Simulation of Atmospheric Organic Aerosol using its Volatility-Oxygen Content Distribution during the PEGASOS 2012 campaign

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Abstract

A lot of effort has been made to understand and constrain the atmospheric aging of the organic aerosol (OA). Different parameterizations of the organic aerosol formation and evolution in the two-dimensional Volatility Basis Set (2D-VBS) framework are evaluated using ground and airborne measurements collected in the 2012 Pan-European Gas AeroSOls-climate-interaction Study (PEGASOS) field campaign in the Po Valley (Italy). A number of chemical aging schemes are examined, taking into account various functionalization and fragmentation pathways for biogenic and anthropogenic OA components. Model predictions and measurements, both at the ground and aloft, indicate a relatively oxidized OA with little average diurnal variation. Total OA concentration and O:C ratios were reproduced within experimental error by a number of chemical aging schemes. Anthropogenic SOA is predicted to contribute 15-25% of the total OA, while SOA from intermediate volatility compounds oxidation another 20-35%. Biogenic SOA contributions varied from 15 to 45% depending on the modeling scheme. Primary OA contributed to around 5% for all schemes and was comparable to the HOA concentrations of the PMF-AMS ground measurements. The average OA and O:C diurnal variation and their vertical profiles showed a surprisingly modest sensitivity to the assumed vaporization enthalpy for all aging schemes. This

32   can be explained by the intricate interplay between the changes in partitioning of the semi-volatile

33   compounds and their gas-phase chemical aging reactions.

1. Introduction

35   Atmospheric aerosol plays an important role in the Earth's energy balance by absorbing

36   and scattering solar radiation (direct effect) and influencing the properties and lifetime of clouds

37   (indirect effects) (IPCC, 2014). At the same time, certain particles may have significant negative

38   effects on human health, including premature death, increases in respiratory illnesses and

39   cardiopulmonary mortality (Pope et al., 2009; Caiazzo et al., 2013).

40   Aerosol particles contain a wide variety of inorganic and organic compounds, with organics

41   representing about 50% of the fine (< 1 μm) aerosol particle mass concentration, on average

42   (Zhang et al., 2007). OA originates from many different natural and anthropogenic sources and

43   processes. It can be emitted directly from fossil fuel and biomass combustion (so-called primary

44   organic aerosol, POA) or can be formed by the atmospheric oxidation of organic vapors (secondary

45   organic aerosol, SOA). The oxidation pathways of organic compounds are complex and the

46   corresponding reactions lead to hundreds or even thousands of mostly unknown oxygenated

47   products. As a result, our understanding of OA formation mechanisms and its chemical and

48   physical properties remains incomplete.

49   The use of lumped species is a computationally efficient approach for the representation of

50   OA in atmospheric chemical transport models (Pandis et al., 1992). The volatility basis set

51   framework (VBS, Donahue et al., 2006) lumps these compounds into surrogates along an axis of

52   volatility. This approach typically employs species with effective saturation concentrations at 298

53   K separated by one order of magnitude, with values ranging from, say, 0.01 to 10^6 μg m^{-3}. By

54   quantifying the volatility distributions of primary and secondary OA, a physically reasonable, yet

55   suitable for large-scale chemical transport models (CTMs), description of semi-volatile organics

56   can be obtained (Lane et al., 2008).

57   The VBS framework was extended by Donahue et al. (2011; 2012a) adding another

58   dimension, the oxygen content (expressed as the ratio of oxygen to carbon atoms; O:C), for the

59   description of the OA chemical aging reactions. In the first application of this framework in a

60   CTM, Murphy et al. (2011) used 12 logarithmically spaced volatility bins (effective saturation

61   concentration C^* varying from 10^{-5} to 10^6 μg m^{-3} at 298 K) and 13 bins of O:C (from 0 to 1.2 with

62   a step of 0.1). In this way, 156 surrogate species were included in the model for each OA type.

63   Five organic aerosol types were simulated separately: anthropogenic secondary organic aerosol

64   (aSOA-v) produced during the oxidation of anthropogenic VOCs, biogenic secondary organic

65   aerosol (bSOA), fresh primary organic aerosol (POA), secondary organic aerosol from the

66   oxidation of semivolatile OA (SOA-sv) and SOA from the oxidation of intermediate volatility

67   compounds (SOA-iv) as analytically described in Murphy et al. (2014).

68   Murphy et al. (2011; 2012) used a one-dimensional Lagrangian CTM (PMCAMx-Trj), as

69   the host model for the simulations. PMCAMx-Trj simulates the chemical evolution of a column

70   of air as it travels towards a user-selected receptor site. Three alternative parameterizations of the

71   OA formation and chemical aging were evaluated using measurements of O:C and OA in three

72   European sites (Murphy et al., 2011; 2012). The simplest approach parameterizing the chemical

73   aging of anthropogenic compounds, assuming a net reduction of volatility by one bin during every

74   aging reaction step accompanied by an increase of one or two oxygen atoms with an equal

75   probability was the most successful. A more complex formulation of the chemical aging, assumed

76   that functionalization was the only process taking place, and overpredicted the OA concentration

77   while it underpredicted O:C in most cases. Adding fragmentation reactions together with the

78   functionalization gave promising results, but it was clear that the various parameters of the scheme

79   were not well constrained leading to large uncertainties in the simulation results, especially during

80   summertime. Murphy et al. (2012) concluded that the 2D-VBS scheme that was used needs

81   additional testing before it is ready for application in three-dimensional CTMs.

82   In Murphy and Pandis (2009; 2010) and Murphy et al. (2012) formation of significant

83   bSOA during second and later generation aging reactions led to overestimation of OA

84   concentration at both urban and rural sites. However, the first generation products of the oxidation

85   of biogenic VOCs do continue to react in the atmosphere (Ng et al., 2006; Tritscher et al., 2011;

86   Zhao et al., 2015; Szidat et al., 2006; Gilardoni et al., 2011; Yttri et al., 2011). The net effect on

87   ambient bSOA levels of these chemical aging reactions remains uncertain.

88   Fragmentation of organic compounds during chemical aging is an important reaction

89   pathway (Chacon-Madrid and Donahue, 2011; Murphy et al., 2011; Hermansson et al., 2014).

90   During fragmentation reactions carbon bonds break, resulting in smaller compounds, which are

91   more volatile than their precursors. A fragmentation probability, depending on O:C, has been used

92   in the 2D-VBS framework (Donahue et al. 2011; 2012). A fragmentation probability, ranging from

93   0-0.4, has been used in the statistical oxidation model (SOM) that uses the carbon (C) and oxygen

94   (O) atoms per compound as the independent variables (Cappa and Wilson, 2012). While the

95   fragmentation pathways are clearly important for the OA levels, their parameterizations in existing

96   models remain quite uncertain (Murphy et al., 2012).

