16683

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Towards closing the gap between hygroscopic growth and CCN activation for secondary organic aerosols – Part 3: Influence of the chemical composition on the hygroscopic properties and volatile fractions of aerosols

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ACPD

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Influence of chemical composition on SOA properties





Abstract

The influence of varying levels of water mixing ratio, *r*, during the formation of secondary organic aerosol (SOA) from the ozonolysis of α -pinene on the SOA hygroscopicity and volatility was investigated. The reaction proceeded and aerosols were generated in a mixing chamber and the hygroscopic characteristics of the SOA were determined with LACIS (Leipzig Aerosol Cloud Interaction Simulator) and a Cloud Condensation Nuclei counter (CCNc). In parallel, a High-Resolution Time-of-Flight Aerodyne Aerosol Mass Spectrometer (HR-ToF-AMS) located downstream of a thermodenuder (TD) sampling from the mixing chamber, to collect mass spectra of particles from the volatile and non-volatile fractions of the SOA. Results showed that both hygroscopic growth and the volatile fraction of the SOA increased with increases in *r* inside the mixing chamber during SOA generation. An effective density of 1.40 g cm⁻³ was observed for the generated SOA when the reaction proceeded with *r*>1 g kg⁻¹. Changes in the concentrations of the fragment CO₂⁺ and the sum of C_xH_yO₇⁻ (short

- ¹⁵ name CHO) and $C_x H_y^+$ (short name CH) fragments as measured by the HR-ToF-AMS were used to estimate changes in the oxidation level of the SOA with reaction conditions, using the ratios CO_2^+ to CH and CHO to CH. Under humid conditions, both ratios increased, corresponding to the presence of more oxygenated functional groups (i.e., carboxylic groups). This result is consistent with the α -pinene ozonolysis mechanisms which suggest that water interacts with the stabilized Criegee intermediate. The volatility and the hygroscopicity results show that SOA generation via ozonolysis of α -pinene in the presence of water vapour ($r < 16.884 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$) leads to the formation of more highly
 - oxygenated compounds that are more hygroscopic and more volatile than compounds formed under dry conditions.

ACPD

9, 16683–16714, 2009

Influence of chemical composition on SOA properties





1 Introduction

It is well established that atmospheric aerosols have an important impact on the atmosphere with respect to their direct and indirect effects on climate (IPCC, 2007). The ability of aerosol particles to serve as cloud condensation nuclei (CCN) can impact

- ⁵ cloud formation, cloud albedo and cloud lifetime (Albrecht, 1989; Petters et al., 2006; Twomey, 1977), potentially also modifying precipitation formation and intensity. The thermodynamic properties that determine the ability of particles to serve as CCN are directly related to their chemical composition. Thus, it is essential to simultaneously characterize aerosol thermodynamic properties and chemical composition. Recent im-
- provements in aerosol chemistry instrumentation enable measurements of chemical composition at similar time resolutions than those of instruments used to study aerosol physical properties (Sullivan and Prather, 2005). For example, the Aerodyne Aerosol Mass Spectrometer (AMS, Jayne et al., 2000) was recently used in parallel with H-TDMA (Hygroscopicity-Tandem Differential Mobility Analyser, Aklilu et al., 2006; Gysel
- et al., 2007; Shinozuka et al., 2009) and multiple-relative humidity (RH) DASH-SP (Differential Aerosol Sizing and Hygroscopicity-Spectrometer Probe, Hersey et al., 2008) to correlate the hygroscopic growth factor with the chemical composition of the observed aerosol.

Particles can be directly emitted to the atmosphere as primary aerosol or be formed
from condensation of gas-phase oxidation products of inorganic compounds or volatile organic compounds (VOCs); these VOCs are either of anthropogenic or biogenic origin. Monoterpernes such as *α*-pinene represent one important biogenic set of secondary organic aerosol precursors (SOA, Kanakidou et al., 2005), and for this reason many studies focused on the oxidation mechanisms and aerosol products formed from this
precursor (e.g. Berndt et al., 2003; Fick et al., 2003; Iinuma et al., 2004; Ma et al., 2008; Shilling et al., 2008; Yu et al., 2008; Meyer et al., 2009; Prenni et al., 2007; Saathoff et al., 2009; Varutbangkul et al., 2006).

