

1 **Impact of Environmental Variables on the Reduction of Nitric Acid by Proxies for Volatile Organic**  
2 **Compounds Emitted by Motor Vehicles**

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20 **Abstract**

21 Recent work has identified nitric acid (HNO<sub>3</sub>) as a potential precursor of nitrous acid (HONO),  
22 which is an important source of oxidants that regulate ozone and particulate pollution. Recent  
23 work in our laboratory has indicated that the reduction of HNO<sub>3</sub> to HONO can occur  
24 homogeneously in the presence of surrogates for volatile organic compounds (VOCs) emitted by  
25 motor vehicles. This study focuses on the impact of environmental variables on the rate of  
26 formation of HONO in this process. The observed base case (25.0°C and ~20.0% relative humidity  
27 (RH)) HONO formation rate was  $0.54 \pm 0.09$  ppb hr<sup>-1</sup>, values comparable to enhancements  
28 observed in HONO during morning rush hour in Houston, TX. The rate was enhanced at lower  
29 temperatures of ~20.0°C, but the rate remained statistically similar (1σ) for experiments  
30 conducted at temperatures of 25°C, 30°C, and 35°C. The assumption that multiple reactive  
31 components of the VOC mixture react with HNO<sub>3</sub> is supported by this observation, and the relative  
32 importance of each reactive species in the reaction may vary with temperature. The enhanced

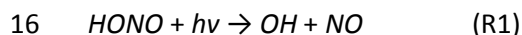
1 rate at lower temperatures could make the proposed reaction mechanism more important at  
2 night. The formation rate of HONO does not change substantially when initial HNO<sub>3</sub> concentration  
3 is varied between 400 and 4 600 ppt, suggesting that the concentration of reactive VOCs was the  
4 limiting factor. The reduction of HNO<sub>3</sub> to HONO appears not to occur heterogeneously on the  
5 aerosol surfaces tested. The presence of ~120 ppb of ammonia has no observable impact on the  
6 reaction. However, it is likely that UV irradiation ( $\lambda = 350$  nm) decreases the formation rate of  
7 HONO either by consuming the reactive VOCs involved or by directly interfering with the reaction.  
8 The “renoxification” of less reactive HNO<sub>3</sub> to more reactive HONO has significant implications for  
9 daytime ozone and particulate pollution.

## 10 **Keywords**

11 Nitrous acid; nitric acid; volatile organic compounds; flow tube; reduction-oxidation

## 12 **1. Introduction**

13 Nitrous acid (HONO) is an important trace gas in the regional and global troposphere. It can have  
14 significant air quality implications due to its photolysis, yielding nitrogen oxide (NO) and the  
15 hydroxyl radical (OH) (Atkinson, 2000):



17 The OH radical serves as a strong oxidant in the atmosphere and is partly responsible for the  
18 chemical processes that lead to the formation of tropospheric ozone (O<sub>3</sub>) (Finlayson-Pitts and Pitts,  
19 1997) and secondary particulate matter (PM) (Kanakidou et al., 2005). With nitrogen dioxide (NO<sub>2</sub>),  
20 NO contributes to total nitrogen oxide (NO<sub>x</sub>) levels. The potential of a regional air mass to produce  
21 O<sub>3</sub> depends strongly on the relative abundance of volatile organic compounds (VOCs) and NO<sub>x</sub>.  
22 Because HONO influences NO<sub>x</sub> levels, O<sub>3</sub> pollution levels are highly sensitive to HONO levels under  
23 particular conditions (Harris et al., 1982; Lei et al., 2004; Carter and Seinfeld, 2012). Harris et al.  
24 (1982) observed increases in O<sub>3</sub> dosages up to a factor of 3 when 10 ppb of HONO is included in  
25 model simulations. Using a three-dimensional chemical transport model, Lei et al. (2004)  
26 estimated up to 12 ppb enhancements in O<sub>3</sub> levels in Houston, TX, due to a proposed  
27 heterogeneous source of HONO. Zero-dimensional model simulations of O<sub>3</sub> formation episodes in  
28 the Upper Green River Basin in Wyoming during winter predicted strong O<sub>3</sub> sensitivity to HONO  
29 levels (Carter and Seinfeld, 2012).

30 Nitrous acid mixing ratios observed at various urban sites range from 0.4 to 8.0 ppb at night and  
31 100 to 300 ppt during the day (Harris et al., 1982; Harrison et al., 1996; Kleffmann, 2007; Wong et  
32 al., 2011; Indarto, 2012), while concentrations at rural sites were 10 to 200 ppt (Cape et al., 1992;  
33 Zhou et al., 2002; Zhou et al., 2011). A known source of HONO during daytime in polluted  
34 environments is the reaction between OH and NO (Atkinson, 2000):



1 Nitrous acid builds up overnight from (R2) (when OH and NO persist without sunlight) and other  
2 sources and photolyzes in the morning, causing a spike in OH and NO<sub>x</sub>, resulting in accelerated O<sub>3</sub>  
3 production (Harris et al., 1982). Nitrous acid sources other than (R2) are thus highly important due  
4 to their potential to contribute to both daytime and nighttime HONO levels. Modeling studies  
5 have concluded that HONO sources are still missing from current hydrogen oxide (HO<sub>x</sub>) and NO<sub>x</sub>  
6 chemistry models, resulting in the underprediction of HONO or O<sub>3</sub> levels (Grannas et al., 2007;  
7 Wong et al., 2011; Carter and Seinfeld, 2012).

8 A number of recent studies have documented possible sources of HONO from HNO<sub>3</sub> or NO<sub>2</sub>.  
9 Kleffmann (2007) proposed several formation mechanisms: heterogeneously on surfaces treated  
10 with HNO<sub>3</sub>, from the reduction of NO<sub>2</sub> on photosensitized organic surfaces, and via photolysis of  
11 ortho-substituted nitroaromatics. Similarly, photolytic conversion of NO<sub>2</sub> to HONO on polycyclic  
12 aromatic hydrocarbon films was observed by Cazoir et al. (2014). Grannas et al. (2007)  
13 summarized several HONO formation mechanisms in a snowpack. In urban New Zealand, Reisinger  
14 (2000) observed a good correlation between HONO/NO<sub>2</sub> (a metric for the relative abundance of  
15 HONO) and aerosol surface density, indicating a heterogeneous HONO source. Nitrous acid forms  
16 on the surface of soot particles from NO<sub>2</sub>, but the reaction is not considered a major contributor to  
17 HONO under typical ambient conditions (Ammann et al., 1998; Kalberer et al., 1999). Kirchstetter  
18 et al. (1996) measured vehicular emissions of HONO in the Caldecott Tunnel, but the observed  
19 HONO/NO<sub>2</sub> ratios were much lower than the nighttime values measured under ambient conditions.  
20 In addition, recent airborne measurements coupled with zero-dimensional model simulations  
21 inferred a strong gas-phase source within the residual layer with formation rates that scaled with  
22 HONO photolysis rates (Li et al., 2014). The authors argued that this unknown source could  
23 dominate overall HONO production in the planetary boundary layer, exceeding surface HONO  
24 sources. The proposed ultraviolet (UV)-dependent HONO source was likely internal (from the  
25 reaction of NO<sub>x</sub> and/or HO<sub>x</sub>). Liu et al. (2014) proposed a substantial heterogeneous HONO source  
26 from the hydrolytic disproportionation of NO<sub>2</sub> on aerosol to help explain missing daytime HONO  
27 sources in China. Flow tube studies by VandenBoer et al. (2015) suggested a nighttime soil sink of  
28 HONO, leading to daytime acid displacement and release of HONO. A review of the current state  
29 of the science for HONO can be found in Spataro and Ianniello (2014).

