### Examination of Brown Carbon Absorption from Wildfires in the Western U.S. During the WE-CAN Study 5 6 7 Amy P. Sullivan<sup>1</sup>, Rudra P. Pokhrel<sup>2,\*</sup>, Yingjie Shen<sup>2</sup>, Shane M. Murphy<sup>2</sup>, Darin W. Toohey<sup>3</sup>, Teresa Campos<sup>4</sup>, Jakob Lindaas<sup>1</sup>, Emily V. Fischer<sup>1</sup>, and Jeffrey L. Collett, Jr.<sup>1</sup> <sup>1</sup>Colorado State University, Department of Atmospheric Science, Fort Collins, Colorado 80523 <sup>2</sup>University of Wyoming, Department of Atmospheric Science, Laramie, WY 82071 <sup>3</sup>University of Colorado – Boulder, Department of Atmospheric and Oceanic Sciences, Boulder, CO 80309 <sup>4</sup>National Center for Atmospheric Research, Atmospheric Chemistry Division, Boulder, CO \*now at Cooperative Institute for Research in Environmental Sciences, University of Colorado, Boulder, CO 80309 and NOAA Chemical Science Laboratory, Boulder, CO 80305 Corresponding author: Amy P. Sullivan, sullivan@atmos.colostate.edu

# 47 Abstract

Light absorbing organic carbon, or brown carbon (BrC), can be a significant contributor to the visible light absorption budget. However, the sources of BrC and the contributions of BrC to light absorption are not well understood. Biomass burning is thought to be a major source of BrC. Therefore, as part of the WE-CAN (Western Wildfire Experiment for Cloud Chemistry, Aerosol Absorption and Nitrogen) Study BrC absorption data was collected aboard the NSF/NCAR C-130 aircraft as it intercepted smoke from wildfires in the Western U.S. in July-August 2018. BrC absorption measurements were obtained in near real-time using two techniques. The first coupled a Particle-into-Liquid Sampler (PILS) with a Liquid Waveguide Capillary Cell and a Total Organic Carbon analyzer for measurements of water-soluble BrC absorption and WSOC (water-soluble organic carbon). The second employed a custom-built Photoacoustic Aerosol Absorption Spectrometer (PAS) to measure total absorption at 405 and 660 nm. The PAS BrC absorption at 405 nm (PAS total Abs 405 BrC) was calculated by assuming the absorption determined by the PAS at 660 nm was equivalent to the black carbon (BC) absorption and the BC aerosol absorption Ångström exponent was 1. Data from the PILS and PAS were combined to investigate the water-soluble vs. total BrC absorption at 405 nm in the various wildfire plumes sampled during WE-CAN. WSOC, PILS water-soluble Abs 405, and PAS total Abs 405 tracked each other in and out of the smoke plumes. BrC absorption was correlated with WSOC ( $R^2$  value for PAS = 0.42 and PILS = 0.60) and CO (carbon monoxide)  $(R^2 \text{ value for PAS} = 0.76 \text{ and PILS} = 0.55)$  for all wildfires sampled. The PILS water-soluble Abs 405 was corrected for the non-water-soluble fraction of the aerosol using the calculated UHSAS (Ultra-High-Sensitivity Aerosol Spectrometer) aerosol mass. The corrected PILS water-soluble Abs 405 showed good closure with the PAS total Abs 405 BrC with a factor of ~1.5 to 2 difference. This difference was explained by particle vs. bulk solution absorption measured by the PAS vs. PILS, respectively, and confirmed by Mie Theory calculations. During WE-CAN,  $\sim$ 45% (ranging from 31% to 65%) of the BrC absorption was observed to be due to water-soluble species. The ratio of BrC absorption to WSOC or  $\Delta$ CO showed no clear dependence on fire dynamics or the time since emission over 9 h. 

# 93 1. Introduction

94 Organic compounds can comprise a large fraction of PM (particulate matter) mass 95 [Kanakidou et al., 2005; Zhang et al., 2007]. Organic carbon can be directly emitted or formed 96 in the atmosphere from a variety of sources. This leads to organic aerosol particles composed of 97 a number of compounds that range from insoluble to highly water-soluble and that can scatter or 98 absorb light [Jacobson et al., 2000; Saxena and Hildemann, 1996, and references therein]. 99 The portion of organic carbon that is light-absorbing has been referred to as brown 100 carbon (BrC) due to its yellow or brown color when concentrated, and it is likely to be a 101 significant contributor to the visible light-absorption budget [Andreae and Gelencsér, 2006]. 102 Recent modeling studies have predicted a non-negligible effect on the Earth's radiation balance 103 from BrC [Feng et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2020]. Global measurements have shown that BrC can contribute up to 48% of the overall warming effect by absorbing 104 105 carbonaceous aerosols [Zeng et al., 2020]. BrC may also suppress photolysis rates of some 106 chemical reactions, including decreasing surface ozone concentrations in certain locations, due to 107 its ability to absorb at ultraviolet wavelengths [Jo et al., 2016]. Some portion of BrC is likely 108 composed of toxins, such as nitro- and oxy-aromatic species, suggesting BrC could also have 109 health impacts [Desyaterik et al., 2013; Verma et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2013]. BrC itself is 110 thought to have both primary and secondary sources. Particles from biomass burning or 111 incomplete combustion of fossil fuels generally contain significant amounts of BrC (e.g., [Chakrabarty et al., 2010; Hoffer et al., 2006; Kirchstetter et al., 2004; Kirchstetter and 112 113 Thatcher, 2012; Lack et al., 2012; Lukács et al., 2007]). Laboratory studies have observed 114 production of BrC from a number of formation processes. This has included heterogenous 115 reactions of isoprene on acidic aerosol particles, a variety of aqueous-phase reactions, and reactions of organic compounds in acidic solutions (e.g., [Hoffer et al., 2006; Limbeck et al., 116 117 2013; Sareen et al., 2010; Updyke et al., 2012]). However, there is still limited information on 118 the contribution of BrC to total light absorption and the sources of BrC as there are few ambient 119 measurements. 120 Total absorption measurements (black carbon (BC) + BrC) at multiple wavelengths can 121 be used to determined BrC absorption due to the strong wavelength dependence of BrC. This