ACPD

9, 16683–16714, 2009

Influence of chemical composition on SOA properties





One interesting aspect of SOA water uptake behaviour that has been observed is that the CCN activity of SOA particles is much larger than the result of extrapolation of hygroscopic growth factors obtained at 90% RH to supersaturated conditions (Prenni et al., 2007). Prenni et al. (2007) suggested several hypotheses to explain this type of be-

- ⁵ haviour but could not adequately constrain the proposed mechanisms because of measurements at RH>90% were not available during their study. We therefore designed a set of experiments that included hygroscopic growth measurements at RH>90%. The obtained data suggest that the unusually large CCN activity of SOA is only in part due to reduced surface tension of the aqueous solution at the point of activation (Wex et al.,
- 2009), as a strong increase in hygroscopicity was found for RH>98%. Further, Petters et al. (2009) suggest that the seeming disparity between hygroscopic growth and CCN activity is due to thermodynamic arguments related to the types of functional groups present in the likely SOA product molecules. Here, we investigate processes that affect the degree of oxygenation of the particulate-phase oxidation products, particularly the invest of the approximate of the app
- the impact of the presence of water vapour during SOA generation on the chemical composition, hygroscopicity and volatility of the aerosol.

2 Setup description

2.1 SOA Chamber

To generate the SOA, a stainless steel mixing chamber of 12 L was used. The main advantage of this setup is to generate a constant and reproducible SOA flow with fixed concentrations of reactants. A detailed description of the system setup is presented in Fig. 1 and a more complete description can be found in Wex et al. (2009). Hydrocarbon-free dry air (also denoted as zero air) entered the chamber with a flow rate of 6 Lpm resulting in an average residence time of 2 min in the mixing chamber.

²⁵ An excess of the organic precursor and controlled levels of ozone generated using a Teledyne Instrument ozone generator (Model 703) were continuously injected into the



chamber. During some experiments 2-butanol was added as an OH scavenger with a ratio of 2-butanol to *α*-pinene of 10:1. Finally, the concentration of water vapour inside the chamber was controlled by flowing the ozone containing air above a temperature controlled water bath. Absolute moisture content was determined by monitoring the dew point of the output flow of the mixing chamber with a chilled mirror dew point hygrometer. No seed particles were employed, thus the SOA was produced by homogeneous nucleation from the gas-phase and condensational growth on the newly formed particles. Hygroscopic properties, number size distributions, and chemical compositions of the SOA were measured using LACIS (Leipzig Aerosol Cloud Interaction Simulator, Wex et al., 2005), a CCN counter (Droplet Measurement Technologies, Boulder,

¹⁰ ulator, Wex et al., 2005), a CCN counter (Droplet Measurement Technologies, Boulder, Roberts and Nenes, 2005), a HH-TDMA (High Humidity-Tandem Differential Mobility Analyzer, Hennig et al., 2005), a DMPS (Differential Mobility Particle Sizer), and a TD-AMS (Thermodenuder-Aerosol Mass Spectrometer, where the AMS was a High Resolution Time of Flight AMS, HR-ToF-AMS) system. The SOA mass concentrations achieved at steady-state in the reactor were varied by adjusting the concentrations of ozone entering the reactor. A summary of the experimental conditions is presented in Table 1. Conversion of the dew point temperature to water vapour pressure (p_w)

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$$\ln(\rho_{W}) \approx 54.842763 - \frac{6763.22}{T} - 4.210 \ln(T) + 0.000367T$$
(1)
+tanh(0.0415×(T - 218.8))(53.878 - $\frac{1331.22}{T} - 9.44523 \ln(T) + 0.014025T)$

Then, results were expressed in water mixing ratio according to the following equation:

$$r = 0.622 \times \frac{\rho_w}{\rho - \rho_w} \tag{2}$$

where 0.622 is the ratio of the molecular weight of water to dry air, and p the atmospheric pressure.

