



1 **Constraining a hybrid volatility basis set model for aging of** 2 **wood burning emissions using smog chamber experiments**

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12 **Abstract**

13 Semi-volatile and intermediate volatility organic compounds (SVOCs, IVOCs) are not
14 included in the current non-methane volatile organic compounds (NMVOCs) emission
15 inventories but may be important for the formation of secondary organic aerosol (SOA). In
16 this study, novel wood combustion aging experiments performed at different temperatures
17 (263 K and 288 K) in a ~ 7 m³ smog chamber were modelled using a hybrid volatility basis set
18 (VBS) box model, representing the emission partitioning and their oxidation against OH. We
19 combine aerosol-chemistry box model simulations with unprecedented measurements of non-
20 traditional volatile organic compounds (NTVOCs) from a high-resolution proton transfer
21 reaction mass spectrometer (PTR-MS) and with organic aerosol measurements from an
22 aerosol mass spectrometer (AMS). In so-doing, we are able to observationally-constrain the
23 amounts of different NTVOCs aerosol precursors (in the model) relative to low-volatility and
24 semi-volatile primary organic material (OM_{sv}) which is partitioned based on current published
25 volatility distribution data. By comparing the NTVOCs/OM_{sv} ratios at different temperatures,
26 we determine the enthalpies of vaporization of primary biomass burning organic aerosols.
27 Further, the developed model allows for evaluating the evolution of oxidation products of the
28 semi-volatile and volatile precursors with aging. More than 30,000 box model simulations
29 were performed to retrieve the combination of parameters that fit best the observed organic
30 aerosol mass and O:C ratios. The parameters investigated include the NTVOC reaction rates
31 and yields as well as enthalpies of vaporization and the O:C of secondary organic aerosol
32 surrogates. Our results suggest an average ratio of NTVOCs to the sum of non-volatile and



33 semi-volatile organic compounds of ~ 4.75 . The mass yields of these compounds determined
34 for a wide range of atmospherically relevant temperatures and organic aerosol (OA)
35 concentrations were predicted to vary between 8 and 30 % after 5 hours of continuous aging.
36 Based on the reaction scheme used, reaction rates of the NTVOC mixture range from $3.0 \times$
37 $10^{-11} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molec}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ to $4.0 \times 10^{-11} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molec}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$. The average enthalpy of vaporization of
38 SOA surrogates was determined to be between $55,000 \text{ J mol}^{-1}$ and $35,000 \text{ J mol}^{-1}$ which
39 implies a yield increase of 0.03 - 0.06 % K^{-1} with decreasing temperature. The improved VBS
40 scheme is suitable for implementation into chemical transport models to predict the burden
41 and oxidation state of primary and secondary biomass burning aerosols.

42 1 Introduction

43 The fact that some semi-volatile compounds can exist in either gaseous or particulate form
44 results in considerable uncertainties in the emission inventories for fine particulate matter
45 ($\text{PM}_{2.5}$) and non-methane volatile organic compounds (NMVOCs). Emissions of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ are
46 generally based on emission factors (EF) of primary organic aerosol (POA) which may be
47 over- or under-predicted depending on the measurement method used (Lipsky and Robinson,
48 2006; Nussbaumer et al., 2008a, 2008b.).

49 In Europe, residential wood-burning emissions constitute one of the main anthropogenic
50 sources of POA and potentially secondary organic aerosol (SOA), especially during winter
51 periods with contribution from 15% to 50% of the total organic mass (Crippa et al., 2013;
52 Waked et al., 2014). Thus, great effort was devoted in the past to better constrain the
53 uncertainties related to wood burning emissions and their evolution in the atmosphere (Denier
54 van der Gon et al., 2015; May et al., 2013). Recent year-long source apportionment studies
55 based on ACSM (aerosol chemical speciation monitor) measurements in central Europe
56 suggest that winter secondary organic aerosol fingerprints resembles those measured during
57 chamber studies of biomass burning emission aging (Canonaco et al., 2015).

58 One of the main complications when dealing with organic aerosol (OA) is imposed by the
59 semi-volatile and highly reactive nature of organic material (Robinson et al., 2007).
60 Depending on ambient conditions freshly emitted primary organic particles can undergo
61 evaporation. The fraction of an organic compound i in the condensed phase can be inferred
62 based on the absorptive partitioning theory of Pankow (1994) (Eq. 1). The critical parameters
63 driving the gas-particle partitioning of this compound are its effective saturation
64 concentration, C_i^* , and the total concentration of organic aerosol, C_{OA} :



$$65 \quad \xi_i = \left(1 + \frac{C_i^*}{C_{OA}}\right)^{-1}; C_{OA} = \sum_i \xi_i C_i, \quad (1)$$

66 Here, ξ_i is the partitioning coefficient of i (condensed-phase mass fraction). C_i^* is a semi-
 67 empirical property (inverse of the Pankow-type partitioning coefficient, K_p), reflecting not
 68 only the saturation vapor pressure of the pure constituents (P_{Li}^o) but also the way they interact
 69 with the organic mixture (effectively including liquid phase activities). This formulation
 70 essentially determines that at high C_{OA} almost all semi-volatile organic aerosols are in the
 71 condensed phase with only species with the highest vapour pressures remaining in the gas
 72 phase.

73 The volatility basis set approach (VBS) was proposed by Donahue et al., (2006) to provide a
 74 framework to enable models to represent both the chemical ageing and the associated
 75 evolving volatility of particulate organic matter in the atmosphere. The approach is to separate
 76 organics into logarithmically spaced bins of effective saturation concentrations C_i^* , at 298 K
 77 and it was later extended (Donahue et al., 2011, 2012) by introducing surrogate compounds
 78 with different carbon and oxygen numbers following the group contribution approach based
 79 on the SIMPOL method (Pankow and Asher, 2008) (Equation 2). The model becomes 2-
 80 dimensional, capable of tracking compound volatility and oxidation state (O:C ratios)
 81 (Donahue et al., 2011, 2012):

$$82 \quad \log_{10} C_i^0 = (n_c^0 - n_c^i) b_c - n_o^i b_o - 2 \frac{n_c^i n_o^i}{n_c^i + n_o^i} b_{CO} \quad (2)$$

83 where b_c and b_o represent the carbon-carbon and oxygen-oxygen interactions, respectively,
 84 b_{CO} describes the non-ideal solution behaviour and n_c^0 , equal to 25, represents the reference
 85 point for pure hydrocarbons ($1 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ of alkene). n_c^i and n_o^i are the carbon and oxygen
 86 numbers, respectively, for the i th saturation concentration (C_i^0). For biomass burning in
 87 particular, May et al. (2013) revealed that the majority of the emitted primary OA mass is
 88 semi-volatile, with 50 to 80 % of the POA mass evaporating when diluted from plume to
 89 ambient concentrations or when heated up to 100°C in a thermodenuder. Based on their
 90 results, they proposed a volatility distribution function and enthalpies of vaporization for
 91 wood burning smoke (May et al., 2013).

