

1 **Characterization of organic nitrogen in aerosols at a forest site in** 2 **the southern Appalachian Mountains**

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22 23 **Abstract**

24 This study investigates the composition of organic particulate matter in PM_{2.5} in a remote
25 montane forest in the southeastern U.S., focusing on the role of organic nitrogen (N) in sulfur-
26 containing secondary organic aerosol (nitrooxy-organosulfates) and aerosols associated with
27 biomass burning (nitro-aromatics). Bulk water soluble organic N (WSON) represented ~ 14%
28 w/w of water soluble total N (WSTN) in PM_{2.5}, on average, across seasonal measurement
29 campaigns conducted in the spring, summer, and fall of 2015. Largest contributions of WSON to
30 WSTN were observed in spring (~ 18% w/w) and lowest in the fall (~10% w/w). On average,
31 identified nitro-aromatic and nitrooxy-organosulfate compounds accounted for a small fraction
32 of WSON, ranging from ~ 1% in spring to ~ 4% in fall, though were observed to contribute as
33 much as 28% w/w of WSON in individual samples which were impacted by local biomass
34 burning. Highest concentrations of oxidized organic N species occurred during summer (average
35 of 0.65ngN/m³) along with a greater relative abundance of higher generation oxygenated

36 terpenoic acids, indicating an association with more aged aerosol. Highest concentrations of
37 nitro-aromatics (eg. nitrocatechol and methyl-nitrocatechol), levoglucosan, and aged SOA tracers
38 were observed during fall, associated with aged biomass burning plumes. Nighttime nitrate
39 radical chemistry is the most likely formation pathway for nitrooxy-organosulfates observed at
40 this low NO_x site (generally <1ppb). Isoprene derived organosulfate (MW216, 2-methyltetrol
41 derived), which is formed from isoprene epoxydiols (IEPOX) under low NO_x conditions, was
42 the most abundant individual organosulfate. Concentration weighted average WSON/WSOC
43 ratios for nitro-aromatics + organosulfates + terpenoic acids were one order of magnitude lower
44 than the overall aerosol WSON/WSOC ratio, indicating the presence of other uncharacterized
45 higher N content species. Although nitrooxy-organosulfates and nitro-aromatics contributed a
46 small fraction of WSON, our results provide new insight into the atmospheric formation
47 processes and sources of these largely uncharacterized components of atmospheric organic N,
48 which also helps to advance the atmospheric models to better understand the chemistry and
49 deposition of reactive N.

50

51 **1. Introduction**

52

53 There is extensive evidence showing that boreal and temperate forests are affected by
54 anthropogenic activities, both industrial and agricultural. Such activity results in unprecedented
55 quantities of reactive nitrogen (N) being released into the atmosphere, subsequently altering
56 global nitrogen and carbon (C) biogeochemical cycles (Bragazza et al., 2006; Doney et al., 2007;
57 Ollinger et al., 2002; Magnani et al., 2007; Neff et al., 2002a,b; Pregitzer et al., 2008). Nitrogen
58 enters natural ecosystems through atmospheric deposition and biological fixation, and is mainly
59 lost through leaching and gaseous fluxes back to the atmosphere (Hungate et al., 2003).

60 Atmospheric deposition of N to terrestrial ecosystems may lead to soil and aquatic acidification,
61 nutrient imbalance and enrichment, plant damage and microbial community changes as well as
62 loss of biodiversity (Bobbink et al., 1998; Magnani et al., 2007; Lohse et al, 2008; Simkin et al.,
63 2016).

64 In the United States, deposition of atmospheric pollutants including N is monitored by
65 the National Atmospheric Deposition Program (NADP) and EPA's Clean Air Status and Trends
66 Network (CASNET). However, these networks focus only on inorganic N species (eg.
67 NH₃/NH₄⁺ and HNO₃/NO₃⁻). Recent studies shed light on the importance of organic N

68 deposition, which is not routinely measured in national networks. On a global basis, organic N
69 may contribute ~ 25 percent of the total N deposition (Gonzalez Benitez et al., 2009; Jickells et
70 al., 2013; Kanakidou et al., 2012; Keene et al., 2002; Neff et al., 2002a; Zhang et al., 2012).
71 Although ubiquitous, widespread routine monitoring of organic N in the atmosphere is inhibited
72 due to difficulties in sampling (Walker et al., 2012) and inability to fully speciate the wide range
73 of constituents that make up this large pool of atmospheric N (Altieri et al., 2009, 2012; Cape et
74 al., 2011; Neff et al., 2002a; Samy et al., 2013). For these reasons, understanding of the sources,
75 atmospheric chemistry, and deposition of organic nitrogen remains limited.

76 Atmospheric N from biogenic and anthropogenic emissions sources undergoes complex
77 transformation processes and photochemical reactions. Consequently, apportionment of
78 atmospheric organic N to potential sources is challenging. However, such information is required
79 to advance atmospheric N models applied to better understand the global N cycle. For example,
80 Miyazaki et al. (2014) examined aerosols collected in a deciduous forest and found in the
81 summer that water soluble organic N (WSO_N) correlated positively to biogenic hydrocarbon
82 oxidation; and during fall WSO_N in the coarse particle fraction was associated with primary
83 biological emissions (e.g. emitted from soil, vegetation, pollen and bacteria). Such patterns
84 underscore that atmospheric organic N measured in forested landscapes originates from a variety
85 of sources that contribute differently across seasons.

86 Recent advancements have been made in speciation of organic N in aerosol for some
87 groups of compounds including amines, amino acids and other nitrogenated functional groups
88 such as organonitrates (Day et al., 2010; Place et al., 2017; Samy et al., 2013). Organic N in
89 secondary aerosol and aerosols associated with biomass burning sources are areas of increasing
90 interest, from both atmospheric chemistry and ecosystem exposure perspectives, where more
91 information is needed. Studies of secondary organic aerosols (SOA) have identified a variety of
92 nitrated organosulfate compounds (e.g. nitrooxy-organosulfates) in both chamber and ambient
93 aerosol samples following isoprene and monoterpenes oxidation. These compounds are either
94 produced under high NO_x conditions or from nighttime NO₃ radical chemistry (Surratt et al.,
95 2006, 2007, 2008, 2010; Darer et al., 2011; Lin et al., 2013a; He et al., 2014; Worton et al.,
96 2013). Potential SOA precursors such as unsaturated green leaf volatiles (GLVs) released by
97 wounded plants (e.g. crop harvesting and insect attacks) may contribute substantially to the
98 budget of biogenic SOA formation especially in remote forests (Gomez-Gonzalez et al., 2008;

99 Hamilton et al., 2013; Shalamzari et al., 2016). The detection of reaction products such as
100 organosulfates and nitrooxy-organosulfates in ambient aerosols provides strong evidence of
101 influence from anthropogenic sources (e.g. SO₂ and NO_x) interacting with biogenic precursors to
102 form nitrogenated SOA (Chan et al., 2010; Lin et al., 2013a; Meade et al., 2016).

103 In addition to being present in sulfur-containing SOA, organic nitrogen, specifically
104 nitro-aromatic compounds (e.g. nitrophenols and nitrocatechols), have been characterized as
105 chemical tracers from biomass burning (e.g. wildland and prescribed smoke, bushfires,
106 residential wood burning). This is in addition to levoglucosan, a widely used tracer of biomass
107 burning (Iinuma et al., 2010, 2016; Kahnt et al., 2013; Kitanovski et al., 2012; Gaston et al.,
108 2016). These nitrated compounds can form during pyrolysis of plant biopolymers such as
109 cellulose. Furthermore, as combustion byproducts, these compounds are often defined as brown
110 carbon (BrC) and thus potentially light absorbing (Mohr et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2015).
111 Presumably, nitro-aromatics could constitute a substantial portion of atmospheric organic N in
112 aerosols collected in regions affected by biomass burning.

113 This study investigates the composition of organic particulate matter in a remote montane
114 forest in the southeastern U.S., focusing on the role of organic N in sulfur-containing SOA and
115 aerosols associated with biomass burning. Measurements target four groups of compounds: 1)
116 nitro-aromatics associated with biomass burning; 2) organosulfates and nitrooxy-organosulfates
117 produced from biogenic SOA precursors (i.e., isoprene, monoterpenes and unsaturated
118 aldehydes) interacting with anthropogenic pollutants; 3) terpenoic acids formed from
119 monoterpene oxidation; and 4) organic molecular markers including methyltetrols, C-5 alkene
120 triols, 2-methylglyceric acid, 3-hydroxyglutaric acid and levoglucosan. Terpenoic acids and
121 organic markers are included to assist in characterizing the extent of biogenic compound
122 oxidation and atmospheric processing (i.e., aerosol aging) as well as contributions from biomass
123 burning sources. Aerosol bulk chemical measurements are conducted to estimate total water
124 soluble organic N and C concentrations. Characterization of seasonal patterns in concentrations
125 of organic N species and assessment of potential sources and formation processes are
126 emphasized.