requires the assumptions that: (1) the absorption Ångström exponent (AAE) for BC is known, (2) AAE is constant with wavelength, and (3) BrC does not absorb at longer wavelengths. The AAE for BC is well constrained at 1 in the visible and near-infrared wavelengths [*Moosmüller et al.*, 2009]. The BrC absorption at other wavelengths is then found by difference from the extrapolated BC AAE [*Lack and Langridge*, 2013; *Mohr et al.*, 2013]. This approach can be applied to any technique that measures absorption at multiple wavelengths, including photoacoustic spectroscopy (PAS).

BrC can also be quantified by isolating the BrC chromophores by extraction of particles 129 130 in solvents, such as water or methanol, in order to separate them from the insoluble BC and then measuring the light absorption of the soluble organic chromophores [Hecobian et al., 2010]. 131 This is the only direct method to separate and quantify BrC as the light absorption from liquid 132 extracts does not suffer from interferences by BC as they can be isolated by dissolution. A 133 134 spectrophotometer with an UV/Vis (ultraviolet/visible) light source can provide high spectral 135 resolution over a wide wavelength range from 200 to 800 nm. In addition, when coupled with a 136 long-path liquid waveguide capillary absorption cell (LWCC), it also provides a highly sensitive measurement. This technique can be used off-line with filters or on-line with an aerosol 137

collection device such as Particle-into-Liquid Sampler (PILS) (e.g., [*Hecobian et al.*, 2010; *Liu et al.*, 2013, 2014, 2015; *Zhang et al.*, 2011, 2013].

Here we report BrC absorption data from a PAS and PILS-LWCC-TOC system to compare total vs. water-soluble BrC absorption in wildfire smoke. Data are from smoke plume penetrations during the Western Wildfire Experiment for Cloud Chemistry, Aerosol Absorption and Nitrogen (WE-CAN), an aircraft-based study focused on investigating the chemistry and transformation of emissions from wildfires in the western U.S. We examine the relationship between the BrC absorption and species known to be from biomass burning. We discuss how parameters such as aging and fire dynamics might influence BrC absorption from wildfires.

## 148 **2. Methods**

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# 149 2.1. The Airborne Mission

150 The WE-CAN Campaign was a multi-investigator study conducted aboard the National 151 Science Foundation/National Center for Atmospheric Research (NSF/NCAR) C-130 aircraft. 152 The C-130 was operated out of Boise, ID from Jul. 20 to Aug. 31, 2018. A suite of instruments 153 was deployed for measurements of aerosol and trace gas composition. A total of 16 research flights sampled wildfire smoke over the western U.S. to characterize emissions, mixing, 154 chemical transformations, and transport. Figure 1 presents a map of the flight transects and 155 156 locations of the wildfires sampled. (We exclude Flight RF14, which was conducted off the coast of CA to sample a stratus deck impacted by smoke, and Flight RF16, which consisted of an 157 intercomparison performed near Boise between WE-CAN and BB-FLUX (Biomass Burning 158 159 Flux Measurements of Trace Gases and Aerosols) common measurements.) More information 160 on each wildfire including the type of fuel consumed is available in the WE-CAN Field Catalog (catalog.eol.ucar.edu/we-can). WE-CAN sampled both fresh and aged (for Flights RF05 and 161 162 RF08 along with parts of Flights RF07 and RF13) emissions from smoke for wildfires burning in 163 CA, OR, WA, ID, MT, UT, and NV. The general sampling strategy was to circle the wildfire at 164 the source and then follow the smoke downwind using a multiple transect search and rescue 165 pattern to examine smoke evolution. Typically, wildfire smoke plumes were sampled in the free troposphere between 3-5 km during early afternoon to evening periods (20:00 to 02:00 UTC or 166 14:00 to 20:00 LT). Flight RF08 and part of Flight RF07 were exceptions as the aircraft sampled 167 168 the boundary layer (below 2 km) over the Central Valley of CA. 169

# 170 2.2. Particle Collection

171 During WE-CAN, we deployed two Particle-into-Liquid Sampler (PILS) systems. A 172 PILS is an aerosol collection device that continuously collects ambient particles into purified 173 water [Orsini et al., 2003]. After particles are grown inside the body of the PILS by water 174 condensation in a supersaturated water vapor environment, formed through mixing the ambient 175 air sample with saturated air (100% relative humidity) at higher temperature, the particles are 176 collected by an impactor. The impactor plate is continually washed off by a flow of liquid 177 passed over the impactor, providing a liquid sample containing dissolved aerosol particles which 178 can be analyzed by various methods. Each PILS system sampled from a-their own Submicron 179 Aerosol Inlet (SMAI) [Craig et al., 2013a, 2013b, 2014; Moharreri et al., 2014] mounted to the 180 belly of the NSF/NCAR C-130. The size-cut for each PILS was provided by a nonrotating 181 MOUDI impactor stage with a 50% transmission efficiency of 1 µm aerodynamic diameter (i.e., 182 PM<sub>1</sub>) at 1 atmosphere ambient pressure [Marple et al., 1991]. The flowrate of 15 LPM was 183 sampled by



Figure 1. Map showing the flight paths and locations of the wildfires sampled during WE-CAN used in this analysis.

