



1 **Primary and secondary organic aerosol from heated cooking**
2 **oil emissions**

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23 Abstract

24 Cooking emissions have been identified as a source of both primary organic aerosol
25 (POA) and secondary organic aerosol (SOA). To examine the characteristics of SOA
26 from cooking emissions, emissions from seven vegetable oils (sunflower, olive, peanut,
27 corn, canola (rapeseed), soybean, and palm oils) heated at 200 °C were photooxidized
28 under high-NO_x conditions in a smog chamber. OA was characterized using a high-
29 resolution time-of-flight aerosol mass spectrometer (HR-TOF-AMS). Sunflower,
30 peanut, corn, canola, and soybean oil generated relatively low concentrations of POA
31 ($\leq 0.5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) in the chamber. For palm and olive oil, positive matrix factorization
32 (PMF) analysis separated POA and SOA better than the residual spectrum method.
33 Temporal trends in concentrations of POA from heated palm oil were accurately
34 predicted assuming first-order POA wall loss. However, this assumption overestimated
35 POA concentrations from heated olive oil, which was attributed to the heterogeneous
36 oxidation of POA. The mass spectra of the PMF resolved POA factor for palm oil, and
37 the average POA from sunflower, peanut, corn, and canola oils were in better agreement
38 ($\theta = 8\text{--}12^\circ$) with ambient cooking organic aerosol (COA) factors resolved in select
39 Chinese megacities than those found in given European cities in the literature. The mass
40 spectra of SOA formed from heated cooking oils had high abundances of m/z s 27, 28,
41 29, 39, 41, 44, and 55 and displayed limited similarity ($\theta > 20^\circ$) with ambient semi-
42 volatile oxygenated OA (SV-OOA) factors. The entire OA data set measured herein
43 follows a linear trend with a slope of approximately -0.4 in the Van Krevelen diagram,
44 which may indicate oxidation mechanisms involving the addition of both carboxylic



- 45 acid and alcohol/peroxide functional groups without fragmentation and/or the addition
- 46 of carboxylic acid functional groups with fragmentation.



47 **1 Introduction**

48 Organic aerosol (OA) contributes greatly to atmospheric particulate matter (PM)
49 (Kanakidou et al., 2005), which influences air quality, climate, and human health
50 (Hallquist et al., 2009). OA commonly comprises primary organic aerosol (POA)
51 emitted directly from sources and secondary organic aerosol (SOA) formed via the
52 oxidation of organic gases (Donahue et al., 2009). Cooking is an important source of
53 both POA (Abdullahi et al., 2013) and SOA (Liu et al., 2018). In aerosol mass
54 spectrometer (AMS, Aerodyne Research Incorporated, USA) measurements, cooking
55 OA (COA) has been found to contribute 10–35% of OA in urban areas (Allan et al.,
56 2010; Sun et al., 2011, 2012; Ge et al., 2012; Mohr et al., 2012; Crippa et al., 2013a, b;
57 Xu et al., 2014; Lee et al., 2015), although the AMS may overestimate COA due to the
58 COA relative ionization efficiency (1.56–3.06), which is higher than the typical value
59 of 1.4 used for organics (Reyes-Villegas et al., 2018). In particular, Lee et al. (2015)
60 found that the average contribution of COA to OA (35%) was even higher than that of
61 traffic-related hydrocarbon-like OA (HOA, 26%) at a roadside site in Mongkok in Hong
62 Kong. Xu et al. (2014) also observed higher contributions of COA (24%) than HOA
63 (16%) to OA in Lanzhou, China.

64 Although most of the COA mass spectra resolved by positive matrix factorization
65 (PMF) analysis (Paatero, 1997; Paatero and Tapper, 1994; Ulbrich et al., 2009; Zhang
66 et al., 2011) in the wider AMS dataset have the same basic characteristics, including
67 predominant peaks at m/z s 41, 43, 55, and 57 and high m/z 55/57 ratios, the specific
68 COA mass spectra vary among studies (Mohr et al., 2009; Allan et al., 2010; Sun et al.,



69 2011; 2012; Ge et al., 2012; Mohr et al., 2012; Crippa et al., 2013a, b; Lee et al., 2015;
70 Elser et al., 2016; Struchmeier et al., 2016; Aijala et al., 2017). Differing cooking styles
71 may be among the factors that induce this variability in COA mass spectra. For instance,
72 the fraction of m/z 41 was higher than that of m/z 43 in COA mass spectra for Chinese
73 cooking (He et al., 2010), while the reverse was found for meat cooking (Mohr et al.,
74 2009). Atmospheric aging may also diversify the COA mass spectra. Significantly
75 different COA mass spectra have been resolved during summer and winter in Greece
76 despite the fact that cooking activities are similar during the two seasons (Florou et al.,
77 2017; Kaltsonoudis et al., 2017). In addition, the COA factors resolved by PMF analysis
78 may include emissions from other sources (Dall'Osto et al., 2015) and sometimes
79 cannot be separated from the other factors (Kostenidou et al., 2015; Qin et al., 2017).
80 The multilinear engine (ME-2) is a relatively newly developed tool that can use mass
81 spectra input from the literature to constrain the OA source apportionment solutions
82 (Canonaco et al., 2013). Qin et al. (2017) found that inputting different COA profiles
83 resulted in proportions of COA (to total OA) that differed by factors of up to 2.
84 Comparing laboratory-generated COA mass spectra with ambient PMF factors can help
85 to improve COA source apportionment. Previous studies have been focused on
86 investigating mass spectra of POA from cooking (Mohr et al., 2009; Allan et al., 2010;
87 He et al., 2010; Reyes-Villegas et al., 2018); however, studies exploring mass spectra
88 of SOA from cooking remain scarce.

89 Recent smog chamber studies have demonstrated that cooking emissions can form
90 large amounts of SOA via photochemical aging (Kaltsonoudis et al., 2017; Liu et al.,



91 2017, 2018). Kaltsonoudis et al. (2017) observed similarities between aged COA mass
92 spectra from meat charbroiling and corresponding POA mass spectra. Liu et al. (2017)
93 also reported extensive similarities (R^2 of 0.83–0.96) between mass spectra of POA and
94 SOA from heated cooking oils. These mass spectral similarities make it difficult to
95 separate POA and SOA from cooking in smog chamber experiments in terms of both
96 abundance and mass spectral signatures.

97 PMF has been used widely to deconvolve ambient AMS datasets, but relatively
98 less to analyze smog chamber data. Presto et al. (2014) used PMF to analyze POA and
99 SOA from vehicle exhaust. Kaltsonoudis et al. (2017) performed PMF analysis on fresh
100 and aged OA from meat charbroiling. However, PMF analysis has not been applied to
101 POA and SOA from heated cooking oils.

