



1 Formation of secondary organic aerosols from gas-phase
2 emissions of heated cooking oils

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16 **Abstract**

17 Cooking emissions can potentially contribute to secondary organic aerosol (SOA) but
18 remain poorly understood. In this study, formation of SOA from gas-phase emissions
19 of five heated vegetable oils (i.e. corn, canola, sunflower, peanut and olive oils) was
20 investigated in a potential aerosol mass (PAM) chamber. Experiments were conducted
21 at 19-20 °C and 65-70% RH. The characterization instruments included a scanning
22 mobility particle sizer (SMPS) and a high-resolution time-of-flight aerosol mass
23 spectrometer (HR-TOF-AMS). The efficiency of SOA production, in ascending order,
24 was peanut oil, olive oil, canola oil, corn oil and sunflower oil. The major SOA
25 precursors from heated cooking oils were related to the content of mono-unsaturated
26 fat and omega-6 fatty acids in cooking oils. The average production rate of SOA, after
27 aging at an OH exposure of 1.7×10^{11} molecules cm^{-3} s, was $1.35 \pm 0.30 \mu\text{g min}^{-1}$, three
28 orders of magnitude lower compared with emission rates of fine particulate matter
29 ($\text{PM}_{2.5}$) from heated cooking oils in previous studies. The mass spectra of cooking SOA
30 highly resemble field-derived COA (cooking-related organic aerosol) in ambient air,
31 with R^2 ranging from 0.74 to 0.88, suggesting that COA might not be entirely primary
32 in origin. The average carbon oxidation state (OS_c) of SOA was $-1.51 - -0.81$, falling
33 in the range between ambient hydrocarbon-like organic aerosol (HOA) and semi-
34 volatile oxygenated organic aerosol (SV-OOA), indicating that SOA in these
35 experiments was lightly oxidized.



1. Introduction

Organic aerosol (OA) is an important component of atmospheric particulate matter (PM), which influences air quality, climate and human health (Hallquist et al., 2009). A significant fraction of OA is secondary organic aerosol (SOA) (Zhang et al., 2007), formed via the oxidation of volatile organic compounds (VOCs) (Hallquist et al., 2009). However, chemical transport models generally underestimate SOA levels due to the unclear sources and formation processes of SOA (de Gouw et al., 2005; Heald et al., 2005; Johnson et al., 2006; Volkamer et al., 2006). Recently, primary semi-volatile and intermediate-volatility organic compounds (SVOCs and IVOCs) that can come from the evaporation of primary organic aerosol (POA) were found to form substantial SOA (Robinson et al., 2007; Donahue et al., 2009). Therefore, any source of POA may be associated with the production of SOA.

Cooking-related organic aerosol (COA), thought to be primary in origin, contributed 10–34.6% of the total OA in urban areas (Allan et al., 2010; Sun et al., 2011; 2012; Ge et al., 2012; Mohr et al., 2012; Crippa et al., 2013; Lee et al., 2015). Lee et al. (2015) found that COA even dominated the contribution to POA at roadside sites in the commercial and shopping area of Mongkok in Hong Kong. Cooking may be a large source of SOA in urban areas, yet the formation of SOA from cooking remains poorly understood. Kaltsonoudis et al. (2016) observed that the oxygen to carbon ratio (O:C) of OA from meat charbroiling increased from 0.09 to 0.30 after a few hours of chemical aging. The aged aerosol mass spectra have similarities with ambient COA factors in two major Greek cities. Hayes et al. (2015) modeled that cooking emissions contributed



19–35% of SOA mass in downtown Los Angeles during the California Research at the Nexus of Air Quality and Climate Change (CalNex) 2010 campaign. In their study, primary SVOCs and IVOCs from cooking emissions were modeled using the same parameters as those from vehicle exhaust, due to limited information about SOA formation from cooking (Hayes et al., 2015).

Heating cooking oils, a fundamental process of frying, was found to produce large amounts of fine particulate matter (PM_{2.5}) (Amouei Torkmahalleh et al, 2012; Gao et al., 2013) and VOCs (Katragadda et al., 2010; Klein et al., 2016a). The PM_{2.5} emission rate for peanut, canola, corn and olive oils heated at 197 °C was shown to be as high as 54 mg min⁻¹ (Amouei Torkmahalleh et al, 2012). Allan et al. (2010) found that cooking oils may contribute more to PM than the meat itself in urban areas of London and Manchester. The VOCs emitted from heated cooking oils were dominated by aldehydes (Klein et al., 2016a), which were suggested to be potential SOA precursors (Chacon-Madrid et al., 2010). Despite these previous efforts, there are still no available data regarding SOA formation from heated cooking oils.

The objective of this study is to characterize SOA formation from gas-phase emissions of heated cooking oils. The magnitude and composition of the SOA formed from gas-phase emissions of heated cooking oils were evaluated and have been discussed for the first time in this paper.

