) and trimethyl ammonium (m/z 60) in the
271 positive ion mode were observed as well. Additionally, the largest chloride (m/z 35) signal was observed at the
272 beginning of this period, reaching a maximum of about 10% of the total ion fraction on 14 March. During the
273 background period, the ion fraction of hydrogen oxalate (m/z 89) remained relatively constant, averaging $31\% \pm 5\%$
274 of the total ion fraction. Diurnal patterns of these ion fractions, shown in Figure 3b, show small diurnal variations for
275 most of the observed ions. The diurnal pattern of m/z 42 (organic nitrogen species) peaks between 10:00 and noon and
276 both m/z 59 and m/z 89 show slight decreases between 10:00 and noon, as well. Roughly 70% of measurements over
277 both periods had potassium (m/z 39 and 41) ion fractions less than or equal to 20% of the total positive ion fraction,
278 with few “potassium episodes” of higher abundance observed.

279 Interestingly, m/z 42 was the most abundant ion present in TDCIMS spectra. Due to its even mass-to-charge ratio, this
280 ion almost certainly contains nitrogen. This ion distinguishes itself from other detected compounds by a peak in ion
281 fraction during the morning (Figure 3b). Prior TDCIMS measurements during the 2006 MILAGRO campaign in the
282 Mexico City Metropolitan Area, detected m/z 42 as a major ion fragment in sub-20 nm diameter particles; that ion
283 was identified at that time as cyanate (CNO^-), which may be linked to biomass burning or industrial processes (Smith
284 et al., 2008). However, the m/z 42 fragment observed in this study is not likely cyanate since this ion was observed
285 during very clean periods when we expect anthropogenic emissions and biomass burning to be low. In addition,
286 TDCIMS-measured m/z 42 during the dry season did not show an increase in ion intensity relative to the wet season
287 (Smith, 2016), which one might expect if this ion were sourced to biomass burning. We hypothesize that this ion is
288 the organic nitrogen species $\text{C}_2\text{H}_4\text{N}^+$, which is associated with background emissions of amino or other water soluble
289 organic species as reported by Mace, et al. (2003). That study, performed on particulate matter smaller than $10\ \mu\text{m}$ in
290 aerodynamic diameter (PM_{10}) collected in 1999, found that organic nitrogen compounds were a major constituent in
291 particles during the wet season in the Amazon basin. Amino acids and other proteinaceous material have been
292 measured in the gas phase, particle phase and in precipitation across the globe, which has been estimated to account
293 for as much as 55-95% of particulate matter over the Amazon basin (Artaxo et al., 1988, 1990; Zhang and Anastasio,
294 2003). In addition, a recent analysis of the composition of sub- $2.5\ \mu\text{m}$ particulate matter ($\text{PM}_{2.5}$) collected during
295 GoAmazon2014/5 and analyzed by high resolution mass spectrometry found that organic nitrogen species were second
296 most abundant compound class, with oxidized organics first (Kourtchev et al., 2016). If true, these observations
297 suggest that organic nitrogen compounds play a crucial role in both ultrafine particle formation as well as growth to
298 large particles, which make this mechanism for particle growth climatologically important in this region.

299 Of the measured positive ion species, m/z 83, linked to 3-methylfuran or other C5 oxidized volatile organic compound,
300 dominated the ion fraction in ultrafine particles. Methylfuran has been observed to be produced as a thermal
301 decomposition product of isoprene-derived SOA via AMS measurements (Allan et al., 2014), a process that would
302 likely also occur during TDCIMS analysis. Airborne observations in the Amazon suggest that isoprene SOA can be
303 formed in the boundary layer under certain conditions, which is confirmed by these observations (Allan et al., 2014).
304 Since this ion is a marker of isoprene epoxydiol (IEPOX) species present in the particle phase, this confirms a role for