92 Once emitted in the atmosphere, organic compounds are highly reactive towards various
 93 oxidants such as the hydroxyl radical (OH), ozone (O_3) and the nitrate radical (NO_3). These
 94 oxidants can strongly alter the chemical structure of the reacted precursors by generating



95 secondary products with lower or higher volatilities. Linking partitioning and oxidation
96 processes of thousands of emitted organic compounds is one of the main challenges in
97 atmospheric chemistry. The VBS scheme can delineate the transformation of the surrogates
98 upon their functionalization or fragmentation, by changing the compounds' volatility and O:C
99 ratios, consistently with the dominant representative species in that part of the parameter
100 space. Chemical transport models (CTMs) have been increasingly updated with a VBS
101 scheme with varying complexities (Bergström et al., 2012; Ciarelli et al., 2016; Murphy et al.,
102 2011; Zhang et al., 2013). A recent landmark paper within the international AeroCom
103 initiative (Tsigaridis et al., 2014), gave a comprehensive audit of the status of organic aerosol
104 schemes in global models, brought together several benchmark observational datasets and
105 intercompared and evaluated the OA simulated by a large number of global aerosol models
106 against them. Results indicate that simulated OA greatly varies between models in terms of
107 POA emissions, SOA formation and complexity of OA parameterizations and the amount of
108 OA remains under-predicted. In the latest EURODELTA3 (EUIII) European model
109 intercomparison, seven different regional models were applied in the European domain during
110 different periods with a focus on the February-March 2009 EUCAARI winter episode
111 (Bessagnet et al., 2014). All models under-predicted the total measured organic fraction
112 mainly due the uncertainties in SOA representation (Bessagnet et al., 2014). Knote et al.
113 (2011) used the COSMO-ART model to investigate its performance as online-coupled
114 chemistry-climate model. In their study domestic wood burning emissions were not included
115 and POA was assumed to be non-volatile, which resulted in a severe under-prediction of OA
116 over the studied domain (Knote et al., 2011). Bergström et al. (2012) used the EMEP model
117 for the period of 2002-2007 comparing different partitioning and aging schemes, and their
118 results indicate a potential underestimation of wood-burning emissions in Europe. Founoukis
119 et al. (2014) were among the first to implement the VBS approach into a large-scale aerosol
120 model, following the multiple distribution framework approach proposed by Tsimpidi et al.
121 (2010). They found the approach improved considerably the OA simulated in the model
122 across Europe comparing to a range of observations made during the EUCAARI field
123 campaign (Kulmala et al., 2009, 2011) and from EMEP monitoring network (Tørseth et al.,
124 2012). Recently, an important new initiative to provide improved information on residential
125 wood combustion (RWC) emission inventory for Europe was carried out by Denier van der
126 Gon et al. (2015) and used as an input in two CTMs (PMCAMx and EMEP MSC-W) for the
127 EUCAARI winter periods (February-March 2009). The new RWC emissions, which are



128 higher by a factor of 2-3 compared to previous emission inventories, improved the model
129 performance for total OA (Denier van der Gon et al., 2015). Jo et al. (2013) deployed the
130 GEOS-Chem global model to investigate the effect of using different aging constants on
131 modelled SOA. They concluded that model simulations are improved when chemical aging is
132 taken into account, especially for rural regions (Jo et al., 2013). These novel investigations
133 highlight the critical need for a representation of semi-volatile organic species and their
134 evolution in chemical transport models.

135 In this study we perform extensive box-model simulations of wood burning combustion aging
136 experiments performed in a $\sim 7 \text{ m}^3$ smog chamber at different temperatures. Most uncertain
137 parameters namely enthalpies of vaporization of SOA, NTVOCs reaction rates and their
138 yields were investigated by means of brute force simulations, and a best fitting solution,
139 within acceptable physical and errors ranges, was retrieved.

140

141 2 Experimental Method

142 Beech (*Fagus sylvatica*) logs were combusted in a residential wood burner (model type:
143 Avant, Attika from 2009), following the procedure described in (Heringa et al., 2012) and
144 (Bruns et al., 2015). The resulting emissions were sampled from the chimney through a
145 heated line (473 K), diluted by a factor of ~ 8 -10 using an ejector diluter (473 K, DI-1000,
146 Dekati Ltd.) and injected into the smog chamber ($\sim 7 \text{ m}^3$) through a heated line (423 K).
147 Emissions were only sampled during the stable flaming phase of the burn, for 11-21 min and
148 total dilution factors ranged from ~ 100 to 200. Four replicate experiments were conducted at
149 288 K and another four experiments at 263 K. The smog chamber had an average relative
150 humidity of 50% over all eight experiments. Another three experiments were conducted at
151 90% relative humidity and 263 K. After the characterization of the primary emissions, a
152 single dose of d9-butanol (butanol-D9, 98%, Cambridge Isotope Laboratories) was injected
153 into the chamber, to trace the OH concentration (Barnet et al., 2012). A continuous flow of
154 nitrous acid (2.3 - 2.6 l min^{-1} , $\geq 99.999\%$, Air Liquide) into the chamber served as an OH
155 precursor. The chamber was then irradiated with UV light (40 lights, 90-100 W, Cleo
156 Performance, Philips) for 4.5-6 h (Platt et al., 2013). The evolution of the gas-phase and
157 particulate phase composition and concentration were monitored in real-time throughout
158 aging. Non-refractory primary and secondary particulate emissions were characterized using a
159 high resolution time-of-flight aerosol mass spectrometer (AMS). Equivalent black carbon



160 (eBC) was quantified using a 7-wavelength aethalometer (AE33 Magee Scientific Company,
161 flow rate 2 l min^{-1}) (Drinovec et al., 2015). Particle wall loss rates in the chamber were
162 determined using the decay of eBC assuming all particles were lost equally to the walls and
163 that condensable material partitions only to suspended particles. The average particle half-life
164 in the chamber was $3.4 \pm 0.7 \text{ h}$. Non-methane organic gases with a proton affinity greater than
165 that of water were measured using a high-resolution proton transfer reaction mass
166 spectrometer (PTR-ToF-MS 8000, Ionicon Analytik G.m.b.H.). The PTR-ToF-MS was
167 operated with hydronium ($[\text{H}_2\text{O}+\text{H}]^+$) as reagent, a drift tube pressure of 2.2 mbar, a drift tube
168 voltage of 543 V and a drift tube temperature of 90°C leading to a ratio of the electric field
169 (E) and the density of the buffer gas (N) in the drift tube (E/N) of 137 Townsend (Td). The
170 analysis of data PTR-ToF-MS data and the identification of the precursors' chemical nature
171 are described in Bruns et al. (2016). The elemental composition of the detected gases was
172 analyzed using the Tofware post-processing software (version 2.4.5), running in the Igor Pro
173 6.3 environment (version 6.3, Wavemetrics Inc.). More than 95% of the detected peaks could
174 be assigned to a molecular formula. Approximately 70% of the compounds' chemical
175 structures could be assigned to the observed ions guided by previously reported compounds
176 emitted during residential wood combustion. Here, the lumped sum of the precursors' molar
177 concentrations will be used to constrain the total amount of NTVOCs (Table S1) in the model.
178 Their weighted average O:C ratio, volatility, reaction rate and carbon number will also be
179 presented.

