1	Measurement Report: An Exploratory Study of Fluorescence and CCN Activity of	
2	Urban Aerosols in San Juan, Puerto Rico	
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18	Abstract	
10	Many atmospheric acrossle are cloud condensation nuclei (CCN), conchis of activating as	
19	cloud droplets when the relative humidity exceeds 100% Many types of atmospheric serosals	Formatted: Font: (Default) Times New Roman, 12 pt
20	cloud drophets when the relative humidity exceeds 100%, what types of atmospheric acrosses	
21	biological corosel particles (PRAP) such as plant apores pollon or basteria have been	
22	identified as such CCN. Likken environments are a source of these bioserescale, these thet are	
23	identified as such CCN. Orban environments are a source of these bioaerosois, those that are	
24	naturally produced by the local flora, or are transported from surrounding regions, and others	
25	that are a result of numan activities. In the latter case, open sewage, uncovered garbage, mold	
26	or other products of such activities can be a source of PBAPs. There have been relatively few	
27	studies, especially in the tropics, where PBAPs and CCN have been simultaneously studied to	
28	establish a causal link between the two. The metropolis of San Juan, Puerto Rico is one such	
29	urban area with a population of 2,448,000 people-(as of 2020). To better understand the	

fluorescent characteristics and cloud forming efficiency of aerosols in this region, measurements with a Wideband Integrated Bioaerosol Spectrometer (WIBS), a condensing condensation_nuclei (CN) counter, and a CCN spectrometer were made at the University of Puerto Rico – Rio Piedras Campus. Results show that the CCN/CN activation ratio and the fraction of fluorescing aerosol particles (FAP) have repetitive daily trends when the FAP fraction is positively correlated with relative humidity and negatively correlated with wind speed, consistent with previous studies of fungi spores collected on substrates.

The results from this pilot study highlight the capabilities of ultraviolet-induced fluorescence (UV-IF) measurements for characterizing the properties of FAP as they relate to the daily evolution of PBAPs. The use of multiple excitation and emission wavelengths, along with shape detection, allows the differentiation of different PBAP types. These measurements, evaluated with respect to previous, substrate-based analysis of the local fungal and pollen spores, have established a starting-preliminary database of measurements that future, longer term studies will build upon.

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62 **1 Introduction:**

The formation and evolution of clouds over the tropical island of Puerto Rico have been studied 63 64 over the course of many years, primarily with respect to the sources of cloud condensation 65 nuclei (CCN). Puerto Rico has been the site of these studies because of its the fair-weather, 66 maritime flow and mostly clean atmosphere that leads to a mountaintop cloud that forms quite 67 frequently throughout the year and can persist for several days (Allan et al., 2008; Gioda et al., 2013; Spiegel et al., 2014; Valle-Díaz, et al., 2016; Raga et al., 2016; Torres Delgado, 2021). 68 69 In addition to the clean, maritime sources, the cloud studies have also identified particles produced from upwind-urban areas, both-locally on the island of Puerto Rico and upwindas 70 well asfrom islands to the east, where vehicular and other industrial emissions produced 71 72 anthropogenic particles with organic carbon and sulfates sulfate compounds (Allan et al., 73 2008). Apart from this, clouds and rainwater in this region are influenced by long-range 74 transported natural aerosols-, e.g., African dust, which is also potentially an important source 75 of CCN, although the results are not conclusive as to how much cloud properties differ in the 76 presence of these particles (Spiegel et al., 2014; Valle-Díaz, et al., 2016; Raga et al., 2016; 77 Torres Delgado, 2021). 78 Airborne, primary biological aerosol particles (PBAP) are an important type of aerosol in the 79 tropics (Gabey et al., 2010, 2013; Stanley et al., 2011) that can encompass viruses (0.01-0.3µm), pollen (5-100 µm), bacteria and bacteria agglomerates (0.1-10 µm), and fungal spores 80

(1-30 µm), as well as mechanically formed particles, such as dead tissue and plant debris
(Finnelly et al., 2017). Furthermore, there is evidence that PBAP may influence the
hydrological cycle and climate by initiating the ice nucleation process or acting as giant CCN
(Möhler et al., 2007; Pope, 2010). <u>Although bBioaerosols contribute a relatively small fraction</u>
(50 Tg yr⁻¹) of the total natural global emissions (~2900-13000 Tg yr⁻¹) (Hoose et al., 2010;

Stocker et al., 2013)-; Hhowever, their mass and number concentrations are site specific and
 greatly vary depending upon the location and climatic conditions (references therein-Zhang et

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88 al., 2021 and references therein). In terrestrial ecosystems, bioaerosols constitute a major 89 fraction, up to 30%, of total aerosol loadnumber concentration. As far as urban and rural 90 atmosphere are concern, bioaerosols of size greater of coarse mode particles larger, i.e., those 91 than -> 1 µm may account for around 30%-(references therein-Fröhlich-Nowoisky et al., 2016). There is additional evidence where that bioaerosol may constitute a significant this number 92 fraction (5-50%) is even larger in the urban air (Jaenicke, 2005). Upon emission from the 93 biosphere, PBAP undergoes various physico-chemical changes (coagulation, photooxidation, 94 95 surface coating, etc.) and are removed through dry and wet deposition. These large PBAPThe 96 reference to giant CCN has now been expanded upon to explain that giant CCN play a special 97 role in precipitation development as giant CCN because they can formactivate as larger droplets 98 that more easily collide and coalesce to form raindrops. Hence, although small in number concentration, they make up for in-their size and capacity to contribute to early precipitation 99 100 development make PBAP potentially significant aerosols that impact the hydrological cycle. In general, biological aerosol particles, until recently, have received less attention in the 101 102 atmospheric science community for lack of appropriate equipment and the associated 103 measurements are expensive, labor intensive and often difficult to interpret (Cziczo et al., 2006; 104 Drewnick et al., 2008). 105 Puerto Rico is characterized by tropical climate, urban land cover and use, moist soils, unique 106 topography, and dense vegetation. These factors, associated with the easterly trade winds from 107 the East, could-influence the concentration properties of airborne atmospheric particles, for 108 examples, organic particles, viruses, bacteria, fungi, pollen, etc. (Velázquez-Lozada et al. 109 2006). NeverthelessIn addition, meteorological variables (high humidity and wind 110 speed)meteorology, i.e. humidity, temperature and winds, has an important role, especially are 111 also the important factors, influencing the airborne particle population in the tropics, including 112 during the rainy season when fungal spores are predominantly released.s. There are various 113 sources of particulate matter degrading tThe air quality of Puerto Rico, i.e., from-suffers at 114 times as a result of industrialanthropogenic activities, anthropogenic inputs, African 115 temperatures dust storms and volcanic eruptions on nearby islands. Emissions from The urban 116 areas of Puerto Rico are considered developed with industrial growth, most of which is related 117 toto the local pharmaceutical and power generation plants. The power generation plants are

120 phthalates, siloxanes, and other) including plasticizer released into the atmosphere, which

118 119 responsible for releasing millions of pounds of air pollutant annually (Torro-Heredia et al.,

2020). Data show thatas well as a large number of organic compounds (e.g., n-alkanes, esters,

