

1 **Aging of secondary organic aerosol generated from the** 2 **ozonolysis of α -pinene: Effects of ozone, light and** 3 **temperature**

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20 **Abstract**

21 A series of experiments was conducted in the CESAM simulation chamber to investigate the
22 evolution of the physical and chemical properties of secondary organic aerosol (SOA) during
23 different forcing. The present experiments represent a first attempt to comprehensively
24 investigate the influence of oxidative processing, photochemistry, and diurnal temperature
25 cycling upon SOA properties. SOA generated from the ozonolysis of α -pinene were exposed
26 under dry condition (<1% relative humidity) to (1) elevated ozone concentrations, (2) light
27 (under controlled temperature conditions), or (3) light and heat (6°C light-induced temperature
28 increase), and the resultant changes in SOA optical properties (i.e. absorption and scattering),
29 hygroscopicity and chemical composition were measured using a suite of instrumentation
30 interfaced to the CESAM chamber. The complex refractive index (CRI) was derived from

1 integrated nephelometer measurements at 525 nm wavelength, using Mie scattering
2 calculations and measured number size distributions. The particle size growth factor (GF) was
3 measured with a hygroscopic tandem differential mobility analyzer (H-TDMA). An aerosol
4 mass spectrometer (AMS) was used for the determination of the f_{44}/f_{43} and O:C ratio of the
5 particles bulk.

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7 No change in SOA size or chemical composition was observed during O₃ and light exposure at
8 constant temperature; in addition, GF and CRI of the SOA remained constant with forcing. By
9 contrast, illumination of the SOA in the absence of temperature control led to an increase in the
10 real part of the CRI from 1.35 (± 0.03) to 1.49 (± 0.03), an increase of the GF from 1.04 (± 0.02)
11 to 1.14 (± 0.02) and an increase of the f_{44}/f_{43} ratio from 1.73 (± 0.03) to 2.23 (± 0.03). The
12 simulation of the experiments using the Master Chemical Mechanism (MCM) and the
13 Generator for Explicit Chemistry and Kinetics of Organics in the Atmosphere (GECKO-A)
14 shows that these changes resulted from the evaporation of semi-volatile and less oxidized SOA
15 species induced by the relatively minor increases in temperature ($\sim 6^\circ\text{C}$). These surprising
16 results suggest that α -pinene-O₃ SOA properties may be governed more by local temperature
17 fluctuations than by oxidative processing and photochemistry.

18

19 **1. Introduction**

20 Atmospheric aerosols influence climate directly by altering the absorption and scattering of
21 solar and terrestrial radiation (Haywood and Ramaswamy, 1998) and indirectly by changing
22 cloud properties (Lohmann and Feichter, 2005). One of the major uncertainties in estimating
23 the aerosol radiative effect is associated with the contribution of secondary organic aerosols
24 (SOA). SOA are formed by condensation of species formed during gas-phase oxidation of
25 volatile organic compounds (VOCs) and are a major constituent of atmospheric organic aerosol
26 (Kanakidou et al., 2005; Turpin and Huntzicker, 1995; Zhang et al., 2007). During their
27 atmospheric lifetime, which ranges from 48-72 hours (Wagstrom and Pandis, 2009), their
28 physical and chemical properties do not stay constant but rather evolve in response to local
29 atmospheric conditions. For example, studies have shown that SOA can grow by condensation
30 of low-volatility oxidized species (Ellison et al., 1999) and by cloud processing (Cocker et al.,
31 2001; Ervens and Volkamer, 2010; Volkamer et al., 2009). SOA can also be oxidized by gas-
32 phase oxidants (Kalberer, 2004; Gao et al., 2004), undergo chemical reactions in the particle
33 phase (Kalberer, 2004; Gao et al., 2004) or partially evaporate (Warren et al., 2009). These

1 changes in aerosol properties have also been observed in the field: for example, more oxidized,
2 less volatile and more hygroscopic SOA are typically observed in remote areas as a result of
3 continuous aging in the atmosphere (Jimenez et al., 2009 ; Ng et al., 2011; Rudich et al., 2007).
4 Because SOA contains a wide variety of organic compounds, which vary in terms of their size,
5 structure, functionality, and oxidation state (Kroll and Seinfeld, 2008; Jimenez et al., 2009; de
6 Gouw et al., 2005; Hallquist et al., 2009), the processes associated with SOA aging are very
7 complex.

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9 Experiments performed in simulation chambers have significantly improved our understanding
10 of SOA aging processes (Donahue et al., 2012, Qi et al., 2012, Yasmeeen et al., 2012). In order
11 to provide modelers with accurate parameters for SOA aging in the atmosphere, these
12 experiments must be atmospherically relevant (Kourtchev et al., 2014). While the O:C ratio of
13 laboratory-generated SOA is similar to that of freshly formed ambient SOA, it is generally
14 lower than that of aged ambient SOA (Ng et al., 2010). In addition, while the representation of
15 SOA in chemical transport models based on parameterization of chamber data showed a good
16 agreement with nighttime SOA concentrations (in a rural site near Rotterdam, the Netherlands),
17 an underprediction of SOA concentrations occurred during the day (Li et al., 2013).

18
19 Research has shown that the oxidative aging of SOA in the atmosphere has a major influence
20 on its properties. For example, studies have shown that highly oxygenated organic particles are
21 likely to have a higher hygroscopicity and CCN activity than freshly emitted particles, due to
22 the increased polarity and solubility of their constituents (Massoli et al., 2010; Jimenez et al.,
23 2009; Chang et al., 2010; Duplissy et al., 2011). Oxidative aging has also been shown to lead
24 to changes in the real part of the complex refractive index (CRI) of SOA (Cappa et al., 2011;
25 Lambe et al., 2013; Flores et al., 2014), and to an increase in its UV absorption via the formation
26 of additional carbonyl compounds and oligomeric products (Sareen et al., 2013; Nozière and
27 Esteve, 2005; Shapiro et al., 2009; Lambe et al., 2013). To date, laboratory studies have
28 primarily focused on oxidative aging mediated by the heterogeneous reactive uptake of OH
29 radical (Rudich et al., 2007; George and Abbatt, 2010; Smith et al., 2009). Oxidative aging by
30 O₃, by contrast, has received less attention.

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1 Light exposure has also been shown to influence SOA properties: by photodissociation of
2 molecules such as carbonyls and organic peroxides, either in the gas or the particle phase, it has
3 been shown to induce a decrease in SOA mass concentration (Kroll et al., 2006; Bateman et al.,
4 2011). There are also indications of significant photolytic processing of carbonyl compounds
5 in aerosols during long-range transport (Hawkins and Russell, 2010). In addition, laboratory
6 studies have revealed that photochemical processes alter the chemical composition of SOA
7 (Tritscher et al., 2011; Cappa et al., 2011; Qi et al., 2012; George and Abbatt, 2010; Donahue
8 et al., 2012) and modify its hydrophilicity (Tritscher et al., 2011; George and Abbatt, 2010;
9 George et al., 2009), optical properties (Cappa et al., 2011) and volatility (Tritscher et al., 2011).
10 In these studies, H₂O₂ was used as a photolytic OH precursor. Since this OH source requires
11 the use of UV light, these experiments did not allow for the individual effects of heterogeneous
12 reactions by OH and direct photolysis on SOA properties to be distinguished.

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14 SOA properties can also be affected by local temperature variations via the evaporation of
15 volatile products. A number of studies have used thermodenuder-based techniques to
16 investigate the volatility of SOA and to determine the effect of temperature on SOA properties
17 (Asa-Awuku et al., 2008; Huffman et al., 2009; Cappa and Wilson, 2011). Volatile Tandem
18 Differential Mobility analyzers (V-TDMA) have been used to measure the shrinkage of
19 monodisperse particles after heating (Cappa and Wilson, 2011; Salo et al., 2011). In these
20 studies, particles were exposed to elevated temperatures (up to 300°C) for a short time. It has
21 been shown, however, that SOA exhibits a significantly slower response to changes in
22 temperature than that predicted by models for liquid droplets (Cappa and Wilson, 2011).
23 Recently, it has been suggested that SOA could be in an amorphous semi-solid or amorphous
24 solid (glassy) state under dry conditions (Renbaum-Wolff et al., 2013; Saukko et al., 2012;
25 Denjean et al., 2014b), which could limit the volatilization kinetics of the aerosol.