97   The effect of temperature on the partitioning of OA components between the gas and

98   particulate phases represents another source of uncertainty. Sheehan and Bowman (2001),

99   concluded that a 10 ºC decrease in temperature can result in an increase of SOA by as much as

100   150% depending on the assumed vaporization enthalpy. This effect can theoretically lead to

101   significant OA vertical gradients. Applying the 2D-VBS to FAME-08 in Finokalia, Greece,

102   Murphy et al. (2011) reported low sensitivity of the OA concentration and O:C ratio measurements

103   to the assumed vaporization enthalpy, with higher values leading to slightly lower O:C.

104   In this study, we evaluate different chemical aging mechanisms in the 2D-VBS approach

105   focusing on the Po Valley in Italy. Extensive measurements were performed both at the ground

106   and aloft from June 6 until July 8, 2012. Po Valley has major air quality problems due to both

107   industrial and agricultural sources. A number of alternative chemical aging mechanisms are

108   evaluated comparing the 2D-VBS predictions against the PEGASOS measurements. The role of

109   bSOA chemical aging is explored. Finally, the sensitivity of the model to the assumed effective

110   vaporization enthalpy is quantified in an effort to constrain this uncertain variable using the

111   measurements aloft.

112

2. Lagrangian CTM Description

114   A one–dimensional Lagrangian chemical transport model (PMCAMx-Trj) (Murphy et al.,

115   2011; 2012), simulating the air parcels that arrive at the desired receptor location, is used as the

116   host for the 2D-VBS module. The model solves the general dynamic equation taking into account

117   the following relevant atmospheric processes: atmospheric transport, gas and aqueous phase

118   chemistry, dry and wet deposition of gases and aerosols and vertical turbulent dispersion together

119   with area and point emissions. Ten computational cells are used to cover heights up to 3 km. The

120   lowest cell has a height of 60 m. The SAPRC-99 (Carter, 2000) chemical mechanism is used for

121   the simulation of gas–phase chemistry. The meteorological parameters (horizontal winds,

122   temperature, pressure, vertical dispersion coefficients, water vapor, clouds, rainfall and land use)

123   used as inputs in the model are provided by the Weather Research and Forecasting (WRF) model.

124   The WRF simulation was periodically re-initialized (every 3 days) to ensure the accuracy of the

125   inputs to the CTM. Area and point emissions, both anthropogenic and biogenic, were also provided

126   as hourly inputs for the European domain. The Global and regional Earth-system Monitoring using

127   Satellite and in-situ data (GEMS) dataset (Visschedijk et al., 2007) is used for the emissions of

128   anthropogenic gases. Anthropogenic emissions of organic and elemental carbon are based on the

129   Pan-European Carbonaceous Aerosol Inventory developed during EUCAARI (Kulmala et al.,

130   2009). Biogenic gridded emissions are produced from the combination of three different models.

131   The Model of Emissions of Gases and Aerosols from Nature (MEGAN) provides the emissions

132   from ecosystems (Guenther et al., 2006) and the O'Dowd et al. (2008) model provides the marine

133   aerosol emissions. Finally, wildfire emissions are also included (Sofiev et al., 2008a, b). Details

134   of the emission inventory used for Europe can be found in Fountoukis et al. (2011). In order to

135   implement these emissions in our 2D-VBS model, we used the same volatility distribution of the

136   emissions as in the original work (Fountoukis et al., 2011) and used the Murphy et al. (2012)

137   methodology for mapping these to the 2D-VBS. Vertically resolved initial conditions and the top

138   boundary conditions for PMCAMx-Trj were obtained from the corresponding output of the

139   PMCAMx regional scale three-dimensional simulation for the same period.

140

2.1 Simulated periods

142   Six air parcels arriving at 3:00, 7:00, 11:00, 15:00, 19:00 and 23:00 local time (UTC+1) in

143   the ground site of San Pietro Capofiume were simulated for a total of 7 days (15, 26, 27, and 28 of

144   June and 4, 5 and 8 of July 2012). The air masses in the simulated trajectories originated all from

145   Europe (mostly Portugal or France) or the Atlantic Ocean. We avoided days during which air

146   masses originated from Africa since emission inventories for Africa are quite uncertain. We chose

147   days for which the trajectories at the different altitudes originated all from the same region. The

148   Hybrid Single Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory HYSPLIT model (Draxler et al., 2009)

149   was used to calculate 72 h back trajectories arriving at the receptor site. For consistency, we used

150   the same WRF meteorological data as input to HYSPLIT to calculate the back trajectories.

151   Following Murphy et al. (2011) we used the ensemble average of 20 trajectories with varied

152   heights from 60 m up to 3 km.

153   The twenty 72 h HYSPLIT back trajectories arriving at San Pietro Capofiume at 3:00 LT on

154   July 8, 2012 are shown in Figure 1 as an example. They all originated from the eastern Atlantic

155   Ocean, passed a day over the ocean and then travelled over Portugal and Spain for another day.

156   The air masses continued over the Mediterranean Sea, Western Italy, and a few hours later arrived

157   in the receptor site of San Pietro Capofiume. The HYSPLIT clustering analysis utility was used to

158   estimate the average trajectory that was used in the simulations (Figure 1).

159   Zeppelin flights over Po Valley took place on 20, 21, 22 and 24 of June of 2012 and 1, 3 and

160   4 of July 2012. The HYSPLIT model was once again used to calculate trajectories arriving at the

161   receptor site around Po Valley. All the flights took place between 4:00 LT until 13:00 LT. The

162   flight path of the Zeppelin for June 4, 2012 is shown in Figure S1 as an example. The flight took

163   place between 5:00 LT and 10:00 LT and the measurements took place in the nighttime boundary

164   layer, the residual layer, but also in the mixed layer later in the day.

165

166

167   **2.2 Chemical Aging Schemes**

168   In our simulations, we considered three different functionalization schemes, two bSOA chemical

169   aging parameterizations and explored the use of fragmentation mechanisms. These are

170   summarized below.

171   **2.2.1 Functionalization schemes**

172   **(a) Simple scheme**

173   The first functionalization scheme (1-bin) used in our simulations was the simple scheme of

174   Murphy et al. (2012) that had the best performance in the cases simulated in that study. In this

175   scheme, there is one volatility bin reduction for every reaction with a simultaneous increase in

176   oxygen atoms, with a probability of 50% for an increase of 1 oxygen atom and 50% probability

177   for an increase of 2 oxygen atoms. The calculation of the O:C change from the number of added

178   oxygen atoms is based on Donahue et al. (2011). The chemical aging reaction constants that are

179   used for the reactions with OH are the same as in the base case of Murphy et al. (2011) with values

180   equal to 1×10^{-11} cm^3 molec^{-1} s^{-1} for anthropogenic SOA from VOCs (aSOA-v) and biogenic SOA

181   (bSOA) and 4×10^{-11} cm^3 molec^{-1} s^{-1} for SOA from semivolatile OA (SOA-sv) and intermediate

182   volatility compounds (SOA-iv).