30 In September 2006 in Houston, TX, Ziemba et al. (2010) observed HNO<sub>3</sub> depletion concurrent with  
31 increases in HONO concentrations and aerosol surface area dominated by a proxy for primary  
32 organic aerosol (POA). The authors hypothesized a heterogeneous reaction between HNO<sub>3</sub> and  
33 POA to form HONO, which supports the findings from previous studies that document the  
34 heterogeneous reduction of HNO<sub>3</sub> (Zhou et al., 2002; Rivera-Figueroa et al., 2003; Zhou et al.,  
35 2003; Zhou et al., 2011).

36 In an effort to better understand the phenomenon observed by Ziemba et al. (2010), Rutter et al.  
37 (2014) performed a series of flow tube experiments in which gaseous HNO<sub>3</sub> was observed to be  
38 reduced homogeneously to HONO by VOCs representative of those emitted from motor vehicles  
39 via the hypothesized reaction:



1 The reported formation rate of HONO was  $0.3 \pm 0.1$  ppb hr<sup>-1</sup> under a defined base case of 25.0°C  
2 and RH of ~20%. The HONO formation rates decreased with increasing RH. Increased surface area  
3 in the flow-tube (Teflon® Raschig rings and/or a surrogate for vehicular POA) had no impact on  
4 HONO formation. The experiments described here used a slightly modified and improved version  
5 of the flow-tube system of Rutter et al. (2014) to further characterize this HONO formation  
6 reaction by varying temperatures and HNO<sub>3</sub> concentrations, irradiating, or adding ammonia (NH<sub>3</sub>)  
7 or mineral dust surrogates. These experiments are designed to improve our understanding of the  
8 importance of the proposed HONO formation reaction under varying ambient conditions and to  
9 assess its potential to enhance HONO levels in the atmosphere.

## 10 **2. Experimental**

### 11 **2.1 General Information**

12 The flow-tube system used in this study is described by Rutter et al. (2014), with improvements  
13 and additional instrumentation described below. Briefly, HNO<sub>3</sub> gas and VOCs from a specific blend  
14 of vehicle engine oil (Supporting Material, Table S1) were introduced into a quartz flow reactor,  
15 which is located in a temperature-controlled chamber. Nitric acid was generated from a  
16 permeation device (Dynacal, VICI Metronics, Poulsbo, WA), and engine oil particles along with  
17 VOCs were introduced using a TSI 3076 atomizer (Shoreview, MN) with a Teflon® filter in-line  
18 when the particles were not desired. A combustion VOC surrogate was not used for this study as  
19 the original intent was to use reduced organics from motor oil (Rutter et al., 2014); this avoids  
20 possible HONO artifacts from combustion exhaust (Kirchstetter et al., 1996). A recent tunnel study  
21 showed that a large portion of vehicular POA is similar in composition with unburned motor oil  
22 (Worton et al., 2014). The VOCs used in this study were intended to serve as surrogates for VOCs  
23 produced from the volatilization of vehicular POA under ambient conditions. The outflow from the  
24 flow-tube was sampled by a refurbished on-line mist chamber-ion chromatograph (MC/IC) system  
25 (Rutter et al., 2014) to obtain 10-minute HONO and HNO<sub>3</sub> concentrations. This measurement  
26 technique has been tested and characterized extensively (Talbot et al., 1990; Dibb et al., 1994;  
27 Dibb et al., 1998; Dibb et al., 2002) and showed good comparison with Differential Optical  
28 Absorption Spectroscopy (Stutz et al., 2010). A new quartz flow-tube with dimensions identical to  
29 those of the reactor in Rutter et al. (2014) was used and was passivated by a non-reactive  
30 halocarbon wax coating to minimize wall reactions. Instrumentation used to measure  
31 temperature, RH, and particle number concentration were outlined in Rutter et al. (2014). The  
32 instrumentation for measuring NH<sub>3</sub> is described below.

33 In this study, the base case experiments were conducted at a temperature of 25°C and a RH of  
34 ~20% while maintaining a mean HNO<sub>3</sub> concentration of 2.4 ppb and a constant level of VOCs in the  
35 flow-tube reactor. For each experiment, the flow-tube reactor was allowed to equilibrate at the  
36 desired conditions (concentrations of HNO<sub>3</sub> and VOCs, temperature, RH, and other variables). The  
37 formation rates of HONO ( $f_{\text{HONO}}$ , ppb hr<sup>-1</sup>) were calculated using the step change in HONO  
38 concentrations when VOCs were removed:

$$39 \quad f_{\text{HONO}} = ([\text{HONO}]_t - [\text{HONO}]_0) / t_{\text{res}} \quad \text{Equation (1)}$$

1 where  $[HONO]_t$  (in ppb) was the average steady-state HONO concentration measured when VOCs  
2 were present to react with  $HNO_3$ ,  $[HONO]_0$  was measured after VOCs were removed and only  
3  $HNO_3$  was present, and  $t_{res}$  is the average residence time of all gases in the flow-tube (150 s).  
4 Detailed descriptions of a typical experiment can be found in Rutter et al. (2014), and all  
5 experiments described in this study follow the same procedures except the modifications  
6 mentioned below. Additional experimental information is provided in the Supporting Material and  
7 Table S2.

8 Engine oil particles (100 nm,  $< 150 \text{ \#/cm}^3$ ) were shown in Rutter et al. (2014) to have no effect on  
9 the reaction. During several tests, larger concentrations of motor oil particles were injected (up to  
10  $1400 \text{ \#/cm}^3$ ) into the mixture of VOCs and  $HNO_3$ , and the particles had no observable impact on  
11 HONO levels. Therefore, for all experiments presented here motor oil particles were not  
12 considered relevant and were excluded by filtering the output from the atomizer upstream of the  
13 flow tube reactor. Figure 1 depicts the experimental setup used in this study. A detailed diagram  
14 for the delivery of  $HNO_3$  and VOCs can be found in Rutter et al. (2014).

15 Variations to the base case experiments were achieved by independently varying chamber  
16 temperature or  $HNO_3$  concentration or by introducing UV irradiation,  $NH_3$ , or mineral dust aerosol  
17 surrogate to the system. When a parameter was altered or a new constituent was added, all other  
18 base case variables remained unchanged. Apart from  $HNO_3$  and  $NH_3$  experiments discussed in  
19 sections 2.3 and 2.4, all experiments in this study were conducted at initial  $HNO_3$  concentrations of  
20  $\sim 2\text{-}4$  ppb for consistency with the experiments of Rutter et al. (2014) and the field measurements  
21 of Ziemba et al. (2010).

## 22 **2.2 Temperature**

23 This study aims to investigate the sensitivity of  $f_{HONO}$  to reaction temperature. Because the  
24 proposed reduction reaction of  $HNO_3$  by VOCs may involve simultaneous reactions of different  
25 reactive VOCs of the engine oil blend, the temperature dependence of the overall formation rate  
26 is not expected to follow Arrhenius behavior. Investigation of temperature dependence is  
27 achieved by a temperature-controlled environmental test chamber (Espec North America Inc.,  
28 Hudsonville, MI). The flow-tube and other components were allowed to equilibrate at the desired  
29 set-point temperature before an experiment. The measured reactor outflow temperatures were  
30 within  $\sim 1^\circ\text{C}$  of the set-point chamber temperatures. The temperature range tested here is relevant  
31 for the conditions observed in the 2006 Houston field study.

## 32 **2.3 $HNO_3$ Concentration**

33 Initial  $HNO_3$  mixing ratios were kept relatively constant in the experiments by Rutter et al. (2014),  
34 but minor fluctuations in  $HNO_3$  between experiments were impossible to avoid. Nitric acid  
35 concentration was not considered important by Rutter et al. (2014) because the  $HNO_3$  levels were  
36 in excess of the estimated 200 - 300 ppt reactive VOCs in the reactor. Here, experiments  
37 conducted at different initial concentrations of  $HNO_3$  were used to probe this hypothesis and to  
38 investigate potential impacts of  $HNO_3$  levels on the proposed reaction.

