

1 **Seasonal differences in formation processes of oxidized organic aerosol near**
2 **Houston, TX**

3 Qili Dai^{1, 2}, Benjamin C. Schulze^{2, 3}, Xiaohui Bi^{1, 2}, Alexander A.T. Bui², Fangzhou Guo², Henry
4 W. Wallace^{2, 4}, Nancy P. Sanchez², James H. Flynn⁵, Barry L. Lefer^{5, 6}, Yinchang Feng^{1*}, Robert J.
5 Griffin^{2, 7}

6 ¹ State Environmental Protection Key Laboratory of Urban Ambient Air Particulate Matter Pollution
7 Prevention and Control, College of Environmental Science and Engineering, Nankai University, Tianjin
8 300350, China

9 ² Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering, Rice University, Houston, TX, 77005

10 ³ Now at Department of Environmental Science and Engineering, California Institute of Technology,
11 Pasadena, CA, 91125

12 ⁴ Now at Washington State Department of Ecology, Lacey WA, 98503

13 ⁵ Department of Earth and Atmospheric Sciences, University of Houston, Houston, TX, 77004

14 ⁶ Now at Division of Tropospheric Composition, NASA, Washington, DC, 20024

15 ⁷ Department of Chemical and Biomolecular Engineering, Rice University, Houston, TX, 77005

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17 *Corresponding author: Yinchang Feng (fengyc@nankai.edu.cn)

18

19 **Abstract**

20 Submicron aerosol was measured to the southwest of Houston, Texas during winter and
21 summer 2014 to investigate its seasonal variability. Data from a high-resolution time-of-flight
22 aerosol mass spectrometer (HR-ToF-AMS) indicated that organic aerosol (OA) was the largest
23 component of non-refractory submicron particulate matter (NR-PM₁) (on average, $38 \pm 13\%$ and
24 $47 \pm 18\%$ of the NR-PM₁ mass loading in winter and summer, respectively). Positive matrix
25 factorization (PMF) analysis of the OA mass spectra demonstrated that two classes of
26 oxygenated OA (less and more-oxidized OOA, LO and MO) together dominated OA mass in
27 summer (77%) and accounted for 39% of OA mass in winter. The fraction of LO-OOA (out of
28 total OOA) is higher in summer (70%) than in winter (44%). Secondary aerosols
29 (sulfate+nitrate+ammonium+OOA) accounted for ~76% and 88% of NR-PM₁ mass in winter
30 and summer, respectively, indicating NR-PM₁ mass was driven mostly by secondary aerosol
31 formation regardless of the season. The mass loadings and diurnal patterns of these secondary
32 aerosols show a clear winter/summer contrast. Organic nitrate (ON) concentrations were
33 estimated using the NO_x⁺ ratio method, with contributions of 31-66% and 9-17% to OA during
34 winter and summer, respectively. The estimated ON in summer strongly correlated with LO-OOA
35 ($r=0.73$) and was enhanced at nighttime.

36 The relative importance of aqueous-phase chemistry and photochemistry in processing OOA
37 was investigated by examining the relationship of aerosol liquid water content (LWC) and the
38 sum of ozone (O₃) and nitrogen dioxide (NO₂) (O_x=O₃+NO₂) with LO-OOA and MO-OOA. The
39 processing mechanism of LO-OOA apparently was related to relative humidity (RH). In periods
40 of RH <80%, aqueous-phase chemistry likely played an important role in the formation of

41 wintertime LO-OOA, whereas photochemistry promoted the formation of summertime
42 LO-OOA. For periods of high RH >80%, these effects were opposite those of low RH periods.
43 Both photochemistry and aqueous-phase processing appear to facilitate increases in MO-OOA
44 concentration except during periods of high LWC, which is likely a result of wet removal during
45 periods of light rain or a negative impact on its formation rate.

46 The nighttime increases of MO-OOA during winter and summer were 0.013 and 0.01 μg
47 MO-OOA per μg of LWC, respectively. The increase of LO-OOA was larger than that for
48 MO-OOA, with increase rates of 0.033 and 0.055 μg LO-OOA per μg of LWC at night during
49 winter and summer, respectively. On average, the mass concentration of LO-OOA in summer
50 was elevated by nearly 1.2 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ for a ~ 20 μg change in LWC, which was accompanied by a 40
51 ppb change in O_x .

52

53 **1 Introduction**

54 Tropospheric particulate matter (PM) has adverse effects on air quality, visibility, and
55 ecosystems and participates in climate forcing (Watson, 2002; Grantz et al., 2003; Racherla and
56 Adams, 2006; Tai et al., 2010; Liu et al., 2017). The various effects of PM depend on its physical,
57 chemical and optical properties, which are determined by its emission, formation and
58 evolution/aging processes. Atmospheric PM can either be directly emitted from primary sources
59 (fossil fuel combustion, soil dust, sea salt, biomass burning, etc.) or formed through chemical
60 reactions of gaseous precursors, as is the case for secondary inorganic sulfate (SO_4^{2-}) and nitrate

61 (NO_3^-) and secondary organic aerosol (SOA). Understanding the source contributions and
62 formation pathways of PM is essential for mitigating its effects (Jimenez et al., 2009).

63 Houston, TX, is of great interest to the scientific community with respect to air quality, as it
64 is the fourth most populous city in the United States (U.S.) and is well known for its energy and
65 chemical industries. Numerous efforts, from modelling (McKeen et al., 2009; Li et al., 2015;
66 Ying et al., 2015) to field measurements (for example, TexAQS 2000 and II (Bates et al., 2008;
67 Parrish et al., 2009; Atkinson et al., 2010), Go-MACCS (McKeen et al., 2009; Parrish et al.,
68 2009), TRAMP2006 (Mao et al., 2010; Cleveland et al., 2012), GC-ARCH (Allen and Fraser,
69 2006), SHARP (Olaguer et al., 2014), and DISCOVER-AQ (Bean et al., 2016; Leong et al.,
70 2017)) have been made in the Houston metropolitan area during the past two decades, providing
71 critical insights into our understanding of air quality and atmospheric chemistry with respect to
72 the sources and formation of PM. Previous field campaigns underscore that OA accounts for a
73 major fraction of non-refractory submicron PM (NR-PM_{10}) in Houston (Bates et al., 2008;
74 Russell et al., 2009; Cleveland et al., 2012; Brown et al., 2013; Bean et al., 2016; Leong et al.,
75 2017; Wallace et al., 2018). The spatial variation of NR-PM_{10} in Houston was investigated by
76 Leong et al. (2017), who divided greater Houston into two zones based on marked differences in
77 NR-PM_{10} levels, characteristics, and dynamics measured at 16 sampling locations. Zone 1 is
78 northwest of Houston and is dominated by SOA likely driven by nighttime biogenic organic
79 nitrate (ON) formation. Intensive attention has been paid recently to such
80 anthropogenic-biogenic interactions (Bahreini et al., 2009; Bean et al., 2016). Zone 2 is the
81 industrial/urban area south/east of Houston. Wallace et al. (2018) found mobile source exhaust

82 and petrochemical emissions likely are the most important factors impacting the NR-PM₁ and
83 trace gases at a site in Zone 2.

84 Formation of SOA in clouds and the aqueous phase of aerosol particles has been reported
85 worldwide (Lim et al., 2010; Ervens et al., 2011; Xu et al., 2017). Given that both photochemical
86 oxidation and aqueous-phase chemistry are conducive to the formation of SOA, it is of interest to
87 compare the relative importance of photochemistry and aqueous-phase chemistry for SOA
88 formation in different seasons. The roles of photochemistry and aqueous-phase processing on
89 SOA formation and evolution in different seasons in Beijing have been investigated by Hu et al.
90 (2016) and Xu et al. (2017). Generally, aqueous-phase processing has a dominant influence on
91 the formation of more oxidized SOA and photochemistry plays a major role in the formation of
92 less oxidized SOA in summer and winter in Beijing, while the relative importance of these two
93 pathways in the formation processes of SOA in autumn is different from those in summer and
94 winter. The relative roles of aqueous-phase and photochemical processes in the formation of
95 SOA likely vary with location and time. The seasonal differences in the spectral patterns,
96 oxidation degrees and contributions of SOA may result from different volatile organic compound
97 (VOC) precursors, meteorological conditions and atmospheric oxidizing capacity, which are not
98 well understood in Houston, particularly in different seasons.

99 This study presents observations of NR-PM₁ from two high-resolution time-of-flight aerosol
100 mass spectrometer (HR-ToF-AMS) measurement campaigns conducted during the winter and
101 summer of 2014 at a site in the suburbs of Houston, where industrial and vehicular emission
102 sources and photochemical processes are likely to play an important role in NR-PM₁ formation
103 (Leong et al., 2017). In addition to local emissions, this site was possibly impacted by regional

104 marine aerosol transported from the Gulf of Mexico (Schulze et al., 2018). The aims of this work
105 are to (1) investigate the seasonal characteristics of NR-PM₁ in the Houston area, (2) characterize
106 the primary and secondary sources by applying positive matrix factorization (PMF) analysis to
107 the measured OA mass spectra, and (3) evaluate the seasonal dependence of SOA composition
108 and formation, with a main focus on the relative effects of photochemistry and aqueous-phase
109 chemistry.

110

111 **2 Materials and Methods**

112 **2.1 Sampling Site and Campaigns**

113 Instrumentation was deployed in the University of Houston/Rice University Mobile Air
114 Quality Laboratory (MAQL), as described in Leong et al. (2017) and Wallace et al. (2018). The
115 winter campaign was conducted from February 3 through February 17, 2014, and the summer
116 campaign was conducted from May 1 to May 31, 2014. The measurement site was located on the
117 campus of University of Houston Sugar Land (UHSL) (29.5740 °N, 95.6518 °W). The campus is
118 situated southwest of downtown and the Houston Ship Channel (HSC). The map of the
119 measurement site is presented in Fig. S1 in the Supplemental Information (SI). The nearby
120 interstate highway (I-69) extends to the west of downtown and serves as a major traffic emission
121 source. The W.A. Parish Generating Station, a coal-fired power plant that is the largest
122 electricity generating facility in Texas, is ~6 miles south of the site (Fig. S1). The data collected
123 in the winter campaign are limited in duration; thus, the following discussion focuses primarily

124 on the summer campaign. The label of “winter/summer” in the text denotes the measurement
125 period in the winter/summer.

126 **2.2 Measurements**

127 The data used in this paper are reported in local time, which is 6 and 5 hours behind
128 Universal Coordinated Time in winter and summer, respectively. The details regarding the
129 instrumental setup and data processing of these measurements were the same as described in
130 Wallace et al. (2018). The NR-PM₁ composition was measured using an Aerodyne
131 HR-ToF-AMS (DeCarlo et al., 2006; Canagaratna et al., 2007). A PM_{2.5} Teflon®-coated cyclone
132 inlet was installed above the MAQL at a height of 6 m above ground to remove coarse particles
133 and to introduce air into the sampling line at a rate of 16.7 SLPM. A Nafion dryer (Perma Pure,
134 LLC) was mounted upstream of the HR-ToF-AMS to dry the sample to below 45% relative
135 humidity (RH). Particles are focused into a narrow beam via an aerodynamic lens and
136 accelerated under high vacuum into the particle sizing measurement chamber. After passing the
137 particle sizing chamber, the non-refractory components are flash vaporized at near 600°C and
138 ionized using electron impact at 70 eV. Ionized mass fragments are then transmitted directly into
139 the time-of-flight region so that the mass spectra can be obtained. In this study, the
140 HR-ToF-AMS was operated in “V-mode” to obtain the non-refractory chemical components
141 with a higher sensitivity, lower mass spectral resolution compared to the “W-mode.” Ionization
142 efficiency (IE) calibration was performed monodisperse ammonium nitrate (NH₄NO₃) at the
143 beginning and end of each campaign. Filtered ambient air was sampled every two days for
144 approximately 20 to 30 min to provide a baseline of signal for the HR-ToF-AMS during

145 campaigns. The detection limits, (Table S1 in the SI) were calculated by multiplying the standard
146 deviations of the filter periods by three.