183

184

(b) Two-bin shift simple scheme

In the second functionalization scheme (2-bin), a two-volatility bin reduction is assumed for every reaction with a simultaneous increase in oxygen atoms. A 50% probability for the increase of 1 oxygen atom and 50% probability for the increase of 2 oxygen atoms are used. The calculation of the O:C shift in bins from the number of added oxygen atoms is based again on Donahue et al. (2011). This functionalization scheme assumes a more rapid reduction in volatility for every reaction and uses the same reaction constants for the reactions with OH as in the base case of Murphy et al. (2011).

(c) Detailed scheme

The third aging scheme is the detailed functionalization scheme (DET) introduced by Donahue et al. (2011). This is a more rigorous scheme compared to the previous two conservative aging parameterizations. Following Murphy et al. (2012), there is a 30% probability of adding one O atom, 50% probability of adding two O atoms, and 20% probability of adding three O atoms. Each addition of O atoms results in a different distribution of volatility reductions, with an average reduction of -1.75 in $\log_{10}C^*$ per oxygen group added. These additions of O atoms are translated to changes of O:C ratios following Murphy et al. (2012). The functionalization kernel is applied to all species in the 2D-VBS upon OH reaction. Again the chemical aging reaction constants that are used for the reaction with OH are the same as the two functionalization schemes described above.

2.2.2 bSOA aging parameterizations

Two different parameterizations of bSOA aging are explored. In the first scheme, the chemical aging of biogenic SOA is assumed to result in a negligible net change in volatility but an increase in O:C (Murphy et al., 2011). This scheme is consistent with the lack of bSOA aging that has been used in PMCAMx (Murphy and Pandis, 2009; 2010) and is called in the rest of the paper no-bSOA aging even if the O:C of bSOA does change.

In the second scheme, bSOA components are assumed to age similarly to aSOA, with their processing leading not only to changes in O:C, but also to a net reduction of their volatility. We explore all three functionalization schemes, the simple scheme (1-bin), the faster functionalization

215 (2-bin) and the detailed functionalization scheme (DET) together with the two bSOA aging

216 parameterizations.

217

218 **2.2.3 Fragmentation parameterizations**

219   Fragmentation parameterizations will be examined that lead to products with lower carbon

220 numbers than the precursor. As in Murphy et al. (2012) the bond cleavage is assumed to happen

221 randomly and to be uniformly distributed throughout the carbon backbone. For these fragmented

222 compounds, the functionalization kernel is applied and this will lead to increases in volatility. The

223 fragmentation probability in our simulations is allowed to range from zero (for no fragmentation)

224 to unity.

225

226   **2.3 Combination of parameterizations**

227   In our simulations, we used all combinations of the three functionalization schemes (1-bin, 2-

228 bin or DET), the two bSOA aging schemes and simulated fragmentation assuming fragmentation

229 probability b ranging from zero to 1. In Table 1, we summarize the parameterizations that were

230 finally chosen for the simulations. For each of the six combinations of functionalization and bSOA

231 aging, we assumed zero fragmentation probability (6 cases) plus we determined the fragmentation

232 probability b that resulted in the minimum error for the average OA concentration. The

233 determination of the "optimum" fragmentation probability for each case is shown in Figure C.4.

234 For the 1-bin functionalization scheme and considering no bSOA production during aging, the OA

235 was underpredicted for fragmentation probabilities even low as 5% so in this case the optimum b

236 was equal to zero and this became the same as the 1-bin simple scheme of Murphy et al. (2012).

237

238 **2.4 Evaluation of parameterizations**

239   The prediction skill of our simulations is quantified in terms of the fractional error, the

240 fractional bias, the absolute error, the absolute bias and the root mean square error. These are

241 calculated using:

242
$$Fractional\ Error = \frac{2}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\frac{|P_i - M_i|}{(P_i + M_i)}$$

243

244
$$Fractional\ Bias = \frac{2}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\frac{(P_i - M_i)}{(P_i + M_i)}$$

245

246

$$Absolute\ Error = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left|P_i - M_i\right|$$

247

248

249

$$Absolute\ Bias = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(P_i - M_i\right)$$

250

251

252

$$Root\ Mean\ Square\ Error = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(P_i - M_i\right)^2}$$

253

254 where P_i represents the model prediction value, M_i is the corresponding measured value from the

255 ground or above the site with the Zeppelin measurements and n is the total number of data points.

256

257 **3. Results**

258 **3.1 Simple functionalization (1-bin case)**

259   The first set of simulations used the simple functionalization scheme (1-bin), assuming

260 negligible addition/production of bSOA during aging (no bSOA aging) and neglected

261 fragmentation assuming that the employed functionalization scheme represents the net effect of

262 these pathways. This case is the same as the base case of Murphy et al. (2012). In this scheme,

263 there is a modest volatility reduction as the organic vapors react with OH. The prediction skill

264 metrics of the model 4-hour average O:C and OA concentration against the averaged ground

265 measurements for the seven selected days during PEGASOS 2012 campaign are summarized in

266 Tables 2 and 3 respectively.

267   The average predicted diurnal variation of O:C at the ground level, is presented in Figure 2.

268 Given the uncertainty introduced by the use of a trajectory model (e.g. a small error in the path of

269 the air parcels can introduce significant error in the predictions), we rely on the average

270 concentrations instead of the predictions of individual hours. Predicted O:C increased during the

271 afternoon due to the production of secondary OA and photochemical processing (evaporation,

272 oxidation in the gas phase and re-condensation) of the primary OA. The model predictions, agree

273 within experimental error with the measurements, with some discrepancies in the afternoon where

274 the model tends to overpredict O:C. They both suggest relatively oxidized OA with modest average

275   diurnal O:C variation. The average predicted O:C is 0.64 and the average measured is 0.58 (Table

276   2). The fractional error and bias for the 4-hour average O:C were less than 10%.

277   The predicted average O:C vertical model profile is compared to the airborne

278   measurements, in Figure 3a. Model predictions, agree with the measurements within experimental

279   error and both suggest an oxidized aerosol. The average predicted O:C was equal to 0.59, while

280   the average measured O:C was 0.58. The vertical profile for both the predictions and Zeppelin

281   measurements was relatively flat inside the lowest 1 km.

282   The predicted average diurnal profile of the OA particle mass concentration for the 1-bin

283   case is shown in Figure 4. The average predicted OA is equal to 2.6 µg m^{-3} and is predicted to be

284   higher during the night time for this specific period. The measurements suggest a relatively flat

285   profile; however, the model predicts higher particle mass concentrations during night time due to

286   increased levels of SOA. The average measured particle mass concentration during the same

287   period was 2.8 µg m^{-3}. The absolute error was equal to 0.78 µg m^{-3} and the fractional bias was

288   12%. The anthropogenic SOA and SOA from IVOC oxidation dominate the predicted OA

289   composition, with biogenic SOA increasing during night time. SOA-iv is predicted to contribute

290   36% to the total OA. Anthropogenic and biogenic SOA are predicted to account for 22 and 17%

291   respectively and SOA-sv and POA represent around 10% each (Figure S3). The predicted average

292   diurnal profile of the POA particle mass concentration compared to the HOA concentration from

293   the AMS-PMF results from the ground from Sullivan et al. (2016) are also shown in Figure S4.