185 186 187 each PILS through the inlet and MOUDI stage. An activated carbon parallel plate denuder 188 [Eatough et al., 1993] was situated upstream of both PILS to remove organic gases. In addition, 189 for PILS2 two honeycomb denuders coated with sodium carbonate and phosphorous acid were 190 used to remove inorganic acidic and basic gases in order to limit possible positive artifacts from 191 dissolving in the PILS collection liquid. PILS 1 was connected to a LWCC (liquid waveguide 192 capillary cell) and TOC (Total Organic Carbon) Analyzer for near real-time measurement of 193 water-soluble BrC (Brown Carbon) absorption and WSOC (water-soluble organic carbon), 194 respectively. PILS2 was coupled to a Bretchel fraction collector system [Sorooshian et al., 195 2006] to provide liquid samples for additional off-line analysis.

196 For PILS 1, a valve upstream of the PILS was manually closed periodically for 10 min 197 forcing the airflow through a Teflon filter allowing for a measurement of the background in near 198 real-time. The liquid sample obtained from PILS1 was then pushed through a 0.2 µm PTFE 199 liquid filter at a flowrate of 1.2 mL/min by a set of syringe pumps with 1 mL syringes to ensure 200 any insoluble particles were removed before passing through the LWCC and TOC Analyzer.

201 A LWCC with a 2.5 m path-length (World Precision Instruments, Sarasota, FL) was 202 employed. An absorption spectrometer (FLAME-T-UV-VIS, Ocean Optics, Largo, FL) and dual 203 deuterium and tungsten halogen light source (DH-mini, Ocean Optics, Largo, FL) were coupled

to the LWCC via fiber optic cables. The Oceanview Spectroscopy Software was used to record
absorption spectra over a range from 200 to 800 nm. In this paper we present the absorption
determined at 365 and 405 nm. This wavelength dependent absorption was calculated following
the method outlined in *Hecobian et al.* [2010]. A 16 s integrated measurement of water-soluble
absorption with a limit of detection (LOD) of 0.1 Mm<sup>-1</sup> was obtained.

209A Sievers Model M9 Portable TOC Analyzer (Suez Waters Analytical Instruments,210Boulder, CO) was used for the WSOC measurement. This analyzer converts organic carbon in211the liquid sample to carbon dioxide using chemical oxidation with ammonium persulfate and212ultraviolet light. The carbon dioxide formed is then measured by conductivity. The amount of213OC present in the sample is proportional to the increase in conductivity observed. The analyzer214was run in turbo mode providing a 4 s integrated measurement of WSOC with a LOD of 0.1 μg215C/m³.

216 For PILS2, a valve upstream of the PILS was manually closed periodically for 10 min 217 forcing the airflow through a hepa filter allowing for measurement of the background in near real-time. The liquid sample obtained from PILS2 was pushed into the fraction collector vials at 218 219 a flowrate of 0.65 mL/min by a peristaltic pump for collection of ~1.2 mL of liquid sample per 220 vial. Each fraction collector carousel holds 72 1.5 mL polypropylene vials (Microsolv 221 Technology Corporation, Leland, NC). Vials were fitted with pre-slit caps and used as supplied. 222 The fraction collector program was set to allow continuous collection of 2 min integrated 223 samples and was manually started after take-off. Carousels were pre-loaded before flight and 224 then manually switched out as they were filled. The vials were unloaded from the carousels at the end of each flight, recapped with solid caps (Microsolv Technology Corporation), packed in 225 226 coolers with ice packs, and shipped back to Colorado State University to be stored in a 2 °C cold 227 room until analysis began following completion of the study. 228

# 229 2.3. Off-line Analysis

Each fraction collector vial was brought to room temperature and then analyzed for
 levoglucosan as well as a suite of anions/organic acids and cations. For each analysis, 300 μL
 aliquots were transferred to polypropylene vials. Only levoglucosan, water-soluble potassium,
 and ammonium are discussed here and their analytical methods are explained below.

234 The levoglucosan analysis was performed on a Dionex DX-500 series ion chromatograph 235 with pulsed amperometric detection via an ED-50/ED-50A electrochemical cell. This cell includes two electrodes: a "standard" gold working electrode and pH-Ag/AgCl (silver/silver 236 chloride) reference electrode. A sodium hydroxide gradient and a Dionex CarboPac PA-1 237 238 column (4 x 250 mm) were employed for the separation. The complete run time was 59 min 239 with an injection volume of 100 µL. More details on the method can be found in Sullivan et al. 240 [2011a,b, 2014, 2019]. Only levoglucosan could be detected in the WE-CAN samples (other less 241 abundant anhydrosugars were too low to detect in the PILS samples) and did not require 242 background correction. The LOD for levoglucosan based on a sample collection time of 2 min 243 and air flowrate of 15 LPM was determined to be less than approximately 0.10 ng/m<sup>3</sup>.

A Dionex ICS-3000 ion chromatograph <u>equipped with a conductivity detector</u> was used
 to measure water-soluble potassium and ammonium. An eluent generator provided a
 concentration of 20 mM methanesulfonic acid at a flowrate of 0.5 mL/min to perform the
 separation on a Dionex IonPac CS12A analytical column (3 x150 mm). The complete run time
 was 17 min with an injection volume of 190 µL. A blank correction was necessary for both of
 these species unlike levoglucosan. Therefore, their concentrations were corrected by using the

250 average of all background samples collected during a specific flight. For water-soluble 251 potassium and ammonium, the LOD was 1 ng/m<sup>3</sup>.