180 **3 Box model**

181 The modelling approach involves two steps.

182 (1) We first modelled the partitioning of POA for the 11 smog chamber experiments (8
183 experiments at $\text{RH}=50\%$ and 3 experiments at $\text{RH}=90\%$) before the start of the aging.
184 This step enables constraining the amounts of material in the different volatility bins
185 and the enthalpy of vaporization of the different surrogates used. The simulations
186 proceeded as follows. Using already available volatility distribution data for primary
187 wood burning emissions (Figure 1) we inferred the total amount of organic material
188 (gas and particle phase) in the low-volatility and semi-volatile ranges (OM_{sv}), ($0.1 <$
189 $C_i^* < 1000 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$), which matched the measured OA concentrations at the beginning
190 of the experiments ($\text{OA}_{t=0}$). The amount of OM_{sv} was then compared to the measured



191 NTVOCs, at high and low temperatures and the enthalpies of vaporization of primary
192 compounds were adjusted such that a comparable NTVOCs/OM_{sv} ratio was obtained
193 at both temperatures within our experimental variability. We tested several sets of
194 enthalpies of vaporization characteristic of biomass burning OA derived from May et
195 al. (2013); the different sets were all physically possible and were determined from
196 thermodesorber data by assuming different accommodation coefficients.

197 (2) In step 2, the obtained volatility distributions were used to model the aging of the
198 emissions and SOA formation within a hybrid VBS framework. This framework is
199 adapted from Koo et al. (2014); it describes the formation and further evolution of
200 SOA species from different families of precursors. Unlike previous 2D-VBS schemes,
201 the molecular space was not discretised according to the species saturation
202 concentration and oxidation state (e.g. O:C ratios), but rather every SOA surrogate
203 was given an average molecular composition – C_xH_yO_z – as a function of its
204 volatility and the precursor it derived from. This approach significantly decreases the
205 degree of freedom of the model, while still providing a means to evaluate the bulk
206 aerosol oxidation state based on the knowledge of the surrogate molecular
207 composition. The time-dependent OA mass and O:C ratios were used as model
208 constraints. For step 2, only experiments performed at RH=50% were used, as high
209 RH might favour further uptake of secondary organic material into the bulk phase,
210 effectively increasing aerosol yields (Zuend and Seinfeld, 2012). Such effects are
211 beyond the scope of this study.

212 In the present study, the bulk micro-physical properties of the condensed phase were not
213 measured. Therefore, for all calculations, we assumed instantaneous reversible absorptive
214 equilibrium of semi-volatile organic species into a well-mixed liquid phase. I.e. the model
215 does invoke diffusion limitations within the condensed phase. These assumptions may
216 influence our results, especially at lower temperatures (e.g. if diffusion limitations were to be
217 considered, higher reaction rates would be required to explain the observations). However, the
218 same assumptions are considered in CTMs and therefore we expect that resulting biases will
219 partially cancel out, providing that the bulk phase properties of chamber and ambient aerosols
220 are not significantly different.

221 Five volatility bins ranging from 0.1 to 1000 µg m⁻³ in saturation concentration were used to
222 model the partitioning of the POA and SOA fractions. The weighted average carbon and



223 oxygen numbers of the NTVOCs mixture retrieved from PTR-MS measurements were used in
224 combination with the group contribution approach (Eq. 2) to estimate the average saturation
225 concentration for SOA precursors yielding about $\sim 10^6 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, which falls within the IVOC
226 saturation concentration range limit (Donahue et al., 2012; Koo et al., 2014; Murphy and
227 Pandis, 2009) (Figure 2).

228 A total number of 3 sets were chosen to describe the evolution of organic material. The first
229 set was used to distribute the primary emissions (set1). Two other sets were used to model the
230 formation and evolution of SOA. Oxidation products of SVOC material arising from primary
231 emissions were allocated to set2, whereas oxidation products from NTVOCs were allocated to
232 set3 (Figure 3).

233 The specific molecular structures for each of the sets and bins were retrieved using the group
234 contribution approach and the Van Krevelen relation (Table 1). Primary wood burning
235 emissions were placed to range from 14 to 11 carbons (set1) in line with previous studies
236 (Donahue et al., 2012; Koo et al., 2014) and appropriate numbers of oxygen atoms were
237 retrieved (Eq. 2). The oxidation of semi-volatile material would tend to increase the
238 compounds' oxygen number and decrease their volatility and carbon number, due to
239 functionalization and fragmentation. We assume that the oxidation of the primary semi-
240 volatile compounds with $\text{C}_{11}\text{-C}_{14}$ decreases their volatility by one order of magnitude and
241 yields $\text{C}_9\text{-C}_{10}$ surrogates, placed in set2, based on the work of Donahue et al. (2011, 2012).
242 Based on these assumptions and using the group contribution approach, the oxygen numbers
243 for set 2 is predicted to vary between 2.26 and 4.56 (Figure 2). Thus, the model implicitly
244 accounts for the addition of 1.1 to 1.5 oxygen atoms and the loss of 2.75 to 4.25 carbon
245 atoms, with one oxidation step.

246 Set3, was directly constrained based on the PTR-MS data. The measurements suggested an
247 average NTVOC carbon and oxygen number of about 7 and 1, respectively. Based on
248 reported molecular speciation data (Kleindienst et al., 2007), we expect that the products of
249 C_7 compounds have a $\text{C}_5\text{-C}_6$ carbon backbone. These products were placed in set3 following a
250 kernel function based on the distribution of naphthalene oxidation products. At least two
251 oxygens atoms were added to the NTVOC mixture upon their oxidation (Figure 2 and Figure
252 3). The overall, O:C ratio in the whole space roughly spans the range from 0.1 to 1.0.

253 Multigeneration chemistry (aging) is also accounted for by the model. Gas-phase products in
254 the semi-volatile range in set2 and set3, once formed, can further react with a rate constant of



255 $4 \times 10^{-11} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecule}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ as proposed by previous studies (Donahue et al., 2013; Grieshop
256 et al., 2009; Robinson et al., 2007), further lowering the volatility of the products by one order
257 of magnitude.

258 As the modelled species' average carbon number systematically decreases with aging, this
259 approach effectively takes into consideration the compounds' fragmentation. In parallel, the
260 addition of oxygen reflects the compounds' functionalization with aging and the increase in
261 the measured O:C ratio. Therefore, unlike previous 2D-VBS schemes where functionalization
262 and fragmentation are disentangled, the approach adopted here, by decreasing the number of
263 carbon atoms and increasing the number of oxygens atoms, simultaneously describes both
264 processes.

265 In addition to the constrains mentioned above, three parameters were determined based on
266 experimentally constrained time-dependent OA mass and O:C ratios, i.e., NTVOCs reaction
267 rates and yields as well as average enthalpies of vaporization values for the set 2 and 3.
268 Detailed explanations are presented in the next two sections.

