



1 **Measurement report: Long emission-wavelength chromophores dominate the light absorption**  
2 **of brown carbon in Aerosols over Bangkok: impact from biomass burning**

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21 **Abstract:** Chromophores represent an important portion of light-absorbing species, i.e. brown carbon.  
22 Yet knowledge on what and how chromophores contribute to aerosol light absorption is still sparse. To  
23 address this problem, we examined soluble independent chromophores in a set of year-round aerosol  
24 samples from Bangkok. The water-soluble chromophores identified via excitation-emission matrix  
25 (EEM) spectroscopy and follow-up parallel factor analysis could be mainly assigned as humic-like  
26 substances and protein-like substances, which differed in their EEM pattern from that of the methanol-  
27 soluble fraction. The emission wavelength of chromophores in environmental samples tended to  
28 increase compared with that of the primary combustion emission, which could be attributed to  
29 secondary formation or the aging process. Fluorescent indices inferred that these light-absorbing  
30 chromophores were not significantly humified and comprised a mixture of organic matter of terrestrial  
31 and microbial origin, while these inferences exhibited a refutation with primary biomass burning and  
32 coal combustion results. A multiple linear regression analysis revealed that larger chromophores that  
33 were oxygen-rich and highly aromatic with high molecular weights, were the key contributors of light  
34 absorption, preferably at longer emission wavelength ( $\lambda_{\text{max}} > 500$  nm). Positive matrix factorization  
35 analysis further suggested that up to 60% of these responsible chromophores originated from biomass  
36 burning emissions.

37



## 38 1. Introduction

39 Atmospheric aerosols play a substantial role in climate change through radiative forcing  
40 (Alexander et al., 2008). Carbonaceous aerosols mainly include organic carbon (OC) and elemental  
41 carbon (EC). Brown carbon (BrC) is a specific type of OC that absorbs radiation efficiently in the near-  
42 ultraviolet and visible (UV-vis) range (Laskin et al., 2015; Kirchstetter et al., 2004) and may contribute  
43 15% or more of total light absorption over the UV-vis spectrum (Kirchstetter and Thatcher, 2012; Liu  
44 et al., 2013). This fraction can significantly affect atmospheric chemistry, air quality, and climate  
45 change (Marrero-Ortiz et al., 2018; Laskin et al., 2015). Forest fires, residential heating by wood and  
46 coal, biogenic release, and secondary formation contribute to BrC in the atmosphere (Laskin et al.,  
47 2015). Many studies have indicated that the optical properties of BrC may significantly evolve as a  
48 result of atmospheric processes such as oxidation (Fan et al., 2020), solar irradiation (Wong et al.,  
49 2017), and relative humidity (Kasthuriarachchi et al., 2020). These factors cause variability in the  
50 chemical compositions and levels of BrC across source regions and receptors, resulting in a high degree  
51 of uncertainty regarding the effects of BrC (Dasari et al., 2019; Xie et al., 2019).

52 Light absorption of BrC is associated with its molecular composition and chemical structure  
53 (Song et al., 2019; Lin et al., 2018; Mo et al., 2018; Jiang et al., 2020). Detailed structural  
54 characterization of BrC compounds is essential to understand their sources and chemical processes in  
55 the atmosphere. High-resolution mass spectrometry (HRMS) is a powerful tool for molecular-level  
56 chemical analysis of organic aerosols (Laskin et al., 2018). Combinations of offline high-performance  
57 liquid chromatography (HPLC), a photodiode array detector, and HRMS allow the chemical  
58 characterization of aerosols specific to BrC (Lin et al., 2018; Lin et al., 2016; Lin et al., 2015; Lin et al.,  
59 2017). With these combination approaches, nitroaromatics, aromatic acids, phenols, polycyclic  
60 aromatic hydrocarbons and their derivatives are basically identified as BrC chromophores (Wang et  
61 al., 2020b; Yan et al., 2020). However, it should be noted that it is difficult to ionize some organic  
62 compounds for detection using HRMS, and even for those that can be detected, HRMS can only  
63 provide possible molecular structures based on empirical deduction (Song et al., 2018; Lin et al., 2015).  
64 The isomeric complexity of natural organic matter may have exceeded achievable one-dimensional  
65 chromatographic resolution (Hawkes et al., 2018), and therefore, the majority of components in the  
66 BrC mixture remain undetermined.

67 Excitation-emission matrix (EEM) fluorescence spectroscopy detects bulk chromophores in a  
68 solution (Chen et al., 2016). Chromophores can be revealed by EEM with information on their  
69 chemical structures associated with molecular weight, aromatic rings, conjugated systems, etc (Wu et  
70 al., 2003). For example, a redshift in emission spectral maxima can be caused by an increase in the



71 number of aromatic rings condensed in a straight chain, conjugated double bonds, or formational  
72 changes that permit vibrational energy losses of the promoted electrons (Wu et al., 2003). A significant  
73 Stokes shift with emission wavelength can be observed in aged secondary organic aerosols (SOA)  
74 using EEM spectroscopy (Lee et al., 2013). Parallel factor (PARAFAC) analysis has been widely used  
75 to decompose the EEM spectral signature into independent underlying components (Han et al.,  
76 2020; Yue et al., 2019; Wu et al., 2019; Chen et al., 2019b), adding valuable information to absorbance-  
77 based measurements (Yan and Kim, 2017). This technique helps to categorize groups of similar  
78 fluorophores or chromophores or similar optical properties, thereby allowing a better understanding of  
79 the chemical properties of BrC. There is evidence that BrC absorption is closely correlated with  
80 chromophores (Huo et al., 2018). However, the intrinsic relationship between chromophores and BrC  
81 absorption has not been explored.

82 Southeast Asia is subject to intensive regional biomass burning, the emissions from which may  
83 contribute to atmospheric brown clouds (Ramanathan et al., 2007; Laskin et al., 2015). The contribution  
84 of biomass burning to aerosol optical depth was evaluated to be more than 56% over this region (Huang  
85 et al., 2013). Despite many studies focused on the characterization of atmospheric black carbon (BC)  
86 (See et al., 2006; Fujii et al., 2014; Permadi et al., 2018), studies on BrC in the region are still limited.  
87 A recent study in Singapore indicated that water-soluble OC (WSOC) exhibited strong wavelength  
88 dependence and even higher values of BrC absorption than those from Korea, India, China, and Nepal  
89 (Adam et al., 2020), indicating abundant water-soluble BrC in the air over Southeast Asia.

90 This study was performed to explore the relationships between EEM chromophores and BrC light  
91 absorption in soluble aerosol organic matter. A set of year-round aerosol samples from Bangkok,  
92 Thailand, was analyzed. Water-soluble and methanol-soluble BrC in the aerosol samples were  
93 characterized by EEM followed by statistical analyses to retrieve information on the contributions of  
94 fluorescent chromophores to BrC light absorption, as well as their emission sources. This study  
95 provides a comprehensive dataset on seasonal variability in the light absorption properties, sources,  
96 and chemical components of BrC, which may be useful for improving further modeling and field  
97 observation.

