

## REVIEW ARTICLE

### THE ATMOSPHERIC CHEMISTRY OF ORGANIC NITRATES

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**Abstract**—The chemistry of organic compounds containing the covalently-bound nitrate group is reviewed with the purpose of summarizing the state of knowledge concerning their importance in atmospheric chemistry. Information pertinent to the conduct of research is contained in sections titled Nomenclature; Preparation, Properties and Spectroscopic Data; and Measurement Techniques. Information specific to atmospheric chemistry is contained in sections titled Atmospheric Formation Processes, Atmospheric Removal Processes, Atmospheric Observations, and Modeling Studies. Areas of potential importance and areas of major uncertainty are identified throughout to provide focus for future research activities.

**Key word index:** Alkyl nitrates, peroxy-carboxylic nitric anhydrides, atmospheric chemistry.

#### INTRODUCTION

The oxides of nitrogen,  $\text{NO}_x$  ( $=\text{NO} + \text{NO}_2$ ) play a central role in the chemistry of the atmosphere (Leighton, 1961; Crutzen, 1979; Logan, 1983; Singh, 1987). These oxides and their photochemical products (collectively termed odd nitrogen,  $\text{NO}_y$ ) have tremendous importance in a variety of atmospheric processes such as acid formation, tropospheric and stratospheric ozone production and destruction, and urban- and regional-scale oxidant formation. Direct impacts of these compounds are human health impairment and phytotoxicity. It has been estimated that over half of the  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions to the atmosphere result from human activity (Logan, 1983); therefore it is crucial to understand the processes that govern the formation, removal and distribution (both spatial and chemical) of atmospheric  $\text{NO}_y$ , if the anthropogenic perturbation of the atmosphere is to be assessed. In order to achieve this understanding, the chemistry of compounds that constitute  $\text{NO}_y$  must be thoroughly studied.

For the purposes of this review the term "odd nitrogen" ( $\text{NO}_y$ ) is defined as the sum of  $\text{NO}_x$  plus all oxidized nitrogen species that represent sources or sinks of  $\text{NO}_x$  through processes that occur on relatively short time scales. Thus  $\text{NO}_y$  consists of  $\text{NO}$ ,  $\text{NO}_2$ , nitric acid ( $\text{HNO}_3$ ), inorganic aerosol nitrate ( $\text{NO}_3^-$ ), nitrous acid ( $\text{HNO}_2$ ), nitrate radical ( $\text{NO}_3$ ), peroxy-nitric acid ( $\text{HOONO}_2$ ), chlorine nitrate

( $\text{ClONO}_2$ ), dinitrogen pentoxide ( $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$ ), 'peroxyacetyl nitrate' (PAN), and other organic nitrates of various types. As will be seen later, this definition of  $\text{NO}_y$  has something of an empirical basis, reflecting not only chemical processes but also the methods used to measure total  $\text{NO}_y$  in the atmosphere. Although nitrous oxide ( $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ ) is an  $\text{NO}_x$  source in the upper atmosphere, and  $\text{NH}_3$  can be a source of  $\text{NO}_x$  under certain circumstances, these compounds are not usually considered  $\text{NO}_y$  compounds.

The major processes involved in the interconversion of  $\text{NO}_y$  among species are shown in Fig. 1. Nitric oxide and  $\text{NO}_2$  are rapidly interconverted ( $\tau \leq 100$  s) through the reaction of  $\text{NO}$  with  $\text{O}_3$  and the photolysis of  $\text{NO}_2$  by solar radiation. These two processes, in conjunction with the reaction of atomic oxygen (from  $\text{NO}_2$  photolysis) with  $\text{O}_2$  to form  $\text{O}_3$ , comprise what has been termed a 'photostationary state'. The reactions of  $\text{HO}_2$ ,  $\text{RO}_2$ , and  $\text{ClO}$  with  $\text{NO}$  represent perturbations on this photostationary state which lead to the net formation of  $\text{O}_3$ , evidence from tropospheric measurements suggesting that there is nearly always an imbalance due to these additional reactions (Kelly *et al.*, 1980; Bollinger, 1982; Parrish *et al.*, 1986; Carroll *et al.*, 1987; Singh *et al.*, 1988). The major pathway for the removal of  $\text{NO}_y$  from the atmosphere appears to be through reaction of  $\text{NO}_2$  (with  $\text{OH}$ ) to form  $\text{HNO}_3$  and subsequent wet and dry deposition of  $\text{HNO}_3$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$ . The remaining inorganic species shown in Fig. 1,  $\text{HNO}_2$ ,  $\text{NO}_3$ ,  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$ ,  $\text{ClONO}_2$ ,  $\text{HOONO}_2$  are photolytically and/or thermally unstable and therefore represent reservoir species, which are, at times, involved in very important chemistry. The reactions of  $\text{NO}_3$  with organic compounds can be an efficient loss process for some compounds (Carter *et al.*, 1981; Winer *et al.*, 1984). The uptake of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$  on

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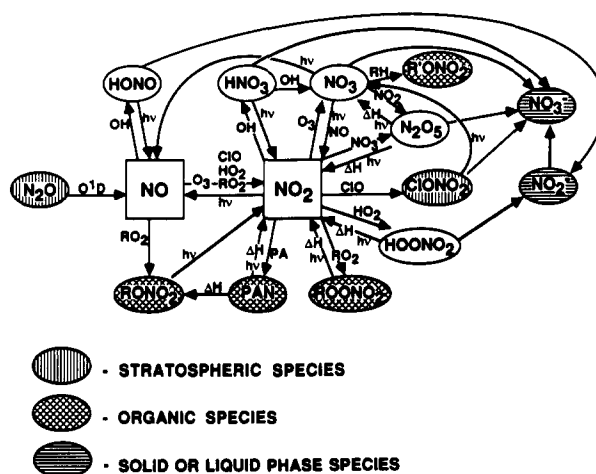


Fig. 1. Tropospheric and stratospheric odd-nitrogen cycle.

particles and fog and cloud droplets may represent a significant process leading to acid deposition. The heterogeneous chemistry of  $\text{ClONO}_2$  on ice is extremely important in stratospheric chemistry because such reactions involve both the removal of  $\text{NO}_y$  (as  $\text{NO}_3^-$ ) and the liberation of active chlorine (Molina *et al.*, 1987; Tolbert *et al.*, 1987).

This review will demonstrate that organic nitrates (defined as organic compounds containing the covalently-bound  $-\text{ONO}_2$  group) are important  $\text{NO}_y$  reservoir species. Atmospheric measurements show that PAN is often present in concentrations much greater than  $\text{NO}_x$  in the global atmosphere (Singh *et al.*, 1985). In addition, the measurement of the individual  $\text{NO}_y$  species,  $\text{NO}_x$ ,  $\text{HNO}_3$ , particulate  $\text{NO}_3^-$ , and PAN, in parallel with measurements of total  $\text{NO}_y$ , indicate that in some circumstances there can be substantial fractions of unaccounted-for  $\text{NO}_y$  (Fahey *et al.*, 1986; Williams *et al.*, 1987; Singh *et al.*, 1988). This  $\text{NO}_y$  'deficit' is very likely comprised of organic nitrates. Since these organic nitrates have much longer lifetimes than other inorganic  $\text{NO}_y$  species, they have an important effect on the geographic distribution of  $\text{NO}_y$ . Organic nitrate chemistry is an area in which the atmospheric cycles of nitrogen and organic carbon are strongly coupled. The far-reaching and long-term changes that are occurring in these cycles will quite probably be manifested in dramatic changes in the spatial and chemical distribution of organic nitrates. In fact, there is already some evidence that this is happening.

This review summarizes what is known concerning the atmospheric chemistry of organic nitrates, and identifies major areas of uncertainty. Another goal of this review is to compile and summarize data pertinent to the conduct of research on organic nitrates. The review is organized into sections entitled: Nomenclature; Preparation, Properties and Spectroscopic Data; Atmospheric Formation Processes; Atmospheric Removal Processes; Measurement Techniques; Atmos-

pheric Observations; Modeling Studies; and Conclusions.

#### NOMENCLATURE

For historical reasons the nomenclature of organic chemistry contains numerous misnomers and ambiguities and that of organic nitrates is no exception. The most widely known organic nitrate name "nitroglycerin" is a misnomer, it should be called glycerol trinitrate. Martinez (1980) points out that the most familiar atmospheric organic nitrate, "peroxyacetyl nitrate" (PAN), also has been misnamed and should be called ethaneperoxoic nitric anhydride (EPNA), since it is a mixed acid anhydride. A cursory glance through the recent literature finds the prefixes nitro-, nitrate-, nitroxy-, and nitrooxy- used to denote the covalently bound  $-\text{ONO}_2$  group. For the purposes of facilitating communication and eliminating errors and uncertainties, it is useful to discuss the nomenclature of organic nitrates here. Although not explicitly covered in this review, organic nitrates will be included in the nomenclature discussion. The emphasis here is on the elimination of structural ambiguities, so common names such as 'acetic' acid need not be replaced by the more formal ethanoic acid.

Compounds of the structural type  $\text{RONO}$ ,  $\text{RONO}_2$  and  $\text{ROONO}_2$ , where R is a simple alkyl or aryl group, are esters of the alcohol  $\text{ROH}$  with the corresponding acids, nitrous acid ( $\text{HONO}$ ), nitric acid ( $\text{HONO}_2$ ) and peroxyntic acid ( $\text{HOONO}_2$ ). Hence, they are termed nitrites, nitrates or peroxy nitrates. Since esters are dehydration products of an alcohol and an acid, the nomenclature of the organic group follows directly from that of the parent alcohol. For example, the names methyl nitrite, benzyl nitrate, and *n*-propyl peroxy nitrate unambiguously refer to the compounds  $\text{CH}_3\text{ONO}$ ,  $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{CH}_2\text{ONO}_2$ , and  $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{OONO}_2$ , respectively. This is the most straightforward way to name  $\text{R-ONO}_2$  compounds

and should be used wherever possible (IUPAC rule 5.33 for esters of oxo acids, 1965).

In naming complicated compounds, having several functional groups, it is often necessary or desirable to refer to the nitrogen group as a substituent by using a prefix name. The formally accepted anion, ligand and prefix names, and corresponding structures of nitrogen oxide groups, are summarized in Table 1 (IUPAC, 1977). The anion names are the same as the ester names discussed above with the exception of peroxonitrate. The ligand names are used to describe the structures of coordination complexes in which the ligand-metal bond is ionic in character. In general, such ligand-metal bonds are weaker than the bonds within the ligand molecule. In the case of the  $\text{NO}_2$  group, ligand bonds can occur either through the nitrogen (nitro) or an oxygen (nitrito).

Substituent names are used to describe compounds in which a covalent bond exists. For the purposes of this review, this means a carbon-oxygen or carbon-nitrogen bond. The proper name for the  $-\text{ONO}_2$  substituent is "nitrooxy" (pronounced nitro-oxy), which is derived from the nitro ( $-\text{NO}_2$ ) substituent and the term "oxy" which refers to the  $-\text{O}-$  linkage. Similarly, the term nitrosooxy (pronounced nitroso-oxy) ( $-\text{O}-\text{N}=\text{O}$ ) follows from the terms "nitroso" ( $-\text{N}=\text{O}$ ) and "oxy". Thus it is clear that the terms "nitro" and "nitrate" are not to be used to describe the covalent  $-\text{ONO}_2$  substituent. The term "nitroxy", a natural contraction of "nitrooxy", is probably not misleading to an experienced chemist, hence is acceptable. However, a novice wishing to 'look it up' will not find nitroxy in descriptions of nomenclature.

The IUPAC rules give no definitive name for the substituent  $-\text{OONO}_2$ ; however, one can be constructed in the same manner as that for "nitrooxy". Since the IUPAC rules specify the term "dioxy" be used to denote the  $-\text{O}-\text{O}-$  linkage (IUPAC, 1977), the name "nitrodioxy" is arrived at. Although this name is the most proper, dioxy is not commonly used. A substitution of the term "peroxy" results in "nitroperoxy", which sounds better and should permit unambiguous arrival at the correct structure.

Organic compounds are often named by linking two different group names. Such was the case with

peroxyacetyl nitrate  $\text{CH}_3\text{C}(\text{O})\text{OONO}_2$  (Stephens *et al.*, 1961). However, as pointed out by Martinez (1980) the term "peroxyacetyl nitrate" is more appropriate to the structure  $\text{CH}_3\text{C}(\text{O})\text{OOONO}_2$ . In either case, the name does not conform to IUPAC conventions, but more importantly leads to ambiguity. Compounds such as PAN are not esters of  $\text{HNO}_3$  but rather anhydrides of two different acids, commonly known as mixed anhydrides. According to IUPAC Rule No. C-491.3, mixed anhydrides are named by giving the specific part of each acid name, in alphabetical order or order of complexity, followed by the term "anhydride". As a consequence, the name ethaneperoxyacetic nitric anhydride is the proper name for the "PAN" compound. Unfortunately, this leads to a different acronym, EPNA, a fact which may partially explain why the proper name has not been widely adopted. A proposed compromise recognizes the anhydride structure of the compound, but retains the acronym "PAN", as denoting peroxyacetic nitric anhydride. This convention permits the retention of the other acronyms, PPN, peroxypropionic nitric anhydride and PBzN for peroxybenzoic nitric anhydride, commonly employed in the literature. The class of compounds should be referred to as peroxycarboxylic nitric anhydrides.

#### PREPARATION, PROPERTIES AND SPECTROSCOPIC DATA

The synthetic methods discussed in this section will be limited to liquid phase chemistry, and gas phase chemistry carried out under anoxic conditions. Gas phase synthetic routes in the presence of oxygen will be discussed in a subsequent section since these are essentially the atmospheric formation mechanisms. The physical properties presented here have been assembled with the intent of providing a convenient references. The infrared (i.r.) and proton nuclear magnetic resonance ( $^1\text{H}$  NMR) spectral data, and mass spectrometric data are compiled here to provide a guide to the qualitative characterization and quantitative determination of these compounds.

The synthesis of nitrate esters,  $\text{RONO}_2$ , is generally accomplished through esterification of the parent

Table 1. Nomenclature of nitrogen oxide groups\*

Group	Anion	Ligand	Substituent
$\text{NO}_2$	Nitrite	Nitro	Nitro, $-\text{N} \begin{array}{c} \diagup \text{O} \\ \diagdown \text{O} \end{array}$
		Nitrito	Nitrosooxy, $-\text{O}-\text{N}=\text{O}$
$\text{NO}_3$	Nitrate	Nitrato	Nitrooxy, $-\text{O}-\text{N} \begin{array}{c} \diagup \text{O} \\ \diagdown \text{O} \end{array}$
$\text{NO}_4$	Peroxonitrate	—	Nitroperoxy†, $-\text{O}-\text{O}-\text{N} \begin{array}{c} \diagup \text{O} \\ \diagdown \text{O} \end{array}$

\* From IUPAC (1977).

† Proposed herein, see text for discussion.

alcohol, ROH, in nitric or mixed acid solution, or by reaction of the corresponding alkyl halide, RX, with silver nitrate or mercury (I/II) nitrate. However, more specialized methods have been used for the preparation of nitrates, especially those having other functional groups. The preparation of peroxyalkyl nitrates,  $\text{ROONO}_2$ , and the peroxycarboxylic nitric anhydrides,  $\text{RC(O)OONO}_2$ , has been accomplished through the reaction of the corresponding organic peroxy compound, ROOH or  $\text{RC(O)OOH}$ , with nitric acid in acidic solution or with  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$  in non-aqueous solvents.

Simple nitrate esters have been synthesized for a wide range of hydrocarbon substituents. The preparations of 38 different nitrates by alcohol-acid esterification, or reaction of the parent halide with  $\text{AgNO}_3$  under a variety of conditions, has been summarized by Boschan *et al.* (1955). Acid esterifications must be carried out by slow addition of the alcohol to cold acid in order to minimize the oxidation of the organic group or the formation of nitrate ion, both of which can lead to explosion. Preparation of nitrates through reactions of organic halides with  $\text{AgNO}_3$  has been proven useful. The reaction can be carried out either in heterogeneous systems wherein  $\text{AgNO}_3$  and the product  $\text{AgX}$  ( $\text{X}=\text{Cl}, \text{Br}, \text{I}$ ) are insoluble, or in  $\text{CH}_3\text{CN}$  solution saturated with  $\text{AgNO}_3$ . Bromides or iodides must be used for the preparation of simple primary or secondary nitrates, but chlorides may be used where sufficiently reactive (tertiary, allylic or benzylic groups). The main disadvantages of this method are the expense and photosensitivity of  $\text{AgNO}_3$ . Several methods have been developed to avoid the safety problems of direct acid esterification or the expense of the  $\text{AgNO}_3$  method, either by reaction of mercuric or mercurous nitrates with the parent halide, (McKillop and Ford, 1974) or reactions of primary amines (Katritzky and Marzorati, 1980) or alcohols (Olah *et al.*, 1978) with specialized organic reagents.

Nitrate esters with more than one functional group can be somewhat more difficult to prepare. Nitric acid esterification with the di- and trialcohols leads to the formation of only the di- and trinitrates, for example glycerol trinitrate (commonly termed nitroglycerin). Primary nitrate esters of di- and trihydroxy compounds can be made through the use of a selective nitrating reagent, thionyl chloride nitrate [ $\text{ClS(O)ONO}_2$ ] (Hakimelahi, 1984). The reactions of  $\text{AgNO}_3$  with bromohydrins (Henry, 1872; Marans and Zelinski, 1950) and  $\text{HNO}_3$  with ethylene oxide ring (oxirane) compounds (Hanriot, 1879; Nichols *et al.*, 1953) have also been used to make hydroxy nitrate esters. The former technique suffers from side reactions, the latter yields both isomers from unsymmetrical oxirane compounds. The occurrence of the oxirane reaction and the facility with which ethers can be hydrolyzed in strong acid suggest that the reaction of cyclic ethers with nitric acid is a synthetic route to hydroxy nitrates. Compounds of the  $\alpha$ -nitrooxy ketone type,  $\text{RC(O)CH}_2\text{ONO}_2$ , have been prepared either by reaction of the  $\alpha$ -bromo ketone

with  $\text{AgNO}_3$  (Ferris *et al.*, 1953; Kornblum and Frazier, 1966) or by reaction of the parent ketone with thallium (III) trinitrate (McKillop *et al.*, 1978). In both methods, the major impurities produced are the  $\alpha$ -dicarbonyl compounds formed via oxidative elimination.

The first suggestion that PAN could be synthesized in the liquid phase was given by Stephens (1969), who noted that both reaction of peroxyacetic acid with nitric acid (in mixed acid solution), and the treatment of peroxyacetic acid with silver nitrate yielded PAN. However, Stephens discounted both of these as useful synthetic methods, perhaps because of the success of the gas phase methods (to be discussed later) available at that time. The work of Louw *et al.* (1975) demonstrated that reaction of peroxycarboxylic acids with  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$  in  $\text{CH}_2\text{Cl}_2$  solution, or  $\text{HNO}_3$  in  $\text{SO}_3/\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$  could be a viable synthetic route to peroxycarboxylic nitric anhydrides. This basic method has been used in a number of subsequent studies (Hendry and Kenley, 1977; Kravetz *et al.*, 1980; Nielsen *et al.*, 1982; Gaffney *et al.*, 1984). The latter three references describe procedures that permit the preparation of high purity peroxyacetic nitric anhydride in alkane solvents for use as measurement standards. Syntheses involving peroxycarboxylic acids are inherently limited by the stability of the organic substituent in highly acid and oxidizing solution. For example, such syntheses of peroxyacrylic,  $[\text{CH}_2\text{CHC(O)OONO}_2]$ , or peroxymethacrylic,  $[\text{CH}_2\text{C}(\text{CH}_3)\text{C(O)OONO}_2]$ , nitric anhydrides may not be possible due to tendency of these conjugated alkenes to polymerize.

Liquid phase syntheses of esters of peroxyntic acid,  $\text{ROONO}_2$ , have been reported in three different studies. Lachowicz and Krevz (1967) and Duynstee *et al.* (1971) report the preparation of  $\beta$ -nitroalkyl peroxyntates,  $\text{RCH}(\text{NO}_2)\text{CH}_2\text{OONO}_2$ , from the reaction of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_4$  and  $\text{O}_2$  with olefins in hexane solution. Partially in response to the work of Stephens (1969), Duynstee *et al.* (1973) undertook the synthesis of *t*-butyl and methyl peroxyntates by reaction of the corresponding dialkyl peroxide with  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$  in  $\text{CHCl}_3$  solution, however the results were somewhat ambiguous. Trifluoromethyl peroxyntate has been synthesized through the reactions of  $\text{CF}_3\text{OOH}$  and  $\text{CF}_3\text{OOF}$  with  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$  and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_4$ , respectively (Hohorst and Des Marteau, 1974).

The purification of reaction products is limited by the thermal and mechanical instability of many of the nitrate compounds. Indeed for some compounds, such as PAN and glycerol trinitrate, it is not advisable to isolate the pure liquid (Stephens, 1969). As a rule, organic nitrates are not very soluble in water, thus it is often possible to wash a reaction mixture with water to remove the more soluble impurities. PAN prepared from peroxyacetic acid in alkane solution, and alkyl nitrates prepared as pure liquids from alcohols ( $\leq \text{C}_4$ ), are easily purified in this way. Reaction mixtures can often be fractionally distilled if care is taken to stay well below the thermal decomposition temperature of

the nitrate and provided that a high boiling solvent is added to the flask to prevent concentration of explosive impurities. The above temperature limitation often requires distillation under vacuum.

Some physical properties of organic nitrates are compiled in Table 2, for compounds that have been isolated in the condensed phase, and for which condensed phase properties have been determined. These data are listed here to provide a reference for the chemical characterization or measurement of these compounds, and to suggest how these compounds might be distributed between the gas and aerosol phases in the atmosphere. In general, the nitric acid esters are slightly less volatile than the corresponding alcohol. Due to thermal instability, the boiling points of  $\text{CF}_3\text{OONO}_2$  and PAN at 760 torr were obtained by extrapolation of vapor pressure values at lower temperatures. However, it is not clear that these measurements were free of thermal decomposition problems. This is evident from the data of Kacmarek *et al.* (1977), listed in Table 3, along with the corresponding PAN thermal decomposition lifetime. Because of the short PAN lifetime at the higher temperature the vapor pressure measurement may be in error (too high) depending on the fate of the decomposition products.

Spectroscopic methods have provided the backbone for research in atmospheric chemistry and have been particularly important in the study of organic nitrate chemistry. Infrared absorption spectroscopy has proven to be the most powerful technique for structural determination and is the method of choice for gas phase mechanistic studies. Nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy has been useful in structural studies where a relatively pure product can be isolated. Mass spectrometry has seen only limited use in the analysis of organic nitrates; however chemical- and photoionization techniques appear to be more useful than the traditional electron impact methods.

Early electron diffraction studies of fluorine nitrate and methyl nitrate (Pauling and Brockway, 1937), interpreted with simple models, indicated a planar  $\text{O}-\text{NO}_2$  group with the  $\text{F}-$  or  $\text{CH}_3-$  perpendicular to the plane, although the planar configuration for these could not be ruled out. Subsequent spectroscopic studies and molecular orbital calculations of nitric acid (Maxwell and Moseley, 1940), methyl nitrate (Cox and Waring, 1971; Odeurs *et al.*, 1984; Bock *et al.*, 1985) and halogen nitrates (Arvia *et al.*, 1963; Miller *et al.*, 1967; McGrath *et al.*, 1988) established the coplanarity of the heavy atoms in  $\text{R}-\text{ONO}_2$  molecules. Ethyl nitrate has been shown by microwave spectroscopy to have the preferred *trans* structure shown in Fig. 2 (Scroggin *et al.*, 1974).