1 The steady-state  $\text{HNO}_3$  concentrations in the flow-tube were varied in these experiments by  
2 operating the permeation device at different temperatures or by shutting off its supply entirely.  
3 Holding other parameters constant,  $\text{HNO}_3$  mixing ratios of approximately 4.0 ppb, 1.5 ppb, and 0.4  
4 ppb were achieved. The corresponding experiments are henceforth referred to as high  $\text{HNO}_3$ ,  
5 medium  $\text{HNO}_3$ , and low  $\text{HNO}_3$  experiments.

## 6 **2.4 $\text{NH}_3$**

7 Ammonia reacts with  $\text{HNO}_3$  to form ammonium nitrate ( $\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3$ ), which transitions to the  
8 particulate phase when specific thermodynamic criteria are met. This reaction is hypothesized as a  
9 potential competing reaction and was studied in the flow-tube reactor by the addition of  $\text{NH}_3$ .  
10 Experiments were performed by injecting  $118.0 \pm 2.0$  ppb of gas-phase  $\text{NH}_3$  to the flow-tube  
11 reactor. A 1-ppm  $\text{NH}_3$  cylinder supplied the  $\text{NH}_3$  gas stream, which was diluted upon entering the  
12 reactor. Ammonia concentrations were monitored using a 10.4- $\mu\text{m}$  external cavity quantum  
13 cascade laser that has been well characterized and tested (Gong et al., 2011; Gong et al., 2013).  
14 The instrument has a detection limit of 0.7 ppb and an accuracy of 7%, with a maximum time-  
15 resolution of 1 s. Because the MC collection efficiencies for  $\text{HNO}_3$  and HONO already exceed 95%  
16 (Dibb et al., 1994),  $\text{NH}_3$  is not expected to cause interferences in  $\text{HNO}_3$  and HONO measurements.  
17 There was no evidence of artifacts from particulate  $\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3$  because the MC/IC sample stream  
18 was filtered.

## 19 **2.5 UV Irradiation**

20 A HONO artifact at a forested field site correlated with UV intensity, possibly due to the  
21 photochemical conversion of  $\text{HNO}_3$  to HONO on the wall of a glass sampling manifold (Zhou et al.,  
22 2002). Laboratory experiments conducted by Zhou et al. (2003) found evidence that photolysis of  
23 adsorbed  $\text{HNO}_3$  on Pyrex surfaces yields HONO, and Zhou et al. (2011) found a significant HONO  
24 daytime source from the photolysis of  $\text{HNO}_3$  on forest canopies. These findings emphasize the  
25 potential role of UV irradiation in the conversion of  $\text{HNO}_3$  to HONO. Despite the observations of  
26 Rutter et al. (2014) and Ziemba et al. (2010) that light is not required for the proposed (R3) to  
27 proceed, it is hypothesized that UV irradiation may either accelerate (R3) or dampen it by  
28 consuming the reactive VOCs involved. Thus, experiments were conducted to test the sensitivity of  
29  $f_{\text{HONO}}$  to UV irradiation.

30 Four 4-ft, 40W Sylvania 350BL lights (Osram Sylvania, Danvers, MA) irradiated the flow-tube  
31 reactor for one set of experiments. Totalling 160W of output, these tubes were mounted above the  
32 reactor and were distributed evenly along the length of the reactor. The reactor and lights were  
33 encased in Mylar reflective material to maximize light intensity and to ensure uniform distribution  
34 of the artificial light (peak  $\lambda = 350$  nm). The same type of lights was used in the chamber  
35 experiments of Cocker et al. (2001). This wavelength produces maximum  $\text{NO}_2$  photolysis rates  
36 (Carter et al., 1995) and falls within the UV-A spectrum (320 to 400 nm), which has been reported  
37 to photolyze species such HONO (Stutz et al., 2000; Alicke et al., 2002). Thus, the lamps were  
38 considered a viable starting point to test for direct interferences on the hypothesized HONO  
39 formation reaction.

## 1 2.6 Mineral Dust Aerosol Surfaces

2 Field data collected in Houston during 2006 showed the potential for heterogeneous reduction of  
3  $\text{HNO}_3$  into HONO on urban aerosol (Ziemba et al., 2010). However, Rutter et al. (2014) showed  
4 that the HONO formation reaction does not occur heterogeneously on engine oil particles or on a  
5 large surface area of Teflon® material. Grassian (2002) observed  $\text{HNO}_3$  heterogeneous uptake on  
6 mineral dust (alumina ( $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ ) and silica ( $\text{SiO}_2$ )) surfaces and heterogeneous HONO production  
7 reactions from  $\text{NO}_2$  on soot or  $\text{SiO}_2$  particles. Gustafsson et al. (2008) observed heterogeneous  
8 production of HONO on mineral dust (from the Gobi desert) from  $\text{NO}_2$  and water. Because mineral  
9 dust aerosols have more polar surfaces when compared to the engine oil and Teflon® surfaces,  
10 they are hypothesized to be better candidates for heterogeneous conversion of  $\text{HNO}_3$  to HONO.  
11 Two types of atmospherically abundant mineral dust materials were chosen for these  
12 experiments: carboxylate-doped  $\text{SiO}_2$  and  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ .

13 Aqueous dispersions of size-calibrated 100-nm monodisperse spherical particles composed of  
14 either carboxylated- $\text{SiO}_2$  or pure  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  (Corpuscular Inc., Cold Spring, NY) were used to generate  
15 aerosols for these experiments. These solutions were nebulized using an atomizer and  
16 subsequently dried using a diffusion-dryer and a heater ( $87.5 \pm 1.5^\circ\text{C}$ ).

## 17 3. Results and Discussion

### 18 3.1 Base Case Results

19 Compared with the previous flow-tube study, the average base case  $f_{\text{HONO}}$  of  $0.54 \pm 0.09$  ppb  $\text{hr}^{-1}$   
20 (Table 1) agrees better with the observed 2006 Houston value of  $0.6 \pm 0.3$  ppb  $\text{hr}^{-1}$  (Ziemba et al.,  
21 2010; Rutter et al., 2014). This could be attributed to improved measurement accuracy due to the  
22 refurbished MC/IC system. This observation also suggests that the reduction of  $\text{HNO}_3$  to HONO by  
23 the reactive components of vehicular VOCs that were co-emitted with POA (Rutter et al., 2014)  
24 could be a dominant contributor to HONO formation events observed in Houston. The comparison  
25 here is qualitative because meteorology and vertical mixing conditions are highly variable in the  
26 atmosphere, and temperature ranged from 20.0 to 35.0°C during this field campaign (Lefer et al.,  
27 2010). Additionally, it is worth noting that experiments conducted using pure VOCs (toluene,  
28 isoprene, and hexadecane) in place of motor oil VOCs did not result in net HONO production,  
29 ruling out these VOCs as potential reactants. These experiments also rule out HONO artifacts from  
30 reactions other than (R3). In other words, despite the <10%  $\text{HNO}_3$ -to-HONO conversion efficiency  
31 we generally observe in the flow-tube system (Rutter et al., 2014), other nitrogen-containing  
32 compounds originating from  $\text{HNO}_3$  reduction likely did not contribute to HONO production in this  
33 system.

34 Table 1 summarizes experimental data for each type of experiment. Mean values are reported for  
35 initial  $\text{HNO}_3$  concentrations,  $f_{\text{HONO}}$ , and water vapor mixing ratios with  $N \geq 3$ . All error bars and  
36 uncertainties reported here were propagated from measurement uncertainties, except those for  
37 initial  $\text{HNO}_3$  concentrations with  $N \geq 3$ , which are reported as standard deviations from the mean.  
38 The measurement uncertainties were larger than the standard deviations for  $f_{\text{HONO}}$  in most

1 experiment types, indicating high repeatability. Additional information on uncertainty is included  
2 in the Supporting Material.

