Aerosol pH and liquid water content determine when particulate matter is sensitive to ammonia and nitrate availability

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Abstract. Nitrogen oxides (NOx) and ammonia (NH3) from anthropogenic and biogenic emissions are central contributors to particulate matter (PM) concentrations worldwide. The response of PM to changes in the emissions of both compounds is typically studied on a case-by-case basis, owing in part to the complex thermodynamic interactions of these aerosol precursors with other PM constituents. Here we present a simple but thermodynamically consistent approach that expresses the chemical domains of sensitivity of aerosol particulate matter to NH3 and HNO3 availability in terms of aerosol pH and liquid water content. From our analysis, four policy-relevant regimes emerge in terms of sensitivity: (i) NH3 sensitive, (ii) HNO3 sensitive, (iii) NH3 and HNO3 sensitive, and (iv) insensitive to NH3 or HNO3. For all regimes, the PM remains sensitive to nonvolatile precursors, such as nonvolatile cations and sulfate. When this framework is applied to ambient measurements or predictions of PM and gaseous precursors, the “chemical regime” of PM sensitivity to NH3 and HNO3 availability is directly determined. The use of these regimes allows for novel insights, and this framework is an important tool to evaluate chemical transport models. With this extended understanding, aerosol pH and associated liquid water content naturally emerge as previously ignored state parameters that drive PM formation.

1 Introduction

Gas-phase ammonia (NH3(g), hereafter “NH3”) is one of the most important atmospheric alkaline species and contributor to atmospheric fine particle mass (Seinfeld and Pandis, 2016). NH3 originates from nitrogen-based fertilizer, animal waste (e.g., Aneja et al., 2009), biomass burning (e.g., Behera et al., 2013), and the natural biosphere (National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine, 2016). NH3 emissions are also linked to world food production, so these emissions are expected to increase with world population (NRC, 2016). Ammonia reacts with sulfuric and nitric acids (from SO2 and NOx oxidation) to form ammonium sulfate/bisulfate and nitrate aerosol that globally constitute an important fraction of ambient PM2.5 mass (Kanakidou et al., 2005; Sardar et al., 2005; Zhang et al., 2007). SO2 and NOx emissions are expected to decrease over time due to air quality regulations (IPCC, 2013). Combined with increasing NH3 levels (e.g., Skjøth and Geels, 2013), this may lead to changes in aerosol composition and mass concentration, with important impacts on human health (Pope III et al., 2004; Lim et al., 2012; Lelieveld et al., 2015; Cohen et al., 2017), ecosystem productivity (Fowler et al., 2013), and the climate system (Haywood and Boucher, 2000; Bellouin et al., 2011; IPCC, 2013).

The abovementioned emission trends have created the expectation that atmospheric aerosol will become significantly less acidic over time (West et al., 1999; Pinder et
al., 2007, 2008; Heald et al., 2012; Tsimpidi et al., 2007; Saylor et al., 2015). Reductions in ammonium sulfate due to SO$_2$ reductions can be balanced, at least in part, by ammonium nitrate formation (e.g., West et al., 1999; Heald et al., 2012; Karydis et al., 2016; Vasilakos et al., 2018). This behavior arises because nitrate may remain in the gas phase as HNO$_3$ when insufficient amounts of total ammonia (i.e., gas + aerosol) or nonvolatile cations (NVCs) from dust and sea salt exist to “neutralize” aerosol sulfate (i.e., completely consume any free sulfuric acid or bisulfate salts). This conceptual model can fail, because it does not sufficiently consider the large volatility difference between deliquesced aerosol containing sulfate/NVCs and ammonium/nitrate, the last two of which are strongly modulated by aerosol acidity (pH) (Guo et al., 2015, 2017; Weber et al., 2016) and aerosol water. Modeling studies explicitly considering acidity effects may still incorrectly estimate nitrate substitution, owing to errors in emissions of nonvolatile cations (NVCs) that can bias estimates of aerosol acidity and ammonium or nitrate partitioning (Vasilakos et al., 2018). A bias in our understanding of aerosol pH can re affirm a sometimes incorrect conceptual model of aerosol nitrate formation, and fundamental reasons for prediction biases in nitrate and ammonium (i.e., errors in pH and liquid water content) are not identified, therefore inhibiting further model improvement.