### 253 2.4. Photoacoustic Aerosol Absorption Spectrometer

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254 A custom-built PAS was used to measure total aerosol absorption at 405 and 660 nm 255 [Foster et al., 2019] every 1 s during WE-CAN. The PAS measures aerosol light absorption at 256 near-ambient conditions by heating particles using a controlled light source and detecting the 257 resulting soundwave. It can be subject to interference by gaseous absorbers and is sensitive to 258 variations in relative humidity, temperature, and pressure [Arnott et al., 1999; Langridge et al., 2013]. The PAS sampled from a Solid Diffuser Inlet (SDI) mounted on the front right side of the 259 260 NSF/NCAR C-130. Aerosol passed through a cyclone impactor before entering the PAS to 261 remove particles with aerodynamic diameters > 1  $\mu$ m. The flowrate for the PAS was 4 LPM. Upstream of the PAS was a denuder to remove NOx (nitrogen oxides) from the sample air as 262 well as a Perma Pure dryer to dry the aerosol to below 30% relative humidity. A filter was 263 264 periodically switched in-line before the PAS to remove particles and allow for a near real-time measurement of the baseline stability. Additionally, the PAS switched between sampling with 265 266 and without a thermal denuder system in-line. Only the data from sampling without the thermal 267 denuder is presented here. The PAS BrC absorption at 405 nm (PAS total Abs 405 BrC) was 268 calculated using equation 9 from Pokhrel et al. [2017]. This approach assumes the absorption 269 determined by the PAS at 660 nm was equivalent to BC absorption and the BC aerosol AAE was 270 1, and the absorption enhancement from lensing was constant at all wavelengths. Previous work 271 272 using this approach in smoke from controlled laboratory burns found lensing could contribute a maximum of 30% of total absorption, but typical contributes much less.-

### 274 2.5. Ultra-High-Sensitivity Aerosol Spectrometer

275 One second particle number concentrations were measured using a rack-mounted 276 UHSAS (Ultra-High-Sensitivity Aerosol Spectrometer). The rack-mounted UHSAS switched 277 between sampling from the SDI inlet and a CVI (counter-flow virtual impactor) when sampling 278 out of and in-cloud, respectively. We only present data for sampling out of clouds. The rack-279 mounted UHSAS was operated so that the flow could be manually lowered by the in-flight 280 operator when the NSF/NCAR C-130 flew through smoke plumes to allow the UHSAS to stay 281 within its optimum concentration measurement range. The UHSAS measures particles in the 282  $0.06-1 \mu m$  range. The particle size bins for the UHSAS were calibrated using ammonium sulfate 283 rather than traditional PSL (polystyrene latex) spheres. Particle mass concentrations for PM1 284 were calculated by applying these summing all size bins and then multiplying by 1.4 g/cm<sup>3</sup> to 285 account for particle density.

#### 287 2.6. Other Measurements

288 In the following analysis, we focus on characterizing the BrC absorption in smoke from wildfires in the western U.S. sampled during WE-CAN. Other airborne measurements used in 289 290 this analysis include meteorological data and coordinates provided by the Research Aviation

- Facility (RAF) as part of the C-130 instrumentation package 291
- 292 (https://data.eol.ucar.edu/project/WE-CAN) and one Hz carbon monoxide (CO) determined by a
- 293 vacuum UV (ultraviolet) resonance fluorescence method [Gerbig et al., 1999]. All data
- 294 presented in our analysis are reported at 1 atm and 273 K. Data from all species have been 295

averaged to match the 2 min collection time of the PILS-fraction collector system.

# 297 2.7. Mie Calculation

298 Mie calculations were performed by putting the complex refractive index (m = n + ik) into 299 Mie code to obtain the absorption efficiency (Q) and then further calculate the absorption 300 coefficient using Eq. 1 [*Liu et al.*, 2013]. The real part of the refractive index (n) was set to be 301 1.55 and the imaginary part was calculated using Eq. 2 [*Liu et al.*, 2013]. 302

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$$\beta(\lambda, D_p) = \frac{3}{2} \cdot \frac{Q \cdot WSOC}{D_p \cdot \rho}$$
 (Eq. 1)

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$$305 \quad k = \frac{\rho\lambda \cdot H_2 O\_\beta(\lambda)}{4\pi \cdot WSOC} \tag{Eq. 2}$$

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307 In Eq. 1 and 2,  $\lambda$  is the wavelength,  $D_p$  is the diameter of the particle,  $\beta$  is the absorption 308 coefficient (referred to as the Mie calculated water-soluble absorption hereinafter), Q is the 309 absorption efficiency, WSOC is the water-soluble organic carbon mass concentration measured 310 by the PILS, and  $H_2O_\beta(\lambda)$  is the water-soluble light absorption coefficient measured by the PILS. The particle density ( $\rho$ ) was assumed to be 1.4 g/cm<sup>3</sup>. The plume averaged particle size 311 312 distribution (measured by the UHSAS) was used in the calculation. The Mie calculated water-313 soluble absorption was determined for each size bin in order to obtain the most accurate results. Mie calculated total absorption was further calculated by multiplying the Mie calculated water-314 315 soluble absorption by (UHSAS mass)/(WSOC\*1.6), where the factor of 1.6 was to convert 316 WSOC to WSOM (water-soluble organic matter) [Duarte et al., 2019; Yttri et al., 2007]. 317

# 318 **3. Results and Discussion**

# 319 3.1. Overview

320 Most previous studies employing a LWCC to determine water-soluble absorption, examine the absorption at 365 nm (e.g., [Hecobian et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2011, 2013]. But 321 322 here in order to explore the relationship between the water-soluble and total absorption 323 determined by the PILS and PAS, respectively, we focus on the absorption at 405 nm determined 324 by the LWCC. Using as examples Flight RF02, which sampled the Carr Fire smoke plume, and 325 Flight RF11, which sampled the Goldstone, Rabbit Foot, Beaver Creek, and Shellrock Fire 326 smoke plumes, Figures 2a and b show the relationship of the PILS water-soluble Abs 405 vs. Abs 365. Absorption values at these two wavelengths are correlated (R<sup>2</sup> values from 0.70 to 327 328 1.00 based on all individual WE-CAN Flights), but the absorption measured at 405 nm was 329 about half of that observed at 365 nm (slope average 0.45 and range from 0.39 to 0.52 across all 330 individual WE-CAN flights). We selected these two flights to cover the range in the 331 relationships observed during WE-CAN. The lower correlation for Flight RF11 is likely due to 332 the narrower plumes being sampled compared to the broader plumes observed in Flight RF02. 333 This difference related to narrow vs. broad plumes was observed throughout the various wildfires 334 sampled during WE-CAN.