3 The average HONO formation rates are not statistically different (within  $1\sigma$ ) when initial  $\text{HNO}_3$   
4 concentrations were  $\sim 400$ ,  $1\,500$ , and  $4\,000$  ppt, suggesting that the  $200 - 300$  ppt of reactive  
5 VOCs previously estimated by Rutter et al. (2014) (assuming a 1-to-1 stoichiometric ratio) remains  
6 the limiting factor. The lowest  $\text{HNO}_3$  concentrations achieved in these experiments were  $\sim 400$  ppt  
7 (by shutting off  $\text{HNO}_3$  supply), which likely reflects the presence of  $\text{HNO}_3$  in the air source or the  
8 desorption of  $\text{HNO}_3$  from the supply tubing, since reactor walls were first rinsed with deionized  
9 water and baked under UV lights. A regression showing the weak relationship between  $f_{\text{HONO}}$  and  
10  $\text{HNO}_3$  mixing ratio is shown in Figure S1. Because  $\text{HNO}_3$  concentrations above  $400$  ppt do not  
11 appear to significantly impact  $f_{\text{HONO}}$ , all seven  $\text{HNO}_3$  experiments were grouped into one base case  
12 category (Table 1). This base case and the Houston 2006 average provide the benchmarks for  
13 comparison with other experiments (Figure 2).

### 14 3.2 Temperature

15 Although the mean  $f_{\text{HONO}}$  value for the combined base case experiments ( $T = 25^\circ\text{C}$ ) was lower than  
16 that for other temperatures, the  $f_{\text{HONO}}$  at  $30.0^\circ\text{C}$  and  $35.0^\circ\text{C}$  are not statistically different (within  
17  $1\sigma$ ) than that of the base case. However, experiments at  $20.0^\circ\text{C}$  yielded significantly higher  $f_{\text{HONO}}$   
18 (above  $1\sigma$ ). This could mean that the reaction rate increases at lower temperatures, but as  
19 mentioned previously this dependence may not follow an Arrhenius trend. This trend suggests the  
20 possibility that multiple reactions involving different reactive VOCs become more important at  
21 various temperatures. Sampling lines were insulated and heated such that HONO wall losses  
22 would be as small as possible, but it should be noted that any bias due to wall losses would likely  
23 decrease  $f_{\text{HONO}}$  at lower temperatures. The enhanced rate at lower temperatures could make the  
24 proposed reaction mechanism even more important at night.

### 25 3.3 $\text{NH}_3$

26 The presence of  $\text{NH}_3$  had no observable impact on the reaction. Nitric acid concentrations were at  
27  $\sim 3\,500$  ppt before  $\text{NH}_3$  was introduced. After addition of  $\text{NH}_3$ , the system equilibrated at  $118.0 \pm$   
28  $2.0$  ppb  $\text{NH}_3$  and  $680 \pm 52$  ppt  $\text{HNO}_3$ . The formation of  $\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3$  and its subsequent partitioning into  
29 the solid phase is the likely cause for the observed consumption of  $\text{HNO}_3$ ; any  $\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3$  particles  
30 formed would be filtered prior to entering the MC/IC. The  $f_{\text{HONO}}$  for these experiments also were  
31 similar to the base case, likely because  $\text{HNO}_3$  was still in excess compared to the VOCs. This  
32 indicates that the neutralization reaction between  $\text{NH}_3$  and  $\text{HNO}_3$  does not directly interfere with  
33 the HONO formation reaction beyond the competition for  $\text{HNO}_3$ . Consistent with the experiments  
34 under varying  $\text{HNO}_3$  levels, a lower  $f_{\text{HONO}}$  is not observed due to the decrease in  $\text{HNO}_3$ .

### 35 3.4 UV Light

36 When UV lights were turned on prior to experiments, a constant photolytic source of HONO from  
37  $\text{HNO}_3$  was observed, contributing to background HONO levels (net production of  $\sim 226$  ppt or  $\sim 5.42$



1 ppb hr<sup>-1</sup>) in the reactor. Several sources could explain this HONO production, for example direct  
2 photolysis of HNO<sub>3</sub> sorbed on the reactor walls (Zhou et al., 2003) or from photolysis of  
3 nitrophenols (Bejan et al., 2006) that could be present in lubricating oil. We do not have the  
4 capability to isolate these sources, but they are not expected to bias  $f_{HONO}$  as defined here because  
5 formation rates are calculated using a step change in HONO when VOCs were removed during an  
6 experiment (Equation (1)). In other words, the HONO formation observed when VOCs were  
7 introduced under UV irradiation occurs above and beyond the background photolytic sources.

8 The observed average  $f_{HONO,obs}$  under UV irradiation of  $0.29 \pm 0.17$  ppb hr<sup>-1</sup> was obtained using the  
9 change in HONO levels when VOCs were removed, similar to other experiments. However,  
10 according to a simplified mass balance (Equation (2)), the actual HONO production rate ( $f_{HONO,UV}$ )  
11 must correct for photolytic losses of HONO generated when VOCs were present to react with  
12 HNO<sub>3</sub>:

13 
$$f_{HONO,UV} = f_{HONO,obs} + J_{HONO} ([HONO]_{UV+VOCs} - [HONO]_{UV}) \quad \text{Equation (2)}$$

14 where  $J_{HONO}$  is the photolysis rate of HONO, and the term in brackets represents the difference in  
15 measured HONO mixing ratios with and without VOCs when the lights are illuminated. A  
16 spectroradiometer was not available to determine  $J_{HONO}$ . In Equation (2), an average  $J_{HONO}$  value of  
17  $1.75 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$  was used. This value was derived from an average of measured ambient noon-time  
18  $J_{HONO}$  ( $1.75 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$  (Alicke et al., 2003) and  $1.60 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$  (Lee et al., 2013)) and  $J_{HONO}$  estimated  
19 using the method from Kraus and Hofzumahaus (1998) ( $1.90 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) from NO<sub>2</sub> photolysis rates  
20 reported in an environmental chamber (Nakao et al., 2011) that utilized the same model of lights  
21 as this study. When corrected, the average  $f_{HONO,UV}$  is  $0.37 \pm 0.17$  ppb hr<sup>-1</sup> (Table 1 and Figure 2).  
22 However, the  $J_{HONO}$  used here is likely much higher than the actual value from only four 40W UV  
23 lights, indicating that the  $f_{HONO,UV}$  is likely an upper bound. To further test the uncertainty, the  
24 estimated value of  $J_{HONO}$  used was adjusted by factors of 0.5 and 2 to provide a range of  $0.33 \pm$   
25  $0.17$  to  $0.44 \pm 0.17$  ppb hr<sup>-1</sup> for the potential average  $f_{HONO,UV}$  values.

26 Although  $f_{HONO,UV}$  is within the uncertainty range of the base case  $f_{HONO}$ , it is likely that the reported  
27  $f_{HONO,UV}$  represents an upper bound and that the UV wavelengths studied here could directly  
28 interfere with the reduction reaction of HNO<sub>3</sub> to HONO. One explanation for this observation is  
29 that under UV irradiation, relevant organic compounds undergo oxidation by radicals formed in  
30 the reactor (Atkinson, 2000) or are photolyzed directly. This could alter the reactivity of the VOCs  
31 or reduce the total concentration of reactive VOCs available for reaction, hence slowing the overall  
32 reaction rate. This and additional tests (Support Material) support the hypothesis that VOCs are  
33 the limiting reactants in the reaction proposed here.