294   The particle mass concentrations are always less than 0.25 µg m^{-3} and the diurnal profiles seem to

295   agree satisfactorily. The biomass burning contribution is not present during these summer months.

296   The average vertical predicted profile for all Zeppelin flights is compared with the

297   corresponding measurements in Figure 3b. The average measured OA for these periods was equal

298   to 4.7 µg m^{-3} while the average predicted 4.2 µg m^{-3}. Model predictions are within experimental

299   error, for altitudes lower than 700 m. The three data points at higher altitudes are all from a single

300   flight on June 20, 2012 during which the model underpredicted the OA aloft.

301

302   **3.2 Effect of functionalization scheme**

303   Using the 2-bin simple functionalization scheme the fractional error and bias for O:C are

304   around 10%, similar to the 1-bin parameterization. The average predicted OA is equal to 3.4 µg

305   m^{-3} (Table 3) with similar fractional error and bias with the 1-bin case. The average volatility

306   distribution and O:C of OA at the ground level is shown in Figure S2. The OA mass, using this

307   functionalization scheme is distributed towards smaller volatilities, compared to the 1-bin case,

308   almost one bin to the left (Figure S2b), while the OA mass is distributed around similar values for

309   the O:C with a diurnal ground average equal to 0.63 (Table 2), where 0.58 is the average for the

310   measurements.

311   The detailed functionalization scheme, underpredicted the O:C, with fractional bias equal to

312   34% and an average O:C equal to 0.41 (Table 2), when the average measured was 0.58. This is

313   consistent with the conclusions of Murphy et al. (2011; 2012), about the tendency of this

314   aggressive functionalization scheme to seriously underpredict O:C. The performance of this

315   scheme, was better for the OA mass concentration with an average predicted value equal to 3.2 µg

316   m^{-3} (Table 3) close to the average measured value (2.8 µg m^{-3}). The OA particle mass concentration

317   fractional bias was equal to 11% while the fractional error was 21%. In this functionalization

318   scheme, the predicted OA has a wider distribution in the 2D space than the 2 previous schemes

319   and lower O:C and volatilities. (Figure S2c).

320

3.3 Effect of bSOA production during aging

322   The average predicted O:C for the ground level using the 1-bin/bSOA parameterization is

323   0.55, which is consistent with the measured 0.58 (Table 2). The fractional error and bias of O:C

324   are less than 10%. However, the OA concentration is overpredicted with an average value of 3.8

325   µg m^{-3}, compared to the measured 2.8 µg m^{-3} (Table 2). The OA particle mass concentration

326   fractional bias and error were 26% and 30% respectively. This is consistent with the conclusions

327   of Hermansson et al. (2014), Lane et al. (2008) and Murphy and Pandis (2009) that treating only

328   the functionalization of bSOA while neglecting fragmentation leads to overpredictions of OA

329   concentrations.

330   The same behavior was observed in the 2-bin/bSOA simulation in which PMCAMx-Trj

331   predicted an average ground O:C equal to 0.53 with fractional bias less than 10% but overpredicted

332   OA with an average equal to 5 µg m^{-3} and a high fractional bias of 54%. Finally, in the DET/bSOA

333   case, the model seriously underpredicted O:C with an average value equal to 0.35 and fractional

334   bias equal to 50% and overpredicted OA concentration with an average equal to 5.4 µg m^{-3} and a

335   high fractional bias of 60%. In all of these cases, addition of significant later generation bSOA

336   production leads to significant errors in the model predictions.

3.4 The role of fragmentation

337
338   To explore the role of fragmentation the 1-bin simple functionalization scheme was first used,

339   assuming additional production of bSOA during aging combined with the fragmentation

340   parameterization varying the fragmentation probability from zero to one. An optimum

341   fragmentation probability equal to 0.15 was estimated (Figure S5b). The average predicted O:C

342   for this model configuration (1-bin/bSOA/b=0.15) was equal to 0.56 in good agreement with the

343   measurements and a fractional bias of 4% (Table 2). The average predicted OA was equal to 2.9

344    $\mu g\ m^{-3}$ with a fractional bias of just 2%.

345   The second functionalization scheme (2-bin case) was also tested without and with bSOA

346   aging, (2-bin and 2-bin/bSOA cases respectively). In the first case, the optimum b was estimated

347   to be equal to 0.1 and in the second case, assuming bSOA aging, it was equal to 0.4 (Figures S5c

348   and S5d) For both model configurations, the performance was satisfactory (fractional biases less

349   than 10% and fractional errors less than 25%) for both O:C and OA mass (Table 2 and 3).

350   In the last test, the detailed functionalization scheme (DET case) was used. In the previous

351   simulations, the DET and DET/bSOA parameterizations resulted in high underpredictions of the

352   O:C and overprediction of the OA concentration for DET/bSOA case. In the DET

353   parameterization, the optimum b was estimated to be equal to 0.3 and in the second case, assuming

354   bSOA aging, it was equal to 0.7 (Figures S5e and S5f). These schemes performed well with

355   fractional biases less than 10% and fractional errors less than 25% for OA and less than 10% for

356   O:C.

357   For all three aging schemes, including suitable fragmentation schemes, resulted in satisfactory

358   results compared to the measurements at the ground level. In Figure S4 all the parameterizations

359   had similar POA concentrations compared to the HOA concentrations from the ground PMF-AMS

360   measurements. The situation was similar for the Zeppelin measurements as shown in Figure S6 in

361   the Supplementary Information. All these parameterizations resulted in similar vertical profiles of

362   O:C and OA with similar agreement with the measurements.

363

3.5 Synthesis of results

364
365   The previous results suggest that there are seven aging parameterizations from those examined

366   that reproduce well both the ground and Zeppelin measurements. These are:

- the simple functionalization scheme and assuming negligible bSOA aging (1-bin case) corresponding to the base case in Murphy et al. (2011),
- the 1-bin shift with bSOA aging and a fragmentation probability equal to 15% (1-bin/bSOA/b=0.15),
- the 2-bin shift without bSOA aging (2-bin),
- the 2-bin shift without bSOA aging and a fragmentation probability equal to 10% (2-bin/b=0.1),
- the 2-bin shift with bSOA aging and a fragmentation probability equal to 40% (2-bin/bSOA/b=0.4),
- the detailed functionalization scheme, without bSOA aging and a fragmentation probability equal to 30% (DET/b=0.3),
- the detailed functionalization scheme with bSOA aging and fragmentation probability equal to 70% (DET/bSOA/b=0.7).

Parameterizations that appear to be inconsistent with the measurements are the ones that use the detailed functionalization scheme, without any fragmentation schemes, leading to underprediction of the O:C. Parameterizations including net bSOA production during the chemical aging reactions and neglecting fragmentation were also inconsistent with the measurements resulting in overprediction of the OA levels.