102 Sage et al. (2008) developed a residual spectrum method to separate POA and SOA
103 in diesel exhaust; this residual spectrum method assumes that all signal at m/z s 57 and
104 44 is associated with POA and SOA, respectively. Chirico et al. (2010) and Miracolo et
105 al. (2010) further improved the residual method, using the reduced $C_4H_9^+$ ion as a POA
106 tracer. Chirico et al. (2010) suggested that the appropriate POA tracer ion may differ
107 for different sources. The optimal tracer ions for cooking emissions remain unknown.

108 This study aims to characterize POA and SOA from heated cooking oils emissions,
109 obtain POA and SOA mass spectra via PMF analysis, and compare the resolved mass
110 spectra with those for ambient COA-related factors from PMF. We will also explore the
111 heterogeneous oxidation of POA from palm and olive oils.

112 **2 Materials and methods**



113 2.1 Smog chamber experiments

114 Seven photochemical aging experiments were conducted in a 30 m³ indoor smog
115 chamber at the Guangzhou Institute of Geochemistry, Chinese Academy of Sciences
116 (Wang et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2015, 2016; Deng et al., 2017) (Table 1). The cooking
117 oils tested include sunflower, olive, peanut, corn, canola (rapeseed), soybean, and palm
118 oils, which together constitute over 90% of the vegetable oil consumed globally (USDA,
119 2017). All experiments were conducted at 25 °C and a relative humidity (RH) of less
120 than 5%. Prior to each experiment, the chamber was continuously flushed with purified
121 dry air for at least 48 h. The experimental procedures have been described in detail
122 elsewhere (Liu et al., 2018). Briefly, ammonium sulfate seed particles were introduced
123 first into the chamber to serve as condensation sinks to reduce organic vapor wall losses
124 (Zhang et al., 2014). Then, emissions from heated vegetable oils were introduced into
125 the chamber for 1–1.5 h by an air stream through a 2 m heated (70 °C) Teflon tube. The
126 emissions were generated by heating 250 mL of the target oil at approximately 200 °C
127 in a 500 mL flask in a dimethyl silicone oil bath. Nitrous acid (HONO) was then
128 introduced into the chamber as a source of hydroxyl radical (OH). The initial ratio of
129 non-methane organic gases (NMOGs) to NO_x (NMOG:NO_x) fell largely between 2.6
130 and 5.4 ppbC:ppb, except for the palm oil experiment, in which it was 18.9 ppbC:ppb.
131 These ratios were larger than the typical urban ratio of ~3 (Gordon et al., 2014). After
132 the primary emissions had been characterized for at least 1 h, photochemical aging was
133 initiated by exposing the emissions to black lights (60 W Philips/10R BL365, Royal
134 Dutch Philips Electronics Ltd., the Netherlands) for 2–4.5 h.



135 Gas monitors were used to measure the concentrations of NO_x and O₃ (EC9810,
136 9841T, Ecotech, Australia). NMOGs were characterized using a commercial proton-
137 transfer-reaction time-of-flight mass spectrometer (PTR-TOF-MS, Model 2000, H₃O⁺
138 reagent ion, Ionicon Analytik GmbH, Austria) (Lindinger et al., 1998; Jordan et al.,
139 2009). Detailed descriptions of operating conditions, calibrations, and fragmentation
140 corrections can be found elsewhere (Liu et al., 2018). The decay of acrolein or
141 heptadienal was used to determine the OH concentration in the chamber.

142 A scanning mobility particle sizer (SMPS, TSI Incorporated, USA, classifier
143 model 3080, CPC model 3775) was used to measure particle number concentrations
144 and size distributions. The chemical composition of submicron non-refractory
145 particulate matter (NR-PM₁) was characterized using a high-resolution time-of-flight
146 aerosol mass spectrometer (hereafter AMS, Aerodyne Research Incorporated, USA)
147 (DeCarlo et al., 2006). The instrument alternated between the high-sensitivity V-mode
148 and the high-resolution W-mode every 1 min. The Squirrel 1.57I and Pika 1.16I toolkits
149 were used in IGOR (Wavemetrics Inc., USA) to analyze the AMS data; the Aiken et al.
150 (2008) fragmentation table was adopted. Elemental ratios, such as the hydrogen-to-
151 carbon ratio (H:C) and oxygen-to-carbon ratio (O:C), were determined using the
152 improved-ambient method (Canagaratna et al., 2015). HEPA-filtered particle-free air
153 from the chamber was measured for at least 20 min before and after each experiment to
154 determine the major gas signals. The ionization efficiency was calibrated using 300 nm
155 ammonium nitrate particles.

156 **2.2 Separating POA and SOA**



157 The experiments in this study were classified into two groups (Table 1). Sunflower,
158 peanut, corn, canola, and soybean oil emissions produced low POA concentrations (<
159 $0.5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) in the smog chamber. Due to wall losses, the POA concentration was close
160 to the AMS detection limit when the lights were turned on (e.g., the sunflower oil
161 experiment in Supplementary Fig. S1). These experiments were therefore assumed to
162 involve only SOA. POA and SOA mixtures were present in the palm and olive oil
163 experiments, which produced maximum POA concentrations of 14 and $39 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$,
164 respectively. PMF analysis (Paatero, 1997; Paatero and Tapper, 1994) was performed
165 on the high-resolution mass spectra (m/z s 12–160) to deconvolve the POA and SOA
166 factors following the procedure of Ulbrich et al. (2009). PMF solutions were examined
167 for 1 to 5 factors with fPeak values varying from -1 to 1. Diagnostic plots are shown
168 for all datasets in Figs. S2 and S3. After examining the PMF residuals, time series for
169 different numbers of factors, and mass spectral similarity between PMF POA and
170 observed POA spectra, 2-factor solutions with fPeak values of -0.2 and 0 were chosen
171 for the palm and olive oil experiments, respectively.

172 The residual spectrum method (Sage et al., 2008; Chirico et al., 2010; Miracolo et
173 al., 2010; Presto et al., 2014) was used in addition to PMF analysis to separate the POA
174 and SOA. The residual method assumes that all tracer ion signal (e.g., C_4H_9^+) is
175 associated with POA and that the chemical composition of POA remains constant
176 throughout the entire experiment. The mass concentration of POA at time t can then be
177 calculated using the following equation:

$$178 \quad POA_t = Ion_t / Ion_{t_0} \times OM_{t_0}, \quad (1)$$



179 where OM_{t_0} is the total organic matter concentration at time $t = 0$, and Ion_t and Ion_{t_0} are
180 the organic mass signals of a specific POA tracer ion at time t and time $t = 0$ (lights on),
181 respectively. $C_4H_9^+$ is typically chosen as the POA tracer for combustion sources (Sage
182 et al., 2008; Chirico et al., 2010; Miracolo et al., 2010; Presto et al., 2014); the optimal
183 tracer ion for cooking emissions remain unclear. The tracer ions tested in this study
184 include $C_4H_7^+$, $C_4H_9^+$, $C_5H_8^+$, $C_5H_9^+$, $C_6H_9^+$, and $C_7H_9^+$.