Infrared absorption frequencies have been compiled in Table 4 for molecules containing the  $-\text{O}-\text{NO}_2$  group. The major features of these spectra are the  $-\text{NO}_2$  asymmetric [ $\nu_a(\text{NO}_2)$ ] and symmetric [ $\nu_s(\text{NO}_2)$ ] stretches, the  $\text{O}-\text{N}$  [ $\nu(\text{NO})$ ] stretch and the  $\text{NO}_2$  out-of-plane bending [ $\gamma_w(\text{NO}_2)$ ] modes. Assignments of the frequencies to each band appear to be in

agreement throughout for  $\nu_a(\text{NO}_2)$ ,  $\nu_s(\text{NO}_2)$  and  $\gamma_w(\text{NO}_2)$  modes. Some disagreement exists between the assignments for the  $\text{O}-\text{N}$  stretching vs  $\text{NO}_2$  scissors  $\delta(\text{NO}_2)$  mode for the inorganic nitrates (Arvia *et al.*, 1963; Miller *et al.*, 1967). The assignments for nitric acid esters follow those of Bock *et al.* (1985) and Brand and Cawthon (1955). The assignments for  $\nu(\text{NO})$  in peroxyxynitrate esters follow those of Hohorst and DeMarteau (1974). Absorptivities (or band strengths) have been reported for several peroxyxynitrate carboxylic nitric anhydrides by Stephens (1964), Heuss and Glasson (1968), Glasson and Heuss (1977), Edney *et al.* (1979b), Gaffney *et al.* (1984), Niki *et al.* (1985) and Rogers and Rhead (1987).

The nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectroscopy of organic nitrates has not been studied extensively; however, since it is routinely used for structure and purity determination, it will be summarized here. Early work of Hammond (1962) on the proton NMR of methyl nitrate demonstrates that the electronegativity of the nitrate group causes a downfield shift,  $\delta=4.15$  ( $\text{CCl}_4$ ), relative to unsubstituted compounds. The methyl hydrogen resonance is also broader than typical proton resonances. The proton resonances of  $\alpha$  hydrogens in simple alkyl nitrates fall in the range  $\delta=4.1-4.6$ , and are somewhat solvent-dependent. The  $\alpha$  proton resonances of alkyl groups having other functionalities exhibit additivity of substituent effects, for example: allyl  $\delta=4.91$  ( $\text{CDCl}_3$ ), methylallyl  $\delta=4.84$  ( $\text{CDCl}_3$ ), and benzyl  $\delta=5.4$  ( $\text{CDCl}_3$ ) (Ochiai *et al.*, 1984). Compilation of  $^1\text{H}$  NMR data for nitrate esters should permit the formulation of group additivity relations that could be used to predict chemical shifts of new compounds.

Observations of the NMR spectra of peroxyxynitrates are sparse. Duynstee *et al.* (1973) report a sharp  $^1\text{H}$  resonance at  $\delta=4.17$  in  $\text{CDCl}_3$  at  $-30^\circ\text{C}$  for  $\text{CH}_3\text{OONO}_2$ . Lachowicz and Krevz (1967) report  $\delta=4.90$  for the  $\alpha$  protons of 2-nitroperoxy-nitrodecane. The methyl proton resonance of PAN has been observed by Nicksic *et al.* (1967) and Kravetz *et al.* (1980) to be solvent-dependent, varying from  $\delta=2.28$  in pure  $\text{CCl}_4$  to  $\delta=1.29$  in benzene solution. Kravetz *et al.* (1980) have interpreted this to be due to PAN-benzene complex formation.

Nitrogen NMR is a technique that may have considerable utility in the characterization of organic nitrates. As will be seen in a later section, sensitive methods are available for the measurement of total odd-nitrogen ( $\text{NO}_y$ ) in a gas stream, and these methods have been applied to the quantitation of organic nitrate standard streams. Thus it is desirable to have a nitrogen-specific method of chemical characterization of products to be used as standards. The technique of  $^{14}\text{N}$  NMR appears to be ideal for this purpose (Witanowski and Webb, 1973).

The mass spectra of organic nitrates have been studied by electron impact (Stephens *et al.*, 1961; Stephens, 1961, 1969; Fraser and Paul, 1968a,b; Heuss and Glasson, 1968; Louw *et al.*, 1975), photoionization

Table 2. Physical properties of organic nitrates of potential atmospheric importance

Name	Structural formula	Molecular weight*	Melting point (°C)	Boiling point (°C) pressure (torr)	Density	Reference
<i>Nitric acid esters</i>						
Methyl	CH <sub>3</sub> ONO <sub>2</sub>	77.04	-82.3	64.6/760	1.2075 <sup>20</sup>	Cowley and Partington, 1933
Ethyl	CH <sub>3</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> ONO <sub>2</sub>	91.07	-94.6	87.2/762	1.1084 <sup>20</sup>	Cowley and Partington, 1933
n-Propyl	CH <sub>3</sub> (CH <sub>2</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> ONO <sub>2</sub>	105.09	—	110/762	1.0538 <sup>20</sup>	Vogel, 1948
2-Propyl	(CH <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> CHONO <sub>2</sub>	105.09	—	101.7/760	1.043 <sup>20</sup>	Steinburger <i>et al.</i> , 1955
2-Propenyl	CH <sub>2</sub> CHCH <sub>2</sub> ONO <sub>2</sub>	103.08	—	102-106	—	Pattison and Brown, 1956
n-Butyl	CH <sub>3</sub> (CH <sub>2</sub> ) <sub>3</sub> ONO <sub>2</sub>	119.12	—	135.5/763	1.0228 <sup>30</sup>	Vogel, 1948
2-Butyl	CH <sub>3</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> CH(CH <sub>3</sub> )ONO <sub>2</sub>	119.12	—	124/760	1.029 <sup>20</sup>	Kornblum <i>et al.</i> , 1948
Methyl propyl	CH <sub>3</sub> CH(CH <sub>3</sub> )CH <sub>2</sub> ONO <sub>2</sub>	119.12	—	59/80	1.0152 <sup>20</sup>	Lowenherz, 1890
1,1 Dimethyl ethyl	(CH <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>3</sub> CONO <sub>2</sub>	119.12	-34-35	22-23/4.0	—	Gray and Pratt, 1957
4-Chlorobutyl	Cl(CH <sub>2</sub> ) <sub>4</sub> ONO <sub>2</sub>	153.56	—	92-93/11	—	Lucas and Hammett, 1942
2-Methyl-2-propenyl	CH <sub>2</sub> C(CH <sub>3</sub> )CH <sub>2</sub> ONO <sub>2</sub>	117.11	—	83-88/215	1.064	Pattison and Brown, 1956
n-Pentyl	CH <sub>3</sub> (CH <sub>2</sub> ) <sub>4</sub> ONO <sub>2</sub>	133.15	—	157/760	0.996 <sup>20</sup>	Ferris <i>et al.</i> , 1953
3-Methyl butyl	(CH <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> CH(CH <sub>2</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> ONO <sub>2</sub>	133.15	—	47-48/9.5	BI <sup>3</sup> 1612§	Ross <i>et al.</i> , 1968
2-Pentyl	CH <sub>3</sub> (CH <sub>2</sub> ) <sub>3</sub> CH(CH <sub>3</sub> )ONO <sub>2</sub>	133.15	—	144	0.9971 <sup>20</sup>	Schiff, 1886
2-Methyl-2-butyl	(CH <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> C(CH <sub>2</sub> CH <sub>3</sub> )ONO <sub>2</sub>	133.15	—	118-120/240	0.992 <sup>20</sup>	Harkins <i>et al.</i> , 1920
Cyclopentyl	CH <sub>2</sub> (CH <sub>2</sub> ) <sub>3</sub> CHONO <sub>2</sub>	131.13	—	52/12	1.010 <sup>26</sup>	BI <sup>3</sup> 1605
n-Hexyl	CH <sub>3</sub> (CH <sub>2</sub> ) <sub>5</sub> ONO <sub>2</sub>	147.18	—	26-27/5	—	Kuhn, 1946
Cyclohexyl	CH <sub>2</sub> (CH <sub>2</sub> ) <sub>4</sub> CHONO <sub>2</sub>	145.16	—	161/760	1.1261	Michael and Carlson, 1935
2-Heptyl	CH <sub>3</sub> (CH <sub>2</sub> ) <sub>4</sub> CH(CH <sub>3</sub> )ONO <sub>2</sub>	161.20	—	74/30	—	Kornblum and Teitelbaum, 1952
4-Heptyl	(CH <sub>3</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> CHONO <sub>2</sub>	161.20	—	~171/760	—	BI <sup>3</sup> 1657
n-Octyl	CH <sub>3</sub> (CH <sub>2</sub> ) <sub>7</sub> ONO <sub>2</sub>	175.23	—	67-69/12	1.1043	Pattison and Brown, 1956
2-Octyl	CH <sub>3</sub> (CH <sub>2</sub> ) <sub>5</sub> CH(CH <sub>3</sub> )ONO <sub>2</sub>	175.23	—	181/760	0.9621 <sup>20</sup>	Kornblum and Teitelbaum, 1952
n-Decyl	CH <sub>3</sub> (CH <sub>2</sub> ) <sub>9</sub> ONO <sub>2</sub>	203.28	—	98-100/40	—	BI <sup>4</sup> 1741
n-Dodecyl	CH <sub>3</sub> (CH <sub>2</sub> ) <sub>11</sub> ONO <sub>2</sub>	231.34	—	85/25	—	Kornblum <i>et al.</i> , 1955
			—	110-112/20	0.8419 <sup>17</sup>	BI 419
			—	90-91/8	—	Ross <i>et al.</i> , 1968
			—	92.5-94.5/18	0.951	Shriner and Parker, 1933
			—	82-83/8	—	Ross <i>et al.</i> , 1968
			—	127-128/11	0.951 <sup>2</sup>	BI 425
			—	143-144/5	—	Pattison and Brown, 1956

Benzyl	$C_6H_5CH_2ONO_2$	153.14	—	107–111/22 101–104/12 95/11	—	Olah <i>et al.</i> , 1978 Pattison and Brown, 1956 Ross <i>et al.</i> , 1968
<i>p</i> -Methyl benzyl	$p-CH_3C_6H_4CH_2ONO_2$	167.17	—	43/0.5 115–118/10 60/0.2	—	Baker and Nathan, 1936 Katritzky and Mazorati, 1980 Baker and Nathan, 1936 Ross <i>et al.</i> , 1968
3,5-Dimethyl benzyl	$(CH_3)_2C_6H_3CH_2ONO_2$	181.19	—	44–49/0.015	—	Ross <i>et al.</i> , 1968
<i>p</i> -Chloro benzyl	$p-ClC_6H_4CH_2ONO_2$	187.56	—	58–60/0.25	—	Ross <i>et al.</i> , 1968
<i>p</i> -Nitro benzyl	$p-NO_2C_6H_4CH_2ONO_2$	198.15	66–68	109/7	—	Ross <i>et al.</i> , 1968
Nitric acid diesters						
Ethylene glycol	$CH_2(ONO_2)CH_2ONO_2$	152.06	—	25/0.071	1.4956 <sup>15</sup>	Crater, 1929
1,2-Propylene glycol	$CH_3CH(ONO_2)CH_2ONO_2$	166.09	—	25/0.098	1.3939 <sup>15</sup>	Crater, 1929
Hydroxy nitric acid esters						
2-Nitrooxyethanol	$HOCH_2CH_2ONO_2$	107.07	—	75/5 44–46/1	1.333 <sup>25</sup> 1.3483 <sup>20</sup>	Marans and Zelinski, 1950 Nichols <i>et al.</i> , 1953
Nitrooxypropanol	$C_3H_7NO_3$	121.09	—	50–52/1	1.2233	Nichols <i>et al.</i> , 1953
3-Nitrooxy propanol	$CH_2(ONO_2)CH_2CH_2OH$	121.09	—	123–124/42	—	Pattison and Brown, 1956
3-Nitrooxy-2-butanol	$CH_3CH(ONO_2)CH(OH)CH_3$	135.12	—	103–104/16 44–45/1	1.1811	Nichols <i>et al.</i> , 1953
Peroxy nitric acid esters						
Trifluoro methyl	$CF_3OONO_2$	147.01	—	0.9/760 <sup>¶</sup>	1.682 <sup>-58</sup>	Hohorst and DesMarteau, 1974
1,1 Dimethyl ethyl	$(CH_3)_3COONO_2$	135.12	—	~22/11	—	Duynstee <i>et al.</i> , 1973
Peroxy carboxylic nitric anhydrides						
Peroxyacetic (PAN)	$CH_3C(O)OONO_2$	121.05	–48.5	104/760 <sup>¶</sup>	—	Kacmarek <i>et al.</i> , 1977
Peroxybenzoic (PBzN)	$C_6H_5C(O)OONO_2$			37/0.2	—	Heuss and Glasson, 1968
<i>m</i> -Chloroperoxybenzoic	$m-ClC_6H_4C(O)OONO_2$	217.56	–15	—	—	Louw <i>et al.</i> , 1975
<i>p</i> -Nitroperoxybenzoic	$p-NO_2C_6H_4C(O)OONO_2$	228.12	43	—	—	Louw <i>et al.</i> , 1975
2-Peroxy naphthoic	$C_{10}H_7C(O)OONO_2$	233.18	64–65	—	—	Louw <i>et al.</i> , 1975

\* Average based on natural isotope abundances.

† Where no pressure was reported, 760 torr is to be assumed.

‡ The superscript denotes the temperature of the material, the subscript the temperature of pure water used as the density standard.

§ Beilstein's Handbook, BI<sup>3</sup> 1612 denotes p. 1612 of the third supplement to Volume 1.

|| A mixture of the two vicinal isomers.

¶ Extrapolated from vapor pressure–temperature data.

Table 3. Vapor pressure and decomposition lifetime of PAN vs temperature

Temperature (K)	$P_{\text{VAP}}$ (torr)*	$\tau$ (sec)†
277.15	9.5	$5.6 \times 10^4$
285.85	14.9	$1.4 \times 10^4$
290.40	19.5	6900
293.55	23.1	4400
300.80	34.0	1600
307.50	47.3	630
315.95	71.5	210
330.15	108.8	38

\* From Kacmarek *et al.* (1977).

† See data in later section.

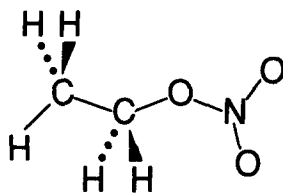
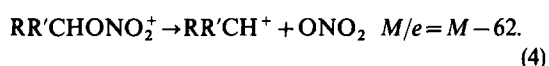
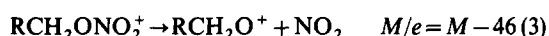
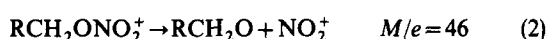


Fig. 2. The structure of ethyl nitrate.

(Kacmarek *et al.*, 1977; Tagaki *et al.*, 1981a) and chemical ionization (Pate *et al.*, 1976; Suzuki *et al.*, 1978; Das *et al.*, 1979; Atlas, 1988). The fragmentation processes characteristic of organic nitrates under photo- and electron impact ionization are summarized below:



The results of Takagi *et al.* (1981a) obtained with an (11.83 eV and 11.62 eV) Ar photoionization source, and 70 eV electron impact source indicate that only process (2) is operative in the case of PI of methyl nitrate, while EI appears to also proceed by process (3). In  $\text{C}_2$ – $\text{C}_4$  primary alkyl nitrates (Suzuki *et al.*, 1978; Das *et al.*, 1979; Takagi *et al.*, 1981a) processes (1) and (2) predominate for both PI and EI, and significant ion abundances are observed at  $M/e=29$  ( $\text{CHO}^+$ ,  $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5^+$ ),  $30(\text{NO}^+$ ,  $\text{CH}_3\text{O}^+)$  and  $31(\text{CH}_3\text{O}^+)$ . The PI mass spectra are less complicated than EI, which contain some common ions  $M/e=29$  ( $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5^+$ ),  $43(\text{C}_3\text{H}_7^+ + \text{CH}_3\text{CO}^+)$ , etc. Although no significant  $M/e=M-46$  ions are observed,  $\text{C}_2$ – $\text{C}_4$  alkyl nitrates, ethylene and 1, 2-propylene glycol dinitrates exhibit significant  $M-76$  ( $\text{CH}_2\text{ONO}_2$ ) fragmentation in PI and EI. Cyclic nitrates ( $\text{C}_5$ – $\text{C}_7$ ) exhibit complicated mass spectra from both PI and EI with  $M/e=M-62$ , arising from process (4), as a major

ion. The benzyl nitrate mass spectrum was comprised mainly of the parent ion,  $M/e=153$ , and  $M-46$  ( $M/e=107$ ), in the PI mode, and the EI spectrum was more characteristic of aromatic hydrocarbons with the ions  $M/e=77$  and  $91$  present in high abundance. Positive ion chemical ionization of nitrates leads to observable abundances of  $(M+1)^+$  and  $(M-1)^+$  ions and simpler fragmentation patterns arising from the above processes, however, masses larger than  $M$  are also observed, especially in the cases of methyl and ethyl nitrate (Suzuki *et al.*, 1978; Das *et al.*, 1979). Negative ion chemical ionization (NICI) mass spectra of  $\text{RONO}_2$  compounds of 3–7 carbons have recently been reported by Atlas (1988). The major features of these spectra are base peaks of  $M/e=46$  ( $\text{NO}_2^-$ ), and major peaks at  $M/e=57+14n$ , where  $n=0-5$  and increases with carbon number. This series corresponds to the loss of  $\text{H}_2$  from the  $\text{RCH}_2\text{O}^-$  ion (Hayes *et al.*, 1985).

The EI mass spectra of PAN and related compounds  $\text{RC(O)OONO}_2$  are all very similar, exhibiting  $M/e=28$  ( $\text{CO}^+$ ),  $30(\text{NO}^+)$ ,  $44(\text{CO}_2^+)$ ,  $46(\text{NO}_2^+)$ , and masses corresponding to  $\text{R}^+$  and  $\text{RCO}^+$  at 70 eV (Stephens *et al.*, 1961; Stephens, 1961, 1969; Heuss and Glasson, 1968; Louw *et al.*, 1977). No molecular ions were observed in EI mass spectra with the exception of a 20 eV EI MS of PBzN, for which  $M/e=183$  was observed (Heuss and Glasson, 1968). The 10.2 eV PI mass spectral analysis of PAN has been reported by Kacmarek *et al.* (1977) to result in the formation of  $M/e=15(\text{CH}_3^+)$ ,  $30(\text{NO}^+)$ ,  $42(\text{CH}_2\text{CO}^+)$ , and  $43(\text{CH}_3\text{CO}^+)$  ions. The CI/MS of PAN using both methane and isobutane, has been reported to result in the formation of  $M/e=43(\text{CH}_3\text{CO}^+)$ ,  $46(\text{NO}_2^+)$ , Base),  $61(\text{CH}_3\text{ONO}^+)$ ,  $77(\text{CH}_3\text{ONO}_2^+)$ ,  $88(\text{O} \equiv \text{CCH}_2\text{ONO}^+)$ , and  $122(\text{M} + \text{H}^+)$  for methane and  $61$ ,  $71$ ,  $88$ ,  $(M-1)$ ,  $M$ , and  $(M+1)$  ions for isobutane (not scanned  $<57$ ) (Pate *et al.*, 1976). The isobutane CI mass spectrum showed a much higher abundance of  $M+1$  and  $M$ , relative to the lower mass ions, than did methane CI spectrum.

#### FORMATION PROCESSES

The sources of organic nitrates to the atmosphere can be roughly divided into primary emissions from combustion and chemical processes, and secondary formation from atmospheric photooxidation of organic compounds in the presence of  $\text{NO}_x$ . The emission of  $\text{RONO}_2$  from specialized industrial processes certainly occurs, and has been observed in the explosives industry (Thompson *et al.*, 1979), however, such sources are probably quite minor. Several alkyl nitrates have been observed in the exhaust of the turbine engines (Conkle *et al.*, 1976), however the importance of such sources as well as emissions from diesel, and spark-ignition engines using petroleum and/or alcohol fuels, is uncertain. Long chain alkyl nitrates (e.g. *n*-octyl nitrate) are used as 'cetane impr-



Table 4. Selected fundamental frequencies (cm<sup>-1</sup>) of the -O-NO<sub>2</sub> group in various molecules and structural types

Compound or type	-NO <sub>2</sub> stretch asymmetric	Symmetric	O-N stretch	NO <sub>2</sub> out-of-plane	Phase*	Reference
<b>Inorganic nitrates</b>						
HNO <sub>3</sub>	1708	1325	879	762	v	Cohn <i>et al.</i> , 1952; McGrath <i>et al.</i> , 1988
			647			McGraw <i>et al.</i> , 1965
FONO <sub>2</sub>	1759	1301	804	709	v	Arvia <i>et al.</i> , 1963
			633			Miller <i>et al.</i> , 1967
ClONO <sub>2</sub>	1735	1292	788	711	v	Arvia <i>et al.</i> , 1963
			560			Miller <i>et al.</i> , 1967
			434			McGrath <i>et al.</i> , 1988
<b>Nitric acid esters</b>						
Methyl nitrate	1672	1287	854	759	v	Brand and Cawthon, 1955
	1634	1285	860	760	l	Brown, 1955
Ethyl nitrate	1661	1288	852	—	v	Niki <i>et al.</i> , 1986
Alkyl nitrates	1639–1626	1282–1272	870–855	760–756	l	Carrington, 1960
						Brown, 1955
Benzyl nitrate	1639	1284	861	758	l	Brown, 1955
Benzoyl nitrate	1730			786		Heuss and Glasson, 1968
1,2-Propylene						
Glycol dinitrate	1672	1280	836		v	Hoshino <i>et al.</i> , 1978b
2-Hydroxy-2-methyl- propyl nitrate	1634	1284	872	756	l	Brown, 1955
1,2-Cyclohexandiol mononitrate	1629	1272	866	756	l	Brown, 1955
Nitro alkyl nitrates	1645–1631	1299–1271	872–844	756–749	l	Brown, 1955
<b>Peroxyntiric acid and esters</b>						
HOONO <sub>2</sub>	1728.3	1303.9	802.7	—	v	Niki <i>et al.</i> , 1977
CF <sub>3</sub> OONO <sub>2</sub>	1760	1305	783	702	v	Hohorst and DeMarteau, 1974
CF <sub>2</sub> ClOONO <sub>2</sub>	1761	—	—	—	v	Niki <i>et al.</i> , 1979
CFCI <sub>2</sub> OONO <sub>2</sub>	1757	1300	~780	—	v	Niki <i>et al.</i> , 1979
CCl <sub>3</sub> OONO <sub>2</sub>	1754	1301	785	—	v	Niki <i>et al.</i> , 1979
CHCl <sub>2</sub> OONO <sub>2</sub>	1743	—	—	—	v	Niki <i>et al.</i> , 1979
CH <sub>2</sub> ClOONO <sub>2</sub>	1734.3	—	—	—	v	Niki <i>et al.</i> , 1979
CH <sub>3</sub> OONO <sub>2</sub>	1723.8	1299.2	791.4	—	v	Niki <i>et al.</i> , 1978
	1698	—	—	—	l	Duynstee <i>et al.</i> , 1973
HOCH <sub>2</sub> OONO <sub>2</sub>	1725	1302	794			Niki <i>et al.</i> , 1980
Ethyl	1718.9	1297.4	793.6	—	v	Niki <i>et al.</i> , 1978
	1720	1298	797		v	Edney <i>et al.</i> , 1979b
	1712	—	—	—	v	Duynstee <i>et al.</i> , 1973
tert-Butyl	1692	—	—	—	l	Duynstee <i>et al.</i> , 1973
Peroxy-carboxylic nitric acid				C=O stretch		
Peroxyfluoroformic	1760	1300	790	1910	v	Edney <i>et al.</i> , 1979b
Peroxychloroformic	1756	1300	790	1844	v	Spence <i>et al.</i> , 1978
Peroxyacetic	1736	1302	793	1838	v	Stephens, 1969
	1735	1300	791	1835	s	Varetti and Pimentel, 1974
	1740.6	1302.1	793.9†	1841.3	v	Gaffney <i>et al.</i> , 1984
	1741	1302	791.5†	1842		Bruckmann and Willner, 1983
	1741.35	1301.28	793.75	1841	v	Niki <i>et al.</i> , 1985
Peroxyacetic <sup>15</sup> N-nitric	1696	1287	781	1835	s	Varetti and Pimentel, 1974
	1701	1289	784		v	Niki <i>et al.</i> , 1985
Peroxyglycolic	1747	1300	791	1831		Niki <i>et al.</i> , 1987
Peroxypropionic	1736	1302	794.9	1838	v	Stephens, 1969
	1738.6	1301.3	799.2	1832.2	v	Gaffney <i>et al.</i> , 1984
Peroxybutyric	1739	1299	794.9	1838	v	Stephens, 1969
Peroxyglutaric	1741	1302	793	1830	v	Rogers and Rhead, 1987
Peroxybenzoic	1739	1307	789.3	1805	v	Heuss and Glasson, 1968
Peroxycyclohexane- carboxylic	1739	1300	794.9	1828	v	Glasson and Heuss, 1977
<i>o</i> -Methylperoxybenzoic	1739	1300	794.3	1812	v	Glasson and Heuss, 1977
<i>m</i> -Methylperoxybenzoic	1739	1300	793.0	1805	v	Glasson and Heuss, 1977
<i>p</i> -Methylperoxybenzoic	1739	1300	794.3	1802	v	Glasson and Heuss, 1977
<i>β</i> -Phenylperoxyacetic	1748	1306	792.4	1835	v	Glasson and Heuss, 1977
2,4-Dimethylperoxybenzoic	1739	1302	789.9	1795	v	Glasson and Heuss, 1977
2,4,6-Trimethyl- peroxybenzoic	1736	1302	789.3	1799	v	Glasson and Heuss, 1977

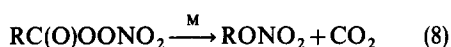
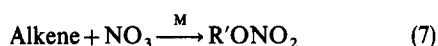
\*v-Vapor, l-liquid, s-solid in cryogenic matrix.

