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Assessing the impact of anthropogenic pollution on isoprene-derived secondary organic aerosol formation in $PM_{2.5}$ collected from the Birmingham, Alabama ground site during the 2013 Southern Oxidant and Aerosol Study

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Abstract

In the southeastern U.S., substantial emissions of isoprene from deciduous trees undergo atmospheric oxidation to form secondary organic aerosol (SOA) that contributes to fine particulate matter ($PM_{2.5}$). Laboratory studies have revealed that anthropogenic pollutants, such as sulfur dioxide (SO_2), oxides of nitrogen (NO_x), and aerosol acidity, can enhance SOA formation from the hydroxyl radical (OH)-initiated oxidation of isoprene; however, the mechanisms by which specific pollutants enhance isoprene SOA in ambient $PM_{2.5}$ remain unclear. As one aspect of an investigation to examine how anthropogenic pollutants influence isoprene-derived SOA formation, high-volume $PM_{2.5}$ filter samples were collected at the Birmingham, Alabama (BHM) ground site during the 2013 Southern Oxidant and Aerosol Study (SOAS). Sample extracts were analyzed by gas chromatography/electron ionization-mass spectrometry (GC/EI-MS) with prior trimethylsilylation and ultra performance liquid chromatography coupled to an electrospray ionization high-resolution quadrupole time-of-flight mass spectrometry (UPLC/ESI-HR-QTOFMS) to identify known isoprene SOA tracers. Tracers quantified using both surrogate and authentic standards were compared with collocated gas- and particle-phase data as well as meteorological data provided by the Southeastern Aerosol Research and Characterization (SEARCH) network to assess the impact of anthropogenic pollution on isoprene-derived SOA formation. Results of this study reveal that isoprene-derived SOA tracers contribute a substantial mass fraction of organic matter (OM) (~7 to ~20%). Isoprene-derived SOA tracers correlated with sulfate (SO_4^{2-}) ($r^2 = 0.34$, n = 117), but not with NO_x. Moderate correlation between methacrylic acid epoxide and hydroxymethyl-methyl-α-lactone (MAE/HMML)-derived SOA tracers and nitrate radical production ($P[NO_3]$) ($r^2 = 0.57$, n = 40) were observed during nighttime, suggesting a potential role of NO_3 radical in forming this SOA type. However, the nighttime correlation of

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these tracers with nitrogen dioxide (NO_2) ($r^2 = 0.26$, n = 40) was weaker. Ozone (O_3) correlated strongly with MAE/HMML-derived tracers ($r^2 = 0.72$, n = 30) and moderately with 2-methyltetrols ($r^2 = 0.34$, n = 15) during daytime only, suggesting that a fraction of SOA formation could occur from isoprene ozonolysis in urban areas. No correlation was observed between aerosol pH and isoprene-derived SOA. Lack of correlation between aerosol acidity and isoprene-derived SOA indicates that acidity is not a limiting factor for isoprene SOA formation at the BHM site as aerosols were acidic enough to promote multiphase chemistry of isoprene-derived epoxides throughout the duration of the study. All in all, these results confirm the reports that anthropogenic pollutants enhance isoprene-derived SOA formation.

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1. Introduction

Fine particulate matter, suspensions of liquid or solid aerosol in a gaseous medium that are less than or equal to 2.5 μm in diameter ($PM_{2.5}$), play a key role in physical and chemical atmospheric processes. They influence climate patterns both directly, through the absorption and scattering of solar and terrestrial radiation, and indirectly, through cloud formation (Kanakidou et al., 2005). In addition to climatic effects, $PM_{2.5}$ has been demonstrated to pose a potential human health risk through inhalation exposure (Pope and Dockery, 2006; Hallquist et al., 2009). Despite the strong association of $PM_{2.5}$ with climate change and environmental health, there remains a need to more fully resolve its composition, sources, and chemical formation processes in order to develop effective control strategies to address potential hazards in a cost-effective manner (Hallquist et al., 2009; Boucher et al., 2013; Nozière et al., 2015).

Atmospheric $PM_{2.5}$ are comprised in a large part (up to 90% by mass in some locations), of organic matter (OM) (Carlton et al., 2009; Hallquist et al., 2009). OM can be derived from many sources. Primary organic aerosol (POA) is emitted from both natural (e.g., fungal spores, vegetation, vegetative detritus) and anthropogenic sources (fossil fuel and biomass burning) prior to atmospheric processing. As a result of large anthropogenic sources, POA is abundant largely in urban areas. Processes such as biomass burning and combustion also yield volatile organic compounds (VOCs), which have high vapor pressures and can undergo atmospheric oxidation to form secondary organic aerosol (SOA) through gas-to-particle phase partitioning (condensation or nucleation) with subsequent particle-phase (multiphase) chemical reactions (Grieshop et al., 2009).

At around 600 Tg emitted per year into the atmosphere, isoprene (2-methyl-1,3-butadiene, C_5H_8) is the most abundant volatile non-methane hydrocarbon (Guenther et al., 2012). The

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abundance of isoprene is particularly high in the southeastern U.S. due to emissions from broadleaf deciduous tree species (Guenther et al., 2006). Research over the last decade has revealed that isoprene, via hydroxyl radical (OH)-initiated oxidation, is a major source of SOA (Claeys et al., 2004; Edney et al., 2005; Kroll et al., 2005 ; Kroll et al., 2006; Surratt et al., 2006; Lin et al., 2012; Lin et al., 2013a). In addition, it is known that SOA formation is enhanced by anthropogenic emissions, namely oxides of nitrogen (NO_x) and sulfur dioxide (SO_2), that are a source of acidic aerosol onto which photochemical oxidation products of isoprene are reactively taken up to yield a variety of SOA products (Edney et al., 2005; Kroll et al., 2006; Surratt et al., 2006; Surratt et al., 2007b; Surratt et al., 2010; Lin et al., 2013b;) .

Recent work has begun to elucidate some of the critical intermediates of isoprene oxidation that lead to SOA formation through acid-catalyzed heterogeneous chemistry (Kroll et al., 2005; Surratt et al., 2006). Under low-NO_x conditions, such as in a pristine environment, isomeric isoprene epoxydiols (IEPOX) have been demonstrated to be critical to the formation of isoprene SOA. On advection of IEPOX to an urban environment and mixing with anthropogenic emissions of acidic sulfate aerosol, SOA formation is enhanced (Surratt et al., 2006; Lin et al., 2012; Lin et al., 2013b). This pathway has been shown to yield 2-methyltetrols as major SOA constituents of ambient $PM_{2.5}$ (Claeys et al, 2004; Surratt et al., 2010; Lin et al., 2012). Further work has revealed a number of additional IEPOX-derived SOA tracers, including C_5-alkene triols (Wang et al., 2005; Lin et al., 2012), *cis*- and *trans*-3-methyltetrahydrofuran-3,4-diols (3-MeTHF-3,4-diols) (Lin et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2012), IEPOX-derived organosulfates (OSs) (Lin et al., 2012), and IEPOX-derived oligomers (Lin et al., 2014). Some of the IEPOX-derived oligomers have been shown to contribute to aerosol components known as brown carbon that absorb light in the near ultraviolet (UV) and visible ranges (Lin et al., 2014). Under high-NO_x conditions, such as encountered in an

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urban environment, isoprene is oxidized to methacrolein and SOA formation occurs via the further oxidation of methacrolein (MACR) (Kroll et al., 2006; Surratt et al., 2006) to methacryloyl peroxynitrate (MPAN) (Chan et al., 2010; Surratt et al., 2010; Nguyen et al., 2015). It has recently been shown that when MPAN is oxidized by OH it yields at least two SOA precursors, methacrylic acid epoxide (MAE) and hydroxymethyl-methyl-α-lactone (HMML) (Surratt et al., 2006; Surratt et al., 2010; Lin et al., 2013a; Nguyen et al., 2015). Whether SOA precursors are formed under high- or low-NO_x conditions, aerosol acidity is a critical parameter that enhances the reaction kinetics through acid-catalyzed reactive uptake and multiphase chemistry of either IEPOX or MAE/HMML (Surratt et al., 2007b; Surratt et al., 2010; Lin et al., 2013b).

Due to the considerable emissions of isoprene, an SOA yield of even 1% would contribute significantly to ambient SOA (Carlton et al., 2009; Henze et al., 2009). This conclusion is supported by measurements showing that up to a third of total fine OA mass can be attributed to IEPOX-derived SOA tracers in Atlanta, GA (JST) during summer months (Budisulistiorini et al., 2013; Budisulistiorini et al., 2015). A recent study in Yorkville, GA (YRK), similarly found that IEPOX-derived SOA tracers comprised 12-19% of the fine OA mass (Lin et al., 2013b). Another SOAS site at Centreville, Alabama (CTR) revealed IEPOX-SOA contributed 18% of total OA mass (Xu et al., 2015). The individual ground sites corroborate recent aircraft-based measurements made in the Studies of Emissions and Atmospheric Composition, Clouds, and Climate Coupling by Regional Surveys (SEAC4RS) aircraft campaign, which estimates an IEPOX-SOA contribution of 32% to OA mass in the southeastern U.S. (Hu et al., 2015).

