



SOA formation from
the β -pinene + NO₃
system

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Secondary Organic Aerosol (SOA) formation from the β -pinene + NO₃ system: effect of humidity and peroxy radical fate

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Abstract

The formation of secondary organic aerosol (SOA) from the oxidation of β -pinene via nitrate radicals is investigated in the Georgia Tech Environmental Chamber facility (GTEC). Aerosol yields are determined for experiments performed under both dry ($RH < 2\%$) and humid ($RH = 50\%$ and $RH = 70\%$) conditions. To probe the effects of peroxy radical (RO_2) fate on aerosol formation, “ $RO_2 + NO_3$ dominant” and “ $RO_2 + HO_2$ dominant” experiments are performed. Gas-phase organic nitrate species (with molecular weights of 215, 229, 231 and 245 amu) are detected by chemical ionization mass spectrometry and their formation mechanisms are proposed. The ions at m/z 30 (NO^+) and m/z 46 (NO_2^+) contribute about 11 % to the total organics signal in the typical aerosol mass spectrum, with $NO^+ : NO_2^+$ ratio ranging from 6 to 9 in all experiments conducted. The SOA yields in the “ $RO_2 + NO_3$ dominant” and “ $RO_2 + HO_2$ dominant” experiments are comparable. For a wide range of organic mass loadings ($5.1\text{--}216.1 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$), the aerosol mass yield is calculated to be 27.0–104.1 %. Although humidity does not appear to affect SOA yields, there is evidence of particle-phase hydrolysis of organic nitrates, which are estimated to compose 45–74 % of the organic aerosol. The extent of organic nitrate hydrolysis is significantly lower than that observed in previous studies on photooxidation of volatile organic compounds in the presence of NO_x . It is estimated that about 90 and 10 % of the organic nitrates formed from the β -pinene + NO_3 reaction are primary organic nitrates and tertiary organic nitrates, respectively. While the primary organic nitrates do not appear to hydrolyze, the tertiary organic nitrates undergo hydrolysis with a lifetime of 3–4.5 h. Results from this laboratory chamber study provide the fundamental data to evaluate the contributions of monoterpene + NO_3 reaction to ambient organic aerosol measured in the southeastern United States, including the Southern Oxidant and Aerosol Study (SOAS) and the Southeastern Center for Air Pollution and Epidemiology (SCAPE) study.

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1 Introduction

Owing to their high emissions and high reactivity with the major atmospheric oxidants (O_3 , OH, NO_3), the oxidation of biogenic volatile organic compounds (BVOCs) emitted by vegetation, such as isoprene (C_5H_8), monoterpenes ($\text{C}_{10}\text{H}_{16}$), and sesquiterpenes ($\text{C}_{15}\text{H}_{24}$), is believed to be the dominant contributor to global secondary organic aerosol (SOA) formation (e.g. Kanakidou et al., 2005). However, there exists a contradiction that ambient organic aerosol (even in urban areas) is predominately “modern”, indicating a biogenic origin (Lewis et al., 2004; Schichtel et al., 2008; Marley et al., 2009) but often correlates with anthropogenic tracers (de Gouw et al., 2005; Weber et al., 2007). This apparent discrepancy could be reconciled if anthropogenic pollution influences the atmospheric oxidation of BVOCs and their aerosol formation pathways. The oxidation of BVOCs by nitrate radicals (NO_3), formed from the reaction of ozone with NO_2 , provides a direct link between anthropogenic pollution and the abundance of biogenic carbon in atmospheric aerosol.

Biogenic hydrocarbons react rapidly with nitrate radicals (Atkinson and Arey, 2003a) and the secondary organic aerosol (SOA) yields are generally higher than in photooxidation and ozonolysis (e.g. Griffin et al., 1999; Hallquist et al., 1999; Spittler et al., 2006; Ng et al., 2008; Fry et al., 2009, 2011, 2014; Rollins et al., 2009). As monoterpene emissions are not entirely light-dependent, they are emitted during the day and at night (Fuentes et al., 2000; Guenther et al., 2012) and can contribute substantially to ambient organic aerosol. Results from previous field studies provided evidence of aerosol formation from nitrate radical oxidation of BVOCs during both daytime and nighttime (McLaren et al., 2004; Iinuma et al., 2007; Fuentes et al., 2007; Rastogi et al., 2011; Rollins et al., 2012, 2013; Brown et al., 2009, 2013). Specifically, many of these studies found significant increase in the amount of monoterpene organic aerosol and oxidation products at night, which could be attributed to nighttime monoterpene oxidation by nitrate radicals (McLaren et al., 2004; Iinuma et al., 2007; Rastogi et al., 2011). Results from recent flight measurements in the Houston, TX also showed that organic

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aerosol was enhanced in the nocturnal boundary layer at levels in excess of those attributable to primary emissions, implying a source of SOA from the BVOCs + NO₃ reaction (Brown et al., 2013).

Global modeling studies showed large variations in the total SOA burden that can be attributed to the oxidation of BVOCs by nitrate radicals, ranging from ~ 5 to 21 % (Hoyle et al., 2007; Pye et al., 2010). Specifically, Pye et al. (2010) showed that the inclusion of nitrate radical oxidation reaction doubled the total amount of terpene (monoterpenes and sesquiterpenes) aerosol, pointing to the significant contribution of this chemistry to total organic aerosol burden. In these modeling studies, all aerosol formation from the nitrate radical oxidation of terpenes was calculated based on the β -pinene + NO₃ SOA yields obtained in Griffin et al. (1999). A recent modeling study by Russell and Allen (2005) determined that as much as 20 % of all nighttime SOA is from the reaction of β -pinene + NO₃. Due to the significance of the nitrate radical oxidation pathway in SOA formation, it is important that the SOA yields for BVOCs + NO₃, and especially that of β -pinene + NO₃, are well-constrained from fundamental laboratory studies and accurately represented in models.

The majority of the previous laboratory studies of the BVOCs + NO₃ chemistry were performed under dry conditions (Berndt and Boge, 1997a, b; Wängberg et al., 1997; Griffin et al., 1999; Hallquist et al., 1999; Bonn and Moorgat, 2002; Spittler et al., 2006; Ng et al., 2008; Rollins et al., 2009; Fry et al., 2009, 2011, 2014; Perraud et al., 2010; Kwan et al., 2012; Jaoui et al., 2013). The effect of relative humidity on SOA formation, however, could potentially be important for nighttime (where NO₃ radicals dominate) and early morning chemistry as the ambient RH is typically higher at these times. Several recent studies have investigated the effect of water on SOA formation from the nitrate radical oxidation pathway but the results are inconclusive. For instance, Spittler et al. (2006) found that the SOA yield is lower at 20 % RH compared to dry conditions, suggesting that water vapor may alter the gas-phase oxidation mechanism and/or partitioning into the particle phase, thus shifting the equilibrium partitioning of organic compounds. However, other studies showed that the presence of water vapor

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did not affect particle size distributions and SOA formation (Bonn and Moorgat, 2002; Fry et al., 2009). Thus, the role of water in SOA formation from nitrate radical oxidation of BVOCs is still unclear.

Another important parameter in SOA formation from BVOCs + NO₃ is the fate of peroxy radicals, which directly determines the oxidation products, SOA yields, and aerosol chemical and physical properties (Kroll and Seinfeld, 2008; Orlando and Tyndall, 2012; Ziemann and Atkinson, 2012). Previous studies regarding the effects of peroxy radical fates on SOA formation from BVOCs typically focused on photooxidation and ozonolysis systems (e.g. Presto et al., 2005; Kroll et al., 2006; Ng et al., 2007a; Eddingsaas et al., 2012; Xu et al., 2014) and isoprene + NO₃ chemistry (Ng et al., 2008; Kwan et al., 2012; Nguyen et al., 2014). To our knowledge, the effects of differing peroxy radical branching on SOA formation from nitrate radical oxidation of monoterpenes have not been investigated. The relative importance of different peroxy radical reaction channels concerning BVOCs + NO₃ chemistry in the atmosphere is not well established (Brown and Stutz, 2012). While earlier studies by Kirchner and Stockwell (1996) suggested that RO₂ + NO₃ is more important in the nighttime atmosphere, a recent study by Mao et al. (2012) showed that the HO₂ mixing ratios are often on the order of 10 ppt at night. It is therefore possible that the RO₂ + HO₂ pathway could be an important pathway in nighttime oxidation of BVOCs.

Nitrate radical chemistry is expected to produce a substantial amount of organic nitrate compounds, owing to direct addition of nitrate radical via reaction with a double bond. Organic nitrates have been observed to form a substantial portion of atmospheric aerosol in field studies (Brown et al., 2009; Day et al., 2010; Zaveri et al., 2010; Beaver et al., 2012; Rollins et al., 2012; Fry et al., 2013; Rollins et al., 2013; Brown et al., 2013). Organic nitrate formation has a significant impact on total NO_x lifetime, especially in NO_x-limited regions where NO_x lifetime is sensitive to the formation rates of organic nitrates (Browne and Cohen, 2012). Ambient organic nitrates can be formed through photooxidation of VOCs in the presence of NO_x (Chen et al., 1998; Arey et al., 2001; Yu et al., 2008) and through nitrate radical addition (Spittler et al., 2006; Perring

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et al., 2009; Rollins et al., 2009; Kwan et al., 2012). One removal mechanism for atmospheric organic nitrates is hydrolysis in the particle phase (e.g. Sato, 2008; Szmigielski et al., 2010; Darer et al., 2011; Hu et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2012; Rindelaub et al., 2015). Modeling studies have assumed that the majority (75 %) of the organic nitrates formed in the day are composed of tertiary nitrates based on results from the photooxidation of α -pinene and β -pinene in the presence of NO_x (Browne et al., 2013). However, the organic nitrates formed from photooxidation and nitrate radical oxidation could have different chemical structures (primary, secondary, and tertiary) and need to be investigated to better constrain the fates of organic nitrates (e.g. hydrolysis lifetime) in the atmosphere over their entire life cycle (both day and night).

The goal of this study is to determine the aerosol yields and characterize the mechanisms and chemical composition of SOA formation from the β -pinene + NO_3 system. Laboratory chamber experiments are performed in the dark under dry and humid conditions. To investigate the effects of peroxy radical fates on SOA yields and chemical composition, the experiments are designed to probe the " $\text{RO}_2 + \text{NO}_3$ " vs. " $\text{RO}_2 + \text{HO}_2$ " reaction pathways. Aerosol yields are obtained over a wide range of initial β -pinene mixing ratios. Based on the measured gas-phase and particle-phase oxidation products, mechanisms for SOA formation from β -pinene + NO_3 are proposed. Results from this study are used to evaluate the contributions of nitrate radical oxidation of monoterpenes to ambient organic aerosol measured in the southeastern United States (US), including the Southern Oxidant and Aerosol Study (SOAS) and the Southeastern Center for Air Pollution and Epidemiology (SCAPE) study.

2 Experimental

2.1 Laboratory chamber experiments

All experiments are performed in the Georgia Tech Environmental Chamber facility (GTEC), which consists of two 12 m^3 flexible Teflon (FEP 2 mil) chambers sus-

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pended in a 21 ft. × 12 ft. temperature-controlled enclosure. The full operational temperature range of the facility is $4\text{--}40 \pm 0.5^\circ\text{C}$. A schematic of the chamber facility is shown in Fig. 1. Each of the chambers has three Teflon manifolds with multiple sampling ports. Ports allow for the introduction of clean air, gas-phase reagents, seed aerosol, and for measurements of RH, temperature, gas-phase composition, and particle-phase composition. The chambers are surrounded by blacklights (Sylvania, 24922) with output predominately in the ultraviolet region between 300 and 400 nm, with a maximum at 354 nm. The blacklights are supplemented by natural sunshine fluorescent lights (Sylvania, 24477), which have wavelengths between 300 to 900 nm. The J_{NO_2} of the chamber facility is 0.28 min^{-1} when all of the blacklights are turned on.

Experimental conditions are summarized in Table 1. Prior to each experiment, the chambers are cleaned by flowing pure air (generated from AADCO, 747–14) for at least 24 h at a rate of 40 LPM, or equivalent to 0.2 chamber volumes per hour. This ensures that the ozone, NO, and NO₂ concentrations are less than 1 ppb and the particle concentration is lower than 10 cm^{-3} . Experiments are performed in the dark under either dry (RH < 2%) or humid (RH = 50, 70%) conditions. The air is humidified by passing pure air through bubblers prior to introduction into the chamber. The temperature and humidity inside each Teflon chamber are measured using a hygromometer (Vaisala, HMP110). Seed aerosol is generated by atomizing an ammonium sulfate solution (8 mM) or an ammonium sulfate/sulfuric acid mixture ($[(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4] : [\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4] = 3:5$, molar ratio) into the chamber. The seed number and mass concentration prior to typical experiments are approximately $2.0 \times 10^4 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ and $30 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. The pH of the (NH₄)₂SO₄ seed and (NH₄)₂SO₄+H₂SO₄ seed at RH = 50% is about 4.6 and 2.4, respectively, based on calculations from prior studies (Gao et al., 2004). Nucleation experiments are performed under both dry and humid (RH = 50, 70%) conditions to determine organic aerosol density and characterize vapor wall loss effects on SOA yields.