†Assigned to δ(NO<sub>2</sub>) (scissor) mode.

overs' to enhance the performance of diesel engines and therefore may be present if unburned. Organic nitrates may be formed in the exhaust from spark ignition engines, especially those utilizing alcohol fuels, by processes favored by low  $O_2$ -high  $NO_x$  conditions (see below).

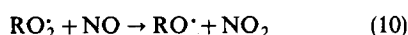
Organic nitrates are formed in secondary reactions through the atmospheric oxidation of organic compounds initiated by  $O_3$ , OH and  $NO_3$ . The nitrate formation mechanisms operating in all of these processes are often minor pathways and therefore have been difficult to quantify. There are a multitude of organic compounds found in, or emitted to, the atmosphere (Graedel *et al.*, 1986) and a complete description of atmospheric organic photooxidation chemistry is beyond the scope of this review. The interested reader is referred to several recent works in this area (Atkinson and Lloyd, 1984; Finlayson-Pitts and Pitts, 1986; Lurmann *et al.*, 1986; Kasting and Singh, 1986; Calvert and Madronich, 1987). Organic photooxidation chemistry will be discussed below only where necessary to illustrate features of organic nitrate chemistry.

The known gas-phase reactions resulting in the formation of  $RONO_2$  and  $ROONO_2$  compounds can be summarized schematically as follows:



The oxy ( $RO$ ) and peroxy ( $RO_2 \rightleftharpoons ROO$ ) radicals shown above are products of  $OH$ -,  $O_3$ -,  $NO_3$ - and  $h\nu$ -initiated oxidation of organic compounds. Note that Reactions (9) and (6), for  $R = H$ , constitute major formation pathways of  $HNO_3$  and  $HOONO_2$ .

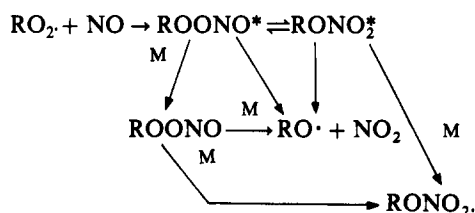
Reactions of  $RO_2$  radicals with NO are thought to be the most important sources of atmospheric alkyl nitrates. The formation of organic nitrates through the reaction of alkylperoxy radicals with NO (5) was first suggested by Spicer *et al.* (1973) for methylperoxy and Darnall *et al.* (1976) for larger alkylperoxy radicals and has been the subject of recent work (Hoshino *et al.*, 1978a; Takagi *et al.*, 1981b; Atkinson *et al.*, 1982b, 1983, 1984a, 1987a; Gery *et al.*, 1985; Shepson *et al.*, 1985; Harris and Kerr, 1989). The extent of this reaction is only a fraction of that of Reaction (10):



which constitutes a key step in the production of ozone from photooxidation of organic compounds.

Thus the branching ratios between Reactions (5) and (10) have implications not only for the efficiency of organic nitrate production but also as to the degree to which  $O_3$  is formed from particular compounds.

It has been hypothesized that reaction of  $RO_2$  with NO proceeds through the following mechanism (Atkinson *et al.*, 1983):



The addition of NO to  $RO_2$  to form an unstable vibrationally excited peroxy nitrite has been proposed as the first step (Spicer *et al.*, 1973; Darnall *et al.*, 1976). It is interesting to note that the notion of the alkylperoxy nitrite product dates back to early air pollution studies (see Leighton, 1961). The excited peroxy nitrite undergoes rearrangement to form an excited nitrate, possibly through a three-membered ring transition state (Atkinson *et al.*, 1982b) shown in Fig. 3. Either excited species may decompose to form  $RO + NO_2$  or may be collisionally deactivated to form the corresponding thermalized species. The formation of a peroxy nitrite is plausible since the analogous acid  $HOONO$  has been observed as an intermediate in solution (Halfpenny and Robinson, 1952; Anbar and Taube, 1954; Benton and Moore, 1970). In addition, nitrate has been observed as a product of  $HOONO$  decomposition. However, it appears that a fraction of that decomposition probably occurs through a  $HO-ONO$  bond homolysis (Mahoney, 1970) and the remainder presumably through a unimolecular process. Attempts at gas phase generation of  $HOONO$  through the reaction of OH with  $NO_2$  have proven unsuccessful (Burkholder *et al.*, 1987). Thermochemical data presented by Burkholder *et al.* (1987) for the reaction  $HOONO \xrightarrow{M} HO + NO_2$  indicate the bond dissociation (and therefore activation energy) for the reaction  $ROONO \rightarrow RO + NO_2$  is at most  $\sim 20 \text{ kcal mole}^{-1}$ . Given a reasonable pre-exponential factor of  $\cong 10^{16}$ , a short lifetime for  $ROONO$  against

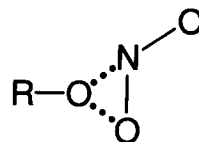


Fig. 3. Hypothesized transition state for the isomerization of an alkyl peroxy nitrite to an alkyl nitrate.

bond homolysis is expected, and unimolecular rearrangement to  $\text{RONO}_2$  must occur on that timescale.

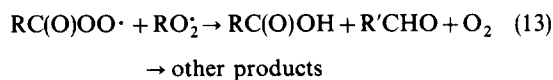
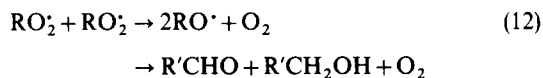
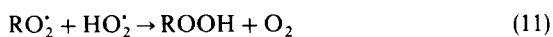
It has recently been proposed that radicals of the type  $\text{CX}_3\text{OO}^\bullet$  (where  $\text{X} = \text{F}$  or  $\text{Cl}$ ) react with  $\text{NO}$  to form the  $\text{CX}_3\text{OONO}$  intermediate. This suggestion was made on the basis of the large rate constant and negative temperature dependence observed for the reaction (Dognon *et al.*, 1985) and through observations of the reaction of  $\text{CF}_3\text{OO}^\bullet$  with  $\text{NO}$  in matrix isolation experiments (Clemmishaw and Sodeau, 1987). The gas phase products were observed to be exclusively  $\text{CX}_3\text{O} + \text{NO}_2$ , in a system in which  $\text{CX}_3\text{ONO}_2$  could have been sensitively detected, strongly implying that  $\text{CX}_3\text{ONO}_2$  is not formed through this reaction. In the matrix isolation study,  $\text{CF}_3\text{OONO}$  was not observed but  $\text{CF}_3\text{ONO}_2$  was, however the reaction conditions do not rule out  $\text{CF}_3\text{OONO}$  as an intermediate. Either product could have been the source of  $\text{CF}_2\text{O}$  and  $\text{FNO}_2$  that were also observed as products. Since low temperatures (4.2 K) were used and matrix cage effects are possible in such systems, the applicability of this study to gas phase is doubtful.

Evidence in support of the above mechanism for hydrocarbon radicals is found in the dependencies of alkyl nitrate yields,  $\alpha$  (where  $\alpha = k_5/(k_5 + k_{10})$ ) on carbon number, temperature, and pressure. Yields are observed to increase with increasing carbon number (Atkinson *et al.*, 1982b), consistent with the general precept that rates of unimolecular decomposition of vibrationally excited species (in this case  $\text{ROONO}^*$  and  $\text{RONO}_2^*$ ) decrease as the number of degrees of freedom of the molecule increase. The yields of alkyl nitrates increase with increasing pressure and decreasing temperature (Atkinson *et al.*, 1983). Pressure dependences of the nitrate yields are expected for three-body association reactions (NASA, 1987); and in this case the high pressure limits of the yields appear to be well above 760 torr. The magnitude of the temperature dependence of the yields suggests that a fraction of the nitrate formation proceeds through thermalized peroxy nitrite isomerization.

Alkyl nitrate yields for normal, branched and cyclic alkyl peroxy radicals are summarized in Table 5, which has been constructed from the aforementioned chamber studies. Yields were calculated from the measured concentration increase of nitrates with decreasing alkane concentration and were corrected for  $\text{OH}$  reaction with the nitrate, and the fractional reaction rate of  $\text{OH}$  at a given position on the molecule (Carter and Atkinson, 1985). Two studies report Arrhenius equations for the relative rates of (5) and (10), for heptane reactions at 730–740 torr that are in good agreement;  $k_5/k_{10} = 1.7 \times 10^{-3} \exp[1600/T]$  (Atkinson *et al.*, 1983), and  $k_5/k_{10} = 1.4 \pm 1.1 \times 10^{-3} \exp[(1640 \pm 250)/T]$  (Harris and Kerr, 1989), the latter study extending to 253 K. A generalized expression involving temperature and pressure dependencies has been developed to predict yields to within  $\sim 25\%$  (Atkinson *et al.*, 1983, 1987a). The equations predict a

maximum yields at 300 K (high-pressure limit) of 0.435, which is consistent with the trend in yields from  $\text{C}_2$ – $\text{C}_8$ , under the assumption that the limiting pressure decreases with increasing size of the molecule. Such yields have substantial implications for modeling of the organic photochemistry of smog formation, and can lead to significant amounts of alkyl nitrates in the atmosphere.

The reactions of  $\text{RO}_2^\bullet$  with  $\text{NO}_2$  have been observed to lead to peroxy nitrate formation (6) via three-body association. Table 6 lists the known rate constants for these reactions for particular  $\text{R}$  groups that have been studied. Temperature and pressure dependencies are noted where they have been determined. The data for  $\text{R} = \text{H}$ ,  $\text{CH}_3$ ,  $\text{CCl}_3$ ,  $\text{CFCl}_2$ ,  $\text{CF}_2\text{Cl}$ ,  $\text{CF}_3$ , and  $\text{CH}_3\text{C}(\text{O})$  have been fit to general expressions for temperature and pressure-dependence (Troe, 1979; NASA, 1987). The rate constants for  $\text{R} = \text{H}$  and  $\text{CH}_3$  do not achieve their high pressure limits until approximately 760 torr. However, as  $\text{R}$  becomes larger, this rate constant approaches its high-pressure limit at lower pressures. The rate constants for  $\text{R} = \text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2$  and  $(\text{CH}_3)_2\text{CH}$  are essentially independent of pressure above approximately 50 torr. Some pressure dependence was observed for  $\text{CH}_3\text{C}(\text{O})$ , however, the range was only a factor of 2 between 28 and 760 torr. In addition to the above compounds for which formation rate constants have been measured, the reactions where  $\text{R} = \text{FC}(\text{O})$ ,  $\text{ClC}(\text{O})$ ,  $\text{C}_N\text{H}_{2N+1}$  ( $N = 1$ –6),  $\text{HOCH}_2$ ,  $\text{CH}_2\text{OHC}(\text{O})$ ,  $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{C}(\text{O})$ ,  $\text{C}_3\text{H}_7\text{C}(\text{O})$ ,  $\text{CHOCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{C}(\text{O})$ ,  $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{C}(\text{O})$  have also been observed (Stephens, 1969; Spence *et al.*, 1978; Niki *et al.*, 1978, 1979, 1980, 1987; Edney *et al.*, 1979a,b; Lesclaux *et al.*, 1986; Rogers and Rhead, 1987). There are several studies in which the ratio  $k_{10}/k_6$  has been determined. Determinations of this rate constant ratio for PAN have ranged from 1.7 to 3.1 (Cox *et al.*, 1976; Cox and Roffey, 1977; Hendry and Kenley, 1977); the variation most likely due to the pressure dependence of (6). A ratio of  $1.52 \pm 0.12$  was found for PBzN (Kenley and Hendry, 1982). Atkinson and Lloyd (1984) recommend a ratio of 1.5 for all reactions of these types based on the modeling study of Carter *et al.* (1979). Under ambient conditions of  $T$ ,  $P$  and  $[\text{NO}_2] \cong 1$  ppbv, Reaction 6 can be relatively rapid  $\tau < 10^3$  s. Aside from Reactions 5 and 10, the  $\text{RO}_2^\bullet$  Reactions (11–14)



must also be considered in evaluating  $\text{RONO}_2$  formation. Rate measurements indicate that these reactions can be rapid (Cox and Tyndall, 1979; Addison *et al.*, 1980; Adachi and Basco, 1982a; Basco and Parmar,

Table 5. Rate constant ratios  $\alpha_i = k_5/(k_5 + k_{10})$  for individual alkyl peroxy radicals at  $299 \pm 2$  K and 735–740 torr

Parent compound	Primary RO <sub>2</sub>	$\alpha$	Secondary RO <sub>2</sub>	$\alpha$	Tertiary RO <sub>2</sub>	$\alpha$	References
Ethane	Ethyl	$\leq 0.014$					Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1984a
Propane	1-Propyl	$0.020 \pm 0.009$	2-Propyl	$0.042 \pm 0.003$			Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1987a
Propene	2-Hydroxy-1-propyl	$0.015 \pm 0.008$	1-Hydroxy-2-propyl	$0.017 \pm 0.009$			Shepson <i>et al.</i> , 1985
<i>n</i> -Butane	1-Butyl	$< 0.040$	2-Butyl	$0.090 \pm 0.008$			Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1987a
<i>n</i> -Pentane			2-Pentyl	$0.129 \pm 0.016$			Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1984a
			3-Pentyl	$0.131 \pm 0.016$			Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1987a
			Cyclopentyl	$0.045 \pm 0.015$			Takagi <i>et al.</i> , 1981b
Cyclopentane							Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1987a
Neopentane	Neopentyl	$0.0513 \pm 0.0053$	2-Methyl-3-butyl	$0.141 \pm 0.003$	2-Methyl-2-butyl	$0.0533 \pm 0.002$	Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1984a; 1987a
2-Methyl butane			2-Hexyl	$0.209 \pm 0.032$			Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1987a
<i>n</i> -Hexane			3-Hexyl	$0.230 \pm 0.031$			Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1987a
			Cyclohexyl	$0.160 \pm 0.015$			Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1987a
Cyclohexane				$0.090 \pm 0.044$			Takagi <i>et al.</i> , 1981b
				$0.190 \pm 0.018$	2-Methyl-2-pentyl	$0.035 \pm 0.096$	Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1984a; 1987a
2-Methylpentane			2-Methyl-3-and 2-Methyl-4-pentyl				
			3-Methyl-2-pentyl	$0.162 \pm 0.009$			Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1987a
3-Methylpentane							Hoshino <i>et al.</i> , 1978a
Toluene	Benzyl	$0.12 \pm 0.02$ $\sim 0.09 \pm 0.02^*$					Gery <i>et al.</i> , 1985
<i>n</i> -Heptane			2-Heptyl	$0.291 \pm 0.022$			Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1987a
			3-Heptyl	$0.323 \pm 0.048$			Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1987a
			4-Heptyl	$0.285 \pm 0.015$			Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1987a
			2,3 and 4-Heptyl†	$0.251 \pm 0.50$			Harris and Kerr, 1989
			Cycloheptyl	$0.050 \pm 0.011$			Takagi <i>et al.</i> , 1981b
Cycloheptane			2-Octyl	$0.323 \pm 0.024$			Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1987a
<i>n</i> -Octane			3-Octyl	$0.348 \pm 0.032$			Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1987a
			4-Octyl	$0.329 \pm 0.032$			Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1987a

\* From toluene photooxidation studies; not corrected for subsequent reactions of benzaldehyde and benzyl nitrate.

† The overall yield for the sum of 2-, 3- and 4-heptyl isomers.

Table 6. Rate constants of the reaction of peroxy radicals (RO<sub>2</sub>·) with nitrogen dioxide (NO<sub>2</sub>)

RO <sub>2</sub>	Low pressure limit		High pressure limit		Reference
	$k_0^{300*}$	$n$	$k_\infty^{300*}$	$m$	
HO <sub>2</sub>	$1.8 \pm 0.3 \times 10^{-31}$	$3.2 \pm 0.4$	$4.7 \pm 1.0 \times 10^{-12}$	$1.4 \pm 1.4$	NASA, 1987
CH <sub>3</sub> O <sub>2</sub>	$1.5 \pm 0.8 \times 10^{-30}$	$4.0 \pm 2.0$	$6.5 \pm 3.2 \times 10^{-12}$	$2.0 \pm 2.0$	NASA, 1987
CFCl <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub>	$3.5 \pm 0.5 \times 10^{-29}$	$4.0 \pm 2.0$	$6.0 \pm 1.0 \times 10^{-12}$	$2.0 \pm 2.0$	Lesclaux and Caralp, 1984
	$k_0^{298\dagger}$	$n_0$	$k_\infty^{298\dagger}$	$n_\infty$	C
CCl <sub>3</sub> O <sub>2</sub>	$9.2 \pm 3.0 \times 10^{-29}$	$6.0 \pm 1.5$	$14.9 \times 10^{-12}$	$0.30 \pm 0.3$	260 Caralp <i>et al.</i> , 1988
CFCl <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub>	$5.5 \pm 1.6 \times 10^{-29}$	$5.5 \pm 1.5$	$8.3 \times 10^{-12}$	$0.66 \pm 0.3$	342 Caralp <i>et al.</i> , 1988
CF <sub>2</sub> ClO <sub>2</sub>	$4.0 \pm 2.0 \times 10^{-29}$	$5.1 \pm 1.0$	$10.2 \times 10^{-12}$	$0.66 \pm 0.3$	373 Caralp <i>et al.</i> , 1988
CF <sub>3</sub> O <sub>2</sub>	$2.7 \pm 0.8 \times 10^{-29}$	$4.7 \pm 1.0$	$8.9 \times 10^{-12}$	$0.72 \pm 0.3$	416 Caralp <i>et al.</i> , 1988
CH <sub>3</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub>			$1.2 \pm 0.07 \times 10^{-12}\ddagger$		Adachi and Basco, 1979
CH <sub>3</sub> C(O)O <sub>2</sub>	$2.1 \pm 0.1 \times 10^{-12}\S$		$4.7 \pm 0.3 \times 10^{-12}  $		Addison <i>et al.</i> , 1980
	$5.1 \times 10^{-29}$		$6.1 \times 10^{-12}\P$		Basco and Parmar, 1987
(CH <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> CHO <sub>2</sub>			$5.6 \pm 0.17 \times 10^{-12}**$		Adachi and Basco, 1982b

\* Fit to the expression:

$$k(M, T) = \left[ \frac{k_0(T)[M]}{1 + k_0(T)[M]/k_\infty(T)} \right] 0.6^{1 + [\log_{10}(k_0(T)[M]/k_\infty(T))^2]^{-1}}$$

where:  $k_0(T) = k_0^{300}(T/300)^{-n} \text{ cm}^6 \text{ molec}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ;  $k_\infty(T) = k_\infty^{300}(T/300)^{-m} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molec}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ .

† Fit to the expression:

$$\log k(T) = \frac{\log k_0[M]}{1 + k_0[M]/k_\infty} + \frac{\log F_c}{1 + \{[\log(k_0[M]/k_\infty)]/N_c\}^2}$$

where:  $k_0(T) = k_0^{298}(T/298)^{-n_0} \text{ cm}^6 \text{ molec}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ,  $k_\infty(T) = k_\infty^{298}(T/298)^{-n_\infty} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molec}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ,  $F_c = \exp(T/C)$ , and  $N_c = 0.75 - 1.27 F_c$ .

‡  $\text{cm}^3 \text{ molec}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$  at 298 K, independent of pressure 44–676 torr.

§  $\text{cm}^3 \text{ molec}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ , at 302 K, 28 torr.

||  $\text{cm}^3 \text{ molec}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ , 302 K, 715 torr.

¶ Fit to the expression:

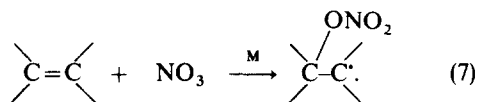
$$\log k = \log \left( \frac{k_\infty k_0[M]}{1 + k_0[M]} \right) + \frac{\log F_c}{1 + \{\log(k_0[M]/k_\infty)\}^2}$$

where:  $k_0$  ( $\text{cm}^6 \text{ molec}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ), and  $k_\infty$  ( $\text{cm}^3 \text{ molec}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) are for 298 K and  $F_c = 0.19$ . This includes the data of Addison *et al.* (1980).

\*\*  $\text{cm}^3 \text{ molec}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$  at 298 K, independent of pressure 55–400 torr.

1985), especially (11). Thus (11–14) can limit organic nitrate formation, especially in low NO<sub>x</sub> environments.

Studies of the reaction of NO<sub>3</sub> with alkenes (Reaction 7) (Japar and Niki, 1975; Hoshino *et al.*, 1978b; Shepson *et al.*, Bandow *et al.*, 1980; Dlugokencky and Howard, 1989; Canosa-Mass *et al.*, 1988a,b) indicate that it proceeds through addition to the double bond, forming a carbon radical and a nitrooxy group:



The carbon radical rapidly reacts with O<sub>2</sub> to form a peroxy radical. NO<sub>3</sub> will have significant abundances only at night and the coexistence of NO<sub>3</sub> and NO is precluded by their rapid reaction. Therefore, the likely fates of peroxy radicals formed by NO<sub>3</sub> reaction are Reactions (6) and (11–13). The resulting difunctional

products, i.e. nitrooxy ketones and aldehydes, dinitrates or nitrooxy peroxy nitrates, have been observed in chamber studies (Hoshino *et al.*, 1978b; Bandow *et al.*, 1980; Shepson *et al.*, 1985).

The rate constants of initial reactions of NO<sub>3</sub> with alkenes are summarized in Table 7. These reactions can be quite rapid especially for compounds having highly substituted or conjugated double bonds. The temperature dependencies of some NO<sub>3</sub> reactions with alkenes and alkynes have recently been determined, and are summarized in Table 8. Measurements of NO<sub>3</sub> in the troposphere have shown mixing ratios up to 100 pptv (Platt *et al.*, 1980, 1981, 1984; Noxon *et al.*, 1980; Noxon, 1983) and have indicated the presence of rapid sink reactions. Thus, Reaction (7) may initiate significant formation pathways for multifunctional organic nitrates.

