

1 Light-induced protein nitration and degradation with HONO 2 emission

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15 **Abstract.** Proteins can be nitrated by air pollutants (NO₂), enhancing their allergenic potential. This work provides
16 insight into protein nitration and subsequent decomposition in the presence of solar radiation. We also investigated
17 light-induced formation of nitrous acid (HONO) from protein surfaces that were nitrated either online with
18 instantaneous gas phase exposure to NO₂ or offline by an efficient nitration agent (tetranitromethane, TNM). Bovine
19 serum albumin (BSA) and ovalbumin (OVA) were used as model substances for proteins. Nitration degrees of about
20 1% were derived applying NO₂ concentrations of 100 ppb under VIS/UV illuminated condition, while simultaneous
21 decomposition of (nitrated) proteins was also found during long-term (20h) irradiation exposure. Measurements of
22 gas exchange on TNM-nitrated proteins revealed that HONO can be formed and released even without contribution
23 of instantaneous heterogeneous NO₂ conversion. NO₂ exposure was found to increase HONO emissions substantially.
24 In particular, a strong dependence of HONO emissions on light intensity, relative humidity (RH), NO₂
25 concentrations and the applied coating thickness were found. The 20 hours long-term studies revealed sustained
26 HONO formation, even if concentrations of the intact (nitrated) proteins were too low to be detected after the gas
27 exchange measurements. A reaction mechanism for the NO₂ conversion based on the Langmuir-Hinshelwood
28 kinetics is proposed.

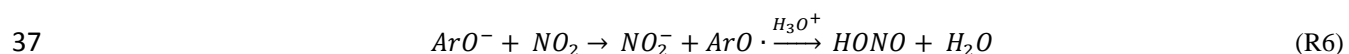
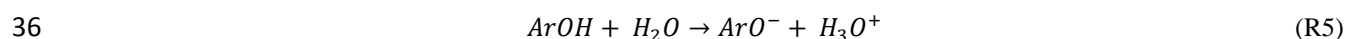
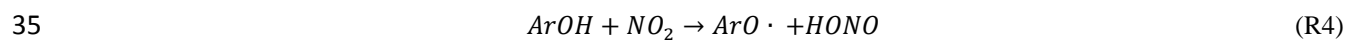
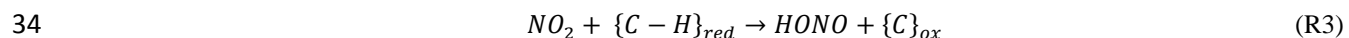
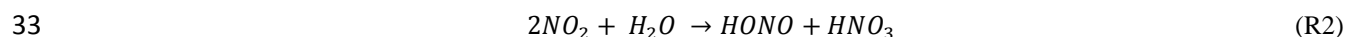
29 1 Introduction

30 Primary biological aerosols (PBA), or bioaerosols, including proteins, from different sources and with distinct
31 properties, are known to influence atmospheric cloud microphysics and public health (Lang-Yona et al., 2016;
32 D'Amato et al., 2007; Pummer et al., 2015). Bioaerosols represent a diverse subset of atmospheric particulate matter
33 that is directly emitted in form of active or dead organisms, or fragments, like bacteria, fungal spores, pollens,
34 viruses, and plant debris. Proteins are found ubiquitously in the atmosphere as part of these airborne, typically
35 coarse-size biological particles (diameter > 2.5 μm), but also in fine particulate matter (diameter < 2.5 μm)
36 associated with a host of different constituents such as polymers derived from biomaterials and proteins dissolved in

1 hydrometeors, mixed with fine dust and other particles (Miguel et al. 1999; Riediker et al., 2000; Zhang and
 2 Anastasio, 2003). Proteins contribute up to 5% of particle mass in airborne particles (Franze et al., 2003a; Staton et
 3 al., 2015; Menetrez et al., 2007) and are also found at surfaces of soils and plants. Proteins can be nitrated and are
 4 then likely to enhance allergic responses (Gruijthuisen et al., 2006). Nitrogen dioxide ($\bullet\text{NO}_2$) has emerged as an
 5 important biological reactant and has been shown to be capable of electron (or H atom) abstraction from the amino
 6 acid tyrosine (Tyr) to form TyrO \bullet in aqueous solutions (tyrosine phenoxyl radical, also called tyrosyl radical; Prütz et
 7 al. 1984 and 1985; Alfassi 1987; Houée-Lévin et al., 2015), which subsequently can be nitrated by a second NO_2
 8 molecule. Shiraiwa et al. (2012) observed nitration of protein aerosol, but not solely with NO_2 in the gasphase, and
 9 demonstrated that simultaneous O_3 exposure of airborne proteins in dark conditions can significantly enhance NO_2
 10 uptake and consequent protein nitration (3-nitrotyrosine formation) by way of direct O_3 -mediated formation of the
 11 TyrO \bullet intermediate. A connection between increased allergic diseases and elevated environmental pollution,
 12 especially traffic-related air pollution has been proposed (Ring et al., 2001). Tyrosine is one of the photosensitive
 13 amino acids and it is subject of direct and indirect photo-degradation under solar-simulated conditions (Boreen, et al.,
 14 2008), especially mediated by both UV-B (λ 280–320 nm) and UV-A (λ 320–400 nm) radiation (Houee-Levin et al.,
 15 2015; Bensasson et al., 1993). Direct light absorption or absorption by adjacent endogenous or exogenous
 16 chromophores and subsequent energy transfer results in an electronically-excited state of tyrosine (for details see
 17 Houée-Lévin et al. 2015 and references therein). If the triplet state of tyrosine is generated, it can undergo electron
 18 transfer reactions and deprotonation to yield TyrO \bullet (Fig.1, Bensasson 1993; Davies 1991; Berto et al., 2016).
 19 Regardless of how the tyrosyl radical is generated, it can be nitrated by reaction with NO_2 , but also hydroxylated or
 20 dimerized (Shiraiwa et al., 2012; Reinmuth-Selzle et al., 2014; Kampf et al., 2015).
 21 With respect to atmospheric chemistry, Bejan et al. (2006) have shown that photolysis of ortho-nitrophenols (as is
 22 the case for 3-nitrotyrosine) can generate nitrous acid (HONO). HONO is of great interest for atmospheric
 23 composition, as its photolysis forms OH radicals, being the key oxidant for degradation of most air pollutants in the
 24 troposphere (Levy, 1971). In the lower atmosphere, up to 30% of the primary OH radical production can be
 25 attributed to photolysis of HONO, especially during the early morning when other photochemical OH sources are
 26 still small (R1, Kleffmann et al., 2005; Alicke et al., 2002; Ren et al., 2006; Su et al., 2008; Meusel et al. 2016).



28 HONO can be directly emitted by combustion of fossil fuels (Kurtenbach et al., 2001) or formed by gas phase
 29 reactions of NO and OH (the backwards reaction of R1) and heterogeneous reactions of NO_2 on wet surfaces
 30 according to R2. On carbonaceous surfaces (soot, phenolic compounds) HONO is formed via electron or H transfer
 31 reactions (R3 and R4-R6; Kalberer et al., 1999; Kleffmann et al., 1999; Gutzwiller et al., 2002; Aubin and Abbatt
 32 2007; Han et al., 2013; Arens et al., 2001, 2002; Ammann et al., 1998, 2005).



1 Previous atmospheric measurements and modeling studies have shown unexpected high HONO concentrations
2 during daytime, which can also contribute to aerosol formation through enhanced oxidation of precursor gases
3 (Elshorbany et al., 2014). Measured mixing ratios are typically about one order of magnitude higher than simulated
4 ones, and an additional source of 200-800 ppt h⁻¹ would be required to explain observed mixing ratios (Kleffmann et
5 al., 2005; Acker et al., 2006; Sörgel et al., 2011; Li et al., 2012; Su et al., 2008; Elshorbany et al., 2012; Meusel et al.,
6 2016) indicating that estimates of daytime HONO sources are still under debate. It was suggested that HONO arises
7 from the photolysis of nitric acid and nitrate or by heterogeneous photochemistry of NO₂ on organic substrates and
8 soot (Zhou et al., 2001; 2002 and 2003; Villena et al., 2011; Ramazan et al., 2004; George et al., 2005; Sosedova et
9 al., 2011; Monge et al., 2010; Han et al., 2016). Stemmler et al. (2006, 2007) found HONO formation on light-
10 activated humic acid, and field studies showed that HONO formation correlates with aerosol surface area, NO₂ and
11 solar radiation (Su et al., 2008; Reisinger, 2000; Costabile et al., 2010; Wong et al., 2012; Sörgel et al., 2015) and is
12 increased during foggy periods (Notholt et al., 1992). Another proposed source of HONO is the soil, where it has
13 been found to be co-emitted with NO by soil biological activities (Oswald et al., 2013; Su et al., 2011; Weber et al.,
14 2015).