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121 could pose major health threat in this area (Torro-Heredia et al., 2020). Puerto Rico has 122 abundant plant life, e.g., a wide variety of trees, flowers, mosses and other types of flora; hence, 123 an open question is if fungal or pollen spores produced from these plants might serve as CCN. 124 The bioaerosol population in on the island of Puerto Rico, and in particular in the capital city 125 of San Juan, has been studied extensively using analysis of substrates samples (Quintero et al., 2010; Rivera-Mariani et al., 2011; Rivera-Mariani et al., 2020). The objective of the majority 126 of these studies has been to evaluate the health effects of fungal and pollen spores on the local 127 128 population (Quintero et al., 2010; Rivera-Mariani et al., 2011; Ortiz-Martínez et al., 2015; 129 Rivera-Mariani et al., 2020). The studies by Quintero et al (2010) are particularly interesting 130 with respectrelevant to the investigation reported here because they classified a wide variety of 131 fungal and pollen spores that were the most responsible for respiratory ailments of suffered by 132 the residents of San Juan. In addition, they could link the relative number concentration of these 133 spores to meteorological factors-(e.g., like relative humidity and wind speed). Hence, gGiven 134 that their these prior studies indicated demonstrated that bioaerosols are a significant 135 contributor to the aerosol population in Puerto Rico, and that other studies have studied the 136 role of marine aerosol and anthropogenic CCN in cloud formation over the island, the question 137 arises if bioaerosol might also be an important source of CCN in this tropical region. not only 138 produced in large quantities throughout the year, and highly correlated to local meteorology, it 139 is reasonable to investigate if these types of bioaerosols might also be correlated with CCN 140 measurements if such particles are hygroscopic and can easily form water droplets under the 141 right conditions.

Prior to embarking on a longer-term project that willto evaluate PBAPs and CCN₁ under a wide
range of conditions, a pilot study was designed<u>and</u> to conduct executed to <u>an exploratory</u>
investigation<u>investigate</u> of the properties of bioaerosols and CCN during September 2019.
September was selected because not only did the Quintero et al. (2010) results show that this
time of the year is when peak concentrations of <u>bioaerosol</u> spores are found, it is also a month
of frequent cloud formation.

In order to identify the PBAP and investigate their potential sources, we used a realtime,
particle by particle approach rather than a methodology that requires capturing particles for
offline analysis. There has been e<u>C</u>onsiderable progress <u>has been</u> made in the development of
technologies based on the working principle of ultraviolet light-induced fluorescence (UV-LIF)
(Ho, 1999; Huffman and Santarpia, 2017) for identifying PBAP that fluoresce when excited at
<u>UV wavelengths</u>. The Wideband Integrated Bioaerosol Spectrometer (WIBS) and the

154 Ultraviolet Aerodynamic Particle Sizer (UV-APS) are examples of such instruments that can 155 detect PBAP by their fluorescence, in real time, measure particle by particle, the optical properties of individual particles over a moderately large wide size range (Savage et al., 2017). 156 157 The WIBS and the UV-APS have been used in atmospheric bioaerosol studies such as the ice 158 nucleation activity of bioaerosol (Twohy et al., 2016), measurement of atmospheric-fungal spore concentrations (Gosselin et al., 2016), and investigation of long-range transported 159 160 bioaerosol in the tropics (Gabey et al., 2010; Whitehead et al., 2016) and at-high altitudes 161 (Gabey et al., 2013). The WIBS is a three channel LIF instrumentwas developed by the 162 University of Hertfordshire and manufactured-commercialized by Droplet Measurement 163 Technologies, LLC-available with different versions (e.g., WIBS 4A and WIBS NEO) of 164 slightly different optical and electronic configuration (Gabey et al. 2010; Perring et al. 2015). 165 In parallel with the WIBS measurements, of fluorescent aerosol particles (FAP), the CCN and 166 condensation nuclei (CN) number concentrations were also measured in order to determine 167 what fraction of the total particle population was composed of CCN and FAPsto investigate 168 the links between fluorescing aerosol particles (FAP), used here as proxies for bioaerosols, cloud forming particles and the total aerosol population, represented here by the CCN and CN 169 170 measurements, respectively.

The primary objectives of this exploratory<u>pilot</u> study are to <u>1</u>) <u>evaluate the physical</u> properties<u>measure the number concentrations</u> of CN, CCN and FAP, <u>2</u>) <u>investigate identify</u> correlations between CCN and FAP, <u>3</u>) analyze trends related to meteorological factors, and <u>4</u>) compare the FAP measurements with those from previous studies that documented fungal and pollen spores using off-line analyses.

176 2 Measurement and analysis methodology

177 2.1 Measurement site and experimental setup

178 The measurement siteCN, CCN and FAP measurements were made (Fig. 1a) is at the Facundo 179 Bueso (FB) building on the University of Puerto Rico, Rio Piedras (UPR-RP) Campus 180 (18°24'6.4"N, 66°03'6.5"W, 6 m a.m.s.l., .). and for the airborne The spores were collected 181 using the Hirst-type Burkard sampler (Burkard Scientific Ltd, Uxbridge, UK). located on the rooftop of the Medical Sciences Campus (MSC) of the University of Puerto Rico (18°23'48" 182 183 N, 66°4'30" W, 60 m a.m.s.l). both The university is located in the capital city of San Juan, 184 which is the urban capital of Puerto Rico (pop. 2,448,000). Moreover, the measurement sites 185 are located at the center of the San Juan city (which covers an area of 199 km²), a clear

186	representative of typical urban atmosphere. San Juan has a tropical climate, receiving a
187	significant amount of with an annual rainfall (of 4.22107+1.3 in 33 mm) throughout the year.
188	The FB site is surrounded by The particles sampled at the measurement sites arrive from various
189	sources, primarily of emission such asfrom residential cooking, roadway traffic, and
190	vegetation. Because of the urban location, aerosol emissions from roadway traffic and nearby
191	residences contribute significantly to the total aerosol number concentrations at the site.



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 Figure 1. (a) Sampling location in the FB building of UPR-RP (b) experimental setup comprising the eloud

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 <u>Cloud_condensation_Condensation_nuclei_Nuclei_counter (CCN), condensation_Condensation_particle</u>

 195
 <u>Particle counter (CPC), and the wideband_Wideband integrated bioacrosol Bioacrosol</u>

 196
 <u>sensor_Spectrometer (WIBS). This figure was generated using © Google Earth Pro 7.3.</u>

197 <u>2.2 Instrumentation</u>

198 Sampling was performed for eight consecutive days (September 16-23, 2019). Themeasurement setup consisted of two diffusion dryers (TSI model 3062) connected in series, a 199 200 cloud_Cloud_condensation_Condensation_nuclei_Nuclei_counter_Counter_(CCN-100, Droplet 201 Measurement Technologies), a cCondensation particle Particle counter (CPC, TSI model 3772), and a wideband Wideband integrated Integrated bioaerosol Bioaerosol sensor 202 203 Spectrometer (WIBS-NEO, Droplet Measurement Technologies) (Fig. 1b). Atmospheric 204 aerosol-The samples were aspirated drawn from the exterior through the sidewall of the laboratory (~3 m above the ground) with conductive tubing (1/4" internal diameter and 1 m 205 length). The aerosols were dried as they passed through two diffusion dryers (< 10% RH) 206

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207 containing silica gel and then continued on to abefore entering a manifold connected to the 208 WIBS, CCN100, and CPC₂ which sampled at flow rates of 0.3, 0.5, and 1 L min⁻¹, respectively. 209 Particle losses due to sedimentation, diffusion, and inertial separation along the sampling lines 210 were calculated for each of the instruments (Kulkarni et al., 2011). The particle sampling 211 efficiency efficiencies with respect to particle size is are shown in the Supplement (Fig. S1). 212 The sampling efficiency calculated for the particle size range 0.1-3 µm is greater than 80 %. 213 %, decreasing to 60% However, the sampling efficiency is reduced greatly for particle sizes 214 above 3 µm. The experimental setup allows WIBS NEO to receive particles up to 6 µm with 215 more than 60% efficiency. at larger sizes. Due to calculation uncertainties, we have chosen 216 not to correct the data for these estimated losses because we are interested in the relative 217 changes in the size distributions with respect to time and meteorology. At this time there have 218 been no corrections applied for these losses. The WIBS NEO, like all single particle, optical 219 spectrometers, measures what is designated an "derives an equivalent optical diameter (EOD)" 220 from the light scattered by individual particles that pass through a focused laser beam. The 221 thatEOD is defined as the size of a particle scattering the equivalent intensity of light as a 222 spherical particle with known refractive index. Given that bioaerosols, dust and other types of 223 environmental aerosols are not spherical, and their refractive index is unknown, the geometric 224 size can be estimate to, at best, $\pm 20\%$, hence relative size is more relevant than absolute size 225 Therefore Tthe absolute size of the particles is not a factor in our current analysis.