## 98 **2. Experiment**

### 99 **2.1. Sample Collection and Extraction.**

100 Eighty-five total suspended particulate (TSP) samples were collected on the roof (57 m above  
101 ground level) of the Faculty of Environment, Kasetsart University (100°57' E and 13°85' N) in  
102 Bangkok, Thailand (Fig. S1). Detailed information about the sampling site is presented elsewhere  
103 (Wang et al., 2020a). Sampling was performed from January 18, 2016 to January 28, 2017, and the



104 sampling period was divided into four seasons: the pre-hot season (January 18–February 28, 2016),  
105 hot season (March 2–May 30, 2016), monsoon (June 2–October 30, 2016), and cool season (November  
106 1, 2016–January 28, 2017). Table S1 lists the average meteorological data in the four seasons.  
107 Generally, during the sampling period, the hot season was characterized by high temperatures and wind  
108 speeds, and the monsoon season by high humidity. TSP samples were collected over 24 h using a high-  
109 volume ( $0.3 \text{ m}^3 \text{ min}^{-1}$ ) sampler with quartz-fiber filters (QFFs, prebaked for 6 h at  $450 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ ). All samples  
110 and field blanks were stored under dark conditions at  $-20 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  until analysis.

111 WSOC was prepared by ultrasonication extraction of filter punches with ultra-pure deionized  
112 water ( $\Omega > 18.2$ ). The methanol-soluble OC (MSOC) fraction was then obtained by extracting the  
113 freeze-dried residue on GFFs with HPLC-grade methanol, which is used for water-insoluble fractions  
114 (Chen and Bond, 2010). The extract solutions were passed through  $0.22\text{-}\mu\text{m}$  PTFE filters and subjected  
115 to follow-up UV-vis absorption and fluorescence spectral analysis. The mass concentrations of WSOC  
116 and MSOC were measured, and the method are shown in the Supplement.

## 117 **2.2. Absorption Spectra and Fluorescence Spectra.**

118 The extract solutions were placed in quartz cells with a path-length of 1 cm and subjected to  
119 analysis using an fluorometer (Aqualog; Horiba Scientific, USA). Absorption spectra and EEM spectra  
120 were obtained simultaneously using this instrument. The contribution of solvents was subtracted from  
121 the extract spectra. UV-vis absorption spectra were scanned in the range of 239 to 800 nm with a step  
122 size of 3 nm. The Fluorescence spectra were recorded with emission wavelength ( $E_m$ ) ranging from  
123 247.01 to 825.03 nm and excitation wavelength ( $E_x$ ) ranging from 239 to 800 nm. The wavelength  
124 increments of the scans for  $E_m$  and  $E_x$  were 4.66 and 3 nm, respectively. The calculation of optical  
125 parameters and the relative contributions of BrC to total aerosol light absorption are presented in the  
126 Supplement.

## 127 **2.3. Factor analysis**

128 In this study, we built a PARAFAC model, based on 85 TSP sample fluorescence (samples  $\times$   $E_x$   
129  $\times$   $E_m$ :  $85 \times 188 \times 125$ , 85-model). Original EEM spectra were corrected and decomposed via  
130 PARAFAC analysis with reference to earlier methods using drEEM toolbox version 2.0 with MATLAB  
131 software (<http://models.life.ku.dk/drEEM>, last access: June 2014) (Murphy et al., 2013; Andersson and  
132 Bro, 2000). The absorbance, all below 1 at 239 nm, was deemed suitable for correcting the EEM  
133 spectra for inner filter effects (IFEs) (Luciani et al., 2009; Gu and Kenny, 2009; Fu et al., 2015), and the  
134 sample EEM spectra, and blanks were normalized relative to the Raman peak area of ultrapure  
135 deionized water collected on the same day to correct fluorescence in Raman Units (RU) (Murphy et



136 al., 2013;Murphy et al., 2010). Spectra with  $E_m > 580$  nm and  $E_x < 250$  nm were removed to eliminate  
137 noisy data. The non-negativity constraint is necessary to obtain reasonable spectra, and signals of first-  
138 order Rayleigh, Raman, and second-order Rayleigh scattering in the EEM spectra were removed using  
139 the interpolation method (Bahram et al., 2006). The two- to nine-component PARAFAC model was  
140 explored, within the context of spectral loading, core consistency, and residual analysis (Figs. S2–S5).  
141 Finally, seven and six components were identified in the WSOC and MSOC fractions, which explained  
142 99.89% and 99.76% of the variance, respectively. Both the seven- and six-component PARAFAC  
143 solutions passed the split-half analysis with the split style of “S<sub>4</sub>C<sub>6</sub>T<sub>3</sub>”, and residuals were examined  
144 to ensure that there was no systematic variation. The parameters obtained from the PARAFAC model  
145 were used to calculate the approximate abundance of each component, expressed as  $F_{\max}$  (in RU),  
146 corresponding to the maximum fluorescence intensity for a particular sample.

147 Fluorescence indices based on intensity ratios that provide insight into the origins of dissolved  
148 BrC, such as the humification index (HIX) (the ratio of average emission intensity in the 435–480-nm  
149 range to that in the 300–345-nm range following excitation at 254 nm, which was used to reflect the  
150 degree of humification) (Zsolnay et al., 1999), the biological index (BIX) (the ratio of emission  
151 intensities at 380 and 430 nm following excitation at 310 nm, reflecting autochthonous biological  
152 activity in water samples) (Huguet et al., 2009), and fluorescence index (FI) (the ratio of emission  
153 intensities at 470 and 520 nm following excitation at 370 nm, reflecting the possibility of microbial  
154 origin and for examining differences in precursor organic materials) (Lee et al., 2013;Murphy et al.,  
155 2018).

## 156 **2.4. Statistical analysis**

157 A hierarchical cluster method was used to classify aerosol samples based on the relative  
158 contributions of PARAFAC components to the respective samples. The Squared Euclidean distance  
159 method was used to evaluate the distances between samples, and the Between-group linkage method  
160 was chosen for hierarchical cluster analysis. The multiple linear regression (MLR) model was applied  
161 to elucidate the relationship between chromophores and light absorption of BrC using a stepwise  
162 screening process. Analyses were performed using SPSS software (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA).