305 isoprene and isoprene derivatives in the growth of ultrafine particles. The diel pattern of methylfuran peaks at 8:00-
306 10:00, linking this ion to potential photochemical sources. It is important to note that this ion dominates the positive
307 ions fraction during both the anthropogenic and background influenced periods. Times that experienced lower
308 fractions of m/z 83 had increased fractions of ammonium and trimethyl ammonium, which also coincided at times
309 with larger amounts of measured bisulfate in the negative ions. The presence of larger fractions of particulate ammonia
310 and amines at times with less influence from isoprene-derived species could indicate that both organic salt formation
311 and uptake of isoprene-derived products are possible mechanisms of ultrafine particle growth. The importance of
312 organic salt formation in growth is consistent with prior TDCIMS measurements (Smith et al., 2010), although a
313 quantitative comparison cannot be made since this current study focuses on sub-100 nm diameter particles whereas
314 the prior study focused on size-resolved sub-15 nm ambient particles. One period of elevated potassium ion ratio,
315 believed to be connected to potassium-rich biological particles or the rupturing of biological spores (China et al., 2016;
316 Pöhlker et al., 2012), was observed at the end of the day on 22 March. Of all wet season TDCIMS measurements
317 during GoAmazon2014/5, roughly 14% of measurements had potassium fractions greater than 0.1 (Fig. S4). Air
318 masses on the evening of 22 March were traveling steadily from the Manaus area and coincided with about 5 mm of
319 rain. High ambient concentrations of biological particles that could be sources of potassium are often associated with
320 rainfall events (China et al., 2016). Rupturing of fungal spores, leading to the production of sub-100 nm fragments,
321 was observed to occur after long exposures (above 10 hours) of high relative humidity and subsequent drying, similar
322 conditions to those on 22 March.

323 3.3 Multivariate analysis of TDCIMS and AMS data

324 Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was performed on TDCIMS and AMS measurements to provide insights into
325 the possible drivers for ultrafine particle formation. Figure 4 shows the results of this analysis. In these plots, positive
326 correlations are shown in blue, while negative correlations are shown in red. The intensity of the color and eccentricity
327 of the ellipse is an indication of the degree of correlation. Pale-colored circles (eccentricity approximately 0) show
328 little to no correlation, narrow ellipses with a positive slope and darker blue color illustrate strong positive correlations
329 and narrow ellipses with a negative slope and darker red color show strong negative correlation.

330 Hierarchical clustering of these measurements results in three main clusters of related particle constituents. This
331 represents a series of clusters where the species within each cluster covary, therefore indicative, in this work, of similar
332 particle characteristics, processes or sources. The first, labeled “Cluster 1” on Figure 4, grouped TDCIMS-derived
333 organic nitrogen species (m/z 42), acetate (m/z 59) hydrogen oxalate (m/z 89), trimethyl ammonium (m/z 60) and 3-
334 methylfuran (m/z 83); the second, labeled “Cluster 2,” clustered well known co-varying AMS derived constituents
335 (Ulbrich et al., 2009); the third, labeled “Cluster 3” associated AMS-derived chloride with TDCIMS-derived chloride
336 (m/z 35), bisulfate (m/z 97), ammonium hydrate (m/z 36) and potassium (m/z 39). The hierarchical clustering approach
337 independently grouped and separated AMS measurements from TDCIMS measurements. While both represent
338 composition measurements of the aerosol population, the differences between the size ranges of particles measured