147 Trace gas mixing ratios and meteorological parameters also were measured on the MAQL
148 during the campaigns. Carbon monoxide (CO) was measured with high-resolution cavity
149 enhanced direct-absorption spectroscopy (Los Gatos Research, Inc.), and sulfur dioxide (SO₂)
150 was quantified using a pulsed fluorescence analyzer (ThermoFischer Scientific, model 43i-TLE).
151 Nitric oxide (NO) and nitrogen dioxide (NO₂) were measured with a chemiluminescence monitor
152 with an ultraviolet-light-emitting-diode NO₂ photolytic converter on the NO₂ channel (AQD, Inc.)
153 The total reactive nitrogen (NO_y) was measured with a Thermo 49c-TL with a heated
154 molybdenum inlet converter. Ozone (O₃) mixing ratio was measured with ultraviolet absorption
155 (2BTech, Inc., model 205). Meteorological parameters including ambient temperature, solar
156 radiation, RH, wind speed (WS), and wind direction (WD) were measured using an RM Young
157 meteorological station. Precipitation totals from a nearby Texas Commission on Environmental
158 Quality (TCEQ) monitor site (EPA Site: 48_157_0696) were downloaded from the TCEQ
159 website. The total cloud cover data were downloaded from the READY Archived Meteorology
160 website of the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration.

161

162 **2.3 Data Processing**

163 The HR-ToF-AMS data analysis was performed using SQUIRREL v.1.56A and PIKA
164 v.1.19D in Igor Pro 6.37 (Wave Metrics Inc.). The relative IEs were applied to OA (1.4), SO₄²⁻
165 (1.2), NO₃⁻ (1.1), NH₄⁺ (4.0), and chloride (Cl⁻, 1.3) following the standard data analysis

166 procedures. The composition-dependent collection efficiency was applied to the data based on
167 Middlebrook et al. (2012). Elemental ratios (H/C, O/C and N/C, where H is hydrogen, C is
168 carbon, and N is nitrogen) and the ratio of organic mass to organic carbon (OM/OC) were
169 generated using the procedures described by Canagaratna et al. (2015). Example data are shown
170 in Figure S2.

171 2.3.1 Quantification of the contributions of ON

172 The mass loading of NO_3^- measured by HR-ToF-AMS includes both organic and inorganic
173 NO_3^- . The fragmentation ratio of NO_2^+ to NO^+ (NO_x^+ ratio) is different for ON and inorganic
174 NO_3^- (Farmer et al., 2010; Fry et al., 2013), and the NO_2^+ and NO^+ mass loadings for ON
175 ($\text{NO}_{2,\text{ON}}$ and NO_{ON}) can be estimated using the method proposed by Farmer et al. (2010):

$$176 \quad \text{NO}_{2,\text{ON}} = \frac{\text{NO}_{2,\text{obs}} \times (R_{\text{obs}} - R_{\text{NO}_3\text{NH}_4})}{R_{\text{ON}} - R_{\text{NO}_3\text{NH}_4}} \quad (1)$$

$$177 \quad \text{NO}_{\text{ON}} = \text{NO}_{2,\text{ON}} / R_{\text{ON}} \quad (2)$$

178 where R_{obs} is the ambient NO_x^+ ratio (0.531 and 0.260 for the winter and summer campaign,
179 respectively; see Fig. S3 for details). $R_{\text{NO}_3\text{NH}_4}$ (NO_x^+ ratio of NH_4NO_3) is determined by IE
180 calibration using monodisperse NH_4NO_3 before and after the campaigns. The average of the two
181 IE calibrations was used as the $R_{\text{NO}_3\text{NH}_4}$ for the campaign (0.588 and 0.381 for the winter and
182 summer campaigns, respectively), which is comparable with the value reported elsewhere (Xu et
183 al., 2015; Zhu et al., 2016). The value of R_{ON} is hard to determine because it varies with
184 instruments and precursor VOCs (Fry et al., 2013). Previous studies found that isoprene was the
185 main biogenic VOC (BVOC) in Houston (Leuchner and Rappengluck, 2010; Kota et al., 2014),
186 and Brown et al. (2013) reported that monoterpenes and isoprene were frequently present within

187 the nocturnal boundary layer in the Houston area and underwent rapid oxidation, mainly by nitrate
 188 radical (denoted as NO_3^\cdot with a dot to differentiate it from aerosol NO_3^-). Given the abundance of
 189 monoterpene and isoprene in the Houston area, similar to Xu et al. (2015), we assume organic
 190 nitrates formed via isoprene and beta-pinene oxidation are representative. Fry et al. (2013)
 191 assumed that the $R_{ON}/R_{\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3}$ value is instrument-independent, and further estimated the
 192 average $R_{ON}/R_{\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3}$ of 2.25 for the organic nitrate standards. The $R_{ON}/R_{\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3}$ values vary
 193 with precursor VOC. We utilized the $R_{ON}/R_{\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3}$ of isoprene (2.08, (Bruns et al., 2010)) and
 194 beta-pinene organic nitrates (3.99, (Boyd et al., 2015)) from the literature to obtain an estimation
 195 range of R_{ON} by using the NO_x^+ method.

196 The measured NO_x^+ ratio can be used to separately quantify ammonium and organic nitrates
 197 as:

$$198 \quad ON_{frac} = \frac{(R_{obs} - R_{\text{NO}_3\text{NH}_4})(1 + R_{ON})}{(R_{ON} - R_{\text{NO}_3\text{NH}_4})(1 + R_{obs})} \quad (3)$$

199 The nitrate functionality from organic nitrate was calculated as:

$$200 \quad \text{NO}_{3,ON} = ON_{frac} \times \text{NO}_3^- \quad (4)$$

201 Thus, the nitrate functionality from inorganic nitrate (assuming NH_4NO_3 is the solely important
 202 inorganic nitrate in the submicron mode) can be calculated as:

$$203 \quad \text{NO}_{3,AN} = (1 - ON_{frac}) \times \text{NO}_3^- \quad (5)$$

204 The accurate estimation of the total mass of ON via this method is uncertain as the actual
 205 molecular weight of the particle-phase species is unclear. The mass range of ON is estimated by
 206 assuming that the average molecular weights of organic molecules with nitrate functional groups
 207 are 200 to 300 g mol^{-1} (Surratt et al., 2008; Rollins et al., 2012). Previous work found that the
 208 NO_3^\cdot reaction with monoterpenes resulted in significant SOA formation and that a hydroperoxy

209 nitrate ($C_{10}H_{17}NO_5$) was likely a major NO_3^- -oxidized terpene product in the southeastern U.S.
210 (Ayres et al., 2015). Here, we use the molecular weight of $C_{10}H_{17}NO_5$ (231 g mol^{-1}) to calculate
211 the ON mass. Example periods of significant ON contribution to PM are given in Fig. S4. While
212 the values of ON concentration estimated using this method are presented in the text, the result
213 of estimated ON including uncertainties is available in Table S2.

214 2.3.2 PMF Analysis

215 The PMF technique has been used widely for source apportionment (Paatero and Tapper,
216 1994), including with HR-TOF-AMS data (Ulbrich et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2011). The
217 high-resolution NR- PM_1 OA mass spectra matrix (mass-to-charge ratio, $m/z = 12$ to $m/z = 130$)
218 and the associated error matrix obtained by using PIKA v 1.19 D were used for PMF analysis.
219 Data were prepared according to the protocol proposed by Ulbrich et al. (2009) and Zhang et al.
220 (2011) prior to PMF analysis. The PMF model was used to decompose the measured OA mass
221 spectra matrix by solving:

$$222 \quad X = GF + E = \sum_{p=1}^J G_{ip}F_{pj} + E_{ij} \quad (6)$$

223 where X is the $m \times n$ matrix of measurement data, the m rows of X are the OA mass spectra
224 measured at each time step, the n columns of X are the time series of each organic m/z , and p is
225 the number of factors. G_{ip} is the matrix that denotes the contributions of factor p at time step i ,
226 and F_{pj} represents the factor mass spectral profiles. E is the residual matrix. The least-squares
227 algorithm is used to fit the data to minimize iteratively a quality of fit parameter, Q :

$$228 \quad Q = \sum_I \sum_J (E_{ij} / \sigma_{ij})^2 \quad (7)$$

229 where σ_{ij} is the matrix of estimated errors of the data.

230 Solutions using PMF with 2 to 7 factors were explored. The best solution with the optimum
231 number of factors was evaluated carefully using an open source PMF evaluation tool (PET v
232 2.08D, (Ulbrich et al., 2009)) following the procedures described in Zhang et al. (2011).
233 Selection criteria included 1.) variation of the ratio of Q to expected Q_{exp} ($mn-p(m+n)$), the
234 degrees of freedom of the fitted data (Paatero et al., 2002)) after adding an additional factor, 2.)
235 agreement between the reconstructed OA mass concentrations and the measured concentrations,
236 3.) scaled residuals for the different ion fragments included in the dataset and variations of the
237 residual of the solution as a function of time, 4.) agreement between factor time series and time
238 series of external tracers/individual ions, and 5.) examination of factor profiles. The last two are
239 considered to determine the physical meaningfulness of the factors. The PMF solution with
240 factor numbers greater than five and four for winter and summer dataset, respectively, yielded no
241 new distinct and physical meaningful factors. The Q/Q_{exp} and the factors obtained for different
242 FPEAK (from -1 to 1 with a step value of 0.2) values resulted in a small difference in the OA
243 components. Because of the lowest Q/Q_{exp} and because the use of FPEAK values different from
244 0 did not improve the correlations between PMF factors and potentially associated tracers, the
245 five- and four-factors solutions with FPEAK=0 can be well interpreted in winter and summer,
246 respectively. The convergence of the PMF model containing five- and four-factors was examined
247 by running each model from fifteen different starting values (SEEDs 0-30 with a step value of 2).
248 The small variation observed in Q/Q_{exp} and the mass fraction of different factors as SEED
249 changed indicates the solutions were stable. As a result, SEED 0 was chosen for the final
250 solution. The factors were interpreted as hydrocarbon-like OA (HOA), biomass burning OA
251 (BBOA), cooking OA (COA, identified only in the winter campaign), and two oxidized OA

252 (named less-oxygenated (LO-) OOA and more-oxygenated (MO-) OOA). The data treatment,
253 factor selection and interpretation are detailed in the SI. As suggested by El-Sayed et al. (2016),
254 drying of aerosol water may have led to the evaporation of condensed-phase organics. Thus, the
255 resolved mass concentrations of OA factors here are a lower-bound, conservative estimate due to
256 losses of aqueous-SOA in the dryer element.

257 **2.3.3 Estimation of Aerosol Liquid Water Content (LWC)**

258 Aerosol LWC includes water associated with inorganic aerosol and OA, which were
259 calculated using a thermodynamic model and an empirical method, respectively. Inorganic LWC
260 (W_i) in mol L⁻¹ was predicted by ISORROPIA-II in forward mode (Fountoukis and Nenes, 2007).
261 Inputs for ISORROPIA-II include inorganic aerosol mass concentrations (SO₄²⁻, inorganic NO₃⁻,
262 and NH₄⁺) and meteorological parameters (temperature and RH). Calculation empirical of
263 organic LWC (W_o) follows (Petters and Kreidenweis, 2007; Guo et al., 2015):

$$264 \quad W_o = \frac{m_{org}\rho_w}{\rho_{org}} \frac{\kappa_{org}}{(1/RH)^{-1}} \quad (8)$$

265 where m_{org} is the organic mass concentration ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) and ρ_w is the density of water (1 g
266 cm⁻³). The organic density (ρ_{org} , g cm⁻³) was estimated using an empirical equation based on
267 elemental ratios (Kuwata et al., 2012; Guo et al., 2015):

$$268 \quad \rho_{org} = 1000 \times \left[\frac{12 + \frac{H}{C} + 16 \times \frac{O}{C}}{7.0 + 5 \times \frac{H}{C} + 4.15 \times \frac{O}{C}} \right] \quad (9)$$

269 The hygroscopicity of SOA generated during chamber studies under sub-saturated regimes
270 depends on the OA degree of oxidation (Prenni et al., 2007; Jimenez et al., 2009; Petters et al.,
271 2009; Chang et al., 2010). A simple linear relationship between the OA degree of oxidation

272 (defined as the fraction of the total signal at m/z 44, f_{44}) and hygroscopicity (κ_{org}) is used

273 (Duplissy et al., 2011):

$$274 \quad \kappa_{org} = 2.2 \times f_{44} - 0.13 \quad (10)$$

275 The total LWC is then found by summing the water content associated with each mass fraction:

$$276 \quad LWC = W_i + W_o \quad (11)$$

277

278 **3 Results and Discussion**

279 **3.1 Temporal Dependences of Submicron Aerosol Composition**

280 Campaign overview data for winter and summer are shown in Table 1 and Fig. 1. This
281 includes meteorological parameters (e.g., temperature, RH, radiometer, precipitation, wind
282 direction and speed), trace gases (e.g., CO, SO₂, NO₂, and O₃), and chemically resolved NR-PM₁
283 concentrations.