15 In view of light-induced nitration of proteins and HONO formation by photolysis of nitro-phenols, light-enhanced
16 production of HONO on protein surfaces can be anticipated, which, to the best of our knowledge, has not been
17 studied before.

18 This work aims at providing insight into protein nitration, the atmospheric stability of the nitrated protein, and
19 respective formation of HONO from protein surfaces that were nitrated either offline in liquid phase prior to the gas
20 exchange measurements, or online with instantaneous gas phase exposure to NO₂, with particular emphasis on
21 environmental parameters like light intensity, relative humidity (RH) und NO₂ concentrations. Bovine serum
22 albumin (BSA), a globular protein with a molecular mass of 66.5 kDa and 21 tyrosine residues per molecule, was
23 chosen as a well-defined model substance for proteins. Nitrated ovalbumin (OVA) was used to study the light-
24 induced degradation of proteins that were nitrated prior to gas exchange measurements. This well-studied protein has
25 a molecular mass of 45 kDa and 10 tyrosine residues per molecule.

26 **2 Materials and methods**

27 **2.1 Protein preparation and analysis**

28 BSA (albumin from bovine serum, Cohn V fraction, lyophilized powder, ≥ 96%; Sigma Aldrich, St. Louis, Missouri,
29 USA) or nitrated OVA (ovalbumin) was solved in pure water (18.2MΩ cm) and coated onto the glass tube.

30 The nitration of ovalbumin (OVA) was described previously (Yang et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2011). Briefly, OVA
31 (Grade V, A5503-5G, Sigma Aldrich, Germany) was dissolved in phosphate buffered saline PBS (P4417-50TAB,
32 Sigma Aldrich, Germany) to a concentration of 10 mg/ml. 50 µl tetranitromethane TNM (T25003-5G, Sigma
33 Aldrich, Germany) dissolved in methanol 4% (v/v) were added to a 2.5 ml aliquot of the OVA solution and stirred
34 for 180 min at room temperature. Please note that TNM is toxic if swallowed, can cause skin, eye and respiration
35 irritation, is suspected to cause cancer and causes fire or explosion. Size exclusion chromatography columns (PD-10

1 Sephadex G-25 M, 17-0851-01, GE Healthcare, Germany) were used for clean-up. The eluate was dried in a freeze
2 dryer and stored in a refrigerator at 4°C.

3 After the flow-tube-experiments (see below) the proteins were extracted with water from the tube and analyzed with
4 liquid chromatography (HPLC-DAD; Agilent Technologies 1200 series) according to Selzle et al. (2013). This
5 method provides a straightforward and efficient way to determine the nitration of proteins. Briefly, a monomerically
6 bound C18 column (Vydac 238TP, 250 mm×2.1 mm inner diameter, 5 µm particle size; Grace Vydac, Alltech) was
7 used for chromatographic separation. Eluents were 0.1 % (v/v) trifluoroacetic acid in water (LiChrosolv) (eluent A)
8 and acetonitrile (ROTISOLV HPLC Gradient Grade, Carl Roth GmbH + Co. KG, Germany) (eluent B). Gradient
9 elution was performed at a flow rate of 200 µL/min. ChemStation software (Rev. B.03.01, Agilent) was used for
10 system control and data analysis. For each chromatographic run, the solvent gradient started at 3% B followed by a
11 linear gradient to 90% B within 15 min, flushing back to 3% B within 0.2 min, and maintaining 3% B for additional
12 2.8 min. Column re-equilibration time was 5 min before the next run. Absorbance was monitored at wavelengths of
13 280 (tyrosine) and 357 nm (nitrotyrosine). The sample injection volume was 10-30 µL. Each chromatographic run
14 was repeated three times. The protein nitration degree, which is defined as the ratio of nitrated tyrosine to all tyrosine
15 residues, was determined by the method of Selzle et al. (2013). Native and un-treated BSA did not show any degree
16 of nitration.

17 **2.2 Coated-wall flow tube system**

18 Figure 2 shows a flowchart of the set-up of the experiment. NO₂ was provided in a gas bottle (1 ppm in N₂, Carbagas
19 AG, Grümligen, Switzerland). NO₂ was further diluted (mass flow controller, MFC3) with humidified pure nitrogen
20 to achieve NO₂ mixing ratios between 20 and 100 ppb. Impurities of HONO in the NO₂-gas cylinder were removed
21 by means of a HONO scrubber. The Na₂CO₃ trap was prepared by soaking 4mm firebrick in a saturated Na₂CO₃ in
22 50% ethanol / water solution and drying for 24 hours. The impregnated firebrick granules were put into a 0.8 cm
23 inner diameter and 15 cm long glass tube, which was closed by quartz wool plugs on both sides. A constant total
24 flow (1400 mL min⁻¹) was provided by means of another N₂ mass flow controller (MFC2) that compensated for
25 changes in NO₂ addition. Different fractions of total surface areas (50, 70 and 100%) of the reaction tube (50 cm x
26 0.81 cm i.d.) were coated with 2 mg BSA or nitrated OVA, respectively. Therefore 2 mg protein was dissolved in
27 600 µL pure water, injected into the tube and then gently dried in a low humidity N₂ flow (RH ~ 30-40%) with
28 continuous rotation of the tube. The coated reaction tube was exposed to the generated gas mixture and irradiated
29 with either (i) 1, 3 or 7 VIS lights (400-700 nm; L 15 W/954, lumilux de luxe daylight, Osram, Augsburg, Germany)
30 which is 0, 23, 69 or 161 W m⁻² respectively or (ii) 4 VIS and 3 UV lights (340-400 nm; UV-A, TL-D 15 W/10,
31 Philips, Hamburg, Germany).

32 An overview of the experiments performed during this study is shown in table 1. Light induced decomposition of
33 nitrated proteins was studied on OVA. Instantaneous NO₂ transformation and its light- and RH- dependence on
34 heterogeneous HONO formation were studied on BSA in short-term experiments. Extended studies on BSA were
35 performed to explore the persistence of the surface reactivity and respective catalytic effects.

36 A commercial long path absorption photometry instrument (LOPAP, QUMA) was used for HONO analysis. The
37 measurement technique was introduced by Heland et al. (2001). This wet chemical analytical method has an

1 unmatched low detection limit of 3-5 ppt with high HONO collection efficiency ($\geq 99\%$). HONO is continuously
2 trapped in a stripping coil flushed with an acidic solution of sulfanilamide. In a second reaction with n-(1-
3 naphthyl)ethylenediamine-dihydrochloride an azo dye is formed, whose concentration is determined by absorption
4 photometry in a long Teflon tubing. LOPAP has two stripping coils in series to reduce known interferences. In the
5 first stripping coil HONO is quantitatively collected. Due to the acidic stripping solution, interfering species are
6 collected less efficiently but in both channels. The true concentration of HONO is obtained by subtracting the
7 interferences quantified in the second channel from the total signal obtained in the first channel. The accuracy of the
8 HONO measurements was 10%, based on the uncertainties of liquid and gas flow, concentration of calibration
9 standard and regression of calibration.

10 The reagents were all high-purity-grade chemicals, i.e., hydrochloric acid (37 %, ACS reagent, Sigma Aldrich, St.
11 Louis, Missouri, USA), sulfanilamide (for analysis, $>99\%$; Sigma Aldrich) and N-(1-naphthyl)-ethylenediamine
12 dihydrochloride ($>98\%$; ACS reagent, Fluka by Sigma Aldrich). For calibration Titrisol® 1000 mg NO_2^- (NaNO_2 in
13 H_2O ; Merck) was diluted to 0.001 mg/L NO_2^- . For preparation of all solutions and for cleaning of the absorption
14 tubes 18M Ω H_2O was used.

15 NO_x concentrations were analyzed by means of a commercial chemiluminescence detector from EcoPhysics (CLD
16 77 AM, Duernten, Switzerland).