The unimolecular decomposition of peroxy carboxylic nitric anhydrides to form the corresponding C<sub>N-1</sub> alkyl nitrate



has been observed and quantified for PAN (Stephens, 1969; Fild and Lovell, 1970; Senum *et al.*, 1986), but appears to be a general process based on several studies involving  $R(CO)OONO_2$  chemistry (Darley *et al.*, 1963; Kopczynski *et al.*, 1974). The rate measured for PAN decomposition through this channel was several hundred times slower than the bond homolysis channel:



but exhibited a similar temperature dependence (Senum *et al.*, 1986) (see next section). This represents a loss mechanism for PAN that occurs in the absence of

NO. Given other possible formation pathways, abundance of the parent compounds, and similar rates, Reaction (15) is likely to be an important source of methyl nitrate but not larger compounds. The importance of this methyl nitrate source must be evaluated in the context of rates of methyl nitrate removal, PAN concentrations and ambient temperatures.

Reaction (9) involves the pressure-dependent addition reaction of an alkoxy radical  $RO\cdot$  with  $NO_2$  to form  $RONO_2$ . While such reactions are fast, there are a number of competing reactions that  $RO\cdot$  may undergo. H-atom transfer reactions occur if R con-

Table 7. Rate constants for the reaction of  $NO_3$  with alkenes and alkynes at 294–298 ( $\pm 2$ ) K

Compound	$k^*$ ( $cm^3 \text{ molec}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ )	Reference
Ethene	$2.14 \pm 0.32 \times 10^{-16} \ddagger$ $9.3 \pm 1.0 \times 10^{-16}$ $1.85 \pm 0.24 \times 10^{-16}$	Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1988 Japar and Niki, 1975 Canosa-Mas <i>et al.</i> , 1988a
Acetylene	$\leq 0.23 \times 10^{-16}$ $0.51 \pm 0.35 \times 10^{-16}$	Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1987b Canosa-Mas <i>et al.</i> , 1988a
Propene	$9.40 \pm 1.19 \times 10^{-15} \ddagger$ $5.3 \pm 0.30 \times 10^{-15}$	Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1988 Japar and Niki, 1975
Propyne	$0.94 \pm 0.44 \times 10^{-16}$ $2.66 \pm 0.32 \times 10^{-16}$	Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1987b Canosa-Mas <i>et al.</i> , 1988a
1-Butene	$9.70 \pm 2.10 \times 10^{-15}$ $7.80 \pm 0.80 \times 10^{-15}$	Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1984c Japar and Niki, 1975
1-Butyne	$4.55 \pm 0.46 \times 10^{-16}$	Canosa-Mas <i>et al.</i> , 1988a
2-Butyne	$6.7 \pm 1.5 \times 10^{-14}$	Canosa-Mas <i>et al.</i> , 1988a
Isobutene	$3.05 \pm 0.34 \times 10^{-13}$ $3.4 \pm 0.7 \times 10^{-13}$ $3.30 \pm 0.43 \times 10^{-13}$ $1.1 \pm 0.1 \times 10^{-13}$	Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1984c Canosa-Mas <i>et al.</i> , 1988a Ravishankara and Mauldin, 1985 Japar and Niki, 1975
cis-2-Butene	$3.39 \pm 0.39 \times 10^{-13}$ $1.8 \pm 0.2 \times 10^{-13}$	Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1984c Japar and Niki, 1975
trans-2-Butene	$3.78 \pm 0.41 \times 10^{-13}$ $3.96 \pm 0.48 \times 10^{-13}$ $1.4 \pm 0.1 \times 10^{-13}$	Ravishankara and Mauldin, 1985 Dlugokencky and Howard, 1989 Japar and Niki, 1975
1,3-Butadiene	$9.57 \pm 1.10 \times 10^{-14}$ $2.1 \pm 0.4 \times 10^{-13}$ $2.2 \pm 0.6 \times 10^{-13}$	Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1984b Benter and Schindler, 1988 Canosa-Mas <i>et al.</i> , 1988a
2-Methyl-2-butene	$9.33 \pm 1.18 \times 10^{-12} \ddagger$ $5.5 \pm 0.5 \times 10^{-12}$	Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1988 Japar and Niki, 1975
Cyclopentene	$4.52 \pm 0.52 \times 10^{-13}$	Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1985b
1-Pentyne	$7.54 \pm 0.75 \times 10^{-16}$	Canosa-Mas <i>et al.</i> , 1988a
Isoprene	$5.79 \pm 0.68 \times 10^{-13}$ $1.3 \pm 0.14 \times 10^{-12}$ $6.52 \pm 0.78 \times 10^{-13}$	Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1984b Benter and Schindler, 1988 Dlugokencky and Howard, 1989
1-Hexyne	$1.6 \pm 0.19 \times 10^{-15}$	Canosa-Mas <i>et al.</i> , 1988a
2,3-Dimethyl-2-butene	$5.69 \pm 0.73 \times 10^{-11} \ddagger$ $3.7 \pm 0.5 \times 10^{-11}$	Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1988 Japar and Niki, 1975
2,3-Dimethyl-1,3-butadiene	$2.3 \pm 0.3 \times 10^{-12}$	Benter and Schindler, 1988
Cyclohexene	$5.14 \pm 0.61 \times 10^{-13}$	Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1984b
1,3-Cyclohexadiene	$1.30 \pm 0.30 \times 10^{-11}$ $1.1 \pm 0.1 \times 10^{-11}$	Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1984b Benter and Schindler, 1988
1,4-Cyclohexadiene	$5.17 \pm 0.63 \times 10^{-13}$ $7.8 \pm 0.7 \times 10^{-13}$	Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1984b Benter and Schindler, 1988
Cycloheptene	$4.71 \pm 0.56 \times 10^{-13}$	Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1985b
1,3-Cycloheptadiene	$6.80 \pm 1.60 \times 10^{-12}$	Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1984b
Bicyclo[2.2.1]-2-heptene	$2.41 \pm 0.28 \times 10^{-13}$	Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1985b
Bicyclo[2.2.1]-2,5-heptadiene	$9.92 \pm 1.13 \times 10^{-13}$	Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1985b
1,3,5-Cycloheptatriene	$1.3 \pm 0.3 \times 10^{-12}$	Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1985b
Bicyclo[2.2.2]-2-octene	$1.44 \pm 9.18 \times 10^{-13} \ddagger$	Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1988
$\alpha$ -Pinene	$6.10 \pm 1.40 \times 10^{-12}$ $6.18 \pm 0.74 \times 10^{-12}$	Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1984b Dlugokencky and Howard, 1989

Table 7. (Continued)

Compound	$k^*$ ( $\text{cm}^3 \text{ molec}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ )	Reference
$\beta$ -Pinene	$2.36 \pm 0.28 \times 10^{-12} \dagger$	Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1988
$\Delta^3$ -Carene	$1.05 \pm 0.23 \times 10^{-11}$	Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1984b
<i>d</i> -Limonene	$1.38 \pm 0.30 \times 10^{-11}$	Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1984b
Myrcene	$1.10 \pm 0.30 \times 10^{-11} \dagger$	Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1985a
<i>cis</i> - and <i>trans</i> -Ocimene	$2.4 \pm 0.6 \times 10^{-11} \dagger$	Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1985a
$\alpha$ -Terpinene	$1.94 \pm 0.47 \times 10^{-10} \dagger$	Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1985a
$\gamma$ -Terpinene	$3.1 \pm 0.7 \times 10^{-11} \dagger$	Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1985a
$\alpha$ -Phellandrene	$9.1 \pm 2.3 \times 10^{-11} \dagger$	Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1985a
Acrolein	$5.9 \pm 1.8 \times 10^{-16}$	Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1987b
Crotonaldehyde	$4.1 \pm 0.9 \times 10^{-15}$	Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1987b
Vinyl chloride	$2.3 \pm 1.1 \times 10^{-16}$	Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1987b
1,1-Dichloroethene	$6.6 \pm 3.1 \times 10^{-16}$	Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1987b
<i>cis</i> -1,2-Dichloroethene	$7.5 \pm 3.5 \times 10^{-17}$	Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1987b
<i>trans</i> -1,2-Dichloroethene	$5.7 \pm 2.7 \times 10^{-17}$	Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1987b
Trichloroethene	$1.5 \pm 0.7 \times 10^{-16}$	Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1987b
Tetrachloroethene	$< 0.4 \times 10^{-16}$	Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1987b
Allyl chloride	$2.9 \pm 1.3 \times 10^{-16}$	Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1987b

\* The rate constants reported in Atkinson *et al.* (1984b, c) were determined using the best value for the  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5 = \text{NO}_3 + \text{NO}_2$  equilibrium constant available at that time. Atkinson *et al.* (1987b) have used the absolute measurement of  $\text{NO}_3 + \text{trans-2-butene}$  by Ravishankara and Mauldin (1985) for their rate constant measurements, and to recalculate previously determined rate constants. Accordingly, the rate constant of Ravishankara and Mauldin was adopted here as the absolute standard and other rate constants determined by relative rates were recalculated relative to it.

† These rate constants are based on a more recent  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$  equilibrium constant, which results in good agreement between rate constants derived from the data of Atkinson *et al.* (1985b) and those based on the measurements of Ravishankara and Mauldin (1985).

‡ The rate constants reported by Atkinson *et al.* (1988) were measured by relative rates using the average of the *trans*-2-butene rate constants measured by Ravishankara and Mauldin (1985), and Dlugokencky and Howard (1989) as the absolute standard.

Table 8. Temperature dependencies in the reaction of  $\text{NO}_3$  with some alkenes and alkynes\*

Compound	Temperature range (K)	$A$ ( $\text{cm}^3 \text{ molec}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ )	$E_a/R$	Reference
Acetylene	295–523	$4.9 (\pm 1.6) \times 10^{-13}$	$2800 \pm 1100$	Canosa-Mas <i>et al.</i> , 1988b
Ethene	295–523	$6.3 (\pm 2.9) \times 10^{-12}$	$3100 \pm 480$	Canosa-Mas <i>et al.</i> , 1988b
Propyne	295–473	$1.5 (\pm 1.1) \times 10^{-11}$	$3200 \pm 600$	Canosa-Mas <i>et al.</i> , 1988b
1-Butyne	295–473	$3.2 (\pm 5.0) \times 10^{-11}$	$3400 \pm 480$	Canosa-Mas <i>et al.</i> , 1988b
1-Pentyne	295–473	$3.0 (\pm 1.2) \times 10^{-11}$	$3200 \pm 480$	Canosa-Mas <i>et al.</i> , 1988b
<i>trans</i> -2-Butene	204–378	†	†	Dlugokencky and Howard, 1989
Isoprene	251–381	$3.03 \pm 0.45 \times 10^{-12}$	$450 \pm 70$	Dlugokencky and Howard, 1989
1-Hexyne	295–473	$9.0 (\pm 5.1) \times 10^{-12}$	$2600 \pm 360$	Canosa-Mas <i>et al.</i> , 1988b
$\alpha$ -Pinene	261–384	$1.19 \pm 0.31 \times 10^{-12}$	$-490 \pm 70$	Dlugokencky and Howard, 1989

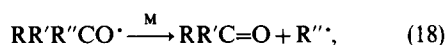
\* Fit to the equation  $k(T) = A \exp(-E_a/RT)$ .

† A four parameter fit  $k(T) = (1.78 \pm 0.36) \times 10^{-12} \exp[-(530 \pm 100)/T] + (2.28 \pm 0.26) \times 10^{-14} \exp[(570 \pm 110)/T]$  was found to best describe the substantial curvature in this temperature dependence.

tains a hydrogen  $\alpha$  to the oxygen;



Alternatively  $\text{RO}^\bullet$  may decompose in a unimolecular fashion,



where R and R' may be alkyl groups or hydrogens and R'' is an alkyl group. The reactions of  $\text{RO}^\bullet$  with NO to form RONO are rapid, however,  $\text{RO}^\bullet$  is reformed

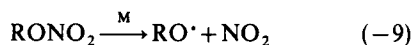
rapidly ( $\tau$  photolysis  $< 5$  min) in the daytime so this reaction does not constitute a loss process. Alkoxy radicals of carbon number greater than 3 may also isomerize through 1,4 or 1,5 hydrogen shifts to form 4- or 5-hydroxy peroxy radicals (following rapid addition of  $\text{O}_2$  to the carbon radical).

Determinations of rate constants for (9) where  $\text{R} = \text{CH}_3$  (Batt and Rattray, 1979),  $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5$  (Batt and Milne, 1977) and  $i\text{-C}_3\text{H}_7$  (Balla *et al.*, 1985) indicate that this reaction is rapid ( $k = 1\text{--}4 \times 10^{-11} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molec}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) and evidence suggests that the rate constant of (16) is small relative to that of (9) ( $k_{16}/k_9 < 0.05$ ) (Batt and Rattray, 1979; Batt 1980).

Reaction (17) has been found to be slow for  $R = CH_3$  (Barker *et al.*, 1977; Batt and Robinson, 1979; Cox *et al.*, 1980; Gutman *et al.*, 1982; Wantuck *et al.*, 1987),  $C_2H_5$  (Gutman *et al.*, 1982; Zabarnick and Hecklen, 1985a),  $n-C_3H_7$  (Zabarnick and Hecklen, 1985b),  $i-C_3H_7$  (Balla *et al.*, 1985), and  $i-C_4H_9$  (Zabarnick and Hecklen, 1985c) with a rate constant ranging from  $1.3 \times 10^{-15}$  to  $1.9 \times 10^{-14}$   $cm^3/molec \cdot s$ . Akimoto *et al.* (1978) determined  $k_1/k_9 = 1.4 \times 10^{-4}$  for  $R = C_6H_5CH_2$ . Considering the atmospheric mixing ratios of  $O_2$  and  $NO_2$  in the polluted troposphere,  $0.21$  ( $5 \times 10^{18}$   $molec \cdot cm^{-3}$ ) and  $< 2 \times 10^{-7}$  (200 ppbv;  $5 \times 10^{12}$   $molec \cdot cm^{-3}$ ), respectively, Reaction (17) is the dominant fate of  $RO^{\cdot}$  and (9) constitutes a very small atmospheric source of  $RONO_2$ .

Reaction (18) proceeds at significant rates at atmospheric temperatures for some compounds (Atkinson and Lloyd, 1984; Carter and Atkinson, 1985). The analogous reactions of trihalomethoxy radicals  $CX_3O^{\cdot}$  to form carbonyl halides,  $CX_2O$ , and a halogen atom have been observed and predicted to be rapid enough under stratospheric conditions that the fraction reacting with  $NO_2$  to form  $CX_3ONO_2$  is negligibly small (Carr *et al.*, 1986; Rayez *et al.*, 1987; Francisco *et al.*, 1987; Lesclaux *et al.*, 1987).

The formation of organic nitrates in combustion effluents must be considered as a possible source. The chemistry in exhaust streams of internal combustion engines involve substantially different conditions relative to the atmosphere. For example, in motor vehicle exhaust,  $[NO_2]$  is much higher ( $\sim 100$  ppmv) and  $[O_2]$  lower ( $< 0.05$  mole fraction). However, gas temperatures are much higher (200–400°C), and potentially catalytic materials and surfaces are present. Thus, higher  $[NO_2]$  increases the fraction of  $RO^{\cdot}$  that undergoes Reaction (9) (unknown temperature dependence) relative to Reaction (17), the rate of which increases  $\sim 10$  fold due to temperature (Cox *et al.*, 1980; Gutman *et al.*, 1982) but decreases due to lower  $[O_2]$ . The unimolecular decomposition reaction (18), isomerization through the 1,4- and 1,5-hydroxy shift mechanism, and (–9):



are significantly faster at exhaust stream temperatures (Batt and Robinson, 1987; Balla *et al.*, 1985; Zabarnick and Hecklen, 1985b,c), and should constitute the major loss mechanisms for  $RO^{\cdot}$ . The extent of formation of  $RONO_2$  compounds in combustion effluents depends critically on the combination of gas composition and temperature, and nitrate formation may occur upon mixing of the exhaust with ambient air. However, the abundance of aldehydes and ketones in gasoline engine exhaust and the fact that alkyl nitrates have not been observed in exhaust from internal combustion engines (Jonsson, 1985) support the notion that (9) does not constitute a major exhaust source of  $RONO_2$ .

## ATMOSPHERIC REMOVAL PROCESSES

The gas-phase processes responsible for the destruction of organic nitrates are reaction with OH radicals, photolysis, and thermal decomposition. Multi-phase processes of potential importance are uptake by cloudwater, aerosol or precipitation, and deposition on ground surfaces. The relative importance of each of the above processes is different for each compound type, varies from one compound to another within a type, and is different for a given compound depending on location in the atmosphere (e.g. upper troposphere, surface layer).

Rate constants for the reaction of OH with some alkyl nitrates and PAN are listed in Table 9. These reactions appear to proceed via hydrogen abstraction from the alkyl group. With the exceptions of methyl and ethyl nitrates, the measured alkyl nitrate rate constants are lower than those of the parent alkane (Atkinson, 1986). Atkinson (1986), Atkinson *et al.* (1982a, 1984a) and Gaffney *et al.* (1986) have calculated group rate constants and substituent factors to estimate OH-alkyl nitrate rate constants. These approximations yield rate constants that are within a factor of 2 of measured values. Based on the above rate constants and a seasonally-, spatially-, and diurnally-averaged OH concentration of  $6 \times 10^5$   $molec \cdot cm^{-3}$ , atmospheric lifetimes against OH reaction of between 5 days (3-octyl nitrate) and 1.6 years (methyl nitrate) are predicted.

The rate constant for the reaction of chlorine atoms (Cl) with PAN was recently determined to be  $3.7 (\pm 1.7) \times 10^{-13}$   $cm^3 \cdot molec^{-1} \cdot s^{-1}$  (Tsalkani *et al.*, 1988), approximately  $10^2$  smaller than a previous estimate, which was based on the  $Cl + ethane$  rate constant (Singh and Hanst, 1981). The new rate constant, coupled with estimated relative abundances of Cl and OH implies that reaction with OH will dominate that of Cl by about  $10^3$  throughout the upper troposphere and stratosphere.

The photolysis of organic nitrates through absorption of solar radiation in the near-u.v. region appears to be a significant atmospheric loss mechanism. Rates of photolysis may be estimated from the u.v.-absorption spectrum of a given compound, solar actinic flux estimates, and known or assumed quantum efficiencies. The state of knowledge concerning photolysis processes is summarized below.

It has been known since the work of Hartley (1903) that the absorption spectrum of ethyl nitrate was a featureless continuum in the near-u.v. region. Early quantitative absorption data were obtained by Goodeve (1934) for ethyl nitrate. The u.v. spectra of compounds containing the  $NO_2$  group (Harris, 1973) and  $RONO_2$  compounds (Csizmadia *et al.*, 1973) have been the subject of molecular orbital and liquid phase studies. The spectra (Figs 4–6) are all quite similar in appearance, the spectra of  $HONO_2$  and  $HOONO_2$  are also shown for comparison purposes, exhibiting



Table 9. Rate constants for the reaction of OH radicals with organic nitrates

Compound	$k$ ( $\text{cm}^3 \text{ molec}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) ( $\times 10^{12}$ )	Conditions (K), (torr)	Reference
Methyl nitrate	$0.034 \pm 0.004$	298, 1.98–3.15	Gaffney <i>et al.</i> , 1986
	$0.37 \pm 0.09$	303, 750	Kerr and Stocker, 1986
Ethyl nitrate	$0.48 \pm 0.2$	303, 750	Kerr and Stocker, 1986
<i>n</i> -Propyl nitrate	$0.70 \pm 0.22$	303, 750	Kerr and Stocker, 1986
2-Propyl nitrate	$0.18 \pm 0.05^*$	299, 735	Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1982a
<i>n</i> -Butyl nitrate	$1.39 \pm 0.11^*$	299, 735	Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1982a
2-Butyl nitrate	$0.67 \pm 0.10^*$	299, 735	Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1982a
2-Pentyl nitrate	$1.83 \pm 0.12^*$	299, 735	Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1982a
3-Pentyl nitrate	$1.10 \pm 0.20^*$	299, 735	Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1982a
2-Methyl-3-butyl nitrate	$1.72 \pm 0.05^\dagger$	298, 735	Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1984a
2,2-Dimethyl-1-propyl nitrate	$0.85 \pm 0.20^\dagger$	298, 735	Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1984a
2-Hexyl nitrate	$3.13 \pm 0.15^*$	299, 735	Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1982a
3-Hexyl nitrate	$2.66 \pm 0.21^*$	299, 735	Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1982a
Cyclohexyl nitrate	$3.29 \pm 0.36^\dagger$	298, 735	Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1984a
2-Methyl-2-pentyl nitrate	$1.71 \pm 0.22^\dagger$	298, 735	Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1984a
3-Methyl-2-pentyl nitrate	$3.01 \pm 0.08^\dagger$	298, 735	Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1984a
3-Heptyl nitrate	$3.64 \pm 0.43^*$	299, 735	Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1982a
3-Octyl nitrate	$3.82 \pm 0.78^*$	299, 735	Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1982a
Peroxyacetic nitric anhydride	$0.113 \pm 0.06$	273, 25–100	Wallington <i>et al.</i> , 1984
	$0.137 \pm 0.05$	297, 25–100	Wallington <i>et al.</i> , 1984
	$0.075 \pm 0.014$	298, 0.6–1.9	Tsalkani <i>et al.</i> , 1988

\* The rate constant was measured relative to that of cyclohexane and was corrected for the slight change in cyclohexane rate constant resulting from the review of Atkinson (1986).

† The rate constant was measured relative to that of *n*-butane and was corrected for the slight change in *n*-butane rate constant resulting from the review of Atkinson (1986).

$\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$  transitions at  $\lambda \leq 190$  nm and lower energy  $n \rightarrow \pi^*$  transitions in the 250–270 nm range, which appear as inflections in an otherwise exponential decrease with wavelength. The exception to the above is the spectrum of nitrooxy acetone (NOA) in which the additional carbonyl chromophore is evident.

Recent measurement of gas-phase absorption spectra of compounds of the type  $\text{RONO}_2$  and  $\text{ROONO}_2$  are summarized in Tables 10 and 11, respectively. The absorption cross-sections of a number of alkyl nitrates have recently been measured by Roberts and Fajer (1989). Increases in the magnitudes of cross-sections were observed for primary alkyls with increasing carbon chain length, and for alkyl groups with increasing degree of substitution, Fig. 5. In addition, the cross-section of nitrooxy ethanol,  $\text{HOCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{ONO}_2$ , was observed to be approximately a factor of 5 below that of methyl nitrate in the actinic region  $\lambda > 290$  nm. It was also found that the spectra could be fit by second degree exponential equations of the form  $\sigma(\lambda) = \exp(a\lambda^2 + b\lambda + c)$ , such fits are summarized in Table 12. A number of determinations have been made of methyl and ethyl nitrate cross-sections. Those of methyl nitrate (Calvert and Pitts, 1966; Maria *et al.*, 1973; Taylor *et al.*, 1980; Roberts and Fajer, 1989) agree within stated experimental errors; however, those errors are almost a factor of 2 range for  $\lambda > 290$  nm. Two recent ethyl nitrate cross-section measurements (Takacs, unpublished results, 1988; Roberts and Fajer, 1989) are in

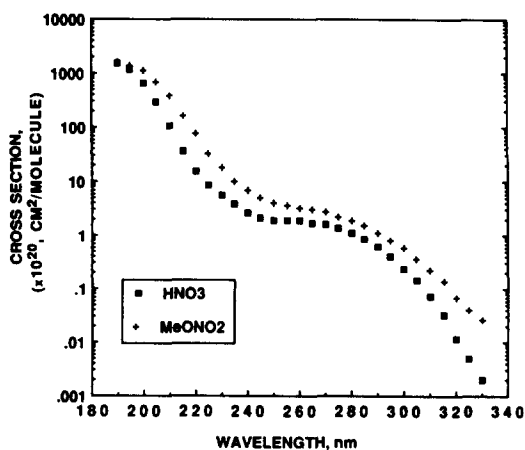


Fig. 4. The u.v. absorption spectra of  $\text{HNO}_3$  (Molina and Molina, 1981) and methyl nitrate (Taylor *et al.* 1980) between 190 and 330 nm.

excellent agreement, while that of Calvert and Pitts (1966) is higher and diverges from the other two in the region  $\lambda > 290$  nm, and that of Goodeve (1934, as reported by Leighton, 1961) exhibits the opposite curvature and is higher in the region  $\lambda > 310$  nm.