185 **3 Results and discussion**

186 **3.1 POA-SOA split**

187 Figure 1 shows measured OA time series for the palm and olive oil experiments; the
188 OA concentrations were not corrected for particle wall loss. The experiments typically
189 involved introduction of the cooking emissions to the chamber (~ 1 – 1.5 h),
190 characterization of primary emissions (~ 1 – 2 h), and photochemical aging (2 – 4.5 h). In
191 the palm oil experiment, the POA concentration increased rapidly during the first ~ 1.6
192 h of the emission introduction period, reaching approximately $14 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. The POA
193 concentration then decreased to $\sim 9 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ due to wall losses. SOA was quickly formed
194 after photochemical aging was initiated at $t = 0$, and the OA concentration increased by
195 a factor of 5 in less than 1 h. The maximum POA concentration in the olive oil
196 experiment was approximately two times higher than that in the palm oil experiment,
197 and the maximum OA concentration was $\sim 50\%$ of that in the palm oil experiment via
198 SOA formation. Palm oil produced SOA more efficiently than did olive oil; this is
199 consistent with our previous study, which found that the SOA production rate of palm
200 oil was 4 times that of olive oil, likely due to the higher abundance of SOA precursors



201 in palm oil emissions (Liu et al., 2018).

202 Figure 1 also shows time series of measured OA, resolved PMF factors, and POA
203 concentrations assuming first-order loss of POA to the walls. Two factors, namely POA
204 and SOA, were identified. Solutions with three or more factors introduced physically
205 inexplicable factors and did not improve the PMF performance (Fig. S4). Overall, the
206 OA reconstructed by PMF accurately captured the trends in measured OA throughout
207 the experiment. The sum of the residual was generally less than $2 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, resulting in
208 ratios of total residual concentration ($\Sigma\text{Residual}$) to total OA concentration (ΣOA) of
209 less than 5% (Figs. S2 and S3). The separation of POA and SOA factors was reasonable
210 and interpretable. During the introduction and characterization of cooking emissions (t
211 < 0), the concentrations of SOA should be, by definition, exactly zero. The
212 concentrations of the resolved SOA factors were approximately $0.3 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, capturing
213 the expected behavior.

214 In previous smog chamber studies of dilute emissions from combustion sources
215 (Weitkamp et al., 2007; Gordon et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2015, 2016), POA was typically
216 assumed to be inert, and POA concentrations followed first-order wall loss equations.
217 Figure 1 shows POA concentrations after the onset of photooxidation assuming first-
218 order wall loss. The wall loss rate constants were determined from the decay of POA
219 during the primary emissions characterization period. For palm oil, the predicted POA
220 concentrations agreed well with the PMF POA factor, suggesting that the assumption
221 of POA inertness was reasonable. However, for olive oil, the concentration of the PMF
222 POA factor was significantly lower after the onset of photooxidation ($t = 0$) than the



223 POA concentration predicted assuming first-order wall losses. The PMF POA factor
224 decreased rapidly in the first hour after $t = 0$, which may have been due to the
225 heterogeneous oxidation of POA. Kaltsonoudis et al. (2016) observed similar changes
226 in POA concentrations when emissions from meat charbroiling were exposed to OH
227 levels similar to those used in this experiment. Nah et al. (2013) also observed rapid
228 heterogeneous OH oxidation of select cooking POA components such as oleic acid and
229 linoleic acid. The differences in POA behavior may have arisen from the different
230 chemical compositions, and corresponding differences in reactivity, of POA from olive
231 and palm oils.

232 To validate the differences in heterogeneous oxidation reactivity between POA
233 from palm and olive oils, two additional ozonolysis experiments were conducted
234 separately using an oxidation flow reactor. Emissions generated in the flask were first
235 passed continuously through the reactor for at least 30 min and then exposed to 500–
236 600 ppb of ozone (O_3) for another 17 min. The total flow rate and residence time in the
237 flow reactor were 6 L min^{-1} and 75 s, respectively. OH radicals were not present in these
238 experiments. Previous work has demonstrated that exposing gas-phase emissions from
239 heated cooking oils to O_3 does not lead to SOA formation (Liu et al., 2017). Therefore,
240 any changes in OA chemical composition during these ozonolysis experiments were
241 attributed to heterogeneous oxidation. Figure 2 shows time series of O:C ratios and O_3
242 concentrations during the ozonolysis experiments. The olive oil O:C ratio increased
243 from 0.11 to 0.17 after the emissions were exposed to O_3 for 17 min; no obvious
244 changes were observed in the palm oil O:C ratio. These results demonstrate that POA



245 from olive oil undergoes heterogeneous ozone oxidation more readily than POA from
246 palm oil. The olive oil POA may contain more abundant unsaturated organic species,
247 which are expected to react quickly with OH radicals (Atkinson and Arey, 2003).

248 Figure 3 shows POA concentrations obtained using the residual method with
249 different POA tracer ions, along with the PMF-derived POA factors. For the palm oil
250 experiment, the residual method overestimated the POA concentrations (compared with
251 PMF) using all of the different tracer ions. For the olive oil experiment, the residual
252 method accurately predicted the POA concentrations before the lights were turned on
253 using different tracer ions. However, after photochemical aging began, the residual
254 method did not agree with the PMF results. Using $C_5H_9^+$ as a POA tracer, the residual
255 method captured the changes in POA during the first 1 h, but overestimated the POA
256 concentrations by as much as a factor of 2 for the remainder of the experiment; use of
257 the other ions led to significant POA concentration overestimation in comparison with
258 the PMF-resolved POA concentrations. The POA concentrations determined using
259 $C_4H_7^+$, $C_4H_9^+$, and $C_7H_9^+$ were higher even than those estimated for first-order POA
260 loss; this may be attributed to the presence of these ions in SOA, which is then
261 incorrectly allocated to POA by the residual method. These observations indicate that
262 the use of associated tracer ions to calculate POA is not valid for the photochemical
263 aging of cooking oil emissions.

264 Overall, PMF analysis effectively separated POA and SOA from heated cooking
265 oils. The traditional method, which assumes first-order POA wall loss, worked well
266 when the POA was inert, as in the palm oil experiment, but greatly overestimated the



267 POA concentration in the olive oil experiment, which was attributed to the occurrence
268 of heterogeneous oxidation. The residual method failed to capture the POA
269 concentrations using any of the different POA tracer ions due to the presence of these
270 ions in the SOA mass spectrum.