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27 This study focuses on the SOA formed from the ozonolysis of α -pinene, which is an important
28 source of SOA on both regional and global scales (Guenther et al., 1995; Hallquist et al., 2009).
29 In our companion paper (Denjean et al. 2014b), we explored the evolution of the physical,
30 chemical, optical and hygroscopic properties of α -pinene-O₃ SOA during the first hours after
31 its formation. However, Wang et al. (2011) have shown that particle lifetime can vary from 10
32 h to 4 days in the CESAM simulation chamber. CESAM is a powerful tool for the study of
33 SOA over longer timescales corresponding to their lifetime in the atmosphere (Yasmeen et al.,

1 2012). In the present work, we investigate in the same chamber the effects of i) additional ozone
2 exposure, ii) light exposure and iii) temperature variation on the chemical composition,
3 hygroscopicity, and optical properties of α -pinene-O₃ SOA, over timescales reaching 20 h.

4 5 **2. Methods**

6 **2.1. CESAM atmospheric simulation chamber**

7 The present experiments were performed in the CESAM (French acronym for Experimental
8 Multiphase Atmospheric Simulation Chamber) atmospheric simulation chamber, which has
9 previously been described in detail by Wang et al. (2011). In brief, CESAM is a stainless-steel
10 chamber with a volume of 4.2 m³. Chamber illumination is accomplished using the borosilicate-
11 filtered output of three high-pressure arc xenon lamps (4 kW, XPO 4000 W/HS, OSRAM),
12 which provides a good reproduction of the solar energy distribution at the Earth's surface over
13 the 290–700 nm wavelength region. The inner walls of the chamber are polished in order to
14 provide good reflection inside the chamber and thus enhance the radiation homogeneity. During
15 our experiments, the NO₂ photolysis frequency J_{NO_2} within the chamber was approximately 3
16 $\times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$, which corresponds to a solar zenith angle of $\sim 70^\circ$ (Carter et al., 2005). The simulation
17 chamber was maintained at room temperature ($\pm 1^\circ\text{C}$) using a refrigerating liquid (70% water /
18 30% ethylene glycol), which was circulated in the double walls of the chamber. Temperature
19 and relative humidity are monitored with a transmitter (HMP234, Vaisala) equipped with a thin-
20 film capacitive humidity sensor (HUMICAP, Vaisala). During our experiments, the
21 temperature accuracy is $\pm 0.1^\circ\text{C}$ at 20°C and the RH accuracy is $\pm 1.9\%$ (up to 90% RH).

22 23 **2.2. Experimental details**

24 Prior to each experiment, the chamber was evacuated to a secondary vacuum (typical pressure
25 $\sim 4 \times 10^{-4}$ mbar) and kept under vacuum overnight. The chamber was then filled to atmospheric
26 pressure with a mixture of 200 mbar of Oxygen (Air Liquide, Alphagaz class 1, purity 99.9%)
27 and 800 mbar of Nitrogen produced from the evaporation of a pressurized liquid nitrogen tank
28 (Messer, purity $> 99.995\%$, H₂O < 5 ppm). The background conditions were typically: particles
29 concentration $< 0.1 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, ozone mixing ratio < 5 ppb, gas phase organics < 5 ppb and relative
30 humidity $< 1\%$. To avoid contamination, a slight overpressure of about 5 mbar with respect to
31 the atmospheric pressure was maintained during each experiment by adding nitrogen (Messer,
32 purity $> 99.995\%$, H₂O < 5 ppm).

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2 All aging experiments were carried out under the same initial conditions with α -pinene and
3 ozone reacting in the dark, with no seeds neither OH scavenger. O₃ was generated in an O₂ flow
4 using a commercial dielectric ozonator generator (MBT 802N, Messtechnik GmbH,
5 Stahnsdorf, Germany) and introduced to the chamber through an injection port. Quantification
6 of α -pinene was performed by evaporating precisely measured amounts of the terpene into a
7 glass bulb held under vacuum. When the O₃ concentration within the chamber reached ~250
8 ppb, α -pinene (Aldrich, 98%) was flushed from the bulb into the chamber in a flow of oxygen
9 to a concentration of ~200 ppb within the chamber. In all experiments, SOA formed directly
10 after α -pinene injection, and its precursors were essentially consumed after 4 hours of reaction.
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12 In our companion paper, we observed changes in the oxidative degree and optical properties
13 during the formation of SOA, but these changes ceased after 9 hours of reaction (Denjean et al.,
14 2014b). In the present study, therefore, SOA was allowed to evolve for 14 h prior to simulate
15 atmospheric processing, which was in turn conducted over a period of 6 h. Three different aging
16 regimes were applied after 14h of α -pinene ozonolysis: (1) 700 ppb of ozone was introduced
17 into the simulation chamber, (2) the SOA was exposed to light for 6 hours in the absence of
18 temperature control, during which time the temperature increased by ~6°C, and (3) the SOA
19 was exposed to light for 6 hours under controlled temperature conditions ($\pm 1^\circ\text{C}$). For
20 comparison purposes, control experiments were performed: in these experiments, SOA was
21 allowed to remain in the chamber for 20 hours under dark conditions. The specific experimental
22 conditions associated with each aging regime are shown in Table 1. As discussed in our
23 companion paper (Denjean et al., 2014b), the variation of SOA mass concentration between the
24 experiments was attributed to different concentration of α -pinene injected to the chamber.
25 Despite this, the chemical, optical and hygroscopic properties of SOA were found to be very
26 similar between the experiments. Therefore, the experiments were considered to be comparable
27 for studying the effect of forcing on SOA properties.

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29 During these experiments, the concentrations of α -pinene, ozone and VOC were monitored
30 using a Fourier-transform infrared spectrometer (FTIR) from Bruker GmbH (Ettlingen,
31 Germany) coupled to a multi-reflection cell with an optical path of 192 m. During the different
32 forcing, the concentrations of gas-phase compounds were found to be below the detection limit.

1 Ozone was also measured with a commercial instrument (Horiba APOA 370, Kyoto, Japan),
2 with a detection limit of 0.2 ppb and a precision of 0.1 ppb.

4 **2.3. Measurement of SOA properties**

5 **2.3.1. Size distribution**

6 SOA number size distributions between 14 and 505 nm were monitored using a scanning
7 mobility particle sizer (SMPS; DMA Model 3080, CPC Model 3010; TSI) operated at flow
8 rates of 3/0.3 Lpm (sheath flow/aerosol sample flow). Instrument calibration was conducted
9 using polystyrene latex spheres (PSL) (Duke Scientific). Since the PSL diameters measured
10 during calibration were ~ 10% larger than the certified PSL diameters (for 100 nm PSL
11 samples), a correction factor was applied to all measurements. Corrections for particle loss by
12 diffusion in the SMPS tubing and the contribution of multiply charged particles were made
13 using the SMPS software (Aerosol Instrument Manager, version 9, TSI). The number size
14 distribution was used to obtain SOA mass concentrations, assuming homogeneous spherical
15 particles and an effective density of 1.2 g m⁻³, as determined by Shilling et al. (2008), Saathoff
16 et al. (2009) and Denjean et al. (2014b).

18 **2.3.2. Chemical composition**

19 SOA chemical composition was analyzed using a high-resolution time-of-flight aerosol mass
20 spectrometer (HR-ToF-AMS, Aerodyne) (DeCarlo et al., 2006). Instrumental and data
21 treatment details are given in our companion paper (Denjean et al., 2014b), and thus will be
22 described only briefly here. The HR-ToF-AMS was used under standard conditions (vaporizer
23 at 600°C and electron ionization at 70 eV). The instrument was switched between two
24 modalities: a single-reflectron configuration (V-mode), which offers higher sensitivity but
25 lower resolving power (up to ~2100 at m/z 200), and a double-reflectron configuration (W-
26 mode), which provides a higher resolving power (up to ~4300 at m/z 200) but a lower sensitivity
27 (De Carlo et al., 2006). Default collection efficiencies (CE) and relative ionization efficiencies
28 (RIE) were used for quantification of SOA composition. High-resolution analysis was
29 performed using V-mode data, by integrating each C_xH_yO_z ion in the mass range 12–180 m/z;
30 W-mode data were used only to check for possible interferences. The method is based on the
31 relative ionization efficiencies of molecules containing C, H and O atoms. The sum of the ion
32 signal intensities from all fragments was used to estimate the O:C ratio of the SOA, and thus
33 its degree of oxidation. Air interferences were removed by adjusting the fragmentation table

1 (Aiken et al., 2007; Allan et al., 2004). Additional modification of the fragmentation table was
2 made for organic H_2O^+ as suggested by Chen et al. (2011). Default fragmentation table derives
3 the contribution from fragmentation of organic compounds (dehydration) to the ion H_2O^+ as
4 $\text{organic_H}_2\text{O}^+ = 0.225 \cdot \text{CO}_2^+$ considering that the measured excess is due to the interference of
5 water. Because our experiments were run under very dry conditions ($\text{RH} < 1\%$), the ion H_2O^+
6 has been totally assigned to fragmentation of organic compounds which corresponds to a ratio
7 $\text{organic_H}_2\text{O}^+$ to CO_2^+ of 0.8-1:1. Similar $\text{organic_H}_2\text{O}^+$ to CO_2^+ were obtained in previous
8 studies of α -pinene ozonolysis (Chen et al., 2011; Chhabra et al., 2010). Measurement
9 uncertainties of O:C were estimated to be $\pm 30\%$, as determined by Aiken et al (2007).