269 **3.1.1 Inferring OM_{sv} and NTVOCs/ OM_{sv} ratios from measurements and** 270 **partitioning theory**

271 We seek to determine, based on the PTR-MS and AMS measurements of gas and particle
272 phase organic material at $t=0$, the ratio NTVOCs/ OM_{sv} and the enthalpies of vaporization of
273 compounds of the semi-volatile compounds that represent best the observations at high and
274 low temperatures. We modelled the $\text{OA}_{t=0}$ partitioning using two different proposed ΔH_{vapPOA}
275 for wood burning:

276

$$277 \quad \Delta H_{\text{vapPOA}} = -4 \log_{10}(C_{298K}^*) + 85 \quad (3)$$

278

$$279 \quad \Delta H_{\text{vapPOA}} = -11 \log_{10}(C_{298K}^*) + 70 \quad (4)$$

280

281 Eq. 3 is the best fitting solution proposed by May et al. (2013), while Eq. 4 represents the
282 lower limit for ΔH_{vapPOA} for a solution within the range of experimental uncertainties (Figure
283 4 in May et al. 2013). We will refer to these solutions as SOL1 for Eq. 3, and SOL2 for Eq. 4.
284 Table 2 reports the measured $\text{OA}_{t=0}$ for all the 11 experiments, which ranges from $6.0 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$



285 and $22.6 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. The amount of OM_{sv} that matches the measured $\text{OA}_{t=0}$ is reported for both
286 SOL1 and SOL2. The average $\text{NTVOCs}/\text{OM}_{\text{sv}}$ ratios for high and low temperature
287 experiments are reported together with the standard deviation in Table 3. For SOL1 we
288 calculated an average ratio of 4.2 ± 1.1 at high temperatures and 7.2 ± 2.6 for low temperatures.
289 SOL2 reduces the differences in the average $\text{NTVOCs}/\text{OM}_{\text{sv}}$ ratios at the two temperatures,
290 and therefore will be used to describe the dependency of the primary organic compounds. For
291 SOL2 the overall $\text{NTVOCs}/\text{OM}_{\text{sv}}$ ratio between high and low temperature experiments is
292 around 4.75. Figure 4 shows the resolved equilibrium phase partitioning (Eq. 1) between the
293 gas and particle phase at the beginning of each of the 11 smog chamber experiments ($\text{OA}_{t=0}$)
294 using SOL2. As expected, most of the material is found in the gas-phase at high temperatures,
295 while at lower temperature only part of the compounds with saturation concentrations (at
296 20°C) between 100 and $1000 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ would reside in the gas-phase.

297 3.1.2 Modelling of wood burning aging at low and high temperature

298 In this section we will focus on the emission aging. Using the $\text{NTVOCs}/\text{OM}_{\text{sv}}$ ratio and the
299 enthalpies of vaporization retrieved in section 3.1.1, we modelled the eight different smog
300 chamber experiments: No. 1, 2, 3, 4 (low temperature) and No. 8, 9, 10, 11 (high temperature)
301 performed at the same relative humidity ($\text{RH} = 50\%$). For each of the eight experiments we
302 injected an average mixture of NTVOCs equal to 4.75 times the OM_{sv} mass before the start of
303 the aging. NTVOCs react solely with OH , whose concentration was retrieved from PTR-MS
304 measurements. The temperature dependence of the reaction rates was also taken into account
305 through the Arrhenius equation. The reaction rates ($k_{\text{OH-NTVOCs}}$) and yields (Y) of the
306 NTVOCs as well as enthalpies of vaporization of SOA (ΔH_{vapSOA}) for set2 and set3 were
307 varied within specific physically realistic ranges. We varied $k_{\text{OH-NTVOCs}}$ between 2 and 4×10^{11}
308 $\text{cm}^3 \text{molec}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$ in steps of $0.1 \times 10^{11} \text{cm}^3 \text{molec}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$, and yields between 0.1 and 0.4ppm
309 ppm^{-1} in steps of 0.01ppm ppm^{-1} . Values for ΔH_{vapSOA} are still highly uncertain. In this study
310 we explored a wide range of values from $15,000 \text{J mol}^{-1}$ to $115,000 \text{J mol}^{-1}$ in steps of $20,000$
311 J mol^{-1} . The model performance for each combination of i, j and k was evaluated in terms of
312 the root mean square error (RMSE) for the eight experiments and a best fitting solution
313 retrieved as the one that minimized the sum of the errors on both the O:C ratio and OA mass
314 (giving the same weight on both quantities). We performed a total number of $(i \times j \times k \times$
315 $n_{\text{exp}}) = (21 \times 31 \times 6 \times 8) = 31248$ simulations, where n_{exp} are the numbers of aging
316 experiments. Figure 5 shows the total errors for the OA mass (left side) and O:C ratio (right



317 side) for different ΔH_{vapSOA} , Y and $k_{\text{OH-NTVOCs}}$. These global errors are root mean squared
318 deviations (i.e. for the eight experiments) adjusted to the number of points per experiment.
319 The error on the OA mass varies from a minimum of ~25% up to more than 60 % whereas the
320 errors on the O:C ratio (Figure 5 right side) are lower and they range from approximately 15
321 % up to more than 30 %. For the OA mass, distinct regions with lower errors are visible in the
322 central part of each panel with different ΔH_{vapSOA} , representing the models that fitted best the
323 measured OA. While a similar observation can be made for the O:C, models with high
324 ΔH_{vapSOA} tend to reproduce the data less faithfully. The diamonds in Figure 5 indicate the
325 absolute best fitting solution (in yellow) and the ones retrieved with a likelihood-ratio test
326 allowing for 10% error form the best fit (red diamonds). Regions with lower error are
327 localized for $k_{\text{OH-NTVOCs}} \geq 2.5 \times 10^{-11} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molec}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ between ΔH_{vapSOA} values of 35,000 and
328 55,000 J mol^{-1} .

329 Figure 6 shows the modelled and measured OA mass for all the 8 aging experiments. The
330 primary organic aerosol fraction is reported as well as the SOA fraction from SVOCs and
331 higher volatility NTVOCs. All the low temperature experiments (No. 1, 2, 3, 4 left side of the
332 panel) were reproduced very well along with the concentration gradients at the end of each the
333 experiments even though the model tends in general to slightly over-predict the final OA
334 concentration. The primary fraction slightly increases at the very beginning of the aging phase
335 and it decreases as the experiments proceed as a result of its partitioning to the gas phase and
336 subsequent oxidation. Most of the SOA was predicted to be formed from NTVOCs precursors
337 and only a minor amount from SVOCs. On the other hand, for experiments conducted at
338 higher temperature (No. 8, 9, 10, 11) the OA mass was under-predicted except for experiment
339 No. 8 (see also Figure S1). In this case, SVOCs contribute more significantly to SOA
340 formation compared to low temperature experiments, although the majority of SOA still
341 arises from NTVOCs.

342 Comparisons between measured and modelled O:C ratios are reported in Fig. 7. Model and
343 observation results match very well, especially upon aging. Significant differences between
344 measured and modelled O:C ratios at the beginning of the experiments highlight on the one
345 hand the variable nature of primary biomass smoke emissions. This variability cannot be
346 accounted for in the model. On the other hand, for some experiments the model under-
347 predicts the measured O:C ratios suggesting that the model parameters describing the O:C of
348 primary emissions are suboptimal. These parameters include directly the carbon and oxygen



349 number of species in set 1, and indirectly the volatility distributions and enthalpy of
350 vaporization, which are all adopted from previous published data. The average bias in POA
351 O:C ratios is ~30%, well within the experimental uncertainties.