It is clear from the field studies discussed above that particle-phase chemistry of isoprene-derived oxidation products plays a large role in atmospheric SOA formation. However, much remains unknown regarding the exact nature of its formation, limiting the ability of models to

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125 accurately account for isoprene SOA (Carlton et al., 2010b; Foley et al., 2010). Currently,
126 traditional air quality models in the southeastern U.S. do not incorporate detailed particle-phase
127 chemistry of isoprene oxidation products (IEPOX or MAE/HMML) and generally under-predict
128 isoprene SOA formation (Carlton et al., 2010a). Recent work demonstrates that incorporating the
129 specific chemistry of isoprene epoxide precursors into models increases the accuracy of isoprene
130 SOA prediction (Pye et al., 2013; Karambelas et al., 2014), suggesting that understanding the
131 formation mechanisms of biogenic SOA, especially with regard to the effects of anthropogenic
132 emissions, such as NO_x and SO_2, will be key to more accurate models. More accurate models are
133 needed in order to devise cost-effective control strategies for reducing $PM_{2.5}$ levels. Since isoprene
134 is primarily biogenic in origin, and therefore not controllable, the key to understanding the public
135 health and environmental implications of isoprene SOA lies in resolving the effects of
136 anthropogenic pollutants.

137 This study presents results from the 2013 Southeastern Oxidant and Aerosol Study
138 (SOAS), where several well-instrumented ground sites dispersed throughout the southeastern U.S.
139 made intensive gas- and particle-phase measurements from June 1 – July 16, 2013. The primary
140 purpose of this campaign was to examine, in greater detail, the formation mechanisms,
141 composition, and properties of biogenic SOA, including the effects of anthropogenic emissions.
142 This study pertains specifically to the results from the BHM ground site, where the city's ample
143 urban emissions mix with biogenic emissions from the surrounding rural areas, creating an ideal
144 location to investigate such interactions. The results presented here focus on analysis of $PM_{2.5}$
145 collected on filters during the campaign by gas chromatography interfaced to electron ionization-
146 mass spectrometry (GC/EI-MS) and ultra performance liquid chromatography interfaced with
147 electrospray ionization high-resolution quadrupole time-of-flight mass spectrometry (UPLC/ESI-

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148 HR-QTOFMS). The analysis of $PM_{2.5}$ was conducted in order to measure quantities of known
149 isoprene SOA tracers and using collocated air quality and meteorological measurements to
150 investigate how anthropogenic pollutants including NO_x, SO_2, aerosol acidity (pH), $PM_{2.5}$ sulfate
151 (SO_4^{2-}), and O_3 affect isoprene SOA formation. These results, along with the results presented
152 from similar studies during the 2013 SOAS campaign, seek to elucidate the chemical relationships
153 between anthropogenic emissions and isoprene SOA formation in order to provide better
154 parameterizations needed to improve the accuracy of air quality models in this region of the U.S.

155 **2. Methods**

156 **2.1. Site description and collocated data**

157 Filter samples were collected in the summer of 2013 as part of the SOAS field campaign
158 at the BHM ground site (33.553N, 86.815W). In addition to the SOAS campaign, the site is also
159 part of the Southeastern Aerosol Research and Characterization Study (SEARCH) (Figure S1 of
160 the Supplement), an observation and monitoring program initiated in 1998. SEARCH and this site
161 are described elsewhere in detail (Hansen et al., 2003; Edgerton et al., 2006). The BHM site is
162 surrounded by significant transportation and industrial sources of PM. West of BHM are US-31
163 and I-65 highways. To the north, northeast and southwest of BHM several coking ovens and an
164 iron pipe foundry are located (Hansen et al., 2003).

165 **2.2. High-Volume filter sampling and analysis methods**

166 **2.2.1. High-Volume filter sampling**

167 From June 1 – July 16, 2013, $PM_{2.5}$ samples were collected onto Tissuquartz™ Filters
168 (8 x 10 in, Pall Life Sciences) using high-volume $PM_{2.5}$ samplers (Tisch Environmental) operated
169 at 1 m^3 min^{-1} at ambient temperature described in detail elsewhere (Budisulistiorini et al. 2015;

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Riva et al., 2015). All quartz filters were pre-baked prior to collection. The procedure consisted of baking filters at 550 °C for 18 hours followed by cooling to 25 °C over 12 hours.

The sampling schedule is given in Table 1. Either two or four samples were collected per day. The regular schedule consisted of two samples per day, one during the day, the second at night, each collected for 11 hours. On intensive sampling days, four samples were collected, with the single daytime sample being subdivided into three separate periods. The intensive sampling schedule was conducted on days when high levels of isoprene, SO_4^{2-} and NO_x where forecast by the National Center for Atmospheric Research (NCAR) using the Flexible Particle dispersion model (FLEXPART) (Stohl et al., 2005) and Model for Ozone and Related Chemical Tracers (MOZART) (Emmons et al., 2010) simulations. Details of these simulations have been summarized in Budisulistiorini et al. (2015); however, these model data were only used qualitatively to determine the sampling schedule. The intensive collection frequency allowed enhanced time resolution for offline analysis to examine the effect of anthropogenic emissions on the evolution of isoprene SOA tracers throughout the day.

In total, 120 samples were collected throughout the field campaign with a field blank filter collected every 10 days to identify errors or contamination in sample collection and analysis. All filters were stored at -20 °C in the dark until extraction and analysis. In addition to filter sampling of $PM_{2.5}$, SEARCH provided a suite of additional instruments at the site collecting measurements of a variety of variables, including meteorology, gas, and continuous PM monitoring. The variables with respective instrumentation are summarized in Table S1 of the Supplement.

2.2.2. Isoprene-derived SOA analysis by GC/EI-MS

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191 SOA collected in the field on quartz filters was extracted and isoprene tracers quantified
192 by GC/EI-MS with prior trimethylsilylation. A 37-mm diameter circular punch from each filter
193 was extracted in a pre-cleaned scintillation vial with 20 mL of high-purity methanol (LCMS
194 CHROMASOLV-grade, Sigma-Aldrich) by sonication for 45 minutes. The extracts were filtered
195 through PTFE syringe filters (Pall Life Science, Acrodisc®, 0.2-µm pore size) to remove insoluble
196 particles and residual quartz fibers. The filtrate was then blown dry under a gentle stream of N_2 at
197 room temperature. The dried residues were immediately trimethylsilylated by reaction with 100
198 µL of BSTFA + TMCS (99:1 *v/v*, Supelco) and 50 *µ*L of pyridine (anhydrous, 99.8 %, Sigma-
199 Aldrich) at 70 °C for 1 hour. Derivatized samples were analyzed within 24 hours after
200 trimethylsilylation using a Hewlett-Packard (HP) 5890 Series II Gas Chromatograph coupled to a
201 HP 5971A Mass Selective Detector. The gas chromatograph was equipped with an *Econo-Cap*®-
202 *EC*®-*5* Capillary Column (30 m x 0.25 mm i.d.; 0.25-µm film thickness) to separate trimethylsilyl
203 derivatives before MS detection. 1 *µ*L aliquots were injected onto the column. Operating
204 conditions and procedures have been described elsewhere (Surratt et al., 2010).

205 Extraction efficiency was assessed and taken into account for the quantification of all SOA
206 tracers. Efficiency was determined by analyzing 4 pre-baked filters spiked with 50 ppmv of 2-
207 methyltetrols, 2-methylglyceric acid, levoglucosan, and *cis*- and *trans*-3-MeTHF-3,4-diols.
208 Extraction efficiency was above 90% and used to correct the quantification of samples. Extracted
209 ion chromatograms (EICs) of *m/z* 262, 219, 231, 335 were used to quantify the *cis*-/*trans*-3-
210 MeTHF-3,4-diols, 2-methyltetrols and 2-methylglyceric acid, C_5-alkene triols, and IEPOX-
211 dimers, respectively (Surratt et al., 2006).

212 2-Methyltetrols were quantified using an authentic reference standard that consisted of a
213 mixture of racemic diasteroisomers. Similarly, 3-MeTHF-3,4-diol isomers were also quantified

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using authentic standards; however, 3-MeTHF-3,4-diol isomers were detected in few field samples. 2-Methylglyceric acid was also quantified using an authentic standard. Procedures for synthesis of the 2-methyltetrols, 3-MeTHF-3,4-diol isomers, and 2-methylglyceric acid have been described elsewhere (Zhang et al., 2012; Budisulistiorini et al., 2015). C_5-alkene triols and IEPOX-dimers were quantified using the average response factor of the 2-methyltetrols.