271 3.2 Mass spectra of PMF-resolved factors

272 Figure 4 shows mass spectra of POA emissions and PMF-derived POA factors from the
273 olive and palm oils. These were also compared to the average mass spectrum of POA
274 emitted from heated sunflower, peanut, corn, and canola oils obtained from Liu et al.
275 (2017). Overall, for both oils, the POA factor mass spectra agreed very well with the
276 directly measured POA spectra. For both oil types, the θ angles between the factor and
277 measured mass spectra were less than 5° ; generally, θ angles of $0\text{--}5^\circ$, $5\text{--}10^\circ$, $10\text{--}15^\circ$,
278 $15\text{--}30^\circ$, and $> 30^\circ$ indicate excellent agreement, good agreement, many similarities,
279 limited similarities, and poor agreement, respectively, between two mass spectra
280 (Kostenidou et al., 2009; Kaltsonoudis et al., 2017). The PMF analysis slightly
281 underestimated the mass fraction at m/z 28 and slightly overestimated the mass fractions
282 at m/z s 41 and 55 in both experiments.

283 The olive oil POA factor was dominated by m/z 41 ($f_{41} = 0.105$), followed by m/z s
284 69 ($f_{69} = 0.088$), 55 ($f_{55} = 0.075$), and 43 ($f_{43} = 0.050$). In the high-resolution mass
285 spectra, the most abundant ions in these unit masses were C_3H_5^+ , C_5H_9^+ , C_4H_7^+ , and
286 C_3H_7^+ , respectively (Fig. S5). The olive oil POA factor mass spectrum showed limited
287 similarity ($\theta = 26^\circ$) to the average POA mass spectrum for the other cooking oils. The
288 m/z 69 abundance in the POA factor was significantly higher than those (average $f_{69} =$



289 0.026) in POA from other oils, while the mass fractions of m/z s 29, 43, and 55 were
290 generally lower. The mass spectrum of olive oil POA measured directly in this study
291 also exhibited poor agreement ($\theta = 31^\circ$) with olive oil POA mass spectra measured in
292 an oxidation flow reactor (Liu et al., 2017) (Fig. S6). The mass spectral differences
293 between this study and Liu et al. (2017) may have arisen from the different oil heating
294 temperatures and dilution conditions.

295 The palm oil POA factor was dominated by m/z 55 ($f_{55} = 0.092$), followed by m/z s
296 41 ($f_{41} = 0.089$) and 43 ($f_{43} = 0.069$); the most abundant ions in these unit masses were
297 $C_4H_7^+$, $C_3H_5^+$, and $C_3H_7^+$, respectively (Fig. S5). The high abundances of m/z s 41 and
298 55 are similar to previous studies showing POA emissions from heated peanut, canola,
299 and sunflower oils (Allan et al., 2010), Chinese cooking (He et al., 2010), and meat
300 charbroiling (Kaltsonoudis et al., 2017). The POA factor mass spectrum exhibited good
301 agreement ($\theta = 9^\circ$) with the average mass spectrum of POA from other cooking oils,
302 although the POA factor had relatively higher mass fractions of m/z s 67 and 69 and
303 lower abundances of m/z s 28 and 29. The palm oil POA factor had higher abundances
304 of oxygen-containing ions such as CO^+ , CHO^+ , CO_2^+ , and $C_3H_3O^+$ than did the olive
305 oil POA factor, resulting in a relatively higher O:C ratio (palm O:C = 0.15; olive O:C
306 = 0.09).

307 Figure 5 shows PMF-derived SOA factor mass spectra of palm and olive oil and
308 the average mass spectrum of SOA formed from sunflower, peanut, corn, canola, and
309 soybean oils, which was obtained over a 10 min period after the OA concentration
310 reached its maximum for each oil. The SOA factors were dominated by m/z s 27, 28, 29,



311 41, 43, 44, and 55; the most abundant ions in these unit masses were C_2H_3^+ , CO^+ , CHO^+ ,
312 C_3H_5^+ , $\text{C}_2\text{H}_3\text{O}^+$, CO_2^+ , and C_4H_7^+ , respectively (Fig. S5). The abundances of oxygen-
313 containing ions were generally higher than those in the corresponding POA factors. The
314 mass fraction at m/z 43 ($f_{43} = 0.087$) was higher than f_{44} (0.059) in the olive oil SOA
315 factor, while f_{44} (0.074) dominated f_{43} (0.067) in the palm oil SOA factor. Despite these
316 differences, the mass spectra of the two SOA factors exhibited good agreement ($\theta = 8^\circ$).
317 Although the olive oil and palm oil had different NMOG compositions (Liu et al., 2018)
318 and POA mass spectra, the SOA produced by the two oils had highly similar mass
319 spectra. The SOA factor mass spectra were also highly similar ($\theta = 15^\circ$ for olive oil, 7°
320 for palm oil) to the average mass spectrum of SOA from five other cooking oils, which
321 contained a higher mass fraction of m/z 44 (average $f_{44} = 0.080$). C_4H_7^+ , C_4H_9^+ , C_5H_8^+ ,
322 C_5H_9^+ , C_6H_9^+ , and C_7H_9^+ ions were present in both SOA factors, which led to the
323 incorrect separation of the POA and SOA by the residual method, as discussed above.

324 3.3 Comparison of PMF-resolved factors with ambient factors

325 Comparisons of mass spectra from laboratory-generated cooking OA with ambient
326 PMF-resolved COA factors can help to constrain COA source apportionment. Figure
327 6a summarizes θ angles between ambient COA factors from other studies and the palm
328 oil PMF POA spectrum, average PMF SOA spectrum, and average POA and SOA
329 spectra from cooking oils. The olive oil POA mass spectrum was not included in the
330 comparison as it can vary greatly under different experimental conditions. The
331 reference mass spectra from other studies were obtained from the AMS spectral
332 database (Ulbrich, I.M., Handschy, A., Lechner, M., and Jimenez, J.L., High-Resolution



333 AMS Spectral Database. URL: <http://cires.colorado.edu/jimenez-group/HRAMSsd/>
334 (Ulbrich et al., 2009). The agreement between ambient COA factors and the palm PMF
335 POA and average POA mass spectra decreased from 8–12° for ambient COA factors
336 from the commercial and shopping area of Mongkok in Hong Kong (Lee et al., 2015)
337 to 25–28° for ambient COA factors from a suburban area in Pasadena (Hayes et al.,
338 2013). Cooking style may be among the factors that drives this variability in θ . Mass
339 spectral agreement was better for urban areas in Hong Kong, Beijing, and Xi'an, where
340 stir-frying foods with vegetable oils is popular, than in urban European cities, where
341 grilling and broiling are prevalent (Abdullahi et al., 2013). Atmospheric oxidation may
342 also influence the correlations between the POA factor mass spectra found herein and
343 the ambient COA factors. For example, the mass spectrum of a cooking-influenced
344 organic aerosol (CIOA) factor identified in Pasadena (Hayes et al., 2013) displayed
345 better agreement with the SOA factor and average SOA mass spectra than with the POA
346 factor and average POA spectra. Kaltsonoudis et al. (2017) also found that this CIOA
347 factor correlated well with mass spectra of aged OA from meat charbroiling. The
348 average PMF SOA factor and average SOA spectrum derived herein were poorly
349 correlated (θ generally $> 30^\circ$) with other ambient COA factors (Mohr et al., 2009;
350 Crippa et al., 2013a, b; Lee et al., 2015; Elser et al., 2016; Struchmeier et al., 2016;
351 Aijala et al., 2017). Our results suggest that one should consider the cooking style and
352 atmospheric oxidation conditions when constraining COA factors with the default COA
353 mass spectral inputs.