# 335 Figure 3 shows example time series for WSOC, PILS water-soluble Abs 405, and PAS

- total Abs 405 BrC from the same two flights as above. It was observed that all three parameters
- 337 tracked each other in and out of the smoke plumes. During WE-CAN, the average value  $\pm$
- 338 standard deviation for WSOC, PILS water-soluble Abs 405, and PAS total Abs 405 BrC were





Figure 2. Correlation of PILS water-soluble Abs 405 vs. PILS water-soluble Abs 365 for WE-CAN (a) Flight RF02 and (b) Flight RF11. Uncertainties with the least square regressions are one standard deviation.

### 348 3.2. Relationship between Total and Water-Soluble BrC Absorption

349 To further explore the relationship between total and water-soluble BrC absorption, we 350 examine the relationship between PAS total Abs 405 BrC and UHSAS mass for Flights RF02

and RF11. There is a strong correlation between PAS total Abs 405 BrC and UHSAS mass 351

352 (Figure 4). Therefore, the PILS water-soluble Abs 405 can be corrected for the non-water-





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356 soluble fraction of the aerosol using the UHSAS mass. This was achieved by multiplying the 357 358 PILS water-soluble Abs 405 by 1/((WSOC\*1.6)/(UHSAS mass)) or (UHSAS

mass)/(WSOC\*1.6). This approach assumes the water-soluble and characteristics of the non-

water-soluble components of OC are identical to that of the water-soluble components of OC are
 the same.

Correcting the PILS water-soluble Abs 405 by the UHSAS mass showed good closure with the PAS total Abs 405 BrC, but with a factor of ~1.5 to 2 difference between the PILS water-soluble Abs 405 corrected and PAS total Abs 405 BrC (Figures 4c and d). This is also similar to results obtained from the sampling of wildfire smoke during the FIREX (Fire Influence on Regional and Global Environments Experiment) Campaign, where there was a ratio of 3.2 between PAS Abs 405 BrC and water-soluble Abs 405 determined from off-line LWCC analysis



Figure 4. Correlation of PAS total Abs 405 BrC and PILS water-soluble Abs 405 vs. UHSAS mass for WE-CAN (a) Flight RF02 and (b) Flight RF11. Correlation of PAS total Abs 405 BrC and PILS water-soluble Abs 405 corrected for the non-water-soluble fraction of the aerosol using the UHSAS mass for WE-CAN (c) Flight RF02 and (d) Flight RF11. In plot (a), the equations for the fit and  $R^2$ value for PAS are  $y = (0.50 \pm 0.02)x - (0.03 \pm 2.29)$ ,  $R^2 = 0.87$  and for PILS are  $y = (0.14 \pm 0.01)x$ + (5.58 ± 0.65),  $R^2 = 0.75$ , respectively. In plot (b), the equations for the fit and  $R^2$  value for PAS are  $y = (0.62 \pm 0.03)x - (6.09 \pm 3.62)$ ,  $R^2 = 0.76$  and for PILS are  $y = (0.08 \pm 0.01)x + (3.58 \pm 0.66)$ ,  $R^2 = 0.43$ , respectively. In plot (c), the equation for the fit and  $R^2$  value for PILS are  $y = (0.32 \pm 0.32)$ 

0.01x + (3.60 ± 0.68), R<sup>2</sup> = 0.94, respectively. In plot (d), the equation for the fit and R<sup>2</sup> value for PILS are y = (0.24 ± 0.01)x + (2.93 ± 1.35), R<sup>2</sup> = 0.65, respectively. Uncertainties with the least square regressions are one standard deviation.

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370 of filter samples [Zeng et al., 2020]. This factor difference in both the WE-CAN and FIREX 371 data is likely due to the differences in particle vs. bulk solution absorption measured by the PAS vs. LWCC (using PILS or filter samples), respectively, and can be explained by Mie Theory. 372 373 We used Mie Theory to calculate the water-soluble and total particle Abs 405 (see section 374 2.7 for details on the equations and parameters used) through each plume transect for RF02 and 375 RF11. As shown in Figures 5a and b, we found a slope of 1.7 to 1.8 for Mie calculated watersoluble Abs 405 to PILS Abs 405 and 3 to 4 for Mie calculated total Abs 405 to PILS Abs 405. 376 377 This is similar to results presented in Liu et al. [2013] and based on off-line LWCC analysis of 378 filter samples collected at 3 sites in Georgia. In that work, a ratio of 2 for Mie calculated water-379 soluble Abs 365 to measured water-soluble Abs 365 and a ratio of 3.6 for Mie calculated total 380 Abs 365 to measured water-soluble Abs 365 were observed. In Zeng et al. [2022], Mie Theory 381 was used to calculate the factor to convert solution to particle light absorption (i.e., ratio of Mie 382 calculated to measured water-soluble absorption) as a function of wavelength for the FIREX 383 data. At 405 nm a factor of  $\sim$ 1.7 was determined, similar to what was determined from the WE-384 CAN data.

As a further check on the calculations performed here, the PAS Abs 405 BrC was compared to the Mie calculated total Abs 405. Slopes ranged from 1.04 to 1.08 (Figures 5c and d). This suggested our approach for correcting the PILS water-soluble Abs 405 for the nonwater-soluble fraction as well as to calculate the BrC absorption from the PAS Abs 405 data were valid.