2. Materials and methods

2.1 PAM chamber



SOA formation from gas-phase emissions of five different heated cooking oils was investigated in a potential aerosol mass (PAM) chamber, which has been described in detail elsewhere (Kang et al., 2007, 2011; Lambe et al., 2011, 2015). Briefly, a PAM chamber is a continuous flow stainless steel cylindrical reactor using high and controlled levels of oxidants to oxidize precursor gases to produce SOA. The volume is approximately 19 L (length 60 cm, diameter 20 cm). High OH exposures were produced through the photolysis of ozone irradiated by a UV lamp ($\lambda = 254$ nm) in the presence of water vapor. Ozone was produced by an ozone generator (1000BT-12, ENALY, Japan) via irradiation of pure O_2 . The OH concentration was controlled by the flow rate of ozone in the PAM chamber, which was approximately 40 ppm prior to dilution. The total flow rate in the PAM chamber was set at 3 L min^{-1} by a mass flow controller, resulting in residence time of 380 s. The corresponding upper limit of OH exposure at these operating conditions was 1.7×10^{11} molecules cm^{-3} s, which is equivalent to 1.3 days of atmospheric oxidation, assuming an ambient OH concentration of 1.5×10^6 molecules cm^{-3} (Mao et al., 2009). The upper limit of OH exposure was determined by measuring the decay of SO_2 (Model T100, TAPI Inc, USA), following previous procedures (Kang et al., 2007; Lambe et al., 2011). Before and after each experiment, the PAM reactor was cleaned by exposure to a high concentration of OH until the mass concentration of background particles was less than $5\text{ }\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$.

The PAM chamber was designed with a large radius and a small surface-to-volume ratio to minimize wall effects. The transmission efficiency for particles at a mean mobility diameter (D_m) larger than 150 nm was greater than 80% (Lambe et al., 2011).



101 The wall loss of particles was considered to be small, as the particles larger than 150
102 nm accounted for greater than 70% of the aerosol mass (Fig. S1 in the supporting
103 information). Transmission efficiency of gases in the PAM chamber indicates that vapor
104 wall losses in the PAM chamber are negligible (Lambe et al., 2011).

105 **2.2 Experimental conditions**

106 A schematic of the experimental setup is shown in Fig. 1. The tested vegetable oils,
107 purchased from a local supermarket, included canola, corn, sunflower, peanut and olive
108 oils. For each experiment, 30 mL vegetable oil was heated at approximately 220 °C for
109 20 min in a 500 mL Pyrex bottle on an electric heating plate. Prior to introduction to
110 the PAM chamber, particles from the heated oil emissions were removed using a Teflon
111 filter. A 2 m Teflon tube was used as the transfer line to minimize wall loss of VOCs.
112 After 10 min of heating, the UV lamp was turned on and the emissions were exposed
113 to high OH levels for approximately one hour. Once the UV lamp was turned off, the
114 PAM reactor was flushed continuously using pure N₂ and O₂ until the aerosol mass was
115 below 3 µg m⁻³. Then the experiment was repeated at another OH level. The RH and
116 temperature of the PAM outflow were measured continuously (HMP 110, Vaisala Inc,
117 Finland) and stabilized at 65-70% and 19-20 °C, respectively. The adjustment of RH
118 was achieved by passing the pure N₂ and O₂ through water bubblers. Blank experiments
119 were conducted in the absence of cooking oils under similar conditions to quantify the
120 amount of aerosols formed from matrix gas when exposed to different OH levels.

121 POA emitted from heated cooking oils was also characterized in this study. For
122 each test, 30 mL vegetable oil was heated to 240 °C for 2 min in a pan on an induction



123 cooker. The emissions, after passing through a mixing chamber of 36 L, were
124 introduced to the PAM chamber by a Dekati diluter (Dekati Ltd, Finland) at a flow rate
125 of 0.15 L min⁻¹, achieving a final dilution ratio of approximately 160. No ozone was
126 introduced to the PAM chamber during measurement, and the UV lamp was off.
127 Temperature and RH were similar to those of the SOA formation experiments.

128 A scanning mobility particle sizer (SMPS, TSI Incorporated, USA, classifier
129 model 3082, CPC model 3775) was used to measure particle number concentrations
130 and size distributions. Particle size ranged from 15 nm to 661 nm. An aerosol density
131 of 1.4 g cm⁻³ was assumed to estimate the SOA mass from the particle volume
132 concentration (Zhang et al., 2005). For the SOA formation experiments, the
133 contribution from background organic aerosols was subtracted from the total organic
134 aerosols. The maximum concentration of background organic aerosols was 8.4 µg m⁻³,
135 almost negligible compared with the dozens to several hundreds of µg m⁻³ of SOA
136 formed in this study. The organic aerosol composition was characterized by a high-
137 resolution time-of-flight aerosol mass spectrometer (HR-TOF-AMS, abbreviated as
138 AMS hereafter, Aerodyne Research Incorporated, USA) (DeCarlo et al., 2006). A
139 diffusion dryer was connected to the sampling line to remove water. The instrument
140 was operated in the high sensitivity V-mode and high resolution W-mode alternating
141 every one minute. The toolkit Squirrel 1.57I and Pika 1.16I were used to analyze the
142 AMS data. The molar ratios of hydrogen to carbon (H:C) and oxygen to carbon (O:C)
143 were determined with the improved-ambient method (Canagaratna et al., 2015). The
144 ionization efficiency of AMS was calibrated using 300 nm ammonium nitrate particles.



145 The particle-free matrix air, obtained by passing the air through a HEPA filter, was
146 measured for at least 20 min before each experiment to determine the signals from
147 major gases. The collection efficiency (CE) was corrected by comparing AMS mass
148 concentrations to concurrent SMPS mass concentrations, following the methods of
149 Gordon et al. (2014) and Liu et al., (2015).

150 **2.3 SOA production rate**

151 The SOA production rate (PR) was expressed as micrograms (μg) of SOA produced
152 per minute (min), calculated using the following equation, similar to calculation of
153 emissions rates of primary particles from cooking (Klein et al., 2016a):

$$154 \quad \text{PR} = [\text{SOA}] \times \text{DR} \times F \quad (1)$$

155 where [SOA] is the SOA concentration in $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$; DR is the dilution ratio and F is the
156 flow rate in $\text{m}^3 \text{min}^{-1}$ of the carrier gas. All gas-phase emissions from heated cooking
157 oils were assumed to be transported into the PAM chamber.