127

128 **2. Experimental methods and materials**

129 **2.1 Sampling site and atmospheric aerosol collection**

130 The study was conducted at the U.S. Forest Service Coweeta Hydrologic Laboratory, a
131 2185-ha experimental forest in southwestern, North Carolina, USA (35°3' N, 83°25' W) near the
132 southern end of the Appalachian Mountain chain. The climate is classified as maritime, humid
133 temperate, with mean monthly temperatures ranging from 3.3°C in January to 21.6°C in July
134 (Swift et al., 1988). Elevation ranges from 675 to 1592 m with a corresponding range in annual
135 precipitation of 1800 to 2500 mm (Swank and Crossley, 1988). The vegetation is characterized
136 as mixed coniferous/deciduous including oak, pines, and hardwoods (Bolstad et al, 1998).
137 Atmospheric measurements were conducted in the lowest part of the basin (686 m), collocated
138 with long term measurements of air and precipitation chemistry conducted by CASTNET and
139 NADP networks, respectively.

140 The sampling site is 5 km west of Otto, NC (population 2500) and Highway 23 (Figure
141 S1, supplemental material). Land to the north, west and south of Coweeta is undeveloped forest.
142 Typical rural development is present to the east of the site, consisting of houses and small scale
143 farming for hay and crop production including some scattered cow and horse pastures, which are
144 small local ammonia (NH₃) emission sources. The nearest metropolitan areas include Atlanta,
145 Georgia (175 km southwest), Chattanooga, Tennessee (175 km west), Knoxville, Tennessee (110
146 km north/northwest), Asheville, North Carolina (100 km northeast), and Greeneville, South
147 Carolina (100 km southeast). The location of the sampling site within the context of NO_x and
148 SO₂ point sources in the eastern U.S. is shown in supplemental material (Figure S2). Only minor
149 point sources are present within ~ 100 km of the site.

150 The study period summarized here comprises three seasonal intensives conducted during
151 the spring, summer and fall of 2015 as part of the Southern Appalachia Nitrogen Deposition
152 Study (SANDS). Each campaign was conducted for approximately 3 weeks (21 May to 9 June, 6
153 August to 25 August, 9 October to 26 October). A high-volume Tisch TE-1000 (Tisch
154 Environmental, Cleves, OH) dual cyclone PM_{2.5} sampler operated at a flow rate of 230 L/min
155 was set up on the ground to collect 24 hr (started at 7am local time) integrated samples on pre-
156 baked (550°C for 12hrs) quartz fiber (QF) filters (90mm, Pall Corporation, Port Washington,
157 NY). Under some conditions, the 24hr integrated filter sampling technique may not fully retain
158 all semi-volatile organic nitrogen compounds (Gonzalez Benitez et al., 2009). Field blanks were
159 collected the same way except being loaded in the sampler without the pump switched on. A
160 total of 58 ambient samples and 10 field blanks were obtained. Collected filter samples were

161 transferred back to the laboratory in a cooler and stored in a freezer at -20 °C before chemical
162 analysis.

163 2.2 Trace gas and meteorological measurements

164 During the spring 2015 campaign, NO_x concentrations were measured on a short tower
165 (7 m above ground) co-located with the CASTNET and high volume PM samplers. NO_x
166 concentrations were measured using a commercial NO-NO₂-NO_x analyzer (model 42S, Thermo
167 Environmental Instruments, Incorporated, Franklin, MA). Briefly, nitric oxide (NO) is measured
168 directly on one channel by chemiluminescence. On a 2nd channel, NO₂ is converted to NO by a
169 molybdenum catalyst heated to 325°C, yielding the concentration of NO_x (NO + NO₂). This
170 approach may overestimate NO_x since other oxidized nitrogen gases such as HNO₃, PAN and
171 HONO could also be reduced to NO on the heated molybdenum surface (Fehsenfeld et al., 1987;
172 Williams et al., 1998; Zellweger et al., 2000). However, the use of an inlet filter and
173 approximately 12 m of sample line between the atmospheric inlet and converter likely minimized
174 the potential bias from HNO₃. For subsequent campaigns, NO_x concentrations were estimated
175 from a co-located NO_y analyzer. Similar to the NO_x instrument, NO_y and HNO₃ were also
176 measured using a modified model 42S NO-NO₂-NO_x analyzer. The NO_y technique is described
177 in detail by Williams et al. (1998). Briefly, total oxidized reactive nitrogen (NO_y) is converted to
178 NO using a molybdenum catalyst heated to 325°C. On a 2nd channel, a metal denuder coated with
179 potassium chloride (KCl) is used to remove HNO₃ before passing through a 2nd molybdenum
180 converter heated to 325°C. The difference between the total NO_y measurement and the HNO₃-
181 scrubbed NO_y measurement is interpreted as HNO₃. NO_x concentrations were estimated from
182 the differences between measured NO_y and HNO₃, which provided an upper bound estimation as
183 gaseous N containing species were not excluded (eg. PAN and organic nitrates). Hourly ozone
184 concentrations were measured by CASTNET (U.S. EPA, 2017) on a co-located 10m tower.
185 Hourly meteorological data were provided by CASTNET (U.S. EPA, 2017) and Forest Service
186 (Miniat et al 2015; Oishi et al., 2017), including temperature, relative humidity, solar radiation
187 and precipitation.

188

189 2.3 Chemical analysis

190 2.3.1 Elemental and organic carbon analysis

191 A 1.5cm² QF punch was analyzed for elemental carbon (EC) and organic carbon (OC) using
192 a thermo-optical transmittance (TOT) method (Sunset Laboratory Inc, Oregon, USA) (Birch and
193 Cary, 1996).

194 2.3.2 Water soluble species by Ion Chromatography (IC) and Total Organic Carbon/Total 195 Nitrogen (TOC/TN) analyzers

196 A second QF punch (1.5cm²) from each sample was extracted with DI water (18.2
197 MΩ·cm, Milli-Q Reference system, Millipore, Burlington, MA) in an ultrasonic bath for 45 min.
198 The sample extract was filtered through a 0.2μm pore size PTFE membrane syringe filter (Iso-
199 disc, Sigma Aldrich, St. Louis, MO) before subsequent analyses.

200 Water soluble organic carbon (WSOC) and total N (WSTN) concentrations were
201 measured using a chemiluminescence method that included a total organic carbon analyzer
202 (TOC-Vcsh) combined with a total nitrogen module (TNM-1) (Shimadzu Scientific Instruments,
203 Columbia, MD). For WSOC measurements, 25% phosphoric acid was mixed with sample
204 extract (resulting in a 1.5% acid mixture) and sparged for 3 min to remove any existing
205 carbonate/bicarbonate.

206 Inorganic species (NH₄⁺, NO₃⁻, NO₂⁻ and SO₄²⁻) were analyzed using ion chromatography
207 (IC, Dionex model ICS-2100, Thermo Scientific, Waltham, MA). The IC was equipped with
208 guard (IonPac 2mm AG23) and analytical columns (AS23) for anions. The samples were
209 analyzed using an isocratic eluent mix carbonate/bicarbonate (4.5/0.8mM) at a flow rate of 0.25
210 mL/min. Cations were analyzed by Dionex IonPac 2mm CG12 guard and CS12 analytical
211 columns; separations were conducted using 20mM methanesulfonic acid (MSA) as eluent at a
212 flow rate of 0.25mL/min. Multi-point (≥5) calibration was conducted using a mixture prepared
213 from individual inorganic standards (Inorganic Ventures, Christiansburg, VA). A mid-level
214 accuracy check standard was prepared from certified standards mix (AccuStandard, New Haven,
215 CT) for quality assurance/quality control purposes.

216

217 2.3.3 UV-Vis light absorption analysis

218 Several studies have shown that methanol can extract aerosol OC at higher efficiencies
219 than water, and that a large fraction of light absorption in the near-UV and visible ranges is
220 ascribed to water insoluble OC (Chen and Bond, 2010; Liu et al., 2013; Cheng et al., 2016). In
221 this study, a QF punch (1.5 cm²) was extracted with 5 mL methanol (HPLC grade, Thermo

222 Fisher Scientific Inc.) in a tightly closed amber vial, sonicated for 15 min, and then filtered
223 through a 0.2 μm pore size PTFE filter (Iso-disc, Sigma Aldrich, St. Louis, MO). The light
224 absorption of filtered extracts was measured with a UV-Vis spectrometer over $\lambda = 200\text{-}900$ nm at
225 0.2 nm resolution (V660, Jasco Incorporated, Easton MD). The wavelength accuracy is better
226 than ± 0.3 nm; the wavelength repeatability is less than ± 0.05 nm. A reference cuvette
227 containing methanol was used to account for solvent absorption. The UV-Vis absorption of field
228 blank samples was negligible compared to ambient samples, but used for correction nonetheless.
229 For ease of analysis, the absorption at 365 nm referencing to absorption at 700 nm was used as a
230 general measure of the absorption by all aerosol chromophore components (Hecobian et al.,
231 2010).