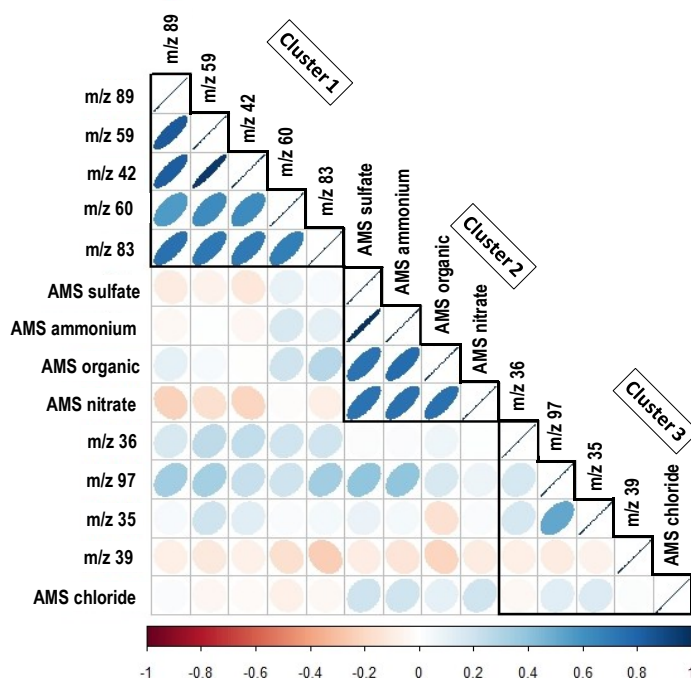


Figure 4: Principal Component Analysis (PCA) of TDCIMS and AMS data. Refer to text for details on the interpretation of these plots. PCA results in which species are grouped into hierarchical clusters, with clusters denoted within weighted black lines. Species are ordered by decreasing correlation to the first principal component from the top to bottom.

339 by AMS and TDCIMS techniques would lead to the anticipated differences in clustering. Comparing mass
340 distributions estimated by size distribution measurements, the presence of particles larger than 100 nm would have a
341 more significant contribution to the measured mass concentrations by AMS. In contrast, the TDCIMS only measures
342 sub-100 nm particles, representing a minor contribution to the total mass concentration. This observed separation
343 between the clustering of AMS and TDCIMS measurements reinforces the importance of direct measurements of
344 ultrafine particles, as opposed to bulk composition, in accessing the species and mechanisms responsible for new
345 particle formation.

346 With respect to PCA performed on the two datasets, Cluster 1, which includes TDCIMS fragments typically linked to
347 organic species (m/z 59, 89, 83) and nitrogen species discussed previously (m/z 42 and 60), explains most of the
348 variance and has the highest correlation with the first principal component. These species' high correlation with each
349 other indicate similar sources, most of which can be associated with BVOC emissions. A prior TDCIMS laboratory
350 study linked the acetate ion fragment (m/z 59) to particulate carboxylic and dicarboxylic acids (Smith and Rathbone,
351 2008), which have been linked to the photochemical oxidation of both biogenic and anthropogenic compounds
352 (Winkler et al., 2012). During the wet season in the Amazon basin, specific dicarboxylic acids and tricarboxylic acids



353 and have been identified and proposed to have been formed from the oxidation of semi-volatile fatty acids and terpenes
354 (Kubátová et al., 2000). Hydrogen oxalate, measured as m/z 89, was one of the two most abundant organic ions
355 measured in ultrafine particles at both an urban and rural site in Helsinki, Finland (Pakkanen et al., 2000). Hydrogen
356 oxalate was noted to have relatively constant concentrations in ultrafine particles, similar to observations seen during
357 the ten-day period of analysis for this study (Figure 3). While Helsinki and the Amazon experience different conditions
358 and meteorology, oxalate has been observed in both environments, possibly due to the heavy BVOC influence in both
359 locales. In the positive ion mode, 3-methylfuran, measured as m/z 83, has significant correlation to background linked
360 negative ions. These species seem to be generally linked to the oxidation of various BVOCs, whether isoprene, for 3-
361 methylfuran, or other terpenes (Allan et al., 2014). Finally, it should be noted that the clustering of the organic nitrogen
362 species (m/z 42) with these organic ions provides further evidence that the source of this ion is likely clean, background
363 chemistry rather than from biomass burning.