### 34 **3.5 Mineral Dust Aerosol Surfaces**

35 Neither carboxylated-SiO<sub>2</sub> nor Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> particles (at concentrations of  $\sim 1600 \text{ \#/cm}^3$ ) yielded  
36 significantly different  $f_{HONO}$  (within  $1\sigma$ ) than the base case (Figure 2). The slight decrease observed  
37 is counterintuitive if the surfaces are expected to enhance the reaction, indicating that the  
38 surfaces are potential minor loss sites for the reactive VOCs involved or for the HONO produced

1 (Romanias et al., 2012). This further affirms the probability that a surface is not required to  
2 convert HNO<sub>3</sub> to HONO via the proposed pathway.

### 3 **4. Conclusions**

4 Estimates of base case (25°C, ~20% RH)  $f_{HONO}$  derived from the reduction of HNO<sub>3</sub> by VOCs agree  
5 well with data from a 2006 field study in Houston (Ziemba et al., 2010) during which  
6 enhancements in HONO during morning rush hour were observed. The hypothesized reaction (R3)  
7 studied here could have been the main HONO source during the HONO formation events.

8 The HONO formation rate was relatively enhanced (~1.0 ppb hr<sup>-1</sup>) at a lower temperature of ~20°C  
9 but statistically the same (~0.6 ppb hr<sup>-1</sup>) in experiments at 25, 30 and 35°C. The assumption that  
10 multiple reactive components of the VOCs react with HNO<sub>3</sub> is supported by this observation, and  
11 the relative importance of each reactive species in the reaction may vary with temperature. The  
12 reaction rate is independent of initial HNO<sub>3</sub> concentration (> 400 ppt), suggesting that the  
13 concentration of reactive VOCs was the limiting factor. However, future work testing this reaction  
14 under HNO<sub>3</sub> concentrations < 400 ppt may provide insights into its relevance in cleaner  
15 environments. Ammonia gas consumed HNO<sub>3</sub> in the reactor (down to 680 ppt) but did not have a  
16 direct impact on the HONO formation reaction, providing further evidence that the rate is limited  
17 by the availability of VOCs in the experimental system. The  $f_{HONO,UV}$  from (R3) was likely impeded  
18 by UV irradiation. Possible explanations for this observation include the photolysis/deactivation of  
19 the reactive VOCs involved in (R3) or the direct interference of UV light on (R3). Nonetheless, this  
20 observation must be confirmed by conducting a similar flow-tube study that focuses on  
21 constraining the reactive VOCs involved and quantifying HONO photolysis rates. The test of  
22 multiple atmospherically-relevant particle surfaces confirmed that the reaction proposed here  
23 does not require surfaces to proceed, despite the correlation that was observed in Houston in  
24 2006 (Ziemba et al., 2010). Given the uncertainties, we observe substantial percentage changes in  
25  $f_{HONO}$  between the base case and the 20°C and UV experiments, even when compared to the  
26 change when RH was varied from the base case to 1% or 50% in Rutter et al. (2014). The reduced  
27 sensitivity of  $f_{HONO}$  to other environmental variables tested here is also an important finding,  
28 especially in future modelling work aiming at incorporating this new HONO source to existing  
29 atmospheric models.

30 The HONO formation process studied here is likely homogeneous, but the results presented here  
31 do not rule out the possibility of a heterogeneous reaction pathway occurring in the atmosphere.  
32 Also, it is important to note that the net production of HONO observed in the UV experiments is in  
33 addition to production by background photolytic reactions that appear to be occurring on the wax-  
34 coated tube walls.

35 The gas-phase conversion of HNO<sub>3</sub> to HONO has significant air quality implications due to the  
36 “renoxification” of less reactive HNO<sub>3</sub> into more reactive HONO and should be tested in future  
37 modeling and field efforts. This pathway proceeds rapidly in the laboratory when compared with  
38 previously identified mechanisms (Table S3) and could potentially be an important source of  
39 HONO in the lower atmosphere (2<sup>nd</sup> order rate constant ~1.0 x 10<sup>-7</sup> ppt<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> estimated in Gall et al.  
40 (2015), in revision for *Atmospheric Environment*). Its role in HONO production aloft (synonymous

1 to the unknown gas-phase HONO source proposed by Li et al. (2014)) cannot yet be ruled out and  
2 should be evaluated in future work. In addition to their direct impact on O<sub>3</sub> formation and  
3 secondary organic aerosol formation, VOCs could also regulate the oxidative capacity of the  
4 atmosphere through the redox reaction studied here. These different processes have significant  
5 implications in terms of regional and global air quality. Hence, future experimental work focusing  
6 on the quantification of individual reactive components of the VOCs (e.g. utilizing mass  
7 spectrometry techniques coupled with proton transfer reaction or gas chromatography) that were  
8 involved in the reaction studied here (under varying environmental conditions) would allow  
9 detailed characterization of the HONO formation mechanism(s) and determination of reaction  
10 yields. Once the HONO formation reaction mechanism is well characterized, parameterizing the  
11 reaction would allow improvements in existing O<sub>3</sub> and PM prediction models.

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15 Technologies for Health and the Environment (MIRTHE) Center and National Science Foundation  
16 under grant No. EEC-0540832; Dan Campbell assisted in the ammonia experiments.

## 17 **Supporting Material Available**

18 Additional information and experiments (Text 1), uncertainty calculations (Text 2), least squares  
19 linear regression between  $f_{HONO}$  and initial HNO<sub>3</sub> concentration (Figure S1), the blend of engine oils  
20 used to generate the VOCs (Table S1), detailed measurement uncertainties and propagated errors  
21 in experiments (Table S2), estimated formation rates of previously proposed HONO sources (Table  
22 S3). This information is available free of charge via the Internet at <http://www.atmospolres.com>.

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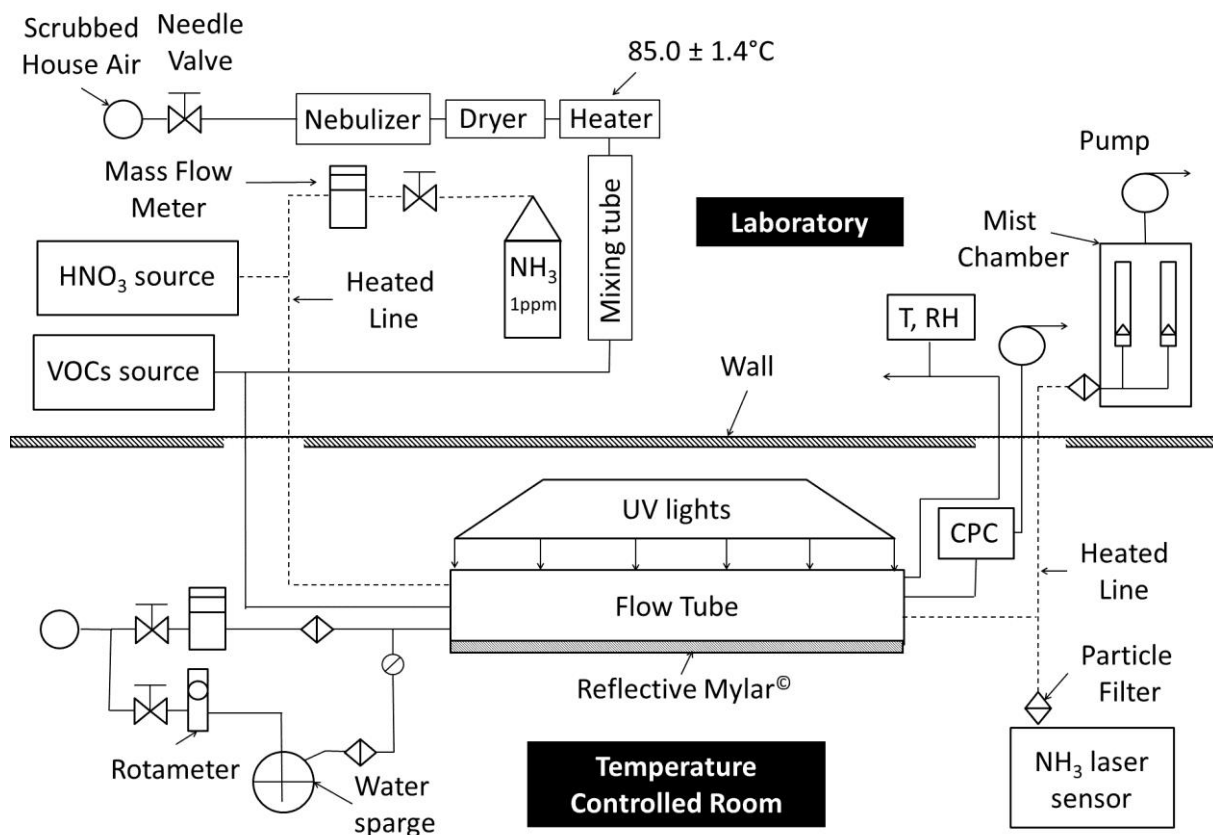
1 **Figure and Table Captions**