158 Emission rates are commonly used to normalize PM emissions from cooking
159 activities (Amouei Torkmahalleh et al, 2012; Gao et al., 2013; Klein et al., 2016a, b).
160 Here, the adoption of SOA PR, similar to emission rates, facilitates the normalization
161 of SOA production from cooking and direct comparison of the amount of primary
162 emitted and secondary formed particles. Though SOA yields were not determined due
163 to the lack of VOC concentrations, we believe that SOA PR is a useful metric for the
164 estimation of SOA production from cooking and can be used for comparison among
165 different studies.

166 **3. Results and discussion**



167 3.1 SOA formation

168 In Fig. 2, we plot the time series of RH, ozone and organic aerosol concentrations during
169 the aging of gas-phase emissions from heated peanut oil. As described above, the ozone
170 concentration prior to dilution was stable at approximately 40 ppm. The pulse of RH
171 was caused by disconnection of the introduction line when changing the Teflon filter.
172 During the initial 10 min of heating, the mass concentration of organics was close to
173 the detection limit of the instrument, indicating that POA emissions were thoroughly
174 removed by the Teflon filter. Immediately after oxidation was initiated by turning on
175 the UV lamp, substantial SOA was formed, and its concentration stabilized after about
176 20 min. The SOA concentration subsequently reported is the average for the steady
177 period.

178 Fig. 3 shows SOA concentration as a function of OH exposure and photochemical
179 age in days during the aging of gas-phase emissions from different heated cooking oils.
180 The OH exposure ranged from 2.7×10^{10} molecules cm^{-3} s to 1.7×10^{11} molecules cm^{-3} s,
181 corresponding to 0.2–1.3 days of photochemical age, assuming 24 h average ambient
182 OH concentrations of 1.5×10^6 molecules cm^{-3} (Mao et al., 2009). For all experiments,
183 the SOA concentration almost linearly increased from 41–107 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ to 320–565 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$
184 as OH exposure increased. This linear increase has also been observed from vehicle
185 exhaust at a similar range of OH exposures (Tkacik et al., 2014). Typically, VOCs are
186 oxidized through functionalization reactions to produce less volatile organics that
187 readily condense to form SOA. Upon further oxidation, fragmentation reactions and
188 cleavage of carbon bonds can occur and form more volatile products that reduce SOA



189 levels (Kroll et al., 2009). In this study, functionalization reactions dominated SOA
190 formation as reflected by the increase of SOA concentrations shown in Fig. 3.

191 The slope of the fitted straight line to the SOA data was calculated to estimate the
192 efficiency of different cooking oils in producing SOA (Table 1). The efficiency of SOA
193 production, in ascending order, was peanut oil, olive oil, canola oil, corn oil and
194 sunflower oil. The slope of sunflower oil was $3.82 \times 10^{-15} \mu\text{g molecules}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$, more than
195 two times that of peanut oil. The different slopes might be related to the emission rate
196 and composition of VOCs from various cooking oils. Table 1 presents the type of fat
197 content of the different cooking oils. Unsaturated fat accounts for 75%-88% of the total
198 fat content. A multivariate linear regression was used to relate the SOA production
199 efficiency to the fat content of cooking oils. The intercept was set to zero. The resulting
200 equation was $Y = 2.62 \times 10^{-17} X_1 + 4.71 \times 10^{-17} X_2$, where Y is the SOA production
201 efficiency ($\mu\text{g molecules}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$); X_1 and X_2 represent the content of mono-unsaturated fat
202 (%) and omega-6 fatty acid (%) in cooking oil, respectively. The SOA production
203 efficiency was strongly correlated ($R^2 = 0.97$, $p < 0.05$) with the content of mono-
204 unsaturated fat and omega-6 fatty acids. This indicated that the major SOA precursors
205 from heated cooking oils were related to the content of mono-unsaturated fat and
206 omega-6 fatty acids in cooking oils. Moreover, omega-6 fatty acids dominated the
207 contribution to SOA production. Omega-6 fatty acids are a family of poly-unsaturated
208 fatty acids that have in common a final carbon-carbon double bond in the n-6 position,
209 counting from the methyl end (Simopoulos, 2002). The peroxy radical reactions of



210 omega-6 fatty acids might emit long-chain aldehydes (Gardner, 1989), which have been
211 suggested as potential SOA precursors (Chacon-Madrid et al., 2010).

212 The average SOA PR from gas-phase emissions of the five cooking oils at an OH
213 exposure of 1.7×10^{11} molecules cm^{-3} s was calculated to be $1.35 \pm 0.30 \mu\text{g min}^{-1}$. Amouei
214 Torkmahalleh et al. (2012) found that primary $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ emission rates for peanut, canola,
215 corn and olive oils heated at 197°C ranged from 3.7 mg min^{-1} to 54 mg min^{-1} . He et al.
216 (2004) reported a $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ emission rate for frying in vegetable oils of $2.68 \pm 2.18 \text{ mg min}^{-1}$.
217 The SOA PR determined in this study was negligible compared with primary $\text{PM}_{2.5}$
218 emission rates for heated cooking oils and frying in vegetable oils. However, our results
219 may underestimate SOA production from cooking under real-world conditions. First,
220 recent studies have demonstrated that the oxidation of IVOCs and SVOCs evaporated
221 from POA could produce significant SOA (Donahue et al., 2006; Jimenez et al., 2009).
222 In this study, POA from heated cooking oils was filtered. Second, emissions of SOA
223 precursors will be enhanced when cooking food compared with heating cooking oils
224 alone. For instance, long-chain aldehyde emissions from frying processes can be 10
225 times those of heated oil (Klein et al., 2016a). Large amounts of monoterpenes will be
226 emitted when frying vegetables or cooking with herbs and black pepper (Klein et al.,
227 2016a, b). These enhanced emitted precursors may significantly enhance SOA
228 production. Finally, laboratory and tunnel studies indicate that SOA production from
229 typical precursors and vehicle exhaust peak at OH exposures higher than 5.0×10^{11}
230 molecules cm^{-3} s (Tkacik et al., 2014; Lambe et al., 2015). The relatively lower OH