11 **2.3.3. Optical properties**

12 SOA optical properties were characterized by combining data obtained from an integrating
13 nephelometer (Model M9003, Ecotech), a spectral aethalometer (Model AE31, Magee
14 Scientific) and the SMPS described above. The integrating nephelometer measured the
15 scattering coefficient (σ_{scatt}) at 525 nm wavelength, as well as the temperature and relative
16 humidity of the incoming airflow, and was calibrated prior to the experiments using filtered air
17 and CO_2 . The nephelometer collected light only from particles at scattering angles between 10°
18 and 170° . Measured scattering coefficients were corrected for this angular truncation using Mie
19 calculations, which were performed using the measured SMPS size distribution. The
20 aethalometer measured the SOA absorption coefficient at 7 wavelengths (370, 470, 520, 590,
21 660, 880 and 950 nm) by measuring the increase in attenuation of transmitted light through its
22 quartz fiber filter as a function of particle exposure time. In order to avoid artifacts from the
23 adsorption of ozone and VOCs on the filter, a charcoal denuder was installed upstream of the
24 aethalometer (Weingartner et al., 2003). Measurements of light attenuation were corrected for
25 aerosol scattering effects according to the method described by Collaud Coen et al. (2010) and
26 using the parameters obtained by Denjean et al. (2014a, 2014b) for α -pinene- O_3 SOA.

27
28 These measurements were ultimately used to calculate the real and imaginary parts of the CRI,
29 which together describe the scattering and absorbing characteristics of SOA. The CRI retrieval
30 procedure employed has been described and validated in Denjean et al. (2014a). In brief, the
31 CRI of SOA was retrieved at 525 nm by comparing the measured scattering and absorbing
32 coefficients (respectively σ_{scat} and σ_{abs}) with those obtained from Mie scattering calculations
33 (Bohren and Huffman, 1983) performed using the measured number size distribution. The
34 absolute error associated with the real CRI was ± 0.03 (Denjean et al., 2014b).

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2.3.4. Hygroscopic properties

SOA hygroscopic properties were analyzed with a custom-built hygroscopic Tandem Differential Mobility Analyzer (H-TDMA), which is described in detail in Denjean et al. (2014a). The first DMA was used to select particles with a mobility diameter of 200 nm, which were then humidified at a constant RH of $90\pm 1\%$ (residence time ~ 15 s). The second DMA, which was coupled to a CPC, measured the humidified size distribution (with respect to the mobility diameter). Both DMAs were calibrated using monodisperse PSL particles (Duke Scientific) with size diameters of 70, 100, 200 and 300 and 500 nm. These size distributions were fitted to lognormal size distributions to obtain the dry geometric mean diameter, $D_{p,m}(\text{dry})$, and the geometric mean diameter of the humidified aerosol, $D_{p,m}(90\% \text{ RH})$. These values were used to obtain the size growth factor (GF), which is defined as the ratio of $D_{p,m}(90\% \text{ RH})$ to $D_{p,m}(\text{dry})$. The uncertainties in the calculated GF are associated with uncertainties in particle size distributions arising from DMA classification and calibration, as well as with uncertainties in the estimation of $D_{p,m}$ from size distributions, and are estimated to ± 0.02 . Prior to each experiment, the experimental set-up was validated by comparing measurements of the GF of ammonium sulfate particles to those predicted by Köhler theory (Denjean et al., 2014a).

2.4. Modeling SOA formation and aging

In order to assist in the interpretation of experimental results, the α -pinene ozonolysis experiments were simulated using a box model that included the Master Chemical Mechanism (MCM) (version 3.1) (Saunders et al., 2003) and the Generator for Explicit Chemistry and Kinetics of Organics in the Atmosphere (GECKO-A) (Aumont et al., 2005). The MCM v3.1 oxidation scheme for α -pinene contains 329 organic species and 973 reactions. The GECKO-A chemical scheme for α -pinene oxidation, which provides a more detailed description of the gaseous oxidation of organic species and takes into account minor reaction pathways not considered by the MCM, involves 5.7×10^4 organic species reacting according to 1.7×10^6 reactions (Valorso et al., 2011). Both models simulate gas/particle partitioning in terms of equilibria between the gas phase and an ideal liquid homogeneous condensed phase (Camredon et al., 2007).

1 Vapor pressures and boiling points for secondary organic species were estimated using the
2 methods developed by Nannoolal et al. (2004, 2008), as they have been shown to provide the
3 most reliable estimates for the purpose of SOA formation (Barley and McFiggans, 2010).
4 Accretion, oxidation and photolysis in the condensed phase were not taken into account in this
5 investigation in the models. In addition, recent studies (Renbaum-Wolff et al., 2013; Saukko
6 et al., 2012; Denjean et al., 2014b) suggest that α -pinene-O₃ SOA viscosity increases with
7 aging. Due to possible kinetic limitations, heterogeneous chemistry and particle-phase reactions
8 can be limited in highly viscous aerosol. The effect of viscosity on rate constants were not taken
9 into account in the current MCM and Gecko-A models.

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11 Time integration of the chemical schemes was solved using the TWOSTEP solver (Verwer et
12 al., 1994, 1996). The gas/particle partitioning module was solved using the iterative method
13 described in Pankow (2008). Simulations were initialized at a time point corresponding to α -
14 pinene injection. This injection was implemented in the model as a constant flux over the
15 injection time period that reproduced the observed concentration. Dilution within the chamber
16 (arising from the periodical injection of N₂ to compensate for instrumental sampling flows) was
17 described as a measurement-constrained first-order process and applied in the simulations to
18 both gas and aerosols. The temperature used in the simulations was that observed in the CESAM
19 chamber during the experiments. Ozone wall loss is significant in the CESAM chamber (Wang
20 et al., 2011). The ozone loss rate employed in the simulations, therefore, was adjusted for each
21 experiment in order to reproduce its measured decay.

22

23 **3. Results**

24 **3.1. Changes in SOA size distribution during simulated atmospheric** 25 **processing**

26 Figure 1 shows the temporal evolution of SOA mass concentrations (normalized to the mass
27 concentration at the beginning of each aging experiment and corrected for dilution within the
28 chamber) during and after simulated atmospheric processing. As shown in this figure, the SOA
29 mass concentrations in the control experiments decreased by ~15% over the 6 h duration of the
30 experiment. Since these measurements were performed after the total consumption of O₃, this
31 mass decrease cannot be attributed to O₃-induced fragmentation reactions. It is thus probable
32 that the SOA mass decrease observed in the control experiments arose via losses of particle and

1 gaseous compounds to the chamber walls. Similar behavior was observed when SOA was
2 exposed to ozone and to light under controlled temperature conditions, which suggests that
3 these forcing did not lead to significant fragmentation or functionalization. By contrast,
4 exposure of SOA to light and increasing temperature led to a 40% loss in total SOA mass
5 concentration and, as shown in Figure 2, to a change in the SOA number size distribution: as
6 the temperature increased from 20°C to 26°C, the geometric mean diameter of the normalized
7 SOA number size distribution decreased from 286 nm to 249 nm, which also indicates that
8 significant evaporation of SOA particles occurred.

9 10 **3.2. Changes in SOA optical and hygroscopic properties during simulated** 11 **atmospheric processing**

12 Since the CRI is related to the aerosol chemical composition, density, molecular weight and
13 polarization (Liu and Daum, 2008), it was thus expected to be influenced by atmospheric
14 processing. The imaginary part of the SOA CRI over the 370–950 nm wavelength range is
15 shown in Figure 3. Its value was almost zero at all the wavelengths studied, which indicates
16 that SOA, even after simulated atmospheric processing, has a pure scattering effect in the visible
17 to near-UV region. The formation of chromophores has been observed previously from the
18 ozonolysis of biogenic terpenes (Bones et al., 2010; Laskin et al., 2010; Zhong et al., 2012).
19 Some oligomers formed in particle-phase can contain long conjugated structures which increase
20 the light absorption properties of SOA in the visible region. Interestingly, while one might have
21 expected the formation of chromophores during the aging processes, our results indicate that
22 this phenomenon occurred only weakly for α -pinene-O₃ SOA and/or that the specific absorption
23 of any potential aging products was not significant. Unlike toluene (Nakayama et al., 2010) or
24 limonene (Bones et al., 2010), α -pinene-O₃ SOA products did not contain long conjugated
25 structures which absorbed visible radiation, at least under our experimental conditions when
26 conducted in the absence of NO_x or seed particles.