2.2.3. Isoprene-derived SOA analysis by UPLC/ ESI-HR-QTOFMS

A 37-mm diameter circular punch from each quartz filter was extracted following the same procedure described in section 2.2.1 for GC/EI-MS analysis. The dried residues were reconstituted with 150 μl of a 50:50 (v/v) solvent mixture of methanol (LC-MS CHROMASOVL-grade, Sigma-Aldrich) and high-purity water (Milli-Q, 18.2 MΩ). The extracts were immediately analyzed by the UPLC/ESI-HR-QTOFMS (6520 Series, Agilent) operated in the negative ion mode. Detailed operating conditions have been described elsewhere (Riva et al., 2015). Mass spectra were acquired at a mass resolution 7000-8000 over the range *m/z* 200 – 400.

Extraction efficiency was determined by analyzing 3 pre-baked filters spiked with propyl sulfate and octyl sulfate (electronic grade, City Chemical LLC). Extraction efficiencies were in the range 86 – 95%. EICs of *m/z* 215, 333 and 199 were used to quantify the IEPOX-derived OS, IEPOX-derived dimer OS and the MAE/HMML-derived OS, respectively (Surratt et al., 2007a). EICs were generated with a ± 5 ppm tolerance. All accurate masses for all measured organosulfates were within ± 5 ppm. For simplicity, only the nominal masses are reported in the text when describing these products. IEPOX-derived OS and IEPOX-derived dimer OS were quantified by authentic standards (Zhang et al., 2012). The MAE/HMML-derived OS was quantified using authentic MAE/HMML-derived OS synthesized in-house by a procedure to be described in a forthcoming publication (^{1}H NMR trace, Figure S2).

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EICs of of *m/z* 155, 169 and 139 were used to quantify the glyoxal-derived OS, methylglyoxal-derived OS, and the hydroxyacetone-derived OS, respectively (Surratt et al., 2007a). In addition, EICs of *m/z* 211, 260 and 305 were used to quantify other known isoprene-derived OSs (Surratt et al., 2007a). Glycolic acid sulfate synthesized in-house was used as a standard to quantify the glyoxal-derived OS (Galloway et al., 2009) and propyl sulfate, was used as a surrogate standard to quantify the remaining isoprene-derived OSs.

2.2.4. OC and WSOC analysis

A 1.5 cm^2 square punch from each quartz filter was analyzed for total organic carbon (OC) and elemental carbon (EC) by the thermal-optical method (Birch and Cary, 1996) on a Sunset Laboratory OC/EC instrument (Tigard, OR) at the National Exposure Research Laboratory (NERL) at the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Research Triangle Park, NC. The details of the instrument and analytical method have been described elsewhere (Birch and Cary, 1996). In addition to the internal calibration using methane gas, four different mass concentrations of sucrose solution were used to verify the accuracy of instrument during the analysis.

Water-soluble organic carbon (WSOC) was measured in aqueous extracts of quartz fiber filter samples using a total organic carbon (TOC) analyzer (Sievers 5310C, GE Water & Power) equipped with an inorganic carbon remover (Sievers 900). To maintain low background carbon levels, all glassware used was washed with water, soaked in 10% nitric acid, and baked at 500˚C for 5 h and 30 min prior to use. Samples were extracted in batches that consisted of 12-21 $PM_{2.5}$ samples and field blanks, one laboratory blank, and one spiked solution. A 17.3 cm^2 filter portion was extracted with 15 mL of purified water (> 18 MΩ, Barnstead Easypure II, Thermo Scientific) by ultra-sonication (Branson 5510). Extracts were then passed through a 0.45 μm PTFE filter to remove insoluble particles. The TOC analyzer was calibrated using potassium hydrogen phthalate

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(KHP, Sigma Aldrich) and was verified daily with sucrose (Sigma Aldrich). Samples and standards were analyzed in triplicate; the reported values correspond to the average of the second and third trials. Spiked solutions yielded recoveries that averaged (± one standard deviation) 96 ± 5 % (n = 9). All ambient concentrations were field blank subtracted.

2.2.5. Estimation of aerosol pH by ISORROPIA

Aerosol pH was estimated using a thermodynamic model, ISORROPIA-II (Nenes et al., 1998). SO_4^{2-}, nitrate (NO_3^-), and ammonium (NH_4^+) ion concentrations measured in $PM_{2.5}$ collected from BHM, as well as relative humidity (RH), temperature and gas-phase ammonia (NH_3) were used as inputs into the model. These variables were obtained from the SEARCH network at BHM, which collected the data during the period covered by the SOAS campaign. The ISORROPIA-II model estimates particle hydronium ion concentration per unit volume of air (H^+, μg m^{-3}), aerosol liquid water content (LWC, μg m^{-3}), and aqueous aerosol mass concentration (μg m^{-3}). The model-estimated parameters were used in the following formula to calculate the aerosol pH:

$$\text{Aerosol pH} = -\log_{10} a_{H^+} = -\log_{10}\left(\frac{H^+_{air}}{LMASS} \times \rho_{aer} \times 1000\right)$$

where a_{H^+} is H^+ activity in the aqueous phase (mol L^{-1}), *LMASS* is total liquid-phase aerosol mass (μg m^{-3}) and ρ_{aer} is aerosol density. Details of the ISORROPIA-II model and its ability to predict pH, LWC, and gas-to-particle partitioning are not the focus of this study and are discussed elsewhere and (Fountoukis et al., 2009).

2.2.6. Estimation of nighttime NO_3

Nitrate radical (NO_3) production ($P[NO_3]$) was calculated using the following equation:

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281 $$P[NO_3] = [NO_2][O_3]k$$

282 where $[NO_2]$ and $[O_3]$ correspond to the measured ambient NO_2 and O_3 concentrations (mol
283 cm^{-3}), respectively, and k is the temperature-dependent rate constant (Herron and Huie, 1974;
284 Graham and Johnston, 1978). Since no direct measure of NO_3 radical was made at this site during
285 SOAS, $P[NO_3]$ was used as a proxy for NO_3 radicals present in the atmosphere to examine if there
286 is any association of it with isoprene-derived SOA tracers.

287 ## 3. Results and Discussion

288 ### 3.1. Overview of the study

289 The campaign extended from June 1 through July 16, 2013. Temperature during this period
290 ranged from a high of 32.6 °C to a low of 20.5 °C, with an average of ~26.4 °C. RH varied from
291 37-96% throughout the campaign, with an average of 71.5%. Rainfall occurred intermittently over
292 2-3 day periods and averaged 0.1 inches per day. Wind analysis reveals that air masses approached
293 largely from the south-southeast at an average wind speed of 2 m s^{-1}. Summaries of meteorological
294 conditions as well as wind speed and direction during the course of the campaign are given in
295 Table 2 and illustrated in Figures 1 and 2.

296 The average concentration of carbon monoxide (CO), a combustion byproduct, was 208.7
297 ppbv. The mean concentration of O_3 was significantly higher (*t-test, p-value* < 0.05) on intensive
298 sampling days (37.0 ppbv) than regular sampling days (25.2 ppbv). Concentrations of NO_x, NH_3,
299 and SO_2 were lower averaging 7.8, 1.9, and 0.9 ppbv, respectively. On average, OC and WSOC
300 levels were 7.2 (n = 120) and 4 μg m^{-3} (n = 100), respectively. The largest inorganic component of
301 $PM_{2.5}$ was SO_4^{2-}, which averaged 2 μg m^{-3} with excursions between 0.4 and 4.9 μg m^{-3} during the
302 campaign. NH_4^+ and NO_3^- were present at low levels, averaging 0.66 and 0.14 μg m^{-3}, respectively.
303 Time series of gas and $PM_{2.5}$ components are shown in Figure 2. WSOC accounted for 35% of OC

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mass (Figure S3a), and was smaller than that recently reported in rural areas during SOAS (Budisulistiorini et al., 2015; Hu et al., 2015), but consistent with previous observations at the BHM site (Ding et al., 2008). WSOC/OC ratios are commonly lower in urban than rural areas, as a consequence of higher primary OC emissions; thus, PM at BHM probably contains increased OC.