354 Figure 7 compares the average PMF SOA factor mass spectrum and average
355 ambient semi-volatile oxygenated organic aerosol (SV-OOA) factor (Ng et al., 2011a).
356 SV-OOA is ubiquitous in the atmosphere and generally associated with SOA (Ng et al.,
357 2010). The SV-OOA factor mass spectrum was recalculated following the Aiken et al.
358 (2008) fragmentation table, assuming that the OA mass at m/z 28 was equal to that at
359 m/z 44 and that m/z 18 was equal to 22.5% of m/z 44. The average mass spectrum of
360 the PMF SOA factors exhibited poor agreement with the SV-OOA average mass
361 spectrum ($\theta = 25^\circ$). The average PMF SOA factor for cooking oils had higher
362 abundances of m/z s 27, 28, 29, 39, 41, 44, and 55 than did the SV-OOA factor and lower
363 mass fractions of m/z s 15 and 43. In particular, the SV-OOA spectrum had no signal at
364 m/z 39, while the PMF SOA factor f_{39} was 0.048. The average mass spectra of the PMF
365 SOA factors and SOA from other cooking oils were also unlike other ambient SV-OOA
366 factors ($\theta > 20^\circ$) (Mohr et al., 2009; Crippa et al., 2013a; Hayes et al., 2013;
367 Struchmeier et al., 2016; Aijala et al., 2017) (Fig. 6b). The poor correlations between
368 cooking SOA and SV-OOA were not unexpected, as ambient SV-OOA may contain a
369 mixture of SOA from numerous sources, such as vehicle exhaust, biomass burning, and
370 industrial and biogenic emissions.

371 **3.4 OA oxidation state and chemical evolution**

372 Figure 8 shows the H:C and O:C ratios of PMF-resolved POA and SOA factors, SOA
373 from heated cooking oils, and ambient COA and SV-OOA factors in a Van Krevelen
374 diagram. The O:C ratio and estimated average carbon oxidation state (OS_c) ($OS_c \approx$
375 $218 \times O:C - H:C$) (Kroll et al., 2011) generally increase with increasing atmospheric



376 OA aging. The O:C ratios for the olive and palm PMF POA were 0.09 and 0.15,
377 respectively, comparable to those found for Chinese cooking (0.08–0.13) and meat
378 charbroiling (0.10) (Kaltsonoudis et al., 2017). The O:C ratios for the olive and palm
379 PMF SOA and SOA from other cooking oils ranged from 0.40 to 0.50, slightly lower
380 than that of SV-OOA (0.53), which indicates that the SOA formed from cooking oils
381 herein was less oxidized than ambient SV-OOA. In Van Krevelen space, the entire
382 dataset features a linear trend with a slope of approximately -0.4, which may indicate
383 oxidation mechanisms involving the addition of both carboxylic acid and
384 alcohol/peroxide functional groups without fragmentation and/or the addition of
385 carboxylic acid functional groups with fragmentation (Heald et al., 2010; Ng et al.,
386 2011b). This slope is consistent with the aging of ambient OOA (Ng et al., 2011b) and
387 lower than the -0.8 slope noted in evolving ambient OA data corrected using the
388 improved-ambient method (Heald et al., 2010). The O:C ratios of these ambient COA
389 factors ranged from 0.11 to 0.34, consistent with the oxidation trends determined for
390 cooking OA in this study. Some of the COA factors had O:C ratios higher than those
391 noted for POA from cooking emissions in laboratory studies (e.g., O:C = 0.27 for CIOA
392 in Pasadena (Hayes et al., 2013) and O:C = 0.34 for COA in Atlanta (Xu et al., 2018));
393 it is possible that these COA factors contained aged OA and/or SOA formed from
394 cooking emissions.

395 **4 Conclusions**

396 SOA formation from heated cooking oil emissions was investigated in a smog chamber
397 under high-NO_x conditions. For experiments with mixtures of POA and SOA, the POA



398 and SOA factors were separated using PMF, the traditional method, and the residual
399 method; PMF outperformed the other techniques in resolving accurate POA and SOA
400 factors. Although the traditional method, which assumes first-order POA wall losses,
401 worked well when the POA was inert, it greatly overestimated the POA concentration
402 when heterogeneous oxidation occurred. The residual method, which uses different ions
403 as POA tracers, failed to capture the POA concentrations due to the presence of these
404 ions in the SOA mass spectrum.

405 Mass spectra of palm oil PMF POA and average POA from other cooking oils
406 exhibited good agreement ($\theta = 8\text{--}14^\circ$) with ambient COA factors resolved in select
407 Chinese megacities such as Hong Kong, Beijing, and Xi'an and less similarity ($\theta = 11\text{--}$
408 23°) with ambient COA factors determined in select European cities. The mass
409 spectrum of a CIOA factor determined in Pasadena was more consistent with the
410 average PMF SOA factor mass spectrum ($\theta = 17^\circ$) than with the POA factors ($\theta = 25\text{--}$
411 28°). Our results suggest that one should consider the cooking style and atmospheric
412 oxidation conditions when performing deconvolution analyses with the default COA
413 mass spectral inputs.

414 The average mass spectra of PMF SOA factors and SOA from other cooking oils
415 exhibited little similarity ($\theta > 20^\circ$) to ambient SV-OOA factors, which is not unexpected
416 given that SV-OOA may contain a mixture of SOA from many sources. In the Van
417 Krevelen diagram, the entire data set in this study yielded a linear trend with a slope of
418 approximately -0.4, which may indicate oxidation mechanisms involving the addition



- 419 of both carboxylic acid and alcohol/peroxide functional groups without fragmentation
- 420 and/or the addition of carboxylic acid functional groups with fragmentation.