17 **3 Results and discussion**

18 **3.1 BSA nitration and degradation**

19 Nitrated proteins can trigger allergic response. The nitration of proteins can be enhanced by O_3 activation (in the
20 dark). In the atmospheric environment, about half the time sunlight is present. What happens with irradiated proteins
21 when exposed to NO_2 ? Can they be nitrated efficiently? To investigate the degree of protein nitration under
22 illuminated conditions, BSA coated on the reaction tube ($17.5 \mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$) was exposed to 7 VIS lamps (40% of a clear
23 sky irradiance for a solar zenith of 48° ; Stemmler et al., 2006) and 100 ppb NO_2 at 70% RH. After 20 hours the BSA
24 nitration degree (ND, concentration of nitrated tyrosine residues divided by the total concentration of tyrosine
25 residues) investigated by means of the HPLC-DAD method was $(1.0 \pm 0.1)\%$, significantly higher than the ND of
26 untreated BSA (0%). Introducing UV radiation (4 VIS plus 3 UV lamps) resulted in a slightly higher ND of $(1.1 \pm$
27 $0.1)\%$. Note that no intact protein (nitrated and non-nitrated) could be detected by HPLC-DAD after another 20
28 hours of irradiation without NO_2 , indicating light induced decomposition of proteins. However, the applied HPLC-
29 DAD technique only detects (nitro-)tyrosine residues in proteins, and does not provide information about protein
30 fragments or single nitrated or non-nitrated tyrosine residues. Hence, proteins might have been decomposed while
31 tyrosine remains in its nitrated form, not detectable by our analysis method. Similarly, proteins (here: OVA) that
32 were nitrated with TNM in aqueous phase prior to coating ($21.5 \mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$) to an extent of 12.5% also decomposed
33 when illuminated about 6 hours (1-7 VIS lights; with and without 20 ppb NO_2). Thus the nitration of proteins by
34 light and NO_2 was confirmed, but with simultaneous gradual decomposition of the proteins. Effects of UV irradiation
35 (240-340 nm) on proteins containing aromatic amino acids were reviewed previously (Neves-Peterson et al., 2012).
36 It was shown that triplet state tryptophan and tyrosine can transfer electron to a nearby disulfide bridge to form the

1 tryptophan and tyrosine radical. The disulfide bridge could break leading to conformational changes in the protein
2 but not necessarily resulting in inactivation of the protein. In strong UV light (≈ 200 nm) the peptide bond could also
3 break (Nikogosyan and Görner, 1999).

4 Franze et al. (2005) analyzed a variety of natural samples (road dust, window dust and particulate matter PM_{2.5})
5 collected in the metropolitan area of Munich, containing 0.08-21 g/kg proteins, and revealed equivalent degrees of
6 nitration (EDN, concentration of nitrated protein divided by concentration of all proteins) between 0.01 and 0.1%
7 only. Such low nitration degree is in line with light induced decomposition of (nitrated) proteins. On the other hand,
8 an EDN up to 10% (average 5%) was found for BSA and birch pollen extract (BPE) exposed to Munich ambient air
9 for two weeks under dark conditions, with daily mean NO₂ (O₃) concentration of 17 to 50 ppb (7 to 43 ppb) in the
10 same study, possibly suggesting the deficiency of decomposition without being irradiated. BSA and OVA loaded on
11 syringe-filters and exposed to 200 ppb NO₂/O₃ for 6 days under dark conditions were nitrated to 6 and 8%,
12 respectively (Yang et al., 2010). Reinmuth-Selzle et al. (2014) found similar ND for major birch pollen allergen Bet
13 v 1 loaded on syringe-filters exposed to 80-470 ppb NO₂ and O₃. When exposed for 3-72 hours to NO₂/O₃ at RH <
14 92% the ND was 2-4%, while at condensing conditions (RH > 98%) the ND increased to 6% after less than one day
15 (19 hours). The ND of Bet v 1 was considerably increased to 22% for proteins solved in the aqueous phase (0.16 mg
16 mL⁻¹) when bubbling with a 120 ppb NO₂/O₃ gas mixture for a similar period of time (17 hours). Shiraiwa et al.
17 (2012) performed kinetic modelling and found that maximum 30% (conservative upper limit) of N-uptake on BSA
18 could be explained by NO₃ or N₂O₅, which are generated by the reaction of NO₂ and O₃, while overall nitration was
19 governed by an indirect mechanism in which a radical intermediate was formed by the reaction of BSA with ozone,
20 which then reacted with NO₂. On NaCl surface N-uptake was dominated by NO₃ and N₂O₅. Furthermore, NO₃
21 radicals, which in this study could be formed by photolysis of NO₂ (>410 nm, disproportionation of excited NO₂),
22 are not stable under the light conditions applied (400-700 nm) (Johnston et al., 1996). Therefore, in the present study
23 reactions with NO₃ were neglected. Photolysis of NO₂ forming NO (< 400 nm) can also be neglected (Gardner et al.,
24 1987; Roehl et al., 1994). A photolysis frequency for NO₂ of up to $5 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$ under similar experimental light
25 conditions was determined by Stemmler et al., 2007. Other nitration methods, investigated by Reinmuth-Selzle et al.
26 (2014), e.g., nitration of Bet v 1 with peroxyxynitrite (ONOO⁻, formed by reaction of NO with O₂⁻) or TNM lead to ND
27 between 10 and 72% depending on reaction time, reagent concentration and temperature. Similarly, high NDs of 45-
28 50% were obtained by aqueous phase TNM nitration of BSA and OVA by Yang et al. (2010).

29 **3.2 HONO formation**

30 **3.2.1 HONO formation from nitrated proteins**

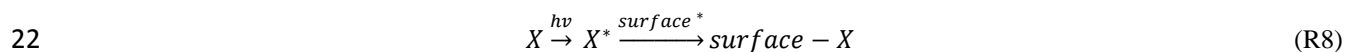
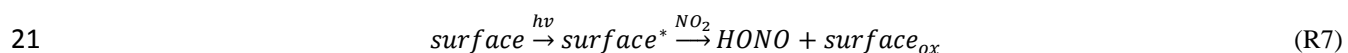
31 To study HONO emission from nitrated proteins, OVA was nitrated with TNM (see section 2.1) in liquid phase. The
32 nitrated OVA (2 mg; ND = 12.5%) was coated onto the reaction tube and exposed to VIS lights under either pure
33 nitrogen flow or 20 ppb NO₂ gas. Strong HONO emissions were found. A high correlation between HONO emission
34 and light intensity was observed (50% RH; Fig. 3). Initially, we did not apply NO₂. Thus the observed HONO
35 formation (up to 950 ppt) originated from decomposing nitrated proteins rather than from heterogeneous conversion
36 of NO₂. However, when exposed to 20 ppb of NO₂ in dark conditions, HONO formation increased 4-fold (50 to 200
37 ppt), and about 2-fold with 7 VIS lamps turned on (950 to 1800 ppt). After 7 hours of flow tube experiments (4.5 h

1 irradiation with varying light intensities (0-1-3-7 lights) + 2.5 h irradiation/20 ppb NO₂ (7-3-0- lights)), no intact
2 protein was found according to the analysis of HPLC-DAD.

3 As proteins can efficiently be nitrated by O₃ and NO₂ in polluted air (Franze et al., 2005, Shiraiwa et al., 2012;
4 Reinmuth-Selzle et al. 2014), the emission of HONO from light-induced decomposing nitrated proteins could play an
5 important role in the HONO budget. As proteins are nitrated at their tyrosine residues (at the ortho position to the OH
6 group on the aromatic ring) the underlying mechanism of this HONO formation should be very similar to the HONO
7 formation by photolysis of ortho-nitrophenols described by Bejan et al. (2006). This starts with a photo-induced
8 hydrogen transfer from the OH group to the vicinal NO₂ group (Fig. 1), which leads to an excited intermediate from
9 which HONO is eliminated subsequently.

10 3.2.2 Light dependency

11 To investigate HONO formation on unmodified BSA coating (31.4 μg cm⁻²) in dependence on light conditions, the
12 radiation intensity (number of VIS lamps) was changed under otherwise constant conditions of exposure at 20 ppb
13 NO₂ and 50% RH. Decreasing light intensity revealed a linearly decreasing trend in HONO formation from about
14 1000 ppt to 140 ppt (red symbols in Fig. 4). After re-illumination to the initial high light intensity the HONO
15 formation was reduced by 32% (blue symbol in Fig. 4). Stemmler et al. (2006) and Sosedova et al. (2011) also
16 observed a similar saturation of HONO formation on humic acid, tannic and gentisic acid at higher light intensities.
17 Stemmler et al. (2006) argued that surface sites activated for NO₂ heterogeneous conversion by light (R3) would
18 become de-activated by competition with photo-induced oxidants (X*, R7-8), e.g., primary chromophores or electron
19 donors are oxidized by surface*, which is in line with the observed decomposition of the native protein presented
20 above.