232

233 2.3.4. Analysis of isoprene and monoterpene SOA markers and anhydrosugars by GC-MS

234 Aliquots of each filter (roughly $\frac{1}{4}$) were extracted by 10 mL of methanol and methylene
235 chloride mixture (1:1, v/v) ultrasonically twice (15 minutes each). The total extract was filtered
236 and concentrated to a final volume of ~ 0.5 mL. Next, extracts were transferred to a 2 mL glass
237 vial and concentrated to dryness under a gentle stream of ultrapure N_2 and reacted with 50 μL of
238 N, O-bis(trimethylsilyl)trifluoroacetamide (BSTFA) containing 1% trimethylchlorosilane
239 (TMCS) and 10 μL of pyridine for 3 h at 70 $^\circ\text{C}$. After cooling down to room temperature,
240 internal standards (mixture of 17.6 $\text{ng } \mu\text{L}^{-1}$ acenaphthalene-d10 and 18.6 $\text{ng } \mu\text{L}^{-1}$ pyrene-d4
241 mixed in hexane) and pure hexane were added. The resulting solution was analyzed by an
242 Agilent 6890N gas chromatograph (GC) coupled with an Agilent 5975 mass spectrometer (MS)
243 operated in the electron ionization mode (70 eV). An aliquot of 2 μL of each sample was injected
244 in splitless mode. The GC separation was carried out on a DB-5 ms capillary column (30 m \times
245 0.25 mm \times 0.25 μm , Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA). The GC oven temperature was
246 programmed from 50 $^\circ\text{C}$ (hold for 2 min) to 120 $^\circ\text{C}$ at 30 $^\circ\text{C min}^{-1}$ then ramped at 6 $^\circ\text{C min}^{-1}$ to
247 a final temperature of 300 $^\circ\text{C}$ (hold for 10 min). Linear calibration curves were derived from six
248 dilutions of quantification standards. Anhydrosugars (levoglucosan) were quantified using
249 authentic standard; 2-methyltetrols (2-methylthreitol and 2-methylerythritol) and C-5 alkene
250 triols were quantified using meso-erythritol; other SOA tracers (e.g., hydroxyl dicarboxylic acid)
251 were quantified using cis-ketopinic acid (KPA) (refer to supplemental information Table S1).
252 The species not quantified using authentic standards were identified by the comparison of mass

253 spectra to previously reported data (Claeys, et al., 2004, 2007; Surratt et al., 2006; Kleindienst et
254 al., 2007). Field blanks were collected and no contamination was observed for identified species.

255

256 2.3.5. Analysis of organosulfates, terpenoic acids and nitro-aromatics by High Performance
257 Liquid Chromatography- electrospray ionization-Quadrupole time-of-flight-Mass
258 Spectrometer (HPLC-ESI(-)-QTOF-MS)

259 Approximately 3-5 mL of methanol was used to ultrasonically extract (twice for 15 min)
260 roughly half of each 90mm QF sample. Internal standards (I.S.) were spiked onto each filter
261 sample prior to extraction (refer to Table S2, S3 and S4 for individual compounds and surrogate
262 standards used for each group of compounds). Extracts were filtered into a pear-shaped glass
263 flask (50 mL) and rotary evaporated to ~0.1 mL. The concentrated extracts were then transferred
264 into a 2 mL amber vial that was rinsed with methanol 2-3 times. The final sample extract volume
265 was ~500 μ L prior to analysis. All the glassware used during the extraction procedure was pre-
266 baked at 550°C overnight. Extracted samples were stored at or below -20 °C prior to analysis and
267 typically analyzed within 7 d.

268 An HPLC coupled with a quadrupole time-of-flight mass spectrometer (1200 series LC
269 and QTOF-MS, Model 6520, Agilent Technologies, Palo Alto, CA) was used for target
270 compound identification and quantification. The QTOF-MS instrument was equipped with a
271 multimode ion source operated in electrospray ionization (ESI) negative (-) mode. Optimal
272 conditions were achieved under parameters of 2000 V capillary voltage, 140 V fragmentor
273 voltage, 65 V skimmer voltage, 300 °C gas temperature, 5 L/min drying gas flow rate and 40
274 psig nebulizer. The ESI-QTOF-MS was operated over the m/z range of 40 to 1000 at a 3
275 spectra/s acquisition rate. Target compounds separation was achieved by a C18 column (2.1 \times 100
276 mm, 1.8 μ m particle size, Zorbax Eclipse Plus, Agilent Technologies) with an injection volume
277 of 2 μ L and flow rate of 0.2 mL/min. The column temperature was kept at 40 °C, and gradient
278 separation was conducted with 0.2% acetic acid (v:v) in water (eluent A) and methanol (eluent
279 B). The eluent B was maintained at 25% for the first 3 min, increased to 100% in 10 min, held at
280 100% from 10 to 32 min, and then dropped back to 25% from 32 to 37 min, with a 3 min post
281 run time. During each sample run, reference ions were continuously monitored to provide
282 accurate mass corrections (purine and HP-0921 acetate adduct, Agilent G1969-85001).
283 Typically, the instrument exhibited 2 ppm mass accuracy. Tandem MS was conducted by

284 targeting ions under collision-induced dissociation (CID) to determine parent ion structures.
285 Agilent software Mass hunter was used for data acquisition (Version B05) and for further data
286 analysis (Qualitative and Quantitative Analysis, Version B07). The mass accuracy for compound
287 identification and quantification was set at ± 10 ppm. Calibration curves were generated from
288 diluted standard compound mixtures. Recoveries of the extraction and quantification were
289 performed by spiking known amounts of standards to blank QF filters. Then the spiked blank
290 filters were extracted and analyzed the same way as ambient collected samples. The average
291 recoveries of standard compounds are listed in supplemental information Table S5 and ranged
292 from 75.2 ± 5.6 to $129.4 \pm 4.2\%$. Isomers were identified for several compounds, no further
293 separation was conducted and combined total concentrations are reported in this study.

294

295 2.4 Source apportionment by Positive Matrix Factorization

296 Positive Matrix Factorization (PMF) was used to identify potential sources of compounds
297 measured at Coweeta. Here we use the PMF2 model (Paatero, 1998a, b) coupled with a bootstrap
298 technique (Hemann et al., 2009), which has been applied in a number of previous studies (Xie et
299 al., 2012, 2013, 2014,). Briefly, PMF resolves factor profiles and contributions from a series of
300 PM compositional data with an uncertainty-weighted least-squares fitting approach; the coupled
301 stationary bootstrap technique generates 1000 replicated data sets from the original data set and
302 each was analyzed with PMF. Normalized factor profiles were compared between the base case
303 solution and bootstrapped solutions, so as to generate a factor matching rate. The determination
304 of the factor number was based on the interpretability of different PMF solutions (3-6 factors)
305 and factor matching rate ($>50\%$). Detailed data selection criteria are presented in supplemental
306 information.

307

308 3. Results and discussion

309 3.1 Meteorology, NO_x, and O₃

310 Statistics of atmospheric chemistry and meteorological measurements are summarized by
311 season in Table 1. In general, the sampling site was humid and cool, even in the summer, with
312 an average summer temperature of $\sim 21^\circ\text{C}$ and RH of 82%. During the fall, much lower
313 temperature ($\sim 12^\circ\text{C}$) and less humid conditions (RH=78%) were observed. NO_x concentrations

314 were generally less than 1ppb, which is considered typical for such a remote forest site removed
315 from major emission sources.

316 [O₃] (O₃ concentration) was generally low (Table 1) with seasonal averages of 15 ppb to
317 25 ppb. Historical seasonal [O₃] over the past 5 years (2011 to 2015) are shown in supplemental
318 information Figure S3. A spring maximum in [O₃] is typically observed at this site, with lower
319 concentrations during summer. Seasonal clustered back trajectories (Figure S4 in supplemental
320 information) suggest that during spring the Coweeta sampling site was under the influence from
321 air masses transported from Atlanta urban areas. In addition, a spring maximum [O₃] may be due
322 to higher chemical consumption of O₃ by reactive monoterpenes and sesquiterpenes emitted in
323 the forest during summer. With observed relatively moderate summer temperatures and
324 generally low [NO_x], the site also experiences frequent cloud cover in summer lowering the
325 intensity of solar radiation which may suppress ozone production relative to spring conditions.
326 Additionally, deposition of O₃ to the forest would be expected to peak during the summer, when
327 leaf area is greatest. O₃ correlates positively with NO_x in summer and fall but not spring,
328 indicating O₃ production might be relatively more VOC-limited in spring than the other seasons
329 in this region.