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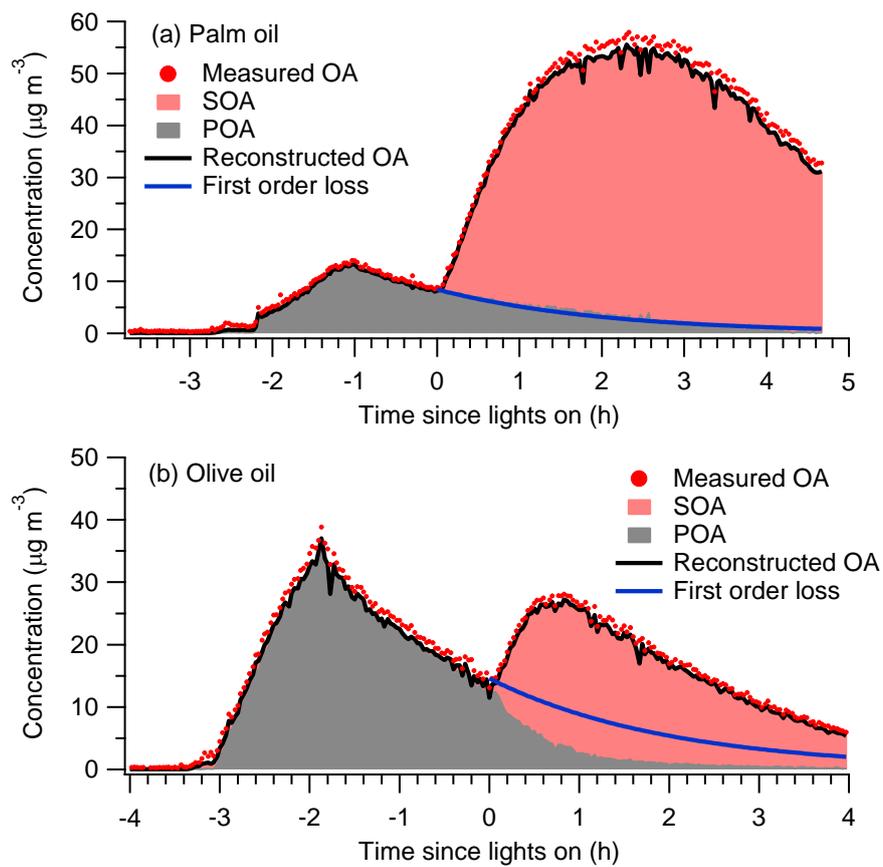


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677 **Table 1.** Experimental conditions in the photochemical aging experiments.

Cooking oil	Dilution ratio	[NMOG]:[NO _x] (ppbC:ppb)	OH exposure molec cm ⁻³ s	Category	PMF
sunflower	63	4.9	1.0×10 ¹⁰	Pure SOA	NA ^a
olive	107	4.0	1.3×10 ¹⁰	POA+SOA	2 factors
peanut	67	2.6	2.1×10 ¹⁰	Pure SOA	NA
corn	67	3.2	1.8×10 ¹⁰	Pure SOA	NA
canola	67	5.4	3.5×10 ¹⁰	Pure SOA	NA
soybean	67	3.4	1.7×10 ¹⁰	Pure SOA	NA
palm	100	18.9	1.3×10 ¹⁰	POA+SOA	2 factors

678 ^a not applicable.

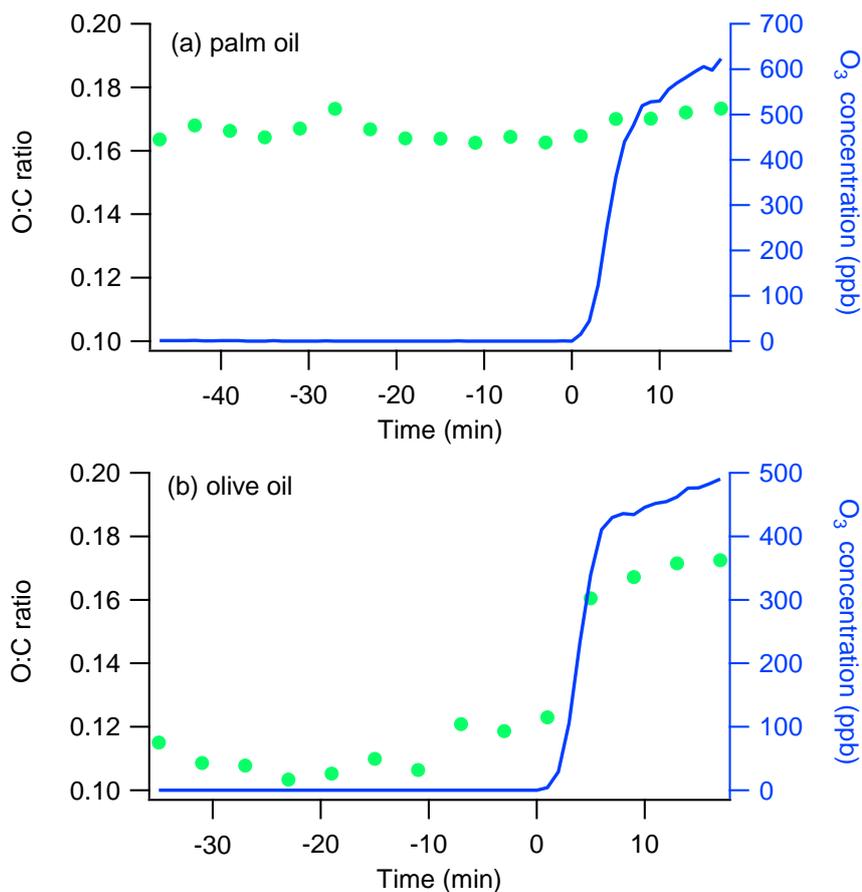


679

680 **Figure 1.** Time series of measured OA, PMF factors, and POA concentrations assuming

681 first-order loss of POA to the walls for (a) palm and (b) olive oil experiments.

682 Concentrations were not corrected for particle wall loss.



683

684 **Figure 2.** Time series of O:C ratios and O₃ concentrations for oxidation flow reactor