## 163 **3. Results and Discussion**

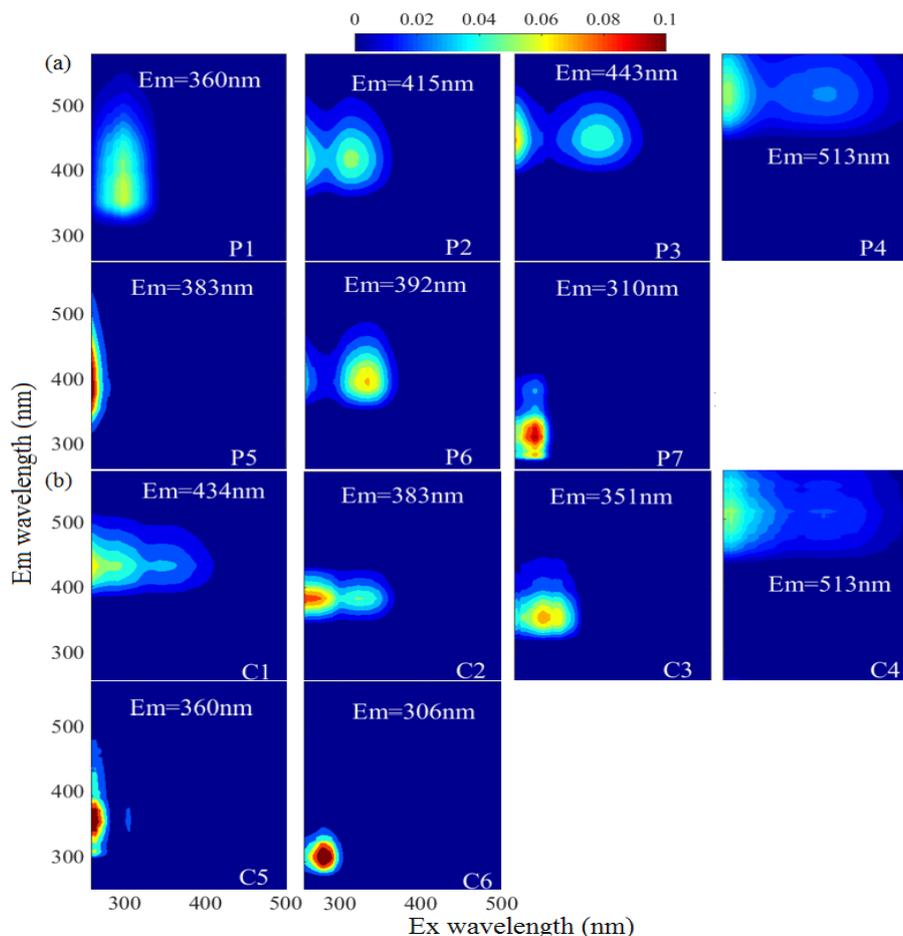
### 164 **3.1. EEM of dissolved organic substances.**

165 Fluorescence spectra coupled with PARAFAC results can provide more information about the  
166 chemical structures of chromophores. Figure 1 and Table S2 show the seven-component (P1–7)  
167 PARAFAC solutions of WSOC in the samples of aerosol over Bangkok, the peaks of which fell mainly



168 into the humic-like and protein-like chromophore regions in the plots. Components P2, P3, P4, and P6  
169 were identified as humic-like substances (HULIS) (Chen et al., 2017a; Stedmon and Markager,  
170 2005; Wu et al., 2019; Chen et al., 2003). A second peak was observed at a high excitation wavelength  
171 for these components, indicating the existence of a large number of condensed aromatic moieties,  
172 conjugated bonds, and nonlinear ring systems (Matos et al., 2015). Among them, P2, P3, and P4 had a  
173 longer emission wavelength (> 400 nm) than P6, likely due to the low probability of fluorescence  
174 emission from quinonoid  $n-\pi^*$  transitions (Cory and McKnight, 2005). P3 produced similar spectra to  
175 those of aqueous reaction products of hydroxyacetone with glycine (Gao and Zhang, 2018), and  
176 dissolved organic matter (DOM) in the surface water of Xiangxi Bay and Three Gorges Reservoir  
177 (Wang et al., 2019). P6 had a peak similar to those in the fluorescence spectra of N-containing SOA  
178 species formed by  $\alpha$ -pinene under ozonolysis and photooxidation with  $\text{NH}_3$  in a flow reactor (Babar et  
179 al., 2017) as well as pyridoxine (Pohlker et al., 2012), indicating a possible biological source. P5 was  
180 similar to a previously identified fluorophore in  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  from Xi'an (Chen et al., 2019b). P1 and P7  
181 could be assigned as protein-like organic matter (PLOM) due to their short emission wavelengths (Wu  
182 et al., 2003). Specifically, P7 resembled a tyrosine-like fluorophore (Zhou et al., 2019; Chen et al., 2003)  
183 and may be related to non-N-containing species (Chen et al., 2016).

184 The MSOC fraction extracted from the filter residue after water extraction produced fluorescence  
185 signals with fluorescence patterns different from those of the WSOC fraction, indicating a different  
186 chemical composition from that of WSOC. Thus, WSOC with the addition of MSOC may provide a  
187 more comprehensive description of the optical and chemical characteristics of BrC compared to  
188 WSOC alone. Six components (C1–C6) were resolved for the MSOC. Among them, C1 and C2 were  
189 associated with shorter excitation wavelengths (< 250 nm) but longer emission wavelengths (> 380  
190 nm), indicating the presence of fulvic-like substances (Chen et al., 2003; Mounier et al., 1999). C6  
191 produced a pattern similar to that of tyrosine-like fluorescence (Stedmon and Markager, 2005).  
192 Although C4 had a similar EEM spectrum as P4 of WSOC, the two components were chemically  
193 different in polarity, suggesting different behaviors in the environment (Ishii and Boyer, 2012). Note  
194 that there were no special chemical structures for the different types of chromophores, and therefore,  
195 the origins and chemical structures of HULIS and PLOM studied here are not necessarily like those  
196 with the same names in other types of organic matter.



197

198 **Figure 1.** The fluorescent components identified by the PARAFAC (parallel factor) analysis for EEM of water-  
199 soluble organic carbon (P1–P7, WSOC, a) and methanol-soluble organic carbon (C1–C6, MSOC, b) in the aerosol  
200 samples over Bangkok in Thailand (n=85).

201 To further explore the potential sources of the EEM-PARAFAC components, we added 60 source  
202 samples to the matrices. The source sample EEM data were described in our previous study (Tang et  
203 al., 2020b), including those of 33 biomass-burning samples (IDs: 1–33), 17 coal-combustion samples  
204 (IDs: 34–50) samples, eight tunnel samples (IDs: 51–58) and two vehicle-exhaust samples from trucks  
205 (IDs: 59–60), which are important sources of BrC in the atmosphere. This, in combination with our  
206 Bangkok field samples, yielded a new matrix (145 × 188 × 125, 145-model) for modeling. PARAFAC  
207 analysis successfully decomposed the dataset, and the output was the same as for the 85-model. The  
208 component solutions are presented in Fig. S6. To validate the stability of the model after loading by  
209 the new matrix, the Tucker congruence coefficient (TCC) was calculated to determine the similarity



210 of two fluorescence spectra between the two models (refer to Text S3 of Supplement). Note that a  
211 higher TCC value would indicate a higher degree of similarity of the spectra. As shown in Table S2  
212 and Fig. S7, high TCC values were found as expected between the 85-model components and the 145-  
213 model components, indicating that the two models identified similar chromophores. Although one  
214 exceptional component was detected each for the WSOC and MSOC fractions by the new 145-model,  
215 these fluorescent components were only highly characterized by source samples, as reported in our  
216 previous study (Tang et al., 2020b).