23 In other studies the NO₂ uptake coefficient on soot, mineral dust, humic acid and other solid organic compounds
24 similarly increased at increasing light intensities (George et al., 2005; Stemmler et al., 2007; Ndour et al., 2008;
25 Monge et al., 2010; Han et al., 2016; Brigante et al., 2008). Note that the HONO yield (ratio of HONO formed to
26 NO₂ lost) was found to be constant at light intensities in the range of 60-200 W m⁻² in the work of Han et al. (2016),
27 but have shown a linear dependence on light for nitrated phenols (Bejan et al., 2006).

28 3.2.3 NO₂ dependency

29 At about 50% relative humidity and high illumination intensities (7 VIS lamps, ~161 W m⁻²), heterogeneous
30 formation of HONO strongly correlated with the applied NO₂ concentration (Fig. 5). On a BSA surface of about 16.1
31 μg cm⁻² (Tab. 1) the produced HONO concentration increased from 56 ppt at 20 ppb NO₂ to 160 ppt at 100 ppb NO₂.
32 Only at a threshold NO₂ level well above those typically observed in natural environments (>>150 ppb) this
33 increasing trend slowed down to some extent, indicative of saturation of active surface sites. A similar pattern of
34 NO₂ dependence was also observed for light-induced HONO formation from humic acid (Stemmler et al., 2006) and
35 phenolic compounds like gentisic and tannic acid (Sosedova et al., 2011) or polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons

1 (Brigante et al., 2008), and for heterogeneous NO₂ conversion on soot under dark conditions (Stadler and Rossi,
2 2000; Salgado and Rossi, 2002; Arens et al., 2001).
3 For better comparison of the different studies the HONO concentration measured at different NO₂ concentrations
4 was scaled to the HONO concentration at 20 ppb NO₂ ($[\text{HONO}]_{\text{NO}_2}/[\text{HONO}]_{\text{NO}_2=20\text{ppb}}$) in Fig. 5, as variable absolute
5 amounts of HONO were found in different studies and matrices. A cease of the NO₂ dependency on heterogeneous
6 HONO formation can be assessed for most of the studies at NO₂ concentrations ≥ 200 ppb. A very similar correlation
7 (up to 40 ppb NO₂) was observed when NO₂ was applied additionally during the gas phase photolysis of nitrophenols
8 (fig. 5; Bejan et al., 2006). Even though the matrix (nitrophenols) and conditions (illuminated) of the latter is
9 comparable to the experiment presented here, for BSA no clear indication of saturation was found up to 160 ppb of
10 NO₂, pointing to a highly reactive surface of BSA for NO₂ under illuminated conditions. As shown with R7 and R8,
11 the concentration dependence depends on the competing channel R8, therefore, this is strongly matrix dependent,
12 both in terms of chemical and physical properties.

13 3.2.4 Impact of coating thickness

14 Strong differences in HONO concentrations were found for experiments with different coating thicknesses applying
15 otherwise similar conditions (20 ppb of NO₂, 7 VIS lamps and 50% RH). While only 55 ppt of HONO concentration
16 was observed for a shallow homogeneous coating of 16.1 $\mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$ (217.6 nm thickness, see below) applied on the
17 whole length of the tube, up to 2 ppb were found for a thick (more uneven) coating of 31.44 $\mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$ (435.2 nm
18 thickness) covering only 50% of the tube (Fig. 6). Potential explanations are that thicker coating leads to (1) more
19 bulk reactions producing HONO, or (2) different morphologies, e.g., higher effective reaction surfaces. Exposing
20 (20%) different coated surface areas in the flow tube, potentially introduced bias comparing different data sets.
21 Emitted HONO might be re-adsorbed differently by proteins and glass surface. However, as the protein is slightly
22 acidic, a low uptake efficiency of HONO by BSA can be anticipated, which should not differ too much from the un-
23 covered glass tube surface (Syomin and Finlayson-Pitts, 2003). Accordingly, NO₂ uptake on glass is assumed to be
24 significantly lower than on proteins. A strong increase in NO₂ uptake coefficients with increasing coating thickness
25 was also observed for humic acid coatings (Han et al., 2016). However, they found an upper threshold value of 2 μg
26 cm^{-2} of cover load (20 nm absolute thickness, assuming a humic acid density of 1 g cm^{-3}), above which uptake
27 coefficients were found to be constant. The authors also proposed that NO₂ can diffuse deeper into the coating and
28 below 2 $\mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$ the full cover depth would react with NO₂, respectively.

29 For proteins the number of molecules per monolayer depends on their orientation and respective layer thickness can
30 vary accordingly. One (dry, crystalline) BSA molecule has a volume of about 154 nm^3 (Bujacz, 2012). In a flat
31 orientation (4.4 nm layer height, and a projecting area of 35 nm^2 per molecule) 3.64×10^{14} molecules (40.5 μg ; 0.32
32 $\mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$) of BSA are needed to form one complete monolayer in the flow tube (i.d. of 0.81 cm, 50 cm length, 100%
33 surface coating). Hence, the thinnest BSA coating applied in the experiment (16.1 $\mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$) would consist of 50
34 monolayers revealing a total coating thickness of 217.6 nm, and the thickest BSA coating (31 $\mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$) would have
35 99 monolayers and an absolute thickness of 435.1 nm. At the other extreme (non-flat) orientation, more BSA
36 molecules are needed to sustain one monolayer. With 21.7 nm^2 of projected area of one molecule and 7.1 nm
37 monolayer height, 5.86×10^{14} molecules of BSA are needed to form one complete monolayer in the flow tube. The

1 coatings would consist of between 31 (thinnest) and 61 (thickest) monolayers of BSA. With a flat orientation 1-2%
2 (number or weight) of BSA molecules would build the uppermost surface monolayer, whereas in an upright
3 molecule orientation 1.6-3.3% would be in direct contact with surface ambient air.
4 In the crystalline form several molecules of water stick tightly to BSA. As BSA is highly hygroscopic, more water
5 molecules are adsorbed at higher relative humidity. At 35% RH BSA is deliquesced (Mikhailov et al., 2004).
6 Therefore the above described number of monolayers and the absolute layer thickness are a lower bound estimate.
7 In conclusion, the thickness dependence on HONO formation is extremely complex. Activation and photolysis of
8 nitrated Tyr occurs throughout the BSA layer. The heterogeneous reaction of NO₂ may or may be not limited to the
9 surface depending on solubility and diffusivity of NO₂. Also the release of HONO may be limited by diffusion. The
10 observed dependence on the coating thickness suggests the involvement of the bulk reactions, but the reactions can
11 happen in both, surface and bulk phase.

12 **3.2.5 RH dependency**

13 The dependence of HONO emission on relative humidity is shown in Fig. 7. Here about 25 ppb of NO₂ was applied
14 to a (not nitrated) BSA coated flow tube (17.5 μg cm⁻²) both in dark and illuminated conditions (7 VIS lights).
15 HONO formation scaled with relative humidity. Kleffmann et al. (1999) proposed that higher humidity inhibits the
16 self-reaction of HONO ($2 \text{HONO}_{(s,g)} \rightarrow \text{NO}_2 + \text{NO} + \text{H}_2\text{O}$), which leads to higher HONO yield from heterogeneous
17 NO₂ conversion.

18 The RH dependence of HONO formation on proteins is different to other surfaces. For example, no influence of RH
19 has been observed for dark heterogeneous HONO formation on soot particles sampled on filters (Arens et al., 2001).
20 No impact of humidity on NO₂ uptake coefficients on pyrene was detected (Brigante et al., 2008). For HONO
21 formation on tannic acid coatings (both at dark and irradiated conditions) a linear but relatively weak dependence has
22 been reported between 10 and 60% RH, while below 10% and above 60% RH the correlation between HONO
23 formation and RH was much stronger (Sosedova et al., 2011). Similar results were obtained for anthrabin coatings
24 by Arens et al. (2002). This type of dependence of HONO formation on phenolic surfaces on RH equals the HONO
25 formation on glass, following the BET water uptake isotherm of water on polar surfaces (Finnlayson-Pitts et al.,
26 2003; Summer et al., 2004). For humic acid surfaces the NO₂ uptake coefficients also weakly increased below 20%
27 RH and were found to be constant between 20 and 60% (Stemmler et al., 2007).