Overall, during WE-CAN ~45% (ranging from 31% to 65%) of the BrC absorption at
Abs 405 was due to water-soluble species. This is similar to what was observed from off-line
LWCC analysis of water and methanol extracts from filter samples collected during sampling of
biomass burning plumes as part of the DC3 (Deep Convective Clouds and Chemistry),
SEAC4RS (Studies of Emissions, Atmospheric Composition, Clouds and Climate Coupling by
Regional Surveys), and FIREX aircraft campaigns [*Forrister et al.*, 2015; *Liu et al.*, 2015; *Zeng et al.*, 2022].

# 398 3.3. BrC Absorption, CO, WSOC, and Levoglucosan

Using data from all WE-CAN flights, Figure 6 shows that the PAS total Abs 405 BrC and
PILS water-soluble Abs 405 are correlated with CO (R<sup>2</sup> value for PAS = 0.76 and PILS = 0.55).
This further illustrates the importance of biomass burning as a source of BrC absorption (e.g.,
[Andreae and Gelencsér, 2006; Chakrabarty et al., 2010; Duarte et al., 2005; Hecobian et al.,
2010; Hoffer et al., 2006; Lack et al., 2012; Lukács et al., 2007]), especially since more than
75% of the WE-CAN data occurred in smoke.

Figure 7 shows that there is a correlation between BrC absorption and WSOC ( $R^2$  value for PAS = 0.42 and PILS = 0.60). This is not surprising given that the two main sources of WSOC are typically biomass burning and secondary organic aerosol (SOA) [*Sullivan et al.*,

2006]. A number of previous studies where the source of WSOC and Abs 365 was one or both of these have observed a similar correlation (e.g., [*Hecobian et al.*, 2010; *Liu et al.*, 2015; *Zhang* 

# et al., 2013]). Additionally, analysis of cloud water samples impacted by biomass burning has shown that nitrophenols and nitrocatechol are major contributors to the light absorption between 300 and 400 nm [Desyaterik et al., 2013].

413 BrC absorption has a similar relationship with CO and WSOC as the biomass burning 414 marker levoglucosan [Simoneit et al., 1999], but there are additional features (Figures 8a and b). 415 There is some variability in the ratio of levoglucosan to the PAS total Abs 405 BrC and PILS 416 water-soluble Abs 405 between wildfires, and this leads to two branches (Branch 1 and Branch 417 2). This was also observed for levoglucosan vs. WSOC (not shown). While there is no overall 418 correlation of levoglucosan vs. BrC absorption across all flights, there are correlations between these two species on an individual flight basis (e.g.,  $R^2$  value for Flight RF02 = 0.76 and Flight 419 420 RF11 = 0.60, not shown). When data from all flights are colored by the water-soluble potassium 421 concentration (Figures 8e and d), we observe that Branch 1, which had the highest levoglucosan 422 concentrations, also has the highest water-soluble potassium concentrations (>  $0.5 \ \mu g/m^3$ ). 423 Levoglucosan and BrC absorption are much more highly correlated in Branch 1, than in Branch 424 2 for both the PILS ( $R^2$  values Branch 1 = 0.76 and Branch 2 = 0.35) and PAS ( $R^2$  values Branch 1 = 0.60 and Branch 2 = 0.22) BrC absorption. To further examine this, the times series of PILS







Figure 5. Correlation of Mie calculated water-soluble and total Abs 405 vs. PILS water-soluble Abs 405 for WE-CAN (a) Flight RF02 and (b) Flight RF11. Correlation of PAS total Abs 405 BrC and Mie calculated total Abs 405 for WE-CAN (c) Flight RF02 and (d) Flight RF11. Uncertainties with the least square regressions are one standard deviation.

water-soluble Abs 405, levoglucosan, potassium, and ammonium for Flights RF02 and RF11 are

431 shown in Figure 9. Smoke impacted samples in Flight RF02 had higher concentrations of

432 levoglucosan and water-soluble potassium and contributed to Branch 1. The data from Flight

433 RF11 contributed to Branch 2. In addition, elevated water-soluble potassium was observed in 434 many of the plume intercepts during Flight RF02. But more elevated ammonium was observed

435 for Flight RF11, which became even more prominent in smoke intercepts after 00:00 UTC, while

water-soluble potassium was relatively less abundant. While ammonium was clearly more

436 437 prominent, there was no correlation observed between ammonium and PAS total Abs 405 BrC or

438 PILS water-soluble Abs 405 for the data contributing to Branch 2 (not shown). Water-soluble

439 potassium is a known



Figure 6. Correlation of (a) PAS total Abs 405 BrC and (b) PILS water-soluble Abs 405 vs. CO for all WE-CAN flights used in this analysis. Uncertainties with the least square regressions are one standard deviation.



Figure 7. Correlation of (a) PAS total Abs 405 BrC and (b) PILS water-soluble Abs 405 vs. WSOC for all WE-CAN flights used in this analysis. Uncertainties with the least square regressions are one standard deviation.





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Figure 8. Correlations of levoglucosan on a carbon mass basis vs. (a) PAS total Abs 405 BrC and (b) PILS water-soluble Abs 405 for all WE-CAN flights used in this analysis. Plots (c) and (d) are the same as plots (a) and (b), but with the data colored by the PILS water-soluble potassium concentrations. Branch 1 represents data with water-soluble potassium concentrations > 0.5  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup> and Branch 2 < 0.5  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup>. In plot (ae), the equation for the fit and R<sup>2</sup> value for Branch 1 are y = (0.006 ± 0.001)x + (0.027 ± 0.049), R<sup>2</sup> = 0.60 and for Branch 2 y = (0.001 ± 0.001)x + (0.118 ± 0.006), R<sup>2</sup> = 0.22, respectively. In plot (bd), the equation for the fit and R<sup>2</sup> value for Branch 1 are y = (0.024 ± 0.002)x - (0.081 ± 0.038), R<sup>2</sup> = 0.76 and for Branch 2 y = (0.006 ± 0.001)x + (0.073 ± 0.007), R<sup>2</sup> = 0.35, respectively. Uncertainties with the least square regressions are one standard deviation.