2 **Figure 1.** Flow diagram of the flow-tube system and instrumentation. Dashed lines represent  
3 heated lines for the flow of low-volatility gases (CPC = condensation particle counter).

4 **Figure 2.** Average HONO formation rates (with error bars) for each experimental category and  
5 comparison to the base case (25.0°C and ~20.0% RH without the addition of NH<sub>3</sub>, dust particles, or  
6 UV irradiation) and field results from Ziemba et al. (2010). HighN, MedN, and LowN represent  
7 experiments with high HNO<sub>3</sub>, medium HNO<sub>3</sub>, and low HNO<sub>3</sub>, respectively, and are combined to  
8 generate the average base case output. The average HONO formation rate for UV experiments  
9 was corrected for photolytic HONO losses (see Section 3.4).

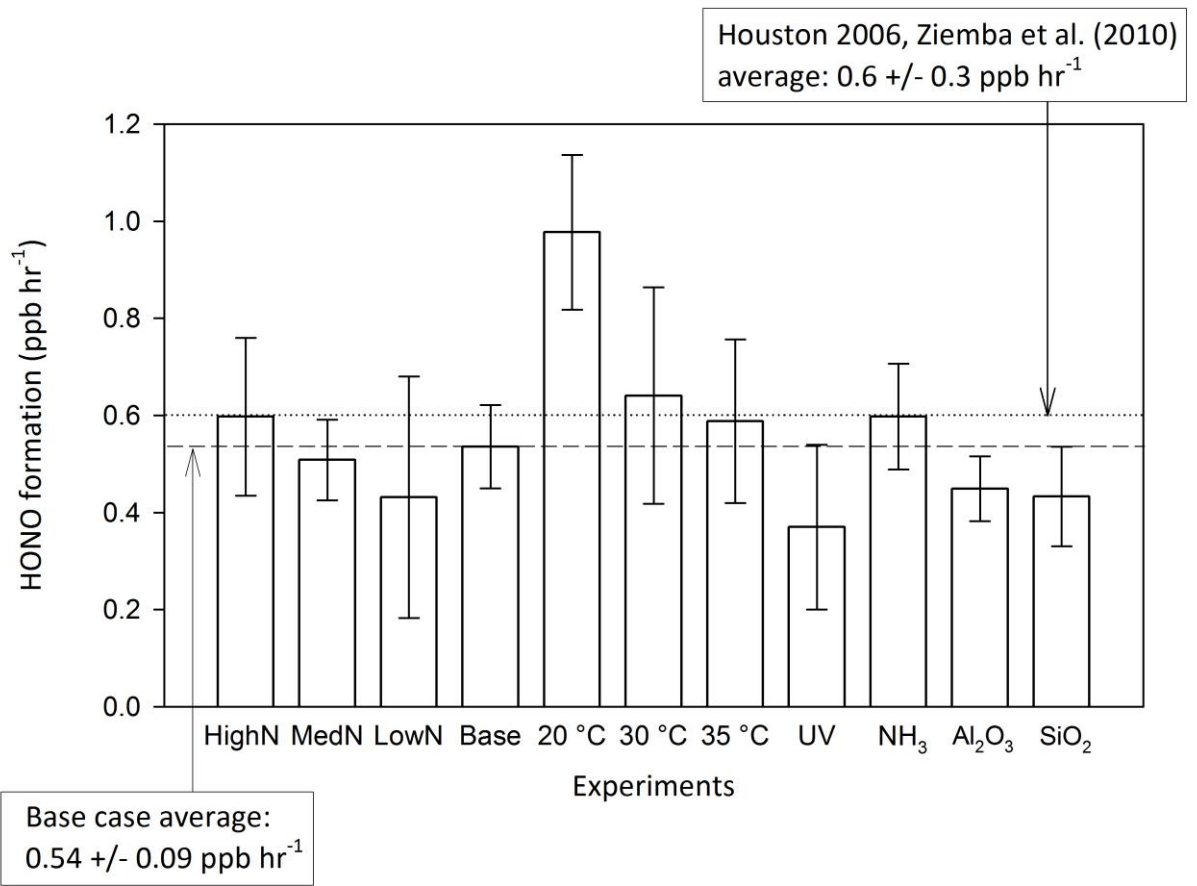
10 **Table 1.** Summary of experimental conditions and average HONO formation rates.

11 **Figures**



12

13 **Figure 1.**



1  
2 **Figure 2.**  
3

1 Tables

**Table 1.**

Experiment	Initial HNO <sub>3</sub> (ppt)	Unc/stdev (ppt)	N <sup>a</sup>	$f_{HONO}$ (ppb/hr)	Unc /stdev (ppb/hr)	Water Vapor Mixing ratio (%)	Notes
Base case, High HNO <sub>3</sub>	3 980	936	3	0.60	0.16	0.67	T = 25.0°C
Base case, Medium HNO <sub>3</sub>	1 522	159	3	0.51	0.08	0.63	T = 25.0°C
Base case, Low HNO <sub>3</sub>	399	53	1	0.43	0.25	0.58	T = 25.0°C
Base case, all HNO <sub>3</sub> levels	2 415	1 613	7	0.54	0.09	0.64	T = 25.0°C
T = 20.0 °C	2 763	52	3	0.98	0.16	0.86	
T = 30.0 °C	4 344	361	4	0.64	0.22	0.73	
T = 35.0 °C	3 755	474	4	0.59	0.17	0.98	
UV Irradiation	3 405	451	3	0.37	0.17	0.59	Corrected for UV losses
Ammonia	680	52	3	0.60	0.11	0.73	NH <sub>3</sub> = 118.0 ± 2.0 ppb
Alumina aerosol	3 356	346	3	0.45	0.07	0.61	Average count = 1600 #/cm <sup>3</sup>
Silica-COOH aerosol	3 443	85	3	0.43	0.10	0.60	Average count = 1600 #/cm <sup>3</sup>

<sup>a</sup> N = number of experiments conducted

2

3

1 **Supporting Material**

2 **Impact of Environmental Variables on the Reduction of Nitric Acid by Proxies for Volatile Organic**  
3 **Compounds Emitted by Motor Vehicles**

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16 **1. Additional information and experiments**

17 The reader is referred to section 2.4 of our previous manuscript (Rutter et al., 2014) for a detailed  
18 discussion of the choice of engine oil VOCs used as proxies for vehicular emissions. Background  
19 levels of HONO (~30 ppt) and  $HNO_3$  (~400 ppt) in the reactor were achieved upon rinsing the  
20 system with water and baking with UV lights for ~8 hours.