16688

ACPD 9, 16683-16714, 2009 Influence of chemical composition on SOA properties L. Poulain et al. **Title Page** Introduction Abstract Conclusions References Tables **Figures** ►T. Back Close Full Screen / Esc **Printer-friendly Version** Interactive Discussion



2.2 SOA chemical composition and volatile/non-volatile characterization

Volatile and non-volatile fractions of the SOA were measured by a Thermodenuder-AMS (TD-AMS) coupled system that was directly connected to the outlet of the chamber. A description of this TD-AMS setup and its performance is given by Wu et
 ⁵ al. (2009). Compared with other techniques, such as the Volatility-Tandem Differential Mobility Analyzer (V-TDMA), the main advantage of this setup is that it provides simultaneously information about the full aerosol mass size distribution and chemical composition of the fraction remaining after transit through the TD. The TD used in this setup consists of two successive sections: a heating section where the temperature

- can be set up to 300°C followed by a cooling section set to room temperature. A detailed description of the TD is given by Wehner et al. (2002). In parallel, a stainless steel tube kept at room temperature was added as a bypass to the TD. Downstream of the TD and the bypass, the flow direction was controlled by two three-way valves. By changing the flow direction, the particles entering into the AMS could optionally be
- ¹⁵ denuded as show in Fig. 1. Room temperature data (i.e. TD was by-passed) were measured at the beginning of the experiment and during the stabilization time between two different temperature values set to the TD. For each TD temperature, SOA was sampled for 15 to 20 min at a time resolution of 1 min. Data were then averaged for each experimental condition.
- The AMS connected to the TD is an Aerodyne High Resolution-Time of Flight-Aerosol Mass Spectrometer (HR-ToF-AMS, here referred to simply as AMS, DeCarlo et al., 2006; Jayne et al., 2000; Jimenez et al., 2003). Briefly, the AMS consists of several sections: first, ambient air is sampled trough a critical orifice and enters into an aerodynamic lens system which focuses particles into a narrow beam. Then, the
- particle beam enters into the sizing chamber where the vacuum aerodynamic diameter is obtained by measuring the particle's time of flight. The particle beam into the sizing chamber is controlled by a chopper, which is a rotating wheel with 2 parallels slits. The chopper can either chop the particle beam to generate a size distribution (Particle

ACPD 9, 16683–16714, 2009 Influence of chemical composition on SOA properties L. Poulain et al. **Title Page** Introduction Abstract Conclusions References **Tables Figures** ►T. Back Close Full Screen / Esc **Printer-friendly Version** Interactive Discussion



Time of Flight mode or PToF-Mode) or alternatively let the entire particle beam pass, collecting mass spectra for all particles (MS-Mode) and thus measuring the chemical composition of the particles without size discrimination. After passing the sizing chamber, the particles are vaporized by impaction on a heated surface (600°C) and the vapors are ionized by an electron impact ionization source at 70 eV. Ions are then extracted into the time of flight chamber of the mass spectrometer for detection of the fragments.

2.3 Determination of the hygroscopic properties of the SOA

The hygroscopic growth factor was measured by using LACIS (Stratmann et al., 2004),
 which is a laminar flow tube equipped with an optical particle spectrometer at the outlet. Briefly, the water vapour saturation ratio inside the tube is determined by controlling the dew point of the entering air and the wall temperature of the LACIS tube. During our study, LACIS was operated in its sub-saturated mode allowing a relative humidity in the range 80 to 99.4% (Wex et al., 2005). The hygroscopic growth factor was obtained from the measured diameter at the LACIS outlet divided by the corresponding dry diameter measured by the DMPS.

The hygroscopic properties of the particles can be characterized using the single parameter framework with parameter κ defined by Petters and Kreidenweis (2007):

$$\kappa = (gf^3 - 1)(1 - a_w)a_w^{-1}$$

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- ²⁰ where *gf* is the growth factor and a_w is the water activity in the particles. The water activity in the particles is computed from the RH to which the particles were exposed, assuming the particles are in equilibrium with their environment (Petters and Kreidenweis, 2007). As κ was found to vary significantly with aerosol water content, we only use values for κ derived from hygroscopic growth factor measurements at RH=99%.
- ²⁵ A discussion of the hygroscopic properties of SOA produced during these experiments and of the variation of κ with the RH to which the particles were exposed in LACIS can be found in Wex et al. (2009) and Petters et al. (2009).