330

331 3.2 Bulk water soluble organic nitrogen and carbon

332 Water soluble bulk organic N (WSON) was estimated as the difference between WSTN
333 and the sum of the inorganic N species (NH₄⁺, NO₃⁻ and NO₂⁻). The measurement uncertainty of
334 WSON was estimated to be ~30% from error propagation of WSTN (2%), NH₄⁺ (1%), NO₃⁻ (1%)
335 and NO₂⁻ (1%). Nitrogen component contributions to WSTN are presented in Figure 1a, which
336 shows NH₄⁺ as the most abundant component, contributing 85±11% w/w to total WSTN mass.
337 Typical NH₄⁺ concentrations at the site were below 1.0 μg/m³(with an average of 0.32 μg/m³),
338 which is expected for such a remote site with no major local or regional NH₃ sources. The
339 oxidized inorganic N components (NO₃⁻ and NO₂⁻) accounted for less than 2% w/w of WSTN
340 measured. Such a small contribution of NO₃⁻ to inorganic N (typically <10% of inorganic N
341 (NO₃⁻+NH₄⁺)) in PM_{2.5} is consistent with long term CASTNET measurements at Coweeta. The
342 average contribution of WSON to WSTN over the entire study period was 14±11% w/w. This
343 fraction reached a maximum of ~18% w/w in the spring (average) and minimum of ~10% in the
344 fall (average), exhibiting pronounced seasonal variability. Within individual samples (Figure 1b),

345 values ranged from near zero to 45%. Our study wide average of 14% falls within the range of
346 measurements at North American forest sites, including Duke Forest, North Carolina (~33%, Lin
347 et al., 2010) and Rocky Mountain National Park (14-21%) (Benedict et al., 2012). Moreover, the
348 observed WSON contribution to WSTN in particles at Coweeta is consistent with a global
349 estimated range of 10-39% (Cape et al., 2011).

350 WSOC accounted for roughly $62 \pm 13\%$ of OC throughout the entire study period with no
351 significant seasonal variability. A time series of OC and WSOC along with temperature and
352 precipitation is presented in Figure 1c. On average, OC concentrations increased during warmer
353 spring and summer seasons and decreased when the temperature decreased in fall.
354 Concentrations of OC were positively correlated with temperature ($r=0.30$, $p<0.05$), presumably
355 in response to emissions of biogenic precursors and formation of secondary organic aerosols by
356 photooxidation. Spring and summer were generally moist and warm with frequent precipitation
357 (relative humidity presented in Table 1). Precipitation events corresponded to decreasing OC and
358 WSOC concentrations demonstrating the scavenging effect due to wet deposition.

359 Spearman rank correlation coefficients among measured species and meteorological
360 variables as well as other gas phase measurements are presented in Table 2 for each season
361 ($p<0.01$ for values in bold). As expected, NH_4^+ and SO_4^{2-} tracked well over each season ($r>0.9$,
362 $p<0.01$). NH_4^+ was mainly associated with SO_4^{2-} given the fact that NO_3^- and NO_2^- were
363 generally negligible compared to SO_4^{2-} . WSOC is often used as an SOA surrogate and accounts
364 for a significant portion (62% w/w) of OC during all sampling periods. WSOC correlated
365 strongly with OC over both summer and fall ($r>0.95$, $p<0.01$), but less so during spring ($r=0.74$,
366 $p<0.01$). WSOC also positively correlates with WSON over spring and fall ($r>0.75$, $p<0.01$) but
367 less so during summer ($r = 0.5$, $p > 0.01$). Note that both [WSOC] and [OC] are highest in the
368 summer, which likely indicates higher biogenic emissions and SOA formation. However, the
369 weak WSON-WSOC correlation suggests a variety of source contributions to WSON and WSOC
370 over the different seasons. [EC] was negligible over the entire study except a modest spike at the
371 end of October when wood burning was most likely the source. Details of this event are
372 discussed in the subsequent sections. It is also noted that a stronger correlation of WSON with
373 NH_4^+ than with NO_3^- was observed, which might suggest a key role of reduced nitrogen in
374 WSON formation (Cape et al., 2011; Jickells et al., 2013).

375

376

377 3.3 Nitro-aromatics

378 Concentrations of nitro-aromatics, organosulfate/nitrooxy-organosulfate, and terpenoic
379 acids are summarized in Tables 3, S2, S3 and S4. A time series of compound class totals are
380 presented in Figure 2. Generally negligible concentrations of nitro-aromatics were observed
381 during spring and summer except for occasional spikes. However, higher concentrations of nitro-
382 aromatics were observed in the fall when moderate correlations were observed with levoglucosan
383 (Figure 3, $r \geq 0.5$, $p < 0.01$; see table SI 6 for correlation coefficients). A residential wood burning
384 contribution is likely given the lower temperatures observed during this season. Similar positive
385 correlations between nitro-aromatics and wood burning are also reported during the winter
386 season (Gaston et al., 2016; Kahnt et al., 2013; Kitanovski et al., 2012; Inuma et al., 2010,
387 2016). Smoke at the sampling site on October 19th and 21st coincided with firewood burning at
388 the main office of the Coweeta Hydrologic Laboratory, immediately adjacent to the sampling
389 location. Nitro-aromatics were relatively elevated, but no significant increase in organosulfates
390 or terpenoic acids were found from these fresh smoke events. In contrast, an example of an aged
391 biomass burning signal is illustrated on October 24th and 25th. Pronounced spikes of
392 nitrocatechol($C_6H_5NO_4$), methyl-nitrocatechol($C_7H_7NO_4$) and levoglucosan were observed
393 (Figure 3), along with elevated concentrations of organosulfates, OC and aged biogenic aerosol
394 tracers (terpenoic acids m/z 203 and 187 shown in Figure 4a, detailed discussion can be found in
395 the subsequent section). However, EC was only slightly higher. This event did not correspond to
396 local burning at Coweeta and was most likely associated with long range transport. Clustering of
397 backward trajectories (120hr duration for individual trajectories; 48 total trajectories covering the
398 two-day event) suggests that northeast Georgia (shown in supplemental information Figure S5) is
399 the most likely origin of the biomass burning event observed on October 24th and 25th.

400 Nitro-aromatics correlate with EC across the seasons; both are likely emitted from
401 biomass burning (Gaston et al., 2016; Inuma et al., 2010; Kahnt et al., 2013; Mohr et al., 2013).
402 Interestingly, light absorption at $\lambda = 365\text{nm}$ is highly correlated ($r = 0.80$, $p < 0.01$) with nitro-
403 aromatics in the fall when nitro-aromatic concentrations were elevated. In addition, NO_x
404 correlates inversely ($r = -0.72$, $p < 0.01$) with temperature in the fall. Lower fall temperatures in the
405 region may have resulted in frequent residential wood burning, which emits NO_x and light
406 absorbing BrC (eg. nitro-aromatics) (Liu et al., 2015; Mohr et al., 2013). Although nitro-

407 aromatics account for a minor fraction of OM, they could potentially contribute to 4% of light
408 absorption by BrC (Mohr et al., 2013). Overall, nitro-aromatics displayed relatively weak
409 correlation with WSON ($r < 0.65$) across all seasons; the extremely low concentrations observed
410 suggest a generally small contribution of nitro-aromatics to WSON at the sampling site, hence
411 the lack of strong correlation.

412

413 3.4 Organosulfates and nitrooxy-organosulfates

414 Organosulfate concentrations were highest in summer and lowest in fall (Table 3), contributing
415 3.9 and 1.0 % w/w of organic matter (OM, estimated by applying an OM/OC factor of 2) mass,
416 respectively, during these seasons. Organosulfate formation is an example of heterogeneous
417 chemistry involving uptake of reactive precursors on acidified sulfate aerosols requiring a
418 mixture of biogenic and anthropogenic emissions. The air masses at Coweeta are mainly from
419 the southwest and westerly directions in spring and summer, but during fall may become more
420 stagnant and slow moving during southwesterly conditions or shift to the northwest (see
421 clustered back trajectories are shown in Figure S4). Because Atlanta, GA is southwest of
422 Coweeta, southwesterly flow during spring and summer may be associated with long range
423 transport of urban pollutants and precursors, including sulfate and sulfuric acid, leading to
424 elevated organosulfate formation compared to fall when the prevailing wind direction changes.

425 Among all organosulfates identified, the isoprene derived organosulfate (m/z 215, 2-
426 methyltetrol derived), which is formed from isoprene derived epoxydiols (IEPOX) under low
427 NO_x conditions, was the most abundant; concentrations reached 167 ng/m^3 in summer. Similar
428 high concentrations were also reported in ambient samples collected at other sites in the
429 southeastern U.S. (Lin et al., 2013b; Worton et al., 2013). Of the six nitrooxy-organosulfates
430 identified, isoprene derived m/z 260 was most abundant, approximately 6-fold higher than
431 monoterpene derived m/z 294 nitrooxy-organosulfate.

432 A subset of possible organosulfates and nitrooxy-organosulfates produced from isoprene
433 and monoterpene oxidation exhibit strong correlations with distinctive SOA tracers (eg. markers
434 2-methylglyceric acid, C-5 alkene triols and methyltetrols for isoprene oxidation products; tracer
435 3-Hydroxyglutaric acid for pinene oxidation products) (see table SI 7). Lack of correlation
436 between nitrooxy-organosulfate m/z 294 and 3-hydroxyglutaric acid may indicate a favored
437 nighttime nitrate radical formation pathway over photochemical oxidation. Given that NO_x

438 levels at the rural Coweeta sampling site were typically less than 1ppb, photo-oxidation
439 pathways involving high [NO_x] to form nitrooxy-organosulfates are less likely. Though a
440 contribution from photochemical oxidation cannot be ruled out (Lee et al., 2016; Romer et al.,
441 2016), nighttime nitrate radical chemistry is most likely the dominating formation mechanism
442 under such conditions. In contrast to our observations, He et al. (2014) report good correlations
443 ($r > 0.5$, $p < 0.01$) of *m/z* 294 with 3-hydroxyglutaric acid and higher daytime *m/z* 294
444 concentrations for summer samples collected in Pearl River Delta, China, where a seasonal
445 average NO_x level of 30 ppb was observed. The authors suggested that the dominant *m/z* 294
446 formation pathway was through daytime photochemistry rather than nighttime NO₃ chemistry.
447 The extremely low NO_x levels at our study site compared to that measured by He et al. may
448 explain the opposite behavior in terms of *m/z* 294 formation mechanisms.