284 Data indicate that the average concentration of NR-PM₁ during winter campaign was $6.0 \pm$
285 $3.7 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, ranging from 0.5 to $14.8 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. Mass loadings of NR-PM₁ at this measurement site
286 are relatively smaller than at a site near the HSC in winter 2015 ($10.8 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (Wallace et al.,
287 2018)), perhaps suggesting a weaker industrial influence at the UHSL site.

288 The average concentration of NR-PM₁ during summer was $3.6 \pm 1.7 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, ranging from
289 0.3 to $13.7 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. For comparison, a summer campaign in 2006 on an elevated building near
290 downtown Houston showed an average NR-PM₁ concentration of approximately $11 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$
291 (Cleveland et al., 2012). An elevated NR-PM₁ episode was observed from May 28-31 (Fig. 1(J)),
292 with high solar radiation and O_x (O_x = NO₂ + O₃) levels during the daytime, and high RH at

293 night, resulting in OA becoming the largest fractional species, likely due to gas-phase
294 photochemical production of SOA together with the nighttime increase of SOA associated with
295 high RH, lowered boundary layer and cooler temperatures.

296 In winter, OA was the largest component of NR-PM₁, accounting for $38 \pm 13\%$ on average
297 of the total mass, followed by SO₄²⁻ ($23 \pm 11\%$), NO₃⁻ ($23 \pm 11\%$), NH₄⁺ ($15 \pm 5\%$) and Cl⁻ ($1 \pm$
298 0.2%) (Fig. 2). Primary OA (POA=HOA+BBOA+COA) was responsible for $61 \pm 19\%$ of OA
299 mass. Secondary species (SO₄²⁻+NO₃⁻+NH₄⁺+LO-OOA+MO-OOA) accounted for $\sim 76 \pm 21\%$ of
300 NR-PM₁ mass, which is higher than that in winter in Seoul (Kim et al., 2017) and Beijing (Hu et
301 al., 2016).

302 In contrast to winter, OA during the summer campaign constituted on average $47 \pm 18\%$ of
303 NR-PM₁ mass, and SO₄²⁻ was the second largest component ($36 \pm 15\%$), followed by NH₄⁺ ($14 \pm$
304 5%). NO₃⁻ only accounted for $2 \pm 1\%$ of NR-PM₁ mass in the summer, and Cl⁻ contributed $1 \pm$
305 0.5% of NR-PM₁ mass. The increased planetary boundary layer (PBL) height in summer (Haman
306 et al., 2012) likely contributed to relatively lower trace gas and NR-PM₁ levels in the summer.
307 Secondary species contributed $\sim 88 \pm 15\%$ of NR-PM₁ mass, indicating that the relative
308 importance of secondary aerosol formation increased during summer as compared to winter,
309 especially for species such as SO₄²⁻ and MO-OOA.

310 The total OA displayed high values during the nighttime hours in both winter and summer,
311 maintaining a high level until morning rush hour, and then decreasing to a minimum value after
312 9:00 (Fig. 3). The summertime OA presented a small peak at noon, suggesting that
313 photochemical formation of OA played a more important role in summer than in winter.
314 Increasing ambient temperature and PBL height after sunrise causes re-partitioning to the gas

315 phase, likely contributing to the decrease of OA, LO-OOA and ON during daytime.

316 Contributions of PMF factors to wintertime and summertime OA show significant
317 differences. For wintertime OA, on average, BBOA contributed to 26% of OA mass; MO-OOA
318 and COA made the same contributions of 22% to total OA mass. The LO-OOA accounted for 17%
319 of OA mass, followed by HOA (13%). The POA constituted more than half of OA mass (61%),
320 with the remainder of being OOA (39%). In the summer, LO-OOA represented the largest
321 fraction of the OA mass (54% on average), followed by MO-OOA (23%), HOA (15%) and
322 BBOA (8%). In the case of summer, OOA constituted 77% of OA and 36% of total NR-PM₁
323 mass, which are almost two times their relative contributions in winter. The time series of mass
324 concentrations of NR-PM₁ species (Fig. 1) and OA factors (Fig. 4) in summer were relatively
325 stable and repeatable, while they varied dramatically in winter due to the different
326 meteorological conditions.

327

328 **3.2 Seasonal Variation of the Formation of Sulfate and Nitrate**

329 During the summer campaign, the prevailing southerly winds from the Gulf of Mexico carry
330 marine aerosols to Houston (Schulze et al., 2018), resulting in a relatively high fraction of SO₄²⁻.
331 As shown in Fig. 1(G, J), the increased contribution of SO₄²⁻ occurred when winds originated
332 from the south at a high speed (e.g., May 16-27), while the contribution of SO₄²⁻ decreased
333 significantly when winds originated from the north (e.g., May 10th and May 13-15). During
334 periods of southerly winds, O/C and OM/OC were relatively higher (Fig. S2(C)). In addition,
335 elevated SO₂ plumes were recorded during periods of southerly winds (Fig. 1(G, H)), potentially
336 as a result of emissions from the Parish coal-fired power plant. In contrast to SO₄²⁻, the fractional

337 contribution of NO_3^- and OA increased greatly when the winds were not southerly. Primary
338 pollutants such as CO and NO_2 , were elevated when winds were northerly (Fig. 1(H)),
339 accompanied by lower O/C and higher H/C ratios during the corresponding periods (Fig. S2(C),
340 e.g., May 1st, 2nd, 10th, 15th).

341 Diurnal patterns of NR- PM_{10} and other species in the winter and summer (Fig. 3) suggest
342 significant seasonal dependence of sources and formation processes of NR- PM_{10} species in
343 Houston. In the case of SO_4^{2-} , the diurnal pattern displayed a daytime peak in both winter and
344 summer, with the peak much more pronounced in summer mid-day. In winter, the f_{SO_4} (mole
345 ratio of $[\text{SO}_4^{2-}]$ to the sum of $[\text{SO}_2]$ and $[\text{SO}_4^{2-}]$) and LWC have concurrent peak values during
346 the night (Figure 5). However, there is no obvious correlation between f_{SO_4} and LWC in summer,
347 though a moderate correlation ($r = 0.44$) was found in winter. By comparing the diurnal plots of
348 sulfate in winter and summer, it appears that sulfate generated from aqueous chemistry
349 accounted for more mass and a greater fraction of total sulfate production in winter than in
350 summer.

351 The total nitrate concentration was higher in winter than in summer. The $\text{NO}_3^-_{,\text{AN}}$ was very
352 low in summer due to its thermal instability under high temperature, while it was relatively
353 enhanced in winter. According to the NO_x^+ ratio method described in Sec. 2.3.1, the mass
354 fraction of $\text{NO}_3^-_{,\text{AN}}$ in total nitrate was in the range of 65-66% in winter, and in the range of
355 19-39% in summer. The averaged bound concentrations of $\text{NO}_3^-_{,\text{ON}}$ ranged from 0.22-0.34 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$
356 in winter, and 0.05-0.06 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ in summer. The seasonal variation of $\text{NO}_3^-_{,\text{AN}}$ is much stronger
357 than that of $\text{NO}_3^-_{,\text{ON}}$. This is in accordance with previous observations in Atlanta, Georgia and
358 Centreville, Alabama (Xu et al., 2015).

359 The diurnal profiles of $\text{NO}_{3,\text{ON}}$ show that it reached peak value before dawn in both seasons
360 (Fig. 5). However, $\text{NO}_{3^-, \text{AN}}$ presents a bimodal diurnal profile in both seasons. The $\text{NO}_{3^-, \text{AN}}$,
361 which increased from late afternoon and peaked at 2:00-4:00, was likely formed through
362 nighttime chemistry from dinitrogen pentoxide (N_2O_5) hydrolysis, as the LWC displayed a trend
363 similar to that of $\text{NO}_{3^-, \text{AN}}$. This was corroborated by the observation of O_x (>25 ppb), which is
364 needed to form N_2O_5 (via NO_3^{\cdot}). The second peak observed during morning rush hour was likely
365 formed through photochemical processing of NO_x emitted from vehicles because the traffic flow
366 and O_x level are elevated during morning rush hour. The decreasing trend of $\text{NO}_{3^-, \text{AN}}$ after 9:00 is
367 presumed to be a result of enhanced PBL height and evaporation.

368 The estimated ON accounted for 4-8% of the total NR- PM_{10} and 9-17% percent of the OA in
369 summer and 12-27% of the total NR- PM_{10} and 31-66% percent of the OA in winter, comparable
370 to other studies (Fry et al., 2009; Rollins et al., 2010; Xu et al., 2015; Berkemeier et al., 2016). A
371 proxy for NO_3^{\cdot} production rate is based on the product of the observations of $[\text{NO}_2]$ and $[\text{O}_3]$
372 (Rollins et al., 2012), where brackets represent mixing ratios in ppb. The O_x (> 25 ppb) and
373 elevated NO_x observed at night in summer (Fig. 3) resulted in rapid NO_3^{\cdot} formation. Thus, the
374 concurrent enhancement in ON and O_3 times NO_2 occurring during nighttime (Fig. S4) likely
375 indicates the nocturnal NO_3^{\cdot} -initiated oxidation of anthropogenic and biogenic VOCs, with the
376 latter probably larger than the former (Brown et al., 2013). The high N/C ratio of LO-OOA,
377 concurrent peak value in LO-OOA and ON ($\text{MW}=231 \text{ g mol}^{-1}$) during nighttime hours (Fig. 3),
378 and appreciable correlation of LO-OOA and ON in summer ($r = 0.73$) (Fig. 4) together suggest
379 that particle-phase ON from NO_3^{\cdot} -initiated chemistry contributed to nighttime LO-OOA in
380 summer.

381

382 **3.3 Effects of Aqueous-phase and Photochemical Oxidation on OOA Formation**

383 On average, OOA accounted for $39 \pm 19\%$ of OA mass in winter but increased to $77 \pm 16\%$
384 in summer. Note that MO-OOA accounted for more than half of OOA in winter (56%),
385 indicating the more important role of MO-OOA in winter as compared to LO-OOA on a relative
386 basis. In contrast, LO-OOA dominated OOA in summer (70%). The mass spectra of MO-OOA in
387 winter and summer are similar (Fig. 6, $r = 0.84$) as are the extent of oxidation ($O/C = 1.10$ versus
388 1.07). However, LO-OOA in winter showed a different spectral pattern compared with that in
389 summer. The mass spectrum of LO-OOA in winter was characterized by high m/z 32 (mainly
390 CH_4O^+) and 46 (mainly $CH_2O_2^+$) peaks, resulting in a relatively high O/C (0.89) in winter that
391 suggest LO-OOA in winter was more aged than that in summer ($O/C=0.74$).

392 Sun et al. (2016) reported a unique OOA in ambient air, termed aq-OOA
393 (aqueous-phase-processed SOA), that strongly correlated with particle LWC, sulfate and
394 S-containing ions. As shown in Table 2, by comparing the mass spectra of OOA in this work
395 with aq-OOA, it is found that the mass spectra of MO-OOA in winter in this study presents a
396 much stronger correlation ($r = 0.96$) with aq-OOA, than does LO-OOA in winter in this study (r
397 $= 0.75$). Both MO-OOA and LO-OOA in summer highly correlated with aq-OOA. This result
398 indicates that the formation of LO-OOA in summer and MO-OOA in both seasons may involve
399 aqueous-phase chemistry.

400 Assuming that OOA deduced from PMF analysis can be used as a surrogate of SOA (Wood
401 et al., 2010; Xu et al., 2017), the two OOA were used to investigate the formation mechanisms
402 and evolutionary processes of SOA. Previous studies have found SOA correlated well with odd

403 oxygen (O_x) in many cities (Wood et al., 2010; Sun et al., 2011; Hayes et al., 2013; Zhang et al.,
404 2015; Xu et al., 2017) and that SOA formation is significantly impacted by aqueous-phase
405 processing (Lim et al., 2010; Ervens et al., 2011; Xu et al., 2017). The relationships between
406 OOA factors and O_x /LWC were used as the metrics to characterize SOA formation mechanisms
407 associated with photochemistry/aqueous oxidation chemistry (Xu et al., 2017).