231 exposures in this study compared with typical conditions in the atmosphere may lead
232 to the underestimation of cooking SOA.

233 **3.2 Mass spectra of POA and SOA**

234 Fig. 4 shows high-resolution mass spectra of POA and SOA at an OH exposure of
235 2.7×10^{10} molecules cm^{-3} s from heated canola oil. Other oils have similar mass spectra,
236 as reflected in the good correlations shown in Table 2. The mass concentration of POA
237 was approximately $35 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ for canola oil. The prominent peaks in POA from canola
238 oil were m/z 41 and 55, followed by m/z 29 and 43. The m/z 41, 43 and 55 were
239 dominated by C_3H_5^+ , C_3H_7^+ and C_4H_7^+ ion series, consistent with the previous
240 observation by Allan et al. (2010). The m/z 29 was instead dominated by ion CHO^+ ,
241 which can be used as a tracer for organic compounds with alcohol and carbonyl
242 functional groups, as a result of thermal decomposition of the oils (Lee et al., 2012).
243 For the SOA mass spectra, the dominating peaks were m/z 28 and 29, followed by m/z
244 43 and 44. The m/z 28, 29, 43 and 44 were dominated by CO^+ , CHO^+ , $\text{C}_2\text{H}_3\text{O}^+$ and
245 CO_2^+ , respectively. For all cooking oils, the mass fractions of m/z 28 and 44 in SOA
246 were higher, while the mass fractions of m/z 55 and 57 in SOA were lower than those
247 of the corresponding POA. The increase of mass fractions of the oxygen-containing
248 ions in SOA mass spectra indicated the formation of oxidized organic aerosols.

249 The correlation coefficients (R^2) between POA and SOA unit mass resolution
250 (UMR) spectra of heated oil and COA resolved by positive matrix factorization (PMF)
251 analysis (Lee et al., 2015) were calculated and summarized in Table 2 to evaluate their
252 similarities. The POA mass spectra between different cooking oils exhibited strong



253 correlations ($R^2 > 0.97$) and agreed well with the ambient COA factor obtained at
254 roadside sites in the commercial and shopping area of Mongkok in Hong Kong (Lee et
255 al., 2015). The SOA mass spectra between different cooking oils displayed good
256 correlations ($R^2 > 0.94$), suggesting a high degree of similarity. The mass spectra of
257 cooking SOA also greatly resemble POA and field-derived COA in ambient air, with
258 R^2 ranging from 0.74 to 0.88. This similarity between the cooking SOA and ambient
259 COA suggests that the COA resolved based on ambient data may be a convolution of
260 POA and SOA, even though vegetable oil may not be the oil commonly used in
261 commercial kitchens. Kaltsonoudis et al. (2016) also observed that the ambient COA
262 factor in two major Greek cities in spring and summer strongly resembled the aged
263 SOA from meat charbroiling in a smog chamber.

264 Fragments derived from the AMS data have been extensively used to explore the
265 bulk compositions and properties of ambient organic aerosols (Zhang et al., 2005; Ng
266 et al., 2010; Heald et al., 2010). Here, we use the approach of Ng et al. (2010) by
267 plotting the fractions of the total organic signal at m/z 43 (f_{43}) vs. m/z 44 (f_{44}). The m/z
268 43 signal is abundant in $C_3H_7^+$ and $C_2H_3O^+$ ions, indicating fresh, less oxidized organic
269 aerosols. The m/z 44 signal, usually dominated by CO_2^+ and formed from the thermal
270 decarboxylation of organic acids, is an indicator of highly oxygenated organic aerosols
271 (Ng et al., 2010).

272 In Fig. 5, we plot f_{43} vs. f_{44} of cooking SOA and SOA data from gasoline (Presto
273 et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2015) and diesel (Presto et al., 2014) vehicle exhaust measured
274 in a smog chamber, together with the triangle defined by Ng et al. (2010) based on the