Diurnal variation of meteorological parameters, trace gases, and $PM_{2.5}$ components are shown in Figure S4 of the Supplement. Temperature dropped during nighttime, and reached a maximum in the afternoon (Figure S4a). Conversely, RH was low during day and high at night. High-NO_x levels were found in the early morning and decreased during the course of the day (Figure S4c), most likely in conjunction with rising O_3 levels. O_3 reached a maximum concentration between 12 - 3 pm due to photochemistry (Figure S4b). SO_2 was slightly higher in the morning (Figure S4c), but decreased during the day most likely as a result of planetary boundary layer (PBL) dynamics. NH_3 remained fairly constant throughout the day (Figure S4c). No significant diurnal variation was found in the concentration of inorganic $PM_{2.5}$ components, including SO_4^{2-}, NO_3^-, and NH_4^+ (Figure S4d). Unfortunately, a measurement of isoprene could not be made at BHM during the campaign. However, the diurnal trend of isoprene levels might be similar to the data at the CTR site (Xu et al., 2015), which is only 61 miles away from BHM. Xu et al. (2015) observed the highest levels of isoprene (~ 6 ppb) at CTR in the mid-afternoon (3 pm local time) and its diurnal trend was similar to isoprene-OA measured by the Aerodyne Aerosol Mass Spectrometer (AMS) during the SOAS campaign.

3.2 Characterization of Isoprene SOA

Table 3 summarizes the mean and maximum concentrations of known isoprene-derived SOA tracers detected by GC/EI-MS and UPLC/ESI-HR-QTOFMS. Levoglucosan was also

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analyzed as a tracer for biomass burning. Among the isoprene-derived SOA tracers, the highest mean concentration was for 2-methyltetrols (376 ng m^{-3}), followed by the sum of C_5-alkene triols (181 ng m^{-3}) and the IEPOX-derived OS (165 ng m^{-3}). The concentrations account for 3.8%, 1.8% and 1.6%, respectively, of total OM mass. Noteworthy is that maximum concentrations of 2-methylerythritol (a 2-methyltetrol isomer; 1049 ng m^{-3}), IEPOX-derived OS (865 ng m^{-3}) and (E)-2-methylbut-3-ene-1,2,4-triol (879 ng m^{-3}) were attained during the intensive sampling period 4-7 pm local time on June 15, 2013, following five consecutive days of dry weather (Figure 2a and 2d) when high levels of isoprene, SO_4^{2-}, and NO_x were forecast.

Together, the IEPOX-derived SOA tracers, which represent SOA formation from isoprene oxidation predominantly under the low-NO_x pathway, comprised 92.5% of the total detected isoprene-derived SOA tracer mass at the BHM site. This contribution is slightly lower than observations reported at rural sites located in Yorkville, GA (97.5%) and Look Rock, Tennessee (LRK) (97%) (Lin et al., 2013b; Budisulistiorini et al., 2015).

The sum of MAE/HMML-OS and 2-MG, which represent SOA formation from isoprene oxidation predominantly under the high-NO_x pathway, contributed 3.25% of the total isoprene-derived SOA tracer mass, while the OS derivative of glycolic acid (GA sulfate) contributed 3.3%. The contribution of GA sulfate was consistent with the level of GA sulfate measured by the airborne NOAA Particle Analysis Laser Mass Spectrometer (PALMS) over the continental U.S. during the Deep Convective Clouds and Chemistry Experiment and SEAC4RS (Liao et al., 2015). However, the contribution of GA sulfate to the total OM at BHM (0.3%) is lower than aircraft-based measurements made by Liao et al. (2015) near the ground in the eastern U.S. (0.9%). GA sulfate can form from biogenic and anthropogenic emissions other than isoprene, including

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glyoxal, which is thought to be a primary source of GA sulfate (Galloway et al., 2009). For this reason, GA sulfate will not be further discussed in this study.

Isoprene SOA contribution to total OM was estimated by assuming the OM/OC ratio 1.6 based on the recent studies (El-Zanan et al., 2009; Simon et al., 2011; Ruthenburg et al., 2014; Blanchard et al., 2015). On average, isoprene-derived SOA tracers (sum of both IEPOX- and MAE/HMML-derived SOA tracers) contributed ~7% (ranging to ~ 20% at times) of the total particulate OM mass. The average contribution is lower than measured at other sites in the S.E. USA, including both rural LRK, (Budisulistiorini et al., 2015; Hu et al., 2015) and urban Atlanta, GA (Budisulistiorini et al., 2013). The contribution of SOA tracers to OM in the current study was estimated on the basis of offline analysis of filters, while tracer estimates in the two earlier studies was based on online ACSM/AMS measurements. The low isoprene SOA/OM ratio is consistent with the low WSOC/OC reported in section 3.1, suggesting an increased contribution of primary OA or secondary OM to the total OM at BHM. However, it should be noted that total IEPOX-derived SOA mass at BHM may actually be closer to ~14% since recent measurements by the Aerodyne ACSM at LRK indicated that tracers could only account for ~50% of the total IEPOX-derived SOA mass resolved by the ACSM (Budisulistiorini et al., 2015). Unfortunately, an Aerodyne ACSM or AMS was not available at the BHM site, precluding confirmation of that IEPOX-derived SOA mass at BHM might account for 14% (on average) of the total OM mass. Levoglucosan, a biomass-burning tracer, averaged 1% of total OM with spikes up to 8%, the same level measured for 2-methylthreitol and (E)-2-methylbut-3-ene-1,2,4-triol (Table 3). The ratio of average levoglucosan at BHM relative to CTR was 5.4 suggesting significantly more biomass burning impacting the BHM site.

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IEPOX- and MAE/HMML-derived SOA tracers accounted for 18% and 0.4% of the WSOC mass, respectively (Figure S3b), lower than the respective contributions of 24% and 0.7% measured at LRK (Budisulistiorini et al., 2015).

Figure S5 shows no diurnal variation for the average day and night concentrations of isoprene-derived SOA tracers. Thus cooler nighttime temperatures also do not appear to enhance gas-to-particle partitioning at the BHM site. Figures S6 and S7 show the variation of isoprene-derived SOA tracers during intensive sampling periods. The highest concentrations were usually observed in samples collected from 4 pm – 7 pm, local time; however, no statistical significance were observed between intensive periods. This observation illustrates the importance of the higher time-resolution of the tracer data during intensive sampling periods over course of the campaign (Table S2-S6). An additional consequence of the intensive sampling periods was resolution of a significant correlation between isoprene SOA tracers and O_3 to be discussed in more detail in section 3.3.2.

3.3 Influence of anthropogenic emissions on isoprene-derived SOA

3.3.1 Effects of reactive nitrogen-containing species

During the campaign, no isoprene-derived SOA tracers, including MAE/HMML-derived OS and 2-MG, correlated with NO_x or NO_y ($r^2 = 0$, n = 120). This is inconsistent with the current understanding of SOA formation from isoprene oxidation pathways under high-NO_x conditions, which proceeds through uptake of MAE (Lin et al., 2013a), and, as recently suggested, HMML (Nguyen et al., 2015), to yield 2-MG and its OS derivative. Plume age, as a ratio of NO_x:$NO_{y,}$, in this study was highly correlated with O_3 ($r^2 = 0.79$, n = 120). This correlation might be explained by the photolysis of NO_2, which is abundant due to traffic at the urban ground site, resulting in

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393 formation of tropospheric O_3. A negative correlation coefficient (r = - 0.47, n = 120) between
394 plume age and 2-MG abundance was found, suggesting that formation of some 2-MG may be
395 associated with ageing of air masses.

396 A previous study supported a major role for NO_3 in the nighttime chemistry of isoprene
397 (Ng et al., 2008). Correlation of IEPOX- and MAE/HMML-derived SOA with nighttime NO_2, O_3,
398 and P[NO_3] were examined in this study (Figures 3 and 4). As shown in Figure 3f, a moderate
399 correlation between MAE/HMML-derived SOA and nighttime P[NO_3] (r^2 = 0.57, n = 40) was
400 observed. The regression analysis revealed a significant correlation at the 95% confidence interval
401 (*p-value* < 0.05) (Table S7). This finding suggests that some MAE/HMML-derived SOA may form
402 locally from the reaction of isoprene with NO_3 radical at night. A field study reported a peak
403 isoprene mixing ratio in early evening (Starn et al., 1998) as the PBL height decreases at night. As
404 a result, lowering PBL heights could concentrate the remaining isoprene, NO_2, and O_3 that can
405 continue to react during the course of the evening. 2-MG formation has been reported to be NO_2-
406 dependent via the formation and further oxidation of MPAN (Surratt et al., 2006; Chan et al.,
407 2010). Hence, decreasing PBL may be related to nighttime MAE/HMML-derived SOA formation
408 through isoprene oxidation by both P[NO_3] and NO_2.

409 Although P[NO_3] depends on both NO_2 and O_3 levels, O_3 correlates moderately with
410 MAE/HMML-derived SOA tracers during day (r^2 = 0.48, n = 75), but not at night (r^2 = 0.08, n =
411 45). The effect of O_3 on isoprene-derived SOA formation during daytime will be discussed further
412 in section 3.3.2. NO_2 levels correlate only weakly with MAE/HMML-derived SOA tracers, (r^2 =
413 0.26, n = 45) indicating that NO_2 levels alone do not explain the moderate correlation of P[NO_3]
414 with these tracers. To our knowledge, correlation of P[NO_3] with high-NO_x SOA tracers has not

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been observed in previous field studies., indicating that further work is needed to examine the potential role of nighttime NO_3 radicals in forming these SOA tracers.

