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Key Points:

- Nitrogen isotope exchange fractionation between NO and NO₂ was measured
- Experimental measurements agree with theoretical calculated values • Implications for δ^{15} N variations in
- Implications for δ N variations in atmospheric NO₂ and nitrate

Supporting Information:

Supporting Information S1

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Nitrogen isotope exchange between NO and NO₂ and its implications for δ^{15} N variations in tropospheric NO_x and atmospheric nitrate

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Abstract The nitrogen (N) isotope exchange between nitric oxide (NO) and nitrogen dioxide (NO₂) has been previously suggested to influence N stable isotope compositions (δ^{15} N) of these molecules. However, there is disagreement in the magnitude of the N isotopic fractionation ($\alpha_{NO_2/NO}$) resulting from this exchange process between previous experimental and theoretical studies. To this end, we measured $\alpha_{NO_2/NO}$ associated with this exchange reaction at various temperatures. Our results indicate $\alpha_{NO_2/NO}$ to be 1.0403 ± 0.0015, 1.0356 ± 0.0015, and 1.0336 ± 0.0014 at 278 K, 297 K, and 310 K, respectively. These measured values are within experimental error of the values we calculated using a modified version of the Bigeleisen-Mayer equation corrected for accurate zero-point energies, indicating an agreement between experiment and theory. Modeling of this exchange reaction demonstrates that δ^{15} N-NO₂ may exhibit a diurnal and seasonal profile if N isotopic equilibrium is achieved.

1. Introduction

Nitrogen oxides $[NO_x = nitric oxide (NO) + nitrogen dioxide (NO_2)]$ are important trace gases that influence the concentrations of the major tropospheric oxidants including ozone (O₃) and hydroxyl radical (OH) that drive tropospheric chemistry [*Leighton*, 1961; *Crutzen*, 1973, 1979; *Logan*, 1983]. During the daytime, NO and NO₂ exist in a photochemical steady state in which NO is oxidized by O₃ forming NO₂, which then may photolyze back to NO leading to the production of O₃ [*Leighton*, 1961]. This cycling of NO and NO₂ is known as the Leighton cycle and is described by the following reaction sequence [*Leighton*, 1961]:

$$NO + O_3 \rightarrow NO_2 + O_2$$
 (R1)

$$NO_2 + hv \rightarrow NO + O(^{3}P)$$
 (R2)

$$O(^{3}P) + O_{2} + M \rightarrow O_{3} + M.$$
(R3)

The cycling between NO and NO₂ is relatively rapid with photochemical equilibrium being achieved within a few minutes [*Freyer et al.*, 1993; *Seinfeld and Pandis*, 2006]. Thus, during the daytime, the Leighton cycle controls the relative concentrations of NO and NO₂ depending on O₃ concentrations and NO₂ photolysis rate.

The nitrogen (N) isotope exchange equilibrium between NO and NO₂ has been suggested to play an important role in the ¹⁵N/¹⁴N ratios of NO and NO₂ [*Freyer et al.*, 1993] and atmospherically derived nitrate: nitric acid (HNO₃), nitrate (NO₃⁻), and particulate nitrate (p-NO₃⁻) [*Riha*, 2013; *Savarino et al.*, 2013]. The partitioning of ¹⁵N between NO and NO₂ depends on their relative concentration (NO/NO_x and NO₂/NO_x) and the temperature-dependent isotope equilibrium fractionation factor [*Freyer et al.*, 1993]. During the daytime, when near equal concentrations of NO and NO₂ coexist due to the Leighton cycle, the N isotope exchange between NO and NO₂ has been suggested to influence their individual ¹⁵N/¹⁴N ratios via the equilibrium isotope effect [*Freyer et al.*, 1993]. During the nighttime, however, NO concentrations may approach zero if O₃ concentrations are high, as NO is oxidized into NO₂ (R1)) without photolyzing back to NO ((R2)) [*Rinsland et al.*, 1984; *Freyer et al.*, 1993]. Under these conditions, the NO₂ in the atmosphere likely reflects ¹⁵N/¹⁴N ratios of local NO_x sources [*Freyer et al.*, 1993]. Therefore, this isotope exchange reaction has important implications for using the N stable isotope composition of atmospheric nitrate to partition NO_x sources [*Heaton*, 1987; *Freyer*, 1991; *Elliott et al.*, 2007, 2009] or as a chemical tracer of atmospheric processes [*Freyer*, 1978, 1991; *Heaton*, 1987; *Freyer et al.*, 1993; *Savarino et al.*, 2013; *Walters and Michalski*, 2015].