449 Organosulfates exhibited statistically significant correlations with WSON only in the
450 summer ($r = 0.64$, $p < 0.01$), which reflected the importance of N containing organosulfates or their
451 formation chemistry to WSON during summer compared to the other seasons. During this
452 season, nitrooxy-organosulfates accounted for ~2% of bulk WSON, on average. A strong
453 correlation may therefore not be expected.

454

455 3.5 Terpenoic acids

456 Terpenoic acids, which provide insight into the extent of biogenic compound oxidation
457 and atmospheric processing (i.e., aerosol aging), were the most abundant group of compounds
458 relative to nitro-aromatics and organosulfates. On average, terpenoic acids accounted for 6.5 to
459 8.7% w/w of OM in PM_{2.5}. The warmer spring and summer periods show higher production of
460 terpenoic acids compared to the cool and drier fall season. Higher emissions of biogenic VOC
461 precursors as well as higher solar radiation intensities during warm seasons, which drive
462 photochemistry, are factors contributing to observed seasonal variability.

463 The terpenoic acids correlate well with WSOC and OC (Table 2). This is expected as
464 terpenoic acids account for a substantial portion of OM at the site. Individual acids (except
465 compounds C₇H₁₀O₄ and C₉H₁₄O₄) exhibit strong correlations with the pinene derived SOA
466 tracer 3-hydroxyglutaric acid ($r > 0.75$, $p < 0.01$; correlation coefficients shown in the supplemental
467 information Table S8), indicating the presence of α -/ β -pinene oxidation products. The poor
468 correlations between acids C₇H₁₀O₄ (*m/z* 157) and C₉H₁₄O₄ (*m/z* 185) suggests the presence of

469 biogenic VOC precursors other than α -/ β -pinene, such as limonene and Δ^3 -carene (Gomez-
470 Gonzalez et al., 2012).

471 Recent chamber studies identified several terpenic acid structures also observed in
472 ambient aerosol samples, including 3-methyl-1,2,3-butanetricarboxylic acid (MBTCA, $C_8H_{12}O_6$,
473 m/z 203), 2-hydroxyterpenylic acid ($C_8H_{12}O_5$, m/z 187), terpenylic acid ($C_8H_{12}O_4$, m/z 171) and
474 diaterpenylic acid acetate (DTAA, $C_{10}H_{16}O_6$, m/z 231) (Claeys et al., 2009; Kahnt et al., 2014).
475 MBTCA and 2-hydroxyterpenylic acid have been identified as highly oxygenated, higher
476 generation α -pinene SOA markers, and observed in high abundance in ambient aerosols (Gomez-
477 Gonzalez et al., 2012; Kahnt et al., 2014; Muller et al., 2012; Szmigielski et al., 2007).
478 Additionally, terpenylic acid and DTAA are characterized as early photooxidation products from
479 α -pinene ozonolysis. Claeys et al. (2009) proposed further oxidation processes (aging) of
480 terpenylic acid involving OH radical chemistry to form 2-hydroxyterpenylic acid. Figure 4
481 provides a time series of the terpenic acids identified in this study. In general, 2-
482 hydroxyterpenylic acid was the most abundant species across the seasons. To assess the extent of
483 aging, concentration ratios of higher generation oxidation products ($C_8H_{12}O_6$, m/z 203 and
484 $C_8H_{12}O_5$, m/z 187) to early oxidation fresh SOA products ($C_8H_{12}O_4$, m/z 171 and $C_{10}H_{16}O_6$, m/z
485 231) are calculated. Estimated seasonal averages of these ratios are 3.98, 4.37 and 2.44 for
486 spring, summer and fall, respectively. Thus, during spring and summer, aerosols observed at the
487 site were more aged. Figure 4 shows the correlation of these ratios with temperature ($r=0.79$,
488 $p<0.001$) and solar radiation ($r=0.23$, $p<0.1$). A clear relationship between temperature and OH
489 radical initiated oxidation (aging) is evident. However, oxidation appears less dependent on solar
490 radiation at our sampling site. Similar higher contribution of these aged biogenic SOA tracers
491 was also reported under warm summer conditions characterized by high temperature and high
492 solar radiation (Claeys et al., 2012; Gomez-Gonzalez et al., 2012; Hamilton et al., 2013; Kahnt et
493 al., 2014). Based on the typical chemical lifetime of biogenic SOA by OH oxidation and the
494 precipitation frequency at Coweeta site, biogenic SOA collected at Coweeta probably had an
495 atmospheric lifetime of several days before depletion by oxidation processes and/or scavenging
496 by precipitation (Epstein et al., 2014).

497 Terpenic acids may also provide some insight into the formation mechanisms of
498 organosulfates. While organosulfate concentrations are highest during summer, correlations with
499 SO_4^{2-} are strongest during spring and fall and weakest during summer. Conversely,

500 organosulfates and terpenoic acids correlate strongly ($r=0.91$, $p<0.01$) during summer.
501 Terpenoic acids are either first or second generation oxidation products from gas phase
502 monoterpenes; particulate SO_4^{2-} abundance should not substantially influence the gas-particle
503 partitioning of terpenoic acids. The strong correlation between organosulfates and terpenoic
504 acids in summer suggests organosulfate formation is limited by monoterpene emissions rather
505 than SO_4^{2-} availability while in the spring and fall (especially fall), organosulfate production may
506 be more limited by SO_4^{2-} . Degree of particle neutralization, calculated as the molar ratio of NH_4^+
507 to the sum of SO_4^{2-} and NO_3^- , averaged 0.94, 0.98 and 0.94 for spring, summer and fall,
508 respectively. Neutralization being close to but less than unity implies that aerosols are slightly
509 acidic at the site. Chamber studies have illustrated that acidified SO_4^{2-} could enhance
510 heterogeneous reactions to form SOA from isoprene and monoterpenes (Inuma et al., 2009;
511 Surratt et al., 2007, 2010). Similar positive correlations observed at the Coweeta site were also
512 found between isoprene tracers including isoprene derived organosulfates and SO_4^{2-} by Lin et al.
513 (2013b) at a rural site in the southeastern U.S. However, in contrast to chamber experiments, this
514 study and other ambient field measurements have not provided clear evidence of acidity
515 enhancement of organosulfate formation (He et al., 2014; Lin et al., 2013b; Worton et al., 2011),
516 indicating possible differences in exact mechanisms and processing to form these organosulfates
517 under atmospheric conditions relative to chamber studies. Recent mechanistic modeling
518 simulations by Budisulistiorini et al., (2017) suggest that the role of sulfate on IEPOX-
519 organosulfates formation might be through surface area uptake of IEPOX and rate of particle
520 phase reaction.

521 Very good correlations between WSON and terpenoic acids were observed during summer
522 and fall ($r\geq 0.7$, $p<0.01$). Given the secondary nature of terpenoic acids, this finding may suggest
523 that WSON during these two seasons is associated with more aged air masses and perhaps
524 dominated by secondary organic components rather than primary emitted N containing
525 constituents such as pollens, fungi and bacteria (Elbert et al., 2007; Miyazaki et al., 2014).

526 3.6 Contribution of identified N containing species to WSTN and WSON

527 Nitro-aromatics and nitrooxy-organosulfates combined were estimated to account for as
528 much as 28% of WSON for samples impacted by local biomass burning, which reflected the
529 abundance and potential importance of these groups of species to the atmospheric N deposition
530 budget. Seasonal average ratios of identified WSON to WSTN ranged from 1.0 to 4.4% with the

531 highest recorded for fall (Table 4). Nitrooxy-organosulfates dominated over nitro-aromatics as a
532 source of organic nitrogen, contributing > 90% to identified WSON across seasons. However,
533 during episodes of biomass burning, nitro-aromatics contribute as much as 32% of identified
534 WSON compounds. The ratio of WSON to WSOC was estimated to be 0.05, 0.04 and 0.02 for
535 spring, summer and fall, which implies organic N being most enriched during spring, reflecting a
536 spring maximum in seasonal emissions of organic N from biological sources (e.g. pollens,
537 spores, leave litter decomposition) combined with smaller contributions from secondary
538 atmospheric processes. The observed WSON/WSOC ratios in this study were slightly lower
539 than those reported for other forest sites (0.03-0.09) (Lin et al., 2010; Miyazaki et al., 2014),
540 which are not as remote and pristine as the forest site in this study. Anthropogenic influences at
541 the study sites described by Lin et al. (2010) and Miyazaki et al. (2014) such as $[\text{SO}_4^{2-}]$ and
542 $[\text{NO}_x]$ were ~ 5 times higher than those measured at the Coweeta site. Concentration weighted
543 average WSON/WSOC ratios for identified compounds (nitro-aromatics,
544 organosulfates/nitrooxy-organosulfates and terpenoic acids) in this study were estimated to be
545 0.003. This value is 10 times less than the overall WSON/WSOC ratio observed at the site,
546 which indicates existence of other higher N content species in the aerosols. Moreover, the
547 identified ON/WSON percentage was estimated to be 1.0, 2.0 and 4.4 for spring, summer and
548 fall, respectively. Such differences further suggest much more unidentified WSON compounds
549 exist in spring when organic N was most enriched from biological processes.