28 While on solid matter chemical reactions are essentially confined to the surface rather than in the bulk, proteins can
29 adopt an amorphous solid or semisolid state, influencing the rate of heterogeneous reactions and multiphase
30 processes. Molecular diffusion in the non-solid phase affects the gas uptake and respective chemical transformation.
31 Shiraiwa et al. (2011) could show that the ozonolysis of amorphous protein is kinetically limited by bulk diffusion.
32 The reactive gas uptake exhibits a pronounced increase with relative humidity, which can be explained by a decrease
33 of viscosity and increase of diffusivity, as the uptake of water transforms the amorphous organic matrix from a
34 glassy to a semisolid state (moisture-induced phase transition). The viscosity and diffusivity of proteins depend
35 strongly on the ambient relative humidity because water can act as a plasticizer and increase the mobility of the
36 protein matrix (for details see Shiraiwa et al. 2011 and references therein). Shiraiwa et al. (2011) further showed that
37 the BSA phase changes from solid through semisolid to viscous liquid as RH increases, while trace gas diffusion

1 coefficients increased about 10 orders of magnitude. This way, characteristic times for heterogeneous reaction rates
2 can decrease from seconds to days as the rate of diffusion in semisolid phases can decrease by multiple orders of
3 magnitude in response to both low temperature (not investigated in here) and/or low relative humidity. Accordingly,
4 we propose that HONO formation rate depends on the condensed phase diffusion coefficients of NO₂ diffusing into
5 the protein bulk, HONO released from the bulk and mobility of excited intermediates.

6 **3.2.6 Long term exposure with NO₂ under irradiated conditions**

7 To study long-term effects of irradiation on HONO formation from proteins, flow tubes were coated with 2 mg BSA
8 ($17.5 \pm 0.4 \mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$; 90% of total length) and exposed to 100 ppb NO₂, at 80% RH at illuminated conditions for a
9 time period of up to 20 hours (Fig. 8). Samples illuminated with VIS light only (red and orange colored lines in Fig.
10 8) showed persistent HONO emissions over the whole measurement period. For reasons unknown, and even though
11 the observed HONO concentrations were within the expected range with regard to the applied NO₂ concentrations,
12 RH and cover characteristics, one sample (orange in Fig. 8) showed a sharp short-term increase in the initial phase
13 followed by respective decrease, not in line with all other samples (compare Fig. 6). However, after 4 hours both VIS
14 irradiated samples showed virtually constant HONO emissions (-3.8 and $+1.6 \text{ ppt h}^{-1}$, respectively). The sample
15 illuminated with UV/VIS light (3 UV and 4 VIS lamps) showed a sustained sharp increase in the first 4 hours,
16 followed by persistent and very stable (decay rate as low as -0.5 ppt h^{-1}) HONO emissions at an about 3-fold higher
17 level compared to samples irradiated with VIS only. HONO formation by photolysis of (adsorbed) HNO₃ is assumed
18 to be insignificant in this study. With N₂ as carrier gas, gas phase reactions of NO₂ do not produce HNO₃. Even when
19 small amounts of HNO₃ would be formed by unknown heterogeneous reactions, photolysis of HNO₃ is only
20 significant at wavelengths < 350 nm, which is close to the lowest limit of the UV wavelength applied in this study.
21 Likewise, the respective photolysis frequency recently proposed by Laufs and Kleffmann (2016) of about 2.4×10^{-7}
22 s⁻¹ is very low.

23 Integrating the 20 hour experiments, 9.23×10^{15} (4.6 ppb*h, VISa), 1.53×10^{16} (7.7 ppb*h, VISb) and 4.01×10^{16} (20
24 ppb*h, UV/VIS) molecules of HONO were produced. This means between 7.7×10^{13} and 3.3×10^{14} molecules of
25 HONO per cm² of BSA geometric surface were formed. With respect to the different experimental conditions
26 concerning cover thickness, RH, and NO₂ concentrations, this is in a similar order of magnitude as found for humic
27 acid (2×10^{15} molecules cm⁻² in 13 hours) by Stemmler et al. (2006).

28 If BSA acts like a catalytic surface as in a Langmuir-Hinshelwood reaction each BSA molecule can react several
29 times with NO₂ to heterogeneously form HONO. As described in 3.1, BSA nitration is in competition with NO₂
30 surface reactions and only a limited number of NO₂ molecules could react with BSA forming HONO via nitration of
31 proteins and subsequent decomposition of nitrated proteins. A BSA molecule contains 21 tyrosine residues, which
32 could react with NO₂. But even a strong nitration agent such as TNM is not capable of nitrating all tyrosine residues
33 and a mean nitration degree of 19% was found (Peterson et al., 2001; Yang et al., 2010), i.e., 4 tyrosine residues of
34 one BSA molecule can be nitrated to form HONO. As 2 mg of BSA was applied for each flow tube coating, a total of
35 1.8×10^{16} protein molecules can be inferred. In 20 hours of irradiating with VIS light 13-22% of the accessible Tyr
36 residues (4 each BSA molecule) would have been reacted. Irradiating with additional UV lights at least 56% of the
37 tyrosine residues would have been nitrated and decomposed, respectively. But as NO₂ is a much weaker nitrating

1 agent and nitration of only one tyrosine residue is probable (ND of BSA with O₃/NO₂ 6%; Yang et al., 2010) up to
2 85% BSA molecules would have been reacted when irradiated with VIS lights, and even more HONO molecules as
3 coated BSA molecules would have been generated under UV/VIS light conditions. Other amino-acids of the protein
4 like tryptophan or phenylalanine might also be nitrated but without formation of HONO (Goeschen et al., 2011).
5 Hence, a contribution of heterogeneous conversion of NO₂ can be anticipated.

6 3.3 Kinetic studies

7 The experimental results (especially the stability over a long time) indicate that the formation of HONO from NO₂
8 on protein surfaces likely underlies the Langmuir-Hinshelwood mechanism in which the protein would act as a
9 catalytic surface (Fig. 9). The first step is the fast, reversible physical adsorption of NO₂ (k₁) and water followed by
10 the slow conversion into HONO.

11 There are two possible processes for the HONO formation. HONO is formed by heterogeneous NO₂ conversion (k₂)
12 but also via nitration and decomposition of nitrated proteins (k₄, k₅). The final step of the mechanism is the release of
13 the generated HONO into the air. Since proteins are in general slightly acidic, the desorption of HONO (k₃) should
14 be fairly fast. Pseudo-first order kinetics are assumed for the reaction of NO₂ to HONO (Stemmler et al. 2007) and
15 the reaction can be described as followed (eq.1).

$$16 \quad \frac{d[\text{HONO}]_g}{dt} = k_{\text{eff}} * [\text{NO}_2]_g \quad (\text{eq.1})$$

17 with k_{eff} the effective pseudo-first order rate constant (for more detailed information check the supplement).

18 In this study, neither HONO nor NO₂ photolysis is considered, as the overlap of the applied UV/VIS or VIS range
19 (340-700 nm or 400-700 nm) and the HONO and NO₂ photolysis spectrum (<400 nm) is low. Furthermore, the
20 applied light intensity is lower compared to clear sky irradiance and the respective UV light is partly absorbed by the
21 reaction tube although quartz glass was used (transmission ~ 90%) and the photolysis frequency would decrease
22 down to 10⁻⁴ s⁻¹. Hence, the photolysis is assumed to be not significant.

23 In the first 5-10 min of the long-term experiments HONO increased (Fig. 8 – zoomed in range). This slope was taken
24 as d[HONO]_g/dt in eq.6. Effective rate constants between 1.48x10⁻⁶ s⁻¹ (VIS a) and 7.40x10⁻⁶ s⁻¹ (VIS b) were
25 calculated. When irradiating with VIS light only, the concentration of HONO was either constant or decreased for 2
26 h after this first 10 min. When irradiating with additional UV light, the HONO signal showed an enhancement in two
27 steps. In the first 10 min it was strongly increasing (1327 ppt h⁻¹) and then in the next hour it increased less with 170
28 ppt h⁻¹ prior to stabilization. Therefore two rate constants of 4.10x10⁻⁶ s⁻¹ and 5.2x10⁻⁷ s⁻¹ were obtained, respectively.
29 Reactive uptake coefficients for NO₂ were calculated according to Li et al. (2016). For both irradiation types the
30 uptake coefficient γ was in the range of 7x10⁻⁶ at the very beginning of each experiment. After a few minutes they
31 decreased to a mean of 1x10⁻⁷. The calculated k_{eff} values and uptake coefficient are in the same range and match the
32 NO₂ uptake coefficients on irradiated humic acid surfaces (coatings) and aerosols obtained by Stemmler et al. (2006
33 and 2007) which were in between 2x10⁻⁶ and 2x10⁻⁵ (coatings) and 1x10⁻⁶ and 6x10⁻⁶ (aerosols), depending on NO₂
34 concentrations and light intensities. Similar NO₂ uptake coefficients on humic acid were observed by Han et al.
35 (2016). George et al. (2005) reported about a two-fold increased NO₂ uptake coefficients for irradiated organic
36 substrates (benzophenone, catechol, anthracene) compared to dark conditions, in the order of (0.6-5)x10⁻⁶. NO₂
37 uptake coefficients on gentisic acid and tannic acid were in between (3.3-4.8)x10⁻⁷ (Sosedova et al., 2011), still

1 being higher than on fresh soot or dust (about 1×10^{-7} ; Monge et al., 2010; Ndour et al., 2008). The NO_2 uptake
2 coefficients on BSA in presence of O_3 (1×10^{-5} , for 26 ppb NO_2 and 20 ppb O_3) published by Shiraiwa et al. (2012)
3 were somewhat higher than the values calculated here without O_3 but with light.
4 It was not possible to extract a set of parameters for a Langmuir Hinshelwood mechanism (like Langmuir
5 equilibrium constant, surface accommodation coefficient or second order rate constant) from the presented data. The
6 saturating behavior of photochemical HONO production may be due to either the adsorbed precursor on the surface
7 or due to a photochemical competition process, which also leads to a Lindemann-Hinshelwood type kinetic
8 expression (Minero, 1999).