Developing an understanding of when aerosol levels are sensitive to NH$_3$ and HNO$_3$ concentrations requires a new approach that explicitly considers aerosol pH and its effects on aerosol precursor volatility in a thermodynamically consistent way. Here we present such a framework, and demonstrate it with observational data, to understand the chemical regimes associated with aerosol sensitivity to changes in ammonia and nitrate availability.

2 The new conceptual framework

Aerosol pH needs to be sufficiently high for aerosol nitrate formation to readily occur. Depending on the temperature and the amount of liquid water, this threshold range from a pH of 1.5 to 3.5 (Meskhidze et al., 2003; Guo et al., 2016, 2017; Fig. 1). If pH is high enough, almost all inorganic nitrate forming from NO$_3^-$ oxidation mostly resides in the aerosol phase; however, when pH is low (typically below 1.5 to 2), nitrate remains almost exclusively in the gas phase as HNO$_3$, regardless of the amount present. Between these “high” and “low” pH values, a “sensitivity window” emerges, where partitioning shifts from nitrate being predominantly gaseous to mostly aerosol bound. When acidity is below this “pH window”, aerosol nitrate is almost nonexistent, and therefore aerosol levels are insensitive to HNO$_3$ availability and controls aimed solely on HNO$_3$ reduction are unimportant since none is in the aerosol phase. When the pH is above the sensitivity window, most nitrate resides in the aerosol phase, and aerosol levels directly respond to HNO$_3$ availability. A similar situation exists for aerosol ammonium – although with an inverse dependence on pH compared to HNO$_3$. When aerosol pH is low enough, any inorganic ammonia emitted mostly resides in the aerosol phase; when pH is high enough, most of it resides in the gas phase (Fig. 1). Based on the criteria above, one can then define characteristic levels of aerosol acidity, where aerosol becomes insensitive to NH$_3$ (or HNO$_3$) concentrations and vice versa. In the following sections, we quantitatively develop these concepts and formulate a new thermodynamically consistent framework of aerosol formation.

2.1 Determining when aerosol mass is sensitive to nitric acid and ammonia availability

For a given air mass with total nitrate NO$_3^-$ (i.e., the amount of aerosol and gas-phase nitrate), the equilibrium aerosol nitrate concentration, NO$_3^-$, is given by NO$_3^-$ = $\varepsilon$ (NO$_3^-$) NO$_3^+$, where $\varepsilon$ (NO$_3^-$) is the fraction of NO$_3^-$ that partitions to the particle phase. Given that nitrate ions are associated with semivolatile NH$_4^+$ and nonvolatile cations (NVCs) such as Na$^+$, Ca$^{2+}$, K$^+$, and Mg$^{2+}$ when they partition to aerosol, the sensitivity of aerosol mass to changes in NO$_3^-$ is proportional to the changes occurring in NO$_3^-$. Therefore,

$$\frac{\partial PM}{\partial NO_3^-} = \varepsilon (NO_3^-) \frac{\partial NO_3^-}{\partial NO_3^+} = \varepsilon (NO_3^-),$$