Experiments are designed to probe the effects of peroxy radical chemistry (RO₂+HO₂ vs. RO₂+NO₃) on SOA formation from the reaction of β -pinene with ni-

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trate radicals. The procedure for chemical injection depends on the desired fate of the peroxy radicals in the experiments. To enhance the branching ratio of RO₂+HO₂ in the chamber experiments, formaldehyde is first added to the chamber (Nguyen et al., 2014). Formalin solution (Sigma-Aldrich, 37% HCHO) is injected into a glass bulb and clean air is passed over the solution until it evaporates. After this, seed aerosol, NO₂ (Matheson, 500 ppm), and ozone (generated by passing zero air through a UV radiation cell, Jelight 610) are injected into the chamber. NO₂ and O₃ concentrations are chosen ([NO₂]:[O₃] ≈ 4:3) to ensure that 99% of the β -pinene reacts with nitrate radicals instead of ozone. The NO₂ and O₃ react to form nitrate radicals and subsequently N₂O₅ through the following reactions:



Formaldehyde then reacts with nitrate radicals to form HO₂ radicals via the following reaction:



Enough formaldehyde (3–22 ppm) is added to the chamber to ensure that the RO₂+HO₂ radical branching ratio is an order of magnitude higher than the RO₂+RO₂ and RO₂+NO₃ pathways (Supplement). The chamber content is allowed to mix for 30 min, after which a desired amount of β -pinene is injected into a glass bulb, where it is introduced into the chamber by passing clean air through the glass bulb. Introduction of β -pinene into the chamber marks the beginning of the experiment. We refer to this set of experiments as “RO₂+HO₂ dominant” experiments.

For “RO₂+NO₃ dominant” experiments, seed aerosol is first introduced into the chamber, followed by β -pinene injection. After allowing ~30 min for the β -pinene concentration to stabilize, N₂O₅ is injected into the chamber. To generate N₂O₅, a mixture of NO₂ and O₃ is pre-reacted in a flow tube (flow rate = 1.3 LPM, residence time = 71 s) before entering the chamber. The N₂O₅ concentration is estimated by modeling the

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reaction of NO_2 and O_3 in the flow tube. For this set of experiments, the introduction of N_2O_5 marks the beginning of the experiment. We aim for an initial N_2O_5 : β -pinene ratio of $\sim 4 : 1$. It is noted that the ozone concentration in the chamber is sufficiently low that at least 99 % of β -pinene reacts with nitrate radicals. N_2O_5 continuously dissociates to form NO_2 and nitrate radicals during the experiment to reestablish equilibrium as the nitrate radicals react with β -pinene. The high initial N_2O_5 and nitrate radical concentrations relative to β -pinene favor the $\text{RO}_2 + \text{NO}_3$ pathway.

For all experiments except “ $\text{RO}_2 + \text{HO}_2$ dominant” experiments conducted under humid conditions ($\text{RH} = 50, 70\%$), a Gas Chromatograph-Flame Ionization Detector (GC-FID, Agilent 6780A) measures a β -pinene concentration of zero (below detection limit) within the first scan (scan time = 11.7 min) after the experiment begins. This suggests that β -pinene is completely consumed within 11.7 min of N_2O_5 injection for the “ $\text{RO}_2 + \text{NO}_3$ dominant” experiments and that β -pinene is fully reacted away before being detected by the GC-FID in the “ $\text{RO}_2 + \text{HO}_2$ dominant” experiments under dry conditions. The concentration of β -pinene is calculated from the mass of the hydrocarbon injected and the volume of the chamber. The chamber volume is determined to be approximately 12 m^3 by injecting a known volume of NO_2 standard (Matheson, 500 ppm) into the chamber and measuring the resulting NO_2 concentration inside the chamber.

Ozone and NO_x concentrations are monitored with an O_3 Analyzer (Teledyne 200EU) and an ultrasensitive chemiluminescence NO_x monitor (Teledyne T200), respectively. Total aerosol volume and size distributions are measured with a Scanning Mobility Particle Sizer (SMPS, TSI). The SMPS consists of a differential mobility analyzer (DMA) (TSI 3040) and Condensation Particle Counter (CPC) (TSI 3775). Bulk particle chemical composition is measured with an Aerodyne High Resolution Time-of-Flight Aerosol Mass Spectrometer (HR-ToF-AMS). The working principle and operation of the HR-ToF-AMS are described in detail elsewhere (DeCarlo et al., 2006). The HR-ToF-AMS provides quantitative measurements of organics, nitrate, sulfate, ammonium, and chloride. Elemental analysis are performed on the data to determine elemental composition (e.g. O : C, N : C ratios) of the bulk aerosol (Canagaratna et al., 2014).

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A suite of gas-phase oxidation products and N₂O₅ are measured using a Quadrupole Chemical Ionization Mass Spectrometer (CIMS) with I⁻ as the reagent ion, which has high selectivity towards reactive nitrogen species, peroxides, and carboxylic acids (Huey, 2007; McNeill et al., 2007; Zhao et al., 2012). The CIMS uses methyl iodide to produce I⁻ ions that ionize gas-phase products through association (Slusher et al., 2004; Zheng et al., 2011). It has been shown that I⁻ addition to gas-phase molecules provides a molecule-iodide adduct that preserves the original species of the compounds being sampled. The gas-phase species are detected as $m/z = MW + 127$. Masses with specific m/z are selected for detection using a quadrupole mass filter. These species are then detected by an electron multiplier which amplifies incident charge through secondary electron emission to produce a measurable current that scales with gas-phase concentration. Due to unavailability of standards for the oxidation products, the instrument is not calibrated for these compounds and concentrations are not reported. However, the CIMS data allow for identification and comparison of the abundance of specific gas-phase oxidation products formed in different experimental conditions.

2.2 Analysis of particle-phase products

Aerosol samples are collected on Teflon filters (Pall Corp. R2PL047, 1- μ m pore size and 47-mm diameter) during the SOA experiments (Experiments 9, 10, 22, 23, 32, 33 in Table 1) and for a series of blank/control experiments. These blank experiments are (1) clean chamber (no aerosol) at RH < 2%, (2) clean chamber (no aerosol) at RH = 50%, (3) clean chamber at RH = 50% with only N₂O₅ injected, and (4) clean chamber at RH < 2% with only β -pinene injected. All filters collected during the chamber experiments and controls are stored at a temperature below -20 °C before sample extraction and preparation for chromatographic analysis.

Each filter is extracted twice by sonication (Branson 3510) for 15 min in 2.50 mL acetonitrile (Fisher Optima, LC-MS grade). After combining both aliquots, each extracted sample is blown dry under a gentle stream of nitrogen (Scott-Gross, UHP), re-

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constituted with 1000 μL acetonitrile, and transferred to a chromatographic vial. Samples are analyzed with an Accela (Thermo Fisher Scientific) ultra-high-performance liquid chromatographer (UHPLC) equipped with a 1250 quaternary delivery pump, a photodiode array detector (PDA) with a 5 cm LightPipe flow cell, and a mass spectrometry (MS) detector (Thermo MSQ Plus). Samples are injected (50 μL) with an Accela autosampler into the reversed-phase chromatographic column (Hypersil gold C18, 50 \times 2.1 mm, 1.9 μm particle size, Thermo Scientific). Excalibur software is used to control the UHPLC-PDA-MS system. Chromatographic separation at a constant flow rate of 800 $\mu\text{L min}^{-1}$ from 0 to 1 min is isocratic with 90 % (A) 0.10 mM formic acid (Fisher Optima, LC-MS grade) in ultrapure water (18.2 M Ω cm Purelab Flex, Veolia) and 10 % (B) 0.10 mM formic acid in acetonitrile. Gradient elution from 1 to 8 min reaches a 10 : 90 ratio of solvents A : B and remain isocratic from 8 to 10 min. Selected chromatograms utilize 0.4–1.0 mM acetic acid (Acros, glacial ACS, 100.0 % by assay) instead of 0.1 mM formic acid in the mobile phase. After the PDA registered the UV–visible spectra from 190 to 700 nm, the flow is interfaced with an electrospray ionization (ESI) probe (1.9 kV needle voltage, 350 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ probe temperature, and 70 psi N₂ nebulizing gas) to the MS detector set to detect negative ions in the range of m/z 50 to 650 amu. Selected samples are analyzed under variable cone voltage (10–100 V) to register the fragmentation pattern of the peaks and gain structural information of the products. The extraction method shows an efficient 98.8 % recovery, when 98.6 μg of 4-nitrophenol (Acros, 98.0 %) are spiked onto a blank filter.

3 Results

Gas-phase oxidation and aerosol growth is observed to be a rapid process in the β -pinene + NO₃ reaction. Peak aerosol growth is typically observed within 10–15 min for all reaction conditions except in humid (RH = 50, 70 %) “RO₂ + HO₂ dominant” experiments, where aerosol reaches peak growth in about 30 min. Figure S1 in the Supplement shows a typical mass spectrum for the CIMS data. Specifically, major gas-phase

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products are detected at m/z 342, 356, 358, and 372 (which correspond to MW = 215, 229, 231, 245 amu, respectively). These products likely correspond to organic nitrate species. Figure 2 shows the time series of these species and the aerosol growth over the course of a typical “RO₂+HO₂ dominant” experiment in dry conditions. The products at m/z 356 and 358 (MW = 229 and 231 amu) decrease over the course of the experiment. While this can be attributed to vapor phase wall loss, it is also possible that these gas-phase compounds undergo further reaction. This is further supported by the increase in the species at m/z 372 (MW = 245 amu). The proposed gas-phase oxidation mechanism and formation of compounds at m/z 372 from compounds at m/z 356 will be discussed further in Sect. 4.1.

Although all the above gas-phase species are observed under all reaction conditions, m/z 358 (MW = 231 amu) is significantly higher in the “RO₂+HO₂ dominant” experiments than in the “RO₂+NO₃ dominant” experiments (Fig. S2), which is indicative of differences in the gas-phase chemistry depending on the RO₂ fate. Under both “RO₂+HO₂ dominant” and “RO₂+NO₃ dominant” conditions, experiments conducted under dry conditions have significantly higher N₂O₅ concentrations than humid conditions (by at least a factor of 2) as measured by CIMS. This is likely due to N₂O₅ uptake (loss) on the wet chamber surfaces and/or seed aerosol. The relative abundance of N₂O₅ under different experimental conditions is important in terms of β -pinene reaction rate and aging of aerosol, which are discussed in Sects. 4.2.2 and 4.4, respectively.

All SOA growth data are corrected for particle wall loss by applying size-dependent wall loss coefficients determined from wall loss experiments (Keywood et al., 2004). Figures 3 and 4 show the SOA yields for “RO₂+NO₃ dominant” and “RO₂+HO₂ dominant” experiments over a wide range of aerosol mass loadings ($\Delta M_o = 5.1$ – $216.1 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$). The SOA yields lie in the range of 27.0–104.1 % over the conditions studied. Aerosol mass yield (Y) is defined as the aerosol mass concentration (ΔM_o) divided by the mass concentration of hydrocarbon reacted (ΔHC), $Y = \Delta M_o / \Delta\text{HC}$ (Odum et al., 1996, 1997a, b; Bowman et al., 1997). For all experiments, aerosol mass concentration is obtained from the SMPS aerosol volume concentration and the calculated

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aerosol density. The aerosol density is calculated from the SMPS volume distribution and the HR-ToF-AMS mass distribution in the nucleation experiments (Bahreini et al., 2005). The densities of the organic aerosol generated in nucleation experiments under dry and humid (RH = 50, 70 %) conditions are determined to be 1.41 and 1.45 g cm^{-3} for the “ $\text{RO}_2 + \text{NO}_3$ dominant” experiments and 1.54 and 1.61 g cm^{-3} for the “ $\text{RO}_2 + \text{HO}_2$ dominant” experiments.

It can be seen from Fig. 3 that the aerosol yields in the “ $\text{RO}_2 + \text{NO}_3$ dominant” experiments under dry vs. humid conditions in the presence of $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ seed are similar. The presence of the more acidic $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4 + \text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$ seed does not appear to enhance SOA production in the “ $\text{RO}_2 + \text{NO}_3$ dominant” experiments (Fig. S3). Therefore, we fit the Odum two-product model (Odum et al., 1996, 1997b) to all of our experimental data shown in Fig. 3 to obtain a single yield curve. The SOA yield parameters are given in Table 2. Shown in Fig. 4 are the aerosol yields from “ $\text{RO}_2 + \text{HO}_2$ dominant” experiments under dry vs. humid (RH = 70 %) conditions. The SOA yield curve (solid red line) for the “ $\text{RO}_2 + \text{NO}_3$ dominant” experiments is also shown for comparison.

For comparison, SOA yields from previous β -pinene + NO_3 laboratory chamber studies (Griffin et al., 1999; Fry et al., 2009) are also shown in Fig. 3. Without adding HCHO as an additional HO_2 source, it is likely that the experiments in Griffin et al. (1999) and Fry et al. (2009) are more similar to our “ $\text{RO}_2 + \text{NO}_3$ dominant” experiments. Specifically, Fry et al. (2009) noted that the β -pinene + NO_3 reaction likely does not produce significant concentrations of HO_2 radicals and therefore have a low $\text{HO}_2 / \text{RO}_2$ ratio. As Griffin et al. (1999) assumed an aerosol density of 1.0 g cm^{-3} , the yield curve from Griffin et al. (1999) shown in Fig. 3 has been multiplied by the density calculated in this study for “ $\text{RO}_2 + \text{NO}_3$ dominant” experiments under dry conditions (i.e. 1.41 g cm^{-3}). The data shown in Fig. 3 from Fry et al. (2009) have also incorporated a particle density of 1.6 g cm^{-3} calculated in their study. It is noted that the SOA yields obtained in the current study are higher than those in Griffin et al. (1999) and Fry et al. (2009), particularly at lower aerosol mass loadings that are more relevant to ambient environments. These results are discussed in more detail in Sect. 4.2.