(3)

3 Results

3.1 Evolution of the physical properties of SOA generated in the presence of water vapour

3.1.1 Relation between κ and water vapour concentration during the reaction

- ⁵ We observed that the hygroscopic behaviour changed with the water vapour mixing ratio, *r* expressed as g water per kg dry air, in the reaction chamber during SOA generation (Table 1). The relationship between *κ* and *r* is shown in Fig. 2: *κ* increases linearly with increasing mixing ratio. Since the temperature in the reaction chamber was nearly constant, a similar relationship existed between *κ* and *r*, indicating that the SOA was more hygroscopic when the reaction proceeded under humid conditions. Vesna et al. (2008) investigated the modification of the hygroscopic properties of fatty acids in the condensed phase following ozonolysis at different relative humidities in a flow reactor. Their results for the polyunsaturated arachidonic acid showed an increase of the growth factor when the heterogeneous reaction of condensed-phase products with
 15 ozone proceeded in the presence of water vapour, similar to our observations for SOA
- products formed in the gas-phase from ozonolysis of α -pinene.

3.1.2 Effective density of the SOA

In parallel to the AMS measurements, particles were also sized by a DMPS system. The effective density (ρ_{eff}) of the SOA is estimated by combing AMS and DMPS measurements, assuming spherical SOA particles according to the work of Zelenyuk et al. (2008). The relationship between the vacuum aerodynamic diameter D_{va} (obtained from AMS measurements) and the mobility diameter D_m (derived from DMPS measurements) can be computed from DeCarlo et al. (2004):

 $\rho_{\rm eff} = \frac{D_{va}}{D_m} \rho_0$

ACPD						
9, 16683–16714, 2009						
Influence of chemical composition on SOA properties						
L. Poulain et al.						
Title	Page					
Abstract	Introduction					
Conclusions	References					
Tables	Tables Figures					
I	▶1					
•	•					
Back	Close					
Full Scre	een / Esc					
Printer-frier	ndly Version					
Interactive Discussion						

(4)

where ρ_0 is corresponding to the unit density (1 g cm^{-3}) . The effective densities found for the different experiments are given in Table 1. In the presence of water vapour $(r>0.1 \text{ g kg}^{-1})$, effective densities were ~1.40 g cm⁻³. This implies that the effective density, for the range over which reaction parameters were varied, was independent of the ozone concentration and *r*. However, when SOA generation occurred under dry conditions $(r\sim0.1 \text{ g kg}^{-1})$, an effective density of 1.55 g cm⁻³ was found. These values are within the range of α -pinene densities (1.19 to 1.65 g cm⁻³) reported by Koustenidou et al. (2007); Saathoff et al. (2009) and Shilling et al. (2008). The differences in effective density observed in our experiments under dry and wet conditions were ~10%, close to the uncertainty of the method (Bahreini et al., 2005). Thus, we cannot definitively conclude that the effective densities varied between the two generation conditions.

3.1.3 Dependence of SOA volatility on water vapour mixing ratios

Using the TD-AMS measurements, the volatile fraction of the SOA was characterized ¹⁵ by the mass fraction remaining (MFR), which is defined as the ratio between the particle mass concentration measured at the given temperature to the particle mass concentration at room temperature. The resulting thermograms show similar profiles and a representative example from experiment 7 is presented in Fig. 3. The MFR rapidly decreases with increasing temperature in the TD and approaches zero at ~200°C. At 100°C, MFR represents 35% of the total aerosol mass. So far, only a few studies were focused on the volatility of α -pinene SOA produced in chamber experiments (e.g. Baltensperger et al., 2005; Jonsson et al., 2007; Meyer et al., 2009; Stanier et al., 2007). Baltensperger et al. (2005) obtained thermograms similar to ours after 10 h of α -pinene photolysis. Nevertheless, comparison of the MFR between different experiments is difficult due to the important and influencing permeter of residence time

²⁵ periments is difficult due to the important and influencing parameter of residence time inside the heated part of the instrument (An et al., 2007).

In the following analysis, we will use the MFR at 100°C to examine the relation be-

ACPD

9, 16683–16714, 2009

Influence of chemical composition on SOA properties





tween the aerosol volatility and the chemical composition in relation to r. This temperature was chosen because it represents a reasonable compromise; it is hot enough so that a significant fraction of the SOA is evaporated but the non-volatile fraction remains large enough to obtain accurate AMS measurements. The relation between the MFR