455 inorganic marker for biomass burning, although it is not as specific of a marker as levoglucosan 456 as there are additional possible sources for water-soluble potassium [Schauer et al., 2001] and 457 water-soluble potassium is predominately emitted during only the flaming phase of a fire [Lee et 458 al., 2010]. It is possible this difference in timing of emissions is what leads to the different 459 relationship of Abs 405 with levoglucosan than was observed for CO and WSOC. It has been 460 observed in previous work looking at the size-resolved aerosol composition and single particle 461 measurements from wildfire plumes that water-soluble potassium and levoglucosan appear in 462 different sized particles than BrC and that there is non-uniform mixing of them [Di Lorenzo et 463 al., 2018; Lee et al., 2016], which could also be a factor. These results from WE-CAN are 464 further suggesting there may be a relationship between levoglucosan and water-soluble 465 potassium in wildfire emissions that has not been observed in other types of burning, such as 466 prescribed burning, residential burning, and controlled laboratory burns [Sullivan et al., 2014,

467 2019].



Figure 9. Time series from top to bottom of PILS water-soluble Abs 405, PILS levoglucosan, and PILS ammonium and water-soluble potassium for WE-CAN (a) Flight RF02 and (b) Flight RF11.

# 469 3.4. Evolution of BrC Absorption with Plume Age and Fire Dynamics

The time since emission (i.e., the smoke age) was estimated for all possible wildfire
plumes as the distance the plume was sampled from the source divided by the average wind
speed at that particular sampling altitude. Only PILS-fraction collector samples that directly
overlapped with a CO plume penetration are considered. To account for dilution, we normalized
the BrC absorption to 3 different species. We examine the ratio of BrC absorption to WSOC,
ΔCO (assuming a CO background of 100 ppbv), and levoglucosan.

476 Figure 10a presents the ratio of PAS total Abs 405 BrC to WSOC and PILS water-soluble 477 Abs 405 to WSOC, Figure 10b presents the ratio of PAS total Abs 405 BrC to ∆CO and PILS 478 water-soluble Abs 405 to  $\Delta CO$ , and Figure 10c presents the ratio of PAS total Abs 405 BrC to 479 levoglucosan and PILS water-soluble Abs 405 to levoglucosan as a function of time since emission. To better discern any trends, Figures S1-S3 show these 3 ratios for each smoke plume 480 individually flight basis. If WSOC was lost with age due to evaporation of more volatile 481 482 components or SOA formation were occurring with time since emission, CO would be expected 483 to be more stable. It appears, however, that a similar pattern, perhaps with a bit more scatter for Abs 405 to WSOC, is observed for all of these ratios. Within a particular wildfire, there is no 484 485 clear evidence that the PILS water-soluble BrC absorption is affected by smoke age up to 9 h. 486 For the PAS total BrC absorption, especially for the ratio to  $\Delta CO$ , there appears to be a possible 487 decrease in the ratio in the first 2 h (see Figures S1i and S2i for Flight RF15 which best covered 488 this period), suggesting a need to further explore changes in total BrC absorption near the source region. 489

490 A number of laboratory studies suggest the initial stages of photochemical aging 491 increases light absorption (i.e., photoenhancement). This is then followed by a decrease in light 492 absorption (i.e., photobleaching) [Hems and Abbatt, 2018; Saleh et al., 2013; Sumlin et al., 2017; 493 Zhao et al., 2015; Zhong and Jang, 2014]. However, it is challenging to directly compare this 494 laboratory data to the ambient data collected during WE-CAN. But analysis of laboratory and 495 ambient biomass burning samples by Wong et al. [2019], found low molecular weight (< 400 496 Da) BrC undergoes rapid photobleaching on timescales of a few h, but high molecular weight (> 497 400 Da) BrC was stable for up to a few days [Di Lorenzo et al., 2017; Wong et al., 2019]. This 498 suggests that the BrC sampled during WE-CAN could be composed mainly of high molecular 499 weight species.

500 In addition, to investigate these ratios as a function of time since emission, the WE-CAN 501 data had to be integrated across a smoke plume in order to incorporate the PILS-fraction 502 collector measurements. Of course, a smoke plume itself was dynamic with concentrations 503 being highest in the middle of the plume and more dilute on the edges. It is possible the 504 averaging could contribute to the observed pattern of BrC absorption not changing with age. 505 Forrister et al. [2015], who used plume transect averages of SEAC4RS data, reported a decrease 506 in the total Abs  $365/\Delta CO$  from ~0.13 to 0.07 Mm<sup>-1</sup>/ppbv in 5 h for smoke from the Rim Fire. 507 Observations of smoke during FIREX, by contrast, indicated no clear trend with plume age 508 [Washenfelder et al., 2022; Zeng et al., 2022] in a dataset where the majority of plume ages were 509 less than 10 h. These varying results also suggest that other factors that contribute to changes in 510 BrC absorption over time may still need to be explored.

511 As these three studies all examined Abs 365, the same series of plots shown in Figure 10

- 512 are repeated for PILS water-soluble Abs 365 and shown in Figure S4. A similar pattern was
- 513 observed at both wavelengths for the WE-CAN data. This suggests our results were not
- 514 wavelength specific and further corroborate the results observed during FIREX.