27
28 The influence of atmospheric processing upon the real part of the SOA CRI is shown in Figure
29 4. No discernible change in real CRI was observed when the SOA was exposed to O₃ or to light
30 at constant temperature. By contrast, a significant increase in the real CRI was observed (1.35
31 (± 0.03) to 1.49 (± 0.03)) after photolytic forcing with increasing temperature.

1 The hygroscopic properties of SOA were studied by measuring the GF at a constant relative
2 humidity ($90 \pm 1\%$). As shown in Figure 5, the GF remained constant ($\sim 1.04 \pm 0.02$) both during
3 O_3 exposure and during photochemical aging at constant temperature. These results are
4 consistent with our observations of constant mass concentration and CRI of SOA, and confirm
5 that no significant processing of the SOA occurred under these conditions. In contrast, a
6 significant increase in the GF, from 1.04 (± 0.02) to 1.14 (± 0.02), was observed with increasing
7 temperature.

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9 **3.3. Changes in SOA chemical composition during simulated atmospheric** 10 **processing**

11 The results presented in the previous two sections suggest that the exposure of the aging of
12 SOA to light and increasing temperature resulted in changes in its physical, optical and
13 hygroscopic properties, which are likely to be linked to changes in its chemical composition.
14 Indeed, as shown in Figure 6a, the increase in the O:C ratio of bulk SOA during its exposure to
15 light and increasing temperature (0.55 (± 0.16) to 0.59 (± 0.18)) was much larger than that
16 observed for SOA under control conditions. The increase in the O:C ratio was, however, within
17 the measurement uncertainties ($\pm 30\%$) estimated from Aiken et al (2007). This uncertainties
18 may be overestimated compared to the experimental variability and even experimental
19 reproducibility observed in this study. In fact, we estimated the experimental uncertainties to
20 be ± 0.01 from the standard deviation of the experimental values before the forcing. A new
21 parameterization of the O:C ratio derived from AMS measurements was recently presented by
22 Canagaratna et al. (2014). Application of this new parameterization to our measurements
23 resulted in O:C ratios of 0.55, similar to those obtained with our modified fragmentation table
24 in which the measured fragment H_2O^+ was assigned to organic compounds. This indicates that
25 the two methodologies agree under very dry conditions ($RH < 1\%$). The average O:C ratio
26 obtained with both parameterization were higher by 20% than the one obtained with the Aiken-
27 method and can be attributed to an underestimation in the Aiken-method of the CO^+ and H_2O^+
28 ions produced from many oxidized species.

29

30 The fragments f_{44} , defined as the ratio of the m/z 44 (a major fragment of organic acids and
31 hydroperoxides) signal to the total organic aerosol signal, and f_{43} , defined as the ratio of m/z 43
32 (associated with less-oxygenated groups, e.g. aldehydes and alcohols) signal to the total organic

1 aerosol signal, have been widely used in laboratory and field studies as indicators of SOA
2 functionality and degree of oxidation (Ng et al., 2010; Alfarra et al., 2013; Poulain et al., 2010;
3 Pfaffenberger et al., 2013). As shown in Figure 6b, in the experiment performed under
4 illumination but in the absence of temperature control, the f_{44}/f_{43} ratio of SOA increased from
5 1.73 (± 0.03) to 2.23 (± 0.03) as the chamber temperature increased. This result implies a
6 temperature-mediated increase in particle-phase oxidized species. By contrast, only a small
7 increase in the f_{44}/f_{43} ratio (from 1.93 (± 0.03) to 2.03 (± 0.03)) was observed during the control
8 experiment, which implies that the SOA composition in this experiment remained relatively
9 constant.

10

11 **3.4. Effect of phase partitioning on SOA properties**

12 During the aging of SOA by photolysis with increasing temperature, we observed a decrease of
13 the mass concentration (Figure 1) which was associated to an increase of the f_{44}/f_{43} ratio of bulk
14 particles (Figure 6b). These evolutions may result from possible shifts of some semi-volatile
15 organics to the gas phase as temperature increases. A second possible explanation would be the
16 photochemical reactions that occur in the condensed phase combined to the evaporation of less
17 oxidized compounds. In this case, photolysis could lead to a loss of semi-volatile and less
18 oxidized compounds in the particle phase due to the fragmentation of condensed-phase species
19 (Donahue et al., 2012; Henry and Donahue, 2012).

20

21 In order to investigate if the increase in temperature can explain the SOA mass decrease, the
22 SOA formation and evolution were modelled with the detailed chemical schemes GECKO-A
23 and MCM. In these models, the simulated SOA formation started at the initial step of α -pinene
24 ozonolysis. The effects of temperature on phase partitioning were simulated with both models.
25 The effects of photochemical reactions and heterogeneous reactions by O_3 were ignored in these
26 simulations. As shown in Figure 7 for the initial SOA formation period, the time profiles of α -
27 pinene and ozone concentrations were well reproduced by both models within the measurement
28 uncertainties. Although the temporal profile of the SOA formation was also well reproduced by
29 the models, the simulated mass concentrations of SOA obtained using the GECKO-A and MCM
30 models (302 and 337 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, respectively) were higher than those observed in the experiment
31 (130 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$). This overestimation of the simulated SOA mass concentration might be due either
32 to an underestimation of the vapor pressure with the Nannoolal method used in this study or

1 some oxidation processes occurring in the aerosol phase and leading to fragmentation not
2 implemented in the model. In addition, an unavoidable consequence of simulation chamber
3 measurements is the interaction of gases with the chamber wall surfaces. It is plausible that the
4 VOC-wall losses affect the SOA mass concentration by being a sink for semi-volatile products
5 preventing them from condensing on the aerosol phase.

6

7 Four experiments, each of which exhibited different temperature increases, were simulated
8 using these models. SOA mass concentration loss was calculated as the difference between the
9 mass concentration before and after each forcing. For the simulations, only the effects of the
10 temperature on phase partitioning were simulated with both models. The effects of
11 photochemical reaction on the gas and particle phase were omitted. A comparison between the
12 observed and modelled loss of SOA mass concentration under these temperature conditions is
13 presented in Figure 8a. As shown in this figure, both the temporal profile and magnitude of
14 SOA mass loss observed in these experiments were well-reproduced by the GECKO-A and
15 MCM models. This finding suggests that the observed heating-induced loss in SOA mass
16 concentration can be explained by the temperature-dependent gas–particle phase partitioning
17 of the semivolatile components of SOA.

18

19 The measured and simulated O:C ratios for these experiments are shown in Figure 8b. Before
20 the forcing, both models predict an O:C ratio of 0.49, which is within the uncertainty of the
21 experimental value (0.55 ± 0.16) obtained with the AMS. During the aging experiments, the
22 O:C ratio simulated with the two models increased with increasing temperature: for example,
23 experiment E200411, which showed the highest temperature increase ($+6.5^\circ\text{C}$: red in Figure
24 8c), also showed the highest increase in simulated O:C ratio (from 0.49 to 0.51); by contrast,
25 experiment E060512 exhibited constant values for both temperature and simulated O:C ratio
26 (yellow in Fig 8b and 8c). These results suggest that the changes in SOA physical and chemical
27 properties observed in these experiments resulted from the heating-induced evaporation of
28 semi-volatile and less oxidized SOA species, which in turn modified the optical and
29 hygroscopic properties of the condensed phase.

30

4. Discussion

Our results have shown that exposure of SOA to increasing temperature enhances its hydrophilicity, degree of oxidation, and scattering properties. By contrast, the few previous studies investigating the changes in physical and chemical properties of α -pinene-O₃ SOA as a function of temperature have largely found little effect: Cappa and Wilson (2011) observed a reduction in the total mass concentration but no change in the mass spectra of α -pinene-O₃ SOA after heating at 170°C, and Kim and Paulson (2013) showed no significant change over temperatures ranging from 23 to 86°C in the real CRI of SOA. Using AMS data, Huffman et al. (2009) observed an increase in SOA oxygen content during SOA evaporation. This trend is in good agreement with the increase in the CO₂⁺ fragment (m/z 44) with SOA evaporation observed by (Kostenidou et al., 2009). Finally, Warren et al. (2009) showed that the GF of SOA decreased with decreasing temperature from 27°C to 5°C. These disagreements with the present study may be attributable to two differences in experimental conditions. First, in the present study, the long-time scale of the experiments (20 hours) allows the stability of the chemical composition of the semi-volatile component of SOA before processing. By contrast, in the previous studies, SOA volatility was measured only several minutes after its formation. Since the chemical composition of SOA has been observed to vary significantly during its formation (Shilling et al., 2008; Chhabra et al., 2010; Denjean et al., 2014b), it is likely that the volatility of the condensed species also varies during this time period. Second, in most of the previous studies, temperature variation was performed using a thermodenuder. The timescale for aerosol evaporation within thermodenuders (~16 s) is significantly lower than in simulation chambers (several hours), and, owing to mass transfer limitations, may not be long enough for SOA evaporation to occur (Lee et al., 2011).