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Bulk aerosol composition from the experiments is characterized by the HR-ToF-AMS. A typical high-resolution mass spectrum for aerosol formed under dry conditions where the RO₂ + NO₃ pathway is dominant (Experiment 5 in Table 1) is shown in Fig. 5. A key feature of the mass spectrum is the high intensity of the nitrate ions at NO⁺ and NO₂⁺, which make up about 11 % of the total organics signal. The majority (> 90 %) of the nitrogen atoms is detected at these two ions with the remaining nitrogen-containing ions detected at higher masses as C_xH_yO_zN. The mass spectrum for the aerosol generated in the “RO₂ + HO₂ dominant” and “RO₂ + NO₃ dominant” experiments are similar, one notable difference being the NO⁺ : NO₂⁺ ratio. While the NO⁺ : NO₂⁺ ratio is typically 6–7.5 for “RO₂ + NO₃ dominant” experiments, it is typically 8–9 for “RO₂ + HO₂ dominant” experiments. For both types of experiments, there is a negligible difference in the mass spectrum of the aerosol produced in dry or high humidity (RH = 50, 70 %) conditions. In Fig. 5, nitrate and organic ions are each assigned a different color to indicate an individual AMS HR ion family. There are a few notable ions in the aerosol mass spectrum. The signals at *m/z* 67 (C₅H₇⁺) and *m/z* 91 (C₇H₇⁺), while not significant in the high resolution mass spectra of several biogenic SOA systems (Ng et al., 2008; Chhabra et al., 2010), are relatively large for β -pinene + NO₃ SOA. These ions have also been observed in SOA formed from the ozonolysis of β -caryophyllene (Chen et al., 2014). Therefore, *m/z* 67 (C₅H₇⁺) and *m/z* 91 (C₇H₇⁺) could potentially serve as useful indicators for SOA formed from monoterpene/sesquiterpene oxidations in ambient aerosol mass spectra.

Figure 6 shows the time evolution of the major organic families relative to sulfate measured by the HR-ToF-AMS for a typical dry “RO₂ + NO₃ dominant” experiment (Experiment 5 in Table 1). Sulfate is used to normalize the decay of the organic families because it is non-volatile and any decrease in sulfate is reflective of particle wall loss and changes in aerosol collection efficiency (CE) in the HR-ToF-AMS (Henry and Donahue, 2012). Any change of each organic family relative to sulfate is therefore interpreted as a change in organic mass unrelated to particle wall loss or CE. Non-oxidized fragments (CH family in green) decrease more rapidly relative to sulfate than

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the more oxidized fragments (CHO1 family in purple, CHOgt1 “fragments with greater than 1 oxygen atom” family in pink). The change in mass for each organic family is determined over a 2.5 h period following peak aerosol growth (at $t \sim 15$ min) in each “RO₂ + NO₃ dominant” experiment (dry and humid). We find that the CHOgt1 family increases by 4% in dry experiments and remains relatively constant in humid experiments. This is consistent with a larger extent of aerosol aging in the dry experiments and is further discussed in Sect. 4.4.

Figure 7 shows the time evolution of HR-ToF-AMS nitrate-to-organics ratio in the “RO₂ + NO₃ dominant” experiments at RH = 50% normalized by that in the corresponding dry experiments with the same initial hydrocarbon concentration. For simplicity, we refer to this ratio as (Nitrate : Org)_{norm}. Normalizing the nitrate-to-organics ratio obtained from the humid experiments to the dry experiments allow for determining the extent of possible organic nitrate hydrolysis under humid conditions. Since only the relative change in the (Nitrate : Org)_{norm} ratio is important for comparison purposes, the maximum (Nitrate : Org)_{norm} measurement for each experiment is set to be unity. Nitrate mass is defined here as the sum of the mass of the NO⁺ and NO₂⁺ ions. This does not account for the C_xH_yO_zN fragments, but these fragments only account for less than 10% (by mass) of the nitrate functional groups detected by HR-ToF-AMS. As the experiment progresses, the (Nitrate : Org)_{norm} ratio decreases and stabilizes at a value of about 0.9, indicating that there is no further decrease in the mass of nitrate relative to the mass of organics beyond this point. From our particle wall loss experiments, we establish that the particles are lost to the chamber wall with comparable rates under dry and humid conditions, suggesting that the observed decrease in the (Nitrate : Org)_{norm} ratio is not a result of differing particle wall loss in dry and humid experiments. Instead, the decrease under humid conditions is attributed to hydrolysis of organic nitrate compounds in the particle phase. This is further discussed in Sect. 4.3.2.

4 Discussion

4.1 Proposed mechanisms

Figure 8 shows the proposed scheme for the generation of species observed by CIMS and UHPLC-PDA-MS analyses from the oxidation of β -pinene with nitrate radicals.

The oxidation process starts with Reaction (R1) for the sterically preferred addition of nitrate radical to the primary carbon (C_1) in the double bond of β -pinene (Wayne et al., 1991). The tertiary alkyl radical formed on C_2 can undergo (1) addition of O_2 to form a peroxy radical via Reaction (R2) (Atkinson and Arey, 2003b), (2) a 1,5- CH_3 shift indicated by Reaction (R3) (Miller, 2003) and, (3) rearrangement via Reaction (R4) (Stolle et al., 2009; Schröder et al., 2010). Reaction (R4) is thought to be a favorable pathway because it relieves the ring strain from the cyclobutane while generating a tertiary alkyl radical with a new reactive double bond. In the presence of oxygen, O_2 combines with the alkyl radical to make a peroxy radical, which is then converted to an alkoxy radical via Reaction (R5) (denoted as R^5O here) (Atkinson and Arey, 2003b; Vereecken and Peeters, 2012). Reactions which can be accomplished by any of the radicals present (RO_2 , HO_2 , NO_3 , etc.) are symbolized by reaction with generic radical L^\bullet , while hydrogen abstractions are symbolized by reaction with generic radical Q^\bullet (e.g. NO_3 , RO_2 , etc.). R^5O can undergo intramolecular addition to the less substituted C_7 of the newly formed double bond via Reaction (R6), generating a cyclic ether alkyl radical (Vereecken and Peeters, 2004, 2012). Alternatively, R^5O can undergo hydrogen abstraction from another species via Reaction (R7) to form a hydroxynitrate of $MW = 215$ amu (R^7OH), a gas-phase species detected by CIMS. The cyclic ether alkyl radical generated by Reaction (R6) combines with O_2 to make peroxy radical U^\bullet by Reaction (R8). The fate of radical U^\bullet is to produce a dihydroxynitrate with $MW = 231$ amu via Reaction (R9) (Russell, 1957; Atkinson and Arey, 2003b). A compound with the same molecular weight as the dihydroxynitrate species is detected by CIMS.

The alkyl radical formed in Reaction (R1) can also undergo a 1,5- CH_3 shift as indicated by Reaction (R3), which forms a tertiary alkyl radical that then combines

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with O_2 by Reaction (R10). Reaction (R10) produces a hydroxynitrate (R^{10}OH) with $\text{MW} = 215$ amu, an isomer that could also correspond to the species observed by CIMS. Further functionalization of R^{10}OH continues after hydrogen abstraction by Reaction (R11), which bond strength calculations predict occur preferentially at the C_3 position (Vereecken and Peeters, 2012). The resulting secondary alkyl radical from Reaction (R11) reacts with O_2 to form peroxy radical S^* via Reaction (R12). The reaction $\text{S}^* + \text{L}^*$ forms either a hydroxycarbonyl nitrate with $\text{MW} = 229$ amu by Reaction (R13), or a dihydroxynitrate with $\text{MW} = 231$ amu by Reaction (R14) (Russell, 1957; Atkinson and Arey, 2003b). Both are gas-phase species detected by CIMS.

The peroxy radical formed in Reaction (R2) can be converted to a hydroperoxide with $\text{MW} = 231$ amu (observed in CIMS) by reaction with an HO_2 radical (R15). Since Reaction (R15) is only associated with the $\text{RO}_2 + \text{HO}_2$ channel, the signal corresponding to the species with $\text{MW} = 231$ amu is expected to be higher in the “ $\text{RO}_2 + \text{HO}_2$ dominant” experiments. Figure S2 shows the CIMS signal at $m/z = 358$ ($\text{MW} = 231$ amu) normalized to Br_2 sensitivity for each type of experiment (“ $\text{RO}_2 + \text{NO}_3$ dominant” and “ $\text{RO}_2 + \text{HO}_2$ dominant”, dry and humid conditions). The higher signal in the “ $\text{RO}_2 + \text{HO}_2$ dominant” experiments supports the formation of more ROOH species in the gas phase under this reaction condition.

The peroxy radical formed from Reaction (R2) can also be converted into an alkoxy radical, R^{16}O , via Reaction (R16). Hydrogen abstraction by the alkoxy radical R^{16}O can form a third hydroxynitrate isomer with $\text{MW} = 215$ amu by Reaction (R17). Alternatively, R^{16}O can undergo a 1.5 h shift from a $-\text{CH}_3$ group by Reaction (R18) to form an alkyl radical at one of the terminal carbons (Carter et al., 1976; Eberhard et al., 1995; Atkinson, 1997; Dibble, 2001). The alkyl radical then reacts with O_2 to form a peroxy radical and subsequently forms an aldehyde with $\text{MW} = 229$ by the overall Reaction (R19) (Russell, 1957; Atkinson and Arey, 2003b). The aldehydic hydrogen is especially susceptible to undergoing hydrogen abstraction (Miller, 1999), followed by O_2 addition to form a peroxy acid radical, and final conversion to a carboxylic acid (Russell, 1957; Atkinson and Arey, 2003b). R^{20}COOH with $\text{MW} = 245$ amu is pro-

duced by Reaction (R20), a species registered as an anion by UHPLC-MS at m/z 244 (MW = 245 amu) (Fig. S4). CIMS data also support the pathways via Reaction (R20) (Fig. 2). The Br_2 -normalized CIMS signal for species at m/z 356 (MW = 229 amu) decreases with a subsequent increase in species at m/z 372 (MW = 245 amu) in the gas phase over the course of the experiment. Due to the lower vapor pressure of carboxylic acid species compared to carbonyl species (Pankow and Asher, 2008), the majority of carboxylic acid formed from this channel is expected to partition into the particle phase. In addition to Reaction (R20), R^{20}COOH can also be formed through a more direct route by addition of O_2 to the alkyl radical product and then subsequent reaction of the peroxy radical with HO_2 via the sequence of Reactions (R18) + (R21) + (R22) (Ziemann and Atkinson, 2012).

The hydroxynitrate formed by Reaction (R17) can also undergo hydrogen abstraction at the C_3 position, as indicated by Reaction (R23). (Vereecken and Peeters, 2012). Reaction (R24) shows how O_2 addition to the resulting secondary alkyl radical gives peroxy radical T^* , which can either react with L^* to form a dihydroxynitrate with MW = 231 amu via Reaction (R25) or form a hydroxycarbonyl nitrate with MW = 229 amu via Reaction (R26) (Russell, 1957; Atkinson and Arey, 2003b). In the absence of hydrogen atoms in the C_3 position, hydrogen abstraction occurs from C_4 of the hydroxycarbonyl nitrate species via Reaction (R27) (Vereecken and Peeters, 2012), which then forms a peroxy radical V^* by Reaction (R28) (Atkinson and Arey, 2003b). Reaction (R29), $\text{V}^* + \text{L}^*$, yields a dihydroxycarbonyl nitrate with MW = 245 amu (Russell, 1957; Atkinson and Arey, 2003b). This dihydroxycarbonyl nitrate is not expected to be the species appearing in the UHPLC-MS chromatogram (Fig. S4) at m/z 244 (MW = 245 amu) because it lacks a $-\text{COOH}$ group and likely has a higher vapor pressure than the carboxylic acid species with MW = 245 amu. Instead, it is likely that the dihydroxycarbonyl nitrate is the species observed by CIMS at m/z 372 (MW = 245 amu). A third possible isomer (not shown in Fig. 8) with MW = 245 amu and containing a non-carboxylic $\text{C}=\text{O}$ group, could be similarly formed from the product of Reaction (R13). Likewise, other isomers to those generated after Reaction (R26) can be formed from

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each possible structure with MW = 229 amu, providing a wide array of precursors to form heavier MW products. The confirmation that several isomers with MW = 245 amu are present in the filter extracts is revealed from the extracted ion chromatogram, EIC, which shows closely eluting peaks at m/z 244 (MW = 245 amu) when substituting formic acid for acetic acid (Li et al., 2011) as the modifier in the mobile phase (Fig. S4).