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227 2.2 Instrumentation

228 The CCN-100 used in this study is a continuous-flow, thermal-gradient, diffusion chamber that 229 measures the concentration of aerosols activated as cloud droplets as a function of 230 supersaturation (SS). Aerosol samples are drawn into a 50 cm tall column (inner diameter 2.3 231 cm) whose inner walls are saturated with water. A series of heaters along the column are 232 controlled to maintain a temperature gradient from coolercolder to warmer temperatures as the 233 particles move down the column. Since water vapor from the wetted column diffuses to the 234 particles faster than the heat, a supersaturated condition is maintained that is determined by the 235 temperature gradient and flow rateA series of heaters are controlled to maintain a temperature 236 gradient from cooler to warmer as the particles move down the chamber. The difference in 237 diffusion rates between heat and water vapor creates a supersaturated environment at the 238 centerline of the cylinder. Those aerosol particles that can activate as a cloud droplets at the

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Formatted: Font: (Default) Times New Roman, 12 pt Formatted: Font: (Default) Times New Roman, 12 pt Formatted: Font: (Default) Times New Roman, 12 pt 239 constant SS in the chamber will begin growinggrow as the water molecules diffuse to the 240 particle surfaces. and at the downstream of the column, aAn optical particle counter measures 241 the number size distribution of the cloud droplets within the size range of $0.75-10 \,\mu m$ as the 242 activated droplets exit the chamber. For more an in depthThe detailed description of the 243 operating principles and calibration procedures the reader is directed to the paper byare 244 described by Roberts and Nenes (2005). In our study, the supersaturation (SS) was maintained 245 at 0.3%, a SS that is in the range of what would be encountered in convective clouds similar to those that form over the island of Puerto Rico (Duan et al., 2012: Uin et al., 2016). 246

To measure the <u>The</u> total concentration of environmental particles > 0.01 μ m we usedwere measured with a the butanol based, condensation particle counter (CPC, model 3772 TSI)<u>CPC</u> where the aerosol sample is drawn continuously through a heated saturator in which butanol vapor diffuses into the aerosol stream. An external vacuum pump was used to draw the aerosol samples at 1 L min⁻¹. This CPC employs a single particle count mode to measure the particle number concentrations up to 10⁷ L⁻¹ at an accuracy ±10%. The detailed design and working principle of the CPC are described by Stolzenburg and McMurry (1991).

254 The WIBS measures the fluorescent characteristics of aerosols using ultraviolet, light-induced fluorescence (UV-LIF) (Kaye et al., 2005; Stanley et al., 2011). This instrument provides 255 detailed information on fluorescing bioaerosols on a single particle basis. The detection 256 principles of the WIBS are discussed elsewhere (Kaye et al., 2005) and briefly described here. 257 258 Atmospheric particles are drawn into the WIBS via a laminar flow delivery system and pass 259 through the path of the beam a continuous-wave diode laser (635 nm), which acts as a source 260 for particle sizing and shape detection. The total flow is approximately 2.4 L min⁻¹ of which 2.1 L min⁻¹ is introduced in the form of sheath flow (i.e., filtered air) and 0.3 L min⁻¹ is sample 261 flow to maintain the particle alignment with the 635 nm laser. The forward scattering of the 262 263 light is detected by a quadrant photomultiplier tube (PMT) and is used to determine the asphericity factor (AF) of the particles, which roughly estimates the shape of the particles 264 265 (Gabey et al., 2010). Experimental evidence shows that the AF is near zero for a perfectly 266 spherical particle, while it approaches 100 for a fiber or rod-like aerosol-particle (Kaye et al., 267 2007; Gabey et al., 2010). The scattered light scattered from the diode laser is used to activate, 268 sequentially, two Xenon lamps that are filtered to illuminate the particles with UV light at 280 269 nm and 370 nm light, respectively. The wavelengths were specifically selected to excite 270 fluorescence in particles containing tryptophan (280 nm) and nicotinamide adenine 271 dinucleotide (NADH, 370 nm). There could be numerous molecules that can be excited by

272 fluorescent light. For examples Examples of -molecules containing tryptophan or NADH such 273 asare proteins, vitamins, large polymers, molecules having conjugated double bonds, 274 heterocyclic aromatic compounds, particularly when nitrogenous substituents are present. 275 Tryptophan is an amino acid that has the highest (~ 90%) fluorescence in the native protein. 276 Nicotinamide Adenine Dinucleotide Phosphate (NAPDH) is one of the major contributors to 277 the fluorescence signal when attached to the protein molecule and is produced widely in the 278 metabolic cell. The fluorescence from the 280 and 370 nm excitations-is recorded by the PMT 279 detectors, one that is filtered for at 310-400 nm emissions and the other for and 420-650 nm. 280 Hence, when a particle is excited at either of the incident wavelengths, there are four possible 281 responses: 1) no fluorescence is detected, 2) when excited at 280 nm the particle fluoresces at 282 a wavelength in the 310-400 nm waveband (FL1), 3) when excited at 280 nm the particle fluoresces at a wavelength in the 420-650 nm waveband (FL2), or 4) when excited at 370 nm 283 the particle fluoresces at a wavelength in the 420-650 nm waveband (FL3). The fluorescence 284 characteristics of an individual particle are determined in any of the three fluorescence channels 285 286 when its fluorescence emission intensity exceeds a baseline threshold. The baseline threshold 287 is determined using the approach by Perring et al. (2015) that incorporates the daily data sets to remove background artifacts. Particles that exhibit fluorescence lower than the baseline 288 threshold were treated as non-fluorescent particles. A particle that fluoresces when excited by 289 either of the xenon lamps may also produce emissions in both the 310-400 and 420-650 290 291 wavelength; hence, from the FL1, FL2 and FL3 signals there are seven possible combinations, 292 generally accepted by the WIBS community, that have been are designated fluorescence types 293 A, B, C, AB, AC, BC, and ABC (Perring et al., 2015). Types A, B and C refer to particles that 294 fluoresce only in FL1, FL2 and FL3. The other four types are the respective combinations of the A, B, and C. 295

It should be noted that the A and C channels types are highly sensitive to fluorescent bioaerosol 296 297 particles whereas the B channel is cross sensitive to non-biological aerosols like certain organic 298 compounds (Gabey, 2011). Using the fluorescence data for single particles from these three 299 individual channels, the FAP can be characterized and discriminated from non-biological 300 aerosol particles. Based on the above description, the WIBS records the optical sizeEOD, 301 particle asphericity factor (AF), fluorescent excitation-emission matrix and the total number 302 concentration (NWIBS), which includes non-fluorescing, and total FAP on single particle mode collected within the size range from 0.5 to 30 μ m. Before deployment, the WIBS was factory 303

calibrated for the size, sphericity and fluorescence using reference fluorescent polystyrene latexspheres which are traceable to National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST).