Surprisingly, our results suggest that exposure of α -pinene SOA to light and O₃ does not significantly change its chemical, hygroscopic and optical properties. These observations suggest that, under our experimental conditions, neither significant photolysis nor ozonolysis of the particle-phase products occurred.

Several previous studies have reported a decline in α -pinene-O₃ SOA mass after irradiation under exposure to low OH concentrations (Donahue et al., 2012; Henry and Donahue, 2012). These authors used UV lights (~360 nm) to initiate photochemistry; by contrast, a more realistic

1 reproduction of the solar energy distribution at the Earth's surface was used in our study (Wang
2 et al., 2011). In a test of the effect of light source upon SOA aging, Donahue et al. (2012)
3 observed a monotonic decrease in SOA mass during aging with 360 nm UV lights, but an
4 increase in SOA mass during aging with sunlight or quasi-solar lamps. These observations can
5 be explained by the fact that some oxygenated organics in the SOA condensed phase, such as
6 carbonyls or peroxides, undergo photodissociation by photolysis at the specific wavelength 360
7 nm. Together, these results highlight the strong influence of the light source on the
8 photodissociation of SOA, and underscore the utility of experiments performed under realistic
9 illumination conditions.

10

11 In addition, the molecular structure of α -pinene, which contains only one double bond and thus
12 one active site for ozone reaction, limits the gas-phase oxidation by ozone of reaction products
13 of α -pinene. Since no scavenger of OH radicals was added, α -pinene- O_3 SOA is likely a mixture
14 of OH and O_3 oxidation products of α -pinene. Therefore, some of the products may still contain
15 unreacted C=C bonds, which can then react with O_3 . Our results indicate that the relative
16 contribution of these reactions products may not be sufficient to significantly affect the
17 chemical properties of SOA during the ozone-induced forcing.

18

19 Recent literature has highlighted that α -pinene- O_3 SOA is not composed of a homogeneous
20 chemical mixture. For example, when Maurin et al. (2014) exposed α -pinene- O_3 SOA to high
21 concentrations of O_3 , they observed a constant particle-phase concentration of verbenone, an
22 unsaturated oxygenated product. Since this molecule would have been expected to be consumed
23 by heterogeneous reaction with O_3 , and since heterogeneous particle-phase reactions are
24 predicted to occur mainly at the surface of the particles (Shiraiwa et al., 2013), these authors
25 postulated that reaction of O_3 with verbenone was kinetically limited by the diffusion of buried
26 verbenone to the particle surface. This hypothesis is also supported by our observation that α -
27 pinene- O_3 SOA exhibits a core-shell structure, with less oxidized species at its surface (Denjean
28 et al., 2014b). The effect of the forcing would depend not only on the chemical composition of
29 the bulk particle, but also on the chemical surface and the phase of the particle.

30

5. Conclusions

We have demonstrated that the size, chemical composition, hygroscopicity and optical properties of α -pinene-O₃ SOA change dramatically in response to relatively minor increases in temperature ($\sim 6^\circ\text{C}$). These changes, in turn, have implications for the role that SOA plays in climate. For example, the volatilization-induced increase in the real part of the SOA CRI is likely to enhance the direct radiative effect of SOA by increasing its ability to scatter radiation. The direct radiative effect of SOA can be parameterized using the mass extinction efficiency k_{ext} at 525 nm, which is defined as the ratio of the measured σ_{scat} at 525 nm to the SOA mass concentration. In our companion paper (Denjean et al. 2014b), we have estimated a value of $k_{\text{ext}} = 1.7 \pm 0.5 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ for unprocessed SOA. In the present experiments, we estimate a value of $k_{\text{ext}} = 2.8 \pm 0.5 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ for SOA exposed to light and temperature increase, which implies that this aging regime led to a $\sim 40\%$ enhancement in this parameter. We attribute this enhancement to both the decrease in SOA particle size and the increase in the scattering component of the CRI upon heating.

As shown in this work, exposure of SOA to increasing temperature also leads to an increase in SOA hygroscopicity: the SOA GF increased from 1.04 to 1.14 as a result of this forcing. In order to estimate the influence of these changes in hygroscopicity on the direct radiative effect of SOA, we made the simplified assumption that SOA exhibits a homogeneous mixing state with water. We used Mie scattering calculations for homogeneous spheres to determine σ_{scat} at 90% RH both from the measured GF and the CRI. The CRI calculations were based on volume-weighted CRI of values of α -pinene-O₃ SOA and water. We estimate that $k_{\text{ext}}(90\% \text{ RH}) = 2.8 \pm 0.7 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ after SOA volatilization, which is significantly higher than the value of $k_{\text{ext}}(90\% \text{ RH}) = 2.3 \pm 0.7 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ calculated in Denjean et al. (2014b) for unprocessed SOA. Since we have shown that volatilization of condensed-phase species takes place over a range of temperatures consistent with diurnal fluctuations, we suggest that these changes in k_{ext} are representative of the diurnal evolution of SOA during its lifetime in the atmosphere.

Our results also suggest that α -pinene-O₃ SOA is quite insensitive to light- and ozone-induced aging under our experimental conditions. Insensitivity to ozone-induced aging is most likely as a result of the molecular structure of α -pinene which limit the gas-phase oxidation by ozone of reaction products of α -pinene. In addition, several recent studies have reported that α -pinene-

1 O₃ SOA undergoes a transition from a more glassy state to a more liquid state with increasing
2 RH, (Saukko et al., 2012; Renbaum-Wolff et al., 2013; Denjean et al., 2014b). On the basis of
3 viscosity data and the Stokes-Einstein equation, Renbaum-Wolff et al. (2013) estimated that
4 the change in α -pinene-O₃ SOA viscosity associated with its transition from a solid to a semi-
5 solid state increases the bulk diffusion coefficient of particles by six orders of magnitude (from
6 $<10^{-17}$ cm² .s⁻¹ to 10^{-11} cm² .s⁻¹). Since an increase in bulk diffusion coefficient would be
7 expected to be accompanied by an increase in particle reactivity, we suggest that future studies
8 examine the effect of ozone and light exposure on α -pinene-O₃ SOA properties under
9 humidified conditions (i.e. RH>30%). Beyond its effect on the physical state of the particles,
10 the relative humidity may influence the chemical composition of SOA. Recently, Kristensen et
11 al. (2014) observed for α -pinene-O₃ SOA increased concentrations of high-molecular weight
12 compounds, such as dimer esters, at higher RH (>50%) relative to lower RH (<30%). An
13 increase in high-molecular weight compounds with increase RH could lead to a change in
14 hygroscopic and optical properties of α -pinene-O₃ SOA and in its sensitivity to aging processes.
15 In addition, further experimental studies on SOA which exhibit different viscosity are required
16 in order to evaluate the atmospheric implication of the oxidative processing and
17 photochemistry.

18

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5

1 Table 1. Summary of experimental conditions.

Type of forcing	Run	Forcing details			
		$C_{m_{t=0}}$ ^a ($\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$)	$[\text{O}_3]_{t=0}$ ^b (ppb)	Lights on (min)	$T_{t=0} / T_{t=6h}$ ^c ($^{\circ}\text{C}$)
Control experiments	E160411	50.4	0	0	20.5 / 22.3
	E260411	112.5	0	0	20.4 / 21.3
	E301111	36.5	0	0	18.4 / 18.9
	E091211	42.5	0	0	17.2 / 18.3
O_3 exposure	E021211	57.8	680	0	18.1 / 17.7
	E071211	48.1	630	0	17.1 / 16.9
Light exposure with increasing temperature	E200411	78.0	0	348	21.4 / 27.9
	E281111	29.8	0	358	17.2 / 23.2
	E051211	50.5	0	346	16.4 / 22.7
	E120312	117	0	350	20.7 / 25.4
Light exposure	E030512	80.0	0	354	21.4 / 21.9
	E060512	84	0	361	19.8 / 20.1