9 **4. Summary and Conclusion**

10 Photochemical nitration of proteins accompanied by formation of HONO by (i) heterogeneous conversion of NO_2
11 and (ii) by decomposition of nitrated proteins was studied under relevant atmospheric conditions. NO_2 concentrations
12 ranged from 20 ppb (typical for urban regions in Europe and USA) up to 100 ppb (representative for highly polluted
13 industrial regions). The applied relative humidity of up to 80% and light intensities of up to 161 W/m^2 are common
14 on cloudy days. Under illuminated conditions very low nitration of proteins or even no native protein was observed,
15 indicating a light-induced decomposition of nitrated proteins to shorter peptides. These might still include nitrated
16 residues of which potential health effects are not yet known. An average effective rate constant of the total NO_2 -
17 HONO conversion of $3.3 \times 10^{-6} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (for about 120 cm^2 of protein surface, layer thickness 240 nm and a layer volume
18 of 0.003 cm^3 ; surface/volume ratio $\sim 40000 \text{ cm}^{-1}$) or $8.25 \times 10^{-8} \text{ s}^{-1}$ per cm^2 BSA layer was obtained. At 20 ppb NO_2
19 HONO formation of $19.8 \text{ ppb h}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-2}$ on a pure BSA surface could be estimated. While heterogeneous HONO
20 formation of BSA exposed to NO_2 revealed light saturation at intensities higher than 161 W m^{-2} , the HONO
21 formation from previously nitrated OVA was linearly increasing over the whole light intensity range investigated.
22 The latter let assume even higher HONO formation under sunny (clear sky) ambient atmospheric conditions. No data
23 about representative protein surface areas on atmospheric aerosol particles are available. However, the number and
24 mass concentration of primary biological aerosol particles such as pollen, fungal spores and bacteria, containing
25 proteins, are in the range of 10 - 10^4 m^{-3} and 10^{-3} - $1 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, respectively (Despres et al., 2012; Shiraiwa et al., 2012).
26 Typical aerosol surface concentrations in rural regions are about $100 \mu\text{m}^2 \text{ cm}^{-3}$. Stemmler et al. (2007) estimated a
27 HONO formation of 1.2 ppt h^{-1} on pure humic acid aerosols in environmental conditions. As NO_2 uptake coefficients
28 and HONO formation rates on proteins are similar to humic acid, but only about 5% of the aerosol mass can be
29 assumed to consist of proteins, it can be anticipated that HONO formation on aerosol is not a significant HONO
30 source in ambient environmental settings. However, proteins on ground surfaces (soil, plants etc.) might play a more
31 important role. Accordingly, Stemmler et al. (2006 and 2007) suggested that NO_2 conversion on soil covered with
32 humic acid would be sufficient to explain missing HONO sources up to 700 ppt h^{-1} . Therefore it is difficult to
33 estimate the importance of HONO formation on protein surface and its contribution to the HONO budget. In many
34 studies the calculated un-known source strength of daytime HONO formation is within a range of about 200-800 ppt
35 h^{-1} (Kleffmann et al., 2005; Acker et al., 2006; Li et al., 2012).

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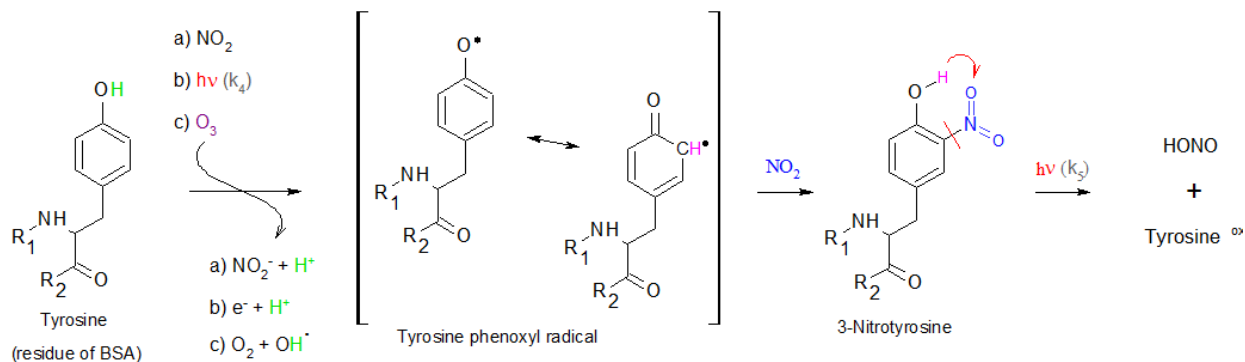
1 **Tables and Figures**

2 **Tab 1: Details on the different experiments, aims and experimental conditions (coating, applied NO₂ concentration,**
 3 **number of lights switched on, relative humidity and time for each exposure step):**

		Coating density (number of monolayers NML _f , thickness)	NO ₂ [ppb]	no. of lamps	RH [%]	time per step [h]
A light induced decomposition of nitrated protein and HONO formation						
1	light and NO ₂ dependency	n-OVA 21.5 ± 0.8 μg cm ⁻² (68 NML _f , 298.05 nm)	0-20	0-1-3-7 VIS	50	1
B heterogeneous NO₂ transformation on BSA						
2	NO ₂ dependency	BSA 16.1±0.4 μg cm ⁻² (50 NML _f , 217.6 nm)	0-20-40-60-100	7 VIS	50	0.5-1
3	light dependency	BSA 31.4±1.4 μg cm ⁻² (99 NML _f , 435.2 nm)	20	0-1-3-7 VIS	50	0.5-1
4	coating thickness	BSA 16.1±0.4 μg cm ⁻² (50 NML _f , 217.6 nm), 22.5±0.8 μg cm ⁻² (71 NML _f , 310.8 nm), 31.4±1.4 μg cm ⁻² (99 NML _f , 435.2 nm)	20	7 VIS		0.5-3
5	RH dependency	BSA 17.5±0.4 μg cm ⁻² (55 NML _f , 241.7 nm)	25	0-7VIS	0-50-80	0.25-1
6	time effect	BSA 17.5±0.4 μg cm ⁻²	100	7 VIS	75	20
7	time effect	BSA 17.5±0.4 μg cm ⁻²	100	4 VIS + 3 UV	75	20