306 Note, it is important to emphasize that although the WIBS was designed to detect fluorescence from biological particles, it is unable to unequivocally differentiate what type of bioaerosol 307 fluoresced, e.g., if the particle was bacteria, fungus, or pollen. There are a number of studies, 308 such as those by Hernandez et al. (2016), that have used the WIBS in laboratory studies to 309 characterize a variety of species of bacteria, fungi, and pollen. Such studies have shown that 310 these three types of bioaerosols fall in general categories of size and fluorescence type. These 311 312 categories will be discussed further on in this paper in the context of comparing the FAP characteristics in San Juan to those reported in controlled laboratory experiments. 313

The CPC measurements, taken at 1 Hz,<u>All measurementsfrom the three instruments</u> are averaged to <u>over</u> five minutes intervals for comparison with the WIBS and CCN measurements that are also averaged in five minute intervals. In addition, the particle by particle (PbP) data from the WIBS are used to create size distributions and analyze derive fluorescence properties and interrelationships in greater detail.

319 2.3. Fungal spore data

The fungal spore data were obtained from the department of Microbiology of the Medical 320 321 Sciences Campus of the University of Puerto Rico. The enumeration of outdoor spores used 322 the 12-traverse methodology proposed by the British Aerobiology Federation (Caulton and Lacey, 1995). Airborne spores were collected using a volumetric Hirst-type sampler, 323 324 specifically a Burkard (Burkard Scientific Ltd, Uxbridge, UK). This equipment was located on the rooftop of the Medical Sciences Campus of the University of Puerto Rico, 30 meters above 325 ground level. The Burkard 24-hr trapping system worked continuously with an intake of 10 326 327 liters of air/minL min⁻¹. Fungal sSpores were impacted on a microscopic slide coated with a 328 thin layer of 2% silicon grease as a the trapping surface. The slides was were changed daily and mounted on polyvinyl alcohol (PVA) mounting media for microscopic examination. 329 Counting was done on each preparation along 12 traverse fields every 2 hours for a total of 12 330 331 hours on the longitudinal traverses. Spores were identified based on their morphological 332 differences (Quintero et al. 2010). The identification was performed by means of a bright-field optical microscope NIKON Eclipse 80i microscope (Nikon Manufacturing), using a 333 334 magnification of 1000X.

335 2.4. Meteorological data

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Hourly meteorological data e.g., temperature (C), relative humidity (RH, %), wind speed (WS,
m/s) and wind direction (Degree) were provided by the department of natural science taken
from a weather station that is located around -800 m away from the aerosol instrumentation.

339 2.5. Air mass back trajectories

Twenty-four-hour air mass back trajectories, ending at 100 m above mean sea level, were
obtained from the Hybrid Single Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory Model (GDAS, 1degree resolution, HYSPLIT) to identify the possible aerosol source of the aerosols.

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344 3 Results and Discussion

345 **3.1 Time series of the particle number concentrations**

346 Figure 2a shows the temporal pattern of trends in particle number concentrations of CN, CCN 347 (at 0.3% SS) and N_{WIBS} (0.5 - 30 µm) averaged in 10-minute intervals. The average particle 348 number concentration measured by the CPC was $(3\pm1)\times10^6$ L⁻¹. This value is higher than the CN number concentrations reported previously at other more remote locations on the island, 349 such as at the northeast coastal site of the Cabezas de San Juan nature reserve and at the Pico 350 351 del Este, in El Yunque National Forest, where the CN concentrations were $(9\pm5)\times10^5$ and 352 (11.6±3)×10⁵ L⁻¹, respectively, both as reported by Allan et al. (2008). The differences in CN 353 concentrations are primarily related to the geographical locations- and average climatic 354 conditions of the other regions discussed. The university measurement site (Facundo Bueso) is 355 an urban location influenced by anthropogenic emissions from vehicular traffic, vegetation, 356 and other human activities such as heating and cooking. Thewhereas the Cabezas de San Juan 357 is a remote coastal location where the atmosphere is relatively clean, influenced by marine 358 aerosols or long-range transported aerosols. The Pico del Este (East Peak) is a mountainous 359 region that has a significant influence of aerosol from the nearby vegetation and from particles 360 transported from marine boundary layer. The CN concentrations show systematic, daily trends 361 that reflect the emissions from motorized vehicle traffic and nearby residential heating and 362 cooking. The CN concentrations show systematic, daily trends that reflect the motorized vehicle 363 traffic and nearby residential emissions, the latter mostly from cooking. The mean CCN 364 concentration of (1.5±0.5)×10⁵ L⁻¹ is about 20 times lower than the CN, i.e. only about 5% of the measured aerosol particles would activate as cloud droplets at a SS of 0.3%. This 365 366 impliessuggesting that particles over the site are mostly non-hygroscopic or of low

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367 hygroscopicity, as would be expected of particles with anthropogenic origin, e.g., organic or
 368 black carbon.

The number concentrations of N_{WIBS} and FAP were $(7.3\pm5)\times10^4$ and $(5\pm3)\times10^3$ L⁻¹, respectively, which are approximately 40 and 600 times lower than the CN concentrations. Given the differences in the lower size thresholds for the CPC and WIBS with respect to the

372 smallest detectable particle, 10 nm for the CPC and 500 nm for the CPC and WIBS,

373 <u>respectively</u>, this implies that about 98% of the particles are smaller than 500 nm. The FAP

374 concentrations showed a systematic, daily cycle where nighttime particle concentrations were

relatively higher than during the daytime, this <u>This trend</u> is being driven primarily by the <u>FAP</u>

type ABC FAPs, as illustrated in Fig. 2b where the type ABC these concentrations are mostly

much higher than <u>the</u> other <u>six</u> types. The types AB and AC concentrations have trends similar

to the type ABC, although their absolute magnitudes are much lower.









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In the time series of number concentrations in Fig. 2 there are what appear to be periodicities 384 in the CN, CCN and FAP. This periodicity is seen more clearly in the concentrations averaged 385 by the time of the day (over the whole measurement period) as shown in Figs. 3a and 3b. Figure 386 387 3a highlights the diel trend in CN concentration (black curve) that begins increasing at 4 am, reaches an initial peak at 7 am, is followed by then a second peak four hours later at 11 am, 388 389 local time. then begins decreasing the remainder of the day. The CCN measurements show a 390 trend of increasing concentrations early in the morning but does not start its rapid increase until 391 midday peak, then it begins increasing until reaching its peak around 4 pm, five hours after the CN peak. Prior to the afternoon peak, there are smaller peaks that occur at 2 am and 8 392 393 amconcentrations (blue curve) have morning peaks at 4 and 9 am followed by a peak of much 394 higher magnitude at 4 pm. The CCN concentration shows an increasing trend early in the 395 morning but doesn't start its rapid increase until midday when it begins increasing until 396 reaching its peak around 4 pm, five hours after the peak in the CN. The Nwills and FAP

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concentrations are drawn in magenta and green, respectively. The N_{WIBS} (magenta) shows an 397 398 increase in the morning with first peaks at an initial peak at 7 am, similar to the CN; however, 399 these concentrations then decrease until peaking again in the late afternoon, followed by a 400 second maximum an hour after the CCN peak. The average FAP concentrations remain elevated between midnight and 6 am, after which they decrease by about 30% and remain fairly 401 402 constant the remainder of the day. The FAP are dominated by the Type ABC particles in the 403 morning hours where their concentrations are four times larger than all other types, as shown 404 in Fig. 3b.