Figure 1. Comparison between previous theoretical calculations of $a_{NO_2/NO}$ using harmonic frequencies (solid lines), observable vibrational frequencies (dotted line), harmonic frequencies corrected for anharmonic zero-point energies (dashed line), and experimental measurements (square, circle, and triangle points).

N isotope exchange between NO and NO₂ (R4) has equilibrium constant ($K = k_1/k_{-1}$)

$$^{15}NO + {}^{14}NO_2 \xrightarrow{k_1} {}^{14}NO + {}^{15}NO_2$$
 (R4)

that depends on the thermodynamic differences between the N isotopologues of NO and NO₂ [*Urey*, 1947]. In the Born-Oppenheimer approximation, differences in the thermodynamics of an isotopologue pair depend on the isotopologue-dependent vibrational frequencies [*Urey*, 1947]. Substitution of a heavier isotope will lower the vibrational frequency and the vibrational zero-point energy (ZPE) of a molecule. Based on N isotopologue ZPEs, R4 is favored to the right as the ZPE is lower on the right side (ZPE = 32.39 kJ/mol) than for the left (ZPE = 33.56 kJ/mol) [*Begun and Fletcher*, 1960], indicating that ¹⁵N will preferentially form in NO₂ over NO.

While the NO and NO₂ exchange favoring the formation of ¹⁵NO₂ has been observed in experimental measurements [*Leifer*, 1940; *Begun and Melton*, 1956] and predicted by theoretical calculations [*Begun and Fletcher*, 1960; *Monse et al.*, 1969; *Richet et al.*, 1977; *Walters and Michalski*, 2015], there is disagreement between theoretical and experimental studies on the value of the equilibrium constant, also called the fractionation factor (α) (Figure 1). Using the Bigeleisen-Mayer equation in the harmonic oscillator approximation [*Bigeleisen and Mayer*, 1947; *Urey*, 1947], theoretical studies have predicted fractionation factors for ¹⁵N substitution between NO₂ and NO ($\alpha_{NO_2/NO}$) to range from 1.0354 to 1.042 at 298 K [*Begun and Fletcher*, 1960; *Monse et al.*, 1969; *Richet et al.*, 1977; *Walters and Michalski*, 2015]. However, these predicted values are substantially different than the experimental $\alpha_{NO_2/NO}$ of 1.028±0.002 at 298 K [*Begun and Melton*, 1956]. At 238 K, theory predicts $\alpha_{NO_2/NO}$ to range from 1.0552 to 1.0596 [*Begun and Fletcher*, 1960; *Richet et al.*, 1977; *Walters and Michalski*, 2015]. Experimental $\alpha_{NO_2/NO}$ at 238 K has been measured to be 1.040±0.02 [*Leifer*, 1940], technically within experimental error of the theoretical value, but with a relative large uncertainty.

The disagreement between experiment and theory might be due to the analytical method used to measure the abundances of the N isotopologues of NO and NO₂. The mass spectrometer technique used to measure NO₂ is subject to mass interference via the formation of NO⁺ and NO₂⁺ ions that originate from NO₂ [*Leifer*, 1940; *Begun and Melton*, 1956]. Disagreements could also be related to the harmonic approximation used to calculate the theoretical $\alpha_{NO_2/NO}$ values as inclusion of anharmonicity will tend to lower $\alpha_{NO_2/NO}$ values [*Liu et al.*, 2010]. In this study, we will revisit the N isotope exchange between NO and NO₂ using measurement techniques that will overcome previous experimental measurement limitations in an effort to reconcile previous experimental and theoretical differences for this isotope exchange reaction.



Figure 2. Experimental setup for the N isotopic exchange between NO and NO₂. The symbols are A = rotary pump, B = diffusion pump, C = vacuum gage, D = NO bulb (δ^{15} N = -42.5%), E = NO₂ bulb (δ^{15} N = -32.0%), F = Argon tank (>99.5%), G = 1 L reaction vessel, H = flow meter, I = NO₂ binding denuder tube, and J = NO₂ breakthrough denuder tube.