550

551 3.7 PMF analysis

552 PMF analysis was conducted to identify individual source contributions to total WSOC.
553 Factor profiles and time series of factor contributions are presented in figures 5 and 6. Listed in
554 order of percent contribution to WSOC, the five factors which were resolved include secondary
555 sulfate processing (35.3%), isoprene SOA (24.3%), WSON containing OM (20.0%), biomass
556 burning (15.1%) and monoterpene SOA (5.2%). Overall, these factors could explain $89 \pm 2\%$ of
557 observed WSOC ($r=0.88$, $p<0.0001$). The secondary sulfate profile contained a signature of high
558 SO_4^{2-} , which was most likely present as fine particulate $(\text{NH}_4)_2 \text{SO}_4$ and NH_4HSO_4 . Secondary
559 sulfate was the most important factor during spring, though was a significant contributor in
560 summer and fall as well. Isoprene SOA, which was identified based on isoprene derived
561 organosulfates and isoprene SOA markers, was the most important factor during summer. The

562 biomass burning factor, which exhibited a high portion of nitro-aromatic and levoglucosan
563 markers, dominated in the fall. This pattern agreed well with observed patterns of nitro-aromatic
564 compounds. Monoterpene SOA, which was resolved based on the composition of monoterpene
565 derived organosulfates, was overall a minor contributor with the exception of a few samples
566 during the fall intensive.

567 WSON containing OM contributed 20% to WSOC, overall, demonstrating a significant
568 association between organic N and C in PM_{2.5} at our study site. The WSON containing OM
569 source profile exhibited weak correlation with most measured species with the exception of
570 modest correlations with terpenoic acids. WSON containing OM contributed more to WSOC in
571 late spring and early summer, which was consistent with observed higher production of nitrooxy-
572 organosulfates during these sampling periods as well as terpenoic acids. The relationship with
573 terpenoic acids may reflect an association of WSON with more aged air masses. Because nitro-
574 aromatics and nitrooxy-organosulfates contribute only a small portion of WSON, on average, the
575 20% contribution of WSON containing OM to WSOC primarily reflects the contribution of
576 organic N present in bulk WSON but unspciated in this work.

577

578 4. Conclusions

579 Ambient PM_{2.5} collected at a temperate mountainous forest site were investigated on a bulk
580 chemical and a molecular level during spring, summer, and fall of 2015. Analyses focused on
581 speciation of nitro-aromatics associated with biomass burning, organosulfates produced from
582 biogenic SOA precursors, and terpenoic acids formed from monoterpene oxidation. Among these
583 three groups, terpenoic acids were estimated to be most abundant, contributing up to a seasonal
584 average of 8.7% of OM in PM_{2.5} during spring. Warm periods in spring and summer exhibited
585 highest production of terpenoic acids, when SOA correspondingly showed a higher degree of
586 aging. Relative abundance of aged biogenic SOA tracers (MBTCA and 2- hydroxyterpenylic
587 acid), which reflect the degree of organic aerosol aging, showed a strong correlation with
588 temperature. Such a relationship might indicate temperature dependence of OH radical initiated
589 oxidation steps or aging in the formation of higher generation oxidation products.

590 Organosulfates showed a peak in summer and lowest concentrations during fall,
591 contributing averages of 3.9 and 1.0 % of OM mass, respectively, during these seasons. Isoprene
592 derived organosulfate (m/z 215, 2-methyltetrol derived), formed from isoprene derived

593 epoxydiols (IEPOX) under low NO_x conditions, was the most abundant identified organosulfate
594 (up to 167 ng/m³ in summer). This observation is consistent with observations of low NO_x
595 levels (< 1ppb on average) at our study site. Nighttime nitrate radical chemistry is most likely the
596 dominant formation mechanism for nitrooxy-organosulfates measured at this remote site with
597 background level NO_x.

598 Nitro-aromatics were most abundant at our study site during the fall (up to 0.01% of OM
599 mass). Moderate correlations were observed between nitro-aromatics and the biomass burning
600 marker levoglucosan, indicating a common origin. Nitro-aromatics also correlated well with EC
601 across seasons. Highest concentrations of nitro-aromatics, specifically nitrocatechol and methyl-
602 nitrocatechol, were associated with aged biomass burning plumes as indicated by
603 correspondingly high concentrations of terpenic acids.

604 Bulk measurements determined that WSOC accounted for 62±13% of OC throughout the
605 entire study period without significant seasonal variability. PMF analysis indicated that a
606 significant portion of this organic carbon was associated with a resolved factor of WSON
607 containing OM. As a component of total nitrogen in PM_{2.5}, largest contributions of WSON to
608 WSTN were observed in spring (~ 18% w/w) and lowest in the fall (~10% w/w). On average,
609 identified nitro-aromatic and nitrooxy-organosulfate compounds accounted for a small fraction
610 of WSON, ranging from ~ 1% in spring to ~ 4% in fall, though were observed to contribute as
611 much as 28% w/w of WSON in individual samples which were impacted by local biomass
612 burning. Of the organic N compounds speciated in this study, nitrooxy-organosulfates dominated
613 over nitro-aromatics as a source of organic nitrogen, contributing > 90% to WSON across
614 seasons. As a component of WSON, nitro-aromatics were most important during episodes of
615 biomass burning, when their contribution to identified and total WSON was as much as 32% and
616 3%, respectively. Concentration weighted average WSON/WSOC ratios for compounds
617 identified in this study were estimated to be 0.003. This number is an order of magnitude lower
618 than the overall WSON/WSOC ratio observed, indicating a predominance of other
619 uncharacterized N species. Other N containing substituents of WSON could include amino
620 acids, amines, urea and N-heterocyclic compounds as well as substances of biological origin
621 such as spores, pollens and bacteria (Cape et al., 2011; Neff et al., 2002a). Ratios of WSON to
622 WSOC indicate organic C being most enriched by organic N during spring, perhaps reflecting a

623 spring maximum in seasonal emissions of organic N from biological sources combined with
624 smaller contributions from secondary atmospheric processes (e.g., nitrooxy-organosulfates).

625 Although nitro-aromatics and nitrooxy-organosulfates contribute a relatively small
626 fraction of organic N in PM_{2.5} at our study site, our observations shed light on this complex but
627 largely unknown portion of the atmospheric N budget. Our results provide further understanding
628 of the patterns and composition of SOA in a remote mountain environment previously
629 uncharacterized. Similar to our results, other studies generally find that individual groups of
630 organic N compounds (e.g., amines, amino acids, urea) cannot explain the majority of bulk
631 WSON, (Cape et al., 2011; Day et al., 2010; Place et al., 2017; Samy et al., 2013), which
632 globally accounts for ~25% of total N in rainfall (Cape et al., 2011; Jickells et al., 2013). As
633 methodological advances allow for greater speciation of this large pool of atmospheric N, future
634 work should emphasize analysis of both primary and secondary forms of organic N in individual
635 samples, in addition to bulk analyses, so that a more complete picture of organic N composition
636 may be developed for specific atmospheric chemical and meteorological conditions.
637 Additionally, as progress is made in better characterizing the composition and sources of
638 atmospheric organic N, the ecological and atmospheric science communities must work together
639 to develop a better understanding of the role of atmospheric organic N in ecosystem N cycling.