408 Fig. 7 (A, B) indicates the LWC frequency distribution. Winter LWC are binned in $5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$
409 increments from 0 to $20 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. Data in the ranges of 20 to $30 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, 30 to $50 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, 50 to 80
410 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, and 80 to $120 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ are shown as 25, 40, 65 and $100 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, respectively. Summer
411 LWC are binned in $2.5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ increments from 0 to $15 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. The bins shown as 17.5 and 27.5
412 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ represent data from 15 to $20 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ and 20 to $35 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. It should be noted that a fit for
413 the binned data likely results in an increase in R^2 compared to the fit for the original data. For
414 example, the correlation coefficient of the fit for the averaged binned wintertime MO-OOA
415 (increased from 0.57 to $0.98 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) versus LWC (increased from 2.5 to $40 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) is 0.55,
416 while it is 0.06 for the original data (Figure 7(I)).

417 The data associated with the artificially created bins in both seasons did not pass the normal
418 test and homogeneity test of variances. The statistical significance of differences between bins
419 was then tested using the Kruskal-Wallis analysis of variance (K-W ANOVA). The differences
420 between winter and summer data of the bins were significant. Thus, the Dunn-Bonferroni test
421 was performed for the *post-hoc* pairwise comparisons. It was found that the difference of all
422 measured variables in different bins shown in Fig. 7 were significant ($p < 0.01$). The results can be
423 found in Tables S6-S7. Fig. 7(C, D) presents a clear positive trend of RH as a function of LWC
424 in both winter and summer which implies an increased potential for aqueous-phase processing at

425 high RH level, enhanced by low wind speed that allows accumulation of pollutants (Fig. 7(E, F)).
426 The patterns of other parameters as LWC increases in winter were different from those in
427 summer.

428 The variation of binned mean OA mass against LWC presents significant seasonal difference
429 (Fig. 7(A, B)). In winter, the OA mass increased when LWC increased from 2.5 to 12.5 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$
430 but decreased as the LWC increased further. In summer, the OA mass slightly decreased when
431 LWC increased from 1.25 to 6.25 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ but slightly increased when LWC increased further,
432 suggesting the production of OA is not as strong as that in winter because of the relatively lower
433 LWC in summer.

434 The winter LO-OOA mass decreased dramatically when $\text{LWC} > 12.5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ($\text{RH} > 80\%$, Fig.
435 7(C)) while MO-OOA continues increasing until $\text{LWC} > 40 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. This result indicates that wet
436 removal may dominate under an extremely high RH environment coupled with stagnant air (WS
437 $< 2 \text{ m/s}$ Fig. 7(E)) or that LO-OOA production decreased at extremely high LWC level (Fig.
438 7(A)). Specifically, average LO-OOA (Fig. 7(G, H)) in winter increased from 0.3 to 0.9 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$
439 when LWC increased from 2.5 to 7.5 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ but decreased as the LWC increased further,
440 particularly when $\text{LWC} > 40 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. The slope of this decrease was approximately $-0.008 \mu\text{g}$
441 LO-OOA $\mu\text{g}^{-1} \text{LWC}$. Fig. 7(A) shows that 64% of the data points were observed in the situation
442 of low LWC ($< 12.5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, $\text{RH} < 80\%$), when the increase of LO-OOA was largest.

443 In contrast, LO-OOA in summer showed a decreasing trend under low LWC level
444 ($\text{LWC} < 6.25 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, $\text{RH} < 80\%$) but an increasing trend from approximately 0.77 μm^{-3} to 1.8 μg
445 m^{-3} as LWC increased from 6.25 to 27.5 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, a slope of 0.053 $\mu\text{g LO-OOA } \mu\text{g}^{-1} \text{LWC}$. The
446 relatively high summer LO-OOA under low LWC level was likely more regional, with

447 contributions from possibly transported non-aqueous OOA, as the wind speed in this case was
448 relatively high and RH was low. The production of LO-OOA under high LWC level may have
449 been enhanced by local aqueous-phase heterogeneous chemistry.

450 MO-OOA slightly increased during both seasons as LWC increased (Fig. 7(I, J)). In winter,
451 MO-OOA presented an increasing trend from 0.57 to 0.98 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ when LWC increased from 2.5
452 to 40 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ but decreased slightly as the LWC increased further. The slope of this increase was
453 approximately 0.008 $\mu\text{g MO-OOA } \mu\text{g}^{-1} \text{ LWC}$ with correlation coefficient of 0.55. In summer,
454 MO-OOA appears to increase from 0.49 to 0.64 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ when LWC increased from 2.5 to 27.5 μg
455 m^{-3} , with slope of 0.005 $\mu\text{g MO-OOA } \mu\text{g}^{-1} \text{ LWC}$ ($R^2=0.34$). In winter, because of the decrease in
456 LO-OOA with LWC, the relative fraction of MO-OOA increases as LWC increases.

457 The mutual effect of aqueous-phase and photochemistry on OOA formation prevents solely
458 evaluating the role of the two processes. Sullivan et al. (2016) reported multiple lines of evidence
459 for local aq-SOA formation observed in the Po Valley, Italy during times of increasing RH,
460 which coincided with dark conditions. Thus, the daytime data were separated to examine the
461 variation of OOA against O_x . The relationship between OOA and aqueous-phase chemistry was
462 investigated further by excluding the daytime data, with the aim of diminishing the instantaneous
463 influence of photochemistry on the data. To do so, nighttime and daytime were based on sunrise
464 and sunset in Houston during the two campaigns
465 (<https://www.timeanddate.com/sun/usa/houston>). On average, the day lengths are 11 h 10 min
466 and 13 h 35 min for the campaigns in February and May, 2014, respectively.

467 A potential linear relationship between OOA and LWC for the nighttime data was
468 investigated by fitting the data with a locally weighted scatter plot smoothing algorithm

469 (LOWESS, (Cleveland, 1981)). According to the LOWESS curves for the original nighttime data
470 and the resampled data obtained by a bootstrap method (Figs. S14-15), there likely exists a linear
471 relationship between LO-OOA and LWC for data points with LWC less than $20 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ and
472 greater than $6 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ for the winter and summer periods, respectively. As for MO-OOA, such a
473 linear relationship likely exists when LWC is less than 50 and $7 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ for the winter and
474 summer periods, respectively.

475 Figure 8 presents the scatter plots of OOA versus LWC during nighttime for the two
476 campaigns. The green dots denote the increasing trend of OOA against LWC. It is found that the
477 increase of wintertime LO-OOA under low LWC level ($<20 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) during the night is stronger
478 than that shown in Fig. 7 (G). The nighttime LO-OOA linearly increased from 0.04 to $0.64 \mu\text{g}$
479 m^{-3} when LWC increased from 2.5 to $17.5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, a slope of $0.033 \mu\text{g LO-OOA } \mu\text{g}^{-1} \text{LWC}$. This
480 result indicates that the nighttime production of LO-OOA in winter may be more likely formed
481 via aqueous-phase chemistry in aerosol liquid water than that in day time. The production of
482 LO-OOA under high LWC level ($\text{LWC} > 6.25 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) in summer during nighttime ($0.055 \mu\text{g}$
483 $\text{LO-OOA } \mu\text{g}^{-1} \text{LWC}$) was comparable to the increase rate of whole dataset ($0.053 \mu\text{g LO-OOA}$
484 $\mu\text{g}^{-1} \text{LWC}$). The nighttime increasing trends of MO-OOA against LWC in both seasons are
485 stronger than those shown in Fig. 7(I, J) with respect to the correlation coefficient values. The
486 slope of nighttime increase of MO-OOA against LWC during the winter campaign was $0.013 \mu\text{g}$
487 $\text{MO-OOA } \mu\text{g}^{-1} \text{LWC}$, which is 1.7 times the slope for the whole dataset (daytime and nighttime).
488 For the summer campaign, the increase of nighttime MO-OOA is 2.2 times the rate for the whole
489 dataset.

490 These results suggest that aqueous-phase processing likely has a strong positive impact,

491 particularly at night, on the production of MO-OOA in the two seasons except for instances
492 when LWC exceeds $100 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ in winter. It also appears to facilitate the local production of
493 LO-OOA under low LWC level ($<17.5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) in winter and under relatively high LWC level
494 ($>6.25 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) in summer.

495 As mentioned previously, ON contributes significantly to summertime LO-OOA, and the
496 concurrent enhancement in ON and LO-OOA during night was associated with elevated RH (Fig.
497 3). A previous study found that the partitioning of organic compounds to the particle phase was
498 significantly increased at elevated RH levels (70%) in an urban area dominated by biogenic
499 emissions in Atlanta (Hennigan et al., 2008). The correlation of ON and LO-OOA in summer
500 nighttime ($r=0.76$) was stronger than that during daytime ($r =0.53$). This is likely due to the
501 higher ON yields from NO_3^- -initiated chemistry involving BVOCs during nighttime compared to
502 hydroxyl-radical-initiated chemistry involving BVOCs during daytime. Additionally, the
503 concurrent enhancement of the LWC and nitrate functionality from organic nitrate during
504 nighttime demonstrates that the LWC does not inhibit increases in concentration, as might be
505 expected if hydrolysis occurred rapidly.

506 Fig. 9(A, B) presents the frequency distribution of O_x . Winter O_x are binned in 10 ppb
507 increments from 0 to 60 ppb. The range for summer is 20 to 70 ppb. The data associated with the
508 artificially created O_x bins in both seasons did not pass the normal test and homogeneity test of
509 variances. The K-W ANOVA for winter and summer data of the bins were significant. The
510 Dunn-Bonferroni test for the *post-hoc* pairwise comparisons shows that the difference of
511 measured variables among different bins shown in Fig. 9 were significant (Tables S8-S9). The
512 clear positive relationship between solar radiation and O_x is shown in Fig. 9 (C, D), and the

513 negative relationship between RH and O_x is shown in Fig. 9 (E, F), confirming strong
514 atmospheric photochemical activity associated with high O_x periods.

515 The variations of LO-OOA and MO-OOA showed substantially different patterns with
516 increases of O_x in winter and summer. In winter, LO-OOA and MO-OOA showed comparable
517 increasing trends at low O_x level (<35 ppb), with MO-OOA having a stronger response. The
518 LO-OOA increased from 0.13 to 0.72 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ when O_x increased from 5 to 35 ppb but decreased
519 as the O_x increased further. The slope of this increase was approximately 0.023 $\mu\text{g LO-OOA}$
520 $\text{ppb}^{-1} O_x$. MO-OOA increased from 0.13 to 0.88 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ when the O_x increased from 5 to 35 ppb,
521 with a slope of 0.027 $\mu\text{g MO-OOA ppb}^{-1} O_x$. This leads to a maximum in the mass fraction of
522 MO-OOA as O_x approached its highest observed levels.

523 In summer, there is a clear decreasing trend of RH with increases of O_x . As discussed
524 previously, the high level of summertime LO-OOA likely was associated with high LWC.
525 Therefore, the high mass fraction of LO-OOA at the lowest O_x level (<20 ppb) associated with
526 the high RH/LWC was likely from aqueous-phase chemistry. After excluding low- O_x data (<20
527 ppb), LO-OOA showed a much stronger response to O_x than did MO-OOA. The summer
528 LO-OOA increased from approximately 0.6 to 1.8 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ when O_x increased from 25 to 65 ppb,
529 a slope of 0.03 $\mu\text{g LO-OOA ppb}^{-1} O_x$. This increase was likely in the case of low RH conditions
530 (<80%, Fig. 7 (D)), when aqueous-phase chemistry was less likely to promote the production of
531 LO-OOA (Fig. 7 (H)). Summer MO-OOA increased from 0.36 to 0.67 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ when O_x increased
532 from 25 to 55 ppb but decreased as the O_x increased further. The slope of this increase was 0.007
533 $\mu\text{g MO-OOA ppb}^{-1} O_x$. Contrary to winter, LO-OOA in summer responded more strongly to
534 increases of O_x than MO-OOA did.