2. Methods

2.1. Experiment Design

The experiment utilized a reaction vessel, vacuum line, and a series of denuder tubes (Figure 2). A 1 L two-necked reaction vessel was attached to one end of the vacuum line and a series of denuder tubes were connected to the other end. A NO bulb ($\delta^{15}N = (-42.5 \pm 0.9)\%$), NO₂ bulb ($\delta^{15}N = (-32.0 \pm 0.9)\%$), and a high-purity argon (Ar) tank (>99.5%) were connected to the vacuum line inlet ports using ultratorr fittings. Here $\delta^{15}N(\%) = [({}^{15}N/{}^{14}N)_{sample}/({}^{15}N/{}^{14}N)_{air} - 1] \times 1000$). The reaction vessel and vacuum line was evacuated to 10^{-4} Pa and then a mixture of roughly 6.70 Pa of NO and 27.0 Pa of NO₂ was introduced into the system. The reaction vessel was sealed off from the vacuum line, and the vacuum line was then evacuated back down to 10^{-4} Pa. The vacuum line was isolated and high-purity Ar was introduced into the vacuum line and bled into the reaction vessel until a pressure of 101.3 kPa was achieved. The NO and NO₂ pressures were kept low in order to prevent appreciable formation of N₂O₃ or N₂O₄ molecules. With the pressures of NO and NO₂ used in this experiment, we calculated N₂O₃ pressures to be less than 2.05 mPa using the NO + NO₂↔ N₂O₃ equilibrium constant [*Verhoek and Daniels*, 1931] and less than 16.6 mPa for N₂O₄ using 2NO₂↔ N₂O₃ and N₂O₄ formation should be negligible in our experimental setup.

The NO/NO₂ mixture was allowed to equilibrate for 5 min, and then NO₂ was collected using the denuder tubes. The N isotope exchange rate between NO and NO₂ has been previously measured to be 8.14×10^{-14} cm³ molecules⁻¹ s⁻¹ [*Sharma et al.*, 1970]. Kinetic modeling of this reaction indicates that N isotopic equilibrium should be reached in less than 1 s at the NO and NO₂ pressures used in this experiment; therefore, N isotopic equilibrium between NO and NO₂ will easily be achieved in the experimental setup. The NO and NO₂ were purged from the bulb by flowing Ar at a rate of 2 L/min for 10 min. The gases passed through a denuder tube (inner diameter = 3 mm and length = 1 m) coated with a 0.5 mL dried solution of 2.5 M potassium hydroxide and 25% by weight of guaiacol (C₇H₈O₂) using methanol as a solvent. This coated mixture selectively binds NO₂ as nitrite (NO₂⁻⁻) [*Williams and Grosjean*, 1990; *Ammann et al.*, 1999; *Li and Wang*, 2008]. The denuder tube binding efficiency is based on the time for NO₂ to diffuse to the surface of the coated denuder tube [*Ali et al.*, 1989]. Mathematical modeling of these processes indicates that a tube length of 1 m will allow more than 99.9% of all NO₂ to be absorbed by the employed denuder tube was connected in series with the first tube to check for NO₂ breakthrough.

After sampling, the denuder tubes are separately rinsed with 3 mL of 18.2 M Ω Millipore water. Control tests using NO₂ pressures of 13.3 Pa (upper limit of actual NO₂ pressures used in exchange experiments) indicate that NO₂⁻ in the second denuder tube was below the detection limit (100 ppb) of an Ion Chromatography (Dionex IonPac AS19). Additionally, the outflow from the second denuder tube was analyzed using a NO-NO₂-NO_x analyzer (Thermo Scientific) and NO_x was never detected above the background level. These control tests suggest that NO₂ breakthrough did not occur, and there is a negligible NO₂⁻ blank in the

guaiacol/KOH binding salt. Nitrate $(NO_3^-)/NO_2^-$ test strips (Aquacheck) indicated that NO_2^- in the second denuder tube was below the detection limit of 500 ppb in each of our exchange trials. Control tests using only the NO₂ bulb that went through the entire NO₂ binding procedure indicate that the reproducibility in our measured δ^{15} N-NO₂ values to be $-32.5 \pm 0.7\%$ (n = 5), in excellent agreement with the N isotope composition of the NO₂ bulb (-32.0%). Additionally, control tests using only the NO bulb indicate that NO does not bind onto the denuder tubes that are designed to specifically bind NO₂.