analysis of ambient AMS data. The ambient low-volatility oxygenated OA (LV-OOA) and semi-volatile OOA (SV-OOA) factors fall in the upper and lower regions of the triangle, respectively. Ng et al. (2010) proposed that aging would converge the f_{43} and f_{44} toward the triangle apex ($f_{43} = 0.02$, $f_{44} = 0.30$). In this study, the f_{43} and f_{44} ranged from 0.06 to 0.10 and from 0.05 to 0.07, respectively; they mainly lie in the lower portion of the SV-OOA region. As shown in Fig. 5, SOA from gasoline and diesel vehicle exhaust at a similar range of OH exposures had f_{44} values of 0.11–0.12. Compared with vehicle exhaust, SOA formed from gas-phase emissions of heated cooking oils was less oxidized. The potential SOA precursors from heated cooking oils might be long-chain aldehydes, which are less volatile than SOA precursors such as aromatics and long-chain alkanes from vehicle exhaust. A single polar moiety of first-generation products from long-chain aldehydes will have low enough volatility to condense, while more volatile aromatics and long-chain alkanes require more functionalization to form SOA (Donahue et al., 2012). Therefore, SOA formed from heated cooking oils was less oxidized. For each cooking oil, there was little change in f_{44} and a slight increase in f_{43} as OH exposure increased. The increased SOA mass may facilitate the partitioning of more volatile organics, leading to a slight increase in f_{43} and little change in f_{44} . This is consistent with the observation of previous studies that the f_{44} of SOA from aromatics and monoterpenes varied little and that f_{43} increased slightly for SOA mass loadings higher than $100 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (Ng et al., 2010; Kang et al., 2011).

3.3 Chemical composition of SOA



297 The O:C ratio and the estimated average carbon oxidation state (OS_c) ($OS_c \approx 2 \times O:C -$
 298 $H:C$) (Kroll et al., 2011) can be used to evaluate the degree of oxidation of organic
 299 aerosols. Fig. 6 shows the evolution of O:C ratios and OS_c of SOA from heated cooking
 300 oils as a function of OH exposure, together with the POA data. The O:C ratios and OS_c
 301 of POA were in the range of 0.14–0.23 and $-1.61 - -1.44$, respectively, comparable to
 302 those of POA from meat charbroiling (Kaltsonoudis et al., 2016). As shown in Fig. 6,
 303 for each cooking oil, the O:C and OS_c of SOA displayed similar trends, initially
 304 decreasing rapidly and then increasing slowly or leveling off (for canola oil only). In
 305 this study, the increased SOA mass loadings led to the rapid decrease of the oxidation
 306 degree when the OH exposure increased from 2.7×10^{10} molecules cm^{-3} s to 6.4×10^{10}
 307 molecules cm^{-3} s. As OH exposure and the resulting OA mass loadings further increase,
 308 even less oxidized and more volatile organics partition into the particle phase and thus
 309 decrease the oxidation degree (Donahue et al., 2006). The difference in O:C for
 310 different cooking oils at the same OH exposure may be attributed to the differences in
 311 gas-phase SOA precursors. In general, the O:C ratios of SOA formed from gas-phase
 312 emissions of heated cooking oils ranged from 0.24 to 0.46 at OH exposures of 2.7×10^{10}
 313 $- 1.7 \times 10^{11}$ molecules cm^{-3} s. The OS_c of cooking SOA was $-1.51 - -0.81$, falling in the
 314 range between ambient hydrocarbon-like organic aerosol (HOA, $OS_c = -1.69$) and SV-
 315 OOA ($OS_c = -0.57$) corrected by the improved-ambient method (Canagaratna et al.,
 316 2015). As suggested by Canagaratna et al. (2015), the OS_c is more robust than the f_{43}/f_{44}
 317 relationship for evaluating the oxidation degree of organic aerosols, as the former has
 318 been estimated based on the full spectra.



319 In Fig. S2 we plot the H:C and O:C molar ratios of POA and SOA from heated
320 cooking oils on a Van Krevelen diagram. The cooking data fell along a line with a slope
321 of approximately 0, suggesting the chemistry of SOA formation in this study was
322 alcohol/peroxide formation (Heald et al., 2010; Ng et al., 2011). This slope is different
323 from ambient OA data of -0.8 determined by the improved-ambient method (Heald et
324 al., 2010). It is also different from vehicle exhaust data with slopes ranging from -0.59
325 to -0.36 (Presto et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2015).

326 4. Conclusions

327 Formation of SOA from gas-phase emissions of heated cooking oils was investigated
328 in a PAM chamber at OH exposures of 2.7×10^{10} molecules cm^{-3} s to 1.7×10^{11} molecules
329 cm^{-3} s. The OS_c and f_{43}/f_{44} relationship indicated that the SOA formed was lightly
330 oxidized. The mass spectra of SOA highly resembled POA from heated cooking oils
331 and COA factors in ambient air. These similarities indicated that ambient COA factors
332 identified by AMS could contain cooking SOA. The major SOA precursors from heated
333 cooking oils were related to the content of mono-unsaturated fat and omega-6 fatty
334 acids in cooking oils. Considering that animal fats such as pork and chicken fat are also
335 abundant in mono-unsaturated fat and omega-6 fatty acids, gas-phase emissions from
336 cooking animal fat can be as efficient as vegetable oils in producing SOA. It is
337 important to note that the reported SOA data only related to gas-phase emissions from
338 heated cooking oils. The large amounts of POA emitted from cooking oils may also
339 form SOA after photochemical aging. More work is needed to investigate SOA
340 formation from emissions of cooking oils and food. In addition, gas-phase SOA



341 precursors were not characterized and therefore provided limited information on SOA
342 yields from cooking; we recommend that future work validate our results and perform
343 similar experiments, with gas-phase emissions measured.

344

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Table 1. SOA production efficiency and type of fat content (%) ^a of different cooking oils.

	Slope ^b μg molecules ⁻¹ s ⁻¹	Saturated (%)	Mono- unsaturated (%)	Poly-unsaturated (%)		Others (%)
				Omega-6	Omega-3	
sunflower	3.82×10 ⁻¹⁵	10	19	64	0	7
corn	3.31×10 ⁻¹⁵	12	24	56	1	7
canola	2.68×10 ⁻¹⁵	7	59	20	9	5
olive	2.55×10 ⁻¹⁵	13	71	8	1	7
peanut	1.7×10 ⁻¹⁵	16	44	31	0	9

^a The type of fat content of cooking oils was derived from skillsyouneed.com.