- ⁵ at 100°C and the κ values of the corresponding experiment is presented in Fig. 4. We clearly observed that the MFR at 100°C decreased when κ increased, and the MFR approached a constant value at the highest κ observed. Meyer et al. (2009) demonstrated that the more hygroscopic compounds of the SOA generated from α -pinene photolysis were found in the more volatile fraction of the SOA, as observed from mea-
- ¹⁰ surements of the hygroscopic properties of the SOA using a VH-TDMA system (Volatility Hygroscopicity-Tandem Differential Mobility Analyzer). Jonsson et al. (2007), using VT-DMA measurements of α -pinene ozonolysis SOA, also observed that SOA generated in the presence of water vapour was more volatile than that generated in dry conditions. The authors noted that the most likely explanation of the modification of
- ¹⁵ the SOA physico-chemical properties was a change in the chemical composition of the SOA, induced by slightly differing oxidation mechanisms between dry and humidified conditions. In this study, the simultaneous increase of κ and the volatile fraction of the SOA with *r* in the chamber also suggest that the volatile fraction is more hygroscopic than the non-volatile fraction.

20 3.2 Volatility and chemical composition

3.2.1 Impact of water vapour on SOA composition at room temperature and 100°C

Our results presented above suggest that the presence of water vapour during the ozonolysis of α -pinene induces modifications of the SOA physico-chemical properties,

i.e. particle hygroscopicity and volatility, which are likely to be linked to changes in composition. To gain insight into the changes in the SOA chemical composition with varying water vapour concentrations during SOA generation, two different approaches

ACPD							
9, 16683–16714, 2009							
Influence of chemical composition on SOA properties L. Poulain et al.							
Title Page							
Abstract	Abstract Introduction						
Conclusions	Conclusions References						
Tables	Tables Figures						
14	۶I						
•	•						
Back	Close						
Full Screen / Esc							
Printer-friendly Version							
Interactive Discussion							



were used. First, we compared the contribution of the fragment m/z 44 to the total organic signal for each experiment. The mass m/z 44 is mostly corresponding to the fragment CO_2^+ coming from mono- and polycarboxylic acids, according to Takegawa et al. (2007), who determined the contribution of dicarboxylic and ω -oxocarboxylic acids

- to m/z 44 using field data and laboratory investigations. In our measurements, fragment m/z 44 has a linear relationship with the total mass loading in the presence and absence of water vapour in the chamber (not shown). For this reason the concentration of m/z 44 was normalized to the total organic mass loading to consider only the impact of *r*.
- ¹⁰ However, the relative contributions of m/z 44 to total organic in wet and dry conditions differ (Fig. 5). Under wet conditions, the contribution of m/z 44 to total organic is always higher than ratio obtained in dry conditions and this ratio is approximately independent of the aerosol mass loading. This suggests that SOA are more acidic when the reaction proceeds under humid conditions. The ratio of normalized m/z 44 in wet conditions to normalized m/z 44 in dry condition is w1 15 for all mass loading which represent impact
- ¹⁵ normalized *m*/*z* 44 in dry condition is ~1.15 for all mass loading which represent impact of the water vapour on the α -pinene ozonolysis mechanisms. At low mass loadings (<~10–20 μ g m⁻³), the ratio *m*/*z* 44 to total organic decreases for both humid and dry reaction conditions. This is consistent with the findings of King et al. (2009) who show that mass loading effects on κ only occur at low mass concentrations. The remaining ²⁰ question is then how κ and ratio *m*/*z* 44 to total organic aerosol are related and this will be discussed further below.

Figure 6 shows that the contribution of m/z 44 to the total organic signal was found to be around 9–10% in the presence of water vapour, which is in the same range as obtained by Alfarra et al. (2006) and Duplissy et al. (2008) during photo-oxidation of α -pinene, but was lower for the SOA generated under dry conditions. Figure 7 (left

panel) shows that the contribution of m/z 44 to total organic species increased as κ increased between dry and wet-generation conditions, but further increases in κ were not strongly associated with increases in this ratio.

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We also considered the ratios of the observed mass concentrations of the $C_x H_y O_z^+$