where $\varepsilon$ is the ratio of PM mass formed (or lost) per mole of NO$_3^-$ that condenses (or evaporates) from the particles. Therefore, if NO$_3^-$ is associated with aerosol NH$_4$NO$_3$, then $\varepsilon = 80/62 = 1.29$. Lower values are found for particles rich in NVCs that are associated with carbonates and chlorides; for example, if nitric acid were replacing chloride in sea salt (e.g., conversion of NaCl to NaNO$_3$), the ratio would be $\varepsilon = (85-58.4)/62 = 0.43$. A similar $\varepsilon$ is seen when alkaline dust particles rich in CaCO$_3$ react with HNO$_3$ to form Ca(NO$_3$)$_2$: $\varepsilon = (164-100)/(2 \times 62) = 0.51$. Given that NVCs tend to reside in the coarse mode aerosol, environments that are rich in NH$_3$ and form large amounts of NH$_4$NO$_3$ (e.g., in northern Europe, US Midwest, and China) would therefore tend to exhibit $\varepsilon$ values of $\sim 1.29$; in environments where there is a mixture of NVCs and NH$_4$NO$_3$, $\varepsilon$ would be a weighted average between 1.29 (pure NH$_4$NO$_3$ limit) and 0.5 (NVC limit), determined by the ratio of the two cation categories in the aerosol. The sensitivity of PM to changes in NO$_3^-$ can therefore be expressed in terms of nitrate partitioning, so the parameters that affect $\varepsilon$ (NO$_3^-$) also directly impact $\frac{\partial PM}{\partial NO_3^-}$.

We now proceed with explicitly quantifying how aerosol liquid water and pH affect nitrate partitioning and hence PM sensitivity to nitrate availability. Meskhidze et al. (2003) and later on Guo et al. (2017) showed that, for a deliquesced aerosol, $\varepsilon$ (NO$_3^-$) explicitly depends on the concentration of H$^+$ in the aerosol phase, [H$^+$], and the aerosol liquid water
where $H_{\text{HNO}_3}$ and $K_{n1}$ are the Henry’s law and acid dissociation constants for HNO$_3$, respectively; $R$ is the universal gas constant; $T$ is the temperature; and $\gamma_{\text{H}^+}$ and $\gamma_{\text{NO}_3^-}$ are the single-ion activity coefficients for H$^+$ and NO$_3^-$, respectively. Temperature dependence for $H_{\text{HNO}_3}$ is provided by Sander (2015), while activity coefficients can be calculated using an aerosol thermodynamic model (e.g., ISORROPIA II; Fountoukis and Nenes, 2007).

Similarly, equilibrium partitioning of NH$_4^+$ to the aerosol is given by

$$\frac{\partial M}{\partial \text{NH}_4^+} = \lambda \frac{\partial \text{NH}_4^+}{\partial \text{NH}_4^+} = \lambda \varepsilon (\text{NH}_4^+),$$

where $\lambda$ is the ratio of mass of PM that is lost or gained per mole of evaporation or loss of NH$_4^+$; $\varepsilon$ is more variable than $\gamma$, because the anion associated with ammonium can be an involatile or semivolatile species with relatively large molar mass. For example, if NH$_4^+$ condenses or evaporates from sulfate salts (NH$_4$HSO$_4$, (NH$_4)_2$SO$_4$), then $\lambda = 18/17 = 1.06$ and $\lambda = 4.4$ for NH$_4$NO$_3$, $\lambda = 2.97$ for NH$_4$Cl, and $\lambda = 10$ for (NH$_4$)$_2$(COO)$_2$. Given that the majority of the aerosol ammonium is associated with nitrate and sulfates, aerosol therefore tends to exhibit a value for $\lambda$ that is a weighted average of $\sim 1$ (NH$_4$HSO$_4$, (NH$_4$)$_2$SO$_4$ limit) or 4.4 (NH$_4$NO$_3$ limit), determined by the aerosol sulfate/nitrate ratio. In regions where the aerosol is acidic, nitrate tends to reside in the gas phase and $\lambda \approx 1$.