352 **4 Implications for large-scale models**

353 We performed extensive box model simulations of wood burning experiments conducted at
354 two different temperatures (263 and 288 K) in a ~7 m³ smog chamber facility. By combining
355 new NTVOCs measurements and already available partitioning data for primary wood
356 burning emission, we constrained the amounts of NTVOCs that act as SOA precursors. Our
357 estimates indicate that NTVOCs are approximately 4.75 times the amount of total organic
358 material in the 0.1 and 1000 µg m⁻³ saturation concentration range (OM_{sv}). This ratio can be
359 directly used in CTM models in the absence of explicit NTVOCs emissions for wood burning
360 in combination with the proposed aging scheme. Specific parameters such as NTVOCs
361 reaction rates ($k_{\text{OH-NTVOCs}}$), yields (Y) and enthalpies of vaporization of secondary organic
362 aerosol (ΔH_{vapSOA}) were varied using brute force simulations, and their values were retrieved
363 for best fitting solutions falling within a physically realistic range. The model predicted that
364 the majority of the SOA formed during the aging-phase arose from NTVOCs precursors and
365 only a smaller amount from SVOCs.

366 Based on our best fitting solutions, we can now predict the OA mass and composition as well
367 as SOA yields at any given temperature, emission load and OH exposure. This is illustrated in
368 Figure 8 for 3 different OM emission loads (OM_{sv} + NTVOCs) of 6, 60 and 600 µg m⁻³ and
369 for a wide range of atmospherically relevant temperatures (from 253.15 K to 313.15 K).

370 Partitioning of POA depends on the temperature and the injection amounts. The primary
371 organic aerosol mass (POA) decreases with temperature by ~0.5% K⁻¹ on average with higher
372 effects predicted at higher loads (0.7% K⁻¹ at 600 µg m⁻³, 0.3% at 6 µg m⁻³). The partitioning
373 coefficient of the primary material increases by about a factor of 1.5 for a 10-fold increase in
374 the emissions. As aging proceeds, POA mass slightly increases as a result of additional
375 partitioning, but after an OH exposure of (1.0-1.5) × 10⁷ molec cm⁻³ h, the trend is inverted
376 and POA mass decreases due to the oxidation of semi-volatile primary compounds. This
377 effect is more visible at high loads.

378 From Figure 8, we can also assess the impact of temperature, OH exposure and emission
379 concentrations on SOA yields. The temperature effect on SOA yields is a function of OH



380 exposure, aerosol load, and temperature: i.e. $\partial Y/\partial T = f(T, C_{OA}, OH_{exp})$. SOA yields increase
381 by 0.03, 0.06 and 0.05 % K^{-1} on average for 6, 60 and 600 $\mu g m^{-3}$ respectively, with higher
382 effects predicted in general at lower temperatures. The temperature effect on the yields is also
383 greater at higher OH exposures (except for very high loads). An analysis typically performed
384 to estimate the volatility distribution of SOA products is based on SOA yields from chamber
385 data performed at different precursor concentrations. We investigated the impact of the OA
386 concentration on the yield at different temperatures and OH exposure. In Figure S2, an
387 average change in the yield with $\log C_{OA}$ is shown at the different conditions:
388 $(\partial Y/\partial \log C_{OA}) = f(T, OH_{exp})$. Note that an increase in SOA yields with the $\log C_{OA}$ was
389 observed as expected. This increase is not solely due to additional partitioning, but is partially
390 also related to changes in the actual chemical composition and hence volatility distribution of
391 the SOA surrogates, as they age to different extents at different concentrations and different
392 temperatures. We determined a yield increase of 4-9% for a 10-fold increase in emissions,
393 with a higher effect at higher OH exposures and lower temperatures.

394 From Figure 8, one may evaluate the minimum OH exposure values required for SOA to
395 exceed POA. SOA is predicted to exceed POA after $\sim 1.5 \times 10^7$ molec cm^{-3} h, for typical
396 ambient concentrations and temperatures. At low temperatures (263 K) and high loads, SOA
397 might exceed POA at an OH exposure of 9×10^6 molec cm^{-3} h, or in 2-10 hours (at OH
398 concentrations of $(1-5) \times 10^6$ molec cm^{-3}), in line with our previously estimated values for
399 biomass burning emissions for the typical conditions of haze events (Huang et al., 2014).
400 Comparatively, at 288.15K an OH exposure of 7×10^6 molec cm^{-3} h would be required for
401 SOA to exceed POA, which might be reached within 2 hours or less at typical summer OH
402 concentrations, i.e. $(5-10) \times 10^6$ molec cm^{-3} . These results confirm previous observations that
403 SOA formation is very rapid and the SOA fraction might exceed primary emissions within
404 time-scales of hours, even during haze events.

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411 **Acknowledgements**

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414 appreciate the availability of VBS framework in CAMx and support of RAMBOLL
415 ENVIRON.

416

417 **Code and/or data availability**

418 The VBS box model was written in fortran and was compiled using the Portland group
419 compilers. Simulations were performed under Scientific Linux SL distribution using C shell
420 scripts in order to brute force the chemical and physical parameters. Model output was written
421 in tab-separated text format. Routines to perform the oxidation reactions of SOA precursors
422 and partitioning between particle and gas-phase phase organic material were taken from the
423 CAMx model (available at <http://www.camx.com/>) and based on the work of Koo et al.
424 (2014). Please contact the corresponding author of this publication if you are interested in
425 model application and/or scientific collaboration.

426



427 **Tables and Figures**

428 Table 1. Properties of the VBS space. Oxygen numbers for each volatility bin were calculated
 429 using the group-contribution of Donahue et al. (2011). Hydrogen numbers were calculated
 430 from the van Krevelen relation (Heald et al., 2010).

	Log (C*)	Oxygen number	Carbon number	Hydrogen number	O:C ratio	Molecular weight
POA set1	-1	4.11	11.00	17.89	0.37	216
	0	3.43	11.75	20.07	0.29	216
	1	2.73	12.50	22.27	0.22	216
	2	2.01	13.25	24.49	0.15	216
	3	1.27	14.00	26.73	0.09	215
SOA set2	-1	4.53	9.00	13.47	0.50	194
	0	4.00	9.25	14.50	0.43	189
	1	3.40	9.50	15.60	0.36	184
	2	2.83	9.75	16.67	0.29	179
	3	2.26	10.00	17.74	0.23	174
SOA set3	-1	5.25	5.00	4.75	1.05	149
	0	4.70	5.25	5.80	0.90	144
	1	4.20	5.50	6.80	0.76	140
	2	3.65	5.75	7.85	0.63	135
	3	3.15	6.00	8.85	0.52	131



431 Table 2. Modelled and experimental data for 11 wood burning experiments. OM_{sv} mass at the beginning of each chamber experiments are
 432 reported together with measured $OA_{t=0}$ and the initial NTVOCs concentration. The $(NTVOCs)/(OM_{sv})$ indicates the ratio between the
 433 measured NTVOCs and the imposed OM_{sv} mass at the beginning of each experiment for the two different $\Delta H_{vap,POA}$ solutions (SOL1 and
 434 SOL2).