21 Experiments conducted using several pure organic compounds (such as toluene, isoprene, and  
22 hexadecane) instead of engine oil VOCs did not result in HONO production.

23 Three experiments were conducted at  $T = 20\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  and by diluting the source of VOCs with clean air  
24 prior to injection to the flow-tube reactor (other conditions were identical to the  $T = 20\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$   
25 experiments). The diluted concentration of reactive VOCs in the reactor was estimated based on  
26 mass balance to be ~55% of the nominal concentration used. The dilution of VOCs resulted in  $f_{HONO}$



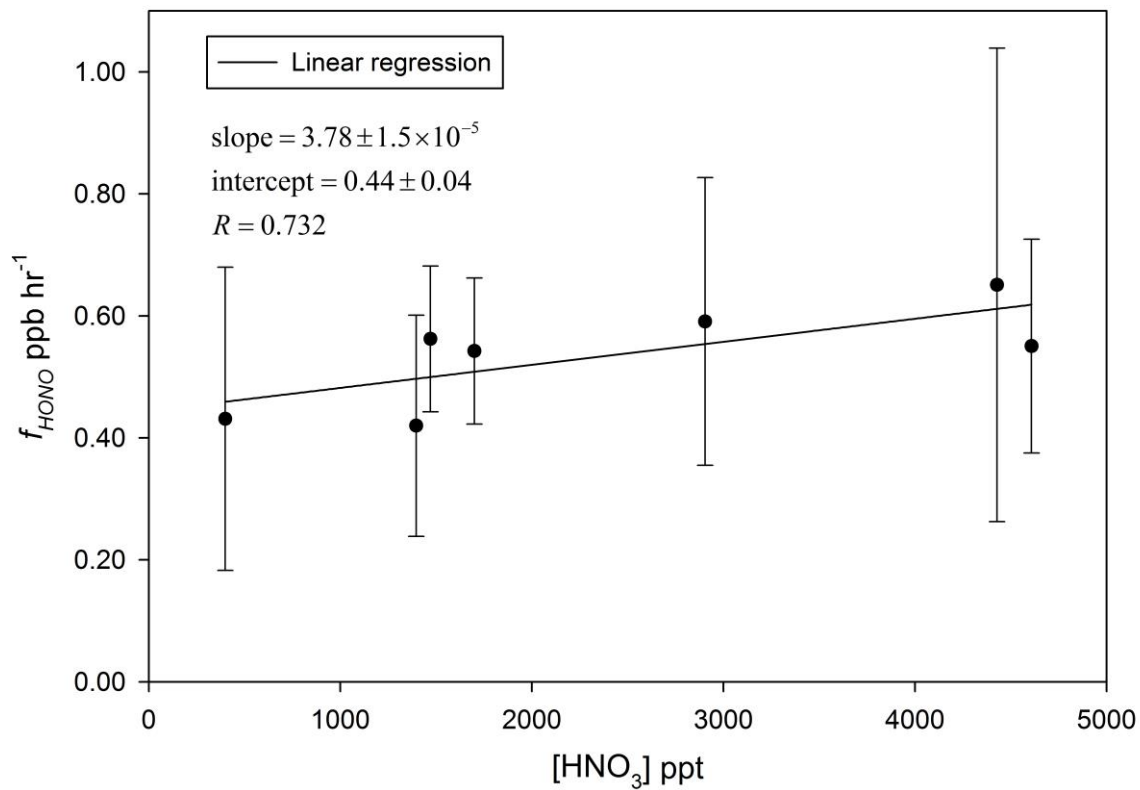
1 of  $0.72 \pm 0.22$  ppb hr<sup>-1</sup>, which is lower when compared with  $f_{HONO}$  of  $0.96 \pm 0.18$  ppb hr<sup>-1</sup> for the  
2 nominal T= 20°C experiments (Table 1). This comparison provides supporting evidence that the  
3 concentration of VOCs was the limiting factor for the reaction discussed here. However, these  
4 experiments were not used in direct comparison with the other experimental categories because  
5 two variables (temperature and concentration of VOCs) were changed simultaneously.

6 Tests were also conducted to rule out heterogeneous reactions in the flow tube reactor, by  
7 measuring  $f_{HONO}$  under varying residence times while keeping other parameters constant. The  $f_{HONO}$   
8 for different residence times were statistically similar, which lends support to our case that HONO  
9 formation occurred predominantly in the gas phase.

## 10 **2. Uncertainty calculations**

11 Weekly calibrations for the mist chamber/ion-chromatography (MC/IC) were conducted to  
12 minimize systematic errors in HONO mixing ratio measurements ([HONO] in ppt). The overall  
13 measurement uncertainties in  $[HONO]_t$  and  $[HONO]_o$  in Equation (1) were estimated from the  
14 standard deviation of 1-hour averages of steady-state [HONO] (immediately prior to and after the  
15 removal of VOCs). These uncertainties were propagated to the  $f_{HONO}$  “Unc” values for individual  
16 experiments as shown in Table S2. When calculating the mean  $f_{HONO}$  value for each experimental  
17 category, the individual uncertainties are again propagated to give an estimate of the uncertainty  
18 in the averaged  $f_{HONO}$  value (“Prop”). These propagated measurement uncertainties are larger than  
19 the spread in  $f_{HONO}$  values for each category (standard deviation of the average, “Stdev”), indicating  
20 good repeatability. The same procedures were used to calculate initial [HNO<sub>3</sub>] and [HONO] values  
21 (also shown in Table S2). The larger of either the ‘Stdev.’ or ‘Prop.’ values for initial [HNO<sub>3</sub>] or  $f_{HONO}$   
22 were used to represent their respective uncertainty ranges in Table 1 and Figure 2 in the main text.

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2 **Figure S1.** Least squares linear regression between  $f_{HONO}$  and initial  $HNO_3$  concentration from  
 3 seven experiments conducted at varying  $HNO_3$  concentrations. The slope and intercept are  
 4 reported with standard error estimated from the linear regression and have units of  $ppb\ hr^{-1}\ ppt^{-1}$   
 5 and  $ppb\ hr^{-1}$  respectively.

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**Table S1.** The blend of engine oils used to generate the VOCs in this study (adapted from Rutter et al. (2014))

Name	Grade	Intended Engine Type	Volume (ml)
Castrol GTX	5W-30	Gasoline	25
Castrol GTX	10W-30	Gasoline	25
Mobil 1 High Mileage	5W-30	Gasoline	25
Mobil 1 High Mileage	10W-30	Gasoline	25
Mobil 1 Extended Performance	5W-20	Gasoline	25
Valvoline Premium Conventional	5W-30	Gasoline	25
Valvoline Premium Conventional	10W-30	Gasoline	25
Quaker State Advanced Durability	5W-30	Gasoline	25
Quaker State Advanced Durability	10W-30	Gasoline	25
Pennzoil Active	5W-30	Gasoline	25
Pennzoil Active	10W-30	Gasoline	25
Pennzoil Active	5W-20	Gasoline	25
Castrol GTX Diesel	15W-40	Diesel	115

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**Table S2.** Detailed measurement uncertainties and propagated errors in experiments. ‘Unc’ values for individual experiments represent errors propagated from measurement uncertainties. Rows denoted with ‘Stdev.’ refer to standard deviations of the calculated average values; rows denoted with ‘Prop.’ refer to the propagated errors of the average.