Spectra of various  $\text{ROONO}_2$  compounds have also been measured in a number of different studies. Methyl peroxyxynitrate has been studied at 298 K by Sander and Watson (1980), at 296 K by Morel *et al.*

Table 10. Gas phase u.v. absorption cross-sections of compounds of the type  $\text{RONO}_2$ 

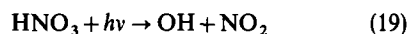
$\lambda(\text{nm})$	$H^*$	$\sigma(\times 10^{20} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ molecules}^{-1})$					NOA $\ddagger$ §
		$\text{CH}_3^\dagger$	$\text{CH}_3^\dagger$	$\text{C}_2\text{H}_5^\dagger$	$i\text{-C}_3\text{H}_7^\dagger$	$t\text{-C}_4\text{H}_9^\dagger$	
190	1560	1600					
195	1150	1400					
200	661	1100					
205	293	700					
210	105	380					
215	35.6	160					
220	15.1	78					
225	8.62	33					
230	5.65	18					
235	3.72	10					
240	2.57	6.7					
245	2.10	5.0					
250	1.91	$4.1 \pm 0.8$					
255	1.90	3.7					
260	1.88	3.2					
265	1.71	3.0					
270	1.59	2.7	2.4	3.1	4.1	4.3	
275	1.35	2.2	2.0	2.8	3.6	4.0	
280	1.10	1.9	1.6	2.3	2.9	3.7	
285	0.848	1.5	1.2	1.8	2.3	3.1	5.2
290	0.607	1.1	0.83	1.3	1.7	2.6	5.2
295	0.409	0.80	0.56	0.84	1.2	2.0	4.8
300	0.241	0.57	0.35	0.52	0.80	1.5	4.1
305	0.146	0.36	0.21	0.30	0.51	1.0	3.4
310	0.071	$0.22 \pm 0.18$	0.12	0.16	0.30	0.70	2.5
315	0.032	0.14	0.067	0.081	0.17	0.45	1.8
320	0.012	0.070	0.035	0.038	0.092	0.27	1.2
325	0.005	0.040	0.017	0.017	0.047	0.15	0.73
330	0.002	0.026	0.008	0.007	0.022	0.086	0.42

\*Molina and Molina (1981).  $T=298 \text{ K}$ . $\dagger$ Taylor *et al.* (1980).  $T=298 \text{ K}$ . Error estimates:  $\lambda=1100 \pm 200 (\times 10^{20})$  at 200 nm,  $4.1 \pm 0.8$  at 250 nm,  $0.22 \pm 0.18$  at 310 nm. $\ddagger$ Roberts and Fajer (1989).

§Nitrooxy acetone.

(1980), and at 275 K by Cox and Tyndall (1979) and are in reasonable agreement ( $\pm 50\%$ ), with the latter measurements showing a distinct band at  $\sim 240 \text{ nm}$  rather than an inflection, but none of the spectra extend beyond  $\sim 290 \text{ nm}$ . Cross-sections of the  $\text{CH}_3\text{OONO}_2$ ,  $\text{CCl}_3\text{OONO}_2$  and  $\text{CFCl}_2\text{OONO}_2$  are not significantly different from that of  $\text{HOONO}_2$ . The absorption cross-section of PAN has been determined by Stephens (1969), and Senum *et al.* (1984), the latter measurements, which extended to 300 nm, were 20–30% lower.

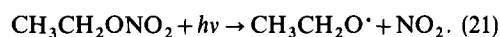
The products and quantum yields of photolysis of  $\text{RONO}_2$  and  $\text{RO}_2\text{NO}_2$  compounds have not been studied extensively. The lack of structure in the absorption spectra of  $\text{RONO}_2$  compounds has led to



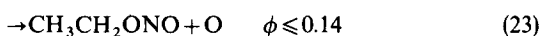
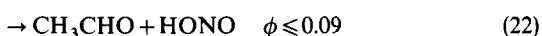
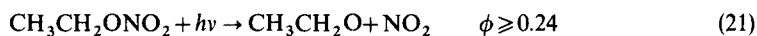
between 200 and 315 nm. Gray and Rogers (1954) concluded that  $\text{CH}_3\text{ONO}_2$  was photodissociated (by a low-pressure Hg lamp) through the analogous process:



however, they did not measure the quantum yield. Gray and Style (1953) measured a quantum yield of 0.31 for the photolysis of  $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{ONO}_2$  by the 253.7 and 265 nm Hg lines and deduced that (21) was the sole photolysis pathway:



Rebbert (1963) deduced the following three pathways for the photolysis of  $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{ONO}_2$  at 313 nm:



the assumption of dissociation quantum yields of unity (Taylor *et al.*, 1980). Johnston *et al.* (1974) measured a quantum yield of 1 ( $\pm 0.05$ ) for the process:

where  $\phi$  is the quantum yield for a given process; the overall quantum yield was estimated at  $\sim 0.5$ . Renlund and Trott (1984) conclude that the photo-

Table 11. u.v. Absorption cross-sections of compounds of the type RO<sub>2</sub>NO<sub>2</sub>

$\lambda$ (nm)	$H^*$	$\sigma (\times 10^{20} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ molec}^{-1})$				
		CH <sub>3</sub> †	CCl <sub>3</sub> †	CFCl <sub>2</sub> †	CH <sub>3</sub> (CO)‡	CH <sub>3</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> (CO)‡
190	1010					
195	816					
200	563	528			317	269
205	367				237	211
210	241	278		125	165	155
215	164				115	101
220	120	133	136	85	77	69
225	95.2		117		55	48
230	80.8	62	97	70	40	35
235	69.8		79		29	24
240	59.1	50	65	56	21	17
245	49.7	44	53		15	12
250	41.8	35	51	39	11	9
255	35.1	30	40	35	8.0	6.5
260	27.8	26	30	29	5.7	4.6
265	22.4	23	25	18	4.0	3.2
270	17.8	16	14	12	2.8	2.3
275	13.4	12	11	6	1.8	1.5
280	9.3	7	9	4	1.1	1.0
285	6.3				0.72	0.60
290	4.0				0.41	0.33
295	2.6				0.22	0.16
300	1.6				0.11	0.097
305	0.1					
310	0.7					
315	0.4					
320	0.3					
325	0.2					
330	0.1					

\* Molina and Molina (1981):  $T=298 \text{ K}$ ; uncertainty estimated from 5% at 200 nm to 30% at 330 nm.

† Morel *et al.* (1980):  $T=296 \text{ K}$ ; estimated relative standard deviations: 10% for 220–260 nm, 25% for 265–275 nm, and 50% for 280–290 nm.

‡ Senum G. I. *et al.* (1984). Ultraviolet absorption spectrum of peroxyacetyl nitrate and peroxypropionyl nitrate. *J. phys. Chem.* **88**, 1269–1270.

$T=298 \pm 1 \text{ K}$ , Relative standard deviations varied from 1–2% at 200 nm, to 20–25% at 300 nm.

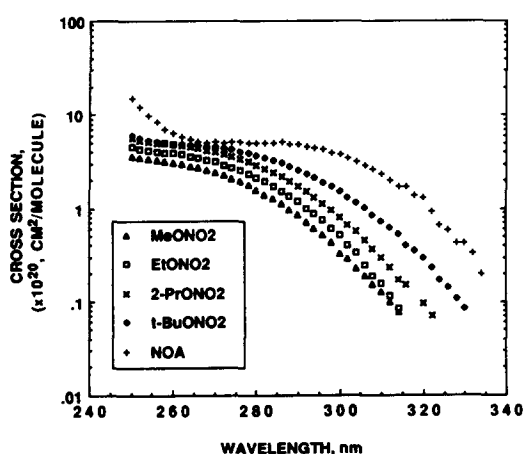


Fig. 5. The u.v. absorption spectra of methyl, ethyl, 2-propyl and *t*-butyl nitrates, and nitrooxy acetone (NOA) between 250 and 335 nm, from Roberts and Fajer (1989).

dissociation of CH<sub>3</sub>CH<sub>2</sub>CH<sub>2</sub>ONO<sub>2</sub> at 193 nm proceeds through the process analogous to 21. Although no studies of larger organic nitrates have been re-

ported, similar pathways may be expected for these compounds. It should be noted that the particular distribution of pathways should not have much effect on radical chemistry because expected concentrations of organic nitrates are small and photolysis rates slow relative to other photolytic radical sources such as O<sub>3</sub>. Direct measurement of the rates of ethyl *n*-propyl, *n*-butyl and 2-butyl nitrate photolysis to yield NO<sub>2</sub> have been made by Luke and Dickerson (1988) and Luke *et al.* (1990). Those measurements, coupled with the absorption spectra determined by Roberts and Fajer (1989), result in quantum yields close to unity ( $\pm 50\%$ ) for process [21] (and analogs) at temperatures of  $\sim 25^\circ\text{C}$ . A pronounced temperature dependence was observed in the photolysis rates of ethyl, *n*-propyl and 2-butyl nitrates which yielded a factor of 2 larger rate between 6 and  $26^\circ\text{C}$  (Luke *et al.*, 1989). Quantum efficiencies for photodissociation are probably close to unity and are unlikely to exhibit any temperature dependence since the actinic wavelength are so far above the bond dissociation energy threshold of  $\sim 700 \text{ nm}$  ( $41 \text{ kcal mole}^{-1}$ ). Temperature de-

Table 12. Least squares fits of the organic nitrate absorption spectra to equations of the form:  $\sigma(\lambda) = \exp(a\lambda^2 + b\lambda + c)$  in the region  $\lambda \geq 270$  nm (from Roberts and Fajer, 1989)

Compound	$a (\times 10^3)$	$b$	$c$	$R^2$	Uncertainty†
Methyl	-1.044	0.5309	-112.4	1.000	25
Ethyl	-1.442	0.7626	-145.7	0.999	25
1-Propyl	-1.344	0.7110	-138.9	0.999	25
2-Propyl	-1.086	0.5649	-118.0	0.999	25
1-Butyl	-1.384	0.7305	-141.2	0.999	20
2-Butyl	-1.250	0.6578	-131.1	1.000	20
<i>t</i> -Butyl	-0.993	0.5307	-115.5	0.999	25
2-Pentyl	-1.231	0.6454	-129.1	1.000	25
3-Pentyl	-1.446	0.7712	-147.4	0.999	25
Cyclopentyl	-1.884	1.0109	-180.5	0.997	100
Nitrooxyacetone*	-1.365	0.7834	-156.8	0.994	25
					70‡
Nitrooxyethanol	-2.359	1.2478	-210.4	0.998	140§

\*  $\lambda \geq 284$  nm.

†Relative uncertainty at 310 nm (%).

‡Relative uncertainty at 330 nm (%).

§Relative uncertainty at 300 nm (%).

Table 13. Photodissociation rate estimates for  $\text{RONO}_2$  and  $\text{ROONO}_2$  compounds

Compound	$J (\text{s}^{-1} \times 10^6)$	Conditions	Reference
$\text{CH}_3\text{ONO}_2$	2.2	Surface, $\text{ZA}^* = 45^\circ$	Taylor <i>et al.</i> , 1980
	1.5	0.98 km alt. $\text{ZA} = 0^\circ$	Roberts and Fajer, 1989
$\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{ONO}_2$	1.9	0.98 km, $\text{ZA} = 0^\circ$	Roberts and Fajer, 1989
	1.4	Surface, $\text{ZA} = 0^\circ$	Luke <i>et al.</i> , 1990
$\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{ONO}_2$	1.3	Surface, $\text{ZA} = 0^\circ$	Luke <i>et al.</i> , 1990
$(\text{CH}_3)_2\text{CHONO}_2$	3.9	0.98 km, $\text{ZA} = 0^\circ$	Roberts and Fajer, 1989
$\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}(\text{ONO}_2)\text{CH}_3$	3.5	0.98 km, $\text{ZA} = 0^\circ$	Roberts and Fajer, 1989
	2.5	Surface, $\text{ZA} = 0^\circ$	Luke <i>et al.</i> , 1990
$(\text{CH}_3)_3\text{CONO}_2$	10	0.98 km, $\text{ZA} = 0^\circ$	Roberts and Fajer, 1989
$\text{CH}_3\text{C}(\text{O})\text{CH}_2\text{ONO}_2$	42	0.98 km, $\text{ZA} = 0^\circ$	Roberts and Fajer, 1989
$\text{HOONO}_2$	9.6	Troposphere	Molina and Molina, 1981
$\text{CH}_3\text{C}(\text{O})\text{OONO}_2$	0.06–0.21	Surface, $\text{ZA} = 0\text{--}60^\circ$	Senum <i>et al.</i> , 1984
$\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{C}(\text{O})\text{OONO}_2$	0.07–0.23	Surface, $\text{ZA} = 0\text{--}60^\circ$	Senum <i>et al.</i> , 1984

\*ZA = solar zenith angle.

†From the equations:

$$J_{\text{EN}} = \exp \{ [-3.341 \times 10^{-3} [\text{O}_3]_{\text{total}} \sec(\theta)] - 8.396 - (1211.2/T) \}$$

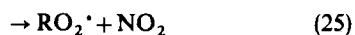
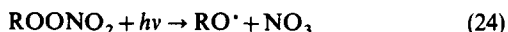
$$J_{\text{NPN}} = \exp \{ \{ [-3.575 \times 10^{-3} [\text{O}_3]_{\text{total}} \sec(\theta)] - 8.415 - (1211.2/T) \}$$

$$J_{\text{2BN}} = \exp \{ [3.594 \times 10^{-3} [\text{O}_3]_{\text{total}} \sec(\theta)] - 7.291 - (1350.7/T) \}$$

where:  $\theta$  is the solar zenith angle,  $[\text{O}_3]_{\text{total}}$  is the column ozone abundance in Dobson units, and  $T$  is the temperature in K. Conditions used were  $\theta = 0^\circ$ ,  $[\text{O}_3] = 295$ ,  $T = 298$  K.

dependencies of absorption cross-sections are well known, especially at small cross-sections on the tails of absorption features, however that implied for alkyl nitrates is unusually large (NASA, 1987). An explanation for this is a significant contribution to the absorption cross-section by a higher vibrational level (Luke and Dickerson, 1988; Luke *et al.*, 1990).

To date no product studies of  $\text{ROONO}_2$  photolysis have been reported; plausible pathways are



with (25) being favored thermochemically (see below).

Atmospheric photodissociation rates of  $\text{RONO}_2$  and  $\text{ROONO}_2$  may be calculated using the following

expression:

$$J = \int \phi(\lambda) \sigma(\lambda) I(\lambda) d\lambda \quad (\text{II})$$

where  $\phi(\lambda)$  = the quantum efficiency as a function of wavelength.

$\sigma(\lambda)$  = the absorption cross-section as a function of wavelength.

$I(\lambda)$  = the spherically-integrated solar actinic flux as a function of wavelength (e.g. Demerjian *et al.*, 1980).

Such estimates have been reported for some  $\text{RONO}_2$  and  $\text{ROONO}_2$  compounds and are summarized in Table 13. These estimates were all made assuming quantum efficiencies of unity for  $\text{RONO}_2$  or  $\text{ROONO}_2$  destruction. Resulting lifetimes range from

<1 to >100 days and most certainly would exhibit strong altitude dependencies (see Taylor *et al.*, 1980). The major uncertainties in these estimates lie in the absorption cross-sections, especially for  $\lambda > 300$  nm, quantum efficiencies, and the temperature dependencies thereof.

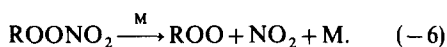
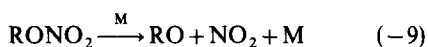
The direct photolytic rates measured by Luke and

Pressure dependencies are observed in Reactions -9 and -6, the extent of which depends on the size and nature of the R group. Such a pressure dependence is expected given that the combination Reaction (6) exhibits a pressure dependence. Graham *et al.* (1978) determined the pressure dependence of  $\text{HOONO}_2$  decomposition and arrived at the following equation:

$$k(M) = \{5.2 \times 10^{-6} \exp(-19.9/RT)[M]/(1 + 4.86 \times 10^{-12}[M]^{0.61})\} \text{ s}^{-1} \quad (\text{III})$$

Dickerson (1988) and Luke *et al.* (1990) were observed to vary not only with temperature, but also with total column  $\text{O}_3$  concentration. This follows from the fact that  $\text{O}_3$  is responsible for most of the absorption of solar radiation in the wavelength region just below 310 nm. Predictive equations were derived for  $J$  of ethyl, *n*-propyl and 2-butyl nitrates as a function of zenith angle, total column ozone and temperature. Estimates from these equations are reasonably close to estimates made from absorption spectra and solar flux data (Table 13). The photolysis rate measurements for *n*-butyl nitrate (Luke *et al.*, 1990) although not as extensive, appear to be close to those that would be predicted from absorption spectra.

Thermal decomposition is an important process because it constitutes the major atmospheric loss mechanism of  $\text{ROONO}_2$  compounds and can limit the extent to which  $\text{RONO}_2$  compounds will survive in combustion sources. These reactions occur via the following pathways (Gray and Rogers, 1954; Hendry and Kenley, 1977, 1979).



Therefore, in the presence of sufficient  $\text{O}_2$  or  $\text{NO}$ , Reactions 17 and 10 prevent the reformation of  $\text{RONO}_2$  and  $\text{ROONO}_2$ , respectively.

Thermal decomposition rate constants are presented in Table 14 in the Arrhenius form. The  $A$  factors are all within the range  $10^{14}$ – $10^{17}$  with the exception of the PAN decomposition involving a cyclic intermediate. The activation energies ( $E_a$ ) are very close to the  $\text{RO-NO}_2$  ( $\text{ROO-NO}_2$ ) bond energies, consistent with the lack of any appreciable activation energies for reactions of the type  $\text{RO}$  ( $\text{ROO}$ ) +  $\text{NO}_2$ . For example:  $\Delta H$  for  $\text{CH}_3\text{ONO}_2 \rightarrow \text{CH}_3\text{O} + \text{NO}_2 = 40.0 \pm 0.5 \text{ kcal mole}^{-1}$  (Benson, 1976),  $E_a + RT = 41 \pm 1 \text{ kcal mole}^{-1}$  (Batt *et al.*, 1977). This is a useful approximation that can be used to estimate the thermal stability of a compound for which thermochemical quantities are known or can be estimated. For example,  $\Delta H$  for  $\text{ROONO} \rightarrow \text{ROO}$  is estimated to be  $\sim 20 \text{ kcal mole}^{-1}$ , and coupled with a reasonable  $A$  factor  $\sim 10^{16} \text{ s}^{-1}$  (Benson, 1976) gives a lifetime for  $\text{ROONO}$  compounds at 298 K that is quite short (0.05 s).

where  $[M]$  is in  $\text{molec cm}^{-3}$ ,  $RT$  in  $\text{kcal mole}^{-1}$ . The rate constant does not approach its high-pressure limit at 1 atm. Similar results were obtained by Bahta *et al.* (1982) with  $\text{CH}_3\text{OONO}_2$ , in which the results were fit to Equation I. The following rate coefficients and dependencies were found

$$k_0(T) = (1.5 \pm 0.8) \times 10^{-30} (T/300)^{-(4.0 \pm 2.0)}$$

$$k_\infty(T) = (6.5 \pm 3.2) \times 10^{-12} (T/300)^{-(2.0 \pm 2.0)}.$$

The pressure dependence of PAN decomposition by simple fission has been observed but not quantified by Bruckmann and Willner (1983) in the range 1.48–32.4 torr. However, Addison *et al.* (1980) observed a relatively slight pressure dependence of the formation reaction (Table 6) in the range 28–715 torr. Therefore, only slight pressure dependence of Reaction -6 is expected for PAN. Senum *et al.* (1986) reported no discernable pressure dependence in the rearrangement reaction of PAN from 2.5 to 21 torr initial pressure. Calculations by Jullien *et al.* (1983) for 2-propyl nitrate thermal decomposition indicate that the rate is close to the high pressure limit at 1 atm (450 K).

Several general conclusions can be arrived at from the above thermal decomposition data. Compounds of the type  $\text{RONO}_2$  are stable at atmospheric temperatures; however will decompose at significant rates in exhaust streams and at temperatures present in instrumentation used to make chemical measurements, such as  $\text{NO}_2$  reduction catalysts, and GC injection ports. The peroxy-carboxylic nitric anhydrides (e.g. PAN) are moderately stable at temperatures typical of the tropospheric boundary layer and very stable at temperatures typical of the upper troposphere/lower stratosphere. Compounds such as  $\text{ClONO}_2$  and  $\text{ROONO}_2$ , where R is an alkyl group, are unstable at lower tropospheric temperatures, and moderately stable at upper tropospheric temperatures.

Since the atmosphere is a multi-phase system, containing liquid and solid phase material, the uptake by, and subsequent reaction of organic nitrates in these phases must be considered. In addition, it is useful to examine the aqueous chemistry of organic nitrates since it has some bearing on how these species may behave in chemical analysis systems. It is safe to say that there is much less known, especially in a quantitative sense, about the multi-phase behavior of or-

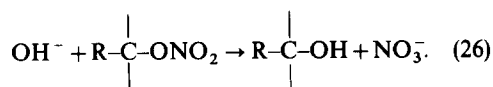


cloudwater and precipitation. The Henry's Law solubility of PAN was found by Lee (1984) to be  $3.6 \pm 0.2 \text{ M atm}^{-1}$  at  $22.0^\circ\text{C}$  and  $8.3 \pm 0.5 \text{ M atm}^{-1}$  at  $10.2^\circ\text{C}$  ( $\Delta H_{\text{sol}}^\circ = -11.75 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$ ), and  $5 \pm 1 \text{ M atm}^{-1}$  at  $10^\circ\text{C}$  by Holdren *et al.* (1984). Henry's Law solubilities of  $3 \text{ M atm}^{-1}$  for methylnitrate (Lee *et al.*, 1983),  $1.6 \pm 0.12 \text{ M atm}^{-1}$  for 1-butyl and  $0.74 \pm 0.04 \text{ M atm}^{-1}$  for 2-butyl nitrates at  $295 \text{ K}$  (Luke *et al.*, 1989) and  $3.94 \pm 0.59 \text{ M atm}^{-1}$  for 1-butyl and  $2.27 \pm 0.23 \text{ M atm}^{-1}$  for 2-butyl nitrates at  $279 \text{ K}$  (Luke *et al.*, 1989) have been reported. Solubilities of other alkyl nitrates are expected to be similar, however, those of difunctional nitrates, especially hydroxynitrates may be significantly larger. Since PAN and alkyl nitrates are of intermediate solubility, its importance in liquid phase chemistry may depend on the rates of subsequent liquid-phase reactions.

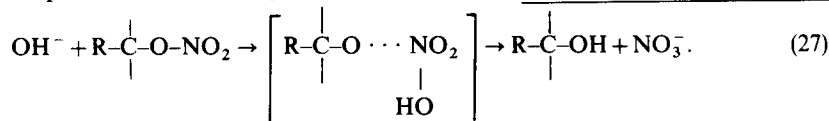
The deposition of PAN on natural surfaces has been studied by Garland and Penkett (1976). Deposition velocities of around  $0.25 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$  were observed over soil and grass, which corresponded to surface resistances of  $2.9\text{--}7.0 \text{ s cm}^{-1}$ . These results are in qualitative agreement with those of Hill (1971) who observed PAN uptake by alfalfa that was about a factor of 2 slower than  $\text{O}_3$ . No discernable ( $< 0.04 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$ ) deposition was observed over deionized water or sea water surfaces. A deposition velocity of  $\sim 0.006 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$  was determined by Schurath *et al.* (1984) over waters of  $\text{pH} < 7$ . It was further concluded that while the surface deposition of PAN will lead to relatively slow removal ( $\tau_e \sim 2 \text{ days}$ ) for mixing heights of  $1 \text{ km}$ , mixing heights below  $100 \text{ m}$  caused by nocturnal inversions will cause fairly rapid depletion of PAN within the surface layer.