535 The relationship of OOA versus O_x was examined further by excluding nighttime data.
536 According to the LOWESS curves for the original daytime data and the resampled data obtained
537 using a bootstrap method (Figs. S16-17), there likely exists a linear relationship between
538 LO-OOA and O_x when O_x is less than 35 ppb and greater than 20 ppb for the winter and summer
539 period, respectively. As for MO-OOA, the linear relationship likely exists for data points with O_x
540 less than 35 ppb for the winter period, but it is less prominent.

541 Figure 10 presents the scatter plots of daytime OOA versus O_x for the winter and summer
542 campaign. The daytime responses of LO-OOA and MO-OOA to O_x in winter were ~ 1.5 times
543 that for the whole dataset (Fig. 9 (G, I)), and the increase rate of MO-OOA was higher than that
544 of LO-OOA. In summer, the slope of the daytime increase of LO-OOA was 1.24 times that for
545 the whole campaign (Fig. 9 (H)). These results suggest that the photochemical enhancement of
546 OOA in winter on a per- O_x basis was more prominent than that in summer. For the summer
547 campaign, the formation of LO-OOA appears to be more strongly linked to photochemistry
548 compared to MO-OOA.

549 The combined effects of photochemistry and aqueous-phase chemistry on OOA composition
550 during winter and summer are further demonstrated in Fig. 11. The ratio of MO-OOA/LO-OOA
551 in winter showed the highest values on the left-top corner in Fig. 11 (A), suggesting
552 photochemical processing was likely responsible for MO-OOA formation, under low LWC levels
553 ($< 10 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$). Additionally, data with high MO-OOA/LO-OOA on the right-bottom corner in Fig.
554 11 (A) indicate the important role of aqueous-phase chemistry under low O_x and high LWC
555 levels. Overall, the concentration of MO-OOA in winter increased as O_x /LWC increased,
556 whereas LO-OOA markedly decreased. This result indicates both photochemical and

557 aqueous-phase processing played a more important role in enhancing MO-OOA than LO-OOA
558 in winter.

559 In summer, data points with low MO-OOA/LO-OOA value on the left-top of Figure 11 (B)
560 illustrated that LO-OOA was enhanced in high- O_x and low-LWC conditions, though the low
561 MO-OOA/LO-OOA values are not confined to just the top left. In case of high LWC level ($LWC >$
562 $6.5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$), MO-OOA/LO-OOA were much lower (on the right of Figure 11 (B), particularly
563 when $LWC > 10 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$). Although MO-OOA increased with LWC and O_x , the increase of
564 LO-OOA was more significant. The effects of both photochemistry (≥ 25 ppb) and
565 aqueous-phase chemistry ($\geq 6.5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) were more relevant for the formation of LO-OOA than
566 MO-OOA. On average, the mass concentration of LO-OOA was elevated by nearly $1.2 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ as
567 a $\sim 20 \mu\text{g}$ change in LWC (increased from $6.25 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ to $27.5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, Fig. 7 (H)), which is
568 equivalent to a 40 ppb change in O_x (increased from 25 ppb to 65 ppb, Fig. 9 (H)). This result
569 further suggests that the aqueous-phase chemistry is comparable to photochemistry in processing
570 LO-OOA in summer.

571

572 **4 Conclusions**

573 Seasonal characterization of NR- PM_{10} collected using HR-ToF-AMS near Houston in 2014
574 demonstrated that the mass loading, diurnal patterns, and important formation pathways of
575 NR- PM_{10} vary seasonally. The OA was the largest component of NR- PM_{10} mass, on average,
576 accounting for 38% and 47% of the mass loadings in winter and summer, respectively, which is
577 less than that in the north part of Houston, which is influenced by high biogenic emission rates.
578 Nitrate was the second largest component in winter (23%) but accounted for only 2% of NR- PM_{10}

579 mass in summer; SO_4^{2-} was the second largest component in winter (23%) and summer (36%),
580 respectively. ON, on average accounted for 31-66 and 9-17 % of OA during winter and summer
581 campaign, respectively. The summertime ON correlated very well with LO-OOA and
582 concurrently peaked at nighttime. It is likely that ON from NO_3^- -initiated oxidation of BVOC
583 in the forested northeastern Houston contributed greatly to nighttime LO-OOA in summer and
584 that LWC did not inhibit resulting concentration growth.

585 Contributions of factors to wintertime and summertime OA show distinct differences. For
586 wintertime OA, on average, BBOA contributed 26% of OA mass, and MO-OOA and COA made
587 the same contribution of 22% to total OA mass. LO-OOA accounted for 17% of OA mass,
588 followed by HOA (13%). In the summer, LO-OOA represented the largest fraction of the OA
589 mass, 54% on average. The second largest contributor was MO-OOA (23%). Together, POA
590 constituted more than half of OA mass (61%) in winter, while it accounted for 23% of OA mass
591 in summer, highlighting the enhanced impact of primary emissions on OA level during
592 wintertime. Secondary aerosols account for ~76% and 88% of NR- PM_{10} mass in winter and
593 summer, respectively, indicating NR- PM_{10} mass was likely driven mostly by secondary aerosol
594 formation.

595 The two proxies of SOA (LO-OOA and MO-OOA) presented seasonal differences in their
596 spectral patterns, oxidation degrees and contributions to SOA. MO-OOA showed a higher
597 contribution to SOA than LO-OOA in winter (56% vs. 44%). In contrast, LO-OOA dominated
598 SOA in summer (70%). Our results indicate that both photochemical and aqueous-phase
599 chemistry, as suggested by relationships to O_x and LWC, played important roles in the formation
600 of MO-OOA and LO-OOA. Aqueous-phase processing likely has strong positive impact on the

601 formation of MO-OOA in the two seasons, especially in winter. The relationships between
602 MO-OOA and LWC were 0.008 and 0.005 $\mu\text{g MO-OOA } \mu\text{g}^{-1} \text{ LWC}$ during winter and summer,
603 respectively. Wet removal or decreased formation rates likely limit MO-OOA when LWC
604 exceeds 100 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ in winter. The relative importance of aqueous-phase chemistry versus
605 photochemistry in processing LO-OOA was dependent on RH. Aqueous-phase processing
606 potentially facilitated the local formation of wintertime LO-OOA at low LWC level ($<17.5 \mu\text{g}$
607 m^{-3} , $\text{RH}<80\%$), with a stronger dependence ($0.033 \mu\text{g LO-OOA } \mu\text{g}^{-1} \text{ LWC}$) than MO-OOA. In
608 summer, the formation of LO-OOA may have been enhanced by aqueous-phase processing at
609 relatively high LWC level ($>6.25 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, $\text{RH}>80\%$) with a slope of $0.053 \mu\text{g LO-OOA } \mu\text{g}^{-1}$
610 LWC, while LO-OOA was likely transported non-aqueous regional OOA when $\text{LWC} < 6.25 \mu\text{g}$
611 m^{-3} . These increases of OOA in relation to LWC were greatly enhanced during nighttime.
612 Aqueous-phase chemistry also appears important in the formation of summertime LO-OOA at
613 low atmospheric oxidative capacity ($\text{O}_x < 20 \text{ ppb}$). In general, summertime LO-OOA showed a
614 much stronger response to O_x than did MO-OOA, with a slope of $0.030 \mu\text{g LO-OOA ppb}^{-1} \text{ O}_x$.
615 LO-OOA in summer was elevated by nearly $1.2 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ as a $\sim 20 \mu\text{g}$ change in LWC, which is
616 equivalent to a 40 ppb change in O_x .

617

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626

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634

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636

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940 **Table 1** Statistics of meteorological parameters, gas-phase pollutants, NR-PM₁ species, and PMF OA
 941 factors for the winter and summer campaigns at UHSL.

	Variables	Season	Ave. value \pm 1 SD	Minimum value	Maximum value
Meteorological parameters	Temp ($^{\circ}$ C)	Winter	9.3 \pm 6.0	0.7	25.9
		Summer	23.6 \pm 3.8	12.2	33.1
	RH (%)	Winter	76 \pm 18	23	99
		Summer	72 \pm 19	21	98
	WS (m s ⁻¹)	Winter	2.1 \pm 1.4	6.8 \times 10 ⁻³	9.4
		Summer	2.1 \pm 1.2	9.0 \times 10 ⁻³	6.7
Radiometer (W m ⁻²)	Winter	0.6 \pm 0.9	0.02	3.6	
	Summer	1.1 \pm 1.3	0.02	4.6	
Gas-phase pollutants (ppb)	O ₃	Winter	23.0 \pm 12.6	0.12	53.0
		Summer	34.9 \pm 15.3	0.02	75.9
	CO	Winter	238.7 \pm 71.9	98.5	621.1
		Summer	168.3 \pm 75.5	103.6	1110.2
	SO ₂	Winter	1.0 \pm 1.9	5.7 \times 10 ⁻³	29.5
		Summer	0.7 \pm 1.7	2.8 \times 10 ⁻³	30.9
	NO	Winter	4.3 \pm 6.4	2.0 \times 10 ⁻³	74.9
		Summer	1.3 \pm 4.6	0.01	68.1
	NO ₂	Winter	12.5 \pm 9.7	0.8	101.2
		Summer	4.6 \pm 6.4	0.2	44.4
	NO _y	Winter	22.9 \pm 19.6	2.8	210.9
		Summer	8.6 \pm 11.9	1.3	123.9
NR-PM ₁ species (μ g m ⁻³)	OA	Winter	2.3 \pm 1.4	0.42	9.4
		Summer	1.7 \pm 1.4	0.27	12.3
	Sulfate	Winter	1.4 \pm 0.8	0.05	3.4
		Summer	1.3 \pm 0.6	0.02	5.6
	Nitrate	Winter	1.4 \pm 1.4	0.02	6.9
		Summer	0.08 \pm 0.1	0.01	0.9
	Ammonium	Winter	0.9 \pm 0.6	BDL ^a	2.8
		Summer	0.5 \pm 0.2	0.02	1.8
	Chloride	Winter	0.06 \pm 0.09	BDL	1.1
		Summer	0.02 \pm 0.02	BDL	0.5
OA factors (μ g m ⁻³)	HOA	Winter	0.3 \pm 0.4	0 ^b	8.6
		Summer	0.2 \pm 0.5	0	10.9
	BBOA	Winter	0.6 \pm 0.6	0	3.7
		Summer	0.1 \pm 0.3	0	5.4
	COA	Winter	0.5 \pm 0.5	0	4.8
	LO-OOA	Winter	0.4 \pm 0.5	0	2.1
		Summer	0.7 \pm 0.9	0	6.7
	MO-OOA	Winter	0.5 \pm 0.3	0	1.8
Summer		0.3 \pm 0.2	0	1.6	

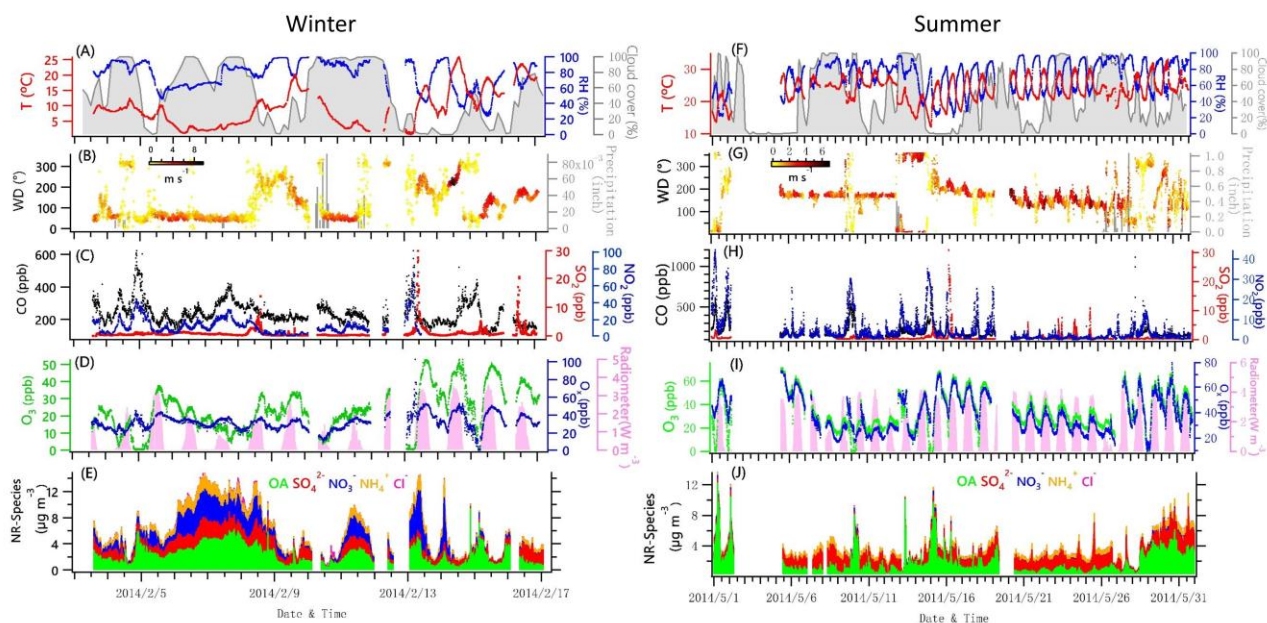
942 ^aBDL: below detection limit; ^bStatistically determined factor concentrations with values below 1.0 \times 10⁻³ are listed as
 943 0.