As shown in Figure 4f, IEPOX-derived SOA was weakly correlated ($r^2 = 0.26$, n = 40) with nighttime P[NO_3]. The correlation appears to be driven by the data at the low end of the scale and could therefore be misleading. However, Schwantes et al. (2015) demonstrated that NO_3-initaited oxidation of isoprene yields isoprene nitrooxy hydroperoxides (INEs) through nighttime reaction: $RO_2 + HO_2$, which on further oxidation yielded isoprene nitrooxy hydroxyepoxides (INHEs). The INHEs undergo reactive uptake onto acidic sulfate aerosol to yield SOA constituents similar to those of IEPOX-derived SOA. The present study raises the possibility that a fraction of IEPOX-derived SOA comes from NO_3-initiated oxidation of isoprene at night. The work of Ng et al. (2008) does not explain the weak association we observe here between IEPOX-derived SOA tracers and P[NO_3] as a consequence of the reactions $RO_2 + RO_2$ and $RO_2 + NO_3$ reactions dominating in those experiments. It is now thought that $RO_2 + HO_2$ should dominate in field studies (Schwantes et al., 2015; Paulot et al., 2009).

3.3.2 Effect of O_3

During the daytime, O_3 was moderately correlated ($r^2 = 0.48$, n = 75) with total MAE/HMML-derived SOA (Figure 3b). This correlation was stronger ($r^2 = 0.72$, n = 30, *p-value* < 0.05, Table S7) when filters taken during regular daytime sampling periods are considered, suggesting that formation of MACR (a precursor to MAE and HMML) (Lin et al., 2013b; Nguyen et al., 2015) was enhanced by oxidation of isoprene by O_3 (Kamens et al., 1982). O_3 was not correlated ($r^2 = 0.08$, n = 45) with MAE/HMML-derived SOA at night (Figure 3e). The latter finding is consistent with the absence of photolysis to drive the production of O_3. However,

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437 residual O_3 may play an important role at night to form MAE/HMML-derived SOA via the P[NO_3]
438 pathway discussed in section 3.3.1.

439 O_3 was not correlated (r^2= 0.10, n = 75) with IEPOX-derived SOA during daytime (Figure
440 4b), but weakly correlated with 2-methylerythritol (r^2 = 0.25, n = 30) as shown in Table S2,
441 especially during intensive 3 sampling periods (r^2 = 0.34, n = 15, Table S5). An important
442 observation with regard to this result is that no correlation has been found between O_3 and 2-
443 methyltetrols (r^2 < 0.01) in previous field studies (Lin et al., 2013b; Budisulistiorini et al., 2015).
444 Isoprene ozonolysis yielded 2-methyltetrols in chamber studies in the presence of acidified sulfate
445 aerosol (Riva et al., 2015) but C_5-alkene-triols were not formed by this pathway. The greatest
446 abundance of isoprene-derived SOA tracers in daytime samples was generally observed in
447 intensive 3 samples; however, there was no statistical significance observed between intensive
448 samples. The moderate correlation (r^2 = 0.34, n = 15, *p-value* < 0.05) between O_3 and the 2-
449 methyltetrols observed in intensive 3 samples occurred when O_3 reached maximum levels,
450 suggesting that ozonolysis of isoprene plays a role in 2-methyltetrol formation. Lack of correlation
451 between O_3 and C_5-alkene triols during intensive 3 sampling (r^2 = 0.10, n = 15) supports this
452 contention. A putative pathway is formation of hydroperoxides that partition to wet acidic sulfate
453 aerosols and react further to yield 2-methyltetrols. Additional work using authentic standards is
454 needed to validate this tentative hypothesis.

455 **3.3.3 Effect of particle SO_4^{2-}**

456 SO_4^{2-} was moderately correlated with IEPOX-derived SOA (r^2 = 0.36, n = 117) and
457 MAE/HMML-derived SOA (r^2 = 0.33, n = 117) at the 95% confidence interval as shown in Table
458 S7. The strength of the correlations was consistent with studies at other sites across the
459 Southeastern U.S. (Budisulistiorini et al., 2013; Lin et al., 2013b; Budisulistiorini et al., 2015; Xu

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et al., 2015). Aerosol surface area provided by acidic SO_4^{2-} has been demonstrated to control the uptake of isoprene-derived epoxides (Lin et al., 2012; Gaston et al., 2014; Nguyen et al., 2014; Riedel et al., 2015).

Furthermore, SO_4^{2-} is proposed to enhance IEPOX-derived SOA formation by providing particle water (H_2O_{ptcl}) required for IEPOX uptake (Xu et al., 2015). Aerosol SO_4^{2-} also promotes acid-catalyzed ring-opening reactions of IEPOX by H^+, proton donors such as NH_4^+, and nucleophiles (e.g., H_2O, SO_4^{2-}, or NO_3^-) (Surratt et al., 2010; Nguyen et al., 2014). Since SO_4^{2-} tends to drive both particle water and acidity (Fountoukis and Nenes, 2007), the extent to which each influences isoprene SOA formation during field studies remains unclear. Multivariate linear regression analysis on SOAS data from the CTR site and the SCAPE dataset revealed a statistically significant positive linear relationship between SO_4^{2-} and the isoprene (IEPOX)-OA factor resolved by positive matrix factorization (PMF). On the basis of this analysis the abundance of SO_4^{2-} was concluded to control directly the isoprene SOA formation over broad areas of the Southeastern U.S. (Xu et al., 2015), consistent with previous reports (Lin et al., 2013; Budisulistiorini et al., 2013; Budisulistiorini et al., 2015). Another potential pathway for SO_4^{2-} levels to enhance isoprene SOA formation is through salting-in effects; however, systematic investigations of this effect are lacking and further studies are warranted (Xu et al., 2015).

3.3.4 Effect of aerosol acidity

The aerosol at BHM was acidic throughout the SOAS campaign (pH range 1.60 – 1.94, average 1.76) in accord with a study by Guo et. al. (2014) that found aerosol pH ranging from 0 – 2 throughout the southeastern U.S. However, no correlation of pH with isoprene SOA formation was observed at BHM, also consistent with previous findings using the thermodynamic

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models to estimate aerosol acidity in many field sites across the southeastern U.S. region, including Yorkville, GA (YRK) (Lin et al., 2013b), Jefferson Street, GA (JST) (Budisulistiorini et al., 2013), and LRK (Budisulistiorini et al., 2015). However, it is important to point out that the lack of correlation between SOA tracers and acidity may stem from the small variations in aerosol acidity throughout the campaign. Gaston et al. (2014) and Riedel et al. (2015) recently demonstrated that an aerosol pH < 2 at atmospherically-relevant aerosol surface areas would allow reactive uptake of IEPOX onto acidic (wet) sulfate aerosol surfaces to be competitive with other loss processes (e.g., deposition and reaction of IEPOX with OH). In fact, it was estimated that under such conditions IEPOX would have a lifetime of ~ 5 hr. The constant presence of acidic aerosol has also been observed at other field sites in the southeastern U.S. (Budisulistiorini et al., 2013; Budisulistiorini et al., 2015; Xu et al., 2015), supporting a conclusion that acidity is not the limiting variable in forming isoprene SOA.

3.4 Comparison among different sampling sites during 2013 SOAS campaign

Table 5 summarizes the mean concentration and contribution of each isoprene SOA tracer at BHM, CTR, and LRK. BHM is an industrial-residential area, LRK and CTR are rural areas, although LRK is influenced by a diurnal upslope/downslope cycle of air from an urban locality (Knoxville) (Tanner et al., 2005). IEPOX-derived SOA was predominant at all three sites during the SOAS campaign, while MAE/HMML-derived SOA constituted a minor contribution. The average ratio of 2-methyltetrols to C_5-alkene triols at BHM was 2.2, nearly double that of CTR (1.3) and LRK (1.1). Although 2-methyltetrols and C_5-alkene triols are considered to form readily from the acid-catalyzed reactive uptake and multiphase chemistry of IEPOX (Edney et al., 2005; Surratt et al., 2006), Riva et al. (2015) recently demonstrated that only 2-methyltetrols can be formed via isoprene ozonolysis in the presence of acidic sulfate aerosol. The higher levels of the

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505 2-methyltetrols observed at the urban BHM site indicates a likely competition between the IEPOX
506 uptake and ozonolysis pathways. Together, these findings suggest that urban O_3 may play an
507 important role in forming the 2-methyltetrols observed at BHM. There were notable trends found
508 among the three sites: (1) average C_5-alkene triol concentrations were higher at CTR (214.1 ng m^{-3})
509 than at BHM (169.7 ng m^{-3}) and LRK (144.4 ng m^{-3}); (2) average isomeric 3-MeTHF-diol
510 concentrations were lower at CTR (0.2 ng m^{-3}) than the BHM (15.4 ng m^{-3}) or LRK (4.4 ng m^{-3})
511 sites. Except for the 2-methyltetrols, reasons for the differences observed for the other tracers
512 between sites remains unclear and warrant future investigations.