ACPD 9, 16683-16714, 2009 Influence of chemical composition on SOA properties L. Poulain et al. **Title Page** Introduction Abstract Conclusions References **Figures** Back Full Screen / Esc **Printer-friendly Version** Interactive Discussion



family to the $C_xH_y^+$ family and CO_2^+ to the $C_xH_y^+$ family, to estimate the oxidation level of the SOA. The mass concentrations of the $C_xH_yO_z^+$ and $C_xH_y^+$ families were obtained by summing the signal intensities of all the corresponding ions present in the mass spectra. If the CO_2^+ fragment is specific to acid functional groups, $C_xH_yO_z^+$ may be used to identify the contributions of other oxygenated groups, such as aldehydes and alcohols, and $C_xH_y^+$ may be assumed to represent contributions from aliphatic groups. In the following, for simplification, we use the notation CHO and CH for $C_xH_yO_z^+$ and $C_xH_y^+$, respectively. Using a similar approach as described above for *m*/*z* 44, the ratios CO_2^+/CH and CHO/CH are plotted as a function of the observed κ values in Fig. 6 (middle and right panels, respectively). The hygroscopic parameter, κ varied more

¹⁰ (middle and right panels, respectively). The hygroscopic parameter, κ varied more strongly with increases in the ratio CO₂⁺/CH than with increases in the ratio CHO/CH.

In Fig. 8, we present data from experiment 10, in which SOA generation occurred at constant α -pinene and ozone concentrations but using different *r* in the chamber. The two ratios CHO/CH and CO₂⁺/CH slightly increased with increasing water mixing ratio

- ¹⁵ during generation, with slopes of (3.32 ± 0.14) 10^{-5} and (4.12 ± 0.31) 10^{-6} , respectively. This finding suggests that the oxidation level of the SOA increased as the water vapour mixing ratio increased, and may be interpreted as increase in oxygenated functional groups relative to the total number of carbon molecules in the SOA. Vesna et al. (2008) used the ratio of carboxylic acid protons to aliphatic protons obtained by ¹H-NMR anal-
- ysis to characterise the oxidation level of the products of ozonolysis of arachidonic acid in the condensed phase. This ratio increased with the relative humidity, up to double the initial value. Although the chemical systems and analysis methods differed between our study and theirs, the role of water in modifying the oxidation products seems to be similar in both.
- Figure 8 also shows the ratios obtained after passing the SOA through the TD operated at 100°C. The ratio CO_2^+/CH in the MFR still increased with increasing *r* with a slope of $(5.31\pm0.12)\times10^{-6}$, similar to the slope observed at room temperature. However, while the overall slope of the *r*-CO₂⁺/CH relationship is similar at room temperature



and 100°C, the shape is not. For $r < 8 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$, CO_2^+/CH is approximately constant. Only for $r > 16 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$ the CO_2^+/CH increases. The main difference between the MFR_{100°C} and room temperature SOA is the fraction of CO_2^+ fragments, which decreases by ~20% for the MFR_{100°C} samples. Because this ratio is approximately independent of r, we conclude that any additional polycarboxylic acid compounds produced in the experiments conducted in the presence of higher water vapour mixing ratios were not evaporated at

100°C, and contributed to the MFR at this temperature.

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The ratio CHO/CH in the MFR from the heated samples varied with *r* with a slope of $(1.80\pm0.43)\times10^{-5}$, which is about half of the value obtained for the ambient-T samples.

- ¹⁰ In this case, additional SOA products found in this fraction that formed in the presence of water vapour were evaporated when the SOA was heated up to 100°C. Thus, in contrast to observations for the ratio CO_2^+/CH , the CHO fragments seemed to become more volatile with increasing water vapour mixing ratio. The results presented in Fig. 8 suggest that the observed overall increasing volatility of the SOA with increases in *r*
- (Fig. 4) was mainly due to CHO groups, while polycarboxylic acids contributed instead to the non-volatile fraction. Our results are consistent with the observation that, for constant carbon chain length, the addition of a carboxylic group lowers the vapour pressure by several orders of magnitudes while the addition of a hydroxyl or carbonyl group has less effect on volatility (Chattopadhyay and Ziemann, 2005).

²⁰ 3.2.2 Correspondence with proposed α -pinene ozonolysis mechanisms

Although the AMS is not able to provide a complete molecular chemical composition of the SOA, our results can be integrated with the most recently postulated α -pinene ozonolysis mechanisms. So far, only a few studies addressed the impact of relative humidity on ozonolysis mechanisms (e.g., Berndt et al., 2003; Cocker et al., 2001; Docherty et al., 2005; Fick et al., 2003; Jonsson et al., 2008; Ma et al., 2008; Pommer et al., 2004; Jonsson et al., 2006; Warscheid and Hoffmann, 2001). The modification of the ozonolysis mechanisms in the presence of water vapour remains unclear,