945 **Table 2** Correlation (*r*) of OOA mass spectra with previously published spectra database.
 946 (<http://cires1.colorado.edu/jimenez-group/HRAMSsd/>)

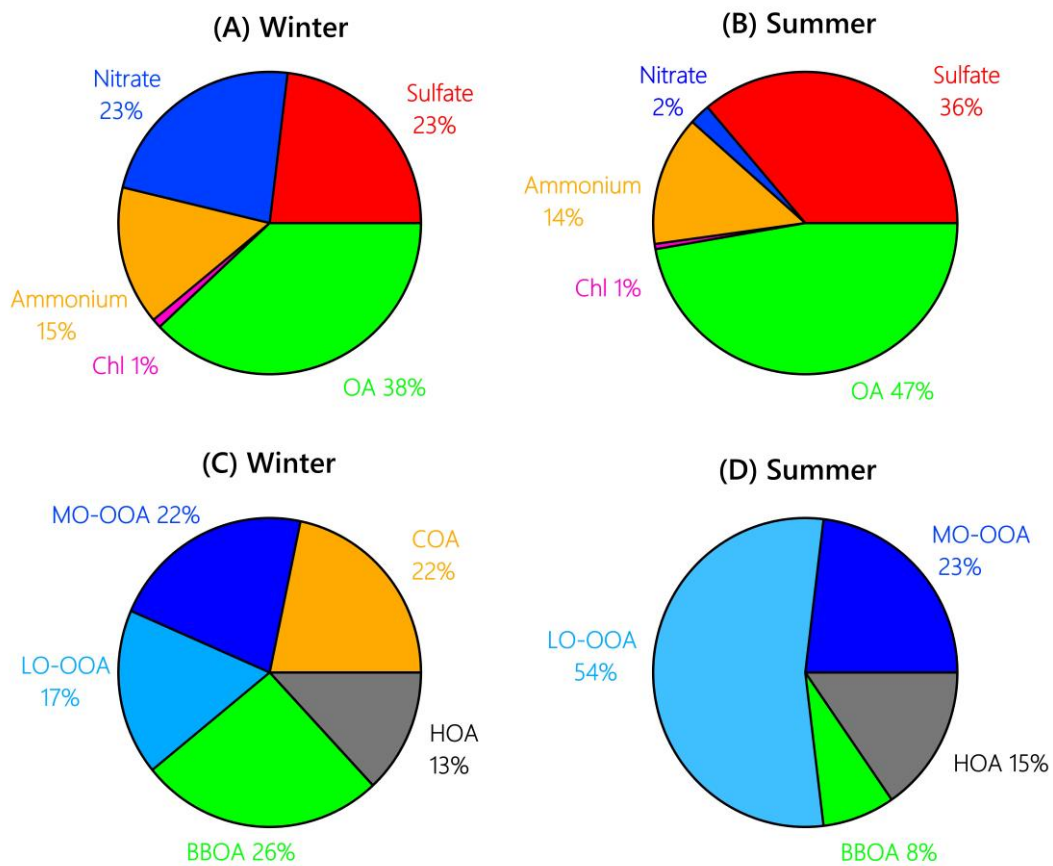
Factor	Winter		Summer		Reference
	MO-OOA	LO-OOA	MO-OOA	LO-OOA	
aq-OOA ^a	0.96	0.75	0.96	0.95	Sun et al., 2016
MO-OOA	0.85	0.87	0.89	0.77	Setyan et al., 2012
MO-OOA	0.98	0.92	0.98	0.60	Hu et al., 2015
LV-OOA	0.97	0.91	0.98	0.62	Crippa et al., 2013
SV-OOA	0.65	0.70	0.70	0.78	Crippa et al., 2013
LO-OOAI, Biogenic-origin	0.83	0.84	0.86	0.76	Hu et al., 2015
LO-OOAII, Anthropogenic-origin	0.78	0.80	0.82	0.74	Hu et al., 2015

947 ^aaq-OOA is an aqueous-phase-processed SOA reported by Sun et al. (2016); LV=less volatile; SV=semi-volatile.

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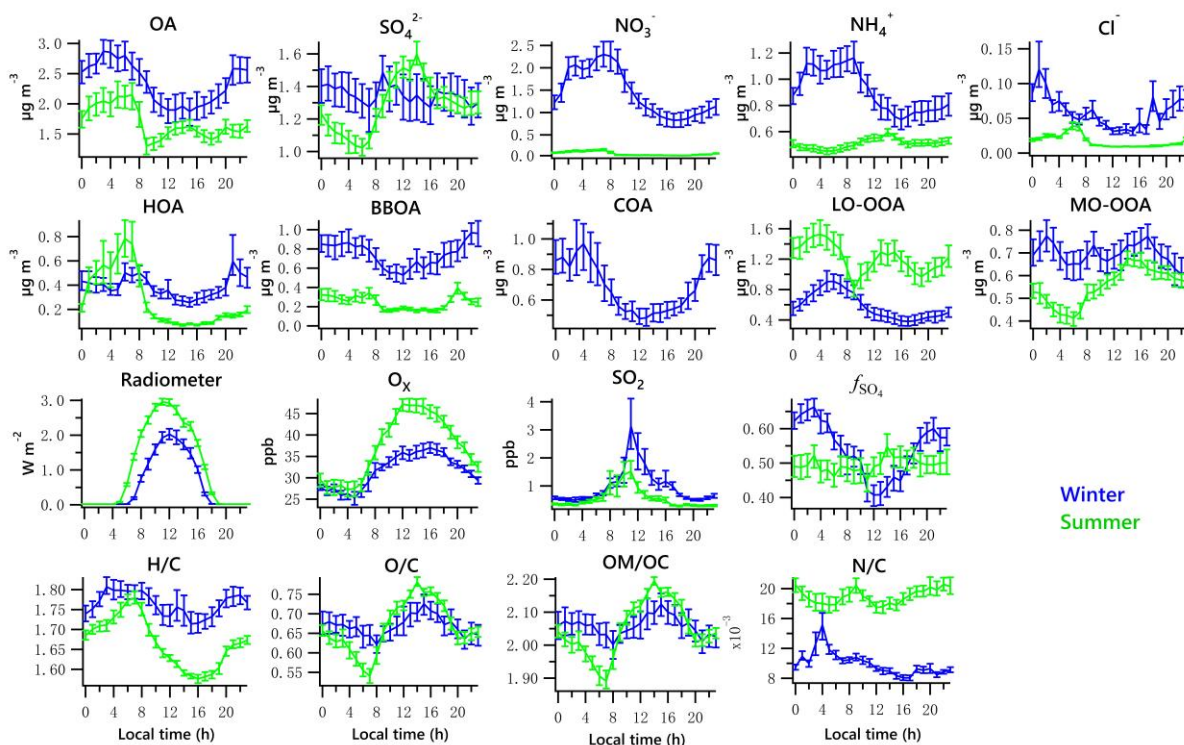
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 950 **Figure 1.** Time series of data collected at UHSL in Houston during the sampling periods in
 951 winter and summer 2014. Time series of 5-min average campaign data for (A, F) ambient
 952 temperature (T), relative humidity (RH) and total cloud cover (%; with 3 hours interval); (B, G)
 953 precipitation and wind direction (WD), with colors showing different wind speeds (WS); (C, H)
 954 CO, SO₂ and NO₂; (D, I) O₃, O_x (NO₂+O₃) and solar radiometer; (E, J) NR-PM₁ species,
 955 including OA, NO₃⁻, SO₄²⁻, NH₄⁺, and Cl⁻.
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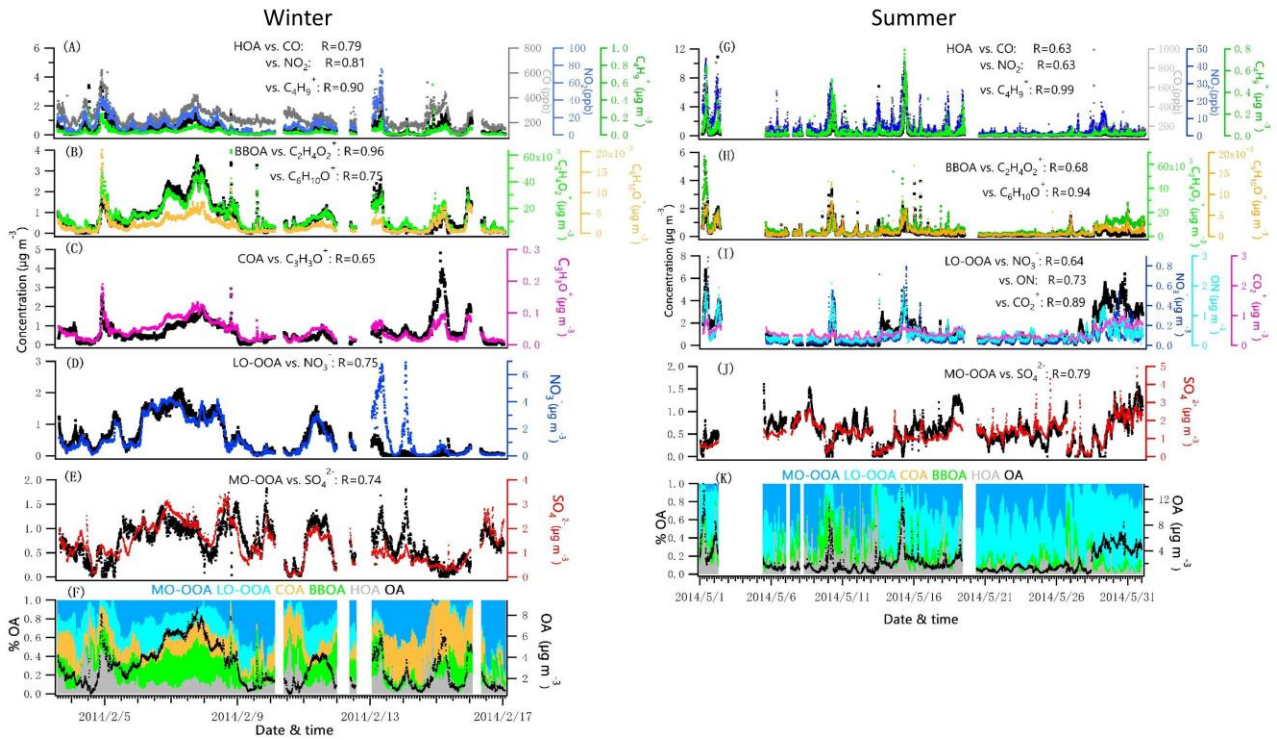
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 958 **Figure 2.** Average composition of NR-PM₁ species and OA factors during the winter (A, C) and
 959 summer campaign (B, D) at UHSL.