^b SOA production efficiency was presented as the slope of the fitted straight line to the SOA concentration vs OH exposure.



Table 2. Correlation coefficients (R^2) between POA and SOA UMR mass spectra and ambient COA resolved by PMF.

	CA P ^a	CN P	SR P	PT P	OE P	CA S	CN S	SR S	PT S	OE S	COA ^b
CA P	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.98	0.97	0.85	0.87	0.91	0.93	0.94	0.96
CN P	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.89	0.90	0.94	0.96	0.96	0.95
SR P	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.98	0.97	0.85	0.87	0.91	0.93	0.94	0.96
PT P	0.98	0.99	0.98	1.00	0.98	0.83	0.85	0.90	0.93	0.93	0.96
OE P	0.97	0.99	0.97	0.98	1.00	0.86	0.88	0.93	0.95	0.96	0.94
CA S	0.85	0.89	0.85	0.83	0.86	1.00	0.95	0.98	0.96	0.94	0.74
CN S	0.87	0.90	0.87	0.85	0.88	0.95	1.00	0.95	0.96	0.96	0.77
SR S	0.91	0.94	0.91	0.90	0.93	0.98	0.95	1.00	0.99	0.97	0.83
PT S	0.93	0.96	0.93	0.93	0.95	0.96	0.96	0.99	1.00	0.99	0.87
OE S	0.94	0.96	0.94	0.93	0.96	0.94	0.96	0.97	0.99	1.00	0.88

^a CA, CN, SR, PT and OE refer to canola, corn, sunflower, peanut and olive oil.

^b Lee et al. (2015).

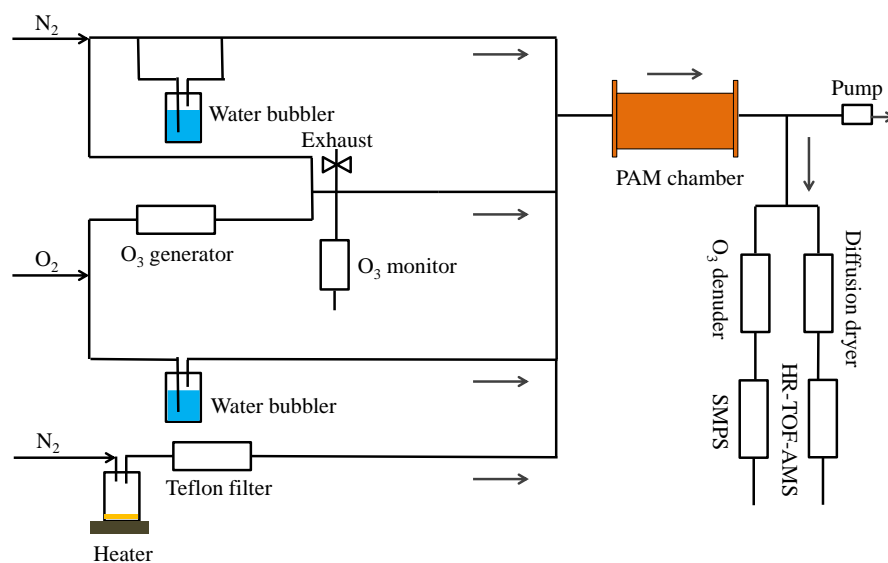
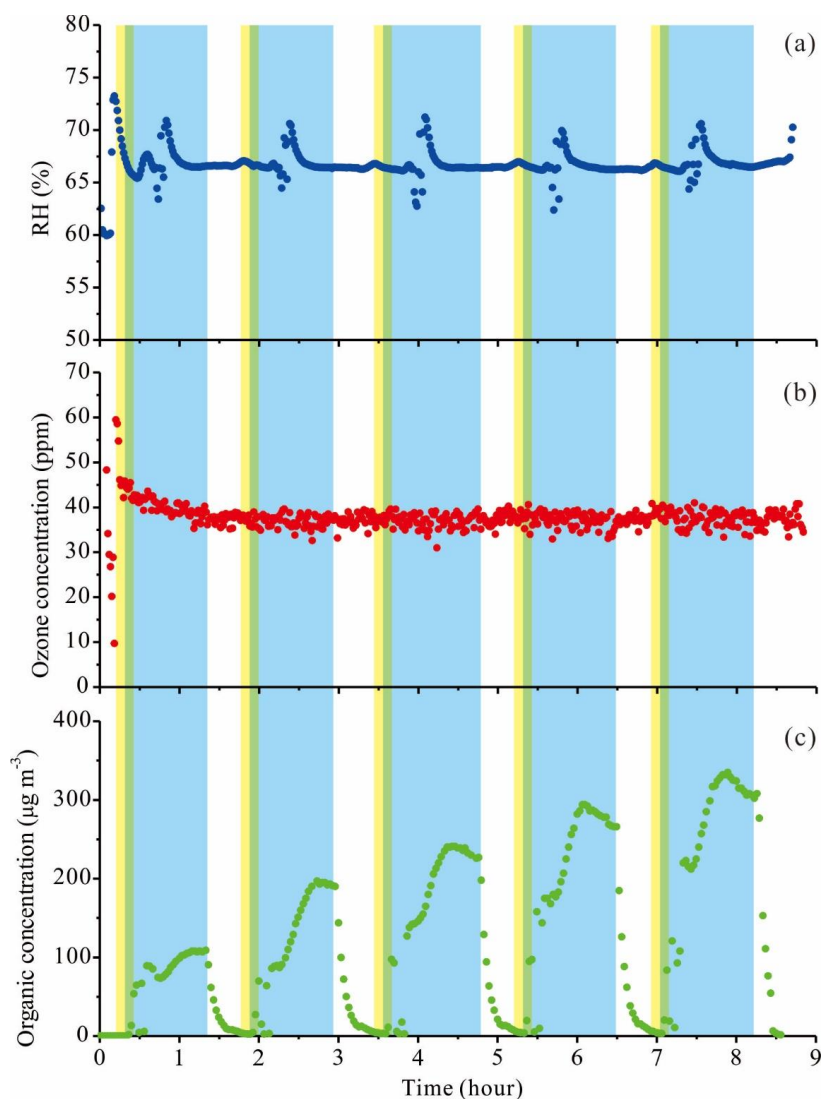