	Exp1	Exp2	Exp3	Exp4	Exp5	Exp6	Exp7	Exp8	Exp9	Exp10	Exp11
	T=263 K RH=50%	T=263 K RH=50%	T=263 K RH=50%	T=263 K RH=50%	T=263 K RH=90%	T=263 K RH=90%	T=263 K RH=90%	T=288 K RH=50%	T=288 K RH=50%	T=288 K RH=50%	T=288 K RH=50%
Measured IVOC [$\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$]	185.1	-	-	79.3	143.5	91.7	68.7	121.5	190.4	174.6	195.7
Measured $OA_{t=0}$ [$\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$]	12.3	8.1	16.7	9.3	12.0	17.7	6.0	22.6	17.5	18.7	18.6
SOL1 Modelled OM_{sv} [$\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$]	17.3	12.1	22.4	13.6	16.9	23.5	9.5	46.6	37.7	39.8	39.6
SOL2 Modelled OM_{sv} [$\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$]	22.7	15.8	29.5	17.8	22.2	31.0	12.3	49.7	40.1	42.4	42.2
SOL1 (NTVOCs)/(OM_{sv})	10.7	-	-	5.1	8.5	3.9	7.2	2.6	5.0	4.4	4.9
SOL2 (NTVOCs)/(OM_{sv})	8.1	-	-	4.4	6.4	3.0	5.6	2.4	4.7	4.1	4.6



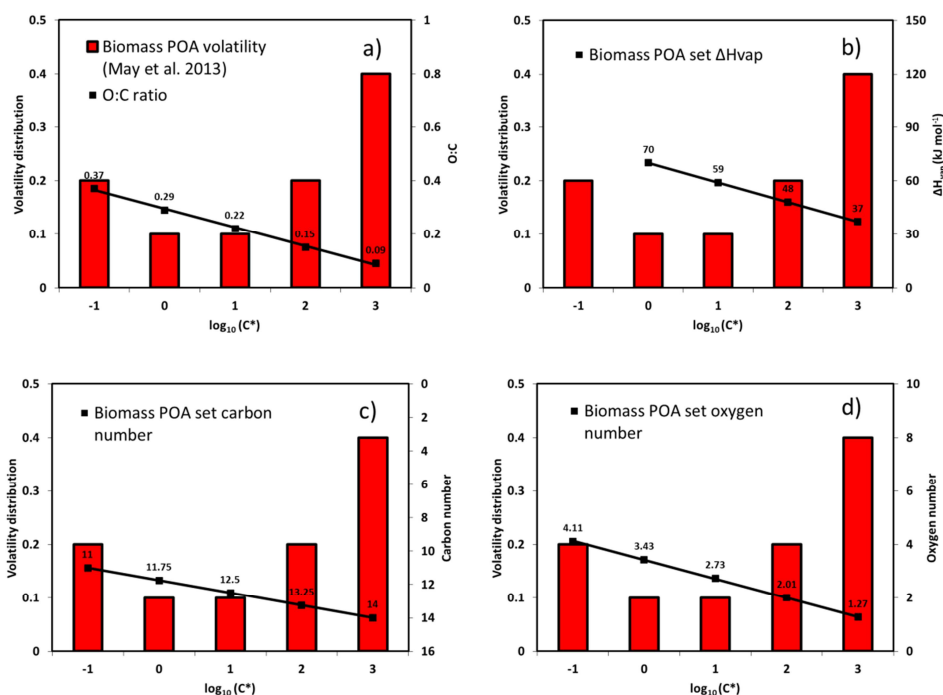
435 Table 3. Solutions used for primary organic aerosol enthalpies of vaporization with averages
436 and standard deviations of the (NTVOCs)/(OM_{sv}) ratio..

437

$\Delta H_{\text{vapPOA}}^*$ (kJ mol ⁻¹)	(NTVOCs)/(OM _{sv}) Average High-T (288 K)	(NTVOCs)/(OM _{sv}) Average Low-T (263 K)
SOL1 $-4\log_{10}(C_{298K}^*) + 85$	4.2±1.1	7.2±2.6
SOL2 $-11\log_{10}(C_{298K}^*) + 70$	4.0±1.1	5.5±2.0

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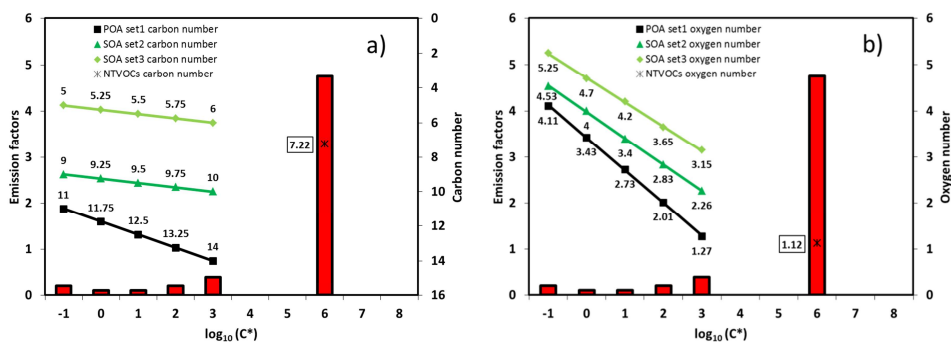


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442 Figure 1. Properties of the wood burning POA set. a) O:C ratio, b) ΔH_{vap} c) C number d) O
 443 number. Volatility distribution and enthalpies of vaporization were taken from May et al.
 444 (2013). Carbon and oxygen numbers were calculated using the group contribution approach
 445 of Donahue et al. (2011). Wood burning POA carbon numbers were placed from 14 to 11 and
 446 linearly interpolated between the volatility bins.

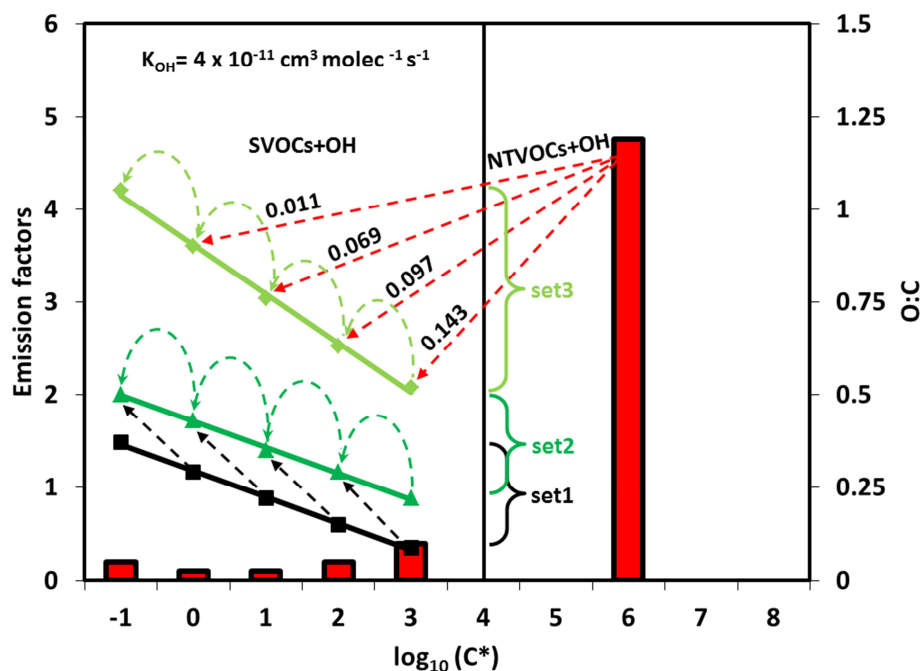
447



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449 Figure 2. Properties of the wood burning POA and SOA sets. a) C number b) O number.
 450 Wood burning SOA carbon numbers were placed from 10 to 5 and linearly interpolated
 451 between the volatility bins. Oxygen numbers were calculated using the group approach of
 452 Donahue et al. (2011). NTVOCs carbon and oxygen numbers were retrieved from PTR-MS
 453 data The red bars indicate the OM emission factors.