ACPD 9, 16683-16714, 2009 Influence of chemical composition on SOA properties L. Poulain et al. **Title Page** Introduction Abstract Conclusions References **Figures** Back Full Screen / Esc **Printer-friendly Version** Interactive Discussion



and results available in the literature are somewhat contradictory. For example, Ma et al. (2008) observed that pinonic acid and pinonaldehyde formation strongly depended on the relative humidity. Their results are in agreement with those reported by Fick et al. (2003), and with the increase of the pinonaldehyde molecular yield observed by

- ⁵ Warscheid and Hoffmann (2001). However, they are in contradiction with the results of Berndt et al. (2003), who observed a slightly lower gaseous pinonaldehyde yield in the presence of more water vapour. Different experimental conditions were used in these studies (initial concentration of reactants, relative humidity, presence and nature of the OH-scavenger), complicating the comparison. Nevertheless, it is commonly accepted that water vapour may interact with the stabilized Criegee intermediate, leading to a
- that water vapour may interact with the stabilized Criegee modification of the yield of the different oxidation pathways.

The recent α -pinene ozonolysis mechanism suggested by Ma et al. (2008) predicts the formation of two stabilized Criegee Intermediates (CI) in equal proportions. In the presence of water molecules, the first CI leads to the formation of pinonaldehyde and

- pinonic acid, and the second CI leads to the formation of only pinonaldehyde, as illustrated in Fig. 9. We suggest that these two compounds both contribute to the family CHO, but only pinonic acid contributes to the family CO₂⁺. Moreover, a comparison of the vapour pressures of these two reaction products demonstrates that pinonaldehyde is more volatile than pinonic acid (Capouet and Müller, 2006), which may be an ex-
- ²⁰ planation for the difference in volatility observed for the ratios CHO/CH and CO₂⁺/CH. Nevertheless, more detailed investigations are needed on this subject to confirm the products formed in the varying conditions and how they contribute to both hygroscopicity and volatility.

4 Conclusions

The properties of SOA produced in a continuous flow reaction chamber from α -pinene dark ozonolysis were studied for varying levels of water vapour mixing ratio during the reaction and aerosol formation. Modifications of the hygroscopic properties, volatility,





and chemical compositions of total SOA as well as of the non-volatile fractions were observed. The parameter κ , expressing the hygroscopic properties of the SOA, depended on water vapour concentrations inside the chamber during SOA generation. In contrast, the effective density of the SOA was found to be independent of ozone concentration and of the different values of *r*. Thermodenuder measurements showed that SOA evaporated completely at temperatures slightly below 200°C. Approximately 65% of the SOA mass concentration was evaporated at 100%C. The volatile fraction at

- 65% of the SOA mass concentration was evaporated at 100°C. The volatile fraction at 100°C of the SOA increased with increasing water vapour mixing ratio in the mixing chamber.
- ¹⁰ The oxidation level of the SOA was described using three parameters; the ratios m/z 44/total organic, CHO/CH and CO₂⁺/CH. All three parameters showed some trend with the hygroscopicity of the particles, which in turn was driven by changes in water vapour concentration during the reaction and corresponding increases in oxygenated compounds. The values of these ratios after heating the sample to 100°C showed that
- the most oxygenated compounds (CO₂⁺) were more volatile at 100°C than were the less oxygenated ones (CHO). The formation of more oxygenated compounds in the presence of water vapour is in agreement with current understanding of the interaction of water with the stabilized Criegee intermediate, leading to the formation of more pinonaldehyde (CHO) and pinonic acid (CHO and CO₂⁺). Furthermore, comparison of their vapour pressures showed that pinonic acid is less volatile than pinonaldehyde in
- their vapour pressures showed that pinonic acid is less volatile than pinonaldehyde in support of the observed volatility differences between the fragments (CHO and CO_2^+).

The ozonolysis of α -pinene in the presence of water vapour leads to the formation of highly oxygenated compounds that are more hygroscopic and more volatile than compounds formed under dry conditions. Our results also demonstrated that the more

²⁵ volatile part of the SOA corresponded to the more hygroscopic fraction, which is in agreement with the findings of Meyer et al. (2009) but also with conclusions of Asa-Awuku et al. (2009) on β -caryophyllene SOA. Modification of the volatility and hygroscopicity may also contribute to modifications in the yield of SOA and to the ability of the SOA particles to serve as CCN in the atmosphere. However, further studies will





be needed to improve the mechanistic understanding of the modification of the physical properties and chemical composition of SOA generated under varying humidity conditions.