4.2 Aerosol yields

4.2.1 SOA yields over a wide range of organic mass loadings

The SOA yields obtained from this study are shown in Figs. 3 and 4. In recent years, it has been suggested that the loss of organic vapors to the chamber wall could affect SOA yields (Matsunaga and Ziemann, 2010; Loza et al., 2010; Yeh and Ziemann, 2014; Zhang et al., 2014). Specifically, Zhang et al. (2014) demonstrated that vapor wall loss could lead to an underestimation of SOA yields by as much as a factor of 4. To evaluate the potential effect of organic vapor wall loss on SOA yields in our study, experiments without seed are carried out at different conditions (dry and humid (RH = 50, 70 %) “RO₂+NO₃ dominant” and “RO₂+HO₂ dominant” conditions). The yields from the nucleation experiments are reported in Fig. S8 along with the yield curve obtained from seeded experiments. The similar yields for nucleation/seeded “RO₂+NO₃ dominant” experiments (dry and humid) in our study suggest that vapor wall loss has a negligible effect on aerosol yields in these experiments. It is likely that rapid reaction of β -pinene with nitrate radicals in this study mitigate the effect of organic vapor wall loss on SOA yields. Based on the rapid SOA growth (peak growth typically achieved within 10–15 min) for these experiments, it is estimated that the effective reaction rate of β -pinene in our experiments is an order of magnitude higher than the rates reported in Zhang et al. (2014). Although the aerosol mass yields for the “RO₂+HO₂ dominant” experiments in nucleation experiments are lower than the corresponding seeded experiments, further increase in the seed concentration does not have a significant effect on yield. Zhang et al. (2014) determined that if vapor phase wall loss is significant in

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chamber experiments, the addition of more seed particles will lead to an increase in SOA yield. Therefore, it is likely vapor phase wall loss is also negligible in our seeded “RO₂+HO₂ dominant” experiments. It is unclear at this time why nucleation experiments have lower SOA yield only for the “RO₂+HO₂ dominant” experiments. One possibility is that the chamber-wall uptake of ROOH species (which is likely higher in “RO₂+HO₂ dominant” experiments as measured by CIMS (Fig. 2)) is more rapid than other gas-phase species.

A comparison of aerosol yields obtained for the oxidation of β -pinene with nitrate radicals is also shown in Fig. 3. Griffin et al. (1999) performed the first comprehensive study of SOA formation from nitrate radical oxidation of BVOCs. The aerosol yield curve reported for β -pinene + NO₃ by Griffin et al. (1999) is shown next to our yield curve in Fig. 3. The two-product yield curve in Griffin et al. (1999) was generated from chamber experiments with $\Delta M_o > 30 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (range of $\Delta M_o = 30\text{--}470 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) and extrapolated down to lower loadings. The yield curve generated in the current study, however, includes measurements at mass loadings $< 10 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ and does not require any extrapolation beyond the bounds of the data to include lower, atmospherically relevant aerosol loadings. As shown in Fig. 3, while the SOA yields from this study are consistent with Griffin et al. (1999) for $\Delta M_o > 45 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, the yields from this study are as much as a factor of 4 higher than those reported by Griffin et al. (1999) at lower mass loadings.

Instances where the measured yields at low mass loading do not match those extrapolated from higher loadings have been observed for α -pinene ozonolysis (Presto and Donahue, 2006). We attribute this result to limitations of the two-product model, which bins all compounds into only two semi-volatile products of differing vapor pressures, to cover the entire spectrum of volatilities for all chemical products. At higher mass loadings, semi-volatile and volatile compounds can condense onto the particle phase and can potentially make up the majority of the aerosol. When a two-product yield curve is fit to high mass loadings only, the parameters are likely to be biased by the semi-volatile and high volatility products. Therefore, a yield curve fit using data from only high mass loadings will not account for the low-volatility products, which might be the

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minority products at high organic mass loadings. The two-product fit using high mass loadings therefore cannot be used to predict yields at low mass loadings, where the SOA is mostly comprised of low-volatility products. Since the yield curve generated as part of this study spans a wide range of organic mass loadings, the fitting parameters account for both the low-volatility products and the higher volatility products.

Fitting yield data to the volatility basis set described in Donahue et al. (2006) illustrates how higher volatility bins (products) are favored at higher aerosol mass loadings. The fit coefficients for the volatility basis set are shown in Table 3 for the aerosol yields of β -pinene + NO_3 from this study and that of Griffin et al. (1999). The stoichiometric coefficients for the fit of Griffin et al. (1999) are weighted towards higher volatility products while the coefficients fit to the data collected in this study are distributed among lower and higher volatility products.

Fry et al. (2009) conducted a pair of β -pinene + NO_3 chamber experiments under dry and humid (RH = 60%) conditions. Their results are also shown in Fig. 3. The yields from Fry et al. (2009) are about 20% lower than the current study. A more recent study by Fry et al. (2014) reported aerosol mass yields in the range of 33–44% for the β -pinene + NO_3 system at an organic mass loading of $10 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ in a continuous flow chamber under dry conditions. This is approximately 10–30% lower than the yield reported at a similar mass loading in this study. While various experimental conditions can contribute to the difference in aerosol mass yields, we note that the aerosol formation rate in both Fry et al. (2009, 2014) is slower than this study, which is likely caused by lower oxidant concentrations in Fry et al. (2009, 2014) compared to this study. Slower reaction times could allow more time for the gas-phase species to partition onto the chamber walls and reduce the amount that partitions onto aerosol (Ng et al., 2007b; Zhang et al., 2014). Thus, organic vapor wall loss might play a role in the lower yields observed in Fry et al. (2009, 2014). There is a substantial difference between our β -pinene + NO_3 SOA yield and that from Hallquist et al. (1999), which reported an aerosol mass yield of 10% for a mass loading of $7 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. A possible explanation for this is that the mass of β -pinene reacted was not directly measured

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in Hallquist et al. (1999), instead, it was assumed that the concentration of β -pinene reacted was equivalent to the concentration of N_2O_5 reacted. If there were other loss processes for N_2O_5 in the experiments conducted by Hallquist et al. (1999), the yield reported in their study could be substantially lower than the actual aerosol yield.

4.2.2 Effects of RH and acidity on SOA yields

For the “ $\text{RO}_2 + \text{NO}_3$ dominant” experiments, the yields between experiments conducted at dry conditions with ammonium sulfate seed are similar to experiments conducted under high humidity (RH = 50, 70 %) (Fig. 3). Our results indicate that the relative humidity does not have appreciable effects on the aerosol mass yield. These results are consistent with previous humidity effects studies on photooxidation (Nguyen et al., 2011) and nitrate radical chemistry (Bonn and Moorgat, 2002; Fry et al., 2009). However, these results are contradictory to the study performed by Spittler et al. (2006), where lower SOA yields were obtained for the α -pinene + NO_3 system under humid conditions (RH = 20%). Spittler et al. (2006) proposed that either the presence of water vapor altered the gas-phase chemistry or that the aerosol water on seed particles prevented gas-phase partitioning. These do not seem to be the case in our study. Similar gas-phase oxidation products are detected by CIMS under both dry and humid conditions and the organics size distribution measured by HR-ToF-AMS overlaps that of the seed aerosol, indicating that the oxidation products are condensing onto the seed particles.

The presence of aerosol water can potentially affect SOA formation through hydrolysis of organic nitrates. It has been observed in previous studies that organic nitrates in aqueous filter extract can undergo hydrolysis to form alcohols and nitric acid (Sato, 2008). The change from nitrate to hydroxyl functional groups could affect gas-particle partitioning and aerosol yields if the organic nitrates and alcohols have different vapor pressures. However, previous studies have shown that hydroxyl groups lower the vapor pressure of an organic compound to the same extent as organic nitrate groups (Pankow and Asher, 2008). In this study, hydrolysis does not appear to be a major reaction pathway for β -pinene + NO_3 SOA under humid conditions. As shown in Sect. 4.4,

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only < 10 % of OA undergoes hydrolysis. Thus, even if there is a difference in the vapor pressures between organic nitrates and their hydrolysis products, it is unlikely that this would affect aerosol yields in our case.

Aerosol water can also enhance SOA yields by providing a medium for water-soluble species (e.g. glyoxal) to dissolve into the particulate aqueous phase (Ervens et al., 2011 and references therein). Nitrate radical addition is predicted to add predominantly to a double bond instead of cleaving carbon to carbon bonds (Wayne et al., 1991) and hence fragmentation to small carbon compounds is unlikely. As shown in Fig. 8, the proposed mechanism does not involve carbon cleaving reactions which could result in small, water-soluble compounds. This is further supported by the similarities in SOA yields between dry and humid conditions. If these carbon cleaving reactions dominate and form small, water-soluble species, the yields should be much higher for the humid conditions than the dry conditions.

We find that aerosol acidity has a negligible effect on SOA yield for the β -pinene + NO_3 system (Fig. S3). This is opposite to some previous studies where increases in aerosol yields have been found under acidic conditions for other SOA systems (using the same seeds as in our study), such as ozonolysis of α -pinene and photooxidation of isoprene (e.g. Gao et al., 2004; Surratt et al., 2007). Acid-catalyzed particle-phase reaction such as oligomerization has been proposed for such “acid effects”. Although aerosol produced by the β -pinene + NO_3 reaction can potentially undergo oligomerization as well, it appears that the aerosol products are of low enough volatility that further particle-phase reactions (if any) do not enhance SOA yields. This indicates that the “acid effect” is likely different for different SOA systems, which would depend on the parent hydrocarbon, oxidant (ozone, OH, nitrate radicals), and other reaction conditions. In general, the SOA yields for nitrate radical oxidation of BVOCs are higher than corresponding yields in ozonolysis or OH radical oxidation (e.g. Griffin et al., 1999), suggesting that no further particle-phase reaction is needed to make the oxidation products more non-volatile and the “acid effect” could be limited.

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4.2.3 Effects of RO₂+NO₃ vs. RO₂+HO₂ Chemistry on SOA Yields

Previous studies have shown that the fate of peroxy radicals can have a substantial effect on SOA formation (Kroll and Seinfeld, 2008; Ziemann and Atkinson, 2012). For instance, it has been shown in laboratory chamber studies that the aerosol yields can differ by a factor of 2 depending on the RO₂ fate for the isoprene + NO₃ system (Ng et al., 2008). Although studies have proposed that RO₂+NO₃ is the major nighttime RO₂ fate in the ambient environments (Kirchner and Stockwell, 1996), results from recent field studies suggested that HO₂ radicals are abundant at night (Mao et al., 2012). The high HO₂ radical concentration could result in the RO₂+HO₂ reaction becoming the dominant RO₂ radical fate in the nighttime atmosphere. In our study, the experimental protocols are designed to promote the “RO₂+NO₃” or “RO₂+HO₂” reaction channel. These two scenarios would be representative of nitrate radical oxidation in environments with varying levels of NO_x. To our knowledge, this is the first study in which the fate of peroxy radicals is considered in SOA formation from nitrate radical oxidation of monoterpenes. A simple kinetic model based on MCMv3.2 (Saunders et al., 2003) is developed to simulate the gas-phase chemistry for the β-pinene + NO₃ reaction. The simulation results suggest that in both “RO₂+NO₃ dominant” and “RO₂+HO₂ dominant” experiments, the cross-reactions of RO₂ radicals are not a significant reaction pathway (Fig. S9). Figure 4 shows that the SOA yields from the “RO₂+HO₂ dominant” experiments are similar to the “RO₂+NO₃ dominant” experiments. The similar yields under these different reaction conditions could arise from a comparable suite of reaction products between the two reaction pathways. The reaction of RO₂+NO₃ produces an RO radical (Fig. 8, Reaction R2) which can undergo decomposition or isomerization (Orlando and Tyndall, 2012; Ziemann and Atkinson, 2012). Typically, it is expected that the RO₂+HO₂ reaction will lead to the formation of peroxides (Orlando and Tyndall, 2012; Ziemann and Atkinson, 2012). However, a recent study by Hasson et al. (2012) showed that for highly substituted peroxy radicals, the RO₂+HO₂ reaction favors the formation of RO radicals. Additionally, several previous studies showed that as carbon

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chain length increases (C2–C4), the $\text{RO}_2 + \text{HO}_2$ reaction becomes less likely to form the ROOH product and more likely to form the RO product (Jenkin et al., 2007; Dillon and Crowley, 2008; Hasson et al., 2012). In the case of β -pinene + NO_3 , RO_2 radicals are expected to form on the tertiary carbon as the nitrate radicals tend to attack the least substituted carbon of a double bond, leading to the formation of tertiary peroxy radicals (Wayne et al., 1991) (Fig. 8). Given β -pinene is a C10 compound and forms a highly substituted peroxy radical, we hypothesize that the $\text{RO}_2 + \text{HO}_2$ reaction pathway in our study forms RO radicals as suggested by Hasson et al. (2012), leading to a similar peroxy radical fate as in the “ $\text{RO}_2 + \text{NO}_3$ dominant” experiments. We note that the $\text{RO}_2 + \text{HO}_2$ reaction still leads to formation of ROOH as measured by CIMS (Fig. S2). Thus it appears that the $\text{RO}_2 + \text{HO}_2$ channel does not exclusively produce RO radicals in our case. Nevertheless, based on the similar SOA yields in the “ $\text{RO}_2 + \text{NO}_3$ dominant” and “ $\text{RO}_2 + \text{HO}_2$ dominant” experiments, we propose that either the RO radical is the dominant product of the $\text{RO}_2 + \text{HO}_2$ reaction pathway, or that ROOH has a similar volatility to the products formed from the RO radicals in the “ $\text{RO}_2 + \text{NO}_3$ dominant” experiments.