Five trials at three different temperatures (278 K, 297 K, and 310 K) were performed. Since the exchange rate between NO and NO₂ is extremely fast (<1 s under experimental conditions), it was necessary to temperature control both the reaction vessel and the denuder tubes. For the trials at 278 K and 310 K, temperatures were controlled by submerging the reaction vessel and denuder tubes into an ice water (278 K) or hot water (310 K) bath. The reaction vessel and denuder tubes were allowed 10 min to equilibrate with the temperature of the water bath before each trial was performed. Temperatures were monitored throughout the experiment for each trial and indicate that the cold and hot water bath did not vary by more than 0.5 K for each individual trial and by no more than 1 K for the five trials at the same temperature. For the room temperature exchange (297 K), a water bath was not used, but the laboratory room temperature was monitored and did not vary by more than 0.5 K for each individual exchange and by no more than 1 K between the different trials.

2.2. N Isotopic Analysis

N isotopic analysis was performed on the product NO₂⁻ in the elutant from the first denuder tube for each exchange trial. Approximately 250 nmol of NO₂⁻ was converted into nitrous oxide (N₂O) using sodium azide in an acetic acid buffer [*Mcllvin and Altabet*, 2005]. The N₂O was extracted and purified using an automated headspace gas chromatography system and analyzed by a Thermo Delta V Continuous Flow Isotope Ratio Mass Spectrometer (GC-CF-IRMS) for *m/z* 44, 45, and 46 at the Purdue Stable Isotopes Lab. Five working lab NO₃⁻ standards, calibrated to NIST isotope reference USGS34 and USGS35 were used to correct for isotopic fractionation associated with the N₂O purification process. Our working lab standards have the following δ^{15} N(‰) relative to air: -20.0, -7.6, 0.5, 10.6, and 15.3. Before the working lab NO₃⁻ standards were converted to N₂O using the sodium azide and acetic acid buffer, they were first reduced to NO₂⁻ using an activated cadmium metal in a 5 M NaCl solution [*Ryabenko et al.*, 2009]. Working lab standards had an average standard deviation of 0.5‰ for δ^{15} N.

2.3. Experimental Determination of α_{NO_2}/NO

The $a_{NO_2/NO}$ associated with N isotope exchange between NO and NO₂ (R4) can be related by the abundances of ¹⁴NO, ¹⁵NO, ¹⁴NO₂, and ¹⁵NO₂ at equilibrium:

$$K_{\rm NO_2/NO} = \alpha_{\rm NO_2/NO} = \frac{({}^{15}\rm{NO}_2)({}^{14}\rm{NO})}{({}^{14}\rm{NO}_2)({}^{15}\rm{NO})} = \left(\frac{{}^{15}\rm{R}_{\rm NO_2}}{{}^{15}\rm{R}_{\rm NO}}\right), \tag{1}$$

where ${}^{15}R = {}^{15}N/{}^{14}N$ ratios. Since initial ${}^{15}R$ and pressures are known for NO and NO₂, mass-balance will enable us to calculate the total ${}^{15}R$ in our equilibrium system:

$${}^{15}\mathsf{R}_{\mathsf{Total}} = {}^{15}\mathsf{R}_{\mathsf{NO}(i)} \cdot \boldsymbol{p}\mathsf{NO} + {}^{15}\mathsf{R}_{\mathsf{NO}_{2(i)}} \cdot \boldsymbol{p}_{\mathsf{NO}_{2}}, \tag{2}$$

where *p* is the partial pressure fraction (e.g., p_{NO}/p_{NOx}) of either NO or NO₂ and (*i*) denotes the initial ¹⁵R of either NO or NO₂. At equilibrium, we only measured ¹⁵R for NO₂; however, ¹⁵R of NO at equilibrium can be calculated using our mass-balance relationship in equation (2):

$${}^{5}\mathsf{R}_{\mathsf{NO}(e)} \bullet \boldsymbol{p}_{\mathsf{NO}} = {}^{15}\mathsf{R}_{\mathsf{Total}} - {}^{15}\mathsf{R}_{\mathsf{NO}(e)} \bullet \boldsymbol{p}_{\mathsf{NO}_{2}},\tag{3}$$

where (e) denotes the equilibrium ¹⁵R of either NO or NO₂. Using the equilibrium ¹⁵R_{NO} and ¹⁵R_{NO2}, $\alpha_{NO_2/NO}$ can be calculated from equation (1).