From the above criteria, the sensitivity of PM to changes in NH$_4^+$ can be expressed in terms of its partitioning, $\varepsilon (\text{NH}_4^+)$, as in Eq. (2), can be linked to aerosol liquid water and pH (Guo et al., 2017):

$$\varepsilon (\text{NH}_4^+) = \frac{\frac{\gamma_{\text{H}^+}}{\gamma_{\text{NH}_4^+} K_a} W_i RT}{1 + \frac{\gamma_{\text{H}^+}}{\gamma_{\text{NH}_4^+} K_a} W_i RT},$$

where $H_{\text{NH}_3}$ and $K_a$ are the Henry’s law and dissociation constants for NH$_3$, respectively, and $\gamma_{\text{NH}_4^+}$ is the single-ion activity coefficient for NH$_4^+$. Temperature dependence for $H_{\text{NH}_3}$ is provided by Sander (2015).

Defining the parameters $\Psi = \frac{RT K_{n1} H_{\text{HNO}_3}}{\gamma_{\text{H}^+} \gamma_{\text{NO}_3^-}}$ and

$$\Phi = \frac{\gamma_{\text{H}^+}}{\gamma_{\text{NH}_4^+} K_a} RT,$$

Eqs. (2) and (3) can be written as

$$\varepsilon (\text{NO}_3^-) = \frac{\Psi W_i}{[\text{H}^+] + \Psi W_i}; \quad \varepsilon (\text{NH}_4^+) = \frac{\Phi [\text{H}^+] W_i}{1 + \Phi [\text{H}^+] W_i}.$$ (4)

For given levels of $W_i$, the expressions in Eq. (4) yield “sigmoidal” functions that display a characteristic “pH sensitivity window”, where the partition fraction changes from zero to unity over a limited pH range. Equation (4) can then be used to determine a “characteristic pH” that defines
when aerosol is insensitive to total ammonia and nitrate availability (or emissions). For this purpose, we determine the pH for which \( \varepsilon (\text{NO}_3^-) \) and \( \varepsilon (\text{NH}_4^+) \) are equal to a characteristic (small) threshold value, being \( \alpha \) for \( \varepsilon (\text{NO}_3^-) \) and \( \beta \) for \( \varepsilon (\text{NH}_4^+) \) (Fig. 1). When \( \alpha \) (or \( \beta \)) are exceeded, the aerosol is said to be sensitive to NH\(_3\) (or NO\(_3^-\)) emissions, because changes in NH\(_3\) and NO\(_3^-\) levels can appreciably affect aerosol concentrations. This sensitivity may be in one direction (e.g., increase in the emissions if the corresponding particulate levels are low and decrease if they are high) or in both. Guo et al. (2018) found a “critical” pH of approximately 3, above which the \( \varepsilon (\text{NO}_3^-) \) is nearly 1 and almost all nitrate (NO\(_3^-\)) resides in the aerosol phase. Here we generalize the approach developing relationships between the terms that depend on aerosol composition, pH, and particle water, with temperature still remaining as an independent variable.

Based on the above discussion, the characteristic acidity level for nitrate, pH\( \prime \), is computed as

\[
\alpha = \frac{\Psi W_i}{[\text{H}^+] + \Psi W_i} \implies [\text{H}^+]' = \left( \frac{1 - \alpha}{\alpha} \right) \Psi W_i \implies \\
pH' = -\log \left( \frac{1 - \alpha}{\alpha} \right) \Psi W_i,
\]

where \([\text{H}^+]'\) is the concentration where \( \varepsilon (\text{NO}_3^-) \) equals the threshold value. The parameter \( \left( \frac{1 - \alpha}{\alpha} \right) \), which we call the “threshold factor”, adjusts pH\( \prime \) to account for the threshold above which the aerosol is said to become sensitive to NO\(_3^-\).