513

514 **4. Conclusions**

515 This study examined isoprene SOA tracers in $PM_{2.5}$ samples collected at the BHM ground
516 site during the 2013 SOAS campaign and revealed the complexity and potential multitude of
517 chemical pathways leading to isoprene SOA formation. Isoprene SOA contributed up to ~20%
518 (~7% on average) of total OM mass. IEPOX-derived SOA tracers were responsible for 92% of the
519 total quantified isoprene SOA tracer mass, with 2-methyltetrols being the major component (47%).
520 Differences in the relative contributions of IEPOX- and MAE/HMML-derived SOA tracers at
521 BHM and the rural CTR and LRK sites (Budisulistiorini et al., 2015) during the 2013 SOAS
522 campaign, support suggestions that anthropogenic emissions effect isoprene SOA formation. The
523 correlation between 2-methyltetrols and O_3 at BHM is in accord with work by Riva et al. (2015),
524 demonstrating a potential role of O_3 in generating isoprene-derived SOA in addition to the
525 currently accepted IEPOX multiphase pathway.

526 At BHM, the statistical correlation of particulate SO_4^{2-} with IEPOX- ($r^2 = 0.36$, n = 117, p
527 < 0.05) and MAE-derived SOA tracers ($r^2 = 0.33$, n = 117, $p < 0.05$) suggests that SO_4^{2-} plays a

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role in isoprene SOA formation. Although none of isoprene-derived SOA tracers correlated with gas-phase NO_x and NO_y, MAE/HMML-derived SOA tracers correlated with nighttime $P[NO_3]$ (r^2 = 0.57, n = 400), indicating that NO_3 may affect local MAE/HMML-derived SOA formation. Nighttime $P[NO_3]$ was weakly correlated (r^2 = 0.26, n = 40) with IEPOX-derived SOA tracers, lending some support to recent work by Schwantes et al. (2015) showing that isoprene + NO_3 yields INHEs that can by undergo reactive uptake to yield IEPOX tracers and contribute to IEPOX-derived SOA tracer loadings. In addition, nighttime 2-methyltetrol levels in the urban atmosphere deviate from the conventional understanding of isoprene SOA formation in terms of segregated NO_x dependent regimes. The correlation of daytime O_3 with MAE/HMML-derived SOA and with 2-methyltetrols offers a new insight into influences on isoprene SOA formation. Notably, O_3 has not been reported to correlate with isoprene-derived SOA tracers in previous field studies (Lin et al., 2013b; Budisulistiorini et al., 2015). In this study, the strong correlation (r^2 = 0.72, n = 30) at the 95% confidence interval of O_3 with MAE/HMML-derived SOA tracers during the regular daytime sampling schedule indicates that O_3 likely oxidizes some isoprene to MACR as precursor of 2-MG at BHM. The weak correlation (r^2 = 0.16, n = 75) between O_3 and 2-methyltetrols early in the day as well as the better correlation (r^2 = 0.34, n = 15) later in the day (intensive 3, 4-7 PM local time) are consistent with recent laboratory studies demonstrating that 2-methyltetrols can be formed via isoprene ozonolysis in the presence of acidified sulfate aerosol (Riva et al., 2015).

Although urban O_3 and nighttime $P[NO_3]$ may have a role in local formation of MAE/HMML- and IEPOX-derived SOA tracers at BHM, this does not appear to explain the majority of the SOA tracers, since no significant day-night variation of the entire group of tracers was observed during the campaign. The majority of IEPOX-derived SOA was likely formed when isoprene SOA precursors (IEPOX) were generated upwind and transported to the BHM site. Wind

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directions during the campaign are consistent with long-range transport of isoprene SOA precursors from southwest of the site, which is covered by forested areas. The absence of a correlation of aerosol acidity with MAE/HMML- and IEPOX-derived SOA tracers indicates that acidity is not the limiting variable that controls formation of these compounds. However, the lack of correlation between SOA tracers and acidity may stem from nearly invariant aerosol acidity throughout the campaign. Hence, despite laboratory studies demonstrating that aerosol acidity can enhance isoprene SOA formation (Surratt et al., 2007; Surratt et al., 2010; Lin et al., 2012), the effect may not be significant in the southeastern U.S. during the summer months due to the constant acidity of aerosols. Future work should examine how well current models can predict the isoprene SOA levels observed during this study, especially since urban emissions are directly present. Furthermore, explicit models are now available to predict the isoprene SOA tracers measured here (McNeill et al., 2012; Pye et al., 2013), which will allow the modeling community to test the current parameterizations that are used to capture the enhancing effect of anthropogenic pollutants on isoprene-derived SOA formation. In addition, the significant correlations of isoprene-derived SOA tracers with P[NO_3] observed during this study indicate a need to better understand nighttime chemistry of isoprene. Lastly, although O_3 appears to have an enhancing effect on isoprene-derived SOA tracers, the intermediates are unknown. Hydroperoxides suggested by Riva et al. (2015) may be key, but chamber experiments with authentic precursors are needed to test this hypothesis.

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Table 1. Sampling schedule during SOAS at the BHM ground site.

No. of samples/ day	Sampling schedule	Dates
2 (regular)	Day: 8 am – 7 pm Night: 8 pm – 7 am next day	June 1 – June 9 June 13, June 17 – June 28, July 2- July 9, July 15
4 (intensive)	Intensive 1: 8 am – 12 pm, Intensive 2: 1 pm – 3 pm, Intensive 3: 4 pm – 7 pm, Intensive 4: 8 pm – 7 am next day	June 10 – June 12, June 14 – June 16, June 29 – June 30, July 1, July 9 – July 14

Table 2. Summary of collocated measurements of meteorological variables, gaseous species, and $PM_{2.5}$ constituents.

Category	Condition	Average	SD	Minimum	Maximum
Meteorology	Rainfall (in)	0.1	0.2	0.0	1.4
	Temp (°C)	26.4	3.0	20.5	32.7
	RH (%)	71.5	15.0	36.9	96.1
	BP (mbar)	994.2	3.9	984.2	1002.4
	SR (W m^{-2})	303.7	274.5	7.0	885.0
Trace gas (ppbv)	O_3	31.1	14.8	8.3	62.2
	CO	208.7	72.0	99.6	422.9
	SO_2	0.9	0.8	0.1	3.7
	NO	1.3	1.2	0.1	7.0
	NO_2	6.6	5.1	1.0	22.7
	NO_x	7.8	6.0	1.3	29.7
	NO_y	9.1	5.8	2.2	30.4
	HNO_3	0.3	0.2	0.1	1.0
	NH_3	1.9	0.8	0.7	4.0
$PM_{2.5}$ (μg m^{-3})	OC	7.2	3.2	1.4	14.9
	EC	0.6	0.5	0.1	2.7
	WSOC	4.0	1.8	0.5	7.5
	SO_4^{2-}	2.0	0.9	0.4	4.9
	NO_3^-	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.8
	NH_4^+	0.7	0.3	0.2	1.2
	Aerosol pH	1.8	0.1	1.6	1.9

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Table 3. Summary of isoprene-derived SOA tracers measured by GC/EI-MS and UPLC/ESI-HR-QTOFMS