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ACPD

9, 16683–16714, 2009

Influence of chemical composition on SOA properties

Title Page				
Abstract	Introduction			
Conclusions	References			
Tables	Figures			
•	•			
Back	Close			
	0.000			
Full Scre	en / Esc			
Full Scre	en / Esc			
Full Scre Printer-frien	en / Esc dly Version			
Full Scre Printer-frien Interactive	en / Esc dly Version Discussion			



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9, 16683–16714, 2009

Influence of chemical composition on SOA properties

Title Page					
Abstract	Introduction				
Conclusions	References				
Tables	Figures				
14	►I				
Back	Close				
Full Screen / Esc					
Printer-friendly Version					
Interactive Discussion					



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ACPD					
9, 16683–16714, 2009					
Influence of chemical composition on SOA properties L. Poulain et al.					
Title	Page				
Abstract	Abstract Introduction				
Conclusions References					
Tables Figures					
I4 FI					
•	•				
Back	Close				
Full Screen / Esc					
Printer-friendly Version					
Interactive Discussion					



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Influence of chemical composition on SOA properties

Title Page				
Abstract	Introduction			
Conclusions	References			
Tables	Figures			
14				
•	•			
Back	Close			
Full Screen / Esc				
Printer-friendly Version				
Interactive Discussion				



ACPD

9, 16683–16714, 2009

Influence of chemical composition on SOA properties

Title Page				
Abstract	Introduction			
Conclusions	References			
Tables	Figures			
•	•			
Back	Close			
Full Screen / Esc				
Printer-friendly Version				
Interactive Discussion				



Experiment	Reaction	Ozone	OH-	Dew	water mixing	Effective
number	conditions	(ppbv)	scavenger	point (K)	ratio (g kg $^{-1}$)	density ($\rho_{\rm eff}$)
7	O ₃	927	Yes	233	0.118	1.55
9-a	$O_3 + H_2O$	2568	Yes	290.5	12.684	1.42
9-b	$O_3 + H_2 O$	2000	Yes	290.5	12.684	1.40
10-a	$O_3 + H_2 O$	2534	Yes	268.4	2.717	1.40
10-b	$O_3 + H_2 O$	2534	Yes	276.5	4.922	1.40
10-c	$O_3 + H_2 O$	2534	Yes	282.5	7.469	1.40
10-d	$O_3 + H_2 O$	2534	Yes	295	16.884	1.40



Fig. 1. Schematic of experimental setup for the measurements (Wex et al., 2009).

ACPD

9, 16683–16714, 2009

Influence of chemical composition on SOA properties







Fig. 2. Relationship between kappa (κ) and water vapour mixing ratio (r) inside the reaction chamber, for all experimental conditions tested (Table 1).



Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion

ACPD

9, 16683-16714, 2009



Fig. 3. Thermogram of the SOA formed under dry conditions (experiment number 7).



Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



Fig. 4. The variation of MFR at 100°C with the hygroscopic properties of the SOA (numbers refer to the experiments listed in Table 1).

Printer-friendly Version

Full Screen / Esc

Interactive Discussion









9, 16683-16714, 2009

Influence of chemical composition on SOA properties





Fig. 6. Variation of the ratio m/z 44 to total organic signal with water vapour mixing ratio (r) in the reaction chamber (numbers refer to the experiments listed in Table 1).



Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion

Close

Back



Fig. 7. Dependence of chemical composition tracers (contribution of m/z 44 to total organic signal in left panel, ratio CO_2^+/CH in middle panel and ratio CHO/CH in right panel) on hygroscopic parameter κ (numbers refer to the experiments listed in Table 1).

ACPD

9, 16683–16714, 2009

Influence of chemical composition on SOA properties





ACPD

9, 16683–16714, 2009

Influence of chemical composition on SOA properties







Fig. 8. Variation of the ratios CHO/CH and CO_2^+/CH with the water vapour mixing ratio (*r*) in experiment 10, before and after passing the SOA through the TD operated at 100°C.



Fig. 9. Partial mechanism for α -pinene ozonolysis in the presence of water vapour, from Ma et al. (2008).

ACPD

9, 16683–16714, 2009

Influence of chemical composition on SOA properties