515An analysis of WE-CAN data by Palm et al. [2020] looking at the evolution of organic516aerosol and BrC suggested that although changes in organic aerosol were likely occurring, there517was a balance between dilution-driven evaporation and subsequent formation resulting in little518change over time. It is hard to compare these results to our analysis as the Palm et al. [2020]519work chose to focus only on the total organic aerosol and total Abs 405 BrC and did not examine520the WSOC or water-soluble Abs 405. When examining the ratio of WSOC to ΔCO as a function521of time since emission (Figure S5) during WE-CAN, there was not clear evidence for formation522rol loss of WSOC being observed within a particular wildfire. But a recent analysis by Zeng et al.523[2022] has shown in wildfire plumes that dilution-drive evaporation was likely playing a minor524role compared to the effects of ozone on BrC.

525 In order to investigate the possible influence of fire dynamics on BrC absorption, the 526 modified combustion efficiency (MCE) was calculated as the change in carbon dioxide divided 527 by the sum of the change in carbon monoxide and carbon dioxide ( $\Delta CO_2/(\Delta CO + \Delta CO_2)$ ) on a 528 molar basis [*Ward and Radke*, 1993]. A higher MCE value indicates a more intense or extended 529 flaming phase as opposed to a smoldering phase. Within a particular wildfire there appeared to 530 be no clear dependence of the ratio of BrC absorption to WSOC,  $\Delta CO$ , or levoglucosan on MCE





Figure 10. (a) Abs 405/WSOC, (b) Abs  $405/\Delta CO$ , and (c) Abs 405/levoglucosan as a function of time since emission for all WE-CAN flights with the data segregated by flight. In each plot the PAS total Abs 405 BrC is on top and the PILS water-soluble Abs 405 on the bottom. (Figure 11 and Figures <u>S4-S6S6-S8</u>), except that an overall lower Abs 405/levoglucosan ratio 532 was observed for the wildfires with higher MCE values (i.e., Flight RF02). This further supports 533 the relationship between the highest potassium concentrations and the levoglucosan vs. Abs 405 534 correlation (Figures 8e and 8d) previously discussed as potassium is predominately emitted from 535 the flaming phase of a fire [Echalar et al., 1995; Lee et al., 2010; Ward et al., 1991]. 536

### 537 4. Summary

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538 A PILS-LWCC-TOC and PAS were deployed on the NSF/NCAR C-130 research aircraft 539 during WE-CAN to examine aerosol absorption in wildfire smoke in the western U.S. This was 540 the first deployment of the PILS-LWCC-TOC on a research aircraft. The PILS allowed for a 16 541 s integrated measurement of the water-soluble BrC absorption and 4 s integrated measurement of 542 WSOC. The data from the PILS and PAS were combined to investigate the water-soluble vs. 543 total BrC absorption at 405 nm in the 20 wildfires sampled during WE-CAN. We show the 544 following: 545

546 1. WSOC, PILS water-soluble Abs 405, and PAS total Abs 405 BrC tracked each other in 547 and out of the smoke plumes. BrC absorption was correlated with CO (R<sup>2</sup> value for PAS 548 = 0.76 and PILS = 0.55) and WSOC ( $R^2$  value for PAS = 0.42 and PILS = 0.60) during 549 the entire study, illustrating the importance of biomass burning as a source of BrC 550 absorption. A similar pattern was observed for levoglucosan, but with two data branches. 551 Levoglucosan and BrC absorption were correlated ( $R^2$  values for PAS = 0.60 and PILS = 552 0.76) in the first data branch and this subset of data was also characterized by the highest 553 observed water-soluble potassium concentrations (>  $0.5 \ \mu g/m^3$ ). This suggests there may 554 be a relationship between levoglucosan and water-soluble potassium in wildfire 555 emissions that has not generally been observed in other types of burning. 556

557 2. Using the calculated UHSAS mass, the PILS water-soluble Abs 405 can be corrected to 558 also account for the non-water-soluble fraction of the aerosol. The corrected PILS watersoluble Abs 405 showed good closure with the PAS total Abs 405 BrC, but with a factor of ~1.5 to 2 difference. This difference can be explained by particle vs. bulk solution absorption measured by the PAS vs. PILS, respectively, as shown by Mie Theory calculations. During WE-CAN, ~45% of the BrC absorption at 405 nm was due to water-soluble species.

3. The ratio of water-soluble BrC absorptionAbs 405 to WSOC,  $\Delta$ CO, or levoglucosan showed no clear dependence on fire dynamics or the time since emission up to 9 h. The total Abs 405 BrC absorption did show a slight decrease in the first 2 h, suggesting a need to further explore near source evolution.





Figure 11. (a) Abs 405/WSOC, (b) Abs 405/ $\Delta$ CO, and (c) Abs 405/levoglucosan as a function of modified combustion efficiency for all WE-CAN flights with the data segregated by flight. In each plot the PAS total Abs 405 BrC is on top and the PILS water-soluble Abs 405 on the bottom.

# 577 Data Availability

- 578 The WE-CAN data is provided by NCAR/EOL under sponsorship of the National Science
- 579 Foundation and is available at http://data.eol.ucar.edu/master\_lists/generated/we-can/. The DOI 580 for each data set used in this work are:
- 581

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- 582 PILS1: https://doi.org/10.26023/9H07-MD9K-430D and https://doi.org/10.26023/CRHY-NDT9 583 C30V
- 584 PILS2: https://doi.org/10.26023/7TAN-TZMD-680Y
- 585 PAS: https://doi.org/10.26023/K8P0-X4T3-TN06
- 586 UHSAS: https://doi.org/10.26023/BZ4F-EAC4-290W
- 587 CO: https://doi.org/10.26023/NNYM-Z18J-PX0Q
- 588 Meteorological Data and Coordinates: https://doi.org/10.26023/G766-BS71-9V03

# 590 Author Contributions

- 591 APS, SMM, DWT, EVF, JLC designed the project. APS wrote the paper. APS, RPP, YS,
- 592 SMM, DWT, TC, JL, and EVF collected and analyzed data. All authors reviewed and provided
- 593 comments for the paper.594

# 595 Conflict of Interest

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

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