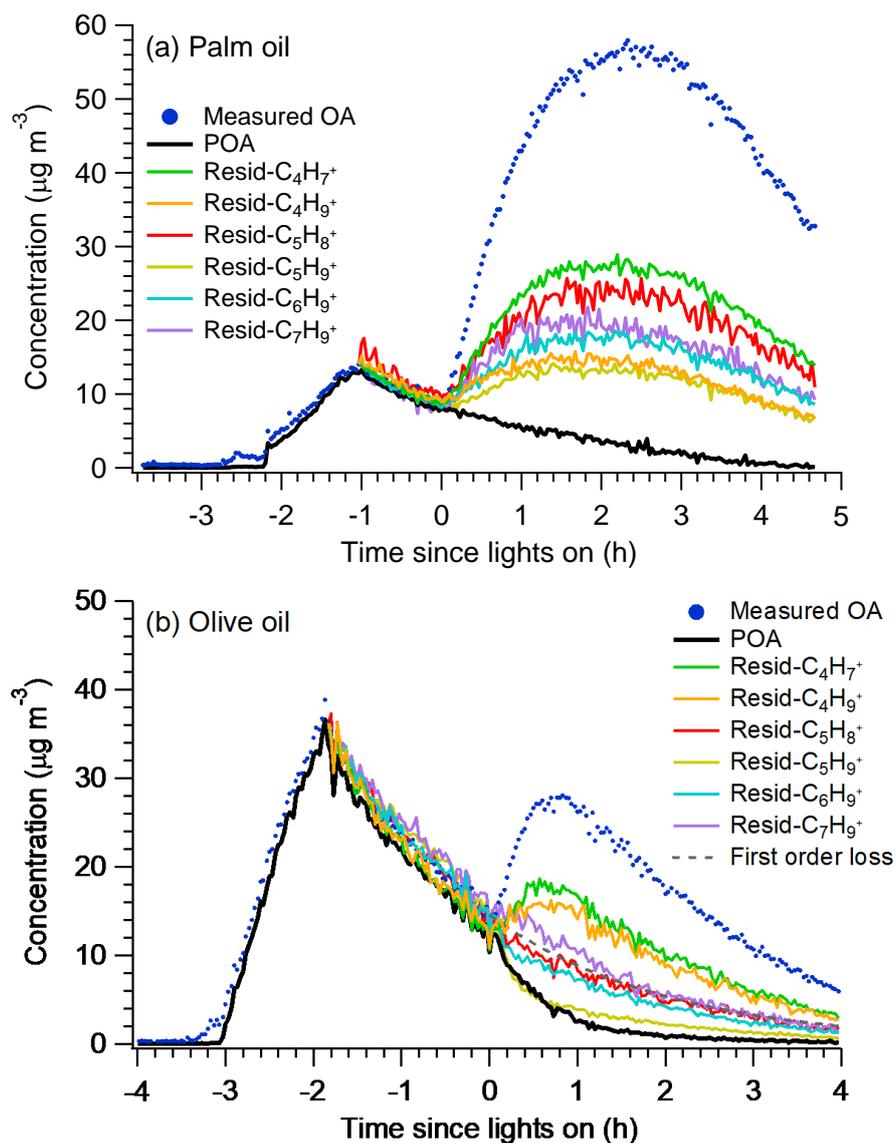
685 ozonolysis experiments with (a) palm and (b) olive oil. The ozonolysis experiments

686 involved exposing emissions from palm or olive oil to high concentrations of O₃ in an

687 oxidation flow reactor. The emissions first passed continuously through the reactor for

688 at least 30 min and then were exposed to 500–600 ppb ozone for another 17 min. Ozone

689 was introduced at time $t = 0$.

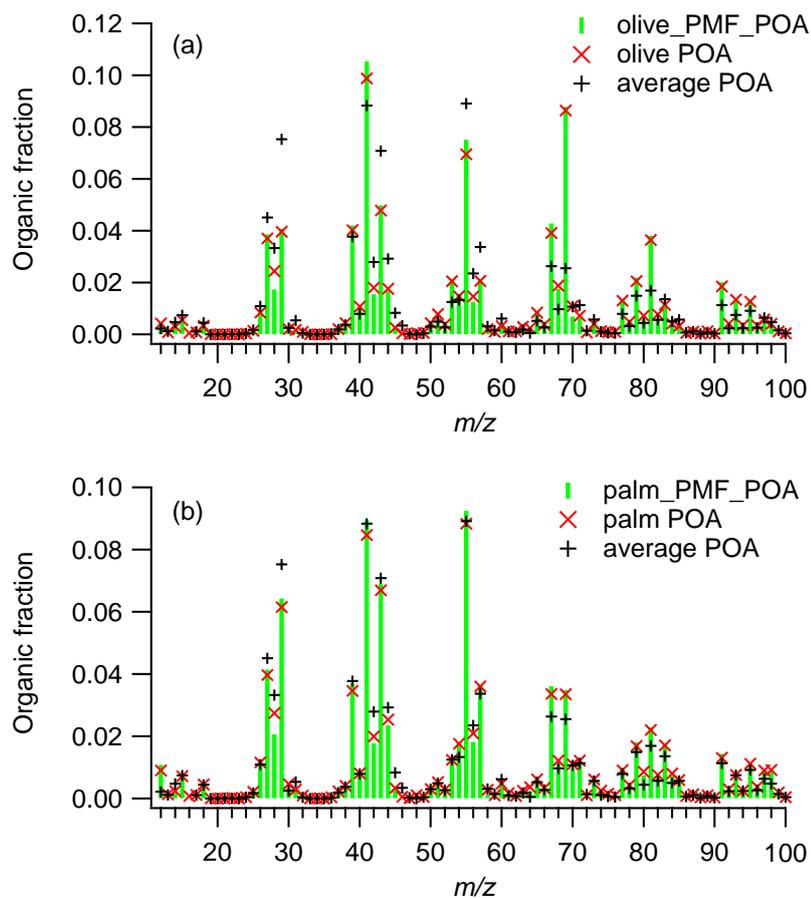


690

691 **Figure 3.** Time series of measured OA, PMF-derived POA factors, and POA

692 determined using the residual method for (a) palm and (b) olive oil experiments.

693

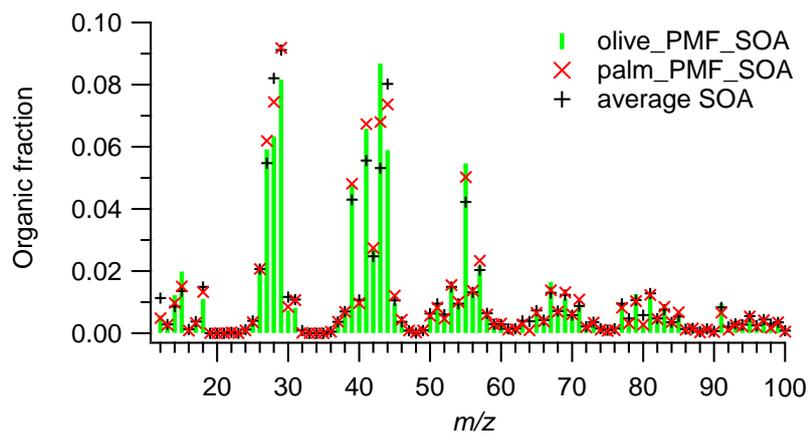


694

695 **Figure 4.** Mass spectra of POA emissions and PMF-derived POA factors for (a) olive