217 Using the distribution proportions of the EEM-PARAFAC fitted components (145-model), we  
218 conducted hierarchical cluster analysis of the mixed ambient and source samples. The results are  
219 shown in Figs. S9 and S10. For the WSOC fraction, all aerosol samples from Bangkok and tunnel  
220 samples were assigned to cluster A, whereas biomass-burning and coal-combustion aerosols were  
221 assigned to clusters C and D, respectively. This implied that the chromophore types could be somewhat  
222 related to the emission precursors of the aerosol components. However, the distribution of  
223 chromophores varied clearly between the ambient aerosols and source samples. The ambient aerosol  
224 samples contained higher levels of chromophores with longer emission wavelengths that were related  
225 to humic-like or fulvic-like chromophores (components 145M-P1 (P1 component in 145-model),  
226 145M-P5, and 145M-P6), whereas the primary biomass-burning and coal-combustion samples  
227 contained high-intensity chromophores with shorter emission wavelengths that were related to protein-  
228 like fluorescence (145M-P2 and 145M-P4). These phenomena was similarly reported previously, i.e.,  
229 protein-like substances produce compounds with similar fluorescence properties as humic substances  
230 under irradiation conditions (Bianco et al., 2014). Similar differences between field samples and source  
231 samples were found for the MSOC fraction. Therefore, our results confirmed that chemical reactions  
232 or “aging” in the atmosphere greatly modifies the chromophore patterns of emission sources by both  
233 bleaching the source chromophores or producing new chromophores and, at least in this case, shifts  
234 the chromophore emission wavelength toward longer wavelengths, i.e., from protein-like to fulvic-like  
235 (Bianco et al., 2014; Bianco et al., 2016; Lee et al., 2013).

### 236 3.2. Fluorescence-derived indices

237 The ratios of fluorescence intensity from specific spectral regions of an EEM were used as  
238 indicators for the relative contributions of organic matter derived from terrestrial or microbial sources  
239 in natural waters (Shimabuku et al., 2017; Birdwell and Engel, 2010; Mcknight et al., 2001). HIX was  
240 initially introduced to estimate the degree of maturation of DOM in soil (Zsolnay et al., 1999),  
241 representing the degree of humification of organic matter, for which higher HIX values also indicate  
242 higher degree of polycondensation (low H/C ratio) and aromaticity (Qin et al., 2018). Generally, high



243 HIX values ( $> 10$ ) correspond to strongly humified or aromatic organics, principally of terrestrial  
 244 origin, whereas low values ( $< 4$ ) are indicative of autochthonous or microbial origin. As shown in  
 245 Table 1 and Fig. 2, the HIX values were  $3.4\pm 0.99$  and  $2.0\pm 0.59$  for WSOC and MSOC, respectively,  
 246 in aerosol samples from Bangkok. All HIX values were less than 10, which could be viewed as a  
 247 nominal cutoff below which DOM is not significantly humified (Birdwell and Valsaraj, 2010; Zsolnay  
 248 et al., 1999; Huguet et al., 2009). Figure 2 shows the HIX values in primary biomass-burning and coal-  
 249 combustion samples, which were much lower than those in the ambient samples, indicating that the  
 250 lower values of HIX in the atmosphere likely correspond to freshly introduced material. Lee et al.  
 251 (2013) reported that fresh SOA had low HIX values, but these values increased significantly upon  
 252 aging with ammonia. The much higher HIX values in the WSOC compared to the MSOC suggest that  
 253 WSOC may have a higher degree of aromaticity or a more condensed chemical structure. Our previous  
 254 study revealed that MSOC has a higher molecular weight but lower aromaticity index than the  
 255 corresponding WSOC in combustion experiment aerosol samples, indicating a more aliphatic structure  
 256 in the MSOC (Tang et al., 2020b). The HIX values of WSOC were highest in the hot season ( $3.9\pm 1.1$ ),  
 257 followed by the pre-hot season ( $3.3\pm 1.1$ ), cool season ( $2.9\pm 0.36$ ), and monsoon ( $2.5\pm 0.22$ ), whereas  
 258 those of the MSOC tended to be higher in the hot and cool seasons than in the monsoon and pre-hot  
 259 seasons. The HIX values in the WSOC fraction were comparable to those of water-soluble organic  
 260 aerosols in the high Arctic atmosphere (mean: 2.9) (Fu et al., 2015) and higher than those of water-  
 261 soluble aerosols ( $1.2\pm 0.1$  in winter and  $2.0\pm 0.3$  in summer) over northwest China (Qin et al., 2018),  
 262 likely indicating a higher degree of chromophore humification.

263 **Table 1** Seasonal averages of the concentration of organic carbon (OC), elemental carbon (EC), water-soluble organic  
 264 carbon (WSOC), and methanol-soluble organic carbon (MSOC), BrC absorption, fluorescence indices and  
 265 levoglucosan level for aerosol samples collected from Bangkok in Thailand. Pre-hot season is from January 18 to  
 266 February 29, 2016; hot season is from March 2 to May 31, 2016; monsoon is from June 2 to October 30, 2016; cool  
 267 season is from November 1, 2016 to January 28, 2017.

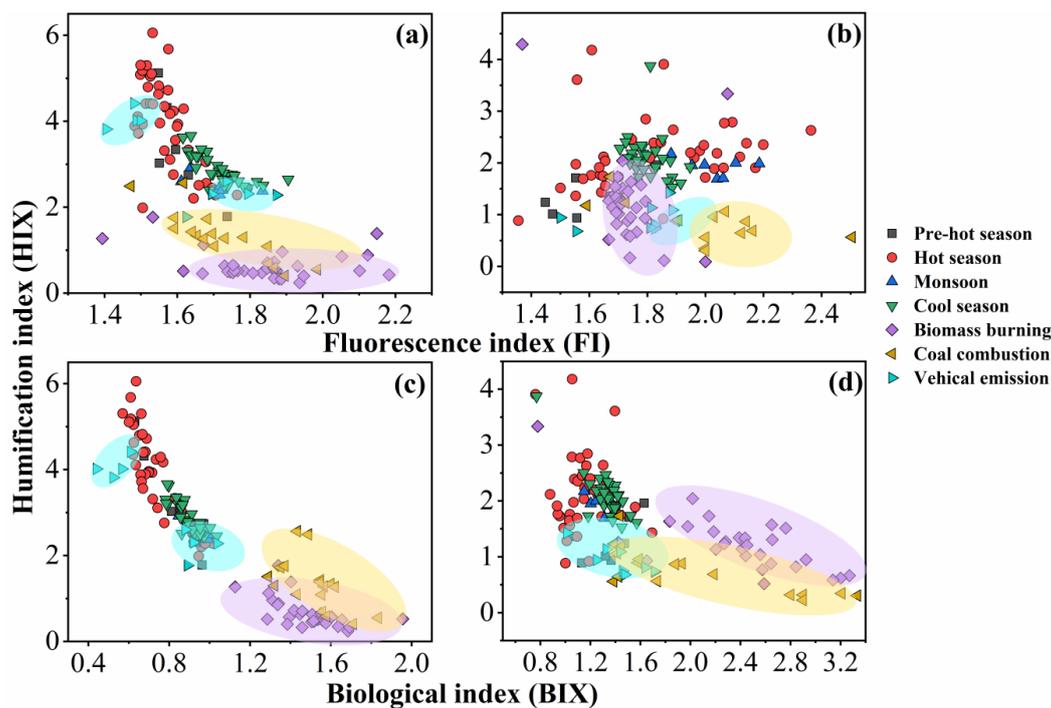
	Annual (n=85) Ave $\pm$ sd	Pre-Hot season (n=7) Ave $\pm$ sd	Hot season (n=41) Ave $\pm$ sd	Monsoon (n=7) Ave $\pm$ sd	Cool season (n=30) Ave $\pm$ sd
<sup>a</sup> OC ( $\mu\text{g C m}^{-3}$ )	12 $\pm$ 7.3	19 $\pm$ 9.3	9.6 $\pm$ 6.7	6.5 $\pm$ 0.97	16 $\pm$ 5.6
<sup>a</sup> EC ( $\mu\text{g C m}^{-3}$ )	1.4 $\pm$ 0.48	2.0 $\pm$ 0.45	1.2 $\pm$ 0.47	1.2 $\pm$ 0.15	1.5 $\pm$ 0.40
<sup>a</sup> OC/EC	8.9 $\pm$ 5.2	9.6 $\pm$ 3.4	8.4 $\pm$ 6.8	5.4 $\pm$ 0.51	10 $\pm$ 2.5
			WSOC		
$\mu\text{g C m}^{-3}$	6.2 $\pm$ 4.2	9.9 $\pm$ 5.7	5.3 $\pm$ 4.1	2.6 $\pm$ 0.31	7.4 $\pm$ 3.4
AAE (330–400 nm)	5.1 $\pm$ 0.68	5.0 $\pm$ 0.52	5.4 $\pm$ 0.56	6.2 $\pm$ 0.11	4.5 $\pm$ 0.34