3. Results and Discussion

3.1. α_{NO_2}/NO

The NO and NO₂ pressures, measured δ^{15} N of NO₂ at equilibrium, and experimental determined $\alpha_{NO_2/NO}$ values for each trial is reported in the supporting information. The experimental $\alpha_{NO_2/NO}$ values were determined to be 1.0403 ± 0.0015, 1.0356 ± 0.0015, and 1.0336 ± 0.0014 at 278 K, 297 K, and 310 K, respectively.

These values are within experimental error of $\alpha_{NO_2/NO}$ values calculated using GF matrix derived vibrational frequencies, where G is the a symmetric matrix set-up using the Wilson vector method and F is the force derivative matrix. [*Monse et al.*, 1969] in the Bigeleisen-Mayer equation (1.0396, 1.0355, and 1.0331 at 278 K, 297 K, and 310 K, respectively). In contrast, the experimental $\alpha_{NO_2/NO}$ values tend to be slightly lower than the $\alpha_{NO_2/NO}$ values theoretically calculated at these temperatures using experimental harmonic frequencies in the Bigeleisen-Mayer equation (1.0461, 1.0415, and 1.0387, respectively) [*Richet et al.*, 1977] and slightly lower than the values predicted using harmonic frequencies calculated using quantum mechanical methods (1.0441, 1.0397, and 1.03704, respectively) [*Walters and Michalski*, 2015] (Figure 1).

While our experimental $\alpha_{NO_2/NO}$ agree well with the values calculated by *Monse et al.* [1969], there are some concerns in the way those values were calculated. In *Monse et al.* [1969], frequencies for the N isotopologues of NO and NO₂ were calculated using force fields observed from fundamental vibrational frequencies, and these computed frequencies were used to calculate $\alpha_{NO_2/NO}$ using the Bigeleisen-Mayer equation. However, constructing the force fields of polyatomic molecules is complex and often requires several simplifications and approximations [*Wilson et al.*, 1955; *Liu et al.*, 2010]. Therefore, this method is not recommended to calculate isotope exchange α values as it tends to result in larger errors relative to α values calculated using harmonic frequencies [*Liu et al.*, 2010]. Thus, the agreement between our calculated $\alpha_{NO_2/NO}$ values and the values calculated by *Monse et al.* [1969] might be fortuitous.

Theoretical predictions of isotope exchange processes using the Bigeleisen-Mayer equation can be improved by accounting for corrections for anharmonicity on the ZPE which can have a significant impact on α values [*Liu et al.*, 2010]. To this end, we have calculated theoretical $\alpha_{NO_2/NO}$ values using a modified version of the Bigeleisen-Mayer equation with anharmonic corrections for accurate zero-point energies [*Liu et al.*, 2010], using experimental harmonic frequencies for the N isotopologues of NO and NO₂ [*Olman et al.*, 1964; *Blank and Hause*, 1970] and experimental zero-point energies [*Henry et al.*, 1978; *Teffo et al.*, 1980; *Michalski et al.*, 2004] (Figure 1). Details on this calculation and our calculated $\alpha_{NO_2/NO}$ regression parameters as a function of temperature for this exchange can be found in the supporting information. Using this approach, we calculated $\alpha_{NO_2/NO}$ values of 1.0395, 1.0352, and 1.0329 at 278 K, 297 K, and 310 K, respectively, which is within the experimental uncertainty of our measurements (Figure 1).

Overall, there is excellent agreement between our theoretical calculated $\alpha_{NO_2/NO}$ and our experimental measured values. Liefer's [1940] measured $\alpha_{NO_2/NO}$ of 1.040 ± 0.020 at 238 K is also in agreement with our theoretical calculated value of 1.0508 at 238 K, though the experimental uncertainty is relatively high. However, both our experimental and theoretical $\alpha_{NO_2/NO}$ values disagree with the value reported by Begun and Melton [1956]. Begun and Melton determined $\alpha_{NO_2/NO}$ to be 1.028 ± 0.002 at 298 K [Begun and Melton, 1956], which is slightly lower than our experimental value of 1.0356 ± 0.0015 at 297 K or our theoretical calculated value of 1.0352 at 298 K. The disagreement or relatively high uncertainty in these previous $\alpha_{NO_2/NO}$ measurements may be explained due to the experimental measurement techniques. In both of these previous studies, the abundances of the N isotopologues of NO and NO₂ were measured by flowing gaseous NO and NO₂ into a mass spectrometer, but the separate mass analysis for the NO₂ and NO peaks is complicated due to the formation of NO⁺ and NO₂⁺ ions that originate from NO₂ [Leifer, 1940; Begun and Melton, 1956]. This may have artificially lowered the abundance of $^{15}NO_2$ and increased the abundance of ^{15}NO . In our experimental measurement technique, our samples were converted into a relatively inert gas (N2O) and ¹⁵N/¹⁴N ratios were directly compared to N isotopic references, which should eliminate previous experimental measurement limitations. Therefore, we believe our data reconcile previous disagreements between experimental measurements and theoretical calculations for this N isotope exchange process and will be useful in interpreting ${}^{15}N/{}^{14}N$ ratios of atmospheric NO and NO₂.