Figure 3. (a) Hourly concentrations of CN (black curve) and CCN at 0.3% supersaturation (solid blue
curve), N_{WIBS} (magenta) and FAP (green) concentrations. (b) Hourly concentrations of the seven types of
FAP.

409

41	0	Figure 3b displays the hourly behavior over the averaged, 24 hour period of the seven types of
41	1	FAP. For all of the types except the AC and ABC, the FAPs remain relatively constant
41	2	throughout the day. The types AC and ABC are elevated in concentration between midnight
41	.3	and around 6 am, both about a factor of three higher during those hours than during the

414 remainder of the day. Although the types AC and ABC follow the same trend, the type ABC is

415 about 50 times larger and dominates the FAPs during those hours. During the remainder of the

416 day, the types A, B and C are approximately equal in concentration. All other FAP types remain

417 approximately constant through-out the day except for the Type AC, which follows the trend

418 <u>of the Type ABC, but at significantly lower concentrations.</u>

419 **3.2** Temporal trends of the particle size distribution

Figure 4 shows the size distributions of total (Fig. 4a) and FAP (Fig. 4b) number concentrations 420 421 measured from September 16 to September 23, averaged in 10-minute intervals. The color 422 scale is the log of the concentration. The white curves are the average median volume diameters 423 for the total (Fig. 4a) and FAP (Fig. 4b). The total number size distributions show an irregular 424 trend of increasing concentrations over all sizes, usually occurring around midday on all days 425 except on the day of the year (DOY) 264 when the size distributions remain approximately the 426 same throughout the day. In contrast, the FAP size distributions have a more regular, daily 427 pattern whereby the concentrations increase over all sizes to a maximum between midnight and 428 6 am. This reflects a similar trend that was illustrated in the daily FAP concentrations in Fig. 429 <u>3a.</u>





435 The daily trends of the size distributions of the seven different types of fluorescent particles are shown in the Supplement (Fig. S2). where we observe that ABC and AB types were 436 437 dominant at the site with a unique and systematic diel cycle. Reflecting the behavior of the total concentrations in Fig. 3b, the average EODs of ABC and AB type particles increase at night 438 when the particle size grows to >4 μ m by midnight. Fluorescent type A does not show any 439 specific temporal trend while types B and C have periods when the concentrations increase 440 over all sizes but do not follow the trends of the ABC and AB types particles. The type BC and 441 442 AC particle concentrations are much lower than the other types.

443

The increases in the modal diameter from daytime to nighttime, seen in the Supplement (Fig. 444 445 S2), particularly for the types AB, AC and ABC, was further investigated by comparing the size distributions averaged at night and in the daytime. We have plotted the particle size 446 447 distributions for these three FAP types (Fig. 5), averaging from noon to 6 pm (red shading) and from midnight to 6 am (blue shading) over the whole measurement period (DOY 259-266). 448 These two periods represent time intervals when the number concentrations and average sizes 449 exhibit the largest differences. All three FAP types show a shift towards larger sizes from 450 daytime to nighttime; however, the type ABC particles have the most distinctive shifts (Fig. 451 5c), indicative of both a general increase in concentration over all sizes but with a very clear, 452 453 larger increase proportionately at EODs larger than 2 µm.



Figure 5. The size distributions from of types (a) AB, (b) AC and (c) ABC were averaged from 12 pm to 6
pm (red shading) and from midnight to 6 am (blue shading) for the eight days of the project.

459 **3.3 Asphericity**

458

460 The asphericity, derived from the quad detector of the WIBS, is a relative indicator of the shape of each particle as shown in the supplement (Fig. S3) for FAP type (AB, AC, and ABC) and 461 for all particles including the non-FAP. The color scale shows the average asphericity at each 462 463 size interval over the duration of the project. Among the fluorescent types, the asphericity of 464 ABC particles shows the most dominanta mode between 2 and 4 µm during nighttime, 465 especially at midnight. The asphericity size distributions of all particles show a broader mode of enhanced asphericity between 2 and 4 µm that varies somewhat but not in a noticeable diel 466 pattern. Note that particles with asphericities < 20 are generally considered quasi-spherical so 467 that the values that are shown here indicate slight changes in shape, on average, of type ABC 468 particles, as well as all particles, but the overall population of particles can be considered quasi-469 470 spherical.

Asphericity The asphericity of non-fluorescent (non-FAP) particles was always observed
higher than the FAP (Fig. S3d in the Supplement). The higher asphericity values of asphericity
of non-FAP particles can be seen between size 3 and 6 µm every day and dominate on DOY
261 and 262.

475 3.4 Air mass back trajectories

476 The Air air masses arriving that arrived at the measurement site on DOY 259 and 264 were-477 coming from the northeast of the islandhad originating 24 hours earlierbeen over the Atlantic 478 Ocean, northeast of the island, 24 hours earlier. The air masses that arrived while on DOY 260-479 63 and 266 were from the they were arriving from the southeast of the island and on DOY 265 480 the air wasthey were from the south-southeast. Figure S4a shows that all of the air masses on 481 all days had been < 50 m above the surface the entire 24-hour period before arriving at the 482 measurement site. The one exception was on DOY 259 when the air mass had stayed above 483 200 m from 12 to 24 hours then began descending as it approached the island. This same air 484 mass was associated with rain formation close to the measurement site (Fig. S4b in the Supplement). The air mass on DOY 264 came across the islands to the SE of Puerto Rico (e.g., 485 486 Culebra and the British Virgin Islands), possibly mixing the marine aerosols with polluted emissions before arriving at the measurement site. Likewise, the air mass trajectory on DOY 487 488 260 and 262 crossed over the Vieques and US Virgin Islands at a low altitude, likely also 489 mixing with anthropogenic emissions. The air mass arriving on DOY 261 is comparatively dry 490 as no rainfall happened along its trajectory, but it also crossed over the Vieques island. The 491 increment in total particle number concentrations on DOY 260-262 and DOY 266, shown in 492 Fig 4a, areis possibly attributed to these air mass that arrived passed over the Islands in 493 populated islands to the Ssoutheast of Puerto Rico. It could be and may also be the reason why 494 we observed higher values of asphericity of non-FAP on DOY 261 and 262. The remainder of 495 the air masses were presumably not impacted by anthropogenic emissions until arriving over 496 the Puerto Rico landmass.

497 3.5 Meteorological data

498 Figure S5 shows the temperature and relative humidity (RH) (Fig. S5a in the Supplement), and 499 the wind speed, wind direction and precipitation (Fig. S5b-in the Supplement). The average 500 wind speed, temperature, and RH for the period of measurement were 2.8±2.4 m/s, 29±2 °C, 501 and 77 ± 11 %, respectively. The DOYs 259 and 265 received significant rainfall of $\frac{1.35}{1.35}$ 4 mm 502 and 1.84 inches47 mm, respectively. Note that these two days are also those that the back 503 trajectory analysis indicated that rain had formed in the arriving air massesassociated with those 504 air masses whose analysis indicated precipitation along their back trajectories. The wind speed and direction, temperature, and RH show a systematic daily cycle where the wind speed and 505 temperature peaked during midday $(2.8\pm0.7 \text{ m/s and } 33\pm1^\circ\text{C})$, and the RH peaked around 506

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507 midnight (91±3 %). Wind profiles a<u>A</u>t the measurement site show that the air was flowingthe 508 winds were from $135^{\circ} - 250^{\circ}$ during the night then fromshifting to 93°-134° during the daytime. 509 On DOY 262 and 265, as well as the afternoon of DOY 259, the winds are were comparatively 500 low. The average wind speeds at night (0.24±0.2 m/s) compared to those during the day 511 (2.8±0.6 m/s) suggesting generally calm wind conditions that are normal this time of year when

512 not under the influence of tropical storms.