2

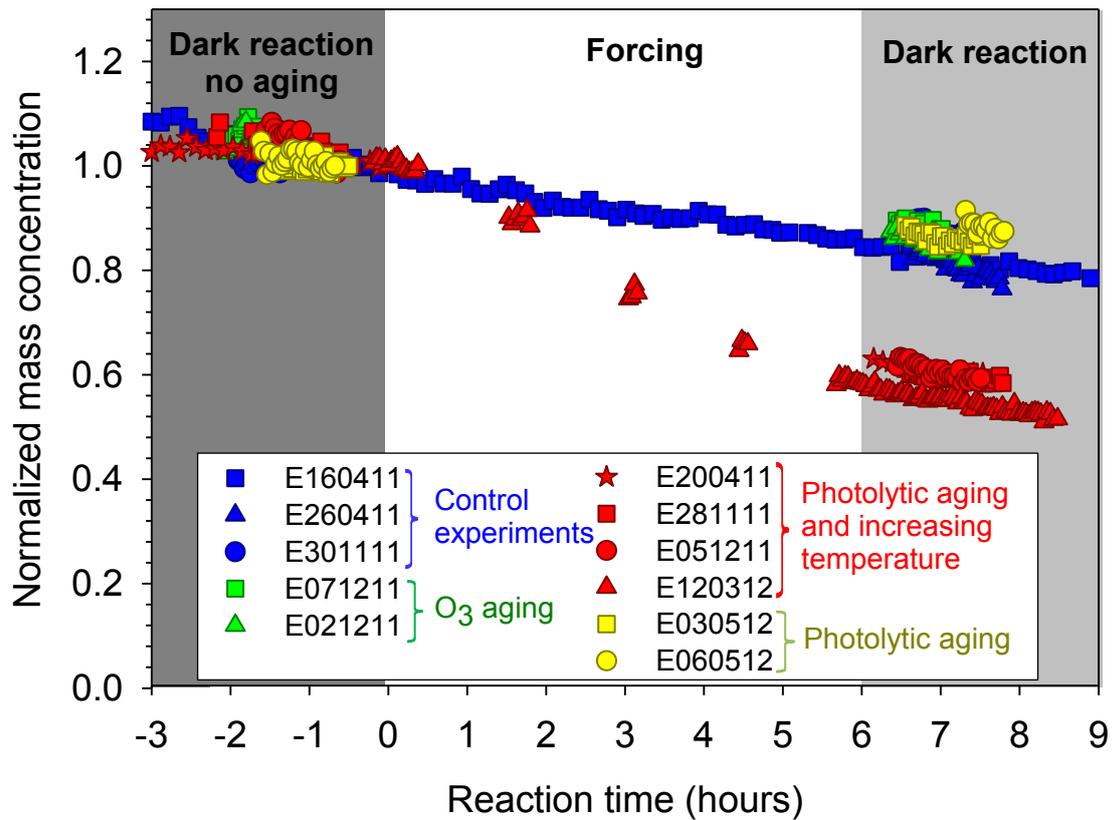
3 ^aaerosol mass concentration estimated from the aerosol volume concentration corrected from
4 dilution and by assuming a density of 1.2 g cm^{-3}

5 ^bozone concentrations determined using FTIR spectroscopy

6 ^ctemperature before forcing / temperature after forcing

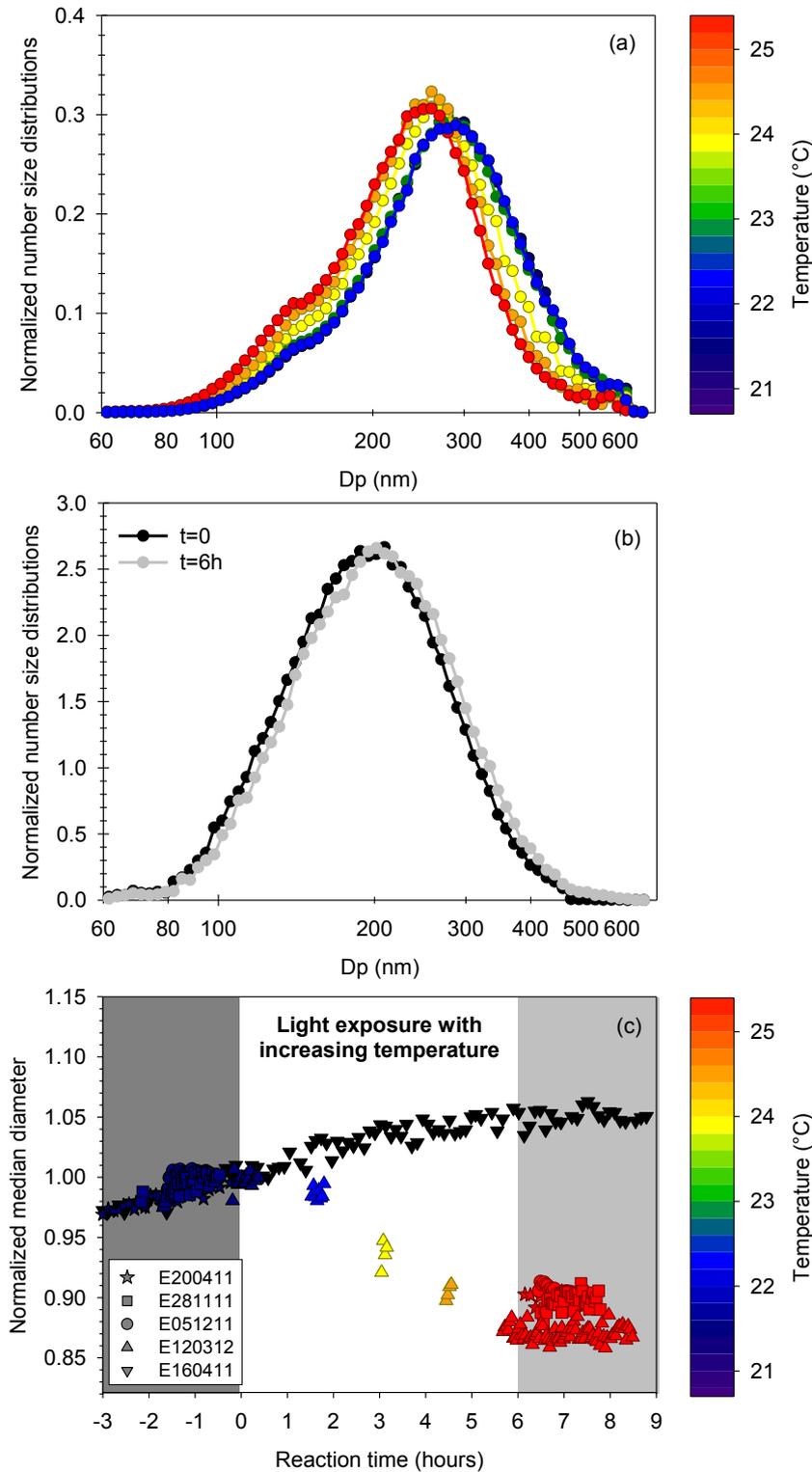
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1 Figure 1: Temporal evolution of SOA mass concentrations (normalized to the mass
 2 concentration at the beginning of each forcing) during and after simulated atmospheric
 3 processing. In the “control experiment” (blue symbols), SOA was left to evolve in the chamber
 4 under dark conditions. In the “O₃ aging” experiments (green), SOA was exposed to an excess
 5 of ozone (~700 ppb) under constant temperature conditions. In the “photochemical aging ”
 6 experiments, SOA was exposed to light for 6 hours, either under constant temperature
 7 conditions (yellow) or with light-induced heating (red). Here, the initial time t=0 corresponds
 8 to the beginning of simulated aging, which was commenced after SOA was allowed to form
 9 and stabilize for 14h.