3.2. Implications for δ^{15} N of Atmospheric NO₂

In order to understand the impact the N isotope exchange between NO and NO₂ has on δ^{15} N-NO₂, we modeled the diurnal cycle and seasonal changes in δ^{15} N-NO₂ (Figure 3), using a NO_x mass-balance model assuming that NO and NO₂ achieve N isotopic equilibrium. The exchange $\alpha_{NO_2/NO}$ can be related to δ notation by the following:

$$\alpha_{\rm NO_2/NO} = \left[\frac{\delta^{15} \text{N} \cdot \text{NO}_2 + 1000}{\delta^{15} \text{N} \cdot \text{NO} + 1000} - 1\right] \cdot 1000.$$
⁽⁴⁾

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Figure 3. Hourly changes in δ^{15} N-NO₂(‰) (assuming equilibrium between NO and NO₂ is achieved), temperature (K), and f_{NO2} (a) over a week at Indianapolis, IN, USA (13 September–20 September 2015) and (b) over a year (2007) at Chula Vista, CA, USA. "a" highlights the conditions that N isotope exchange has a strong influence on δ^{15} N-NO₂ relative to δ^{15} N-NO₂ relative to δ^{15} N-NO₂ (dotted line) and conditions that have little influence on δ^{15} N-NO₂ relative to δ^{15} N-NO₂ (dashed line). Heavy curves in "b" are 100 point (100 h) moving averages.

Here we define δ^{15} N to be relative to the total NO_x, for example δ^{15} N-NO₂ is expressed as

$$\delta^{15} \text{N-NO}_2(\%) = \left[\frac{{}^{15} \text{R}_{\text{NO}_2}}{{}^{15} \text{R}_{\text{NO}_x}} - 1\right] \cdot 1000$$
(5)

with δ^{15} N-NO_x set to 0‰ relative to atmospheric air. Mass and isotopic balance for NO and NO₂ results in the following relationship:

$$f_{NO_2} \cdot \delta^{15} \text{N-NO}_2 + f_{NO} \cdot \delta \text{N-NO} = 1 \cdot \delta^{15} \text{N-NO}_x = 0\%, \tag{6}$$

where *f* is mole fraction of NO or NO₂ to the total NO_x. Combining equations (4)–(6) results in the following relationship between δ^{15} N-NO₂, α_{NO_2/NO_2} , and f_{NO_2} :

$$\delta^{15} \text{N-NO}_2(0\%) = \left[\frac{(\alpha_{\text{NO}_2/\text{NO}} - 1)(1 - f_{\text{NO}_2})}{(1 - f_{\text{NO}_2}) + (\alpha_{\text{NO}_2/\text{NO}} \cdot f_{\text{NO}_2})} \right].$$
(7)

The mass-balance model highlights that the δ^{15} N-NO₂ value will change depending on f_{NO2} and temperature-dependent $\alpha_{NO_2/NO}$ relative to the δ^{15} N-NO_x (Figure 3).

In Figure 3a, the δ^{15} N-NO₂ diurnal profile is derived from hourly measurements of NO, NO₂, and temperature at Indianapolis, IN, USA (39.8151°N, and -86.1118°W) from 13 September 2015 to 19 September 2015 [*Indiana Department of Environmental Management*, 2015]. The δ^{15} N-NO₂ has a diurnal cycle (Figure 3a) with a daily maximum of $12.9 \pm 2.4\%$, which typically occurs between 8:00 A.M. and 1:00 P.M. when local f_{NO2} values are the lowest. The f_{NO2} is lowest during this period due to the emission of NO from transportation-related combustion sources, typical of urban areas [*Gao*, 2007], as well as the photolysis of NO₂ during the daytime [*Leighton*, 1961]. Under these conditions, the NO_x isotope exchange has a significant influence on the partitioning of δ^{15} N between NO and NO₂, and this is shown in Figure 3a with a dotted line. During

the evening and nighttime, however, f_{NO2} approaches 1 as all NO is oxidized by O₃ into NO₂, but NO is not reformed due to the absence of NO₂ photolysis [*Leighton*, 1961]. Under these conditions, δ^{15} N-NO₂ approaches 0‰ indicating that δ^{15} N-NO₂ is approximately equal to the δ^{15} N-NO_x, and this is shown in Figure 3b with a dashed line.