Expt No.	Category	Initial [HNO <sub>3</sub> ] (ppt)	Unc type	Unc (ppt)	Initial [HONO] (ppt)	Unc (ppt)	$f_{HONO}$ (ppb hr <sup>-1</sup> )	Unc (ppb hr <sup>-1</sup> )
1	Base case, High HNO <sub>3</sub>	4608		77	63.7	1.5	0.55	0.18
2	Base case, High HNO <sub>3</sub>	4428		30	67.4	0.8	0.65	0.39
3	Base case, High HNO <sub>3</sub>	2904		29	70.5	1.9	0.59	0.24
Avg	Base case, High HNO <sub>3</sub>	3980	Stdev.	936	67.2	3.4	0.60	0.05
			Prop.	29		0.8		0.16
4	Base case, Med HNO <sub>3</sub>	1471		11	40.6	0.7	0.56	0.12
5	Base case, Med HNO <sub>3</sub>	1700		26	39.8	1.1	0.54	0.12
6	Base case, Med HNO <sub>3</sub>	1395		8	43.9	1.0	0.42	0.18
Avg	Base case, Med HNO <sub>3</sub>	1522	Stdev.	159	41.4	2.2	0.51	0.08
			Prop.	10		0.5		0.08
7	Base case, Low HNO <sub>3</sub>	399		53	47.2	1.9	0.43	0.25
Avg	Base case, all HNO <sub>3</sub>	2415	Stdev.	1613	53.3	13.4	0.54	0.08
			Prop.	15		1.2		0.09
8	T = 20.0 °C	2704		35	45.2	0.9	1.14	0.20
9	T = 20.0 °C	2740		27	46.2	1.7	0.93	0.23
10	T = 20.0 °C	2785		79	51.1	1.1	0.93	0.22
11	T = 20.0 °C	2823		55	58.5	2.1	0.91	0.30
Avg	T = 20.0 °C	2763	Stdev.	52	50.3	6.1	0.98	0.11
			Prop.	35		1.0		0.16
12	T = 30.0 °C	4741		22	75.4	4.2	0.78	0.41
13	T = 30.0 °C	4505		24	95.2	3.5	0.36	0.35
14	T = 30.0 °C	4227		27	75.5	1.9	0.78	0.30
15	T = 30.0 °C	3904		20	76.8	2.5	0.65	0.27
Avg	T = 30.0 °C	4344	Stdev.	361	80.7	9.7	0.64	0.20
			Prop.	16		2.1		0.22
16	T = 35.0 °C	4389		21	104.3	3.0	0.59	0.27
17	T = 35.0 °C	3838		24	71.0	2.6	0.53	0.37
18	T = 35.0 °C	3448		25	69.1	1.5	0.77	0.17
19	T = 35.0 °C	3343		42	76.2	1.1	0.47	0.13
Avg	T = 35.0 °C	3755	Stdev.	474	80.2	16.4	0.59	0.13
			Prop.	19		1.5		0.17
20	UV Irradiation	2886		71	315.1	2.4	0.30	0.24
21	UV Irradiation	3704		59	263.4	2.2	0.33	0.29
22	UV Irradiation	3625		21	251.1	3.7	0.24	0.33
Avg	UV Irradiation (uncorrected)	3405	Stdev.	451	276.5	34.0	0.29	0.04
			Prop.	32		1.6		0.17
	UV Irradiation		Prop.				0.37	0.17

(corrected, Eq. (2))

**Table S1 (continued)**

Expt No.	Category	Initial [HNO <sub>3</sub> ] (ppt)	Unc type	Unc (ppt)	Initial [HONO] (ppt)	Unc (ppt)	$f_{HONO}$ (ppb hr <sup>-1</sup> )	Unc (ppb hr <sup>-1</sup> )
23	Ammonia	3370		53	95.4	1.6	0.58	0.17
24	Ammonia	3717		71	96.1	1.4	0.61	0.20
25	Ammonia	3909		66	97.9	1.1	0.60	0.20
Avg	Ammonia	3666	Stdev. Prop.	273 37	96.5	1.3 0.8	0.60	0.01 0.11
26	Alumina aerosol	3565		29	88.5	0.5	0.40	0.14
27	Alumina aerosol	2956		116	92.7	0.8	0.57	0.11
28	Alumina aerosol	3546		46	81.6	0.6	0.38	0.08
Avg	Alumina aerosol	3356	Stdev. Prop.	346 43	87.6	5.6 0.4	0.45	0.10 0.07
29	Silica aerosol	3541		24	90.0	0.4	0.36	0.08
30	Silica aerosol	3393		15	91.3	1.2	0.38	0.27
31	Silica aerosol	3394		18	89.6	0.5	0.56	0.13
Avg	Silica aerosol	3443	Stdev. Prop.	85 11	90.3	0.9 0.5	0.43	0.11 0.10

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**Table S3.** Estimated rates of previously identified HONO formation mechanisms using observed or typical ambient parameters. Parameters used in the source strength calculations are included below.

Source rank	HONO source mechanism	Estimated source strength (ppb hr <sup>-1</sup> )	Input parameters	Daytime/ Nighttime	Reference
1	Gas-phase source that scales with $J_{\text{HONO}}$	0.69	$S_{\text{HONO}}, J_{\text{HONO}}$	Day	<i>Li et al. (2014)</i>
2	Homogeneous source (HNO <sub>3</sub> and VOCs)	0.54	-	Day/Night	<i>This study</i>
3	Photolysis of surface-adsorbed HNO <sub>3</sub> (scaled by [HNO <sub>3</sub> ])	0.54	$P_{\text{HNO}_3}, [\text{HNO}_3]$	Day	<i>Zhou et al. (2003)</i>
4	Reaction between OH and NO	0.33	$k_{\text{OH-NO}}, [\text{OH}], [\text{NO}]$	Day	<i>Atkinson et al. (2004)</i>
5	NO <sub>2</sub> surface production	0.004	$\gamma_{\text{NO}_2}, h, [\text{NO}_2]$	Day/Night	<i>VandenBoer et al. (2013)</i>
6	NO <sub>2</sub> hydrolysis on aerosol surface	0.0002	$k_{\text{NO}_2}, S/V, [\text{NO}_2]$	Day/Night	<i>Kurtenbach et al. (2001)</i>

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Parameter	Symbol	Units	Value	Reference
HONO production rate	$S_{\text{HONO}}$	ppt s h <sup>-1</sup> × $J_{\text{HONO}}$	4.05E+05	<i>Li et al. (2014)</i>
Ambient noon-time HONO photolysis rate	$J_{\text{HONO}}$	s <sup>-1</sup>	1.70E-03	( <i>Alicke et al. (2003); Lee et al. (2013)</i> )
HONO production (700 ppt HNO <sub>3</sub> )	$P_{\text{HNO}_3}$	ppb hr <sup>-1</sup>	1.50E-01	<i>Zhou et al. (2003)</i>
Rate constant	$k_{\text{OH-NO}}$	[N <sub>2</sub> ] cm <sup>3</sup> molecule <sup>-1</sup> s <sup>-1</sup>	7.52E-31	<i>Atkinson et al. (2004)</i>
NO <sub>2</sub> uptake coefficient	$\gamma_{\text{NO}_2}$	-	2.00E-06	<i>VandenBoer et al. (2013)</i>
Rate constant	$k_{\text{NO}_2}$	(S/V) min <sup>-1</sup> m <sup>-1</sup>	3.00E-03	<i>Kurtenbach et al. (2001)</i>
Experimental nitric acid levels	[HNO <sub>3</sub> ]	ppt	2500	<i>This study</i>
12-hr daytime hydroxyl radical	[OH]	ppt	0.08	<i>Atkinson (2000)</i>
Assumed daytime nitrogen oxide	[NO]	ppb	2.5	-
Assumed daytime nitrogen dioxide	[NO <sub>2</sub> ]	ppb	5	-
Daytime boundary layer height, Houston	$h$	m	400	<i>Banta et al. (2005)</i>
Median aerosol surface area, Houston	$S/V$	mm <sup>2</sup> cm <sup>-3</sup>	232	( <i>Ziemba et al. (2010)</i> )

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