10

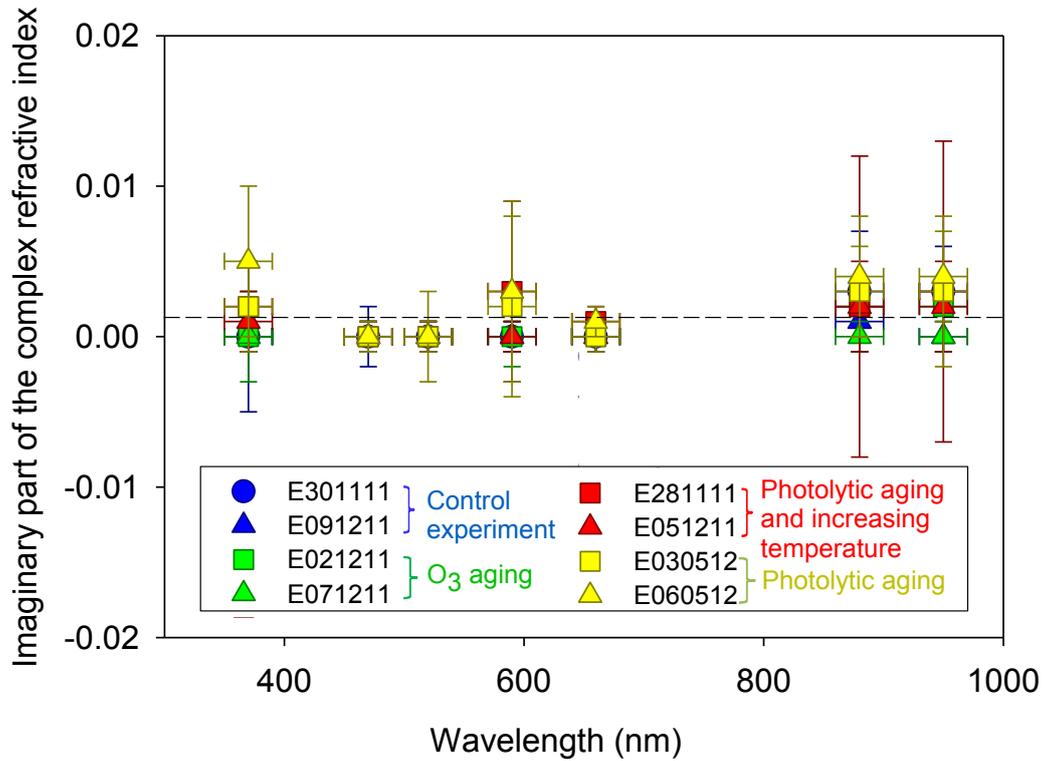
1 Figure 2: Temporal evolution of SOA number size distribution (normalized to the total number
 2 concentration) a) during photochemical aging in the absence of temperature control
 3 (Experiment E120312) and b) during a control experiment (Experiment E160411). The
 4 temporal evolution of the median diameter during photochemical aging in the absence of
 5 temperature control (Experiments E201411, E281111, E051211 and E120312) and during a
 6 control experiment (Experiment E160411) is shown in c).



7

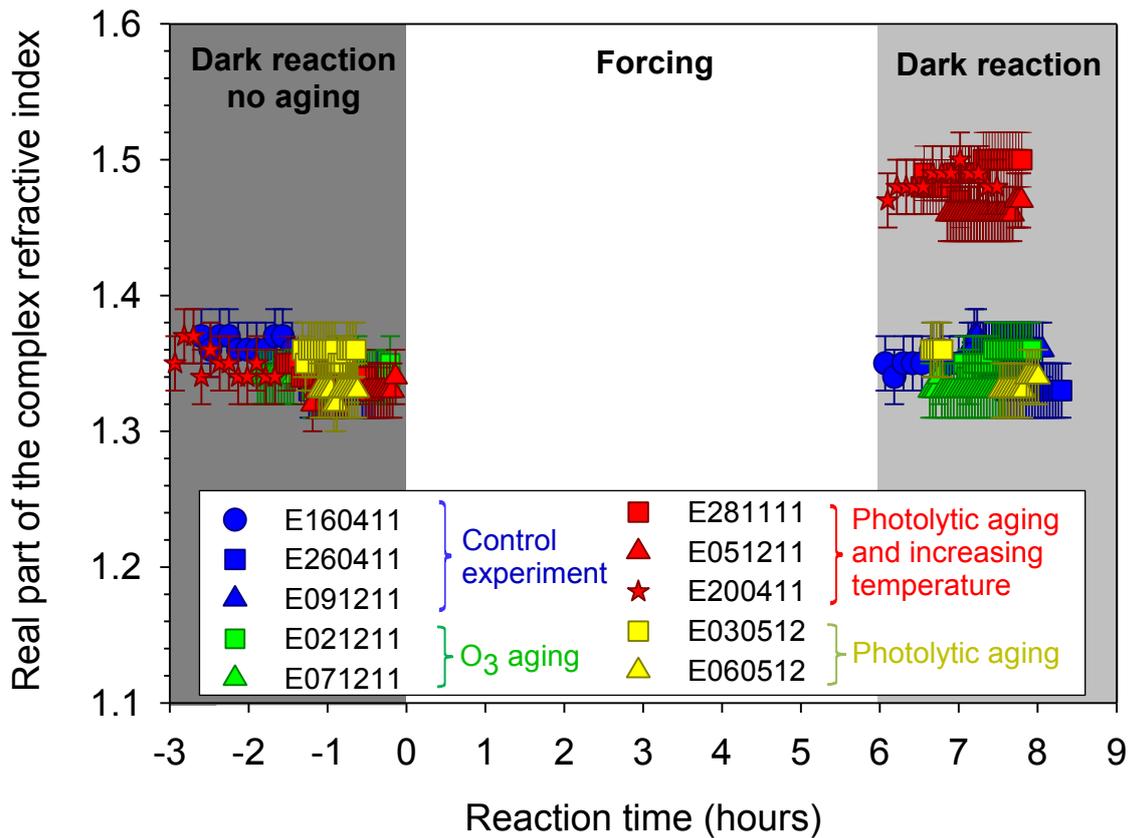
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1 Figure 3: Wavelength dependence of the imaginary part of the complex refractive index of SOA
 2 before and after simulated atmospheric processing. In the “control experiment” (blue symbols),
 3 SOA was left to evolve in the chamber under dark conditions. In the “O₃ aging” experiments
 4 (green), SOA was exposed to an excess of ozone (~700 ppb) under constant temperature
 5 conditions. In the “photochemical aging” experiments, SOA was exposed to light for 6 hours,
 6 either under constant temperature conditions (yellow) or with light-induced heating (red).



7

1 Figure 4: Measurements of the real part of the complex refractive index of SOA before and
 2 after simulated atmospheric processing. In the “control experiment” (blue symbols), SOA was
 3 left to evolve in the chamber under dark conditions. In the “O₃ aging” experiments (green),
 4 SOA was exposed to an excess of ozone (~700 ppb) under constant temperature conditions. In
 5 the “photochemical aging” experiments, SOA was exposed to light for 6 hours, either under
 6 constant temperature conditions (yellow) or with light-induced heating (red). Here, the initial
 7 time t=0 corresponds to the beginning of simulated aging, which was commenced after SOA
 8 was allowed to form and stabilize for 14h.

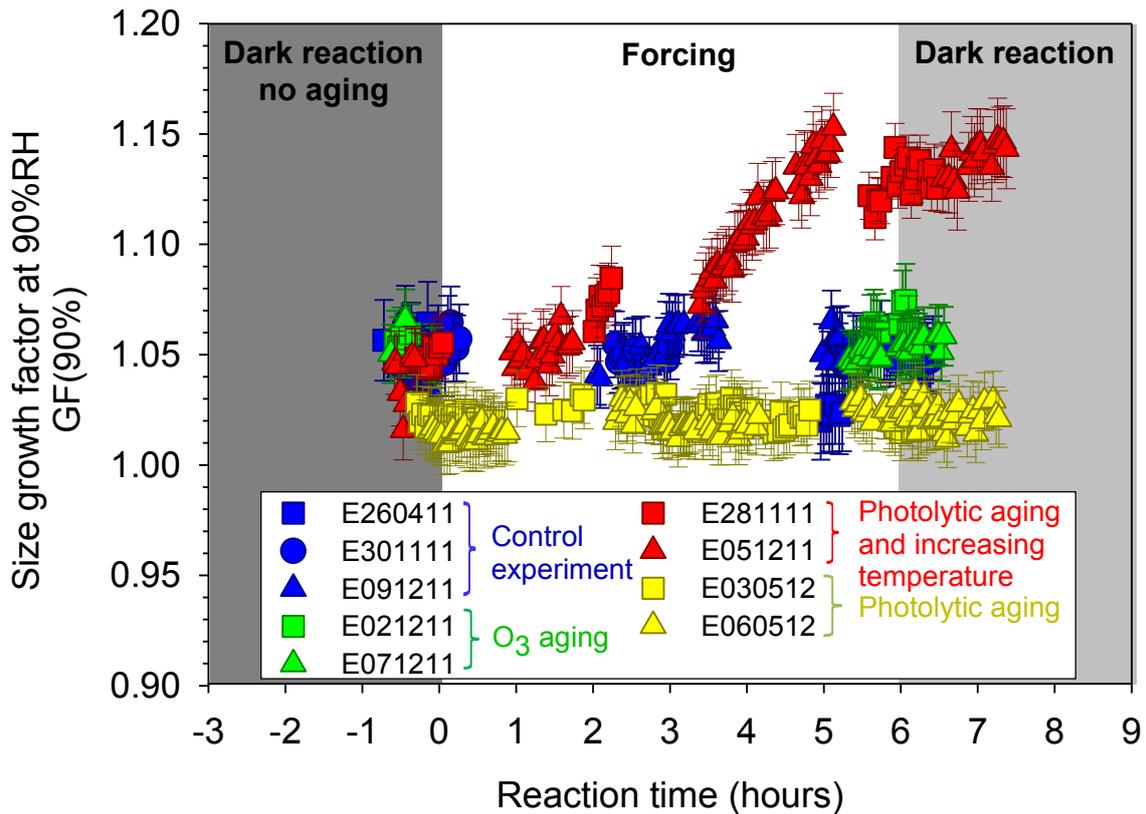


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1 Figure 5: Temporal evolution of SOA hygroscopicity, here parameterized using the size growth
 2 factor (GF), during and after simulated atmospheric processing. In the “control experiment”
 3 (blue symbols), SOA was left to evolve in the chamber under dark conditions. In the “O₃ aging”
 4 experiments (green), SOA was exposed to an excess of ozone (~700 ppb) under constant
 5 temperature conditions. In the “photochemical aging” experiments, SOA was exposed to light
 6 for 6 hours, either under constant temperature conditions (yellow) or with light-induced heating
 7 (red). Here, the initial time $t=0$ corresponds to the beginning of simulated aging, which was
 8 commenced after SOA was allowed to form and stabilize for 14h.