These seven aging schemes predict different OA composition (Figure 5), while all perform well enough compared to the measurements. Considering the modeling uncertainty introduced by the use of a 1-D trajectory model and the corresponding measurement uncertainties, all models perform satisfactorily. While statistically, the performance of the 2-bin/bSOA/b=0.4 scheme is a little better than the others, this difference is clearly within experimental/modeling error. Anthropogenic SOA from VOCs is predicted to contribute between 14 and 27% of the total OA (Figure S3a). It is a high contributor for the simulations assuming negligible additional production of bSOA during chemical aging. The parameterization using the faster functionalization scheme (2-bin) predicts the highest percentage of 27% while the scheme with the detailed functionalization, additional bSOA production and rapid fragmentation (DET/ bSOA/b=0.7) predicts the lowest (14%).

The predicted contribution of biogenic SOA was the most variable ranging from 16 to 45% of the total OA depending on the scheme (Figure S3b). The highest contribution, as expected, was

398   predicted by the schemes assuming production of bSOA during aging. The highest fraction (45%)

399   was predicted using the 2-bin shift functionalization parameterization and fragmentation by 40%

400   (2-bin/bSOA/b=0.4. The lower bSOA mass concentrations were predicted by the four schemes

401   assuming negligible net bSOA production during aging.

402   SOA from the oxidation of intermediate volatility compounds varied between 19 and 36%

403   depending on the model (Figure S3c). The lowest contributions were predicted by the simulations

404   in which the bSOA mass concentration was high. The primary OA varied from 5 to 6%, the OA

405   from long range transport from 6 to 8%, and the SOA from evaporation of the primary and

406   subsequent oxidation from 7 to 11%.

407   These results are encouraging because the various parameterizations even if they are quite

408   different they give a rather consistent picture (with exception of the picture of the bSOA maybe)

409   about the various pathways contributing to the OA levels in this area. Additional constraining of

410   these schemes will require applications of the corresponding models in other areas, additional

411   measurements, and probably additional laboratory studies.

412

3.6 The role of vaporization enthalpy

414   The vaporization enthalpy is a physical property that has always been assumed in chemical

415   transport models with values ranging from very low as 20 to even 200 kJ mol^{-1} that have been

416   suggested after constraining these values with experimental data (Stanier et al., 2007; Offenberg

417   et al., 2017). In our model, three different effective vaporization enthalpies equal to 30, 75 and 150

418   kJ mol^{-1} were assumed and used together with the simple functionalization scheme (1-bin case).

419   All three simulations, predicted the same flat diurnal profile for both the O:C and OA

420   concentration, with differences less than 20%, mostly in the first hours of the day (Figure 6a and

421   b). The predictions of the scheme with the higher vaporization enthalpy tend to be a little closer to

422   the ground measurements of O:C. As vaporization enthalpy increased, the predicted O:C decreased

423   and OA concentration increased (Table S1) However, the differences were small with the average

424   O:C ranging from 0.59 for the 150 kJ mol^{-1} case to 0.64 for the 30 kJ mol^{-1} case, while the measured

425   average value was 0.58. The fractional biases for O:C were similar ranging from 2% for a

426   vaporization enthalpy equal to 150 kJ mol^{-1} to 10% for 30 kJ mol^{-1}. The results for the OA

427   concentration were similar.

428   The comparison of the model predictions with the vertical profiles from the Zeppelin

429   measurements showed similar results (Figure 6c and d). The predicted vertical profiles of O:C and

430   OA particle mass concentration were once more not that sensitive to the assumed effective

431   vaporization enthalpy. This lack of sensitivity can be explained by the intricate interplay between

432   the changes in partitioning of the semi-volatile compounds and their gas-phase chemical aging

433   reactions. The sensitivity of the vaporization enthalpy was examined with all aging mechanisms

434   and the conclusions were the same.

435   For values of ΔH_{vap} that favor the partitioning of the OA components to the gas phase the

436   resulting decrease in OA concentrations is partially offset by an acceleration of the gas-phase

437   chemical aging reactions and the additional SOA production. Vice-versa for ΔH_{vap} values that

438   favor the partitioning to the particulate phase the resulting OA increase is balanced by a reduction

439   in the aging rate.

440

441   4. Conclusions

442   The effects of the parameterization of the chemical aging processes of atmospheric organic

443   compounds on organic aerosol (OA) particle mass concentration and chemical composition were

444   investigated by using different formulations of the two-dimensional Volatility Basis Set (2D-VBS)

445   together with ground and airborne measurements in the Po Valley in Italy.

446   We applied firstly the simple aging mechanism of the base case (Murphy et al., 2012),

447   presented here as the 1-bin case. The predictions of the model were satisfactory, both at the ground

448   and aloft, within experimental variability and with fractional biases for the 4-hour average O:C

449   and OA concentration around 10%. The average diurnal POA concentration was similar to the

450   HOA concentration from the PMF-AMS ground measurements with concentrations less than 0.25

451    $\mu g\ m^{-3}$. The vertical profile for both predictions of the 1-bin case and Zeppelin measurements was

452   relatively flat inside the lowest 1 km and the diurnal variation in O:C ratio was modest. They both

453   suggested a relatively oxidized OA for the Po Valley, Italy, with an average O:C around 0.6.

454   Anthropogenic SOA and SOA from intermediate volatility compounds oxidation dominated the

455   predicted OA composition based on this parameterization.

456   Seven aging schemes (out of more than a hundred tested), with different assumed

457   functionalization algorithms, bSOA aging and fragmentation were found to reproduce well the

458   ground and Zeppelin O:C and OA measurements. Anthropogenic SOA from VOCs was predicted

459   to contribute between 15 and 25% of the total OA and SOA from the oxidation of intermediate

460   volatility compounds oxidation between 20 and 35%. The contribution of biogenic SOA varied

461   from 15 to 45%, depending on the parameterization scheme. POA was around 5%, with almost

462   similar average diurnal profiles between the different parameterizations and similar to the HOA

463   concentrations from the PMF-AMS ground measurements. The OA from long range transport

464   varied from 6 to 8% and the SOA from evaporation of the primary and subsequent oxidation from

465   7 to 11%. These results are encouraging because despite the uncertainty introduced by the different

466   schemes, their predictions about source contributions are relatively robust.

467   Addition of bSOA produced during the corresponding chemical aging reactions in the

468   functionalization-only schemes resulted in overpredictions of the OA mass concentration.

469   Addition of significant fragmentation (fragmentation probabilities ranging from 15 to 70%) was

470   necessary to balance this additional source. This is clearly a topic that deserves additional research

471   both in the laboratory and in the field.

472   There was also surprising low sensitivity of predicted OA particle mass concentration and

473   O:C both at the ground and aloft to enthalpy of vaporization. Using three different vaporization

474   enthalpies equal to 30, 75 and 150 kJ mol^{-1}, the model predictions showed a very similar flat

475   diurnal profile for O:C and OA particle mass concentration at the ground with differences less than

476   20% and being within experimental variability. Similar were the conclusions for the vertical

477   profiles of the model in comparison to the Zeppelin measurements. The interplay between the

478   partitioning of the compounds and the chemical aging reactions as well as the small temperature

479   sensitivity, for altitudes until 600 m might explain this small sensitivity to vaporization enthalpy.