513

To further highlight the relationships between the meteorological conditions and FAP₇ we computed the hourly averages of RH, wind speed and FAP concentrations during each 24-hour period over the eight-day period and compared them in (Fig. 6a). The RH and FAP concentrations are maximized reach their maxima during between the hours from of midnight to and 6 am while the wind speed is at a minimum during those hours, maximizing a little after midday.

520 The relationship between RH and the FAP fraction is further underscored highlighted in Figs.* 521 6b and c where there appears to be an RH threshold below of about approximately 80% that 522 below which the FAP fraction remains below lower than 0.1. When the RH exceeds this value 523 the FAP fraction increases rapidly to its maximum value of 0.3. The color coding indicates the median volume diameter (Fig. 6b) and number concentration (Fig. 6c). In both cases the size 524 525 and concentrations increase when the RH exceeds 80% but then increases rapidly to greater 526 than 0.3 as the RH exceeds 90%, i.e. less than 10% of the particles measured in the size range of the WIBS were FAP when the RH < 80%, but increases to more than 30% at high humidities. 527 528 The increase of FAP D_{avd} and the number concentrations depend on the hygroscopicity of the 529 particles. Among the different FAPs measured at the site, the ABC, AB, and AC types were 530 observed to have systematic diel patterns and were believed to be more hygroscopic than 531 others. Therefore, the D_{mvd} and FAP number concentrations were increasing when RH reaches 532 80% and above. The other spread of points at >80% RH were possibly the less hygroscopic 533 FAP types such as the A, B, C, and BC, not showing any increasing trend in D_{mvd} and the 534 number concentrations. The difference between Fig. 6b and 6c are how the markers are color 535 coded. In Fig. 6b, the coloring denotes the equivalent median volume diameters (D_{invd}) and in 536 Fig. 6c, the coloring is the FAP concentration. Both the D_{mvds} and concentrations increase with 537 increasing humidity and FAP fraction.

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Figure 6. (a) hourly averages of relative humidity (blue curve), wind speed (black) and FAP concentration
(green dotted). (b) link between fluorescent fraction and relative humidity (FAP particle volume weighted
equivalent optical diameter. D_{mvd}, on the color scale). (c) fluorescent fraction and relative humidity (FAP
particle concentration on the color scale). The data in all the figures averaged over DOY 259-266.

545 3.6. Fungal spore data

The time series of the <u>Hirst sampler</u> fungal spores, <u>measured on the rooftop of the medical</u> science building at the university, are shown in Fig. 7. Similar to the FAP number concentrations and fractions, the spore concentrations have a diel trend with <u>maxima around</u> <u>midnight</u>. The average concentrations <u>were of</u> 48±42 L⁻¹ <u>with and a maximum of</u> 112±44 L⁻¹ around midnight. We calculated positive correlations of 0.7, 0.47, and 0.54 between the total spore concentration and concentrations of FAP types ABC, AB, and AC-types, respectively.

Previous studies for this region reported the most common fungal genera detected were the 552 553 Basidiospores and Ascospores (Quintero et al., 2010; Rivera-Mariani et al., 2011). Figure 7b 554 illustrates the distributions of how outdoor these fungal spore types recorded at MSC of the 555 University of Puerto Ricowere speciated. Fungal-The species were identified and distributed 556 differentbroad categories, referred to as are hyphae or filamentous spores, macroconidia >10 557 μ m, microconidia 3-10 μ m, microconidia < 3 μ m, and unidentified spores-presented in others 558 category. We observed that the microconidia 3-10 µm contributed the highest (81%) fraction 559 to the total fungal species followed by microconidia ($<3 \mu m$) 3.86% and Macroconidia (>10 560 μ m) 1.8%. We observed that tThe Basidiospores contributed the highest (49.4%) fraction to 561 the total fungal spores-type, followed by Ascospores 19%, Diatrypaceae 8.6% and 562 Penicillum/Aspergillus 3.86%. The mean concentrations of dominant species such as 563 Basidiospores, Ascospores, Diatrypaceae and, Penicillum/Aspergillus were 24±20, 9.3±4, 4±3 564 and $2\pm 1 \text{ L}^{-1}$ -during the study period. The Ascospores and Penicillum/Aspergillus had more elevated concentrations during the night while Diatrypaceae concentrations were generally 565 566 higher during the daylight hours.

567 These species were the most common airborne spores in San Juan, present throughout the year 568 and predominated during September (the rainy month). The; hence the WIBS's FAP types 569 ABC and AB-types, measured by the WIBS, were likely the Basidiospores and Ascospores 570 (Fig. 7b). Previous studies (Quintero et al., 2010; Rivera-Mariani et al., 2020) reported that the 571 most common fungal genera detected were the Basidiospores and Ascospores in the San Juan 572 atmosphere. Which is also, confirmed in this study. The sizes of the Basidiospores and Ascospores (10-20 um) isare usually larger than those of Aspergillus, Penicillium, and 573 574 Cladosporium spores. Furthermore, we observed a systematic diel pattern in the number 575 concentrations of these fungal spores, which is strongly correlated to diel pattern of FAPs 576 detected inType ABC-channel of WIBS. The other genera most frequently detected were the 577 Penicillium/Aspergillus, Cladosporium and Ganoderma, present observed at low concentrations reported by Quintero et al. (2010). Those species possibly corresponded to 578 WIBS's FAP type AC types which were systematic periodic but and at relatively low 579 580 concentrations. These fungal spores, present that occurred between the midnight and early 581 morning period, suggest an active release mechanism induced by the high humidity during early morning hours-dew point and increased humidity under calm wind conditions, in 582 concordance with the findings reported by Quintero et al. (2010). 583



Figure 7. (a) time series of the particle number concentrations of fungal spores (left axis) measured at the
Medical science department and the FAP types ABC, AB and AC (right axis) detected by WIBS at FB site.
(b) distributions Speciation of outdoor the fungal spores recorded at Medical Sciences Campus, San Juan.

588

589 4. Discussion

590 <u>The preliminaryFrom the</u> results presented above, the following features stand out<u>from this</u> 591 <u>pilot study highlight the following</u>: 1) The CN, CCN and FAP concentrations have daily 592 patterns during which each maximizes at a different hour of the day, 2) the periodic FAP 593 concentration is predominantly of the type ABC that reaches a daily maximum around midnight and <u>during which</u> the asphericity of this type <u>of FAP also</u> increases <u>slightly during the same</u>
time period, 3) the RH reaches a maximum each day <u>also</u> around midnight, 4) the wind speeds
are a minimum around midnight and 5) an independent analysis of bioaerosols using
fluorescence microscopy to identify spore types revealed a periodicity of spore concentrations
that was highly correlated with the RH and FAP type ABC concentrations.