Similarly to nitrates, the characteristic acidity level for ammonium, pH\( \prime\prime \), is determined as

\[
\beta = \Phi \frac{[\text{H}^+] W_i}{1 + \Phi [\text{H}^+] W_i} \implies [\text{H}^+] = \frac{1}{1 - \beta} \Phi W_i \implies \\
pH'' = \log \left( \frac{1 - \beta}{\beta} \Phi W_i \right).
\]

### 2.2 Chemical domains of aerosol mass sensitive to nitrate and ammonia perturbations

Hereafter we consider \( \alpha = \beta = 0.1 \); in selecting these threshold values, we assume that aerosol responds in an important manner to NH\(_3\)/HNO\(_3\) when at least 10% of the total precursor can partition to the aerosol phase. The threshold can be adjusted accordingly to fit any other objective, depending on the analysis required (e.g., a prescribed PM response). With these considerations, the threshold factors are 9 for both compounds and the characteristic pH values obtain the very simple formulations pH\( \prime \) = -log(\( 9 \Psi W_i \)) for nitrate and pH\( \prime\prime \) = log(\( 9 \Phi W_i \)) for ammonium. Apart from the value of the parameters \( \Psi \) and \( \Phi \) (which vary mainly with \( T \)), pH\( \prime \) and pH\( \prime\prime \) vary only with \( W_i \) with a logarithmic dependence. Figure 2 displays their variation for 273 and 298 K. Nitrate tends to exhibit a decrease in pH\( \prime \) with increasing \( W_i \) and vice versa for ammonium and pH\( \prime\prime \).

![Figure 2. Characteristic pH for defining when aerosol is sensitive to changes in available nitrate (blue lines) and ammonia (red lines) versus \( W_i \). Results shown for a temperature of 298 K (dotted line) and 273 K (solid line). Note the relatively stronger effects of temperature changes on the characteristic pH for nitrate. Calculations were carried out using the Excel spreadsheet provided in the Supplement.](image-url)
Figure 3. Chemical domains of aerosol response to ammonia and nitrate emissions. Shown are results for 273 K (a) and 298 K (b). Note that there exists a fairly expansive region of acidity and liquid water content (especially for warmer temperatures) where aerosol is relatively insensitive to ammonia and nitrate emissions; here only nonvolatiles (sulfate, NVCs) can have an appreciable impact on aerosol mass. Also important is the role of aerosol water in helping define the chemical regime of aerosol sensitivity to precursors. 

or HNO₃ – which occupies an increasingly large pH–LWC (liquid water content) domain as the temperature increases (Fig. 3).

A characteristic point on the chemical regime map corresponds to where the two lines “crossover”, thus separating Regime 1 from Regime 3 and Regime 2 from Regime 4. This critical point corresponds to a characteristic value of LWC, Wᵢ*, that is easily found by equating pH' with pH'':

\[ Wᵢ^* = \left[ \left( \frac{1 - \alpha}{\alpha} \right) \left( \frac{1 - \beta}{\beta} \right) \Phi \Psi \right]^{-1/2}. \]  

Substitution of Wᵢ* into either Eq. (5) or Eq (6) gives also the characteristic pH* of this crossover point:

\[ \text{pH}^* = -\frac{1}{2} \log \left( \frac{\Psi}{\Phi} \right). \]  

Both pH* and Wᵢ* depend on temperature (Fig. 3). For T = 298 K and \( \alpha = \beta = 0.1, \psi = 7.38 \times 10^2, \Phi = 1.67 \times 10^7 \), so Wᵢ* ≈ 3.5 µg m⁻³ and pH* ≈ 2.2. Therefore, for moderately acidic aerosol (pH* ≈ 2) and for moderate levels of liquid water content (a few micrograms per cubic meter, µg m⁻³), aerosol tends to be insensitive to emissions of either NH₃ or NO₃⁻ precursors. For higher (or lower) pH levels, the aerosol transitions to Regime 2 (or 4). For liquid water above Wᵢ*, there is a “transition pH” from an ammonia-sensitive aerosol to an exclusively nitrate-sensitive aerosol, which depends linearly on liquid water content (Fig. 3). Similarly, there is also another transition pH that defines when the aerosol becomes exclusively sensitive to NH₃. 