Reactions of organic nitrates in aqueous solution that are of interest here include hydrolysis, redox and dehydration reactions under mildly acidic to alkaline conditions and possible reactions with other trace species or radicals. The hydrolysis of simple nitrate esters has been observed to occur via the following pathways (Cannon, 1970; Baker and Easty, 1950);

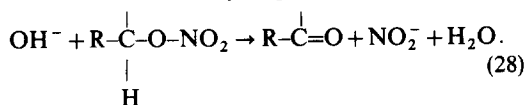
Nucleophilic attack on carbon:



Nucleophilic attack on nitrogen:



Abstraction of an  $\alpha$ -hydrogen:



Abstraction of a  $\beta$ -hydrogen:

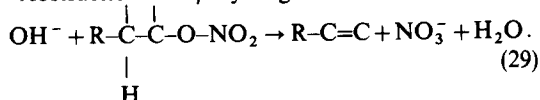


Table 15. The hydrolysis rate of PAN in water

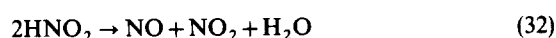
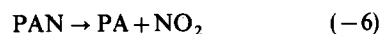
Temperature ( $^\circ\text{C}$ )	$k (\text{s}^{-1} \times 10^4)$	References
5	$1.17 \pm 0.05$	Holdren <i>et al.</i> , 1984
15	$2.17 \pm 0.05$	Holdren <i>et al.</i> , 1984
22	$4.0 \pm 1.2$	Lee, 1984
25	$6.83 \pm 1.7$	Holdren <i>et al.</i> , 1984

Although mechanistically distinct, Reactions (26) and (27) produce the same end products. Reactions (28) and (29) are redox and dehydration reactions, respectively, and it should be noted that Reaction (28) produces nitrate ion.

Hydrolysis in neutral or acidic solution has been observed to be relatively slow ( $10^{-5}\text{--}10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) for a variety of alkyl nitrates (Robertson *et al.*, 1982) and was not acid catalyzed. The products of neutral hydrolysis of four secondary alkyl nitrates: 2-propyl, 2-butyl, cyclopentyl, and cyclohexyl were the corresponding alcohols (Robertson *et al.*, 1982). The neutral hydrolyses of *t*-butyl nitrate and benzyl nitrate were found by Lucas and Hammett (1942) to be quite slow, and to result in some formation of isobutene ( $\sim 15\%$ ) and benzaldehyde ( $\sim 6\%$ ).

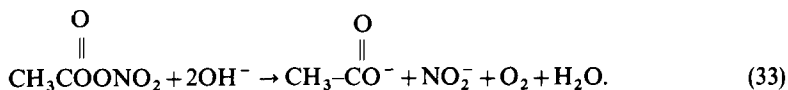
The hydrolysis of nitrate esters appears to be base catalyzed for some species but not for others. For instance, benzyl nitrate hydrolysis is base catalyzed whereas that of *t*-butyl nitrate is not (Lucas and Hammett, 1942). It should be noted that even with basic catalysis, these reactions can still be quite slow. Studies of the aqueous phase chemistry of peroxy-carboxylic nitric anhydrides has been limited largely to PAN, with some work having been done on PBzN. PAN hydrolysis in acidic solution has been observed to be relatively slow, but appears to be a strong function of temperature. Lee (1984) observed a rate constant at  $22^\circ\text{C}$  which was roughly independent of pH in the range 4.2–5.6. Holdren *et al.* (1984) measured the rate constant as function of temperature from 5 to  $25^\circ\text{C}$  (independent of pH, 4.0–5.6), and observed that  $\text{NO}_3^-$  was the principal nitrogen decomposition product in this pH range. These data are summarized in Table 15. The decomposition of PAN in neutral or acidic solution may be dominated by the same homolytic pathway as the gas-phase decomposition. Therefore in

the laboratory studies of Holdren *et al.* (1984) which were done at relatively high concentration, the following reactions pertain:

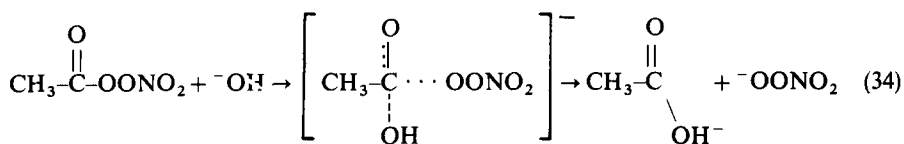


which may account for the observation that  $\text{NO}_3^-$  was the principal product.

The hydrolysis of PAN in basic solution has been observed to be rapid by Stephens (1967) and Nicksic *et al.* (1967). The products of hydrolysis were found to be acetate and nitrite ions and molecular oxygen, consistent with the following overall reaction:



Steer *et al.* (1969) further showed that some of the molecular oxygen was formed in an excited state. Emission from  $\text{O}_2 (^1\Delta_g)$  was observed and initial formation of  $\text{O}_2 (^1\Sigma_g^+)$  was deemed possible. The following is a plausible mechanism:



Hydroxyl ion attack on the carbonyl carbon is most probable by analogy to hydrolysis of esters and other anhydrides, with elimination of the peroxyxynitrate ( $\text{OONO}_2^-$ ) anion and subsequent decomposition to molecular oxygen and nitrite.

The following general statements can be made concerning the atmospheric removal pathways of organic nitrates. Alkyl nitrates are lost in all regions of the troposphere primarily by photolysis at wavelengths  $< 330$  nm, although reaction with OH may be significant for compounds of high carbon number ( $\geq \text{C}_5$ ). Alkyl peroxyxynitrates are thermally unstable at temperatures characteristic of the lower troposphere, and will be destroyed by photolysis ( $\tau \lesssim 1$  day) in the upper troposphere. The thermal decomposition of peroxyxycarboxylic nitric anhydrides is the dominant tropospheric loss mechanism, however photolysis, reaction of OH with higher carbon number species, such as PBzN, will surely be significant in the upper troposphere.

#### MEASUREMENT TECHNIQUES

The first identifications of organic nitrates in laboratory organic photooxidation systems were made by i.r. spectroscopy. In these studies, the presence of alkyl nitrates and an unidentified species "Compound X" were noted by Stephens *et al.* (1956a,b). The presence of "Compound X" in the atmosphere of Los Angeles was confirmed by long-path i.r. absorption a short time later (Scott *et al.*, 1957). Five possible

structures were originally hypothesized for "Compound X", none of which proved to be correct. Through subsequent work (Stephens *et al.*, 1961) the structure, and corresponding name, of "peroxyacetyl nitrate" were arrived at. An interesting account of this early research can be found in Stephens (1987). Long-

path i.r. absorption remains a useful method for the measurement of PAN at the higher concentrations characteristic of urban areas (Tuazon *et al.*, 1978; Hanst *et al.*, 1982). More recently matrix-isolation

FT-i.r. spectroscopy has been used for the measurement of PAN in ambient air (Griffith and Schuster, 1987). While the long-path measurements have detection limits of a few ppbv mixing ratio of PAN, the matrix isolation technique has a reported limit of 0.05 ppbv.

PAN and other organic nitrates have generally been measured by gas chromatography with electron capture detection (GC/ECD). The original method described by Darley *et al.* (1963) for PAN and larger homologues has been refined and adapted by numerous practitioners over the ensuing years: however, several of the essential features of the technique have not changed. Column and detector temperatures have been kept relatively low ( $< 50^\circ$  and  $< 100^\circ\text{C}$ , respectively) to minimize thermal decomposition, and short packed columns coated with polyethylene glycol-type phases have been used. In general, the more inert materials of construction such as glass, Teflon and polyethylene have been used in these systems, however there are numerous reports of the use of stainless steel with apparently satisfactory results.

Samples are most often injected directly into PAN GC/ECD systems using a gas switching valve with a sample loop, limited by chromatographic considerations to a volume of approximately  $20\text{ cm}^3$  (for 760 torr samples). Samples have been transported to the GC systems either with gas tight syringes or by a continuously flowing sample line, constructed of some inert material such as Teflon. Pyrex glass has been observed to catalyze the apparent formation of PAN



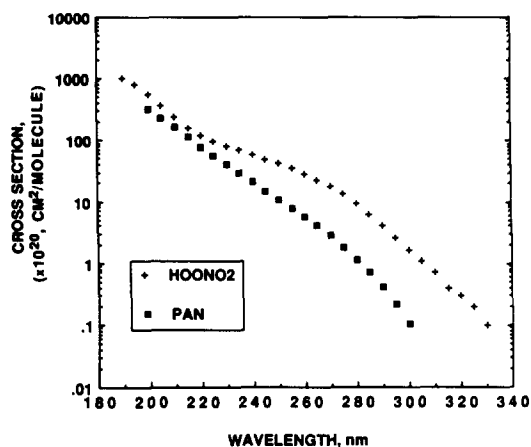


Fig. 6. The u.v. absorption spectra of HOONO<sub>2</sub> (Molina and Molina, 1981) and PAN (Senum *et al.* 1984) between 190 and 330 nm.

during sampling (Lovelock and Penkett, 1974). However, Singh and Salas (1983a) report a 20% loss of PAN in Pyrex wool, and Glavas and Schurath (1983) report 12% loss of PAN in a Pyrex cryosampler. Singh and Viezee (1988) describe an enhancement in observed PAN concentrations by as much as a factor of 6 in marine air sampled through glass chambers. Cryogenic concentration of PAN has been reported by Singh and Salas (1983a), Glavas and Schurath (1983), Meyrahn *et al.* (1984) and Vierkorn-Rudolf (1985). These studies have found only slight overall losses of PAN (10–20%) associated with cryosampling, provided that samples are warmed only to room temperature prior to injection. Water need not be removed from the gas stream prior to cryosampling because PAN hydrolysis is slow in such systems (Glavas and Schurath, 1983), however, Singh and Salas (1983) used a Nafion® semi-permeable membrane dryer for sampling with no discernable loss of PAN.

The gas chromatographic separation of PAN has nearly always been done at low temperatures (20–35°C) with short packed columns (0.14–2.0 m) coated with polyethylene glycol phases. Conditions (retention time, temperature) can be adjusted to minimize thermal decomposition and to determine methyl nitrate and PPN as well. However, even under optimal conditions PAN losses in the column can be substantial (Singh and Salas, 1983a) and methyl nitrate may not be completely separated from chlorocarbons such as tetrachlorethylene (Brice *et al.*, 1984). The work of Darley (1963) shows that the larger homologs of PAN and PPN, as well as ethyl and propyl nitrates should be observable with PAN measurement systems, but alkyl nitrates larger than methyl nitrate have only recently been reported in ambient air measurements (Buhr *et al.*, 1988). Coelution of ECD-sensitive species in real air samples has been checked through selective removal of PAN and PPN by KOH (Vierkorn-Rudolph *et al.*, 1985), and was found not to be a

problem in their system. The elution of water as a large peak relatively late in the analysis is often the limiting factor in sampling repetition rate. A two-column system, consisting of a pre-column and analysis column of identical material, has been devised by Vierkorn-Rudolph *et al.* (1985) to eliminate water from the analysis through back-flushing. Water has also been observed to greatly reduce the response of the GC/ECD system to PAN at water concentrations below 60% r.h., and PAN mixing ratios below 100 ppbv, often to the point of complete disappearance (Holdren and Rasmussen, 1976). A humidity effect was alluded to by Nieboer and van Ham (1976), but no details were given. Lonneman (1977) found no humidity effect in his PAN measurements, while Watanabe and Stephens (1978) observed some humidity affect in their GC/ECD systems <5–10% for <sup>3</sup>H-ECD and 5–70% for <sup>63</sup>Ni, but only at 2–5% r.h. and complete loss of PAN in an acid-washed glass flask at 2–5% r.h. Clearly systems of this type need to be examined in order to understand the nature of any humidity problem. Improvements on the GC/ECD system for PAN measurements may be possible through the use of capillary or coupled packed capillary (so-called “multi-dimensional”) GC methods (Liberti and Ciccioli, 1986). Recently, Roberts *et al.* (1989) have reported the separation of PAN, PPN, and C<sub>1</sub>–C<sub>4</sub> alkyl nitrates on a capillary column, but the application of this method to ambient analysis has not yet been demonstrated.

Electron capture has been the detection method most widely used in chromatographic analysis of PAN. The response of ECDs to PAN has been shown to decrease with increasing temperature (Singh and Salas, 1983a) probably due to thermal dissociation. The most reliable operation is generally achieved at temperatures somewhat above the column temperature. Thermal conversion of PAN to NO and measurement of the resulting NO by O<sub>3</sub>-chemiluminescence has also been used in chromatographic analysis (Glavas and Schurath, 1983; Joos *et al.*, 1986). This thermal conversion has been shown to proceed at close to 100% efficiency for PAN and alkyl nitrates on commercially available converters containing molybdenum or molybdenum on activated carbon (Winer *et al.*, 1974; Schurath *et al.*, 1984; Grosjean and Harrison, 1985), and gold catalysts (Bollinger *et al.*, 1983; Fahey *et al.*, 1985a). Therefore, this detection method has the advantage that it can be independently calibrated with a stable compound such as NO. Such catalytic conversion methods have been used to make NO<sub>y</sub> measurements. However, the NO<sub>y</sub> chemiluminescence method is not as sensitive as the electron capture detector, and requires the use of much more elaborate instrumentation. Recent work by Burkhardt *et al.* (1988) and Drummond *et al.* (1988) has shown that a luminol chemiluminescence detector can be used to detect PAN with attendant advantages of good sensitivity and less stringent carrier gas purity requirements.

The most difficult aspect of the PAN measurement is calibration. Gas phase standards have been produced either as static mixtures in steel, glass or plastic containers, or as flowing streams involving photochemical synthesis or diffusion sources of pure PAN. Such standards have been calibrated by i.r. spectroscopy, collection in basic solution as acetate or nitrite, measurement of the decrease in a photochemical reactant used to make PAN, or  $\text{NO}_x$  chemiluminescence.

The early work of Stephens and colleagues (Darley *et al.*, 1963; Stephens, 1969; Stephens and Price, 1973) was based on i.r. spectroscopic calibration, the original absorption coefficients having been measured by Stephens using PAN purified after photochemical synthesis. Stephens (1969) demonstrated that alkaline hydrolysis of PAN leads to formation of acetate and nitrite ions, and that colorimetric determination of the nitrite ion could be used for calibration. Such an analysis (more recently accomplished by ion chromatography) has been extensively used for PAN calibration. Photolysis of the  $\text{Cl}_2/\text{NO}_2/\text{air}/\text{acetaldehyde}$  system was used by Gay *et al.* (1976) to produce PAN in nearly quantitative yield (95%, based on acetaldehyde loss). This has been used as a basis of PAN calibration by Singh and Salas (1983a), after a slight correction for the presence of NO from  $\text{NO}_2$  photolysis, and by Grosjean *et al.* (1984). Lonneman *et al.* (1982) described a PAN calibration procedure based on thermal decomposition in the presence of NO, in which the consumption of NO was determined by  $\text{O}_3$ -chemiluminescence and an experimental stoichiometric factor was applied.

The selective collection of PAN in basic solution (KOH, NaOH) has been used in conjunction with  $\text{NO}_x$  chemiluminescence for the measurement of PAN in standard streams containing  $\text{NO}_2$  (Singh and Salas, 1983a; Grosjean and Harrison, 1985).  $\text{NO}_x$  chemiluminescence has also been utilized for the direct calibration of PAN in gas streams containing only PAN (Fehsenfeld *et al.*, 1987), or after separation of PAN from other  $\text{NO}_x$  species via gas chromatography (Joos *et al.*, 1986).

It is difficult to designate one calibration method as clearly superior to the others since each has advantages or disadvantages based on portability, ease of operation, sensitivity limit or chemical specificity. There are several reported studies in which methods have been intercompared with excellent to good agreement: i.r. spectroscopy and alkaline hydrolysis/colorimetric nitrite analysis in the concentration range 20–1600 ppmv (Stephens, 1969); the  $\text{Cl}_2/\text{NO}_2/\text{acetaldehyde}/\text{air}$  photochemical source, based on acetaldehyde loss and the difference in  $\text{NO}_x$  chemiluminescence signal downstream of an alkaline scrubber in the range 160–550 ppbv (Singh and Salas, 1983a); GC/FID analysis (which was based on an alkaline hydrolysis/colorimetric  $\text{NO}_2^-$  determination) and a GC/ $\text{NO}_x$  analysis at a concentration of PAN of about 100 ppbv (Meyrahn *et al.*, 1984); alkaline hy-

drolysis, with acetate ion determination, and  $\text{NO}_x$  chemiluminescence measurement using an alkaline scrubber ranging up to 400 ppbv (Grosjean and Harrison, 1985); and the alkaline hydrolysis/colorimetric  $\text{NO}_2^-$  determination and GC/ $\text{NO}_x$  determination of PAN standard streams in the range 3–80 ppbv (Joos *et al.*, 1986).

Several studies have indicated that the response of electron capture detectors is very similar for the  $\text{C}_1$ – $\text{C}_3$  alkyl nitrates, and PAN and PPN (Stephens and Price, 1973; Vierkorn-Rudolph *et al.*, 1985), however, reports of the observation of alkyl nitrates  $\geq \text{C}_2$  are limited to a few studies. Buhr *et al.* (1988) report much higher sensitivities for  $\text{C}_3$ – $\text{C}_5$  alkyl nitrates relative to PAN, and were able to measure 2-propyl, 2-butyl and 2-pentyl nitrates with a conventional packed column coupled to a sealed ECD that was thought to have generally enhanced sensitivity. Most measurements of methyl nitrate and PPN have usually assumed ECD responses equivalent to that of PAN as a basis for calibration, however loss of PAN in the analytical system impacts on the validity of this assumption. Williams (1965) found ethyl nitrate in 2.5 l air samples collected at  $-80^\circ\text{C}$  and analyzed by packed column GC/ECD. The identification of ethyl nitrate was made by comparison of retention time, ECD response, and lack of retention on a  $\text{MgClO}_4$  drying column of the ambient air sample and an authentic ethyl nitrate sample. No quantitative information was given, and it was noted that ethyl nitrate was only 'occasionally' observed. Jonsson and Berg (1983) describe qualitative identification of isopropyl nitrate in the atmosphere of Stockholm using cryogenic sampling and a two-dimensional GC analytical scheme. Jüttner (1988) reported one measurement of isopropyl nitrate made in a forested area near Tübingen, F.R.G., using a cryogenic collection technique involving a solid sorbent material, and GC analysis.

Atlas (1988) has recently observed  $\text{C}_4$  and  $\text{C}_5$  (and possibly  $\text{C}_3$ ) alkyl nitrates in shipboard measurements in the northern Pacific Ocean, and in ambient air samples from College Station, Texas. Samples were collected and analyzed using a method based on the technique of Grob and Grob (1971), in which large volumes (10–300 l) of air were passed through 5 mg charcoal traps, and the traps were subsequently extracted with small volumes of benzene ( $\sim 40 \mu\text{l}$ ). The solvent extracts were then analyzed, without further concentration, by capillary GC with electron capture detection via splitless injection at relatively high temperature. Explicit gas-phase standards were not generated and tested in this study because these compounds were identified in the samples subsequent to collection. Quantitation was achieved using solution standards and by assuming complete collection in, and recovery from, the sampling system. The alkyl nitrates were identified by retention time and negative ion mass spectrometry and confirmed where possible with authentic samples, with positive results for 2-butyl nitrate, and the 2- and 3- pentyl nitrates. The presence

of other nitrates, in particular a propyl nitrate, was also indicated, but interferences from the presence of halocarbons or solvent precluded quantitation.

There are a few measurements of peroxybenzoic nitric anhydride (PBzN) in ambient air. The early work of Heuss and Glasson (1968), showing that base-catalyzed solvolysis of PBzN by methanol gave quantitative yields of methyl benzoate, formed the basis of the measurement technique first employed by Appel (1973) and later by Meijer and Nieboer (1977) wherein PBzN was collected in bubblers containing methanol-NaOH solution. Appel (1973) demonstrated that benzoic acid was not converted to methyl benzoate under sampling conditions and, hence, would not interfere with the measurement. The resulting methyl benzoate was solvent extracted and analyzed by GC/FID, with a detection limit of 0.07 ppbv with packed column separation (Appel, 1973) and 0.03 ppbv with capillary column with separation (Meijer and Nieboer, 1977). Fung and Grosjean (1985) describe the measurement of PBzN by collection in aqueous KOH solution, then analyzed as benzoic acid by ion chromatography with u.v. absorption detection. Although their studies indicate that gas-phase benzoic acid is efficiently collected by this technique, they argue that benzoic acid should be found mostly in the aerosol phase and that the aerosol concentrations that have been observed would constitute a very small interference in their method. Their detection limit is estimated at 0.03 ppbv of PBzN in a 60  $\ell$  sample.

Qualitative evidence of the presence of difunctional organic nitrates in carbonaceous aerosol was reported by Schuetzle *et al.* (1975). Analyses were performed by high resolution mass spectrometry after direct thermal evolution from the sampling medium (gold plates, or glass fiber filters). The structures identified were of the type  $X-(CH_2)_n-Y$  where  $n=3-5$ ;  $X=-COOH$  (presumably a carboxylic acid group), and  $-CHO$ ; and  $Y=CH_2ONO$ ,  $CH_2ONO_2$ ,  $-COONO_2$ , and  $-COONO$ . The last two structures are doubtful since it is unlikely that compounds of the type  $ROONO_2$  and  $ROONO$  are stable. Estimated concentrations ranged up to  $1.0 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  but were generally quite a bit lower than that.

#### ATMOSPHERIC OBSERVATIONS

Although many organic nitrates have been identified in laboratory studies, extensive atmospheric measurements, generally in urban areas, have been limited to PAN. It is only in the past 10 years or so that the global impact of PAN has been recognized and its measurement in the remote troposphere undertaken. In addition it is now clear that measurements of other major  $\text{NO}_x$  species, and total  $\text{NO}_x$ , are extremely valuable in interpreting PAN measurements. Investigations of other organic nitrates have been limited to PPN, PBzN and simple alkyl nitrates. Although the data for these are sparse, they exhibit some interesting features, and suggest many avenues of future study.

The PAN data presented below have been classified according to the nature of the air masses in which the measurements were made. PAN is a secondary species formed from both  $\text{NO}_x$  and organic precursors with the formation rate being roughly first order in each precursor. Both  $\text{NO}_x$  and organic species have diffuse background sources and large anthropogenic sources confined to relatively small urban areas. It is well established that the concentrations of these anthropogenic precursors decrease rapidly as air masses are advected from urban areas; therefore, the air masses are classified roughly according to the time elapsed since the impact of urban sources. The categories and times to be used here are as follows: urban,  $t < 1$  day; regional,  $t = 1-3$  days; and remote,  $t \geq 3$  days. Obviously the boundaries between categories are somewhat ill-defined, resulting in somewhat arbitrary classifications. In addition, reported measurements do not always contain information necessary to make classifications. Nevertheless, these categories will provide a context in which to discuss relevant points of atmospheric chemistry.

#### Urban PAN measurements

PAN has been measured in urban areas since the early 1960s. There have been several recent summaries of these measurements (Altshuler, 1983; Temple and Taylor, 1983a; Grosjean, 1984). Important features of these measurements are reviewed here; measurements reported since the previous summaries are listed in Table 16.

There are a number of interesting features in the urban PAN measurements. The highest average and maximum concentrations reported have been found in Los Angeles and the surrounding areas, where daily averages range from 10 to 30 ppbv with maxima up to 210 ppbv. Other cities in the continental U.S. have exhibited averages and maximum concentrations somewhat lower than those of Los Angeles. Observations in cities outside the U.S. have shown in general lower PAN concentrations although maximum concentrations have approached those reported for some U.S. cities.

It has been well established from these urban data sets that PAN is a photochemical reaction product. Diurnal profiles have consistently shown daytime, usually mid-afternoon, maxima for PAN concentrations, and higher PAN concentrations in the summer relative to the winter months. The diurnal profiles reported by Grosjean (1984), are shown for example in Fig. 7. These profiles were generated from a large set of measurements made in Riverside, CA (Pitts and Grosjean, 1979). Thus in urban areas close to sources of  $\text{NO}_x$  and organic compounds ambient concentrations of PAN are heavily dependent on the formation rate of PAN, which is dependent on solar radiation.