599 Referring back to Fig. 3a, the CN, CCN, N_{WIBS}, and FAP concentrations all exhibit a diel 600 periodicity but with peak values occurring at differing hoursdiffering, uncorrelated trends. The 601 CN population encompasses all environmental particles larger than about 10 nm and are 602 dominated by anthropogenic aerosols, i.e., those produced from residential cooking and local 603 vehicular traffic. Given that the WIBS measures the concentration of particles larger than 604 0.5μ m, and that the total concentration has an average peak maximum of 100 cm^{-3} , compared 605 to a maximum CN concentration 5000 cm⁻³, this implies that 98% of the particles have sizes 606 smaller than 0.5 µm. The rest are the coarse mode aerosol (2%) is typically smaller in number eoncentrations, yet high in mass Aconcentrations. A comparison of the maximum CCN and 607 N_{WIBS} concentrations, 170 cm⁻³ vs 100 cm⁻³, leads us to conclude that most of the CCN are 608 609 likely in sizes greater than 0.5 µm. Likewise, since the maximum CCN concentrations are only 610 about 2% of the CN values, this suggests that most of the CN have low hygroscopicity, a 611 characteristic of fresh combustion particles.

612 The trends timing of the maxima in the CN concentrations suggest that there are early morning 613 activities that are producing emissions of anthropogenic particles. The two peaks the trends are 614 a result of the combination of two traffic patterns: the general city traffic as workers commute 615 to jobs that are not on the university campus and vehicular traffic of university workers whose starting hours are later than the city workers. As shown In-in Fig. 1a, the sampling site is located 616 617 near the intersection of two major streets avenue that carry both types of traffic. Unlike many large urban areas where morning and evening rush hour traffic can be distinctly seen in the CN 618 619 measurements, there is a smaller density of cars during the evening commute than in the 620 morning in San Juan.

The correspondence comparison between the times of the two N_{WIBS} maxima and the CN and CCN peaks suggests that the > 0.5μ m particles measured with the WIBS in the morning are a different mixture of compositions than the particles in the afternoon. The morning N_{WIBS} peak lags the first CN peak by an hour, likely as result of the primary emissions producing particles that grow into the size range of the WIBS; however, with the sunrise at around 6 am, 626 temperatures begin increasing and the material in the more volatile particles begin to evaporate 627 until the particle sizes decrease below the threshold of the WIBS. Some dilution will be occurring as the boundary layer deepens with increasing temperatures, but this is a secondary 628 629 effect as we do not see the CN concentrations decrease with the decrease in NWIBS. Since the CCN concentrations remain low during this period, this implies that either the particles did not 630 grow large enough to be good CCN or their composition is non-conducive for forming CCN. 631 632 In the early afternoon we observe the CCN concentrations beginning to increase increasing until 633 reaching their late afternoon peak. The N_{WIBS} follows a very similar trend but lagged lags with 634 respect to the CCN by a couple of hours. This afternoon trend in CCN has been identified in 635 other large, polluted urban areas as the result of photochemical reactions producing 636 hygroscopic, secondary organic aerosols (SOA) from photochemical reactions (Baumgardner et al., 2004). The N_{WIBS} is offset a couple of hours due to the time needed for the SOA particles 637 638 to grow by condensation and aggregation. Finally, the FAP concentrations only begin increasing late in the evening after the CCN has maximized and their the FAP concentrations 639 640 are less than 10% of the CCN. This suggests that if FAP are good CCN, they do not contribute 641 significantly to the overall CCN population. It is important to note that contributions to the 642 overall CCN populations depend on size, chemical composition, and number concentrations of 643 particles.

Quintero et al. (2010) concluded that the release of the fungal spores, those that they measured 644 645 and speciated in multiple locations, was triggered by high RH-and were found in multiple locations. Pollen spores, on the other hand, could not be linked conclusively to any 646 meteorological factor. Based on a comparison of the species of spores found at the university, 647 648 compared with those measured in the El Yunque rain forest, Lewis et al (2019) It is evident 649 that almost all of the fungal spores are released in the El Yunque rain forest (Lewis et al., 650 2019).concluded that the rain forest was the likely source of the majority of spores identified 651 in the city of San Juan, and hence at the university. Two of the air sampling sites, Pico Del Este (PDE) and Cabezas de San Juan (CSJ) are very similar and very low in the fungal spores (less 652 than 5,000 spores/m³). At another sampling site in El Verde (located to the west within El 653 654 Yunque National Forest), the concentrations increase to 72,000 spores/m³ and are found to 655 have a decreasing gradient of fungal spores towards the Metro Area. For the rest of Puerto 656 Rico, the Central Mountain Range is the other major source of fungal spores. Bioaerosols, especially fungal spores, are very good ice nucleating particles (INP) (Kunert et al., 2019); 657 658 however, except for periods with tropical storms, cloud tops rarely grow higher than the

659 freezing level. On the other hand, these airborne spores may have the allergenic potential and 660 could pose a health threat to sensitized population (references therein Quintero et al., 2010). 661 Information about the presence and abundance of these spores will assist in the diagnosis of respiratory and allergic illness in Puerto Rico. Hence, given these previous results, in 662 comparison with the correlations that we have observed in the current study (Figs. 6 and 7), the 663 type ABC fluorescing particles are most clearly linked to Basidiospores and Ascospores, the 664 665 two species that made up the largest fraction of fungi measured with the fluorescence 666 microscopy. The hourly averages in Fig. 3b also showed that the type ABC only was 667 predominant during the same period as the Basidiospores and Ascospores-but thenwhile the 668 other fluorescence FAP types A, B and C were equally present during the remainder of the 669 dayshowed no obvious daily trends. This is mirrored by the spore types shown in Fig. 7 that 670 change in relative mixture during the day. Hence, by observing the relative changes in the seven 671 FAP types, we get a qualitative measure of the changing population of bioaerosols,

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The WIBS characterizes the fluorescent aerosol particles using two-wavelength excitations and 672 673 two-wavelength emissions. The sensitivity of types A and B to the intensity of the emissions 674 in the 310-400 and 420-650 nm wavelength bands, when excited at 280 nm, in comparison to 675 the intensity of emissions at 420-650 nm when excited at 370 nm has been exploited in the 676 study by Ziemba et al. (2016) to identify differences in bioaerosol types as they relate to differences in FAP sources. In their study they were able to show a clear grouping of FAPs 677 678 linked to source regions by plotting the ratio of type A to type B (emission sensitive) versus the ratios of type C to type B (excitation sensitive). We have followed a similar scheme; 679 however, whereas the Ziemba et al (2016) study used a WIBS on an airborne platform flying 680 681 over various land usage types, our site was fixed so we compute these ratios as a function of time rather than location. Figure 8 illustrates the periodicity of the type C to B ratio, increasing 682 during those time periods that the type ABC concentrations were also increasing. Just as the 683 sizes of FAP were seen to increase during these periods (Fig. 5), indicative of a change in FAP 684 type, the shift in the type C/type B reflects the differences in the fungal spore types. 685



Figure 8: Temporal distribution of emissions wavelength dependence (Type A to Type B) vs excitation
wavelength dependence (Type C to Type B).

Hence, the changes in size distribution, asphericity, type C/B ratios, and speciated spore concentrations, all occurring during the same time of day, provide independent verification that a different type of PBAP is being produced during the periods of high RH than during the other periods of the day.

The strong correlation between spore release and RH that has been highlighted in this study has been previously reported, e.g., (Oliveira et al., 2005; Chi and Li, 2007; Gabey et al., 2013; Calvo et al., 2018, Toprak and Schnaiter, 2013; Healy et al., 2014). None of those studies, however, were from tropical regions nor <u>did</u> they include the asphericity and FAP type rationing to quantify their results.