Abs <sub>365</sub> (Mm <sup>-1</sup> )	5.6±4.9	10±7.4	4.5±4.5	1.2±0.21	7.2±4.1
MAE <sub>365</sub> (m <sup>2</sup> g <sup>-1</sup> C)	0.83±0.25	0.96±0.19	0.78±0.23	0.45±0.06	0.95±0.21
FI	1.6±0.10	1.6±0.09	1.6±0.08	1.7±0.07	1.7±0.07
BIX	0.82±0.13	0.83±0.14	0.74±0.13	0.92±0.05	0.89±0.07
HIX	3.4±0.99	3.3±1.1	3.9±1.1	2.5±0.22	2.9±0.36
MSOC					
μg C m <sup>-3</sup>	6.0±3.4	9.2±4.0	4.3±2.9	3.9±0.86	8.1±2.6
AAE (330–400 nm)	5.2±0.94	4.9±0.69	5.5±1.1	5.1±0.15	4.7±0.55
Abs <sub>365</sub> (Mm <sup>-1</sup> )	1.7±1.4	1.9±1.6	1.0±0.99	0.72±0.23	2.7±1.4
MAE <sub>365</sub> (m <sup>2</sup> g <sup>-1</sup> C)	0.26±0.12	0.19±0.08	0.23±0.11	0.19±0.06	0.33±0.11
FI	1.8±0.20	1.5±0.20	1.8±0.23	2.0±0.10	1.8±0.06
BIX	1.2±0.18	1.4±0.20	1.2±0.19	1.3±0.09	1.3±0.14
HIX	2.0±0.59	1.3±0.41	2.1±0.68	1.9±0.17	2.1±0.42
<sup>a</sup> Levoglucosan (ng C m <sup>-3</sup> )	222±485	362±438	185±654	42±16	280±185

268

a: described elsewhere (Wang et al., 2020a).



269

270 **Figure 2.** Fluorescence index (FI), biological index (BIX), and humification index (HIX) of water-soluble organic  
 271 carbon (WSOC, a, c) and methanol-soluble organic carbon (MSOC, b, d) in aerosol samples from Bangkok, Thailand,



272 as well as source emission samples including biomass burning, coal combustion and vehicle emission which were  
273 encircled by a violet, yellow, and blue region, respectively. Note that the fluorescence characteristic of source samples  
274 was described elsewhere (Tang et al., 2020b), but the fluorescence indices was first reported in this study. Pre-hot  
275 season is from January 18 to February 29, 2016; hot season is from March 2 to May 31, 2016; monsoon is from June  
276 2 to October 30, 2016; cool season is from November 1, 2016 to January 28, 2017.

277 The BIX and FI were previously proposed as proxies for the contribution of biogenic organic  
278 matter and autochthonous biological activity in natural water, respectively (Fu et al., 2015; Qin et al.,  
279 2018). For example, the FI decreased by up to 20% indicating that the samples appeared increasingly  
280 like “terrestrial” DOM, whereas the BIX increased by up to 37% indicating that the samples became  
281 more “autochthonous” in character (Murphy et al., 2018; Gabor et al., 2014). FI values  $\leq 1.4$  correspond  
282 to terrestrially derived organics and higher aromaticity, whereas values  $\geq 1.9$  correspond to microbial  
283 sources and a lower aromatic carbon content (Mcknight et al., 2001). An increase in BIX is related to  
284 an increase in the contribution of microbially derived organics, with high values ( $> 1$ ) shown to  
285 correspond to a predominantly biological or microbial origin of DOM and the presence of organic  
286 matter freshly released into water, whereas values  $\leq 0.6$  indicate the presence of little biological  
287 material (Huguet et al., 2009).

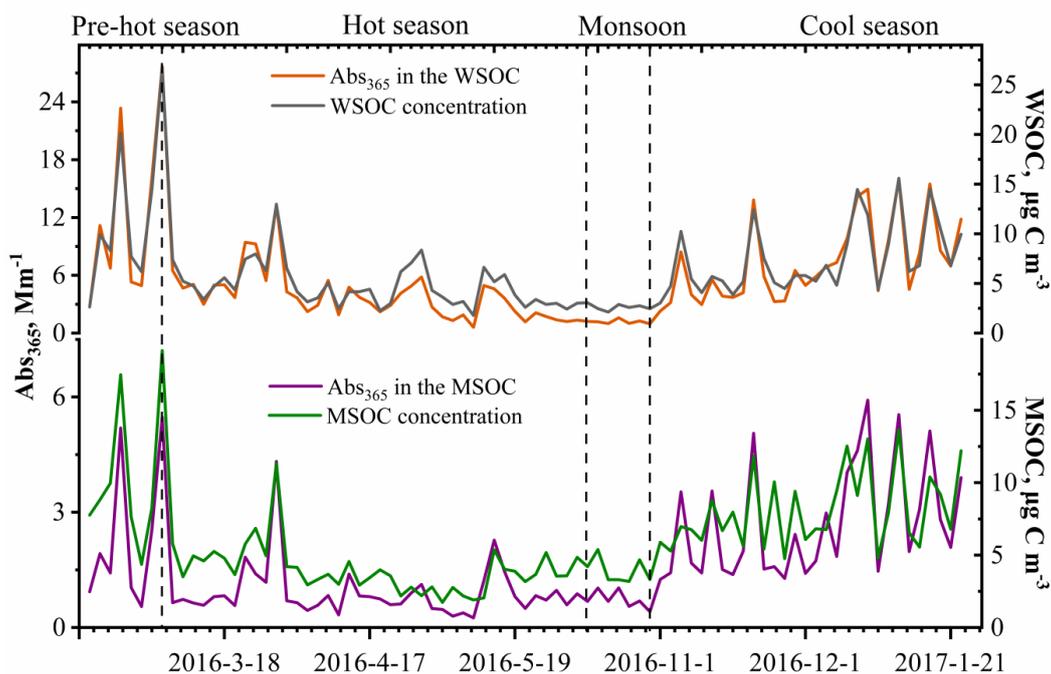
288 The FI and BIX values of the Bangkok aerosol samples are summarized in Table 1 and Fig. 2.  
289 The FI values of the WSOC and MSOC were  $1.6 \pm 0.10$  and  $1.8 \pm 0.20$ , respectively, suggesting that  
290 these chromophores are representative of both terrestrially and microbially derived organic matter. The  
291 BIX values of the WSOC and MSOC were  $0.82 \pm 0.13$  and  $1.2 \pm 0.18$ , respectively. Almost all BIX  
292 values were greater than 0.6 in the two fractions, suggesting biological or microbial contribution. Lee  
293 et al. (2013) reported that the BIX values of SOA samples averaged 0.6 and increased upon aging. In  
294 addition, the results of our source samples showed that primary biomass-burning and coal-combustion  
295 samples had high FI and BIX values (Fig. 2). These results indicate that these chromophores in  
296 Bangkok were likely freshly introduced or derived from biomass burning and coal combustion. Further,  
297 an increase in BIX in the MSOC in comparison with the WSOC was observed in primary biomass-  
298 burning and coal-combustion samples, consistent with the Bangkok samples. The BIX values were  
299 similar to those in the WSOC in Arctic aerosols (0.6–0.96, mean: 0.72), which were within the extreme  
300 values for the predominance of humic- or protein-like fluorophores (Fu et al., 2015). BIX values  
301 exhibited the opposite trend from HIX values, with low BIX values in the hot season. This may be  
302 explained by a previous study showing that a high BIX appears to indicate little humification (Birdwell  
303 and Engel, 2010). It should be noted that the fluorescence indices (FI, BIX, and HIX) were first applied  
304 for aquatic and soil organic compounds and further extended to the atmosphere due to the similarities  
305 in the properties of organic matter (Graber and Rudich, 2006). However, the values observed for