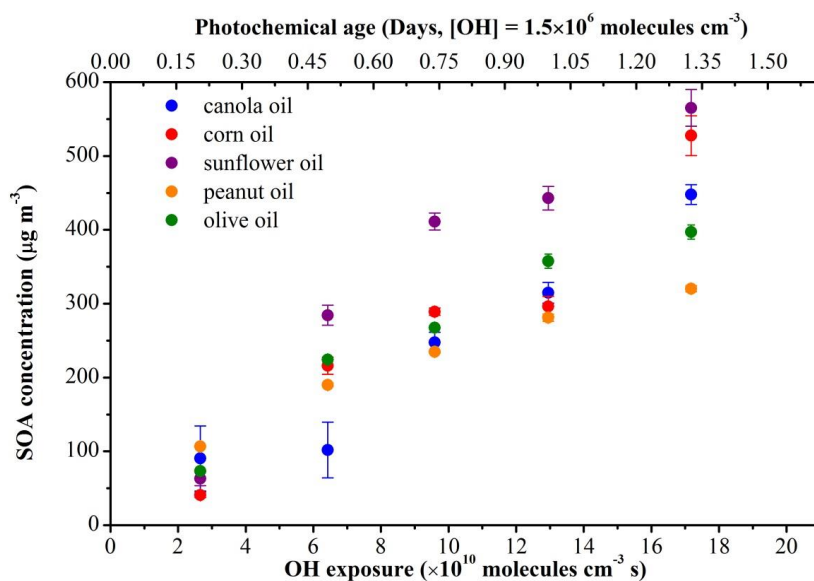
Fig. 1. Schematic of the experimental setup.



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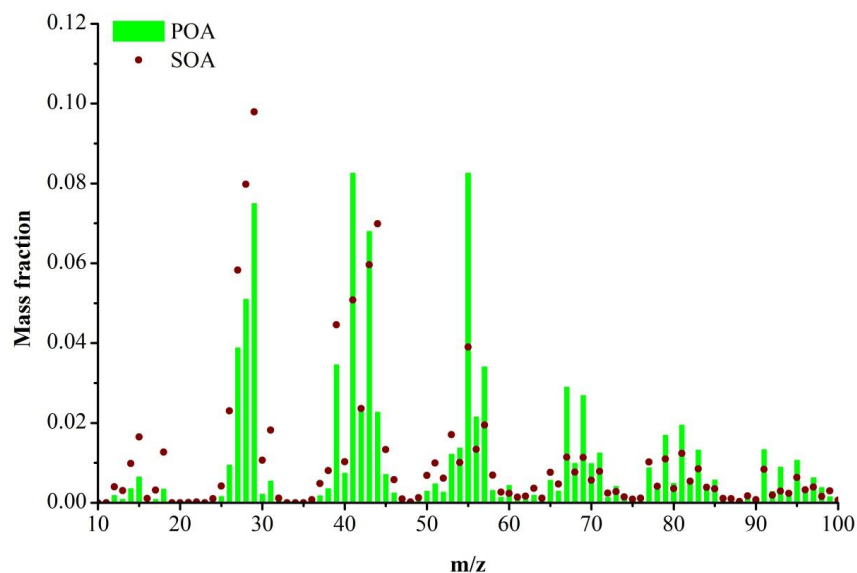
574 **Fig. 2.** Time series of (a) relative humidity (RH), (b) ozone and (c) organic
 575 concentrations during the aging of gas-phase emissions from heated peanut oil. The
 576 yellow and light blue regions represent the heating oil and OH exposure period,
 577 respectively. The green region is the overlap between heating oil and OH exposure
 578 period.

579



580

581 **Fig. 3.** SOA concentration vs. OH exposure and photochemical age in days (at $[OH] =$
 582 $1.5 \times 10^6 \text{ molecules cm}^{-3}$) during the aging of gas-phase emissions from different heated
 583 cooking oils. Error bars represent the standard deviation (1σ).
 584