640

641 **Supplemental Information available**

642

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644

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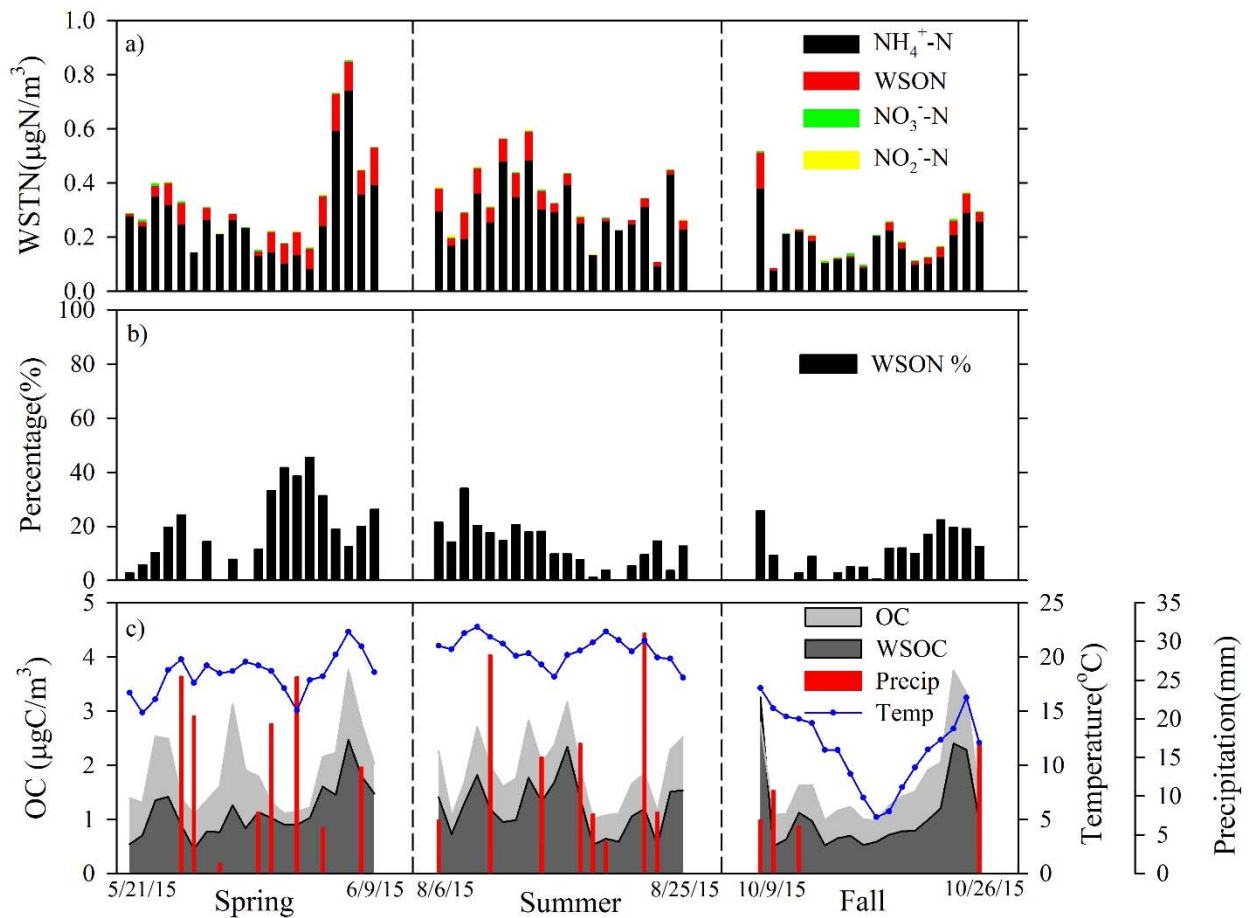


Figure 1. a) Individual concentrations of nitrogen components to WSTN (NH_4^+ , NO_3^- , NO_2^- and WSON); b) Percent contribution of WSON to WSTN; c) Time series of OC, WSOC, temperature and precipitation. Start and end dates of each intensive sampling periods are shown.

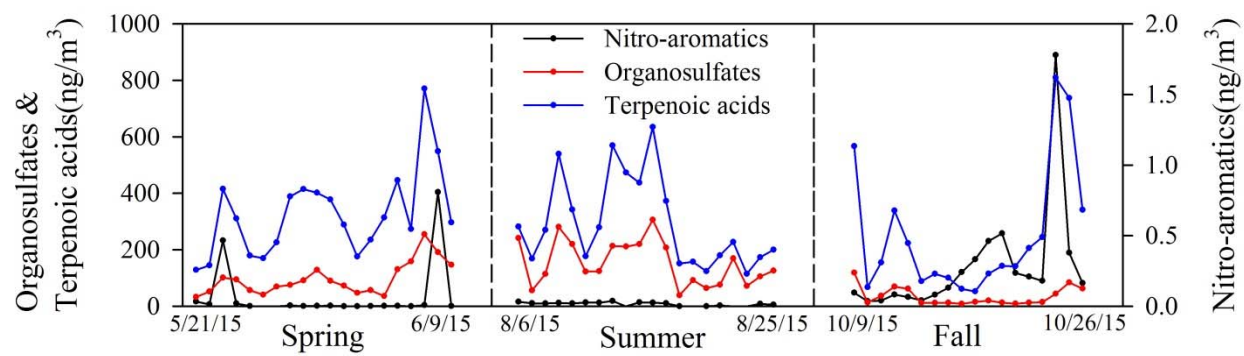


Figure 2. Time series of summed compound group concentrations of nitro-aromatics, organosulfates and terpenoic acids.

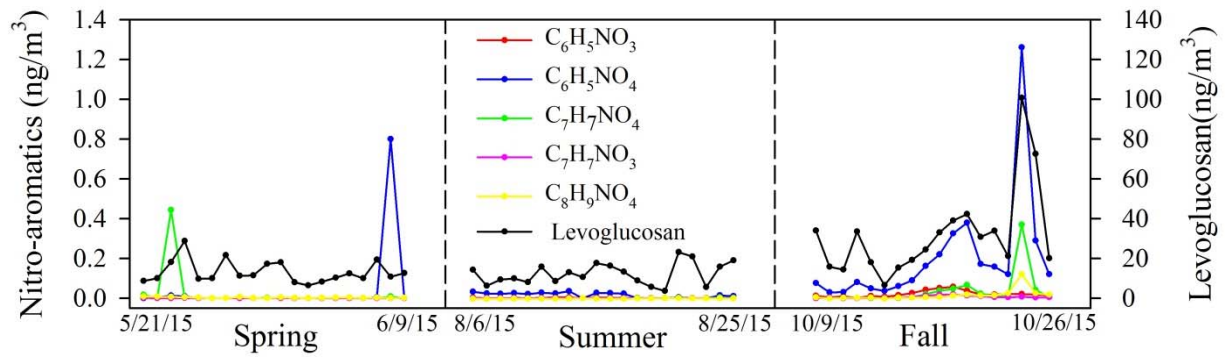


Figure 3. Time series of individual nitro-aromatics compounds as well as levoglucosan.

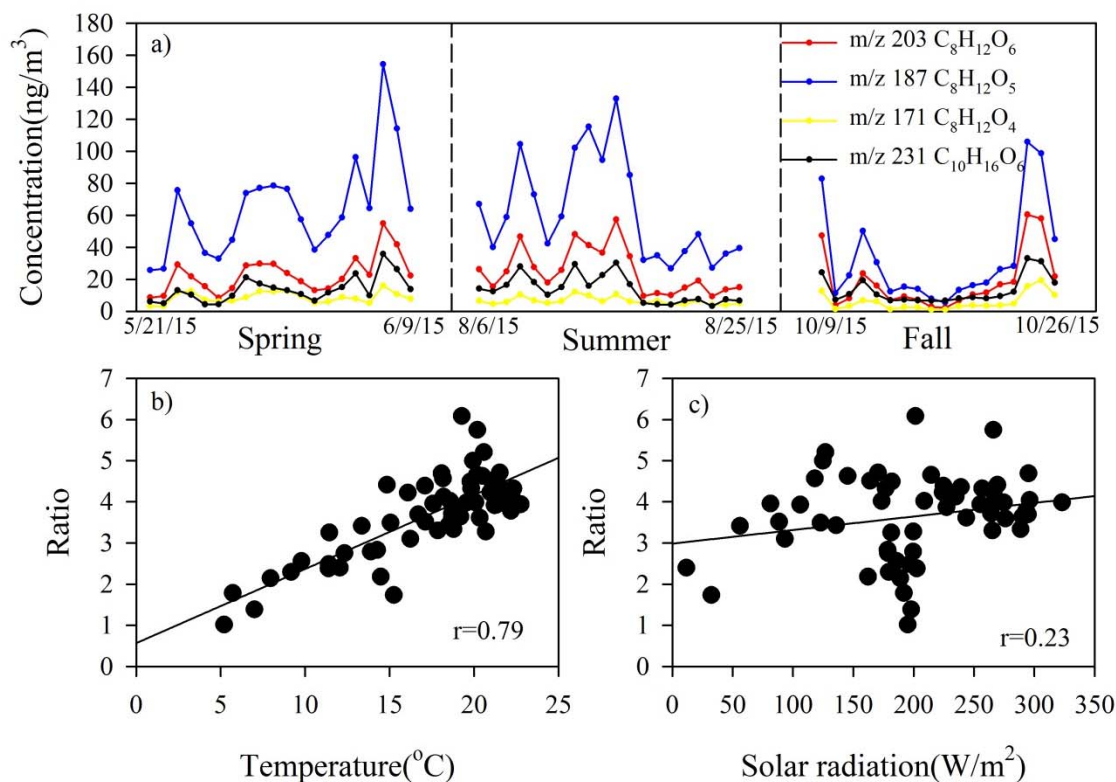


Figure 4. a) Time series of these four identified terpenoic acids(3-methyl-1,2,3-butane-tricarboxylic acid(MBTCA, $C_8H_{12}O_6$, m/z 203), 2-hydroxyterpenylic acid($C_8H_{12}O_5$, m/z 187), terpenylic acid($C_8H_{12}O_4$, m/z 171) and Diaterpenylic acid acetate(DTAA, $C_{10}H_{16}O_6$,m/z 231)); b) correlation of concentration ratios of higher generation oxidation products($C_8H_{12}O_6$, m/z 203 and $C_8H_{12}O_5$, m/z 187) to early oxidation fresh SOA products($C_8H_{12}O_4$, m/z 171 and $C_{10}H_{16}O_6$,m/z 231) with temperature and ; c) with solar radiation.