SOA tracers	*m/z*	Frequency of detection (%)[a]	Max concentration (ng/m^3)	Mean concentration (ng/m^3)	Isoprene SOA Mass fraction (%)[b]	% of total OM[c]
Measured by GC/EI-MS						
2-methylerythritol[d]	219	99.2	1048.9	269.0	33.8	2.7
2-methylthreitol[d]	219	100.0	388.9	107.3	13.5	1.1
(E)-2-methylbut-3-ene-1,2,4-triol[e]	231	96.7	878.9	112.7	14.2	1.1
(Z)-2-methylbut-3-ene-1,2,4-triol[e]	231	95.8	287.8	38.9	4.9	0.4
2-methylbut-3-ene-1,2,3-triol[e]	231	94.2	503.3	28.9	3.6	0.3
2-methylglyceric acid[d]	219	93.3	35.0	10.8	1.4	0.1
cis-3-MeTHF-3,4-diol[d]	262	22.5	98.9	6.9	0.9	0.1
trans-3-MeTHF-3,4-diol[d]	262	10.0	137.6	8.6	1.1	0.1
IEPOX-derived dimer [e]	333	10.0	2.2	0.0	0.0	0.0
Levoglucosan[d]	204	100.0	922.6	98.7	-	1.0
Measured by UPLC/ESI-HR-QTOFMS						
IEPOX-derived OSs						
$C_5H_{11}O_7S^-$ [d]	215	100.0	864.9	164.5	20.7	1.6
$C_{10}H_{21}O_{10}S^-$ [f]	333	1.7	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.0
MAE-derived OS [d]						
$C_4H_7O_7S^-$	199	100.0	35.7	7.2	1.9	0.1
GA sulfate [d]						
$C_2H_3O_6S^-$	155	100.0	75.2	26.2	3.3	0.3
Methylglyoxal-derived OS[g]						
$C_3H_5O_6S^-$	169	97.5	10.5	2.7	0.3	0.0
Isoprene-derived OSs [g]						
$C_5H_7O_7S^-$	211	97.5	5.2	1.4	0.2	0.0
$C_5H_{10}NO_9S^-$	260	90.0	3.9	0.3	0.0	0.0
$C_5H_9N_2O_{11}S^-$	305	5.0	3.3	2.9	0.4	0.0
Hydroxyacetone-derived OS[g]						
$C_2H_3O_5S^-$	139	30.8	2.6	0.2	0.0	0.0

[a] Total filters = 120
[b] Mass fraction is the contribution of each species among total known isoprene-derived SOA mass detected by GC/EI MS and UPLC/ESI-HR-QTOFMS
[c] OM/OC = 1.6
[d] OA tracers quantified by authentic standards
[e] SOA tracers quantified by 2-methyltetrols as a surrogate standard
[f] SOA tracer quantified by IEPOX-derived OS (*m/z* 215) as a surrogate standard
[g] SOA tracers quantified by propyl sulfate as a surrogate standard

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Table 4. Overall correlation (r^2) of isoprene-derived SOA tracers and collocated measurements at BHM during 2013 SOAS campaign.

SOA tracers	CO	O_3	NO_x	NO_y	SO_2	NH_3	SO_4	NO_3	NH_4	OC	WSOC	pH
MAE/HMML-derived SOA tracers	**0.07**	**0.26**	**0.00**	**0.01**	**0.06**	**0.11**	**0.33**	**0.01**	**0.18**	**0.47**	**0.20**	**0.00**
2-methylglyceric acid	0.01	0.26	0.01	0.00	0.01	0.07	0.10	0.00	0.06	0.19	0.02	0.00
MAE-derived OS	0.10	0.14	0.00	0.02	0.07	0.09	0.38	0.01	0.18	0.32	0.23	0.01
IEPOX-derived SOA tracers	**0.04**	**0.05**	**0.00**	**0.01**	**0.05**	**0.01**	**0.36**	**0.00**	**0.21**	**0.24**	**0.12**	**0.00**
2-methylerythritol	0.00	0.16	0.03	0.02	0.01	0.00	0.30	0.02	0.18	0.18	0.19	0.00
2-methylthreitol	0.00	0.13	0.02	0.03	0.02	0.00	0.20	0.01	0.16	0.17	0.15	0.00
(E)-2-methylbut-3-ene-1,2,4-triol	0.07	0.00	0.02	0.01	0.07	0.00	0.15	0.00	0.19	0.11	0.04	0.00
(Z)-2-methylbut-3-ene-1,2,4-triol	0.04	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.06	0.00	0.28	0.00	0.20	0.04	0.00	0.00
2-methylbut-3-ene-1,2,3-triol	0.02	0.00	0.03	0.00	0.00	0.02	0.32	0.01	0.03	0.17	0.04	0.00
IEPOX-derived OS	0.02	0.14	0.03	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.27	0.00	0.16	0.29	0.29	0.00
IEPOX dimer	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Other isoprene SOA tracers												
GA sulfate												
$C_2H_3O_6S^-$	0.30	0.23	0.01	0.00	0.08	0.09	0.27	0.00	0.19	0.38	0.18	0.00
Methylglyoxal-derived OS												
$C_3H_5O_6S^-$	0.14	0.04	0.02	0.03	0.03	0.07	0.31	0.02	0.25	0.21	0.24	0.00
Isoprene-derived OSs												
$C_5H_7O_7S^-$	0.01	0.23	0.03	0.01	0.00	0.02	0.21	0.00	0.16	0.31	013	0.00
$C_5H_{10}NO_9S^-$	0.17	0.00	0.12	0.14	0.10	0.14	0.31	0.16	0.23	0.20	0.07	0.00
$C_5H_9N_2O_{11}S^-$ *	0.32	0.71	0.66	0.58	0.42	0.02	0.68	0.50	0.42	0.00	0.50	0.00
Hydroxyacetone-derived OS												
$C_2H_3O_5S^-$	0.02	0.10	0.08	0.07	0.05	0.00	0.00	0.03	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.00
Other tracer												
Levoglucosan	0.00	0.09	0.02	0.01	0.02	0.00	0.00	0.02	0.00	0.08	0.04	0.01

* Found only in 6 of 120 filters

The correlations in this table are positive.

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834 **Table 5.** Summary of isoprene-derived SOA tracers from the three SOAS ground sites: BHM,
835 CTR, and LRK.

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SOA tracers	Urban		Rural			
	BHM		CTR		LRK	
	Mean (ng m^{-3})	Average amount detected tracers (%)	Mean (ng m^{-3})	Average amount detected tracers (%)	Mean (ng m^{-3})	Average amount detected tracers (%)
MAE/HMML derived SOA						
MAE/HMML-derived OS	7.2	1.1	10.2	1.3	8.2	1.8
2-methylglyceric acid	10.4	1.7	5.1	0.7	7.5	1.6
IEPOX derived SOA						
IEPOX-derived OS	164.5	24.3	207.1	26.8	139.2	30.3
IEPOX-derived dimer OS	0.04	0.00	0.7	0.1	1.1	0.2
2-methylerythritol	266.7	37.9	204.8	26.5	120.7	26.3
2-methylthreitol	107.3	15.8	73.7	9.5	42.4	9.2
(E)-2-methylbut-3-ene-1,2,4-triol	109.0	12.3	137.3	17.8	98.8	21.5
(Z)-2-methylbut-3-ene-1,2,4-triol	37.3	4.1	50.7	6.6	29.1	6.1
2-methylbut-3-ene-1,2,3-triol	23.4	2.5	26.1	3.4	16.5	3.6
trans-3-MeTHF-3,4-diol	8.6	1.0	0.0	0.0	2.7	0.6
cis-3-MeTHF-3,4-diol	6.8	1.0	0.2	0.0	1.7	0.4

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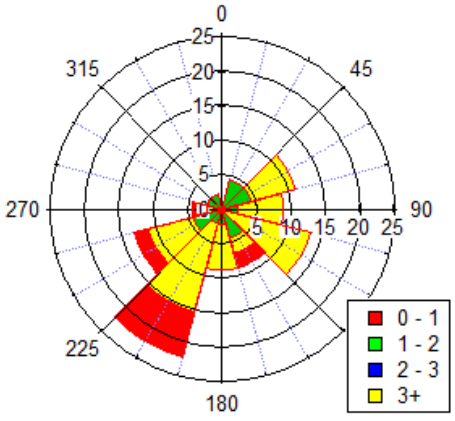

Figure 1. Wind rose illustrating wind direction during the campaign at the BHM site. Bars indicate direction of incoming wind, with 0 degrees set to geographic north. Length of bar size indicates frequency with color segments indicating the wind speed in m s^{-1}.