480   There was some weak evidence though that the higher values (like 150 kJ mol^{-1}) are in better

481   agreement with the O:C observations at the ground and aloft. Probably this low sensitivity is also

482   a feature of analyzing within the boundary layer during only the summer. Future work with three-

483   dimensional models and measurements with high altitude predictions and/or annual simulations

484   with wintertime predictions may be useful.

485

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674   **Table 1.** Characteristics of the different parameterizations used in our simulations.

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Parameterization Name	Functionalization scheme	bSOA increase during aging	Fragmentation probability	Comments
1-bin	1-bin	No	b=0	
1-bin/bSOA	1-bin	Yes	b=0	
1-bin	1-bin	No	b=0-1	Optimum for b=0, same as 1-bin case
1-bin/bSOA/b=0.15	1-bin	Yes	b=0-1	Optimum for b=0.15
2-bin	2-bin	No	b=0	
2-bin/bSOA	2-bin	Yes	b=0	
2-bin/b=0.1	2-bin	No	b=0-1	Optimum for b=0.1
2-bin/bSOA/b=0.4	2-bin	Yes	b=0-1	Optimum for b=0.4
DET	DET	No	b=0	
DET/bSOA	DET	Yes	b=0	
DET/b=0.3	DET	No	b=0-1	Optimum for b=0.3
DET/bSOA/b=0.7	DET	Yes	b=0-1	Optimum for b=0.7

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683   **Table 2.** Performance metrics of different parameterizations during the PEGASOS campaign for

684   ground O:C measurements. The measured average O:C was 0.58.

2D-VBS Parameterization	Predicted Average	Fractional Error	Fractional Bias	Absolute Error	Absolute Bias	Root Mean Square Error
1-bin	0.64	0.1	0.09	0.06	0.06	0.08
1-bin/bSOA	0.55	0.07	-0.06	0.04	-0.03	0.05
1-bin/bSOA/b=0.15	0.56	0.07	-0.04	0.04	-0.02	0.05
2-bin	0.63	0.09	0.08	0.05	0.05	0.06
2-bin/bSOA	0.53	0.10	-0.10	0.05	-0.05	0.06
2-bin/b=0.1	0.65	0.12	0.11	0.07	0.07	0.08
2-bin/bSOA/b=0.4	0.58	0.05	0.0	0.03	0.00	0.04
DET	0.41	0.34	-0.34	0.17	-0.17	0.17
DET/bSOA	0.35	0.49	-0.49	0.23	-0.23	0.23
DET/b=0.3	0.57	0.05	-0.03	0.03	-0.01	0.04
DET/bSOA/b=0.7	0.62	0.08	0.06	0.05	0.04	0.05

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691 **Table 3.** Performance metrics of different parameterizations during the PEGASOS campaign for

692 ground OA mass measurements. The measured average organic aerosol concentration was 2.8 µg

693 m^{-3}.

2D-VBS Parameterization	Predicted Average (µg m^{-3})	Fractional Error	Fractional Bias	Absolute Error (µg m^{-3})	Absolute Bias (µg m^{-3})	Root Mean Square Error (µg m^{-3})
1-bin	2.6	0.29	-0.12	0.78	-0.25	0.89
1-bin/bSOA	3.8	0.3	0.26	1.09	0.97	1.50
1-bin/bSOA/b=0.15	2.9	0.27	-0.02	0.79	0.05	0.96
2-bin	3.4	0.23	0.16	0.76	0.56	1.06
2-bin/bSOA	5	0.54	0.54	2.21	2.21	2.53
2-bin/b=0.1	2.9	0.22	0.02	0.67	0.11	0.85
2-bin/bSOA/b=0.4	3.1	0.22	0.07	0.71	0.3	0.96
DET	3.2	0.21	0.11	0.67	0.4	0.93
DET/bSOA	5.4	0.6	0.6	2.53	2.53	2.80
DET/b=0.3	2.9	0.22	0.01	0.66	0.1	0.84
DET/bSOA/b=0.7	2.9	0.24	0.02	0.71	0.12	0.87

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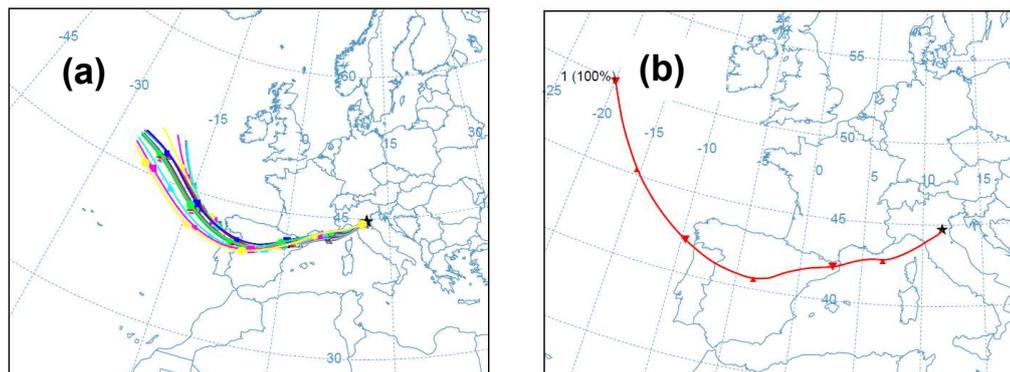
Figure 1. **(a)** The ensemble of 20 trajectories calculated by HYSPLIT for air parcels arriving at the San Pietro Capofiume site on 8 July 2012 at 3:00 LT and **(b)** the ensemble average trajectory calculated by the HYSPLIT clustering utility.