Predicted seasonal changes in δ^{15} N-NO₂ (Figure 3b) were derived from hourly measurements of NO, NO₂, and temperature recorded at Chula Vista, CA, USA (32.6278°N and 117.0481°W) from 1 January 2007 to 31 December 2007 [*California Environmental Protection Agency*, 2015]. There is relatively large scatter in δ^{15} N-NO₂ and f_{NO2} throughout the year (Figure 3b), and this is related to the diurnal cycle that both δ^{15} N-NO₂ and f_{NO2} exhibit. The 100 h moving average, however, shows that there may be slight seasonal variations in δ^{15} N-NO₂ (Figure 3b). The model predicts that during the winter (December–February), δ^{15} N-NO₂ would have the highest average 100 h moving average of 10.3‰, compared to the other seasons that have similar average 100 h moving averages of 7.36‰, 7.79‰, and 7.83‰ for spring (March–May), summer (June–August), and fall (September–November), respectively. The observed slightly higher δ^{15} N-NO₂ 100 h moving average for winter is related to both the seasonal changes in f_{NO2} and in temperatures. Both of these parameters will result in higher δ^{15} N-NO₂ values in winter relative to the other seasons, as N isotopic exchange is temperature dependent and is greater at lower temperatures and a lower f_{NO2} will result in more ¹⁵N enrichment in NO₂. At Chula Vista, there is relatively small fluctuations in seasonal temperatures and f_{NO2} (Figure 3b), however, at sites with larger variations in these parameters, it is expected that there will be a more pronounced seasonal cycling of δ^{15} N-NO₂.

The simple case in which NO and NO₂ always exist in N isotopic equilibrium is competing with isotope fractionation factors and lifetimes associated with the Leighton cycle [*Freyer et al.*, 1993]:

$$\tau_{\rm NO+O_3} = \frac{1}{k_{\rm NO+O3}[O_3]}$$
(R5)

$$\tau_{\rm NO-exchange} = \frac{I}{k_{15}\rm NO + {}^{14}\rm NO_2[\rm NO_2]}$$
(R6)

$$\tau_{\rm NO_2-exchange} = \frac{1}{k_{15}\rm NO + {}^{14}\rm NO_2[\rm NO]}$$
(R7)

$$\tau_{\mathrm{NO}_2+\mathrm{hv}} = \frac{1}{j_{\mathrm{NO}_2}}.$$
 (R8)

Here τ is lifetime (*e*-folding time) of each reaction, k are the rate constants (NO + O₃ = 1.73 × 10⁻¹⁴ cm³ moleucles⁻¹ s⁻¹ [Atkinson et al., 2004] and NO_x isotope exchange = 8.14×10^{-14} cm³ molecules⁻¹ s⁻¹ [Sharma et al., 1970]), and j is photolysis rate constant $\sim 5 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$, which depends upon solar zenith angle [Parrish et al., 1983]. Using these constants and concentrations of 5 ppb of NO, 5 ppb NO₂, and 20 ppb of O₃, τ_{NO+O3} , $\tau_{NO-exchange}$, $\tau_{NO2-exchange}$, and τ_{NO2+hy} are calculated to be 1.9, 1.6, 1.6, and 1.9 min respectively. Under these conditions, the lifetimes of the Leighton cycle reactions and NO_x exchange are comparable, therefore, the associated N fractionation factor between NO and NO₂ will be a mixture of these processes. If one of the lifetimes (R5-R8) is an order of magnitude shorter relative to the others, the associated N fractionation factor between NO and NO₂ will be closer to the shorter lifetime's N fractionation factor. For example, when NO and NO₂ concentrations are increased to 80 ppb, $\tau_{NO-exchange}$ and $\tau_{NO2-exchanger}$ decreases to 0.1 min and the NO and NO₂ δ^{15} N values will more closely match the NO_x exchange fractionation factor. Such conditions may exist downwind of smoke stack plumes during the daytime. Conversely, during high O₃ (20 ppb) and low NO_x (100 ppt), such as the open ocean, $\tau_{\text{NO-exchange}}$ and $\tau_{NO2-exchange}$ are 100 times slower than photolysis and O₃ oxidation and thus is unlikely to be relevant. The N fractionation factors associated with the $NO + O_3$ reaction and NO_2 photolysis has yet to be determined but will be the subject of ongoing research. During the night when photolysis ceases and nearly all NO_x exists as NO₂, the δ^{15} N of NO₂ will reflect the δ^{15} N of the emitted NO_x in that region. Overall, the N fractionation between NO and NO₂ is complicated, but future research in the kinetic modeling of Leighton/NO_x exchange process will help elucidate the importance of the various N fractionation factors under varying conditions.