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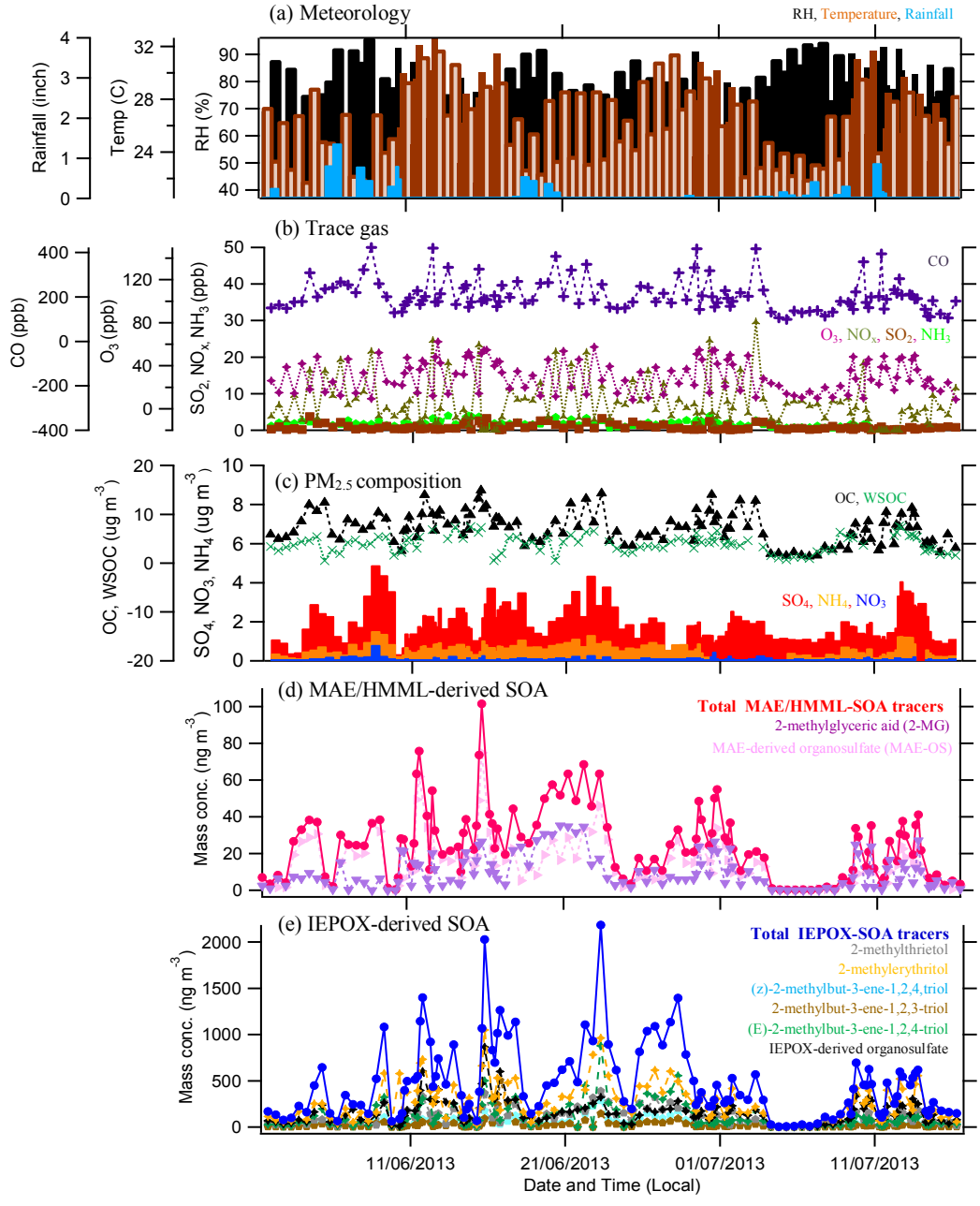

Figure 2. Time series of (a) meteorological data, (b) trace gases, (c) $PM_{2.5}$ constituents, (d) MAE/HMML-derived SOA tracers and (e) IEPOX-derived SOA tracers during the 2013 SOAS campaign at the BHM site.

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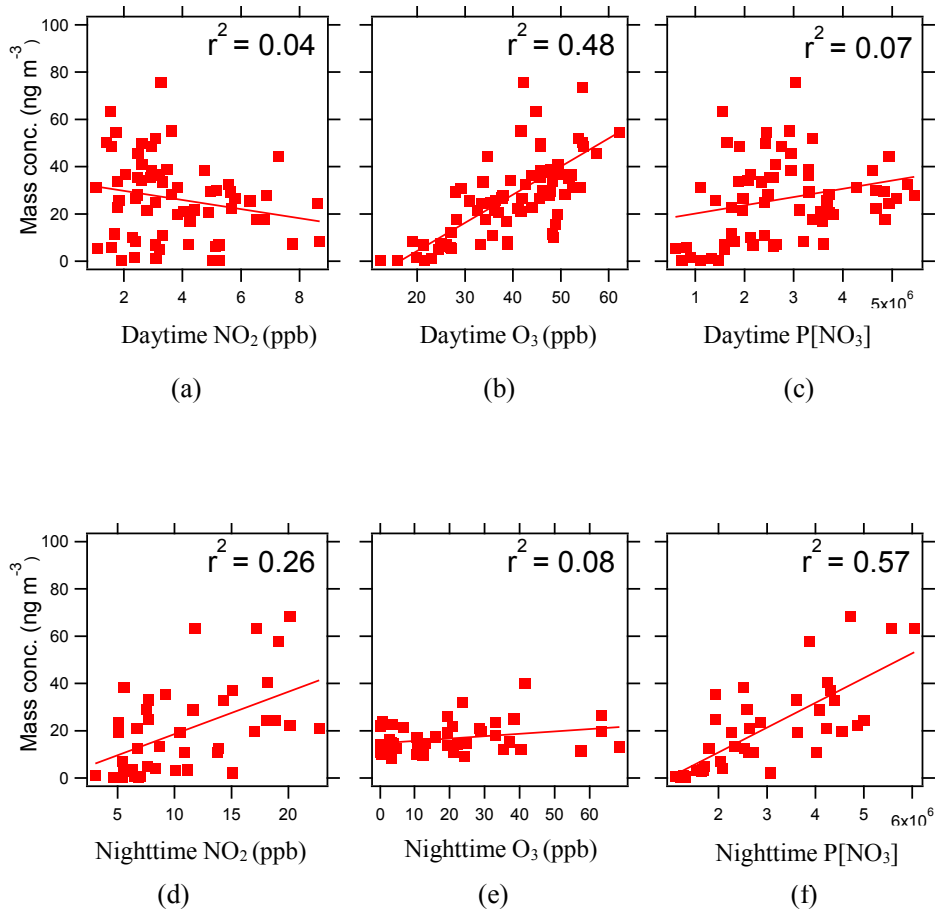

Figure 3. Correlation of MAE-derived SOA tracers with (a) daytime NO_2, (b) daytime O_3, (c) daytime $P[NO_3]$, (d) nighttime NO_2, (e) nighttime O_3, and (f) nighttime $P[NO_3]$. Nighttime $P[NO_3]$ correlation suggests that NO_3 radical chemistry could explain some fraction of the MAE/HMML-derived SOA tracer concentrations.

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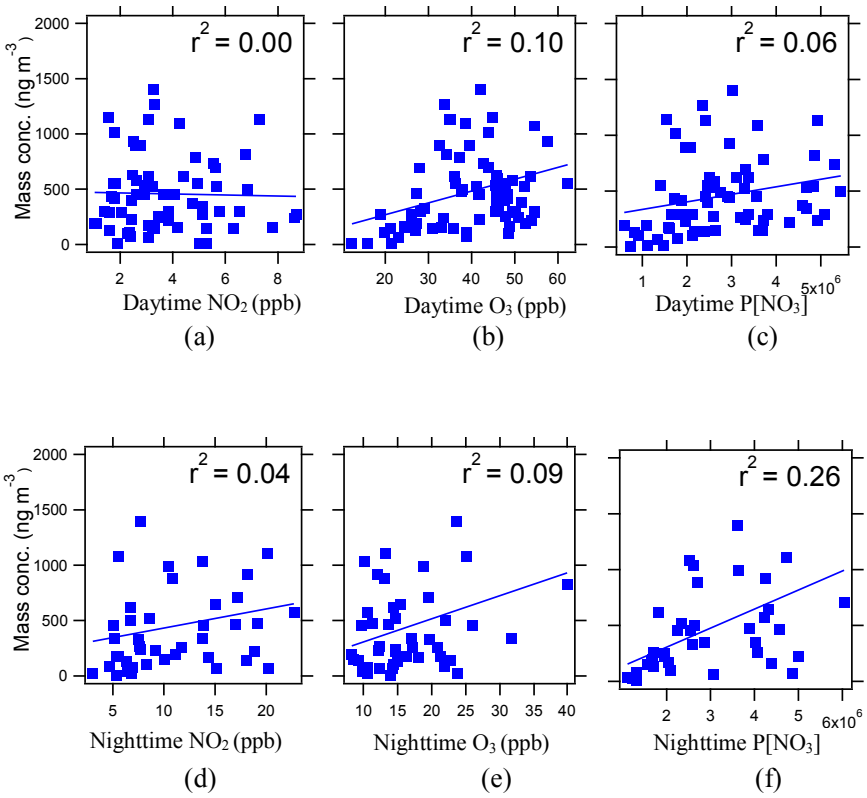

Figure 4. Correlation of IEPOX-derived SOA tracers with (a) daytime NO_2, (b) daytime O_3 , (c) daytime $P[NO_3]$, (d) nighttime NO_2, (e) nighttime O_3, and (f) nighttime $P[NO_3]$. Nighttime $P[NO_3]$ correlation suggests that NO_3 radical chemistry could explain some fraction of the IEPOX-derived SOA tracer concentrations.