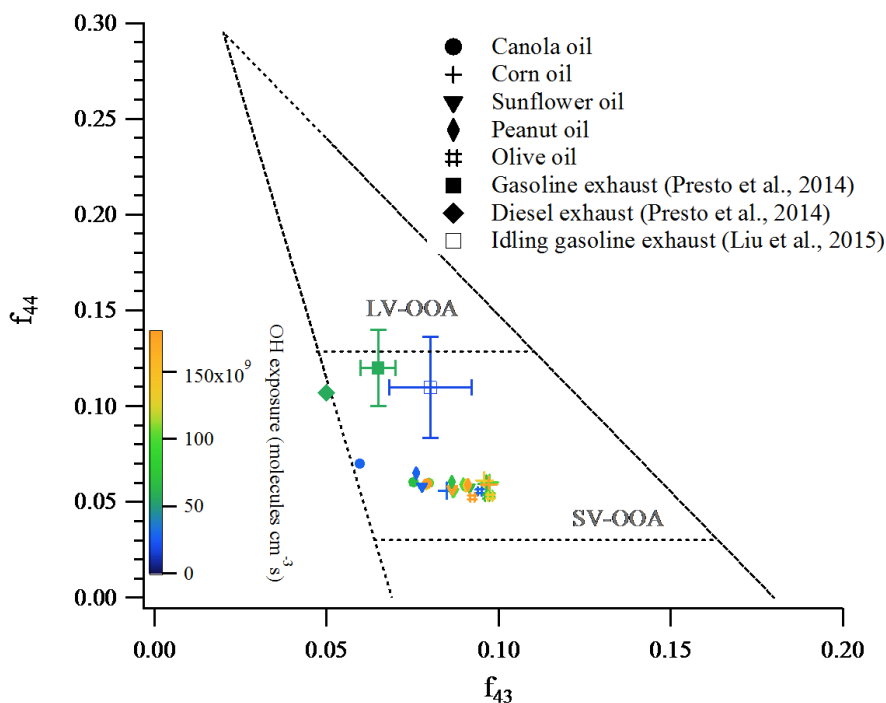


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586 **Fig. 4.** Mass spectra of POA and SOA at an OH exposure of 2.7×10^{10} molecules cm^{-3} s

587 from heated canola oil.

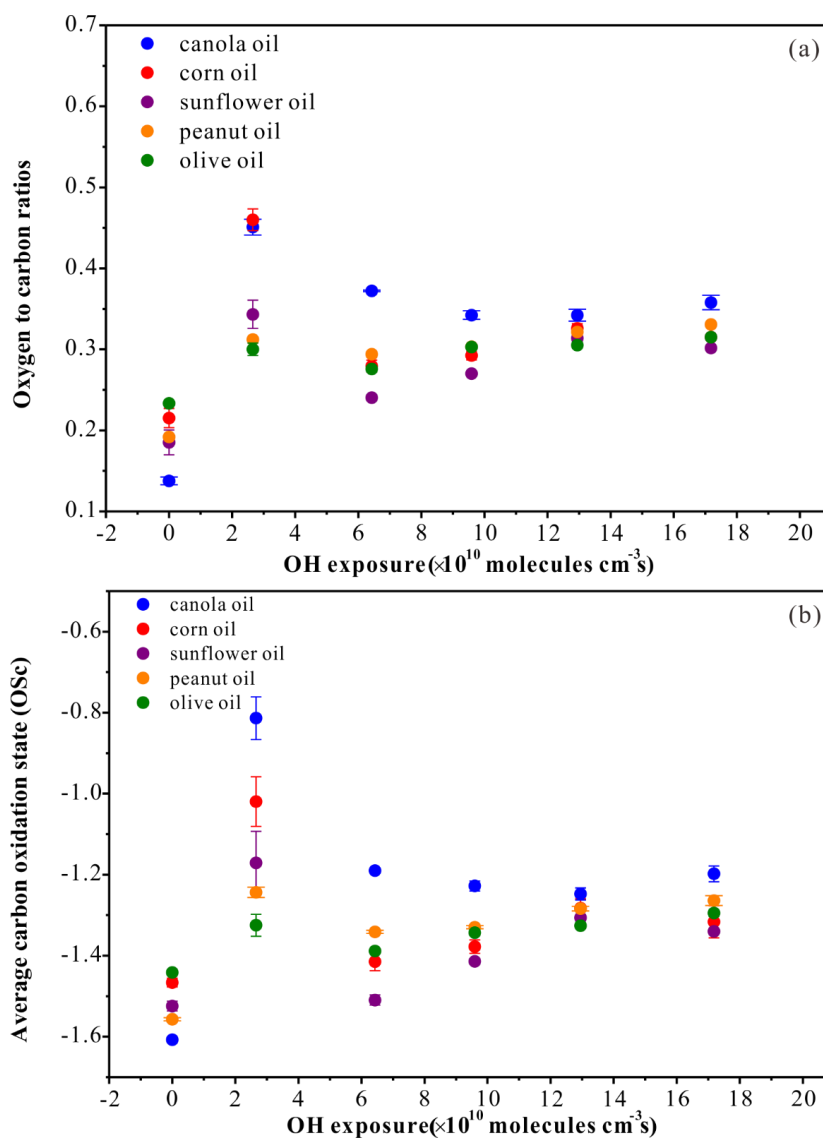
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589

590 **Fig. 5.** Fractions of total organic signal at m/z 43 (f_{43}) vs. m/z (f_{44}) from SOA data in
 591 this work together with the triangle plot of Ng et al. (2010). SOA data from gasoline
 592 (Presto et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2015) and diesel (Presto et al., 2014) vehicle exhaust
 593 measured in smog chamber studies are shown. Data from this work and the literature
 594 are colored according to OH exposure. Ambient SV-OOA and LV-OOA regions are
 595 adapted from Ng et al. (2010).

596



597

598 **Fig. 6.** Evolution of (a) oxygen to carbon (O:C) molar ratios and (b) average carbon
 599 oxidation state (OS_c) as a function of OH exposure during the aging of gas-phase
 600 emissions from heated different cooking oils, with error bars indicating standard error.

601 Data at $[\text{OH}] = 0$ represent POA from cooking oils.

602