306 primary biomass burning and coal combustion in this study differ from with the previously established  
307 fluorescence standards for aquatic environments and soil. Therefore, caution is required when using  
308 these indices to appoint source of atmospheric chromophores (Wu et al., 2021).

### 309 3.3. Optical properties of dissolved BrC.

310 Figure 3 shows the variations in soluble OC concentrations and the corresponding light absorption  
311 coefficient at 365 nm ( $Abs_{365}$ ). In general, the  $Abs_{365}$  closely tracked the variations in the mass  
312 concentrations of WSOC and MSOC ( $p < 0.000$ ,  $R^2 = 0.95$  and  $p < 0.000$ ,  $R^2 = 0.75$ , respectively) (Fig.  
313 S11), indicating that the portions of BrC in both fractions were considerably stable.

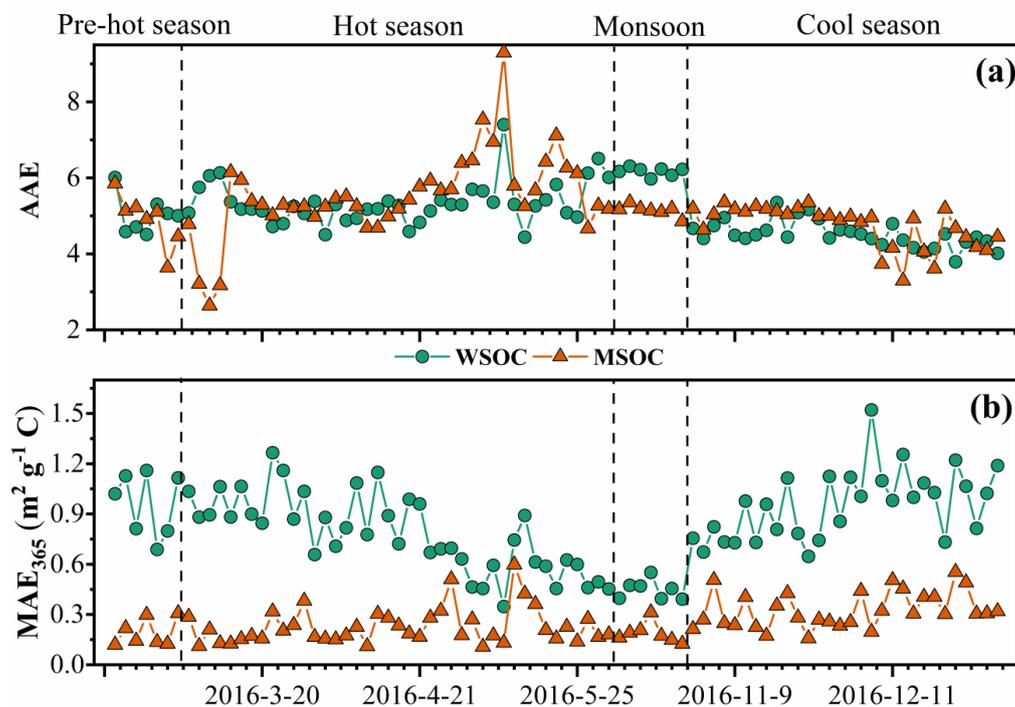


314  
315 **Figure 3.** Time series plots of water-soluble organic carbon (WSOC) and methanol-soluble organic carbon (MSOC)  
316 concentration ( $\mu\text{g C m}^{-3}$ ) and water- and methanol-extract light absorption coefficient at 365 nm ( $Abs_{365}$ ) ( $\text{Mm}^{-1}$ ) in  
317 the aerosol samples from Bangkok, Thailand during 2016–2017.

318 The absorption Ångström exponent (AAE) and mass absorption efficiency (MAE) are important  
319 optical parameters reflecting the spectral dependence and light absorption ability of BrC, respectively.  
320 The magnitude of the AAE reflects the differences in BrC source and atmospheric processes (Lack et  
321 al., 2013). Typically, the AAE value is close to 1 when light absorption is dominated by soot  
322 (Kirchstetter et al., 2004), roughly 1–3 for simulated biomass-burning aerosols (Hopkins et al., 2007),  
323 and up to 6–7 for water-soluble HULIS in biomass burning-impacted aerosols (Hoffer et al., 2006).



324 The AAE values of the WSOC and MSOC between 330 and 400 nm in this study were up to  $5.1 \pm 0.68$   
325 and  $5.2 \pm 0.94$  (Fig. 4), respectively, indicating strong wavelength dependence in the light absorption  
326 capability. These high values show that BrC tends to absorb more solar irradiation over ultraviolet  
327 wavelengths, which is comparable to BC absorption as shown in Fig. S12. These observations indicate  
328 that BrC has important impacts on photochemical reactions in the atmosphere (Barnard et al., 2008).  
329 The AAE values in this study are similar to those of water-soluble BrC over biomass burning-impacted  
330 regions, such as Beijing (Mo et al., 2018; Yan et al., 2015) and Guangzhou (Liu et al., 2018), but lower  
331 than those of aerosols from simulated biomass-burning and coal-combustion experiments (Fan et al.,  
332 2018; Tang et al., 2020a; Li et al., 2018). However, it should be noted that the BrC AAE varies in the  
333 atmosphere. Dasari et al. (2019) reported that AAE values of water-soluble BrC increase continuously  
334 due to photolysis of chromophores and atmospheric oxidation during long-range transport over the  
335 Indo-Gangetic Plain (IGP). In addition, pH changes can cause the absorption spectra of some BrC  
336 species to shift to longer wavelengths upon deprotonation, decreasing AAE values (Mo et al., 2017).