SOA is collected on filters for several experiments and analyzed using UHPLC in order to characterize the particle composition. Figure 9 shows the ratios of the total areas under the UV-visible chromatograms for “ $\text{RO}_2 + \text{HO}_2$ dominant” and “ $\text{RO}_2 + \text{NO}_3$ dominant” experiments, under both humid and dry conditions. Chromatograms collected at 205, 235, and 270 nm are integrated to get the total area at each wavelength and the standard deviation from two measurements. Total areas are normalized by the estimated organic mass loading on the corresponding filters. The wavelengths chosen represent a good proxy for certain functional groups that absorb in these regions. More specifically, $\lambda = 235$ nm corresponds to a region of strong absorption by ROOR and ROOH (Farmer et al., 1943; Turrà et al., 2010; Ouchi et al., 2013), while $\lambda = 270$ nm is a compromise wavelength that represents both carbonyl and alkyl nitrate functional groups (Xu et al., 1993; Pavia et al., 2008). Finally, $\lambda = 205$ nm is chosen as the normalization wavelength because practically all organic matter present in the sample

absorbs in this UV region. Figure 9 shows the ratio of total areas at 235 and 270 nm relative to the value at 205 nm, which provides a qualitative comparison of the samples. The relative reactivity for both reaction channels is similar within one standard deviation for all humidity conditions studied, indicating that each condition may have a similar product distribution. One slight difference is the enhancement in the production of $C_{10}H_{15}NO_6$ (m/z 244, an ROOH species) in the “ $RO_2 + HO_2$ dominant” experiments, which increases by 2 and 7 times under dry and humid conditions, respectively, relative to the “ $RO_2 + NO_3$ dominant” experiments. This observation indicates that in the presence of additional HO_2 , the oxidation is directed toward the synthesis of $C_{10}H_{15}NO_6$ (m/z 244) more efficiently. This can be explained by an increase in Reaction (R22) in Fig. 8.

4.3 Particulate organic nitrate formation and hydrolysis

4.3.1 Organic nitrate formation

The mass spectrum in Fig. 5 indicates the presence of a large fraction (11 %) of nitrate in the aerosol formed from the β -pinene + NO_3 reaction. Approximately 90 % of the N atoms in the spectrum are found on the NO^+ and NO_2^+ fragments. Most of the nitrate signal is assumed to be from organic species (i.e. organic nitrates) as N_2O_5 uptake to the particles is negligible and the $NO^+ : NO_2^+$ ratio is high. In humid experiments, the heterogeneous hydrolysis of N_2O_5 could lead to the formation of inorganic nitrates (e.g. HNO_3). To evaluate the contribution of inorganic nitrates to the total NO^+ and NO_2^+ ions measured by the HR-ToF-AMS, we perform two characterization experiments (RH = 50 %) in which only N_2O_5 (the maximum amount of N_2O_5 used in our aerosol experiments) and seed aerosol ($(NH_4)_2SO_4$ seed or $(NH_4)_2SO_4 + H_2SO_4$ seed) are injected into the chambers. In both cases, using a relative ionization efficiency (RIE) of 1.1 for nitrate results in a nitrate growth of less than $0.1 \mu g m^{-3}$ detected by the HR-ToF-AMS (Rollins et al., 2009). The uptake of N_2O_5 is even less likely in the SOA yield experiments. It has been shown that when comparing to inorganic seed only, the

presence of organic matter decreased N_2O_5 uptake by 80 % (Gaston et al., 2014). Therefore, the contribution of inorganic nitrates to the total nitrate signals measured by the HR-ToF-AMS in our experiments is negligible.

It has been shown previously that the $\text{NO}^+:\text{NO}_2^+$ ratio in the HR-ToF-AMS mass spectrum can be used to infer the presence of particle-phase organic nitrates (Farmer et al., 2010). Specifically, Farmer et al. (2010) suggested that the $\text{NO}^+:\text{NO}_2^+$ ratio is much higher for organic nitrates (ratio = 5–15) than inorganic nitrates (ratio \sim 2.7) and therefore, aerosol with a high $\text{NO}^+:\text{NO}_2^+$ ratio likely also has a high concentration of organic nitrates. Figure 5 shows that approximately only two-thirds of the signal at m/z 30 is from NO^+ , while the remaining signal is from organic CH_2O^+ fragment. At peak aerosol growth under dry and humid conditions, we determine from the high-resolution AMS data that the $\text{NO}^+:\text{NO}_2^+$ ratio for β -pinene + NO_3 aerosol is typically 6–7.5 in “ $\text{RO}_2 + \text{NO}_3$ dominant” experiments and 8–9 in “ $\text{RO}_2 + \text{HO}_2$ dominant” experiments. Previous studies (Fry et al., 2009; Bruns et al., 2010) on the β -pinene + NO_3 reaction suggested that the $\text{NO}^+:\text{NO}_2^+$ ratio for β -pinene + NO_3 SOA is on the order of 10 : 1, higher than the values determined in this study. One explanation for this difference is the close proximity of the CH_2O^+ ion to the NO^+ ion in the aerosol mass spectrum, which may result in a small bias in the calculated $\text{NO}^+/\text{NO}_2^+$ ratio. Specifically, if we were to include the contribution of the organic CH_2O^+ fragment at m/z 30 (in addition to contribution from NO^+), the corresponding $\text{NO}^+:\text{NO}_2^+$ ratios would be higher, i.e. 10 : 1 for “ $\text{RO}_2 + \text{NO}_3$ dominant” experiments and 13 : 1 for “ $\text{RO}_2 + \text{HO}_2$ dominant” experiments. Therefore, when using the $\text{NO}^+:\text{NO}_2^+$ ratio to estimate organic nitrate contribution in ambient OA, it is imperative that one excludes the organic contribution (if any) at m/z 30 when calculating the ratio.

One possible way to estimate the molar fraction of organic nitrates in the aerosol from the HR-ToF-AMS data is to use the N:C ratio of the aerosol formed in the experiments. Since β -pinene is a monoterpene, we assume its oxidation products have approximately 10 carbon atoms. This is a reasonable assumption based on the gas-phase oxidation products detected by CIMS (Fig. 8). The dominant reaction pathway of

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nitrate radicals is addition via attack of the double bond, adding one nitrate group to the primary carbon and forming a peroxy radical. With one nitrate group and 10 carbons from the β -pinene precursor, the organic nitrate products are expected to have a N : C ratio of about 1 : 10. If 100 % of the SOA formed is composed of organic nitrates, the HR-ToF-AMS data should have a N : C ratio of 0.1. The average N : C ratio for all experiments measured by the HR-ToF-AMS is approximately 0.074 for SOA formed from β -pinene + NO₃ at peak growth. Thus, as an upper bound, it is approximated that the molar fraction of organic nitrates in the aerosol is 74 %. Even if there is fragmentation, the organic nitrate fraction in the aerosol would remain fairly high. For instance, if the organic nitrate species only has 9 carbons, the molar organic nitrate fraction is approximately 67 %. If we assume the organic nitrate and non-organic nitrate species have the same molecular weight, the molar organic nitrate fraction in the aerosol is equal to the fraction of aerosol mass composed of organic nitrates. In addition to N : C, the HR-ToF-AMS Nitrate:Org mass ratio can also be used to estimate the particle organic nitrate fraction. The average Nitrate:Org mass ratio measured by the HR-ToF-AMS for all experiments is about 0.16. We assume the organic nitrate compound has an average molecular weight between 200 and 300 amu based on the predicted products (Fig. 8), where 62 amu is attributed to the nitrate group with the remaining mass is from the organic mass. Using both the Nitrate : Org mass ratio and the assumed range of molecular weights for the organic nitrate species, the fraction of aerosol mass composed of organic nitrates is estimated to be 45–68 %. We estimate that the fraction of aerosol mass composed of organic nitrates is 60 %, based on the average value of the extremes of the two estimates. This is comparable to the fraction of aerosol mass composed of organic nitrates estimated by Fry et al. (2014) (56 %) but higher than that reported by Fry et al. (2009) (30–40 %). The different experimental conditions in our study vs. those in Fry et al. (2009) may have contributed to the difference in the fraction of aerosol mass composed of organic nitrates. For example, the ratio of NO₂ to O₃ used to make NO₃ radicals in Fry et al. (2009) is lower than this study, which may have led to differing branching ratios of β -pinene + NO₃ vs. β -pinene + O₃.

4.3.2 Hydrolysis and organic nitrate fate

As shown in Fig. 7, for experiments with the same initial hydrocarbon concentrations, the AMS nitrate-to-organics ratio of the humid experiments normalized by the dry experiments stabilize at a ratio of about 0.9. The nitrate radical addition at the double bond of β -pinene can lead to the formation of either primary or tertiary nitrates. Previous studies of organic nitrate hydrolysis in bulk solutions showed that while saturated primary nitrates hydrolyze on the order of months, tertiary nitrates hydrolyze on the order of hours (Darer et al., 2011). Primary organic nitrates with double bonds can hydrolyze on the order of minutes (Jacobs et al., 2014), but oxidation products from the β -pinene + NO_3 reaction are likely saturated compounds due to the lone double bond of β -pinene (Fig. 8). Therefore, the point at which nitrate mass stops decreasing is interpreted as when all tertiary nitrates have hydrolyzed. As the oxidation products typically contain only one nitrate group (Fig. 8), we infer that 90 % of the organic nitrates formed from the β -pinene + NO_3 reaction are primary nitrates. These results are consistent with findings that nitrate radical is more likely to attack the less substituted carbon, which, in the case for β -pinene, is the terminal carbon (Wayne et al., 1991). Since the nitrate addition is the first reaction step, any subsequent differences in peroxy radical fate (e.g. $\text{RO}_2 + \text{NO}_3$ vs. $\text{RO}_2 + \text{HO}_2$) will not affect the relative amount of primary vs. tertiary nitrates in our systems.

Based on the decay rate of $(\text{Nitrate} : \text{Org})_{\text{norm}}$, the hydrolysis lifetime of the tertiary nitrates formed in the reaction of β -pinene with nitrate radicals is calculated to be approximately 3–4.5 h. This is on the same order of magnitude as the hydrolysis lifetime (6 h) of the proposed tertiary organic nitrates formed from photooxidation of trimethyl benzene in the presence of NO_x (Liu et al., 2012). Results from our study therefore do not suggest that nitrate radical chemistry produces organic nitrates with different hydrolysis rates than what is previously known for primary or tertiary organic nitrates. Instead, this study proposes that the fraction of tertiary organic nitrates produced from nitrate radical chemistry is much lower than SOA produced from photooxidation in the

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presence of NO_x. As primary and tertiary organic nitrates have drastically different hydrolysis rates, it is imperative that their relative contribution be accurately represented in models when determining the fate of ambient organic nitrates. A recent study by Browne et al. (2013) modeled the hydrolysis of organic nitrates in a forested region by assuming that 75% of atmospheric organic nitrates formed in the day are composed of tertiary organic nitrates, based on the average fraction of tertiary organic nitrates from the photooxidation of α -pinene and β -pinene in the presence of NO_x. This has implications on not only the organic nitrate fate, but also on the formation of nitric acid, a byproduct of organic nitrate hydrolysis (Sato, 2008). With this, Browne et al. (2013) predicted that hydrolysis of organic nitrates produced in the day time could account for as much as a third to half of all nitric acid production. However, when considering organic nitrates formed both in the day and at night, the fraction of tertiary organic nitrates in ambient organic nitrates is likely lower than that used by Browne et al. (2013). This is especially true in areas where nitrate radical oxidation is the dominant source of organic nitrates (e.g. NO_x > 75 ppt in forested regions as noted in Browne et al., 2014). It is recommended that future modeling studies of organic nitrates fates should consider organic nitrates formed both in the day and at night in order to take into account the large contribution of primary organic nitrates (which do not hydrolyze appreciably) formed from nitrate radical oxidation of monoterpenes.

Previous studies suggested that hydrolysis of organic nitrates can be an acid-catalyzed process in both solution (Szmigielski et al., 2010) and directly in the particle phase (Rindelaub et al., 2015). However, it has been found that primary and secondary organic nitrates are stable unless the aerosol is very acidic (pH < 0) (Darer et al., 2011; Hu et al., 2011). We calculate the corresponding change in (Nitrate : Org)_{norm} ratio for the experiments where (NH₄)₂SO₄ + H₂SO₄ seed is used (data not shown in Fig. 7). We find that for these experiments, the (Nitrate : Org)_{norm} ratio also becomes constant at around 0.9, similar to that of the (NH₄)₂SO₄ seed experiments. However, the experiments using (NH₄)₂SO₄ + H₂SO₄ seed have a more rapid rate of decrease in the (Nitrate : Org)_{norm} ratio. This suggests that while hydrolysis of tertiary nitrates is accel-

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erated under more acidic conditions, primary organic nitrates do not hydrolyze at an observable rate for the pH conditions employed in this study. As the majority of the particulate organic nitrates formed in our experiments are primary nitrates, we infer that particle acidity may not have a significant impact on the hydrolysis of organic nitrates formed in the BVOCs + NO₃ reaction, except in the cases where the double bond on the BVOCs connects two tertiary carbons, such as terpinolene.

4.4 Aerosol aging in the dark

While the aging of SOA has been extensively investigated in multiple photooxidation studies and shown to affect aerosol mass (e.g. Donahue et al., 2012; Henry and Donahue, 2012), little is known regarding aerosol aging by nitrate radicals (Qi et al., 2012). A number of theoretical (Kerdouci et al., 2010, 2014; Rayez et al., 2014) and experimental studies (Atkinson, 1991; Wayne et al., 1991) suggested that hydrogen abstraction by nitrate radicals occurs, especially for hydrogen atoms attached to aldehyde groups. As shown in Fig. 8, the β -pinene + NO₃ reaction can lead to the formation of compounds with carbonyl groups, allowing for potential nighttime aging of SOA by nitrate radicals. While the CIMS N₂O₅ signals are not quantified, it is clear from our measurements that the N₂O₅ signals are lower (by at least a factor of 2) in the humid “RO₂ + HO₂ dominant” and “RO₂ + NO₃ dominant” experiments, likely due to their uptake to wet chamber and/or aerosol surfaces (Thornton et al., 2003). Thus, we focus our aerosol aging discussion on the dry “RO₂ + NO₃ dominant” experiments, where the oxidant (nitrate radicals) concentrations are higher.