364 Hierarchical clustering separates TDCIMS-measured ions into two clusters, with Cluster 3 including TDCIMS-
365 derived bisulfate (m/z 97), chloride (m/z 35 and 37), ammonium hydrate (m/z 36) and potassium (m/z 39 and 41). The
366 separation of this cluster suggests that these constituents are linked to different sources or atmospheric processes
367 compared to those in Cluster 1, potentially with an anthropogenic origin as both chloride and bisulfate have been
368 linked previously to biomass burning and anthropogenic emissions, respectively (Allen and Miguel, 1995; Martin et
369 al., 2010; Voisin et al., 2003). As noted previously, the bisulfate anion is stable ion formed from the thermal desorption
370 of particulate sulfate (Voisin et al., 2003) and it is likely present in ultrafine particles via pollution emissions from
371 Manaus. Additionally, in-basin emissions of various gaseous precursors like dimethyl sulfide and hydrogen sulfide
372 could contribute to particulate sulfate of non-anthropogenic origin, as bisulfate was measured during the whole ten-
373 day period of interest, even without observed direct influence from Manaus. In-basin chloride emissions could come
374 from both biomass burning of common regional vegetation and long range transport of marine ultrafine particles from
375 the Atlantic Ocean under influence of the Trade Winds (Allen and Miguel, 1995; Martin et al., 2010). The production
376 of potassium, which is potentially linked to the rupturing of fungal spores, would have little correlation to other
377 measured TDCIMS species, as the presence of potassium is dependent on ambient conditions, like rain and relative
378 humidity. This ion is not generally associated to constant background sources, like TDCIMS species observed in
379 Cluster 1, or associated with potential anthropogenic sources, like bisulfate and chloride seen in Cluster 3. The
380 clustering of TDCIMS ion abundances into two clusters suggests different sources and processes for these species, as
381 there is little correlation between the species present in Cluster 1 to those present in Cluster 3.

382 4. Conclusion

383 The chemical composition of ultrafine particles in the Amazon basin, as measured during the GoAmazon2014/5, has
384 two distinct influences: sources and processes linked to anthropogenic origin and those related to background sources
385 and processes. During periods of heavier anthropogenic influence, higher number concentrations of sub-100 nm
386 particles were observed (Figure 1). HYSPLIT back trajectories during the anthropogenic period (Figure 2) not only
387 intersect with the Manaus metropolitan area, but with the main roadway that connects Manaus with the city of



388 Manacapuru. Influence from anthropogenic sources, which during the study period are primarily linked to Manaus
389 metropolitan area emissions, may continuously affect the composition of ultrafine particles observed at the T3
390 measurement site. Particulate sulfate, measured as the bisulfate ion, was an important and dominant contributor to
391 TDCIMS ion fraction during the anthropogenic period (Figure 3), but was still measured, to a lesser extent, in the
392 background period, suggesting an omnipresent influence. The most abundant species measured during this campaign,
393 which we hypothesize to be organic nitrogen species at m/z 42, displayed a consistent morning diurnal peak and was
394 an equally abundant constituent during both the anthropogenic and background periods. The dominance of this ion
395 during both this study and the 2006 MILAGO campaign in the Mexico City Metropolitan Area emphasizes the
396 potential role of organic nitrogen in ultrafine aerosol particle formation and underscore the need for further research
397 into the chemical processes and precursors that are responsible for this ion. 3-Methylfuran, measured as m/z 83, was
398 the most dominant fraction observed in the positive ion mode and is likely associated with IEPOX derivatives present
399 in ultrafine particles. The presence of these species emphasizes the important of isoprene oxidation to particle
400 formation in this region. The two different clusters of TDCIMS-derived ions that arise through PCA analysis, of which
401 Cluster 1 explains most of the variance, give additional insight into the sources and processes that influence the
402 ultrafine particle population in this part of the Amazon basin. As hierarchical clustering separates TDCIMS-derived
403 organic species from TDCIMS-derived sulfate and chloride, this suggests these species are present in the particle from
404 different sources and/or processes. A third cluster separates AMS-measured compounds from those detected by
405 TDCIMS, which emphasizes the unique characteristics of ultrafine particles compared to bulk aerosol particles. The
406 lack of correlation between the two TDCIMS-derived clusters supports the observation that anthropogenic emissions
407 and processes have a unique role to play in ultrafine particle formation and growth in the Amazon basin.

408 **Author contributions**

409 JNS, PA, STM, OVB, RdS, and JT designed the measurement campaign and JNS, MJL, JO, SSdS carried out
410 measurements. HSG performed data analysis, assisted by JNS and AC. HSG prepared the manuscript with
411 contributions from all co-authors.

412 **Competing interests**

413 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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