337  
338 **Figure 4.** Time series plots of Absorption Ångström exponent (AAE, a), the mass absorption efficiency at 365 nm  
339 ( $MAE_{365}$ , b) in the water-soluble organic carbon (WSOC) and methanol-soluble organic carbon (MSOC) in aerosols  
340 samples from Bangkok in Thailand during 2016–2017.



341 The MAE at 365 nm ( $MAE_{365}$ ) of the WSOC was  $0.83 \pm 0.25 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1} \text{ C}$ , which was higher than that  
342 of the MSOC ( $0.26 \pm 0.12 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1} \text{ C}$ ), indicating that more water-soluble BrC with stronger light  
343 absorption capability could be extracted with ultrapure deionized water, whereas water-insoluble BrC  
344 is characterized by lower light absorption capability over Bangkok. These results were consistent with  
345 those from vehicular exhaust samples in our previous study, where  $MAE_{365}$  values of the WSOC  
346 ( $0.71 \pm 0.30 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1} \text{ C}$ ) were higher than those of the MSOC ( $0.26 \pm 0.09 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1} \text{ C}$ ) (Tang et al., 2020b).  
347 Opposite results have been shown for primary biomass burning and coal combustion (Tang et al.,  
348 2020b). Wu et al. (2020b) reported that the MAE values of MSOC are higher than those of WSOC in  
349 summer, whereas the situation is reversed in winter. As not all water-insoluble components can be  
350 extracted with methanol, the observed light absorption by MSOC would therefore likely reflect the  
351 lower limit. Table S3 shows a comparison of the MAE values of Bangkok aerosols with those of other  
352 regions, indicating a medium light absorption capacity. The  $MAE_{365}$  values of the water-soluble  
353 fraction in this study were comparable to those of Nanjing (Chen et al., 2018), Guangzhou (Liu et al.,  
354 2018), and Beijing in summer (Yan et al., 2015), but lower than those of  $PM_{2.5}$  from Singapore (Adam  
355 et al., 2020),  $PM_{10}$  from Godavari, Nepal, in the pre-monsoon season (Wu et al., 2019), and smoke  
356 particles from biomass burning and coal combustion (Park and Yu, 2016; Fan et al., 2018; Tang et al.,  
357 2020b). Lower  $MAE_{365}$  values of both fractions were observed in the monsoon season than in the non-  
358 monsoon seasons, likely due to the heavy monsoon rains that effectively remove soluble gases and  
359 aerosols (Lawrence and Lelieveld, 2010) and/or reduce biomass-burning activity (levoglucosan level  
360 in Table 1). A previous study reported similar findings in the USA in that the  $MAE_{365}$  was  
361 approximately three-fold higher in biomass burning-impacted samples than in non-biomass burning-  
362 impacted samples (Hecobian et al., 2010). Another study in the central Tibetan Plateau highlighted that  
363 BrC emitted by biomass burning has stronger light absorption capability than does secondary BrC  
364 formed in the atmosphere (Wu et al., 2018). On the Indo-China peninsula, Bangkok receives 99%  
365 of the fire-derived aerosols from December to April (Lee et al., 2017), which may explain the high  
366 absorption levels in the non-monsoon seasons.

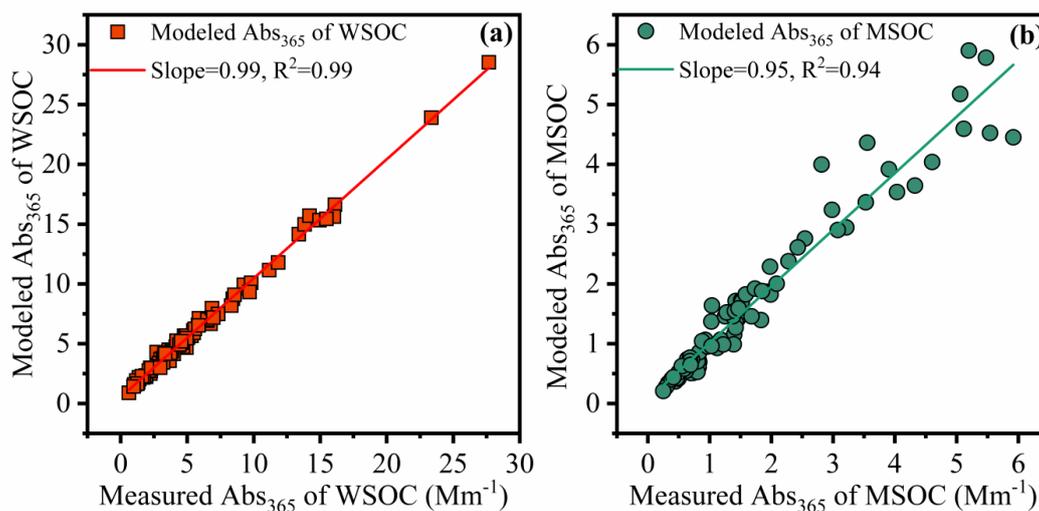
#### 367 **3.4. Chromophores responsible for BrC light absorption.**

368 EEM analysis enables the probing of the chemical structure of DOM because of its ability to  
369 distinguish among different classes of organic matter (Wu et al., 2003). Generally, BrC absorption is  
370 related to the chromophores within it and is susceptible to change with variations in chemical  
371 properties, e.g., oxidation level (Mo et al., 2018), degree of unsaturation (Jiang et al., 2020), molecular  
372 weight (Tang et al., 2020b; Di Lorenzo et al., 2017), functional groups (Chen et al., 2017b), molecular  
373 composition, etc (Song et al., 2019; Lin et al., 2018). The fluorescence intensity of each EEM



374 component was shown to be associated with light absorption indices, such as MAE<sub>365</sub> and AAE, of  
375 HULIS in controlled crop straw-combustion experiments (Huo et al., 2018). As a linear relationship  
376 between organic matter concentration and fluorescence intensity can be assumed for very dilute  
377 samples due to the IFE (Murphy et al., 2013), we have corrected our fluorescence data for IFE using  
378 absorbance to enable “clean ” correlation analysis (as shown in Fig. S13 a, b). The linear regression  
379 slopes in the scatter plots of Abs<sub>365</sub> versus WSOC or MSOC could mathematically represent the  
380 average MAE values of WSOC or MSOC at 365 nm, respectively (Fig. S11 a, b). The phenomenon  
381 indicates that both fluorescence and Abs<sub>365</sub> data point to similar relationships between sources or  
382 chemical processes with organic matter concentrations, and therefore, we attempted to link the  
383 fluorescence results to BrC absorption. It should be noted that light-absorbing substances in  
384 atmospheric particulate matter are not necessarily all fluorescent, such as nitrophenol compounds,  
385 which are a type of BrC commonly found in the atmospheric particulate matter; however, there is no  
386 strong fluorescence signal with which to scan the nitrophenol standards (Chen et al., 2019a).