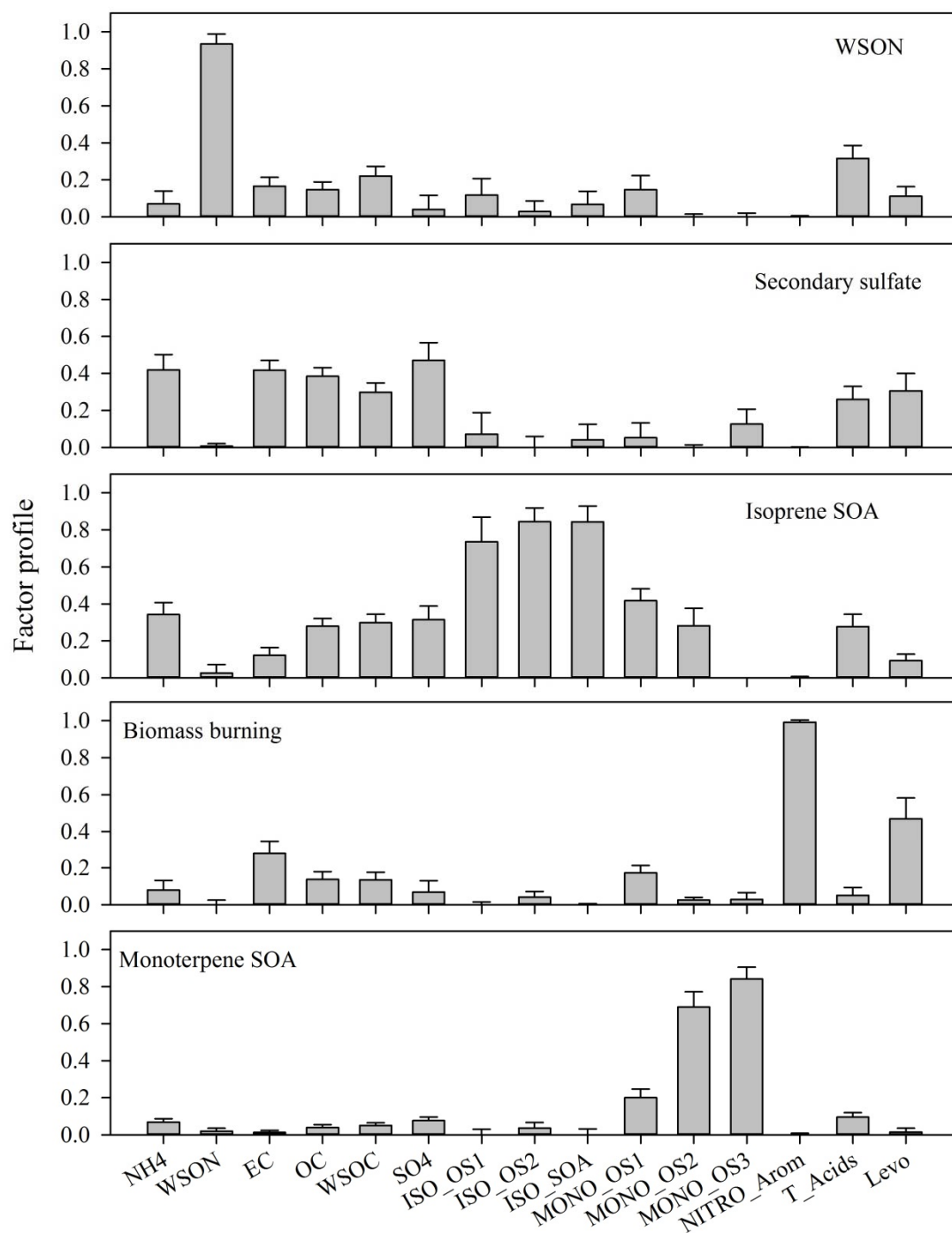


Figure 5. Normalized factor profiles (error bar represents one standard deviation).

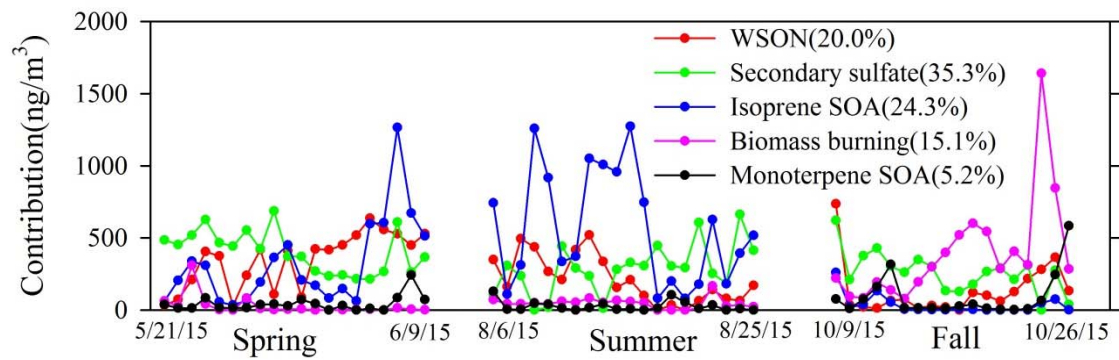


Figure 6. Time series of factor contributions to WSOC (mean factor contribution shown in brackets).

Table 1. Summary of particulate and gaseous species measured at Coweeta sampling site in 2015.

(μg/m ³)	Spring				Summer				Fall			
	mean	median	min	max	mean	median	min	max	mean	median	min	max
OM (OC*2)	3.77	3.41	2.18	7.52	3.80	3.79	2.00	6.32	3.36	2.85	1.96	7.49
EC	0.05	0.05	0.03	0.10	0.05	0.05	0.02	0.08	0.07	0.07	0.03	3.75
WSOC	1.14	1.03	0.45	2.47	1.22	1.24	0.53	2.34	1.09	0.78	0.50	3.25
WSTN	0.33	0.29	0.14	0.86	0.34	0.32	0.11	0.59	0.21	0.20	0.08	0.52
WSON	0.06	0.07	ND	0.14	0.05	0.03	ND	0.11	0.03	0.02	ND	0.13
NH ₄ ⁺ -N	0.27	0.24	0.08	0.74	0.29	0.28	0.09	0.48	0.18	0.17	0.08	0.38
NO ₃ ⁻ -N	0.00	0.00	ND	0.01	0.00	0.00	ND	0.01	0.00	0.00	ND	0.01
NO ₂ ⁻ -N	0.00	0.00	ND	0.00	0.00	0.00	ND	0.01	0.00	0.00	ND	0.00
SO ₄ ²⁻	0.99	0.93	0.26	2.44	1.01	0.95	0.31	1.85	0.63	0.58	0.30	1.33
O ₃ (ppb)	25.1	21.6	13.9	46.1	15.8	15.8	9.0	22.8	19.4	20.5	11.1	26.9
NOx(ppb)	0.75	0.79	0.45	1.03	0.54	0.58	0.24	0.91	0.65	0.68	0.43	0.89
Temp(°C)	18.4	18.6	14.8	22.3	20.7	20.6	18.1	22.8	11.6	11.7	5.2	17.1
RH%	81.7	84.9	61.0	94.8	82.1	83.1	71.9	88.5	77.7	74.9	65.1	92.0
Radiation	235	265	81	296	205	201	106	323	151	180	12	203

Table 3. Seasonal statistics of measured groups of compounds.

(ng/m ³)	Spring				Summer				Fall			
	mean	median	min	max	mean	median	min	max	mean	median	min	max
Nitro-aromatics	0.07	0.00	ND	0.81	0.02	0.02	ND	0.04	0.28	0.17	0.04	1.78
Organo-sulfates ¹	96.77	83.05	33.07	255.17	153.36	125.41	38.93	306.66	34.69	15.27	0.17	118.68
Terpenoic acids	325.62	304.05	128.68	771.16	294.01	249.19	115.08	634.99	250.66	148.91	52.94	809.46
% of OM ²												
%Nitro-aromatics	0.00	0.00	ND	0.02	0.00	0.00	ND	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.02
%Organo-sulfates	2.47	2.42	1.19	3.64	3.87	3.80	1.95	5.56	0.98	0.63	0.31	2.21
% Terpenoic acids	8.65	8.29	4.62	12.88	7.50	7.77	3.80	11.64	6.48	5.21	2.70	12.00

¹ including nitrooxy-organosulfates; ²Fraction of each group of identified compounds (combined total) to organic matter

Table 4. Ratios of identified nitrogen containing compounds (nitro-aromatics and nitrooxy-organosulfates) to WSON.

(ngN/m ³)	Spring				Summer				Fall			
	mean	median	min	max	mean	median	min	max	mean	median	min	max
WSON	59	74	ND	140	46	33	ND	105	25	15	ND	133
Identified ON	0.48	0.36	0.1	1.75	0.65	0.53	0.12	1.83	0.46	0.26	0.07	1.70
Identified ON/WSON %	1.02	0.64	ND	3.09	2.04	1.71	ND	7.84	4.37	1.50	ND	27.90