As formulated here, the framework does not imply that the water is associated with the species considered (ammonium, nitrate) but rather it is treated as a variable; pH is also treated as a variable and can be modulated from organics, NVCs, halogen ions, sulfates, carbonates, and other species. The main requirement is that the aerosol is dominated by a single aqueous phase, as discussed in Battaglia Jr. et al. (2019) and references therein; therefore, the framework applies more accurately to conditions where the relative humidity is above 40 % and the assumption of thermodynamic equilibrium is applicable (i.e., ultra-viscosity and semisolid effects do not considerably limit mass transfer in the aerosol phase). Given the complexity of aerosol thermodynamics, it is remarkable that such an apparently simple framework can be used to characterize the regions of aerosol sensitivity to NH₃ and NO₃⁻ emissions, with “coordinates” being pH and liquid water. This is illustrated in the following section.

3 Application of framework

The above framework requires knowledge of aerosol pH and liquid water content, which can be routinely calculated by state-of-the-art atmospheric chemical transport models (e.g., CMAQ, CAMx) during the course of any simulation. Thermodynamic analysis of ambient aerosol and gas-phase data also provides aerosol pH and liquid water content; therefore, the above framework can be used to characterize the chemical domain of ambient and simulated aerosol.

The applicability of the chemical domain approach is demonstrated by its application to ambient data. For this purpose, we have selected more than 7700 data points obtained from observations over five locations worldwide: Cabauw (CBW), Tianjin (TJN), California (CNX), SE US (SAS), and a wintertime NE US (WIN) study (Table 1). Each dataset displays a broad range of acidity, temperature, and relative humidity, and each has been thoroughly studied and evalu-
Table 1. Characteristics of the datasets used for determining the sensitivity to NH$_3$ and HNO$_3$ emissions. Shown is the average relative humidity (RH), temperature (K), and the concentration of major aerosol precursors (µg m$^{-3}$), while in the respective standard deviation for each parameter is shown in parenthesis. Access to the data is described in the “Code and data availability” section.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dataset ID, location, and reference</th>
<th>RH (%)</th>
<th>Temp. (K)</th>
<th>Sulfate (µg m$^{-3}$)</th>
<th>Total ammonium (µg m$^{-3}$)</th>
<th>Total nitrate (µg m$^{-3}$)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TJN, Tianjin, China (Shi et al., 2019)</td>
<td>56.6 (12.4)</td>
<td>301.8 (2.79)</td>
<td>21.46 (10.99)</td>
<td>37.74 (7.68)</td>
<td>18.12 (11.50)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CNX, Pasadena, CA, USA (Guo et al., 2017)</td>
<td>71.3 (15.5)</td>
<td>291.1 (4.26)</td>
<td>2.86 (1.70)</td>
<td>3.44 (1.81)</td>
<td>10.23 (9.74)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CBW, Cabauw, the Netherlands (Guo et al., 2018)</td>
<td>78.2 (14.8)</td>
<td>282.2 (7.3)</td>
<td>1.92 (1.57)</td>
<td>9.3 (6.8)</td>
<td>4.1 (3.9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WIN, eastern USA (Guo et al., 2016)</td>
<td>56.1 (18.9)</td>
<td>270.8 (6.52)</td>
<td>1.02 (0.08)</td>
<td>0.53 (0.44)</td>
<td>2.12 (2.08)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAS, Centerville, AL, USA (Guo et al., 2015)</td>
<td>72.7 (17.4)</td>
<td>297.9 (3.45)</td>
<td>1.81 (1.18)</td>
<td>0.78 (0.50)</td>
<td>0.12 (0.15)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4. Aerosol partitioning fraction for total ammonia/ammonium and nitric acid/nitrate for the five regions examined: (a) Cabauw – CBW, (b) CalNex – CNX, (c) Tianjin – TJN, (d) SOAS – SAS, and (e) E United States (WIN).