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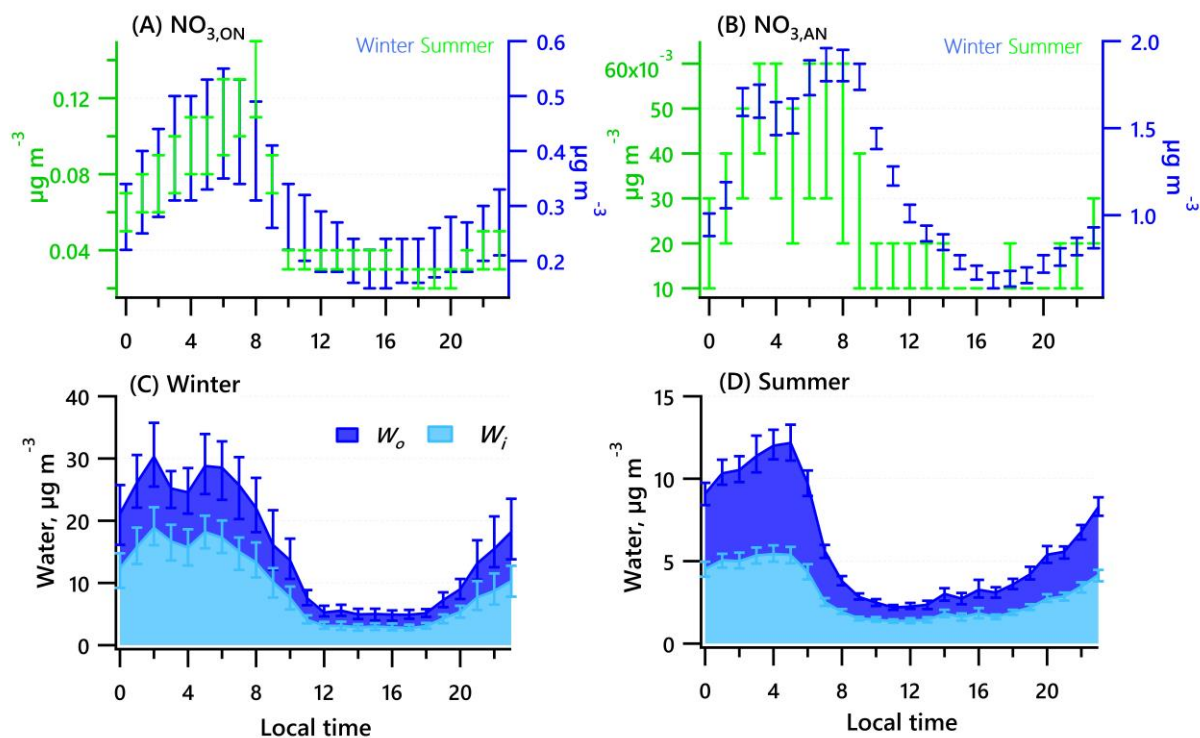
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 963 **Figure 3.** Diurnal profiles of the five NR-PM₁ species (OA, SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻, NH₄⁺ and Cl⁻),
 964 PMF-resolved factors (HOA, BBOA, COA, LO-OOA and MO-OOA), radiometer, O_x, SO₂, f_{SO4},
 965 and elemental ratios (H/C, O/C, OM/OC and N/C). Lines denote the mean value, and bars
 966 represent the 5/95 percent confidence interval in the mean (blue for winter, green for summer).
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970 **Figure 4.** Time series of each OA factor and associated correlated species for the winter and
 971 summer campaign at UHSL.

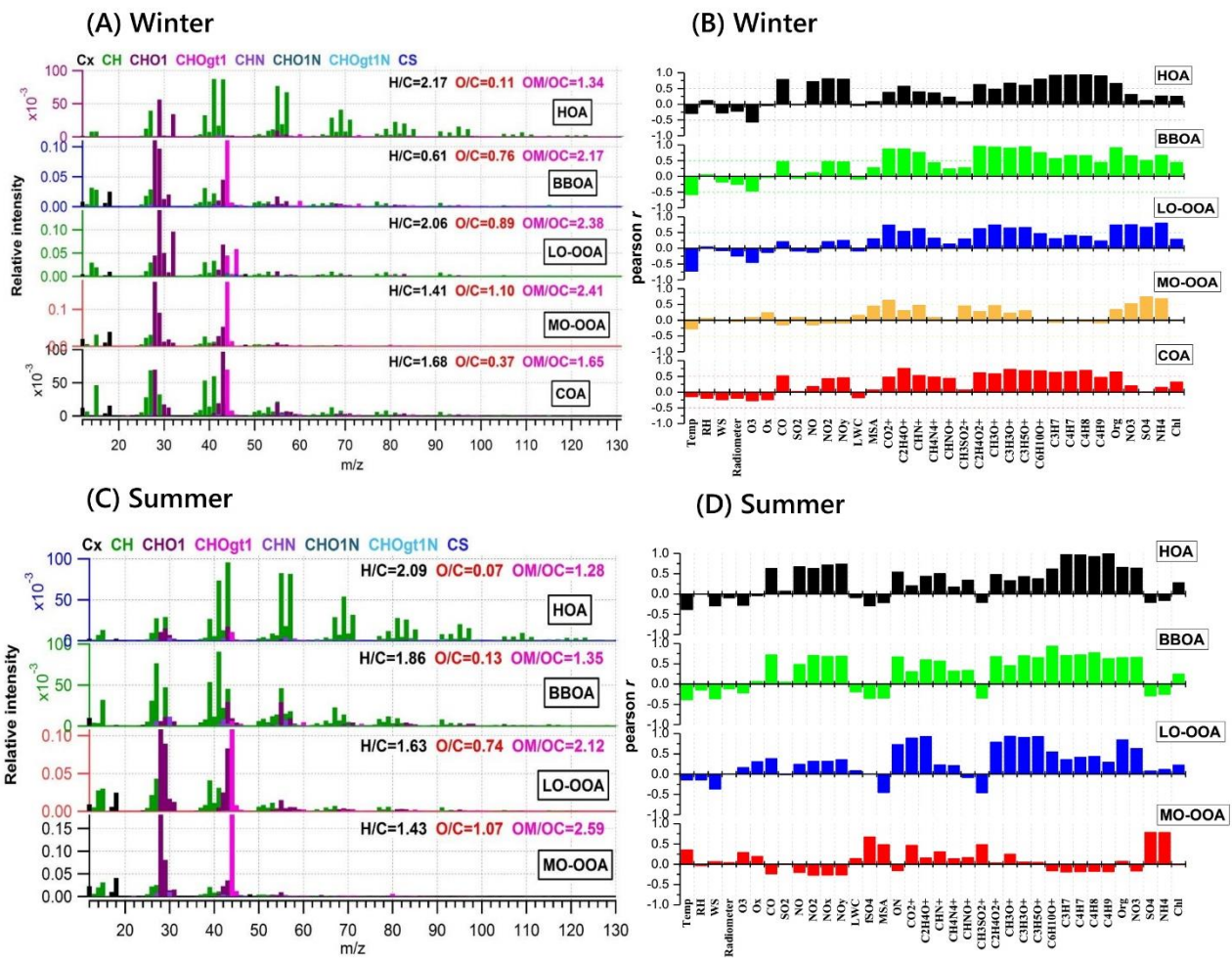
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974 **Figure 5.** Diurnal profiles of the estimated range of nitrate functionality from organic nitrate (A)
 975 and inorganic nitrate (B) for the winter and summer campaigns. Estimated water associated with
 976 inorganic and organic aerosol for the winter (C) and summer campaigns (D). Solid lines denote
 977 the mean value (blue for winter, green for summer), and bars represent the 5/95 percent
 978 confidence interval in the mean.

979



981

982 **Figure 6.** Mass spectra of PMF-resolved OA factors (A, C) and correlation coefficients between
 983 OA factors and other variables (tracer ions, trace gas, meteorological parameters, etc.) (B, D) for
 984 winter and summer campaigns at UHSL.

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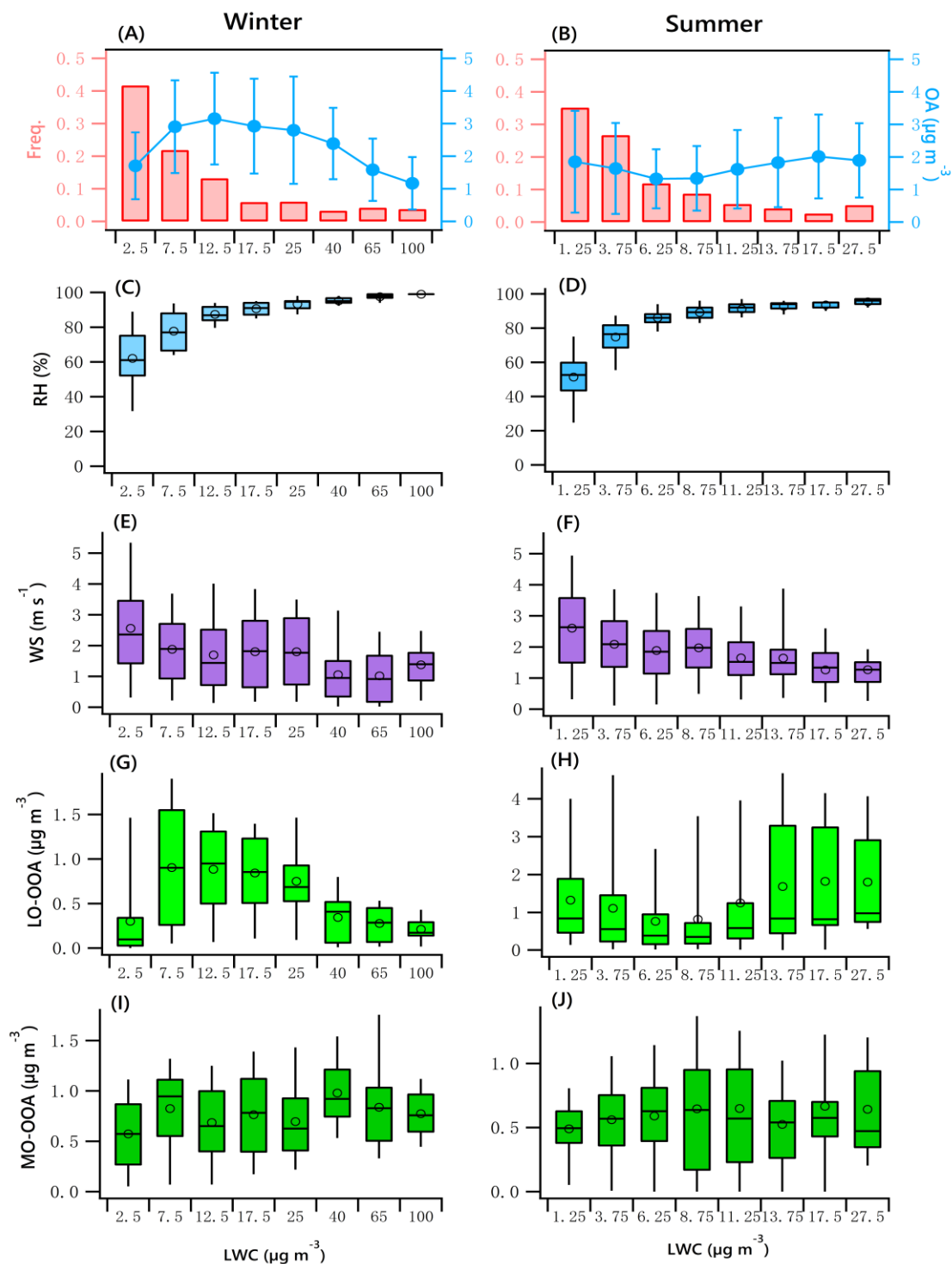


Figure 7. OA mass and frequency histograms of data points in each LWC bin for winter (A) and summer (B). Variations of RH, WS, LO-OOA and MO-OOA mass as a function of LWC in winter (C, E, G, I) and summer (D, F, H, J). The data were binned according to the LWC (with different increment values), and mean (circle), median (horizontal line), 25th and 75th percentiles (lower and upper box), and 5th and 95th percentiles (lower and upper whiskers) are displayed for data in each bin.