4 NML_f numbers of monolayers in flat orientation

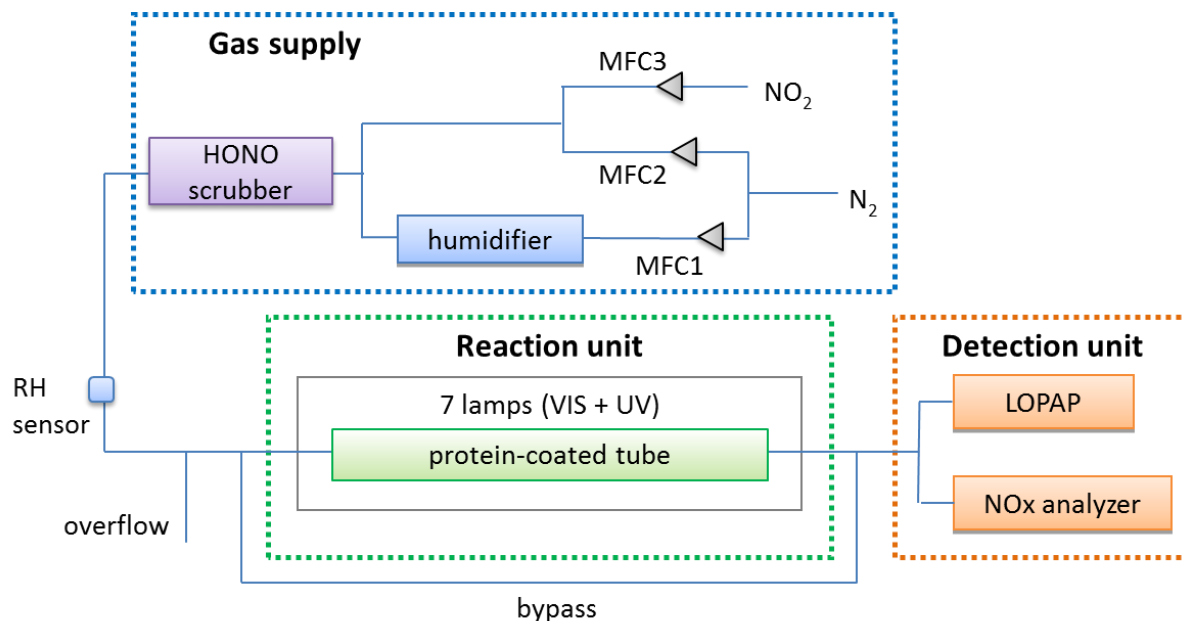
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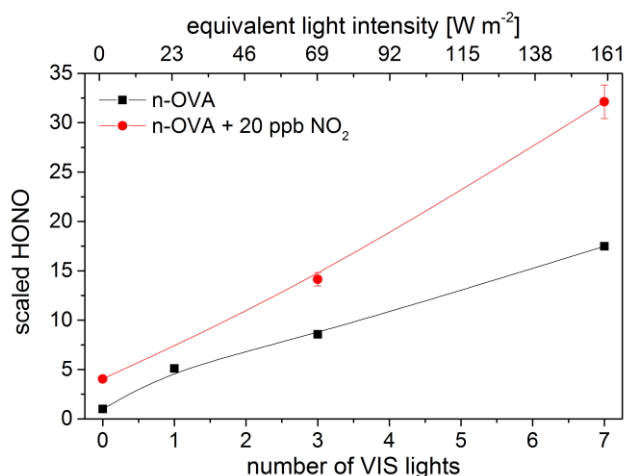
13 **Fig. 1: Overview on possible reaction mechanisms of atmospheric BSA nitration and subsequent HONO emission. The**
 14 **tyrosine phenoxyl radical intermediate is either formed by the reaction of tyrosine with a) NO₂, b) light or c) ozone. A**
 15 **second reaction with NO₂ forms 3-nitrotyrosine (was adapted from Houée-Levin et al. (2015) and Shiraiwa et al. (2012)).**
 16 **Subsequent intramolecular H-transfer initiated by irradiation decompose the protein and HONO is emitted (adapted from**
 17 **Bejan et al., 2006).**

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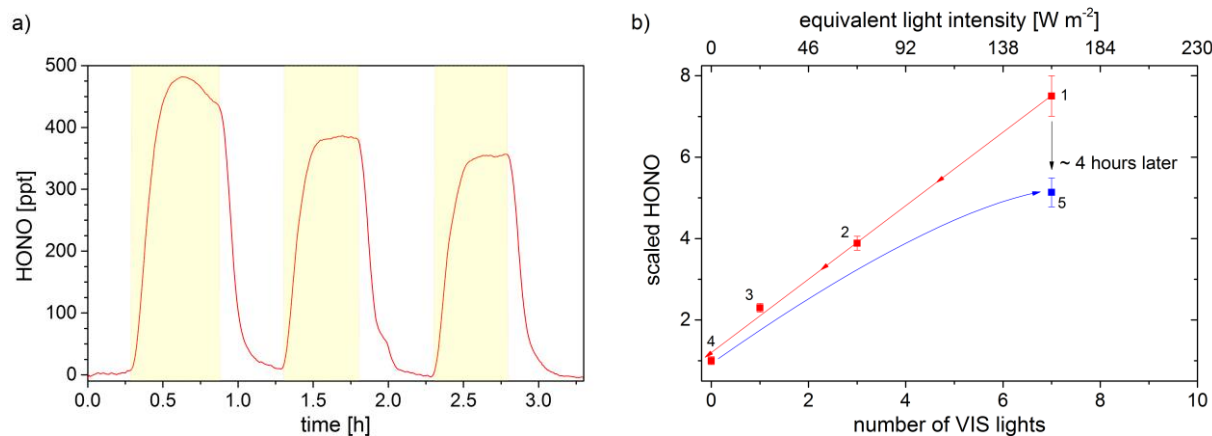
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 2 Fig. 2: Flow system and set-up: thin blue lines show the flow of the gas mixture, which direction is indicated by the grey
 3 triangles of the mass flow controllers (MFC). Nitrogen passes a heated water bath to humidify the gas and a HONO
 4 scrubber to eliminate any HONO impurities of the NO₂ supply. The overflow maintains a constant pressure through the
 5 reaction tube and the detection unit. The dotted boxes (blue, green, orange) indicate the three different parts, the gas
 6 supply, reaction unit and detection unit.

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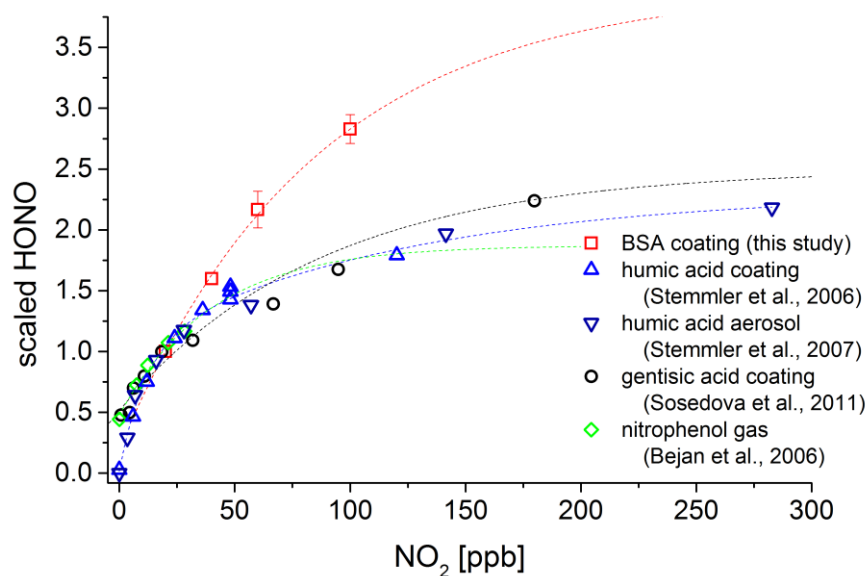


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 13 Fig. 3: Light enhanced HONO formation from TNM-nitrated proteins (n-OVA: ND 12.5%, coating 21.5 $\mu g cm^{-2}$). Black
 14 squares indicate HONO formation via decomposition from nitrated proteins (without NO₂) while red squares indicate
 15 additional HONO formation via heterogeneous NO₂ conversion (20 ppb NO₂) at 50% RH (HONO is scaled to the HONO
 16 concentration measured without NO₂ and no light ($[HONO]_{lights; NO_2} / [HONO]_{dark; NO_2=0}$)).