Figure 5. Chemical domains of sensitivity of aerosol to NH$_3$ and NO$_x$ emissions for five regions examined: (a) Cabauw – CBW, (b) CalNex – CNX, (c) Tianjin – TJN, (d) SOAS – SAS, and (e) E United States (WIN). Average composition, temperature, and humidity along with their variations (expressed by their standard deviation) are provided in Table 1.
to CBW and TJN; for these reasons, it belongs to the NH$_3$-sensitive regime (i.e., there is little NH$_4$NO$_3$ present in summer – even if total nitrate availability may be high). The California dataset is quite interesting, being one that partly occupies the insensitive region and then transitions to the combined NH$_3$–HNO$_3$ region; in this dataset, the combination of moderate NH$_3$ levels, temperature, and the fraction of NVCs from sea salt that is internally mixed with the other components makes aerosol sensitive to both NH$_3$ and HNO$_3$ variations. The wintertime eastern US dataset (WIN) corresponds to a broad region (aircraft data set), and hence the data naturally occupies multiple domains. The lower temperatures, however, prohibit most of the data from occupying any of the insensitive region; most of the data occupies the NH$_3$-sensitive regime, owing to the strong acidity and low liquid water content. One remarkable point, however, is that regardless of location, the transition point between NH$_3$-dominated and HNO$_3$-dominated sensitivity always occurs at a pH around 2 but at variable levels of liquid water content. The latter is important, as pH emerges as a required but not sufficient condition to determine the type of aerosol sensitivity: too little water (i.e., liquid water below the characteristic value $W^*_i$) and the aerosol can be insensitive to NH$_3$, even if the pH is as low as 2 (Fig. 5a). In the case of Cabauw conditions (Fig. 5a), where aerosol liquid water ranges from 7 to 15 µg m$^{-3}$, the transition pH from an aerosol that is exclusively sensitive to NO$_3^-$ precursor emissions to one that is sensitive to both NH$_3$ and NO$_3^-$ ranges from 2.8 and 3.2, which is in perfect agreement with the analysis of Guo et al. (2018). The additional insight that our framework shows is that the transition pH varies with temperature and logarithmically with aerosol liquid water content, in response to emissions and diurnal/seasonal variability and climate change. This insight, not apparent in the analysis of Guo et al. (2018), demonstrates the power and flexibility of the new framework.

4 Conclusions

Here we present a simple yet powerful way to understand when concentrations of nitric acid (HNO$_3$) and ammonia (NH$_3$) from anthropogenic and biogenic emissions can considerably modulate particulate matter (PM) concentrations worldwide. The conceptual framework explicitly considers acidity (pH), aerosol liquid water content, and temperature as the main parameters controlling secondary inorganic PM sensitivity, and it identifies four policy-relevant regimes: (i) NH$_3$ dominated, (ii) HNO$_3$ dominated, (iii) both NH$_3$ and HNO$_3$, and (iv) a previously unidentified domain where neither NH$_3$ nor HNO$_3$ are important for PM formation (but only nonvolatile precursors such as NVCs and sulfate). When this framework is applied to ambient measurements and predictions of PM and gaseous precursors, the “chemical regime” of PM sensitivity to emissions is directly determined, allowing novel insights and eventually an important tool to evaluate models. Given that if simulated aerosol is in the same sensitivity regime as suggested by thermodynamic analysis of observations, models are expected to provide plausible responses to changes in aerosol emissions. The framework can be used to identify regions or time periods where or when pH and liquid water content prediction errors matter for PM sensitivity assessments. With this deeper understanding, aerosol pH and associated liquid water content naturally emerge as policy-relevant parameters that have not been explicitly explored until now.

Code and data availability. User access to data used in this article is described in the citations referenced for each dataset and can also be accessed from the compiled dataset by Pye et al. (2019). The ISORROPIA II thermodynamic equilibrium code is available at http://isorropia.epfl.ch (last access: 3 March 2020; EPFL, 2020).

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Author contributions. AN initiated the study, developed the framework, carried out analysis of the data, and wrote the initial draft. All authors provided feedback on the analysis approach and extensively commented on the article.

Competing interests. The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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