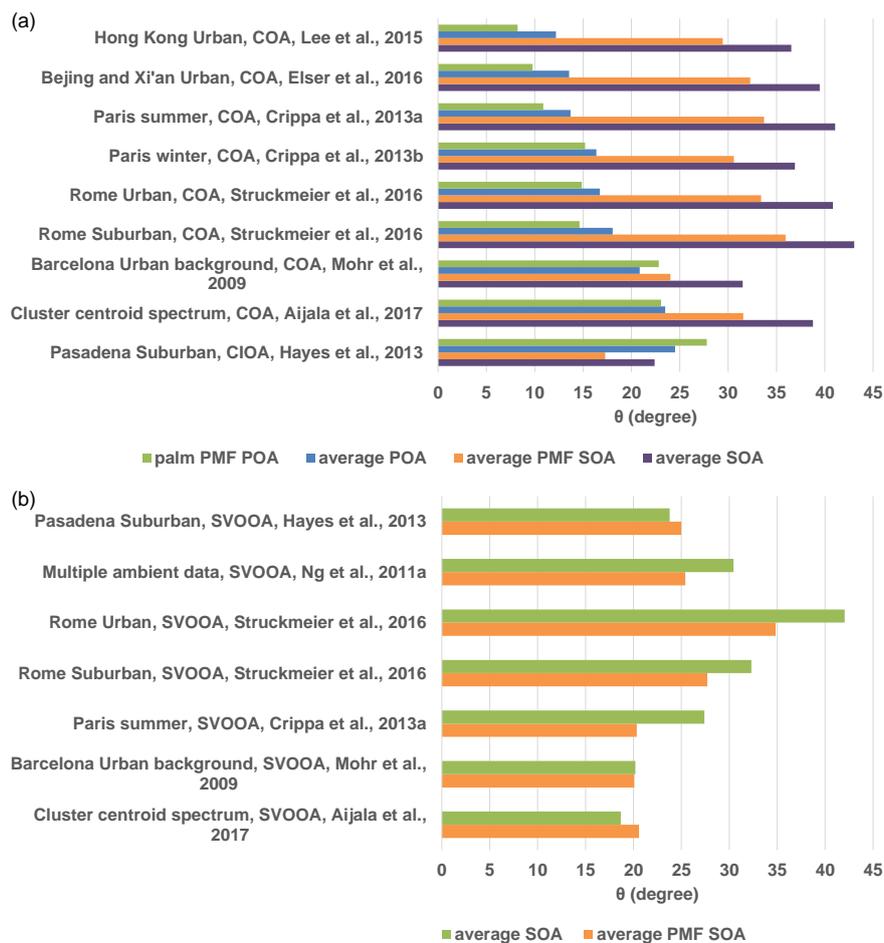
696 and (b) palm oil and, for comparison, the average mass spectrum of POA emissions

697 from sunflower, peanut, corn, and canola oils obtained from Liu et al. (2017).



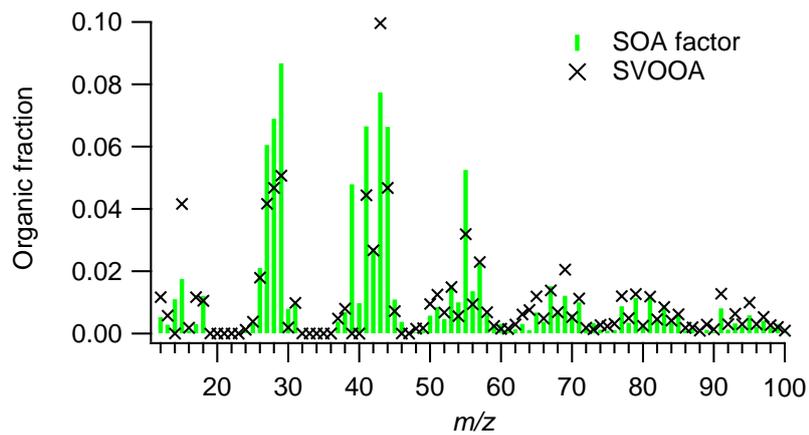
698

699 **Figure 5.** Mass spectra of PMF-derived SOA factors for (a) olive and (b) palm oil and,
700 for comparison, the average mass spectrum of SOA formed from sunflower, peanut,
701 corn, canola, and soybean oils. The SOA mass spectra were averaged over a 10 min
702 period after the OA concentration reached its maximum.



703

704 **Figure 6.** (a) Angles (θ) between ambient COA factor mass spectra and the palm PMF
 705 POA mass spectrum, average POA mass spectrum, average PMF SOA factor mass
 706 spectrum, and average SOA mass spectrum. (b) Angles (θ) between ambient SVOOA
 707 factor mass spectra and the average PMF-derived SOA factor and average SOA mass
 708 spectra. The average POA mass spectra were averaged for sunflower, peanut, corn, and
 709 canola oils (Liu et al., 2017). The average SOA mass spectra were averaged for
 710 sunflower, peanut, corn, canola, and soybean oils in this study.



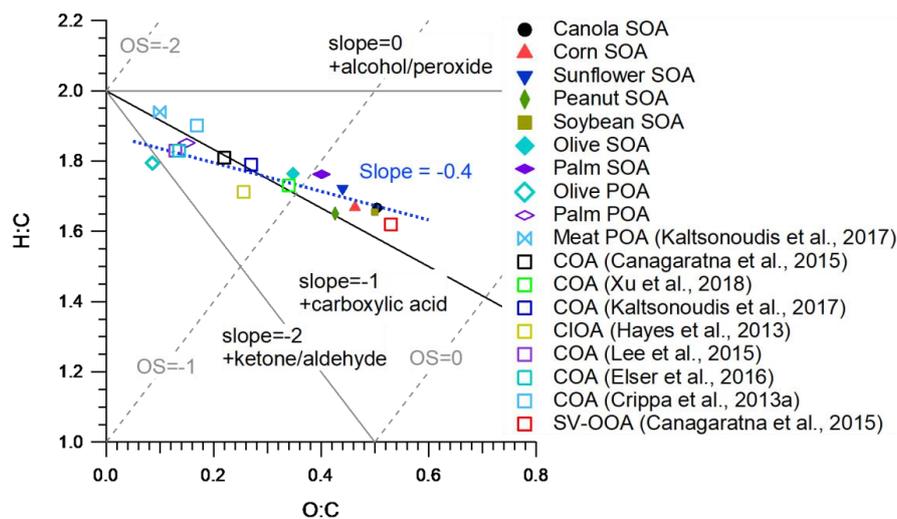
711

712 **Figure 7.** Average PMF SOA factor mass spectrum and ambient SV-OOA factor mass

713 spectrum (Ng et al., 2011a).



714



715

716 **Figure 8.** Van Krevelen diagram of POA and SOA from different cooking oils, as well
717 as ambient PMF factors. Average carbon oxidation states from Kroll et al. (2011) and
718 functionalization slopes from Heald et al. (2010) are shown for reference.