The δ^{15} N value of atmospheric nitrate formed from the NO_x will depend not only on the δ^{15} N value of the NO₂ but also kinetic and equilibrium isotope effects occurring during its oxidation into NO₃⁻. During the daytime, atmospheric nitrate is primarily formed through the reaction NO₂ + OH + M \rightarrow HNO₃. Therefore, δ^{15} N value of atmospheric nitrate formed during the day will be a complex function of the δ^{15} N of the emitted NO_x, the NO_x equilibrium/Leighton reaction fractionation factors, and the fractionation factor associated with the NO₂ + OH + M \rightarrow HNO₃ + M reaction, which is currently unknown.

During the nighttime, atmospheric nitrate is primarily formed through the formation of N_2O_5 and its subsequent hydrolysis. N_2O_5 exists in equilibrium with NO_2 and nitrate radical (NO_3):

$$NO_2 + NO_3 \leftrightarrow N_2O_5.$$
 (R9)

Since nighttime δ^{15} N-NO₂ should be reflective of the δ^{15} N of the NO_x sources, the N₂O₅ δ^{15} N value will depend on the emitted NO_x sources and the isotope exchange associated with the N₂O₅ equilibrium ((R9)). At N isotopic equilibrium, N₂O₅ is predicted to be 26.9‰ and 31.1‰ enriched in δ^{15} N relative to NO₂ and NO₃ at 298 K [*Walters and Michalski*, 2015]. Therefore, δ^{15} N of atmospheric nitrate formed in the absence of sunlight should be ¹⁵N enriched relative to the NO_x, which is a possible explanation for the observed high δ^{15} N values of atmospheric nitrate during winter months when there is less sunlight [*Freyer*, 1978, 1991; *Elliott et al.*, 2007, 2009; *Riha*, 2013] in addition to predicted seasonal changes in δ^{15} N-NO_x [*Walters et al.*, 2015].

4. Conclusions

Previously, there has been disagreement between experimental measurements and theoretical calculations of the N isotope exchange between NO and NO₂. In this study, we measured this exchange process to have an $\alpha_{NO_2/NO}$ of 1.0403 (278 K), 1.0356 (297 K), and 1.0336 (310 K). These values are within experimental error of the values calculated using a modified version of the Bigeleisen-Mayer equation corrected for accurate ZPEs by including anharmonicity. Temperature-dependent fractionation factors were calculated and used to model seasonal changes in δ^{15} N-NO₂. The model predicts that δ^{15} N-NO₂ values will exhibit a pronounced diurnal oscillation and have seasonal variations that depend upon $f_{
m NO2}$ and ambient temperature. If $\delta^{15}
m N$ of atmospheric nitrate is linked to the δ^{15} N-NO₂, then our model predicts that (1) δ^{15} N diurnal variations would be found in atmospheric nitrate, (2) elevated winter δ^{15} N should be observed in δ^{15} N of atmospheric nitrate due to N isotope exchange between NO and NO₂, (3) relatively large seasonal variations in δ^{15} N of atmospheric nitrate will be observed in regions with relatively large seasonal changes in temperature and f_{NO2} , and (4) there will be diurnal variation in δ^{15} N-NO_x values, with nighttime values reflecting the local/regional NO_x sources. Future simultaneous δ^{15} N measurements of atmospheric nitrate and NO₂ will be useful in determining the correlation between the two. Additionally, other N isotope effects involving the oxidation of NO_x to atmospheric nitrate, the dry deposition of NO and NO₂, and the photolysis of NO₂ still need to be considered and will be the subject for future research.

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