387 We used MLR to explore the relationship between the fluorescence intensities of chromophores  
388 and Abs<sub>365</sub>. During MLR, insignificant fluorescent components were excluded from the regression  
389 using a stepwise screening process to avoid overfitting ( $F_{\text{inclusion}}: p < 0.05$ ;  $F_{\text{elimination}}: p > 0.10$ ). The  
390 MLR statistical metrics are listed in Tables S4 and S5. For the WSOC fraction, a revised model  
391 (regression 3) equation was used with an adjusted  $R^2$  of 0.995. The final optimized equations were  
392  $\text{Abs}_{365} = 0.765 \times P4 + 0.051 \times P2 + 0.091 \times P7$ , for the WSOC fraction, and  $\text{Abs}_{365} = 0.238 \times C4$  for  
393 the MSOC fraction (Table S5). The model errors for water-soluble and methanol-soluble Abs<sub>365</sub> were  
394  $-5.5\%$ – $64\%$  and  $-34\%$ – $58\%$ , respectively. The predicted Abs<sub>365</sub> values fit the measured values well  
395 (Fig. 5, slope = 0.99 and 0.95, and  $R^2 = 0.99$  and 0.94 for WSOC and MSOC, respectively).



396

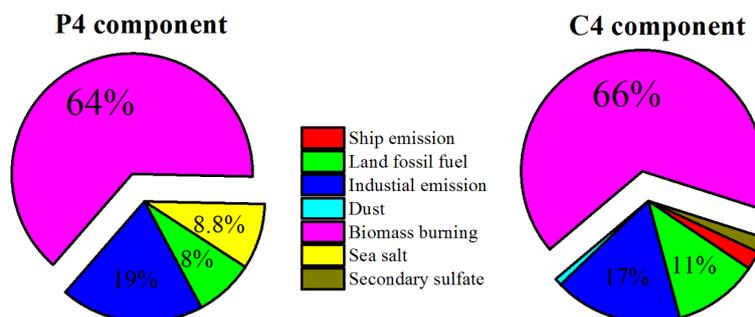
397 **Figure 5.** Linear correlation analysis between modeling Abs<sub>365</sub> using multiple linear regression (MLR) analysis and  
398 measured Abs<sub>365</sub> in the water-soluble organic carbon (WSOC, a) and methanol-soluble organic carbon (MSOC, b) in  
399 aerosols samples from Bangkok in Thailand during 2016–2017, respectively. Note that the fluorescent intensities of  
400 parallel factor (PARAFAC) model results (fluorescent components) were used as variables in MLR analysis.

401 For water-soluble BrC, the P4 component had the largest coefficient with Abs<sub>365</sub>, which was much  
402 higher than those for P2 and P7. The C4 component had the largest coefficient with Abs<sub>365</sub>  
403 for methanol-soluble BrC. These results indicate that the light absorption by BrC is more dependent on  
404 chromophores with longer emission wavelengths (P4 and C4). These characteristics also indicate that  
405 the strongly absorbing substances in BrC probably originate from large conjugated electron functional  
406 groups or include donor and acceptor molecules for charge-transfer interactions (Del Vecchio and  
407 Blough, 2004; Cory and McKnight, 2005). Kellerman et al. (2015) reported that these components are  
408 highly aromatic and oxygen-rich with high apparent molecular weight. These important findings  
409 highlight that larger chromophores may be the most persistent BrC species in the atmosphere and  
410 hence exert the greatest influence for perturbing the global radiative balance.

411 To further interpret the BrC source profiles as real-world TSP sources, we examined 84 (minus  
412 one missing value) TSP samples from Bangkok using the US EPA PMF5.0 model. All samples were  
413 merged together to form an 84 × 30 dataset (84 samples with 30 species). The initial data of positive  
414 matrix factorization input were from our previous study (Wang et al., 2020a). We further added Abs<sub>365</sub>  
415 values of WSOC and MSOC, and the fluorescence intensities (in RU) of P2, P4, P7, and C4  
416 components to the model. A seven-factor solution was achieved that provided the most physically  
417 reasonable source profiles (Fig. S14), including ship emission, secondary sulfate, dust, land fossil-fuel  
418 combustion, sea salt, biomass burning, and industrial emission, consistent with our previous study



419 (Wang et al., 2020a). Figure S14 also shows the contributions of the above sources to light absorption  
420 at  $\lambda = 365$  nm, which represent the fraction of BrC for each factor. Biomass burning was found to be  
421 the main source of BrC over Bangkok; 61% and 67% for water-soluble and methanol-soluble BrC,  
422 respectively. These were comparable to previous observations using a similar approach in Xi'an (55%)  
423 (Wu et al., 2020a). Furthermore, the P4 and C4 components, which were more closely associated with  
424  $Abs_{365}$ , could be mostly attributed to biomass burning (64% and 66%, respectively) as shown in Fig.  
425 6. Our previous study showed that biomass burning accounted for a considerably large portion (mean:  
426 26%) of the TSP mass concentration in the same samples (Wang et al., 2020a). This result suggests  
427 that biomass burning makes a significant contribution to not only particulate matter but also BrC light  
428 absorption.



429

430 **Figure 6.** Positive matrix factorization derived source apportionment of chromophores P4 of the WSOC and C4 of  
431 the MSOC in TSP samples over Bangkok in Thailand during 2016–2017.

#### 432 4. Conclusions

433 This study presents a comprehensive analysis of water- and methanol-soluble chromophores in  
434 aerosol samples over Bangkok in Thailand during 2016–2017. EEM combining with PARAFAC  
435 analysis showed that the identified fluorescent components were humic-like and protein-like  
436 substances but different patterns in the WSOC and MSOC, indicating different chemical compositions.  
437 By adding three-source fluorescence into the original PARAFAC model, we found that chromophores  
438 with longer emission wavelengths in the atmosphere may be due to atmospheric chemical reactions or  
439 “aging” by both bleaching the source chromophores or producing new chromophores. We also suggest  
440 that caution is required when using fluorescence indices to appoint source of atmospheric  
441 chromophores. In addition, more water-soluble BrC with stronger light absorption capability could be  
442 extracted with ultrapure deionized water over Bangkok ( $0.83 \pm 0.25$  vs.  $0.26 \pm 0.12$   $m^2$   $g^{-1}$  C), and both  
443 water-soluble and methanol-soluble BrC exhibited a high light-absorption in non-monsoon seasons  
444 due to the influence of biomass burning. The MLR analysis showed that both the light absorption of



445 BrC at 365 nm in the two fractions was significantly dependent on the special chromophores with  
446 longer emission wavelength that are generally highly aromatic and oxygen-rich with high apparent  
447 molecular weight. Positive matrix factorization model results further showed that biomass burning was  
448 main contributor of these chromophores (up to 60%). In summary, this study provides a new insight  
449 into BrC absorption and sources, which may promote the application of EEM spectroscopy to predict  
450 and model the light absorption of BrC in the atmosphere.

451 *Data availability.* The data used in this study are available upon request. Please contact Guangcai  
452 Zhong ([gczhong@gig.ac.cn](mailto:gczhong@gig.ac.cn)).

453 *Supplement.* The supplement related to this article is available.

454 *Author contributions.* JT, GZ, JL, and GZ (Guangcai Zhong) designed the experiment. JT and JW  
455 carried out the measurements and analyzed the data. JW and SB organized and performed the  
456 samplings. JT (Jianhui Tang) supported the fluorescence instruments and laboratory. CT and HJ  
457 supported the models. JT wrote the paper. JL, GZ (Guangcai Zhong), YC, YM, BZ, XG, and GZ  
458 reviewed and commented on the paper.

459 *Competing interests.* The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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