As aerosol ages, first-generation products either functionalize, which decreases volatility, or fragment, which can lead to an overall increase in volatility (Kroll et al., 2009). If fragmentation is the dominant pathway, a decrease in organic mass is expected as products become more volatile and re-partition back to the gas phase. We use the AMS Org : Sulfate ratio as a proxy to examine the effect of aerosol aging on organics mass in our experiments. As wall loss of particles will lead to a decrease in organic loading, normalizing the organic loadings by sulfate allows us to examine

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the net change in the organics mass over the course of the experiments. Since the Org:Sulfate ratio decreases after SOA reaches peak growth (Fig. 6), it is likely that aerosol fragmentation is the dominant aging pathway of SOA. Nevertheless, there is still evidence of increased functionalization over the course of the experiments. Fragmentation of SOA alone would cause all AMS organic families to either decrease or remain constant relative to sulfate. However, Fig. 6 shows that the highly-oxidized fragments (CHOgt1, fragments with greater than 1 oxygen atom) increase slightly relative to sulfate while the non-oxidized fragments (CH) are lost at nearly twice the rate as the slightly oxidized fragments (CHO1). Since non-oxidized fragments are lost more quickly than less-oxidized fragments, it is possible that further particle-phase reactions are leading to the formation of highly oxidized compounds.

For the β -pinene + NO₃ reaction, carboxylic acids can be formed from the abstraction of hydrogen from aldehydes and subsequent oxidation (Fig. 8). The observed ion at m/z 356 and m/z 372 in CIMS likely corresponds to hydroxy carbonyl nitrate and carboxylic acid, respectively. As shown in Fig. 2, m/z 356 decreases over the course of the experiment while m/z 372 increases. The possible conversion of aldehydes to carboxylic acids is also noticeable in the aerosol chemical composition. The m/z 44 (CO₂⁺) fragment in the HR-ToF-AMS data likely arise from thermal-decomposition of carboxylic acids (Duplissy et al., 2011) and is commonly used to infer the extent of aerosol aging (Ng et al., 2011). Although the f_{44} (fraction of CO₂⁺ ion to total organics) in the typical mass spectrum of β -pinene + NO₃ SOA is low (<3%), there is a noticeable and continued increase in f_{44} after peak aerosol growth (Fig. 6). Specifically, during the 2.5 h following peak growth, f_{44} increases by as much as 30% under dry conditions. Under humid conditions, the increase in f_{44} is only 6%. These correspond to a 17 and 6% increase in O:C ratio of the aerosol under dry (O:C ranging from 0.46 to 0.54 for all experiments) and humid conditions (O:C ranging from 0.47 to 0.50), respectively. These observations are consistent with the lower N₂O₅ concentrations in the presence of surface water on chamber walls under humid conditions.

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It is unlikely that the observed decrease in organic species relative to sulfate and the decrease in gas phase species are due to differences in vapor phase wall loss. Matsunaga and Ziemann (2010) determined that highly-oxidized gaseous organic compounds are lost to the chamber walls faster than compounds that have a lower degree of oxidation. Additionally, the gas-wall partitioning coefficient has also been shown to correlate inversely with the vapor pressure for each compound (Yeh and Ziemann, 2014), where highly oxidized species typically have lower vapor pressures (Pankow and Asher, 2008). If vapor-phase wall loss is the driving factor for the decrease in organics in this study, it would be expected that oxidized compounds would decrease more rapidly, causing these compounds to re-partition back to the gas phase to re-establish equilibrium. The decrease in organics shown in Fig. 6, however, indicates more rapid losses of non-oxidized fragments compared to oxidized fragments. The less oxidized species measured by CIMS (lower molecular weight) as shown in Fig. 2 also decrease more rapidly than the more oxidized species. Therefore, the change in chemical composition and decrease in vapor phase species is more likely attributable to aerosol aging than to vapor-wall partitioning.

5 Relevance to ambient measurements

Results from this study provide the fundamental information to evaluate the extent to which nitrate radical oxidation of monoterpenes contributes to ambient organic aerosol. This reaction provides a direct mechanism for linking anthropogenic and biogenic emissions, and is likely substantial in the southeastern United States, where both types of emissions are high. A recent field campaign, the Southeastern Oxidant and Aerosol Study (SOAS), took place in Centreville, Alabama from 1 June–15 July 2013 to investigate the effects of anthropogenic pollution in a region with large natural emissions. Based on positive matrix factorization (PMF) analysis of the HR-ToF-AMS data obtained in SOAS, Xu et al. (2015) identified an OA subtype termed as less-oxidized oxygenated organic aerosol (LO-OOA), which accounted for 32% of the total OA

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at Centreville. LO-OOA peaks at night and is well-correlated with particle-phase organic nitrates. These suggest that LO-OOA is produced predominantly from nighttime monoterpene + NO_3 chemistry, especially from β -pinene + NO_3 as β -pinene has a high nighttime concentration (Xu et al., 2015). Results from the current laboratory chamber study provide the relevant fundamental data for estimating the amount of aerosol produced from monoterpene + NO_3 in SOAS. The campaign-average loading of non-refractory PM_1 in SOAS is about $8 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ and it has been determined that the aerosol is highly acidic ($\text{pH} = 0.94 \pm 0.59$) and contains a large amount of particulate water ($5.09 \pm 3.76 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) (Cerully et al., 2014; Guo et al., 2014). At night, the RH can reach up to 90 % during the SOAS measuring period (Guo et al., 2014). The current chamber study is designed to probe SOA formation from nitrate radical oxidation under atmospherically relevant loadings, under high humidity, and in the presence of seed aerosol of different acidity. The fates of peroxy radicals at night are highly uncertain, which mainly arises from the lack of constraints on the reaction rates of the peroxy radicals with other species, such as $\text{RO}_2 + \text{NO}_3$ (Brown and Stutz, 2012). In our study, the experiments are conducted under both “ $\text{RO}_2 + \text{NO}_3$ dominant” and “ $\text{RO}_2 + \text{HO}_2$ dominant” regimes to explore the effects of peroxy radical fates on SOA formation. Using a SOA yield of 50 % (for a mass loading of $8 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ obtained from the yield curve) in the presence of acidic seed at $\text{RH} = 70$ % obtained from “ $\text{RO}_2 + \text{HO}_2$ dominant” experiments, Xu et al. (2015) estimated that about 50 % of nighttime OA could be produced by the reaction of β -pinene with nitrate radicals in SOAS.

It is noted that the LO-OOA factor is also resolved at both rural and urban sites around the greater Atlanta area in all seasons, where HR-ToF-AMS measurements were conducted as part of the Southeastern Center for Air Pollution and Epidemiology study (SCAPE) (Verma et al., 2014; Xu et al., 2015). It is found that LO-OOA made up 18–36 % of the total OA in rural and urban areas, suggesting that a fairly large fraction of total OA in the southeastern United States could arise from nitrate radical oxidation of monoterpenes.

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Figure 10 shows a comparison of the aerosol mass spectrum from a typical β -pinene + NO_3 experiment from this study and the LO-OOA factor obtained from SOAS data. As LO-OOA could have other sources in addition to monoterpene + NO_3 , the two spectra are not in perfect agreement but they do show similar trends above m/z 60.

Most noticeable of these are m/z 67 (C_5H_7^+) and m/z 91 (C_7H_7^+) with a ratio of these two ions ($\text{C}_5\text{H}_7^+ : \text{C}_7\text{H}_7^+$) of about 2.9 (ranging from 2.5–3.5 in other experiments). The mass spectra for the other SOA-forming systems predicted to be of importance at SOAS, namely, α -pinene ozonolysis (Chhabra et al., 2010), isoprene photooxidation (Chhabra et al., 2010), and nitrate radical initiated isoprene chemistry (Ng et al., 2008), do not show significant intensities at either of these two ions. Therefore, it is likely that high signals at C_5H_7^+ and C_7H_7^+ in ambient aerosol mass spectrum could be indicative of the presence of β -pinene + NO_3 reaction products. We note that the average $\text{NO}^+ : \text{NO}_2^+$ ratio for aerosol measured at SOAS is 7.1, consistent with the high $\text{NO}^+ : \text{NO}_2^+$ ratio from the SOA formed from nitrate radical oxidation of β -pinene in this study.

The gas-phase oxidation products detected by the CIMS in this study can also be used to help interpret ambient data to evaluate the possible contribution of β -pinene + NO_3 reaction. For instance, a significant amount of gas-phase organic nitrate species with MW of 215 and 231 amu have been observed during the BEARPEX campaign in Fall 2009 (Beaver et al., 2012). As these species exhibited a nighttime peak, Beaver et al. (2012) suggested that they could arise from nighttime oxidation of α -pinene or β -pinene by nitrate radicals. The proposed mechanism for β -pinene + NO_3 (Fig. 8) show multiple reaction pathways to form species with MW = 215 and MW = 231. Therefore, the oxidation of β -pinene by nitrate radicals represents one possible pathway for the formation of the species detected by Beaver et al. (2012). As the β -pinene + NO_3 reaction has shown to be important at SOAS (Xu et al., 2015), it is expected that the gas-phase compounds observed in this chamber study could help explain some of the species detected by the multiple CIMS deployed during the SOAS study.

6 Atmospheric implications

Although photooxidation is expected to be the major oxidation pathway for atmospheric VOCs, nitrate radical oxidation can account for as much as 20 % of global BVOCs oxidation and is predicted to lead to an aerosol mass increase by as much as 45 % when compared to the modeled case where this chemistry is excluded (Pye et al., 2010). Due to high SOA yields, evaluating the mass of aerosol produced by nitrate radical initiated chemistry is essential to estimate the total organic aerosol burden, both on regional and global scales. Currently, the aerosol yields from nitrate radical oxidation of monoterpenes in most models are assumed to be the same as those determined from β -pinene + NO_3 reactions in Griffin et al. (1999) (Pye et al., 2010). In this study, we systematically investigate SOA formation from the nitrate radical oxidation of β -pinene under various reaction conditions (dry, humid, differing radical fate) and a wide range of initial hydrocarbon concentrations that are atmospherically relevant. We determine that the SOA yields from the β -pinene + NO_3 systems are consistent with Griffin et al. (1999) for mass loadings $>45 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, but as much as a factor of 4 higher than those reported in Griffin et al. (1999) for lower mass loadings. The lower SOA yields reported in Griffin et al. (1999) could arise from uncertainties in extrapolating data from higher mass loadings to lower mass loadings in that study, as well from slower reaction rates and vapor wall loss effects (Zhang et al., 2014). While it is likely that the SOA yields from the nitrate radical oxidation of various monoterpenes are different (Fry et al., 2014), updating SOA formation from β -pinene + NO_3 with the new yield parameters in future modeling studies would lead to a more accurate prediction of the amount of aerosol formed from this reaction pathway.

Currently, the fate of peroxy radicals ($\text{RO}_2 + \text{HO}_2$ vs. $\text{RO}_2 + \text{NO}_3$, etc.) in the nighttime atmosphere is still highly uncertain (Brown and Stutz, 2012), though recent studies showed that the HO_2 mixing ratio is often on the order of 10 ppt (Mao et al., 2012). Thus, $\text{RO}_2 + \text{HO}_2$ could be the dominant nighttime fate of peroxy radicals. In this study, we examine the effect of RO_2 fate on aerosol yields for the β -pinene + NO_3 system.

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Although more ROOH species are produced through the $\text{RO}_2 + \text{HO}_2$ channel, the SOA yields in the “ $\text{RO}_2 + \text{NO}_3$ dominant” and “ $\text{RO}_2 + \text{HO}_2$ dominant” experiments are comparable and also have similar contributions from organic peroxides (ROOR) (Fig. 9). This indicates that for this system, the overall product chemical composition and volatility distribution may not be very different for the different peroxy radical fates. This is in contrast to results from nitrate radical oxidation of smaller biogenic species, such as isoprene, which have large differences in SOA yields depending on the RO_2 fate (Ng et al., 2008). This suggests that the fates of peroxy radicals in nitrate radical experiments for larger BVOCs (such as monoterpenes and sesquiterpenes) may not be as important as it is for small compounds (such as isoprene) and in photooxidation and ozonolysis experiments (e.g. Presto et al., 2005; Kroll et al., 2006; Ng et al., 2007a; Eddingsaas et al., 2012; Xu et al., 2014). This warrants further studies.

The results from this study provide the first insight for the specific organic nitrate branching ratio on the β -pinene + NO_3 system. We determine that about 90 and 10 % of the organic nitrates formed from the β -pinene + NO_3 reaction are primary organic nitrates and tertiary organic nitrates, respectively. As primary and tertiary organic nitrates hydrolyze at drastically different rates, the relative contribution of primary vs. tertiary organic nitrates determined in this work would allow for improved constraints regarding the fates of organic nitrates in the atmosphere. Specifically, updating the branching ratio (primary vs. tertiary) with organic nitrates formed by the NO_3 -initiated oxidation of BVOCs will improve model predictions of hydrolysis of organic nitrates. Hydrolysis of organic nitrates has the potential to create a long term sink for atmospheric nitrogen in the form of nitric acid. Organic nitrates that do not hydrolyze, however, can potentially be photolyzed or oxidized by OH radicals to release NO_x back into the atmosphere (Suarez-Bertoa et al., 2012) or lost by dry or wet deposition.