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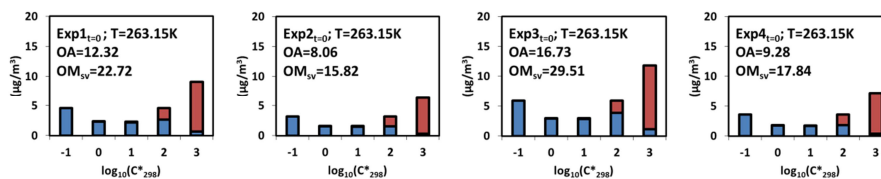
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456 Figure 3. Proposed oxidation scheme: an average mixture of NTVOCs compounds are
 457 allowed to react with the hydroxyl radical following a naphthalene kernel mass distribution.
 458 Secondary products in the SOA set (set3) are allowed to further react with a reaction rate of
 459 $k_{OH} = 4.0 \times 10^{-11} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molec}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$. Oxidation products from semi-volatile vapours from the
 460 POA set (set1) are allowed for further aging in set2. The numbers on the red arrows indicate
 461 the NTVOCs yields for each bin for the best fitting solution (ppm ppm^{-1}).

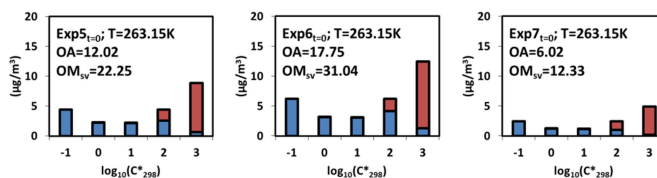
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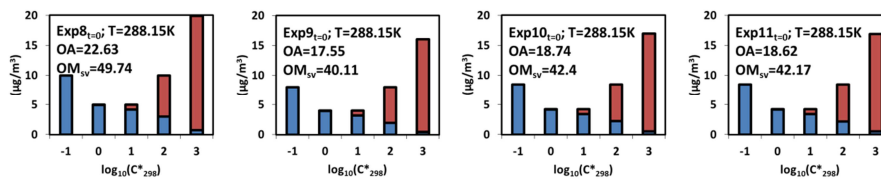
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466 Figure 4. Partitioning of wood burning POA before the start of the aging for 11 smog
 467 chamber experiments (SOL2). Gas-phase in red and particle phase in blue.

468

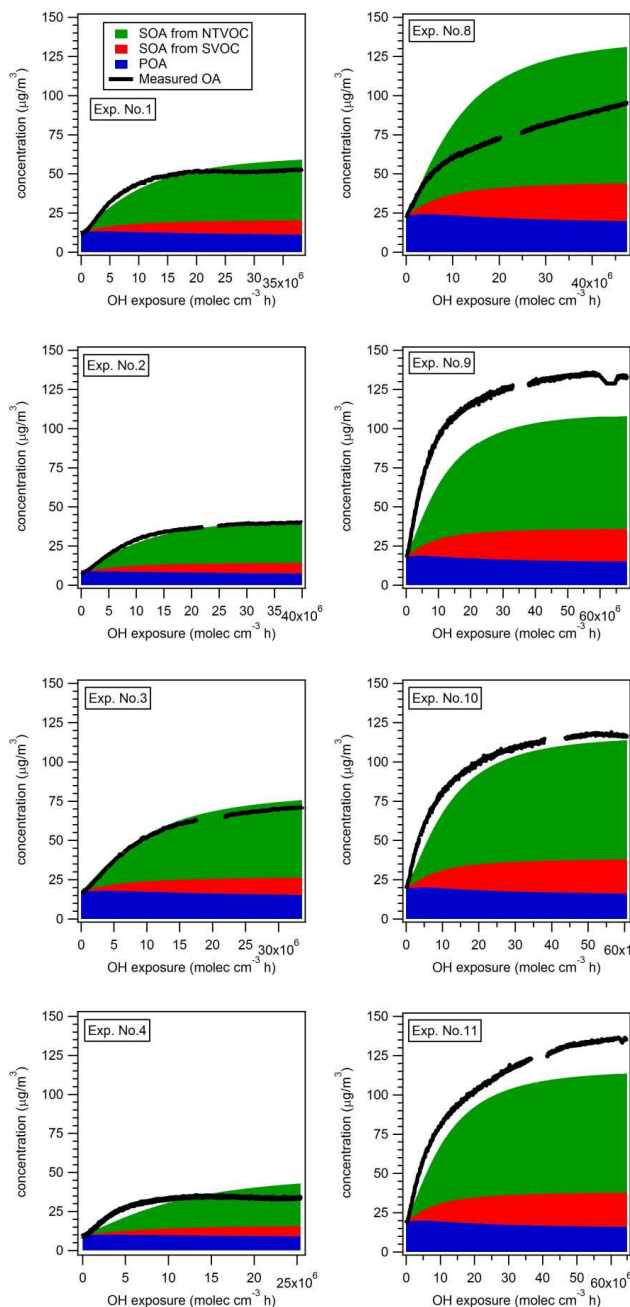
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476 Figure 5. Total error on the OA mass (left side) and on the O:C ratio (right side). White
477 regions have an error larger than 60% for the OA mass and 26% for the O:C ratio. The
478 number of simulations per experiment is 3906. The red diamonds indicate the likelihood ratio
479 test results for solutions within 10% error from the best one (yellow diamond).