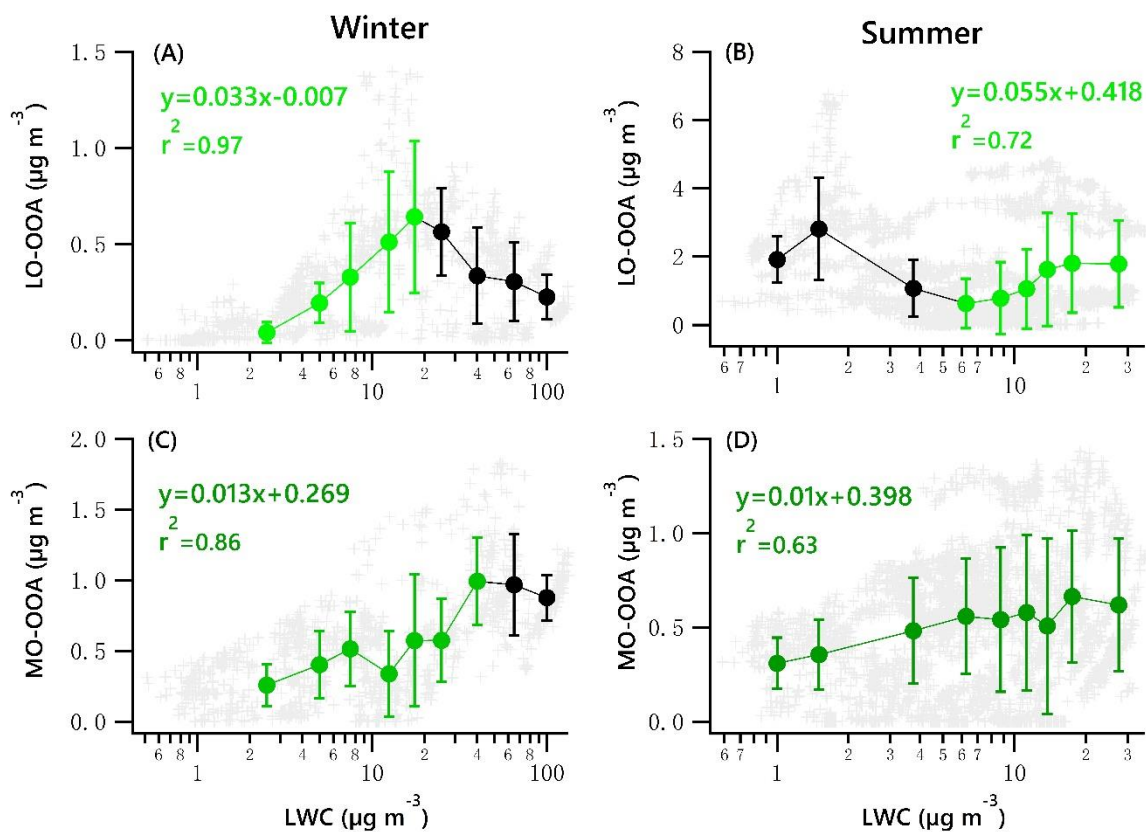


Figure 8. Scatter plots of nighttime OOA vs. LWC for the winter and summer campaign. The linear equations are given for fitting only the green dots. Solid dots denote the average value of data in each bin. Bars indicate standard deviations.

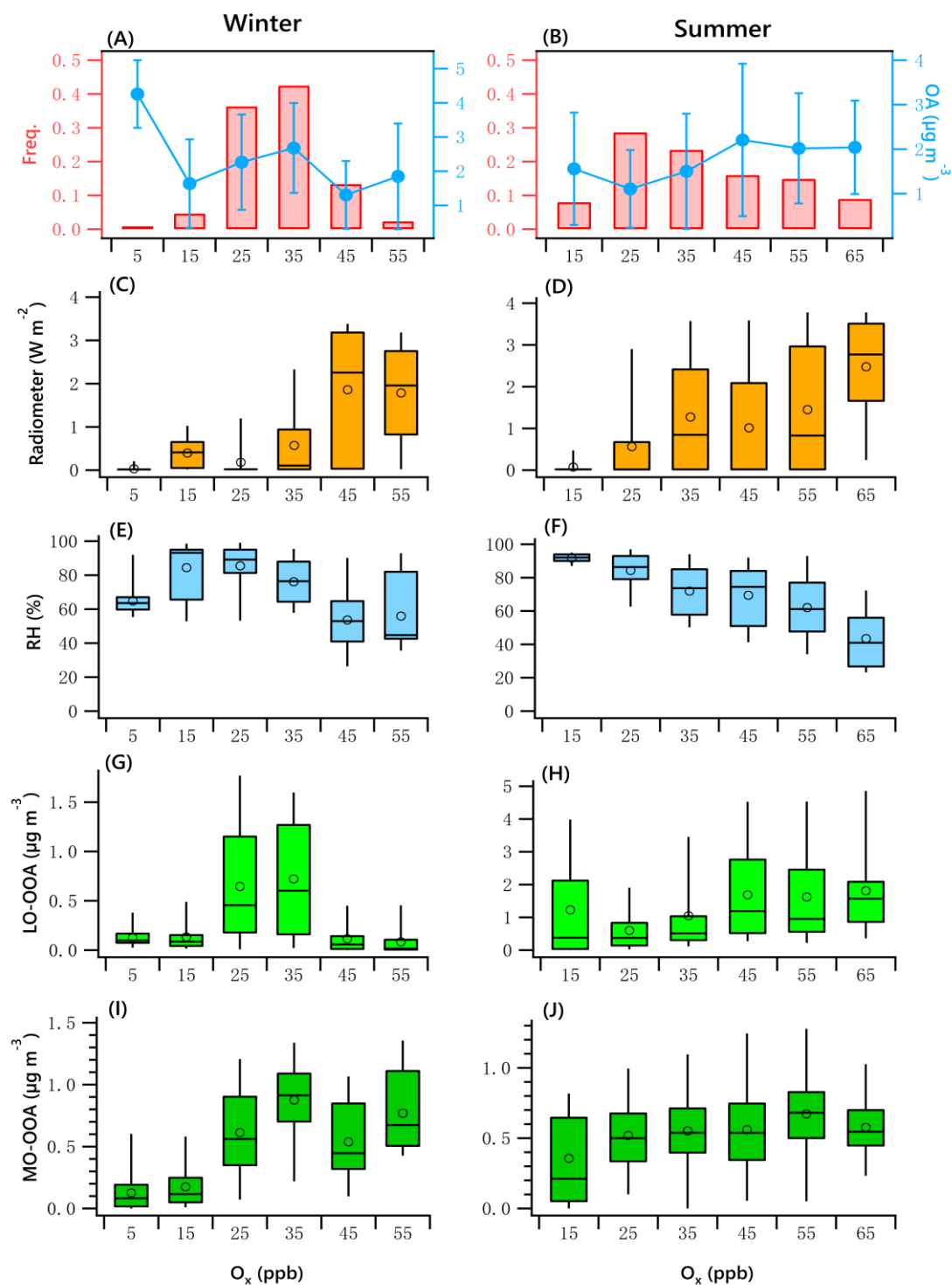


Figure 9. OA mass and frequency histograms of data points in each O_x bin for winter (A) and summer (B). Variations of solar radiation, RH, LO-OOA and MO-OOA mass as a function of LWC in winter (C, E, G, I) and summer (D, F, H, J). The data were binned according to the O_x (10 ppb increment), and mean (circle), median (horizontal line), 25th and 75th percentiles (lower and upper box), and 5th and 95th percentiles (lower and upper whiskers) are displayed for data in each bin.

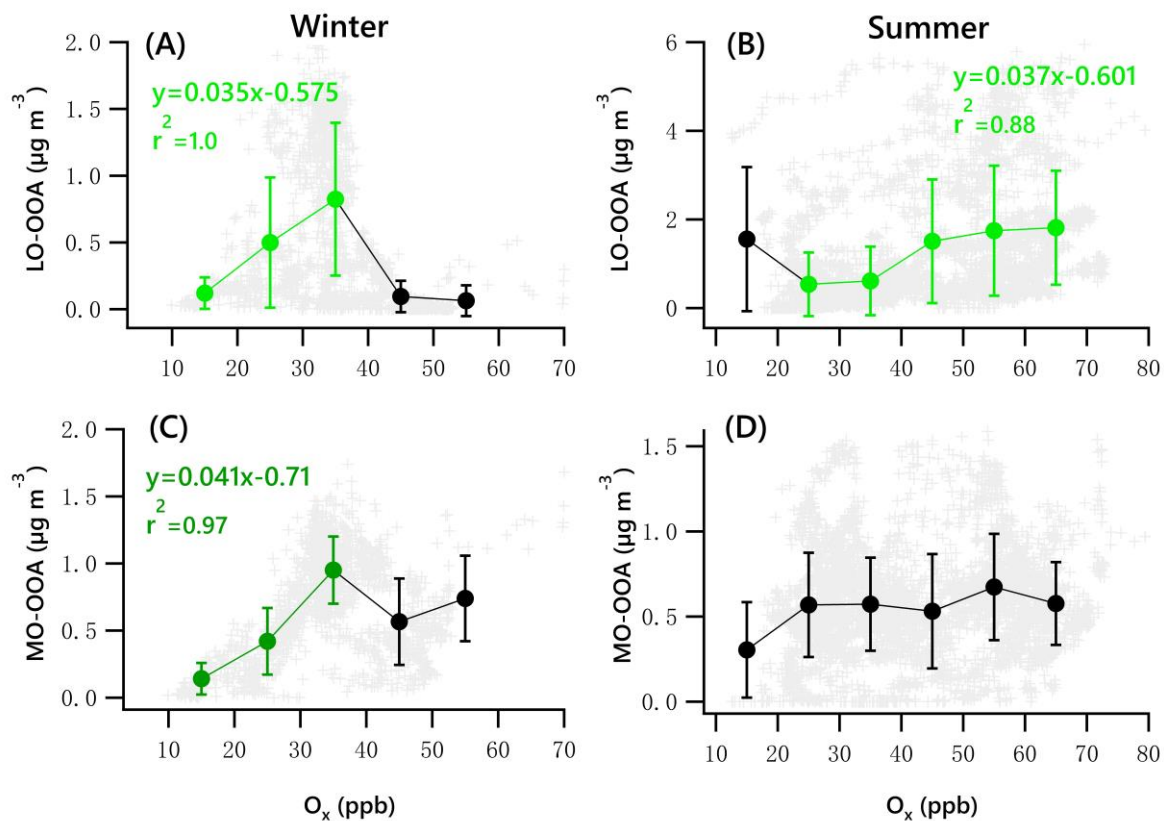


Figure 10. Scatter plots of daytime OOA vs. O_x for the winter and summer campaign. The linear equations are given for fitting the green dots. Bars indicate standard deviations.

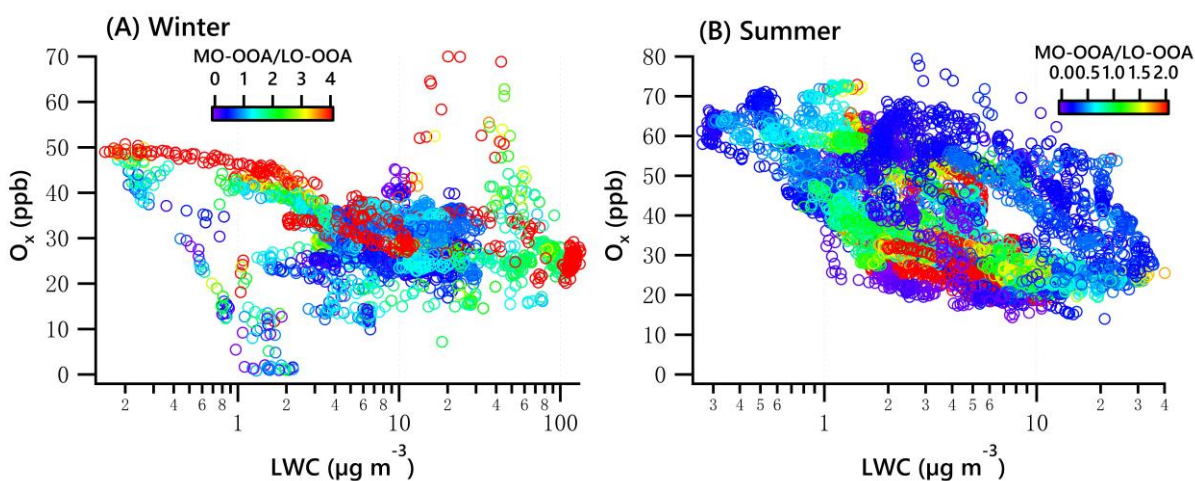


Figure 11. O_x vs LWC dependence of the ratio of MO-OOA/LO-OOA in winter (A) and summer (B).