Results from this chamber study are used to evaluate the contributions from the nitrate radical oxidation of BVOCs to ambient OA in the southeastern United States, where this chemistry is expected to be substantial owing to high natural and anthropogenic emissions in the area. Factor analysis of HR-ToF-AMS data from SOAS and

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SCAPE field measurements identified an OA subtype (LO-OOA) at these sites which is highly correlated with organic nitrates (Xu et al., 2015). The β -pinene + NO₃ SOA yields obtained under reaction conditions relevant to these field studies are directly utilized to estimate the amount of ambient OA formed from this reaction pathway (Xu et al., 2015). Specifically, it is estimated that 50 % of nighttime OA could be produced by the reaction of β -pinene with nitrate radicals in SOAS (Xu et al., 2015). Results from this study and Xu et al. (2015) illustrate the substantial insights one can gain into aerosol formation chemistry and ambient aerosol source apportionment through coordinated fundamental laboratory studies and field measurement studies. Further, multiple gas-phase organic nitrate species are identified in this chamber study, which could be used to help interpret ambient gas-phase composition data obtained from the large suite of gas-phase measurements in SOAS. Owing to difficulties in measuring complex atmospheric processes, laboratory studies are critical in generating fundamental data to understand and predict SOA formation regionally and globally. In this regard, it is imperative not to view laboratory studies as isolated efforts, but instead to make them essential and integrated parts of research activities in the wider atmospheric chemistry community (e.g. field campaigns).

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**Table 1.** Experimental conditions and aerosol mass yields for all experiments

Experiment	RH (%)	Condition	Seed	ΔHC^c ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$)	ΔM_{a}^d ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$)	Mass Yield (%)
1	<2	RO ₂ +NO ₃	AS ^a	13.8±1.3	5.3±0.41	38.3±5.5
2	<2	RO ₂ +NO ₃	AS	13.8±1.3	5.4±0.15	38.7±4.0
3	<2	RO ₂ +NO ₃	AS	41.5±3.9	25.3±0.54	61.0±6.0
4	<2	RO ₂ +NO ₃	AS	55.4±5.2	— ^e	—
5	<2	RO ₂ +NO ₃	AS	69.2±6.5	—	—
6	<2	RO ₂ +NO ₃	AS	69.2±6.5	44.9±0.73	64.9±6.3
7	<2	RO ₂ +NO ₃	AS	83.0±7.8	—	—
8	<2	RO ₂ +NO ₃	AS	96.9±9.1	—	—
9	<2	RO ₂ +NO ₃	AS	138.4±13.1	134.6±1.51	97.2±9.3
10	<2	RO ₂ +NO ₃	AS	138.4±13.1	114.7±2.51	82.9±8.2
11	51	RO ₂ +NO ₃	AS	13.2±1.2	7.3±0.57	55.4±8.2
12	50	RO ₂ +NO ₃	AS	13.2±1.2	6.8±0.36	51.7±6.3
13	49	RO ₂ +NO ₃	AS	39.6±3.7	23.0±0.65	57.9±6.0
14	49	RO ₂ +NO ₃	AS	52.8±5.0	34.2±0.89	64.8±6.6
15	51	RO ₂ +NO ₃	AS	52.8±5.0	33.1±0.56	62.5±6.1
16	50	RO ₂ +NO ₃	AS	66.1±6.2	43.5±0.60	65.9±6.4
17	50	RO ₂ +NO ₃	AS	66.1±6.2	42.2±0.98	63.9±6.4
18	51	RO ₂ +NO ₃	AS	79.3±7.5	60.7±0.83	76.6±7.4
19	51	RO ₂ +NO ₃	AS	92.5±9.7	68.4±1.26	73.9±7.2
20	71	RO ₂ +NO ₃	AS	66.1±6.2	50.5±1.32	76.4±7.8
21	70	RO ₂ +NO ₃	AS	66.1±6.2	50.0±0.44	75.7±7.2
22	72	RO ₂ +NO ₃	AS	132.1±12.5	125.5±1.35	95.0±9.0
23	68	RO ₂ +NO ₃	AS	132.1±12.5	132.9±1.33	100.6±9.5
24	51	RO ₂ +NO ₃	AS+SA ^b	39.6±3.7	25.5±0.69	64.4±6.6
25	50	RO ₂ +NO ₃	AS+SA	66.1±6.2	46.4±1.10	70.4±6.8
26	51	RO ₂ +NO ₃	AS+SA	92.5±8.7	74.4±1.23	80.5±7.7
27	<3	RO ₂ +HO ₂	AS	41.5±3.9	27.0±0.54	64.9±6.4
28	<3	RO ₂ +HO ₂	AS	41.5±3.9	22.9±0.71	55.0±5.8
29	<3	RO ₂ +HO ₂	AS	69.2±6.5	49.3±0.97	71.2±7.1
30	<3	RO ₂ +HO ₂	AS	69.2±6.5	38.1±1.17	52.2±5.6
31	<2	RO ₂ +HO ₂	AS	96.9±9.1	71.2±2.32	73.4±7.8
32	<3	RO ₂ +HO ₂	AS	207.6±19.6	216.1±1.96	104.1±9.9
33	49	RO ₂ +HO ₂	AS	198.2±18.7	147.8±1.42	74.6±7.1
34	69	RO ₂ +HO ₂	AS+SA	13.2±1.2	5.1±0.59	38.5±8.1
35	69	RO ₂ +HO ₂	AS+SA	26.4±2.5	16.1±1.14	61.0±9.0
36	66	RO ₂ +HO ₂	AS+SA	39.6±3.7	30.3±0.71	76.4±7.8
37	66	RO ₂ +HO ₂	AS+SA	66.1±6.2	47.7±1.77	72.1±8.1
38	<1	RO ₂ +NO ₃	None	69.2±6.5	42.3±0.46	61.1±5.8
39	50	RO ₂ +NO ₃	None	66.1±6.2	44.3±0.34	67.0±6.4
40	<2	RO ₂ +HO ₂	None	69.2±6.5	18.7±0.51	27.0±2.8
41	66	RO ₂ +HO ₂	None	66.1±6.2	28.5±0.60	43.1±4.2
42	50	RO ₂ +HO ₂	None	66.1±6.2	18.4±0.34	27.8±2.7
43	<2	RO ₂ +HO ₂	AS ^f	69.2±6.5	33.6±0.79	48.5±4.9
45	68	RO ₂ +HO ₂	AS+SA ^f	66.1±6.2	46.6±0.86	70.6±7.0
46	66	RO ₂ +HO ₂	AS+SA ^f	66.1±6.2	44.5±0.87	67.3±6.7

* Experiments with seed concentrations greater than the typical seed concentrations for investigating vapor wall loss effects. ^a (NH₄)₂SO₄ Seed. ^b (NH₄)₂SO₄+H₂SO₄ Seed: ^c Uncertainties in hydrocarbon concentration are calculated from an 8% uncertainty in chamber volume and 5% uncertainty in hydrocarbon mass. ^d Uncertainties in aerosol mass loading are calculated from one standard deviation of aerosol volume as measured by the SMPS. ^e “—” denotes experiments where there is no SMPS data.

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Table 2. Fit parameters for two-product model proposed by Odum et al. (1996).

	α_1	K_1	α_2	K_2
β -pinene+ NO_3 (this study)	1.187	0.004546	0.496	0.880
Griffin et al. (1999)	1	0.0163		

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Table 3. Coefficients for the volatility basis set proposed by Donahue et al. (2006).

	Saturation Vapor Pressure, C^* ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$)			
	1	10	100	1000
β -pinene + NO ₃ (this study)	0.272	0.000	0.437	0.291
Griffin et al. (1999)	0.000	0.117	0.785	0

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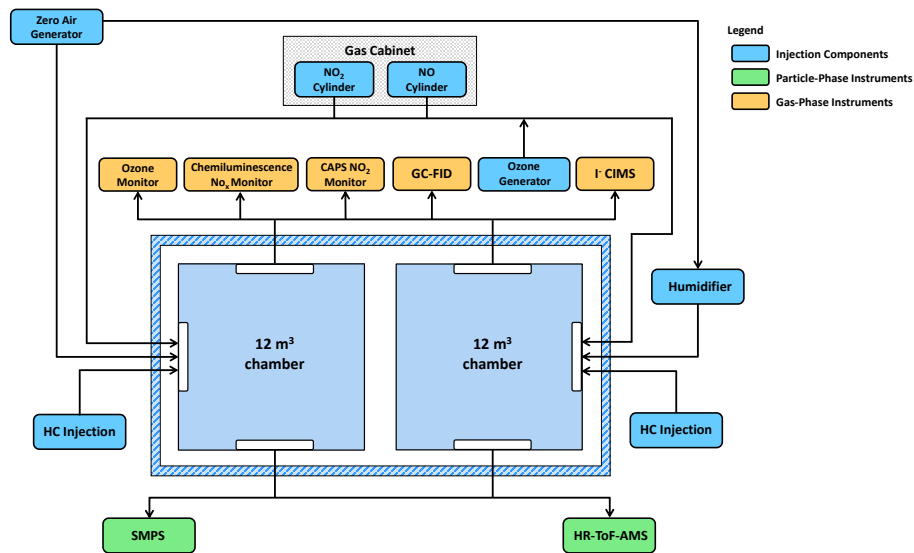


Figure 1. Schematic of the Georgia Tech Environmental Chamber facility (GTEC).

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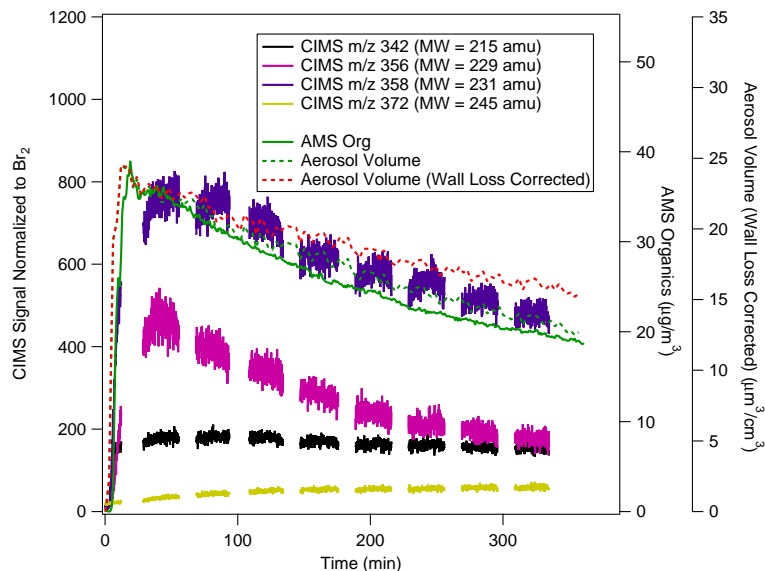


Figure 2. Time series of the gas-phase organic nitrate species measured by the CIMS and the corresponding aerosol formation measured by HR-ToF-AMS (organics mass) and SMPS (aerosol volume) (Experiment 30 in Table 1). The gas-phase species at m/z 356 decreases over the course of the experiment while the species at m/z 372 increases steadily.

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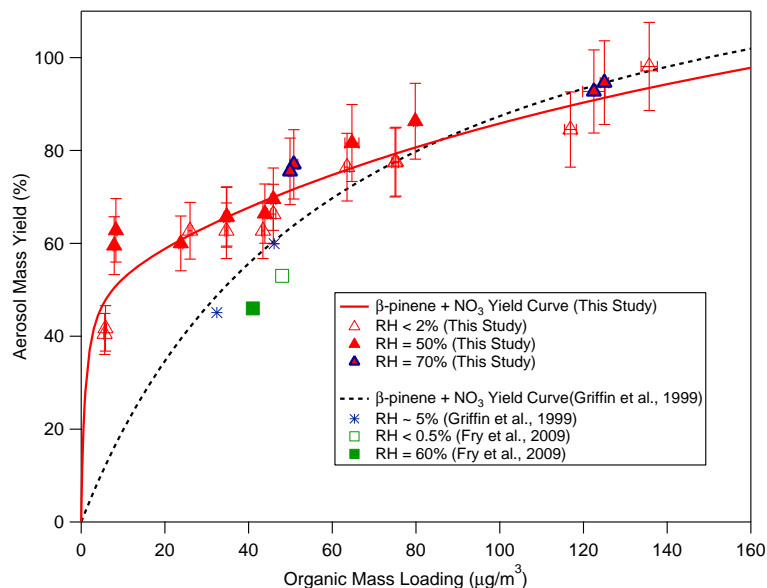


Figure 3. Aerosol mass yield as a function of organic mass loading for the β -pinene + NO_3 reaction under “ $\text{RO}_2 + \text{NO}_3$ dominant” conditions. The aerosol mass yields obtained in this study are compared to those measured in previous chamber studies by Griffin et al. (1999) and Fry et al. (2009). The aerosol mass yields obtained in this study are fitted using the two-product model proposed previously by Odum et al. (1996). The yield parameters obtained in this study and those from Griffin et al. (1999) are shown in Table 2. In order to better compare the aerosol mass yields obtained in this study to that by Griffin et al. (1999), an aerosol density of 1.41 g cm^{-3} is applied to the measurements by Griffin et al. (1999). The x axis error bars represent one standard deviation of volume measured by SMPS at peak growth. The y axis error bars represent uncertainty in yield calculated by an 8 % uncertainty in chamber volume, 5 % uncertainty in hydrocarbon injection, and one standard deviation of the aerosol volume measured by SMPS at peak growth.