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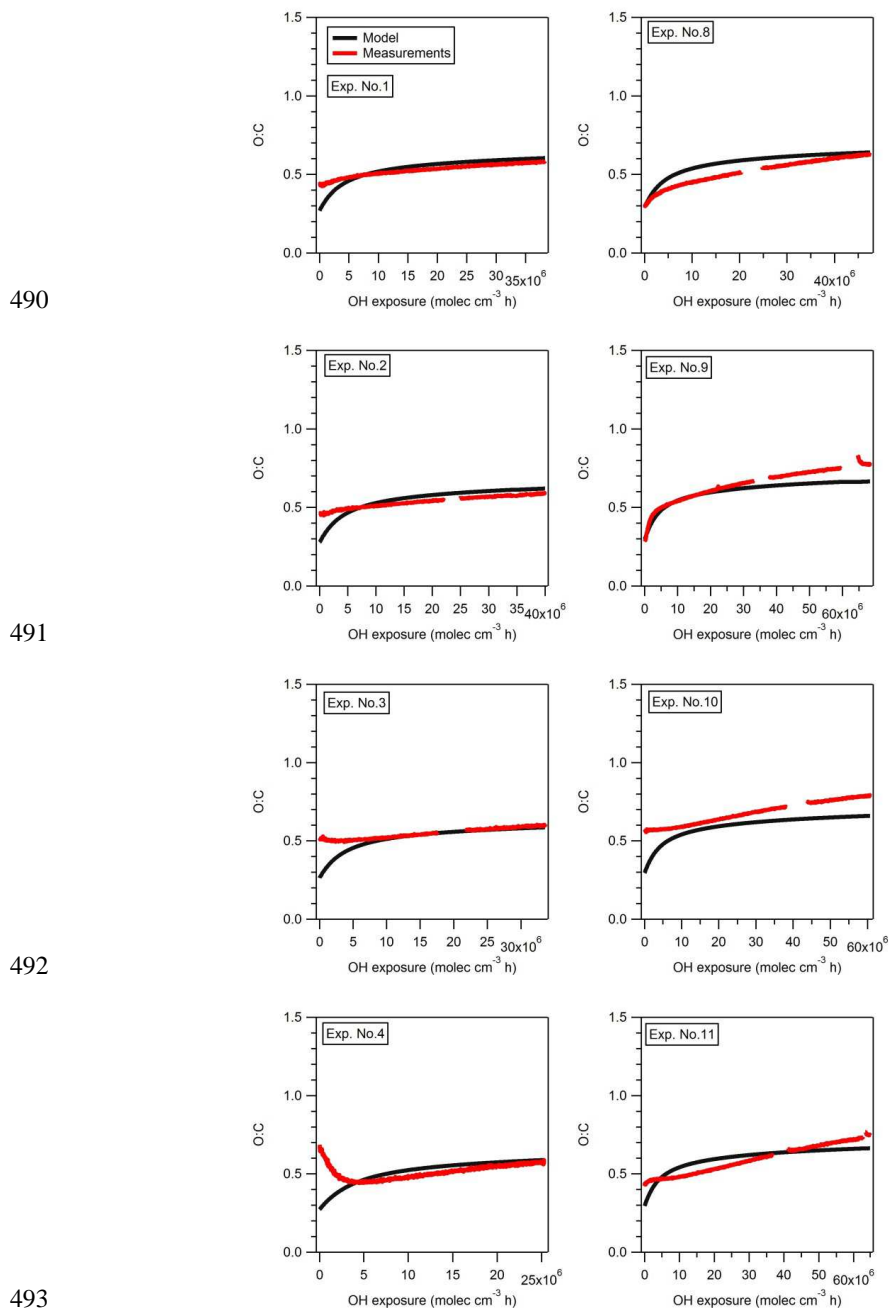
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485 Figure 6. Modelled and observed OA mass for low temperature experiments (left side) and
486 high temperature experiments (right side). The model results for the best fitting solution

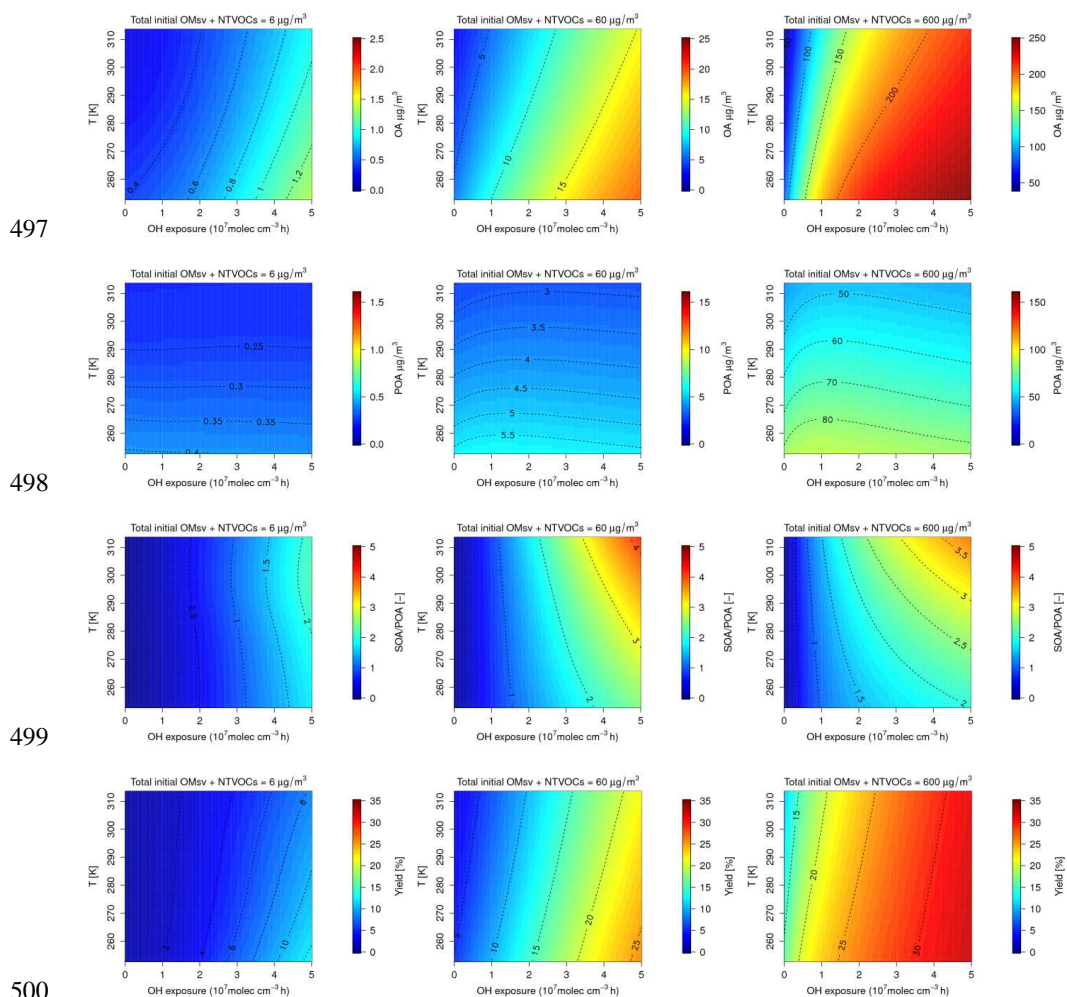


487 (yellow diamond in Figure 5). SOA from NTVOCs and SVOCs as well as POA are reported
488 in green, red and blue, respectively.
489





494 Figure 7. Modelled (black lines) and observed (red lines) O:C ratio for low temperature
495 experiments (left side) and high temperature experiments (right side).
496



501 Figure 8. Predicted OA mass (upper panels, note different scales), POA mass, SOA/POA ratio
502 (middle panels) and yields (lower panels) at different OMsv + NTVOCs initial load and
503 atmospheric conditions (T).
504

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