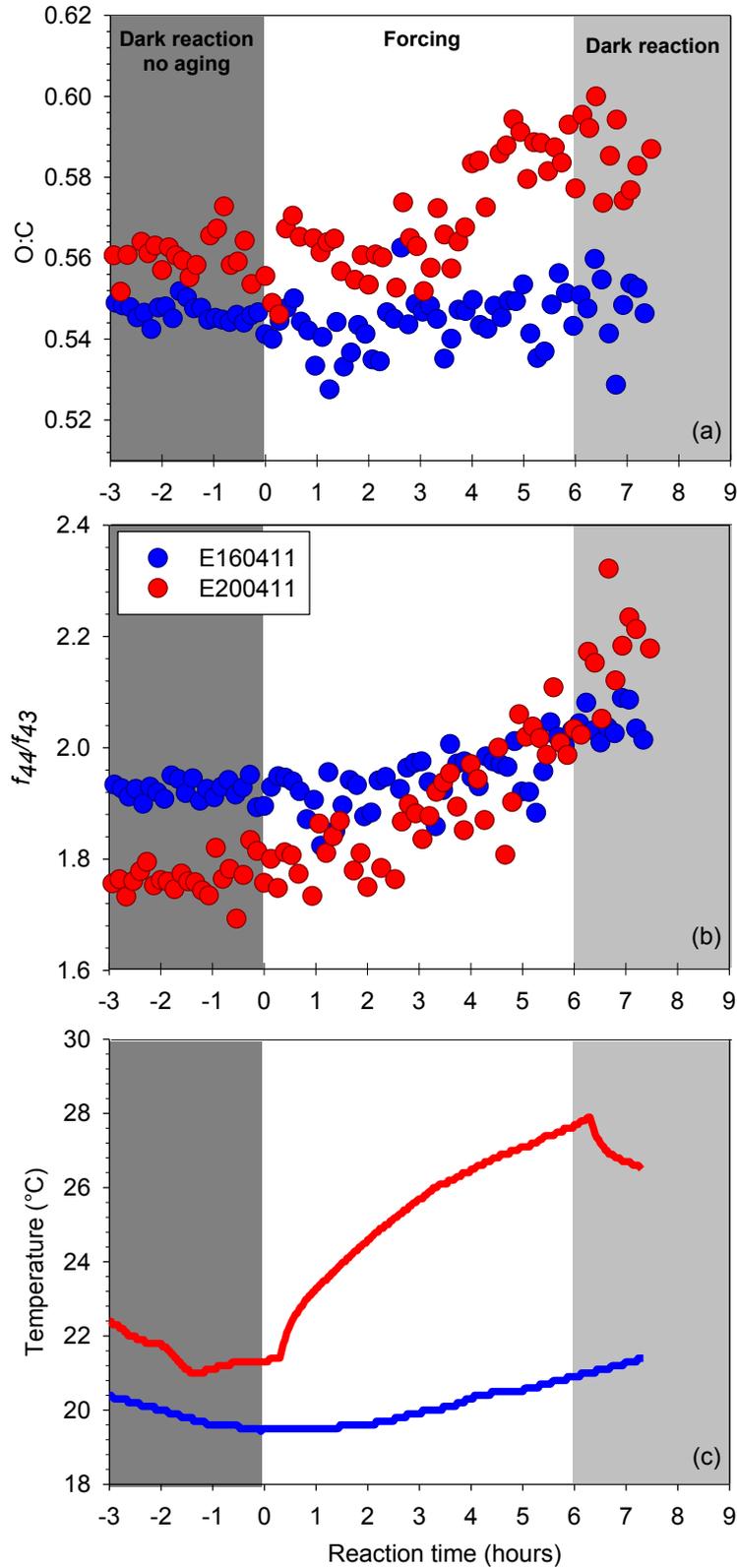
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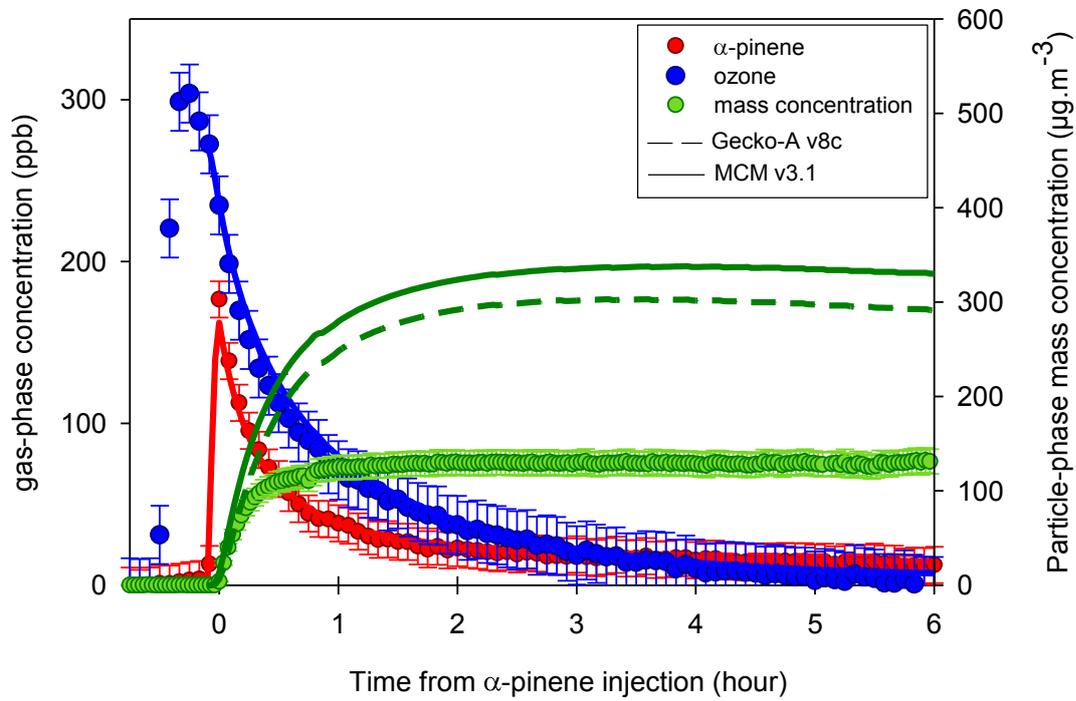
11

1 Figure 6: Evolution of the a) O:C ratio and b) f_{44}/f_{43} ratio of SOA during the control experiment
 2 (blue circles) and during exposure to light with increasing temperature (red circles). The
 3 temperature profiles within the chamber during the two experiments are shown in c). Here, the
 4 initial time $t=0$ corresponds to the beginning of simulated aging, which was commenced after
 5 SOA was allowed to form and stabilize for 14h.



6
7

1 Figure 7: Comparison of temporal profiles of measured α -pinene (red circles), ozone (blue
2 circles) and SOA mass concentration (green circles) with those modeled using GECKO-A
3 (dashed lines) and the Master Chemical Mechanism (MCM) (solid lines). The experimental
4 data is taken from Experiment E160410.



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1 Figure 8. a) Loss in SOA mass concentration (calculated as the difference between the SOA
 2 mass concentrations before and after simulated atmospheric processing) and b) O:C ratio of the
 3 bulk SOA for four experiments exhibiting c) different temperature increases. Here, the
 4 experimental data (filled circles) is compared with results obtained using the MCM (solid lines)
 5 and the GECKO-A (dashed lines) models. The blue points refer to the control experiment
 6 (E160411), the yellow points refer to an experiment in which SOA was exposed to light under
 7 controlled temperature conditions (E060512), and the red and brown points refer to experiments
 8 in which SOA was exposed to light and increasing temperature (E200411; E120312). Here, the
 9 initial time $t=0$ corresponds to the beginning of simulated aging, which was commenced after
 10 SOA was allowed to form and stabilize for 14h.