Some laboratory studies have been conducted to measure the fluorescence characteristics of a small variety of bacteria, fungi, and pollen, for example Hernandez et al. (2016) determined that bacteria, fungi and pollen could be generally grouped according to the size and FAP type. In their study, very few fungal spores were of the FAP type ABC such as found in the current study. Instead, the majority of their fungi were types A and AB while the majority of type ABC spores were pollen, not fungi. On the other hand, the Hernandez et al. (2016) study did not test any of the major fungi species that were measured in the natural environment of Puerto Rico,
i.e. Basidiospores and Ascospores. <u>Hence, new laboratory studies with the WIBS measuring</u>
fungal spores native to Puerto Rico should be a high priority for future research.

709

710 5. Summary and Conclusions

A pilot study was conducted to evaluate the fluorescence and cloud condensation nuclei (CCN) 711 properties of urban aerosols in San Juan, Puerto Rico, the first time such measurements have 712 been made in this tropical city. Previous CCN measurements have been made on this island at 713 714 coastal and rainforest sites, but no research has been pursued to see if bioaerosols are directly 715 linked to CCN. There have been a number of laboratory studies conducted by other researchers who evaluated the CCN activity of various bacteria, fungi and pollen. Although some types of 716 717 bioaerosols were found to be potential CCN, many others were not. Hence, the importance of bioaerosols as cloud forming particles remains an open question. The very large concentrations 718 of fungal spores produced by flora in Puerto Rico, as reported by Quintero et al. (2010), along 719 720 with the results from our pilot study, provided the initial motivation for the study reported here 721 to assess if bioaerosols might contribute to the frequent cloud formation over the island.

The measurements were made from the Facundo Bueso building within the University of Puerto Rico, Rio Piedras Campus, from September 16-23, 2019, an urban location that experiences emissions from local residential cooking, vehicular trafficanthropogenic activities and the production of fungal sporedspores from a wide variety of flora within the university campus as well as from the nearby tropical forest. The site is located close to the intersection of two major streets carrying local business as well as university traffic.

728 In the pilot experiment, the CCN and FAP concentrations were measured with a commercial 729 CCN spectrometer set at 0.3% supersaturation and the fluorescent properties were also 730 measured with a commercial instrument, the and Wideband Integrated Bioaerosol Spectrometer 731 (WIBS), respectively. It is important to note that bioaerosols are not the only type of aerosol 732 particles that will autofluoresce when excited at the wavelengths used in the WIBS, although 733 care was taken to minimize interference from non-biological particles. Therefore, what is reported in the current study are the properties of fluorescing aerosol particles (FAP) without 734 735 specifically labeling them as biological. In addition to measurements of CCN and FAP, the total concentration of condensation nuclei (CN) was documented with a condensation particle 736 737 counter.

738 The mean number concentration measured by the CCN counter at 0.3% SS was (1.5 \pm 0.5)

739 $\times 10^5$ L⁻¹, which was about a factor 21-20 lower than the average CN concentration (3 ± 1)×10⁶

T40 L⁻¹. The mean FAP concentration was $(5 \pm 3) \times 10^3$ L⁻¹, which was a small fraction (~7%) of

741 <u>the</u> total aerosol particle number concentration, N_{WIBS}, measured by the WIBS, whose lower

742 size threshold is 0.5 μ m.

743 The CN, CCN, N_{WIBS}, and FAP concentrations all have diel daily trends but their maxima occur 744 at varying hours different times of the day. The CN peaks at 6 am and 11 am and 11 am due to 745 business traffic and university traffic that have different rush hours. The CCN reaches its 746 maximum value at 4 pm as photochemical processes produce secondary organic aerosols 747 (SOA) that are likely hygroscopic in composition. The NWIBS is bimodal with the morning peak 748 at 8 am, reflecting rush hour emissions whose particles grow into the size range of the WIBS and then the second maximum at 6 pm as the SOA grow to measurable sizes. The diel trends 749 in the FAP concentrations are not correlated with the CN, CCN or NWIBS as they remain fairly 750 constant throughout the daylight hours but then rapidly increase to their maximum value that 751 extends from midnight until 6 am. 752

The FAP are classified according to the wavelengths at which they were excited and wavelength at which they emitted fluorescence. These types have been categorized as A, B, C, AB, AC, BC, and ABC. In the current study the types A, B, C and ABC all had average concentrations during the daylight hours of about 1000 L⁻¹ while the other three types were much lower in concentration; however, only the type ABC showed the rapid increase in concentration, to almost 5000 L⁻¹, between midnight and 6 am.

Independent measurements using fluorescent microscopy of spores captured on substrates were made during the same time period. Although more than 20 species of spores were identified with this technique, the fungi <u>Basidiospores and Ascospores Basidiomycetes and Ascomycetes</u> were not only the most predominant, but they were also the spores that followed an almost identical <u>diel-daily</u> trend as the <u>FAP</u> type ABC-FAP, i.e., remaining nearly constant in concentration during the daylight hours then increasing in the evening to their maxima <u>maximum</u> between midnight and 6 am-<u>with larger shifts of EOD with increase of RH</u>.

The other environmental parameters that also correlated significantly with the temporal trends in fungal spores and FAP were the relative humidity (RH) and the wind speed. As the RH began to increase in the late afternoon, the spore counts and FAP concentrations began increasing increased, as well. A comparison of RH with FAP concentrations indicates that the FAP concentrations begin increasing above an RH threshold of about 80%. Spores are released

by a number of species of fungi when the RH increases, as has been well documented in other

772 studies (Quintero et al., 2010). Hence, the relationship between RH, Basidiospores and

773 <u>AscosporesBasidiomycetes and Ascomycetes</u> and the type ABC FAP has been clearly 774 established.

775 Three additional properties of the FAP were extracted from the WIBS measurements that 776 provided indirect but complementary information that showedshowing how the type ABC 777 particles were related to the Basidiospores and AscosporesBasidiomycetes and Ascomycetes: 778 1) the size distribution, 2) the asphericity and 3) the excitation and emission sensitivity parameters. The type ABC particles during the high RH periods had much higher 779 780 concentrations of particles larger than $2 \,\mu m$ when compared to the size distributions of these 781 same particles in the daylight hours. Secondly, the asphericity increased during the high 782 concentration of type ABC concentration periods. Thirdly, the excitation/emission sensitivity parameters increased during this same period. While not quantitative, these three parameters 783 confirmed that the particles whose concentrations were increasing had different properties than 784 785 during other periods of the day.

Since The the trends in the CCN concentration was were not directly correlated with the FAP, so-we cannot conclude that bioaerosols are a potential source of cloud forming particles. In addition, the FAP concentrations were less than 10% of CCN concentrations, so that even if some FAP are potential CCN, the clouds that develop over the island are more likely formed from marine-other aerosols aerosol types rather than locally produced fungal spores.

The results from this pilot study have provided strong motivation for longer term measurements that will expand the database of aerosol particle properties in <u>a-this</u> tropical, urban area. The detailed information on fungal spores in this region, in comparison with the multi-parameter data available from the WIBS, will improve our ability to interpret these measurements of FAP and apply this knowledge to data sets acquired in other parts of the world.

796 Data availability

797 Data used to support the findings in this study have been uploaded and are publicly available

- via Mendeley at <u>https://data.mendeley.com/datasets/t26dctfk7t/1</u> (Sarangi et al., 2021).
- 799 Author Contribution

BS designed the study in consultation with OLMB and performed the measurements. BBR
performed-provided the measurements of fungal spores and pollen concentrations. DB and BS
performed the analysis, interpreted the results and wrote the paper with contributions from
OLMB and BBR.

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- 809 transport model (<u>http://www.ready.noaa.gov</u>).
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