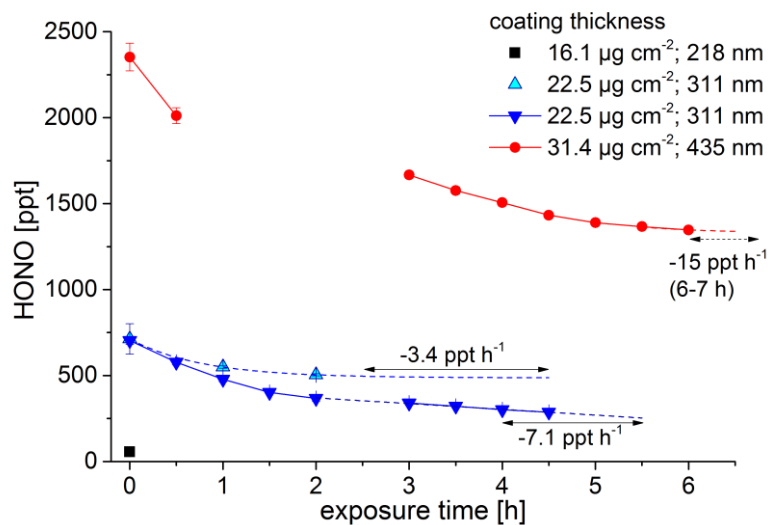
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2 **Fig. 4: Light induced HONO formation on BSA. a) HONO formation under alternating dark and light conditions on BSA**
3 **surface ($22.5\ \mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$), yellow shaded areas indicate periods in which 7 VIS lamps were switched on (RH = 50%, $\text{NO}_2 = 20$**
4 **ppb); b) Dependency of HONO formation on radiation intensity at 20 ppb NO_2 and 50% RH (BSA = $31.4\ \mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$). The**
5 **experiment started with 7 VIS lights switched on, sequentially decreasing the number of lights (red symbols, nominated 1-**
6 **4), prior to apply the initial irradiance again (blue symbol, 5). HONO was scaled to the HONO concentration in darkness**
7 **($[\text{HONO}]_{\text{lights}}/[\text{HONO}]_{\text{dark}}$). Error bars indicate standard deviation of 20-30 min measurements, standard deviation of**
8 **point 5 covers 2.75 h measurement.**

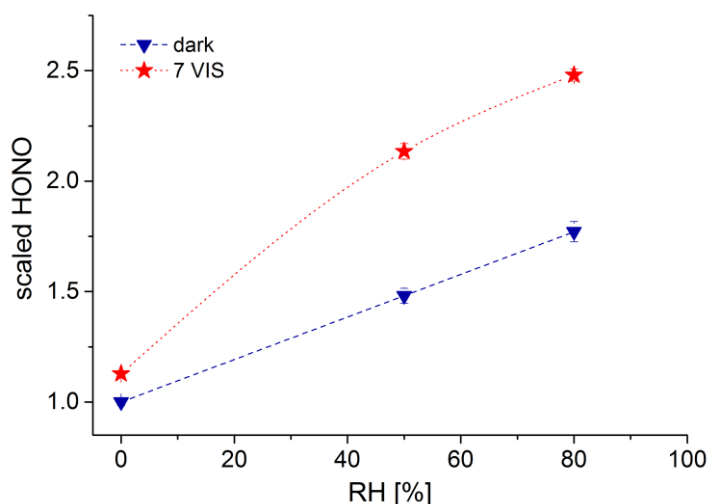


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12 **Fig. 5: Comparison of HONO formation dependency on NO_2 at different organic surfaces. HONO concentrations are**
13 **scaled to the HONO concentration at 20 ppb NO_2 ($[\text{HONO}]_{\text{NO}_2}/[\text{HONO}]_{\text{NO}_2=20\text{ppb}}$). Red square = BSA coating ($16\ \mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$)**
14 **at $161\ \text{W m}^{-2}$ and 50% RH (this study), blue triangles pointing up = humic acid coating ($8\ \mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$) at $162\ \text{W m}^{-2}$ and 20%**
15 **RH (Stemmler et al., 2006), dark blue triangles pointing down = humic acid aerosol with 100 nm diameter and a surface of**
16 **$0.151\ \text{m}^2\ \text{m}^{-3}$ at 26% RH and $1 \times 10^{17}\ \text{photons cm}^{-2}\ \text{s}^{-1}$ (Stemmler et al., 2007), black circles = gentisic acid coating ($160\text{-}200$**
17 **$\mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$) at 40-45% RH and light intensity similar as in the humic acid aerosol study (Sosedova et al., 2011), green**
18 **diamonds = ortho-nitrophenol in gas phase (ppm level) illuminated with UV/VIS light. Dotted lines are exponential fittings**
19 **of the measured data points and are guiding the eyes.**

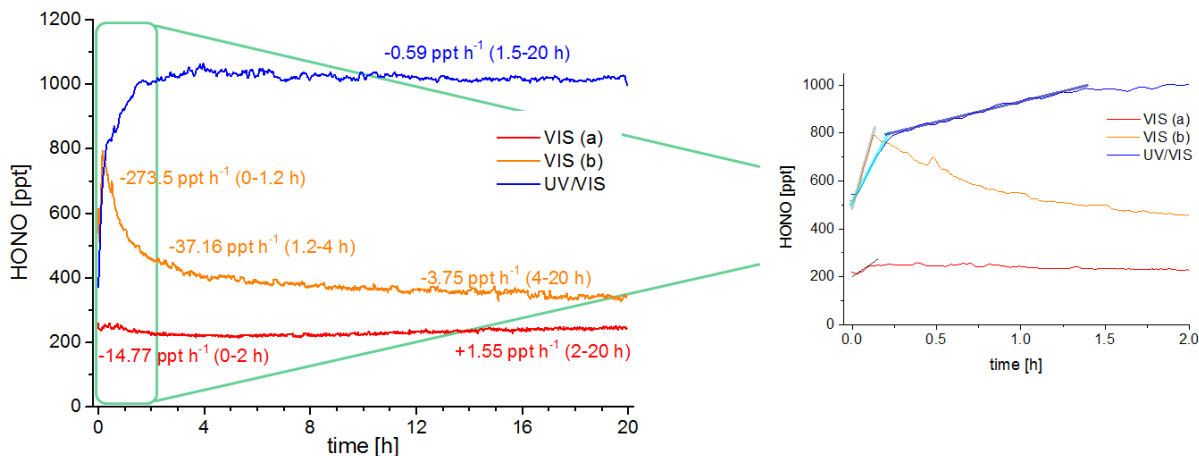


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 2 **Fig. 6: HONO formation on three different BSA coating thicknesses, exposed to 20 ppb of NO₂ under illuminated**
 3 **conditions (7 VIS lamps). The HONO concentrations were scaled to reaction tube coverage (black: 100% of reaction tube**
 4 **was covered with BSA, blueish: 70% of tube was covered and red: 50% of tube was covered with BSA). The middle thick**
 5 **coating (22.46 µg cm⁻²) was replicated and studied with different reaction times (cyan and blue triangle). Solid lines (with**
 6 **circles or triangles) present continuous measurements, when those are interrupted other conditions (e.g. light intensity,**
 7 **NO₂ concentration) prevailed. Dotted lines show interpolations and are for guiding the eyes. Arrows indicate the intervals**
 8 **in which the shown decay rates were determined. Error bars indicates standard deviations from 10-20 measuring points**
 9 **(5-10 min).**

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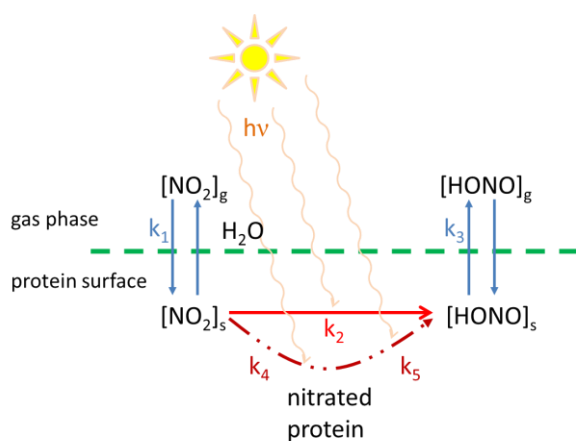


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 14 **Fig. 7: Dependency of relative humidity on HONO formation. 25 ppb NO₂ was applied on BSA surface (17.5 µg cm⁻²)**
 15 **either in darkness (blue triangle) or at 7 VIS lights (red star). HONO was scaled to HONO concentrations in darkness**
 16 **under dry conditions ($[\text{HONO}]_{\text{lights on-off; RH}}/[\text{HONO}]_{\text{dark; RH=0}}$). Dotted lines are for guiding the eyes.**



1
 2 **Fig. 8: Extended measurements (20 h) of light-enhanced HONO formation on BSA (three coatings of $17.5 \mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$) at 80%**
 3 **RH, 100 ppb NO_2 . HONO formation under VIS light is shown in red and orange, under UV/Vis light in blue. HONO**
 4 **decay rates [ppt h^{-1}] are shown with time periods (in brackets) in which they were calculated, suggesting a stable HONO**
 5 **formation after 4 hours. Right: zoom in on the first 2 hours. Straight lines (black, grey, light and dark blue) show the**
 6 **slopes of which $d[\text{HONO}]/dt$ were used in the kinetic studies.**

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 11 **Fig. 9: Schematic illustration of the underlying Langmuir-Hinshelwood-mechanism of light induced HONO formation on**
 12 **protein surface. Reaction constants for NO_2 uptake, direct NO_2 conversion, protein nitration, HONO formation from**
 13 **decomposing nitrated proteins and HONO release are indicated by k_1 , k_2 , k_4 , k_5 , and k_3 , respectively.**