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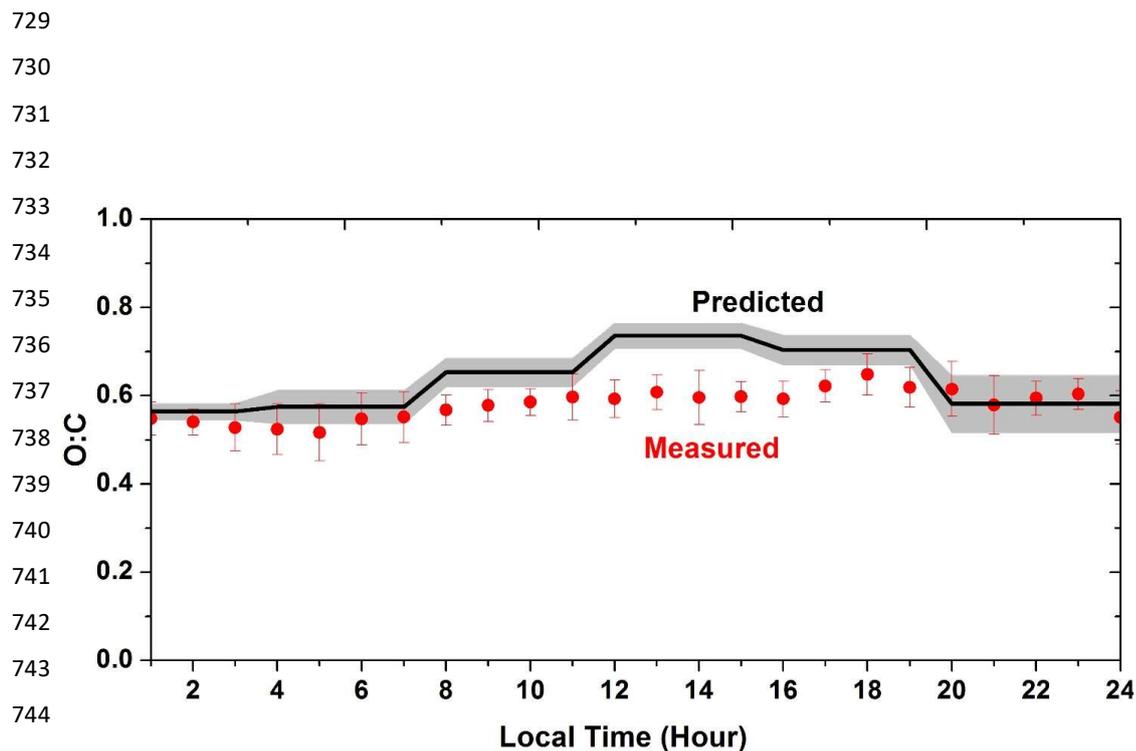
747 **Figure 2.** Average O:C diurnal evolution at the ground level in San Pietro Capofiume for the 1-
748 bin simulation. The black line shows the 4-hour model predictions (6 plateaus from 6 hours of
749 model predictions) and the shaded area corresponds to one standard deviation. The red symbols
750 represent the ground AMS measurements and the error bars correspond to one standard deviation.

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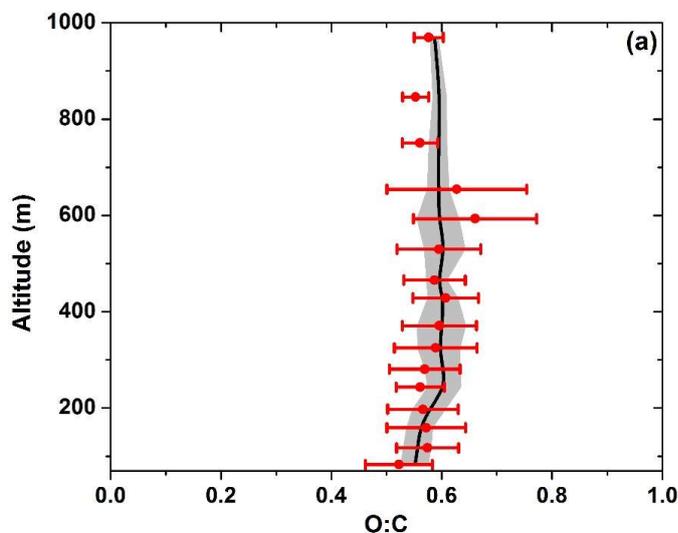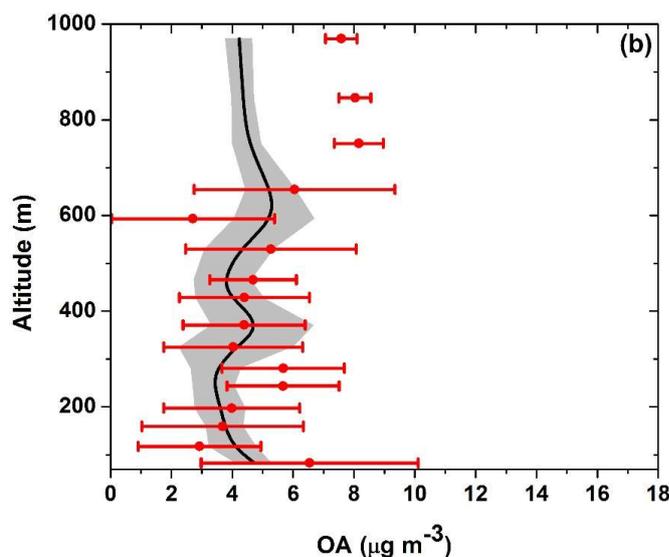
Figure 3. Average vertical predicted and measured (1-bin case) **(a)** O:C ratio and **(b)** organic

aerosol mass concentration for all the Zeppelin measurements over Po Valley. The black line shows

the model predictions and the shaded areas the standard deviation. The red symbols represent the

AMS Zeppelin measurements and the error bars correspond to one standard deviation.

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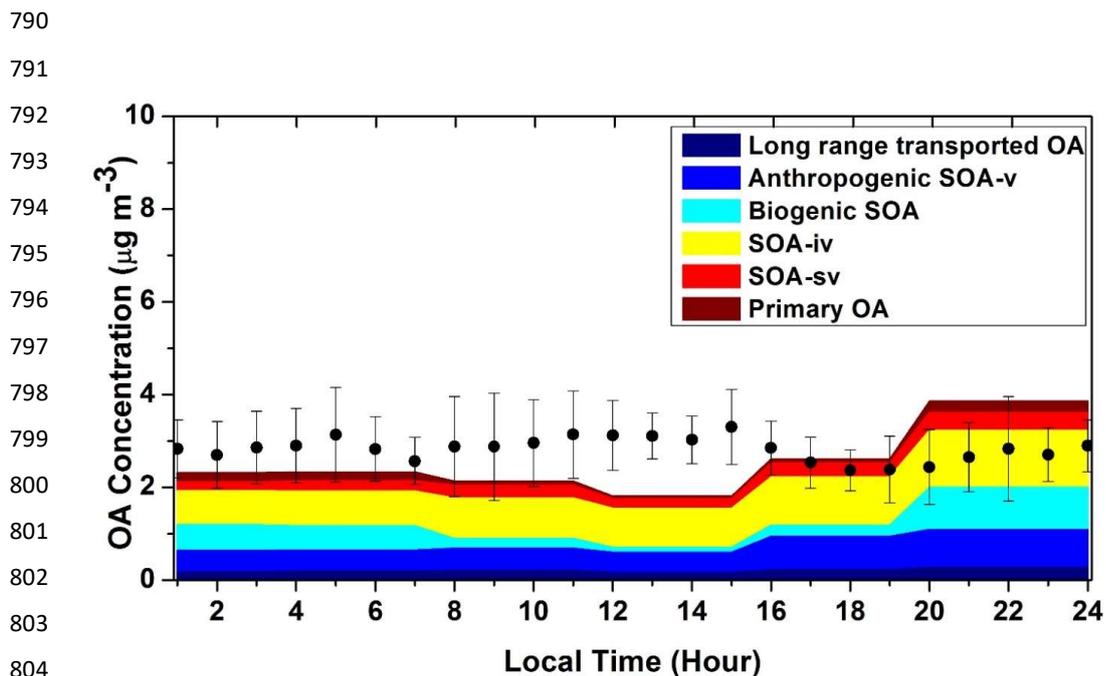
805 **Figure 4.** Average diurnal profile at the ground level OA in San Pietro Capofiume (1-bin case).