Annual and seasonal trend data on PAN concentration are sparse, as there are only a few data sets available of any extent. The general observation of higher summertime concentrations relative to winter-

Table 16. Recent measurements of PAN in urban air masses

Site	Sampling period	PAN(ppbv)		Reference
		Avg	Max	
Delft, The Netherlands	1973–1985	0.42*	0.94*	Guicherit, 1987
Bonn, F.R.G.	June–July 1980	0.41	1.6	Löbel <i>et al.</i> , 1980
Simcoe, Canada	June 1980–March 1981	1.3	5.6	Corkum <i>et al.</i> , 1986
Univ. of Calgary, Canada	19 November 1980–30 August 1981	0.22	2.4	Peake and Sandhu, 1983
Calgary, Canada,	12 July 1981–7 April 1982	0.14	6.6	Peake and Sandhu, 1983
Bonn, F.R.G.	18–27 August 1982	0.08	0.17	Glavas and Schurath, 1983
Athens, Greece	14–16 September 1982	0.53	0.78	Glavas and Schurath, 1983
Patras, Greece	17 September 1982	0.07†		Glavas and Schurath, 1983
Edmonton, Canada	December 1982–May 1984	0.28	7.5	Peake <i>et al.</i> , 1988
Philadelphia, PA	4–22 April 1983	1.0	3.7	Singh and Salas, 1989
Staten Island, NY	25 April–1 May, 1983	1.6	5.5	Singh and Salas, 1989
Fort Saskatchewan, Canada,	August–September 1983	0.25	0.66	Peake <i>et al.</i> , 1988
Downey, CA	18–27 February 1984	1.2	6.7	Singh and Salas, 1989
Houston, TX	9–17 March 1984	0.75	7.9	Singh and Salas, 1989
Denver, CO	24 March–1 April 1984	0.64	2.04	Singh and Salas, 1989
Birmensdorf, Switzerland	15 June–18 July 1984	0.4	5.5	Landolt <i>et al.</i> , 1985
Athens, Greece	February–October 1985	0.68	3.7	Tsani-Bazaca <i>et al.</i> , 1988
Rio de Janeiro	1–11 July 1985		5.4	Tanner <i>et al.</i> , 1988
Paris, France	18–31 October 1985	1.0	9.0	Tsalkani <i>et al.</i> , 1987
	7–26 February 1986	1.8	6.7	Tsalkani <i>et al.</i> , 1987
Claremont, CA	11–19 September 1986	3.2	11.8	Grosjean, 1988

\*Quarterly averages.

†Single measurement.

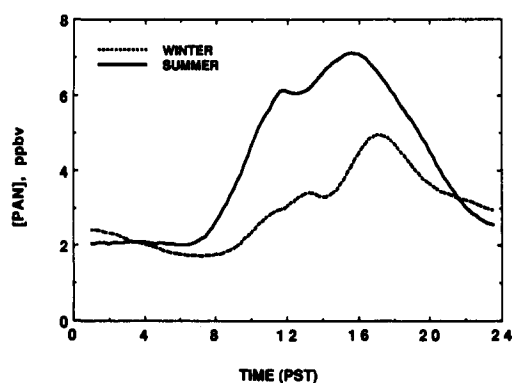


Fig. 7. Six month-averaged diurnal concentration-time profiles for PAN (ppb), Riverside, CA, 1975–1976. Solid line = summer, May–October 1987; Dashed line = winter, November 1975–April 1976. Reported by Grosjean (1984) as having been adapted from Pitts and Grosjean (1979).

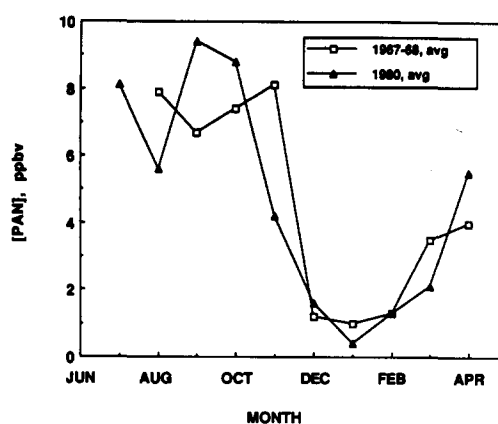


Fig. 8. The annual trend in PAN concentrations measured in Riverside, CA, as monthly means of observations made between the hours of 0800 and 2000, for 1967–1968 and 1980 (Temple and Taylor, 1983b).

time is borne out by several large measurement sets made in urban and regional areas (Temple and Taylor, 1983a; Grosjean, 1984). The only two data sets that involve measurements by the same research group at the same site for extended periods of time were made by Temple and Taylor (1983a,b) in Riverside, CA, from August–April 1967–1968 and July–April 1980, using essentially the same techniques. PAN concentrations are shown as monthly averages between the hours of 0800 and 2000 in Fig. 8. If the month-to-month variability is taken into account, the 1968–1969 and 1980 do not indicate any long term change in PAN concentration during this period. In addition, the same seasonal dependence in PAN concentration

is observed in both periods. The 24-h concentrations of Grosjean (1984) are somewhat lower in the summer months due to the inclusion of lower night-time values, but is still consistent with the 1968–1969 and 1980 data. In contrast with these results, Guicherit (1987) reports a large increase in PAN concentration (of approximately 10% per year) between 1973 and 1985 at Delft in The Netherlands. These data are plotted in Fig. 9 as quarterly averages and exhibit not only an increase with time but a distinct seasonal trend, that, as will be seen below, is more characteristic of remote or rural sites that are influenced by air masses of remote origin.

Measurements on this time scale and of this scope

are extremely valuable in examining the long term trends in oxidant formation and the impact of anthropogenic emissions. The data from Riverside indicate that in spite of the population growth that took place from 1967 to 1980 with that air-basin, PAN concen-

trations have not grown. This trend is consistent with the trends in  $\text{NO}_x$  and NMHC concentration in the South Coast air basin, which have not changed, or perhaps declined slightly in the period 1968–1985 (Kuntasal and Chang, 1987). Conversely, the Delft data probably reflect the fact that  $\text{NO}_x$  and HC emissions have grown, largely unchecked, in Europe over the past 15 years.

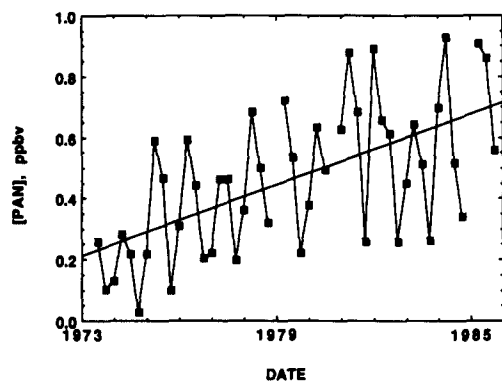


Fig. 9. Quarterly average PAN concentrations observed at Delft in The Netherlands, between 1973 and 1985, from Guicherit (1987).

#### Regional PAN measurements

PAN measurements have been made less frequently in air masses that are regional in character. The working definition of regional air masses effectively places all non-urban continental sites in this category at least part of the time. However, the air masses observed at continental sites, especially coastal sites, are occasionally clean enough that they are characteristic of remote tropospheric air masses. For the purposes of this review, all non-urban continental measurements will be summarized in this category and it will be noted where such measurements are thought to be more representative of the remote troposphere.

Table 17 lists the average and maximum PAN

Table 17. Measurements of PAN in non-urban continental air masses

Site	Sampling period	PAN(ppbv)		Reference
		Avg	Max	
Wilmington, OH	3–30 August 1974		4.1	Lonneman <i>et al.</i> , 1976
Mill Valley, CA	January 1977	0.30	0.83	Singh <i>et al.</i> , 1979
Badger Pass, CA	May 1977	0.13	0.22	Singh <i>et al.</i> , 1979
Reese River, NV	May 1977	0.11	0.26	Singh <i>et al.</i> , 1979
Jetmore, KA	June 1978	0.25	0.52	Singh <i>et al.</i> , 1979
Sheldon Wildlife Reserve, TX	October 1978	0.64	2.8	Westberg <i>et al.</i> , 1978
Van Hiseville, NJ	July–August 1979	0.50		Spicer <i>et al.</i> , 1983
Huntington Lake, IN	April 1981	0.46		Spicer <i>et al.</i> , 1983
East Central Missouri	February	0.74		Spicer <i>et al.</i> , 1983
Harwell, U.K.	1974–1975	0.27*	0.78†	Brice <i>et al.</i> , 1984
	1980–1981	0.43*	0.78†	Brice <i>et al.</i> , 1984
Risø, Denmark	11 June–23 September 1980		0.9‡	Nielsen <i>et al.</i> , 1981
Göteborg, Sweden	17 July–9 September 1980		0.8‡	Nielsen <i>et al.</i> , 1981
Simcoe, Ontario	1–15 June 1982	0.4	1.7	Bottenheim <i>et al.</i> , 1984
Kananaskis Valley, Alberta	April–August 1982	~ 0.5	2.3	Peake <i>et al.</i> , 1983
North Bay, Ontario	23–27 July 1982	0.13	0.36§	Bottenheim <i>et al.</i> , 1984
Longwoods, Ontario	March 1983	0.7	1.4	Bottenheim <i>et al.</i> , 1984
Chalk River, Ontario	November–December 1983	0.25		Brice <i>et al.</i> , 1988
North Bay, Ontario	January–February 1984	0.61	2.5	Anlauf <i>et al.</i> , 1986
Allegheny Mountain, PA	5–28 August 1983	1.2		Pierson <i>et al.</i> , 1987
Niwot Ridge, CO	28 June–20 July 1984	0.3		Fahey <i>et al.</i> , 1986
	22 October–6 November 1984	0.25		Fahey <i>et al.</i> , 1986
Suburban (Rome), Italy	July 1984		> 4	Ciccioli <i>et al.</i> , 1986a,b
	April 1985–February 1987	0.33	9.6	Ciccioli <i>et al.</i> , 1988
Alert, NW Territories	5–19 March 1985	0.207		Bottenheim <i>et al.</i> , 1986
Kejimikujik Natl. Park, Nova Scotia	June 1984–September 1986	0.13	0.83‡	Bottenheim <i>et al.</i> , 1987
Various Airports, N and S Hemisphere	June 1984	0.05	0.31	Rudolph <i>et al.</i> , 1987
Alert, NW Territories	1–22 April 1986	0.47		Barrie <i>et al.</i> , 1990
Donon, France	September 1986–July 1987	0.2	~ 2	Perros <i>et al.</i> , 1988

\* Average of monthly means.

† Highest monthly mean.

‡ Average of daily maxima.

§ For 6 h averages.

|| For 12 h averages.

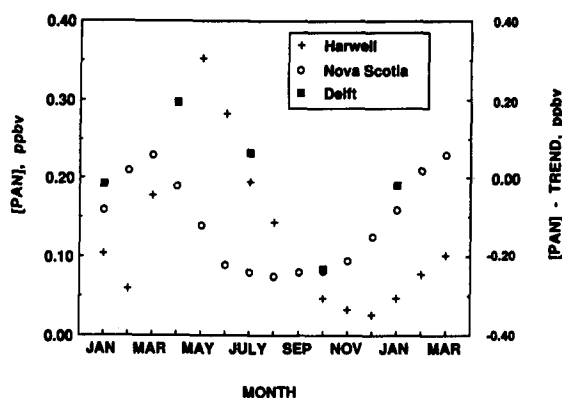


Fig. 10. Season variation in PAN concentration in air masses more characteristic of remote air masses. The Harwell data were selected according to chlorofluorocarbon concentrations (Penkett and Brice, 1986), the Nova Scotia data are simple overall monthly averages (Bottenheim *et al.*, 1987), and the Delft data have been transformed by subtraction of the PAN concentration calculated from the trend line in Fig. 9, and sorted according to season (Guicherit, 1987).

concentrations observed at various non-urban continental sites. In general, average concentrations are substantially lower than those observed in urban air masses. Peak or maximum concentrations approach the range 1–40 ppbv at times when heavy anthropogenic impact occurs. Several features of PAN chemistry are apparent in the data from studies in which extensive PAN measurements were made and where information on other  $\text{NO}_x$  component species and meteorology was obtained. The measurements of Nielsen *et al.* (1981) show that PAN can be transported long distances (> 1000 km). Extensive PAN data sets have been obtained at Harwell, U.K. (Brice *et al.*, 1984; Penkett and Brice, 1986), and Kejimikujik National Park, Nova Scotia (Bottenheim *et al.*, 1987). The seasonal variation in monthly averages at Harwell, U.K., show summertime maxima due to the photochemical nature of PAN sources (Brice *et al.*, 1984). In addition several wintertime–early spring pollution episodes resulted in high monthly averages for February and March 1981 (Brice *et al.*, 1984). A slight summertime peak was also observed in the daily maximum PAN concentration measured at the Nova

Scotia site (Bottenheim *et al.*, 1987). Both the Harwell and Nova Scotia data sets exhibit springtime maxima in 'clean-air' or overall averages, as shown in Fig. 10. The Nova Scotia data are simple monthly averages. The Harwell data are averages of measurements selected from periods of at least 4 h, during which  $[\text{CFCl}_3] < 189$  ppbv and  $[\text{CH}_3\text{CCl}_3] < 200$  pptv, indicating air characteristic of remote air masses was being sampled. Also shown are the data from Delft, The Netherlands, in which the average difference between measured PAN and the trend line shown in Fig. 9 has been calculated for winter, spring, summer and fall. These springtime maxima are thought to result from the elevated concentrations and wider distribution of the PAN precursors caused by the reduced photochemical activity of wintertime coupled with lower average temperatures relative to summertime. Ozone concentrations characteristic of the remote Northern Hemisphere have shown a similar springtime maxima. Based on their PAN data, Penkett and Brice (1986) have suggested that tropospheric photochemistry is responsible for the springtime  $\text{O}_3$  maximum.

Several sets of the PAN measurements listed in Table 17 have been made in conjunction with other  $\text{NO}_x$  species. The ratio of  $[\text{PAN}]$  to  $[\text{PAN}] +$  inorganic nitrate, IN ( $[\text{IN}] = [\text{HNO}_3] + [\text{NO}_3^-]$ ), Table 18, has been used as a measure of the relative importance of these major  $\text{NO}_x$  product species. Observed values range from 0.07 to 0.9, and higher values seem to be associated with air masses that have been well 'aged' photochemically, or in which recent precipitation has occurred (Bottenheim *et al.*, 1984, 1986; Anlauf *et al.*, 1986; Daum *et al.*, 1989; Barrie *et al.*, 1989). Both factors are consistent with a much more rapid wet and dry deposition of inorganic nitrate than of PAN. Lower PAN fractions appear to be associated with air masses that have been more recently impacted by anthropogenic emissions. This is supported by the model calculations of Derwent and Hov (1982) in which  $\text{HNO}_3$  was produced more rapidly from simulated urban emissions than PAN. The results of Grosjean (1983) in which this ratio is much higher on average are somewhat at odds with the above picture. However, the sampling site at Claremont, CA is the middle of the Los Angeles air basin and is therefore

Table 18. The ratio  $[\text{PAN}]/[\text{PAN}] + [\text{IN}]$  observed at non-urban continental sites

Site	Sampling period	Ratio		Reference
		Range	Mean	
Simcoe, Ontario	1–7 June 1982	0.11–0.70	0.31	Bottenheim <i>et al.</i> , 1984
	9–14 June 1982	0.07–0.36	0.21	Bottenheim <i>et al.</i> , 1984
North Bay, Ontario	23–27 July 1982	0.17–0.53	0.34	Bottenheim <i>et al.</i> , 1984
	15 January–24 February 1984	0.2–0.7	0.32	Anlauf <i>et al.</i> , 1986 Daum <i>et al.</i> , 1989
Harwell, U.K.	January 1980–June 1981	0.08–0.34		Brice <i>et al.</i> , 1984
Alert, NW Territories	March 1985	0.76–0.90	0.84	Bottenheim <i>et al.</i> , 1986
	April 1986		0.88	Barrie <i>et al.</i> , 1989

surrounded by sources. In such a case the above simple arguments concerning the  $[\text{PAN}]/[\text{PAN}] + [\text{IN}]$  ratio may not be applicable, and the relative formation rates may be more dependent on the nature of the HCs present, and the  $\text{HC}:\text{NO}_x$  ratio.

There are several data sets of simultaneous measurements of PAN,  $\text{NO}_x$ , total  $\text{NO}_y$  and other  $\text{NO}_y$  constituents. The work at Niwot Ridge, CO, described by Singh *et al.* (1985) and Fahey *et al.* (1986) appears to be the most extensive in which a  $\text{NO}$ ,  $\text{NO}_2$ ,  $\text{HNO}_3$ , aerosol  $\text{NO}_3^-$ , PAN, and total  $\text{NO}_y$  were measured. Measurements were made in the summer and fall of 1984. The Niwot Ridge site is at high altitude (3 km) approximately 60 km northwest of the Denver metropolitan area. The proximity to Denver, combined with the lack of appreciable urban areas between the West Coast and the site, provide air masses that have experienced a wide range of anthropogenic impact. This is expressed in the concentration of PAN, which varied by almost three orders-of-magnitude (Singh *et al.*, 1985). The higher concentrations are associated with urban air masses that have been aged perhaps half a day, whereas the lowest observed concentrations approach those of the background troposphere. Therefore comparisons can be made with other measurements that are characteristic of urban, regional and remote air masses.

Singh *et al.* (1985) divided the PAN and  $\text{NO}_x$  data into summer and autumn periods, and into day and night periods. A correlation between PAN and  $\text{NO}_x$  was observed only in the summer daytime. PAN concentrations were relatively constant during the other periods. The ratio of PAN to  $\text{NO}_x$  varied systematically with  $\text{NO}_x$ . Summer (day and night) ratios varied from an average of 0.5 at high  $\text{NO}_x$  ( $> 1$  ppbv) to just over 1 at low  $\text{NO}_x$  (0.1–0.2 ppbv). Autumn ratios varied from an average of 0.3 at  $\text{NO}_x > 1$  ppbv, to well above 3 at  $1 \text{ ppbv} > \text{NO}_x > 0.1$  ppbv. These features are a result of the photochemical nature of PAN sources, and the thermal stability of PAN, in that photochemical formation of PAN is rapid in the summertime and relatively slow in the autumn and winter, and the atmospheric lifetime of PAN is much longer in the cooler seasons than in summertime. As a result, PAN concentrations are at least several times higher than those of  $\text{NO}_x$  in air masses far removed from anthropogenic impact.

Fahey *et al.* (1986) show summer PAN to be an almost constant fraction of  $\text{NO}_y$  of between 0.15 to 0.20 except under conditions of high night-time  $\text{NO}_y$  ( $> 1.5$  ppbv) when the PAN fraction decreased slightly to  $\sim 0.10$ , probably because such air masses have been impacted by relatively fresh anthropogenic  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions that have not undergone photochemistry. This is supported by a corresponding increase in the  $\text{NO}_x/\text{NO}_y$  ratio under these conditions. The autumn daytime ratios varied from  $\sim 0.2$  at high  $\text{NO}_y$  ( $> 1$  ppbv) to  $> 0.4$  at low  $\text{NO}_y$  ( $> 0.5$  ppbv). The autumn nighttime ratios were relatively constant at 0.3–0.4, but the

range of  $\text{NO}_y$  concentrations was much narrower than summer during these periods. The interpretation of these results is similar to that of the PAN/ $\text{NO}_x$  data. Fast photochemistry and relatively rapid thermal decomposition maintain an almost constant PAN to  $\text{NO}_y$  ratio in the summertime, with the exception of the high night-time  $\text{NO}_y$  periods. The longer lifetime of PAN in the autumn results in a larger fraction of  $\text{NO}_y$  being 'stored' as PAN.

Other measurements of PAN and  $\text{NO}_y$ , although not extensive, permit the determination of the PAN to  $\text{NO}_y$  ratio. Pierson *et al.* (1987) report chemiluminescent measurements of  $\text{NO}$  and the sum  $\text{NO}_2 + \text{PAN}$ , and GC/ECD measurements of PAN during August 1983 at Allegheny Mountain, PA. Although details of the measurements are lacking, the quantity  $[\text{NO}_2 + \text{PAN}]$  probably includes all other  $\text{NO}_y$  species. Therefore if the sum  $[\text{NO}] + [\text{NO}_2 + \text{PAN}]$  is taken to be  $[\text{NO}_y]$  the ratio of  $[\text{PAN}]$  to  $[\text{NO}_y]$  was 0.2, and  $[\text{NO}_y]$  was 5.9 ppbv. Grosjean (1983, 1988) reported PAN and  $\text{NO}_y$  data from measurements in September and October of 1980 and again in September 1985 at Claremont, CA. In 1980, the PAN to  $\text{NO}_y$  ratio varied from 0.004 to 0.31 and  $[\text{NO}_y]$  ranged from 36 to 170 ppbv, while in 1985 the ratio varied from 0.003 to 0.74 and  $[\text{NO}_y]$  ranged from 11 to 137 ppbv, however, there was no apparent relationship between  $[\text{PAN}]/[\text{NO}_y]$  and  $[\text{NO}_y]$  during either period. During both periods the average  $[\text{PAN}]/[\text{NO}_y]$  was 0.12, average  $[\text{NO}_y]$  was 97 ppbv in 1980, and 43 ppbv in 1985. Although the Pierson *et al.* (1987) and Grosjean (1983, 1988) measurements were made in air masses much more highly impacted by anthropogenic emissions, the resulting PAN to  $\text{NO}_y$  ratios are very similar to those of the high  $\text{NO}_y$  data at Niwot Ridge, CO. Summertime measurements of PAN and  $\text{NO}_y$  (reported as  $\text{NO}_x$ ) by Spicer *et al.* (1975) in St. Louis, MO and West Covina, CA exhibited PAN-to- $\text{NO}_y$  ratios somewhat lower than those above. An average ratio of 0.045 at  $[\text{NO}_y] = 43$  ppbv was found in St. Louis, and an average ratio of 0.073 at  $[\text{NO}_y] = 136$  ppbv was found in West Covina, CA.

#### Remote PAN measurements

Relatively few measurements of PAN have been made at what can truly be considered remote sites. The results of those measurements are listed in Table 19 and show the following general features: concentrations are often quite low and are seen to increase with altitude, wintertime concentrations are higher than summertime, and PAN is present in the stratosphere. From the few measurements of  $\text{NO}_x$  and  $\text{NO}_y$  that have been made in remote areas (Singh *et al.*, 1988), it is clear that PAN is a major fraction of  $\text{NO}_y$ . This is expected from the extrapolation of the results of Singh *et al.* (1985) and Fahey *et al.* (1986) to low  $\text{NO}_x$  and  $\text{NO}_y$  concentrations.

Table 19. Measurements of PAN in remote air masses

Site	Sampling period	PAN(ppbv)		Reference
		Avg	Max	
Pt. Arena, CA	August–September 1978	0.08	0.28	Singh <i>et al.</i> , 1979
N. Pacific Ocean*	September 1982	0.074	0.4	Singh and Salas, 1983b
Pt. Arena, CA	25–29 August 1982	0.032	0.05†	Singh and Salas, 1983b
	15–28 January 1984	0.12	1.0	Singh and Salas, 1989
	25 April 1984–3 March 1985	0.046	0.13	Singh and Salas, 1989
N. Pacific Ocean	November–December 1984	0.038	0.083‡	Singh <i>et al.</i> , 1986
S. Pacific Ocean	November–December 1984	~ 0.005	0.012‡	Singh <i>et al.</i> , 1986
N. Pacific Ocean	August 1984	0.025	0.036§	Singh <i>et al.</i> , 1986
N. Pacific Ocean	February 1985	0.15	0.23§	Singh <i>et al.</i> , 1986
S. Hemisphere	June 1984	~ 0.01	0.024	Rudolph <i>et al.</i> , 1987
N. Hemisphere	June 1984	~ 0.05	0.16	Rudolph <i>et al.</i> , 1987
Stratosphere	June 1984	0.021	0.035	Rudolph <i>et al.</i> , 1987
Western Atlantic PBL	January 1986	0.18	0.51	Bottenheim and Gallant, 1987
FT¶	January 1986	0.094	0.23	Bottenheim and Gallant, 1987

\* 1–8 km altitude.