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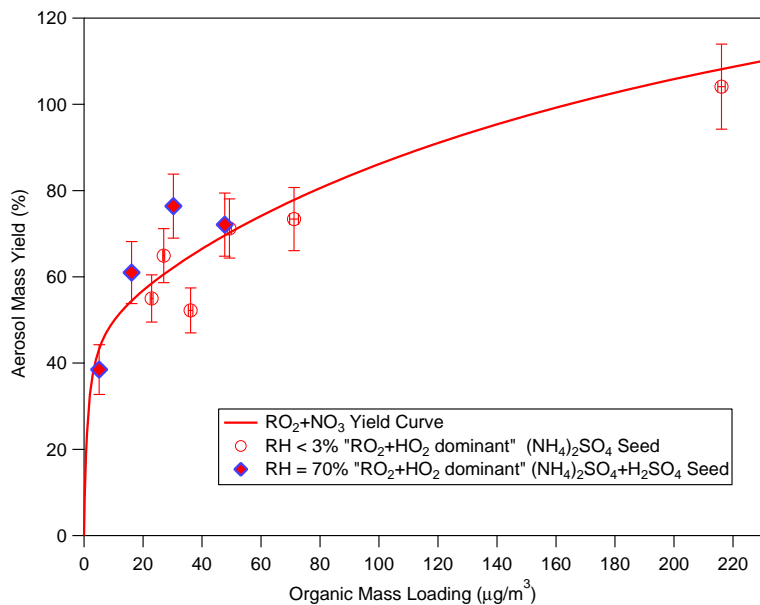


Figure 4. Aerosol mass yield as a function of organic mass loading for the β -pinene + NO_3 reaction under “ RO_2 + HO_2 dominant” conditions. These aerosol mass yields are compared to the yield curve (solid line) for the NO_3 + β -pinene under “ RO_2 + NO_3 dominant” conditions. The x axis error bars represent one standard deviation of volume measured by SMPS at peak growth. The y axis error bars represent uncertainty in yield calculated by an 8% uncertainty in chamber volume, 5% uncertainty in hydrocarbon injection, and one standard deviation of the aerosol volume measured by SMPS at peak growth.

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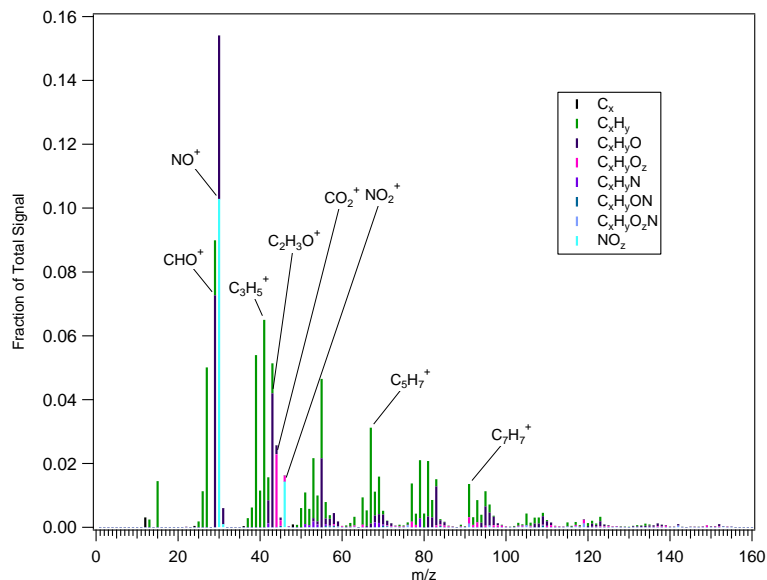


Figure 5. High-resolution aerosol mass spectrum of the SOA formed from the β -pinene + NO_3 reaction under dry, ammonium sulfate seed, and “ $\text{RO}_2 + \text{NO}_3$ dominant” conditions (Experiment 5 in Table 1). The mass spectrum is colored by the ion type to indicate the contribution of each ion type to the mass spectrum. Only ions up to m/z 160 are shown as the signals beyond m/z 160 are minimal. Ions that contribute significantly to the total signal are also labeled.

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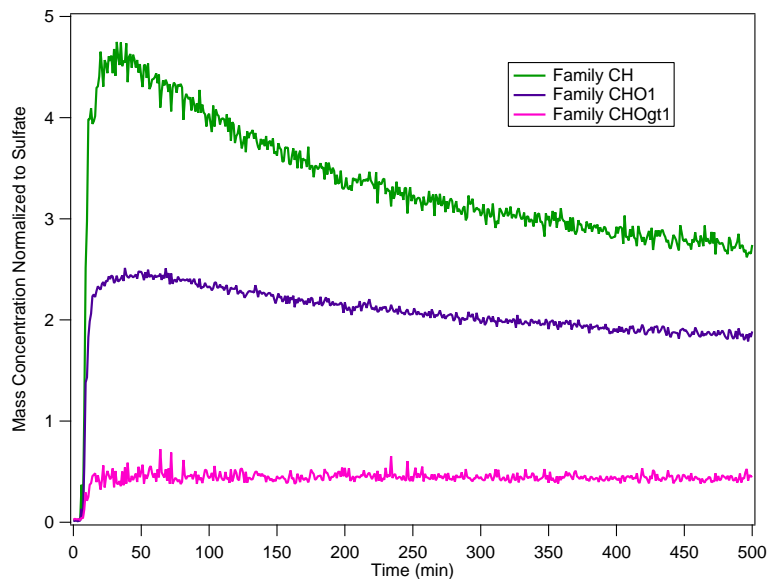


Figure 6. Time series of mass concentrations of the major organic families (normalized to the sulfate mass concentration) as measured by the HR-ToF-AMS at $\text{RH} < 2\%$ under “ $\text{RO}_2 + \text{NO}_3$ dominant” conditions (Experiment 5 in Table 1). The least oxidized organic species (i.e. Family CH) decreases rapidly at the start of the experiment, and has the largest decrease among the three major organic families.

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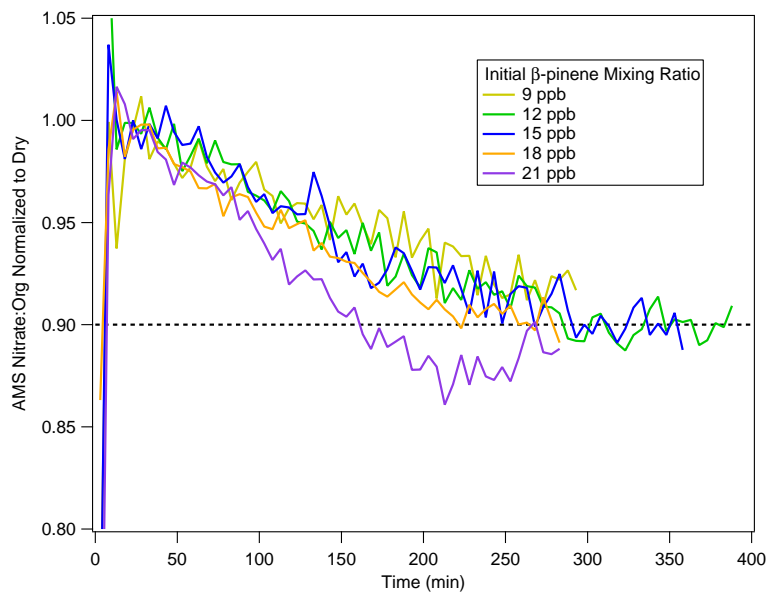


Figure 7. The AMS Nitrate:Org ratio of humid ($\text{RH} = 50\%$) experiments normalized to the corresponding dry experiments with same initial β -pinene mixing ratio, five-minute averaged. This ratio is referred to as $(\text{Nitrate} : \text{Org})_{\text{norm}}$ in the main text. For comparison purpose, all data are normalized to the highest $(\text{Nitrate} : \text{Org})_{\text{norm}}$ ratio.

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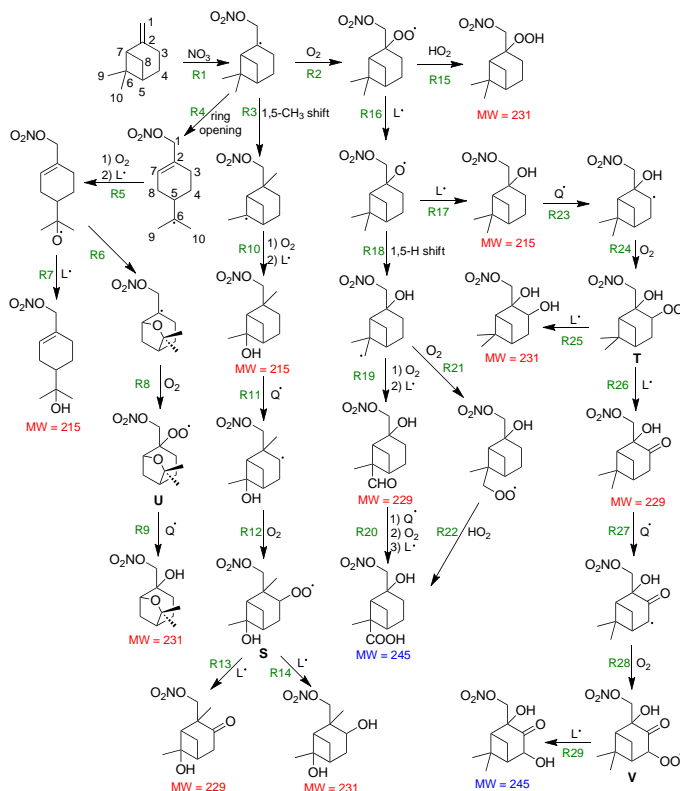


Figure 8. Generation of gas-phase species with molecular weights (MW) of 215, 229, and 231 amu detected by CIMS (red font), aerosol species with MW = 245 amu in filters analyzed by UHPLC-MS (blue font). Reaction numbers are given in green font and reaction with generic radical Q^\bullet (e.g. NO_3 , RO_2 , etc.) is used to symbolize any species abstracting hydrogen atoms. Reactions which can be accomplished by any of the radicals present (RO_2 , HO_2 , NO_3 etc.) are symbolized by reaction with generic radical L^\bullet .

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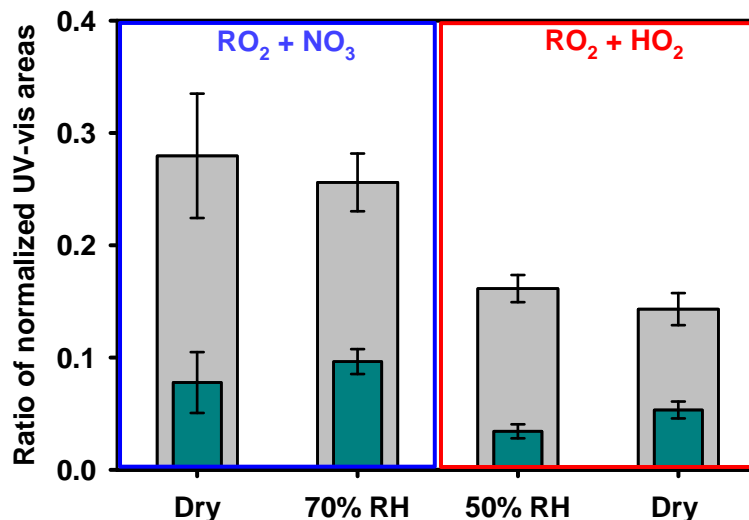


Figure 9. Ratio of the total areas integrated under UV-visible chromatograms collected at (gray bars) 235 nm and (teal bars) 270 nm relative to 205 nm for experiments dominated by (left-hand side panel) $\text{RO}_2 + \text{NO}_3$ reaction and (right-hand side panel) $\text{RO}_2 + \text{HO}_2$ reaction under both humid and dry conditions.

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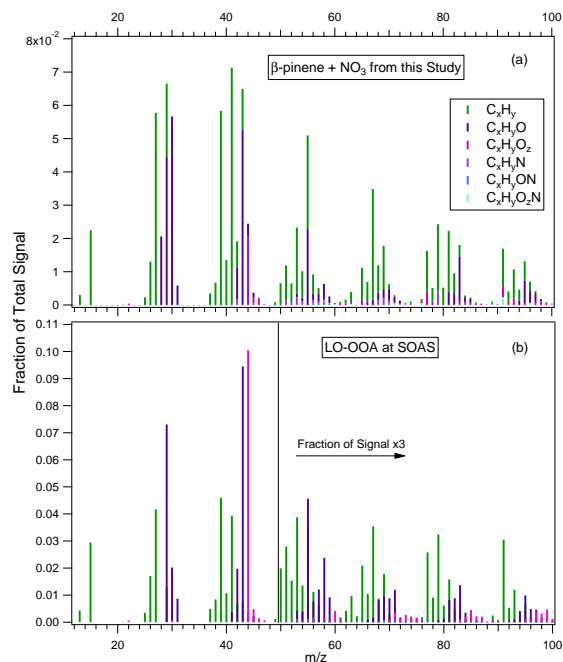


Figure 10. A comparison of mass spectra obtained from this work and the LO-OOA factor identified from PMF analysis of the HR-ToF-AMS data from the SOAS field campaign. **(a)** Mass spectrum of the SOA formed from the β -pinene + NO_3 reaction at RH = 70 % under “ RO_2 + HO_2 dominant” conditions and $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ + H_2SO_4 seed (Experiment 34 in Table 1). **(b)** Mass spectrum for the LO-OOA factor identified from PMF analysis of the SOAS HR-ToF-AMS data Xu et al. (2015). The mass spectra are colored by the ion type to indicate their contribution to the mass spectra. Ions C_5H_7^+ (m/z 67) and C_7H_7^+ (m/z 91) are distinctive for the β -pinene mass spectrum (Sect. 5 of main text). To facilitate comparison, $m/z > 50$ have been multiplied by a factor of 3 in the LO-OOA spectrum.