806 With dark blue we represent the OA from long range transport, with blue the anthropogenic SOA

807 produced during the oxidation of anthropogenic VOCs (aSOA-v), with cyan the biogenic SOA

808 (bSOA), with yellow the SOA from oxidation of intermediate volatility compounds (SOA-iv), with

809 red the SOA from the oxidation of semivolatile OA (SOA-sv) and finally with dark red the fresh

810 primary organic aerosol (FPOA). The ground AMS measurements are shown with black symbols

811 and the error bars correspond to one standard deviation.

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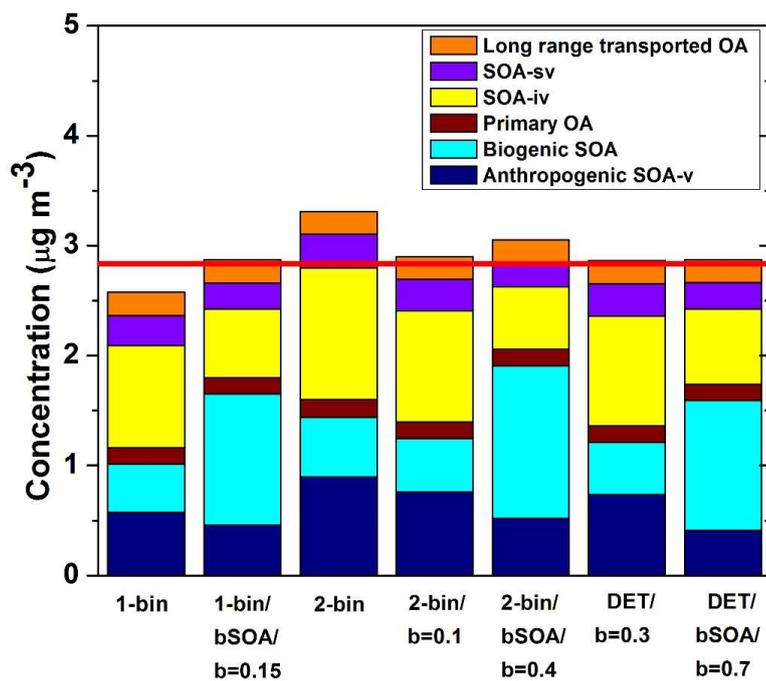
836 **Figure 5.** Predicted OA composition for the schemes with good performance for San Pietro

837 Capofiume. The red line indicates the average measured OA equal to 2.8 μg m^{-3}.

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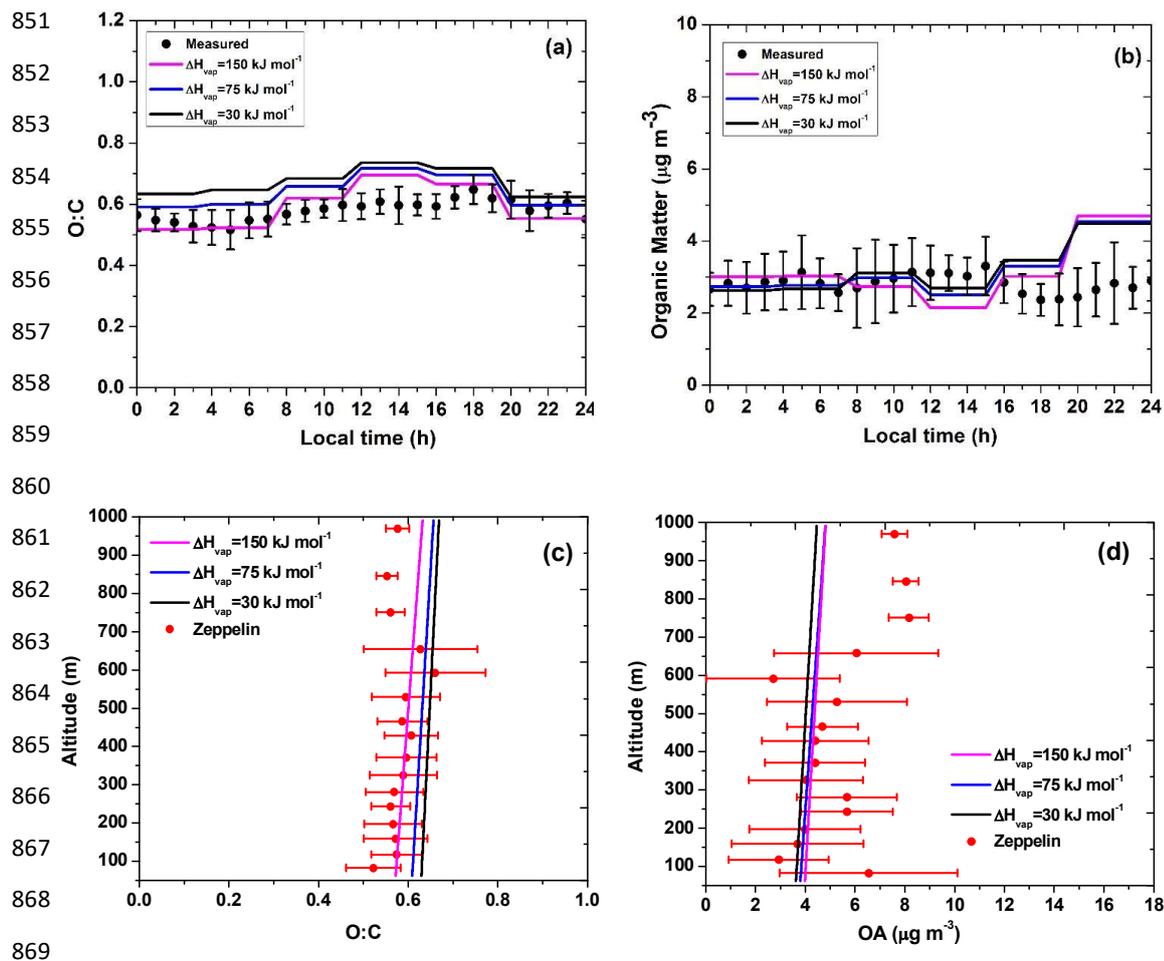
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Figure 6. Diurnally average (a) O:C ratios and (b) organic aerosol mass concentrations. Average

vertical organic aerosol (c) O:C and (d) organic aerosol mass concentrations assuming in the model

ΔH_{vap}= 30 kJ mol^{-1} (black line), ΔH_{vap}= 75 kJ mol^{-1} (blue line), and ΔH_{vap}= 150 kJ mol^{-1} (magenta

line) for the Po Valley in Italy. The black symbols show the ground AMS measurements. The red

symbols show the Zeppelin measurements. The error bars represent one standard deviation.