† The maximum 3 h average.

‡ The maximum daily average.

§ The maximum of composite average.

|| Planetary boundary layer.

¶ Free troposphere.

Table 20. Measurements of PPN

Site	Sampling period	Average		Reference
		PPN/PAN		
Pt. Arena, CA	25–29 August 1982	≤ 0.07		Singh and Salas, 1983
Philadelphia, PA	4–22 April 1983	0.13		Singh and Salas, 1989
Staten Island, NY	25 April–1 May 1983	0.14		Singh and Salas, 1989
Point Arena, CA	15–28 January 1984	0.04		Singh and Salas, 1989
Downey, CA	18–27 February 1984	0.05		Singh and Salas, 1989
Denver, CO	24 March–1 April 1984	0.03		Singh and Salas, 1989
Point Arena, CA	24 April 1984–3 March 1985	0.09		Singh and Salas, 1989
Colorado	July 1984	0.05		Singh <i>et al.</i> , 1986
Niwot Ridge, CO	July–November 1984	0.05		Singh <i>et al.</i> , 1985
Suburban (Rome), Italy	July 1984	~ 0.14		Ciccioli <i>et al.</i> , 1986a
Suburban (Rome), Italy	July 1985	~ 0.09		Ciccioli <i>et al.</i> , 1986b
Rio de Janeiro, Brazil	July 1985	0.20		Tanner <i>et al.</i> , 1988

#### Peroxypropionic nitric anhydride (PPN)

Since PPN can be observed with the same analytical technique as PAN, many studies report at least some PPN data, usually given as a fraction relative to PAN, and almost always assumed to exhibit the same instrumental response. Reported concentrations are summarized in Table 20 as fractions of measured PAN, but do not include those summarized previously by Altshuller (1983). The lower concentrations of PPN relative to PAN are a reflection of the fact that sources of the parent compounds, acetaldehyde and acetone are much larger than those of propionaldehyde. An illustration of this can be seen in the OH radical initiated oxidation of propane, in which reaction at the secondary carbon is preferred to reaction at the primary carbon by almost 6-to-1 (Atkinson, 1986). In addition, the abundance of PPN relative to PAN appears to be greater closer to pollution sources, a feature interpreted by Singh and Salas (1989) as

indicating that faster reaction of PPN precursors, such as *i*-butene, limit the production of PPN in air masses of greater age.

#### Peroxybenzoic nitric anhydride (PBzN)

Only a few attempts to measure PBzN have been reported. Appel (1973) observed [PBzN] < 0.07 ppbv (limit of detection) in the San Francisco Bay area during 'light smog'. Meijer and Nieboer (1977) found an average concentration of 4.6 ppbv between 1400 and 1600 h on 24 June 1976, at Delft, The Netherlands. Subsequent analyses on 4 days in 1978 and 1979 revealed PBzN concentrations between 0.2 and 1.0 ppbv, during periods when PAN was between 2 and 5 ppbv (Meijer unpublished results). Hanst *et al.* (1982) measured PBzN < 1 ppbv with long-path i.r. in the Los Angeles atmosphere. Fung and Grosjean (1985) observed from 0.15 to 0.62 (median = 0.32) ppbv



in urban Los Angeles, and from 0.08 to 1.81 (median 0.37) ppbv at an unspecified industrial site.

#### Alkyl nitrates

Reports of atmospheric measurements of the broad category of compounds, alkyl nitrates, are sparse. Although methyl nitrate can be observed using the GC-ECD method for PAN, few studies give any quantitative data, partly because of the real possibility of interference in the method from the unimolecular decomposition of PAN or coelution of chlorinated HCs. Grosjean (1983) reports methyl nitrate concentrations of "up to ~5 ppbv" in Los Angeles during a study in which [PAN] was as high as 39 ppbv and total  $[\text{NO}_y]$  as high as 170 ppbv. Ciccioli *et al.* (1986a,b) report methyl nitrate concentrations as high as 1.5 ppbv, and several night-time episodes in which methyl nitrate concentrations were much higher than those of PAN. Interference from coelution of a chlorinated HC must be considered a possible explanation for these anomalous results. Hanst *et al.* (1982) estimate a total concentration of alkyl nitrates of "not more than 2 ppbv" in long-path i.r. absorption measurements in Los Angeles. The qualitative observations of ethyl nitrate (Williams, 1965) and isopropyl nitrate (Jonsson and Berg, 1983) have been mentioned previously. Jüttner (1988) described a single measurement of 0.0025 ppbv isopropyl nitrate in a forested area near Tübingen, F.R.G., in August 1987. Atlas (1988) has made observations of several alkyl nitrates in the Northern Pacific Ocean from a shipboard platform. Three compounds, 2-butyl, 2-pentyl, and 3-pentyl nitrates have been tentatively quantified, and qualitative evidence was found for the presence of other  $\text{C}_3$  and  $\text{C}_5$  compounds. Concentrations of up to 0.03 ppbv 2-butyl nitrate and up to 0.009 ppbv of the sum of 2 and 3-pentyl nitrates were observed. In general, the concentrations of nitrates were quite well correlated with one another, and with simultaneous  $\text{Rn}$  measurements, indicating a continental or continentally-derived source of these nitrates. Although measurements of other  $\text{NO}_y$  compounds were not made, the absolute concentration of these nitrates is probably a significant fraction of total  $\text{NO}_y$  in such remote air masses.

The observation of 2-propyl, 2-butyl, and 2- and 3-pentyl nitrates at Scotia Range, PA, July–August 1988, has recently been reported by Buhr *et al.* (1988). Individual mixing ratios of between 0.001 and 0.060 ppbv were measured via a packed column GC/ECD method, and the total of the three or four compounds was approximately 1.5% of total  $\text{NO}_y$  (D. Parrish, private communication, 1988). It should be noted however, that the column employed did not separate either ethyl from 2-propyl nitrate, or 1-propyl from 2-butyl nitrate.

Measurements of alkyl nitrates during the spring-time, 1988, at Mauna Loa, and in late winter to early spring at Alert, Canada, have been reported by Atlas

and Schauffler (1988). At Mauna Loa eight alkyl nitrates were observed: 1- and 2-propyl, 1- and 2-butyl, and 1-, 2-, 3-pentyl and 2-isopentyl nitrates, with secondary nitrates more abundant than the primary compounds. The average relative distribution was:  $\text{C}_3$ -54%,  $\text{C}_4$ -30%, and  $\text{C}_5$ -16%, and total mixing ratio ranged from <0.002 to >0.010 ppbv with a mean of 0.004 ppbv. Extensive measurements of other  $\text{NO}_y$  species were also made during this campaign, however, the relationships between these and the  $\text{RONO}_2$  have not yet been examined. The compounds observed at Alert were  $\text{C}_3$ – $\text{C}_7$ , primary and secondary nitrates having both straight and branched chains. The average relative distribution was;  $\text{C}_3$ -16%,  $\text{C}_4$ -25%,  $\text{C}_5$ -25%,  $\text{C}_6$ -18%, and  $\text{C}_7$ -14%. The total mixing ratio ranged from 0.090 to 0.25 ppbv and the mean was 0.16 ppbv. Simultaneous measurements of PAN ranged from 0.15 to 0.5 ppbv (Bottenheim, as reported by Atlas and Schauffler, 1988) and the ratio of total alkyl nitrates to PAN ranged from 1:3 to 2:3.

#### The composition of $\text{NO}_y$

A number of studies have involved simultaneous measurements of  $\text{NO}_x$ , the major product species  $\text{HNO}_3$ , PAN, and aerosol  $\text{NO}_3^-$ , as well as total  $\text{NO}_y$ . The results of these measurements are summarized in Table 21 as the average ratio of the individual species to  $\text{NO}_y$ . The locations of these measurements span the range from very clean, Eastern Pacific boundary layer, to moderately polluted, Scotia Range, PA. Many features of the PAN,  $\text{NO}_x$  and  $\text{NO}_y$  relationships have been discussed previously in this paper. It is interesting to note here that the sum of the individual species,  $\Sigma \text{NO}_{y,i}$ , is often significantly less than the corresponding total  $\text{NO}_y$  measurements. Such an  $\text{NO}_y$  "deficit" is indirect evidence of the presence of organic nitrate species.

#### MODELING STUDIES

A fairly recent evaluation of kinetic and mechanistic data on the photochemistry pertaining to smog has been published by Atkinson and Lloyd (1984). Several recent works have compared and evaluated air quality models and the chemical mechanisms used therein (Hough, 1988, Seinfeld, 1988). Mechanisms used for modeling of urban and regional scale chemistry are of two types: explicit and lumped. Explicit mechanisms seek to describe the chemistry of individual reactant and product compounds by keeping track of individual species, and require a great deal of computation due to the tremendous number of organic species emitted to the atmosphere. Examples of explicit mechanisms can be found in Leone and Seinfeld (1985), Carter *et al.* (1986) and Atherton and Penner (1988). It is often useful or necessary to combine reactant or product compounds of one generic type into a single 'lumped' species. These so-called lumped mechanisms must be used in LRT acid deposition models, for

example, because of computational limitations (Lurmann *et al.*, 1986; Stockwell, 1986). Further examples of lumped mechanisms are described by Leone and Seinfeld (1985). In addition to the above mechanisms, which are meant to simulate conditions of high anthropogenic impact, models have been constructed to simulate the effect of a few of the longer-lived organic species on the global troposphere (Singh and Kasting, 1988; Isaksen and Hov, 1987; Kasting and Singh, 1986; Aikin *et al.*, 1983; Brewer *et al.*, 1983).

Urban scale modeling has been chiefly concerned with the simulation of oxidant, specifically,  $O_3$  production. Often such models are compared with data from laboratory chamber experiments in order to determine how well the time variations of concentration of major species are simulated. Simulations of other species concentration profiles are used as additional diagnostic tests of chemical mechanisms. There are several reports of the successful simulation of PAN and alkyl nitrate concentrations produced in chamber experiments (Carter *et al.*, 1979; Lurmann *et al.*, 1986) and good agreement was found between explicit and condensed mechanism simulations of PAN and PAN analog concentrations (Lurmann *et al.*, 1986; Atherton and Penner, 1988, 1990). However, Atherton and Penner (1988) note that because organic nitrates are not explicitly treated in condensed mechanisms, realistic simulations of them are not produced. The results of organic nitrate simulations with an explicit mechanism show that the fraction of  $NO_y$  stored as organic nitrates (other than PAN) can reach 24% at  $HC/NO_x$  ratios of 28 (Atherton and Penner, 1988, 1990).

Studies that attempt to simulate regional chemistry have also shown that PAN evolves as the major  $NO_y$  species (Hov, 1984; Atherton and Penner, 1988, 1990) a feature that appears to be born out by atmospheric observations (Singh *et al.*, 1985; Fahey *et al.*, 1986). The results of Atherton and Penner (1988, 1990) at  $HC/NO_x=28$  and the general product studies of Calvert and Madronich (1987), if taken as characteristic of regional chemistry, support the assertion that the  $NO_y$  'deficit' (as detailed in Table 21) is comprised of organic nitrates, however, this organic nitrate category contains many more species and a greater variety (e.g. PAN analogs and difunctional compounds) than the few that have been measured to date. The species produced from isoprene and  $\alpha$ -pinene, as described by Lloyd *et al.* (1983), were not important in the studies of Atherton and Penner (1988); however, they may have much greater relative importance in regional photochemistry, depending on the fate of these biogenically derived species (Atherton and Penner, 1990).

Modeling studies of the remote atmosphere involving organic nitrates have concentrated on the distribution of  $NO_y$  among species. Due to the greatly reduced numbers and concentrations of anthropogenic organic compounds, the chemical mechanisms used in these studies are much simpler than in urban or regional simulations. PAN was suggested to be an

Table 21. The distribution of  $NO_y$  among individual species

Location	Sampling period	$NO_x/NO_y$	PAN/ $NO_y$	Average ratio			Reference
				$HNO_3/NO_y$	$NO_3^-/NO_y$	$NO_{yi}/NO_y$	
Niwot Ridge, CO	5 July-31 August 1984	0.29	0.16	0.10	0.02	0.58	Fahey <i>et al.</i> , 1986
Niwot Ridge, CO	October-November 1984	0.4	0.3	—	—	0.88	Fahey <i>et al.</i> , 1985b
Point Arena, CA	April-May 1985	0.6	0.1	0.05	—	0.75*	Fahey <i>et al.</i> , 1985b
Western Atlantic PBL	4 January 1986	0.32	0.08	—	0.30†	0.70	Bottenheim and Gallant, 1987
FT		0.27	0.11	—	0.18†	0.56	Bottenheim and Gallant, 1987
Scotia Range, PA	25 June-26 July 1986	0.59	0.14	0.16	0.04	0.93	Williams <i>et al.</i> , 1987
Continental U.S. and Eastern Pacific	August-September 1986	0.10-0.16	0.25-0.40	0.25-0.45	—	0.77	Fehsenfeld <i>et al.</i> , 1988
Niwot Ridge, CO	2 July-14 August 1987	0.32	0.24	0.13	0.04	0.73	Singh <i>et al.</i> , 1988 Williams <i>et al.</i> , 1987

\* Measurement of total  $NO_y$  was made with a Teflon particle filter, thus  $NO_3^-$  was excluded from the data analysis.

† Total inorganic nitrate,  $HNO_3(g)$  + particulate  $NO_3^-$ .

important, if not the most important,  $\text{NO}_y$  species in the remote troposphere based on both its long atmospheric lifetime at temperatures characteristic of the upper troposphere (Crutzen, 1979) and the simple chemistry of 2- and 3-C compounds (Singh and Hanst, 1981; Aikin *et al.*, 1983; Brewer *et al.*, 1983). More recent studies have produced seasonal and vertical profiles of PAN concentration that are in reasonable agreement with observation (Kasting and Singh, 1986) and the global distribution obtained by Isaksen and Hov (1987) is qualitatively consistent with that observed by Rudolph *et al.* (1987).

Singh and Kasting (1988) have recently included methyl nitrate in simulations of the chemistry of the remote marine troposphere, and calculated a concentration of less than 0.001 ppbv at the surface and a decrease with altitude. Until recently, simulations of alkyl or multifunctional nitrate chemistry have been limited by the absence of any quantitative data concerning their photolysis. The recent u.v. absorption cross-section measurements were used to estimate remote atmospheric concentrations of alkyl nitrates through a balance of formation and loss processes (Roberts and Fajer, 1989) and in a more detailed photochemical model (Atherton and Penner, 1990; Atherton, 1990). Both calculations predict that much lower concentrations would result from remote chemistry due to the increase in importance of  $\text{RO}_2 + \text{HO}_2$  and  $\text{RO}_2 + \text{RO}_2$  reactions relative to  $\text{RO}_2 + \text{NO}$ . These studies imply that significant relative concentrations of  $\text{RONO}_2$  compounds must be due to the long-range transport of these compounds.

### CONCLUSIONS

Organic nitrates constitute an important class of atmospheric chemical compounds. Not only do they represent a major area of interaction between the N and organic C cycles, but because of the long atmospheric lifetimes of some of these compounds, relative to other  $\text{NO}_y$  species, they also comprise a major fraction of tropospheric  $\text{NO}_y$ . However, there are still a number of areas of uncertainty in the role that organic nitrates play in atmospheric chemistry.

Formation of organic nitrates occurs through a number of processes. Simple alkyl nitrates result primarily from a minor pathway of the reaction of  $\text{RO}_2$  radicals with NO. The branching ratio of  $\text{RONO}_2$  formation varies systematically, increasing with carbon number from <0.014 for ethyl to >0.3 for octyl radicals, but needs to be determined for other  $\text{RO}_2$  radicals of atmospheric importance, especially difunctional radicals such as  $\alpha$ - and  $\gamma$ -hydroxy  $\text{RO}_2$  radicals. The reaction of  $\text{RO}^\bullet$  radicals with  $\text{NO}_2$  will form alkyl nitrates; however, competing reactions of  $\text{RO}^\bullet$  combined with the relatively low atmospheric abundance of  $\text{NO}_2$  make this an unimportant atmospheric pathway. The possibility that formation of  $\text{RONO}_2$  by this reaction may occur to some extent in exhaust streams,

especially those from engines burning alcohol-based fuels, needs to be studied. The unimolecular reaction of peroxy-carboxylic nitric anhydrides appears to be a general pathway for the formation of the corresponding  $\text{RONO}_2$  having one less C. While this reaction is relatively slow, it may be the major formation process of methyl nitrate, but is probably not important for higher C number homologs. The reaction of  $\text{NO}_3$  with alkenes is a rapid process which appears to result in difunctional nitrates. Although the initial reaction rates have been measured for many compounds, the reaction pathways have not been clearly established. The reactions of alkyl peroxy and peroxyacyl radicals with  $\text{NO}_2$  are fairly rapid and lead to the formation of alkyl peroxy nitrates and peroxy-carboxylic nitric anhydrides, respectively. The temperature and pressure dependencies of these reactions have been determined for only a relative few key species. In addition, the rates of the major competing reaction  $\text{RO}_2$  with NO, and  $\text{RO}_2$  with  $\text{R}'\text{O}_2$  and  $\text{HO}_2$  must be known in order to derive the net formation rate of a given compound.

Comparatively little quantitative information concerning the rates of removal of organic nitrates from the atmosphere is available. Many alkyl nitrates are removed primarily through photolysis. The few measurements of absorption cross-sections that have been made, have relatively high uncertainties associated with them in the wavelength range of atmospheric importance ( $\lambda > 290$  nm). Photolysis rate measurements indicate a strong temperature dependence. Information on the quantum efficiencies of photodissociation is also sparse. Quantum efficiencies are most likely close to 1.0, however several studies of ethyl nitrate report values closer to 0.5. The estimated photolytic lifetimes of alkyl nitrates range from <1 to >10 days depending on the compound and conditions assumed. The removal rates by OH radical reaction have been determined for a number of alkyl nitrates and there are now sufficient data to permit the estimation of rate constants through structure-reactivity relationships. Hydroxyl radical reaction appears to be a significant loss pathway only for the alkyl nitrates of higher C numbers ( $\geq \text{C}_5$ ). Alkyl nitrates are not very soluble in water, and therefore not significantly removed by wet deposition. Adsorption on aerosol particles or surfaces is likely to be an important removal pathway for only the larger ( $\geq \text{C}_5$ ) alkyl nitrates.

Difunctional nitrates may have much shorter photolytic lifetimes than alkyl nitrates, depending on the nature of the functional group. Compounds with a carbonyl group and an  $\alpha$ -nitrooxy group are photodissociated relatively rapidly ( $\tau < 1$  day), and hydroxy nitrates may be relatively soluble. Rates of reaction with OH have not been measured, however they can be estimated (Atkinson, 1987) and in many cases, such as  $\alpha$ -nitrooxyacetone, the OH reaction rate appears to be slower than that of the corresponding nitrate (*n*-propylnitrate). Although heterogeneous losses to the aqueous or solid phase may be more important for

some of these compounds, little is known concerning their solubility in liquid water.

Alkyl peroxy nitrates are removed from the atmosphere through several processes. Although absorption cross-sections of such compounds have not been measured above 290 nm, they are most likely very similar to that of peroxy nitric acid and the chlorofluoromethyl peroxy nitrates. Accordingly, photolysis lifetimes of alkyl peroxy nitrates may be as short as 1 day. Estimated thermal decomposition rates of alkyl peroxy nitrates vary dramatically with altitude, due to both temperature and pressure dependencies. For example, the lifetime of  $\text{CH}_3\text{OONO}_2$  has been estimated to vary from  $\sim 1$  s at the surface to  $\sim 40$  days at the tropopause (Bahta *et al.*, 1982). It should be noted that rates of thermal decomposition estimated from the bond homolysis rate constants represent upper limits to the atmospheric loss rate, because the resulting  $\text{RO}_2$  radical can recombine with  $\text{NO}_2$  at appreciable rates compared to other reactions of  $\text{RO}_2$ . Reaction with OH and heterogeneous losses probably do not occur for these compounds at significant rates relative to the above processes.

The removal of peroxycarboxylic anhydrides likewise occur through several different pathways. Thermal decomposition is the major loss mechanism in the lower troposphere. However, as in the  $\text{ROONO}_2$  reactions, the net loss rate depends on the  $\text{NO}:\text{NO}_2$  ratio in the daytime, and other losses such as reaction with  $\text{RO}_2$  ( $\text{HO}_2$ ) or heterogeneous removal at night. The lifetimes of these compounds due to thermal decomposition become quite long (years) at temperatures characteristic of the upper troposphere. Under such conditions, photolysis and reaction with OH become the major loss processes ( $\tau \sim 100$  days). Considerable uncertainty still exists in the u.v. absorption cross-sections of these compounds, measurements having been made above 300 nm only for PAN and PPN. Although uptake by liquid water appears to be slow for PAN, solubilities of other such compounds are unknown. Surface deposition, although relatively slow, may be an important loss process for PAN within shallow surface layers characteristic of the night-time boundary layer.

Atmospheric measurements of organic nitrates have been limited to PAN and PPN, with a very few observations of alkyl nitrates and related compounds. The evidence is overwhelming that PAN is ubiquitous in the troposphere, with mixing ratios varying from tens-of-pptv to tens-of-ppbv. The higher concentrations are observed in, or close to, anthropogenic source regions (i.e. urban areas). One set of measurements shows a substantial increase in average PAN over the past 15 years or so, and one shows no apparent increase. PAN appears to constitute a major fraction of  $\text{NO}_y$ , and its relative abundance appears to increase with both distance away from sources due to photochemical aging of air masses, and season due to slower loss rates in the winter. PPN appears to be minor relative to PAN (5–15%) and the few measure-

ments of PBzN have shown widely different results, with concentrations ranging from  $<0.07$  to 4.6 ppbv. There have been several reports of methyl nitrate measurements but little direct effort has been made to improve or verify techniques for these measurements. Several sets of measurements of higher C number ( $\text{C}_3$ – $\text{C}_7$ ) alkyl nitrates have been reported, but must be regarded as preliminary until the methods used are verified. There is also evidence of difunctional nitrates in carbonaceous aerosol, but these measurements should be considered as somewhat circumstantial.

There is a pressing need to develop methods for the measurement of organic nitrates other than PAN, especially the alkyl nitrates, and these should be made in conjunction with as many other  $\text{NO}_y$  species as is practical in order to better define the spatial and chemical distribution of  $\text{NO}_y$ . Some long time-scale measurements of at least PAN and perhaps other organic nitrates should be undertaken at sites somewhat remote from anthropogenic impact in order to identify possible long-term trends.

Photochemical models have been fairly successful in simulating PAN concentrations observed in chamber studies under urban conditions. Models more suitable to regional air masses and remote air masses have been able to qualitatively reproduce some of the features of the relative  $\text{NO}_y$  distributions and the seasonal and spatial distributions observed in PAN measurements. Most models of alkyl nitrate chemistry have thus far not included realistic chemistry, especially with respect to photolytic loss rates of these compounds.

More complete descriptions of organic nitrate chemistry should be included in atmospheric chemical models as laboratory kinetic data become available. Models should address the quantitative effects of organic nitrate chemistry on important aspects of atmospheric chemistry such as the production of  $\text{O}_3$  and other oxidants in the remote troposphere. Models should be evaluated as to the relative effect of  $\text{NO}_x$  and organic C emissions on  $\text{RONO}_2$  chemistry so that future emission scenarios or control strategies can be evaluated. An additional aim should be the assessment of the likelihood or magnitude of any impacts that might result from long-term changes in organic nitrate concentrations.

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