



# A Review of the Techniques Used for Measurements of Nitrogen Isotopes in Atmospheric Aerosols

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## Abstract

This review of the methods used for measurements of stable nitrogen isotopes in gases and aerosol particles also summarizes some of the latest research on nitrate, ammonium, nitrogen oxides and ammonia in the atmosphere. The main methods used for the determination of N isotopes in nitrate and nitrogen oxides are one that makes use of denitrifying bacteria and a two-step chemical reduction method (cadmium + hydrazoic acid). A commonly used method for measuring nitrogen isotopes in ammonia and ammonium ion is a chemical conversion that uses sodium azide in an acetic acid buffer or hydroxylamine hydrochloride. A common characteristic of these methods is that nitrous oxide is the final analysis product, and the isotopes are determined by mass spectrometry. The precision of the analyses are typically very high (~0.25‰), and the methods require a small amount of sample, usually tens of nmols is sufficient. Some improvements to these methods and collection methods have been made in recent years, and these advances will facilitate research on nitrogen isotopes in the atmosphere.

**Keywords** Nitrate · Ammonium · Nitrogen oxides · Ammonia · Nitrogen isotope composition

## 1 Introduction

For decades, China has experienced frequent and all too often severe hazy weather, especially in the Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei region, the Pearl River Delta, the Yangtze River Delta and the areas in and around Chengdu and Chongqing (Sun 2016). Light extinction caused by aerosol particles dispersed in the atmosphere leads to reductions in atmospheric visibility that are characteristic of the most common types of hazy weather (He et al. 2013). Moreover, the emission sources for aerosols are numerous, and the composition of aerosols is complex, and these complicating factors have

serious implications for the ecological environment, global climate, and human health (Chen and Xiao 2009; Shao et al. 2018; Zhao et al. 2019). As a result, atmospheric aerosols have become a hot topic for domestic research in China and throughout the world (He et al. 2013; Huang et al. 2014).

Advances in industrial desulfurization technology and the strict monitoring of sulfur dioxide (SO<sub>2</sub>) in China have led to some improvements in air quality. However, increases in nitrogen oxide (NO<sub>x</sub>) emissions caused by human activities (Wen 2015) have led to a gradual increase in nitrate (NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) concentrations. Ammonium (NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>) is mainly produced by the conversion of ammonia gas (NH<sub>3</sub>) in the troposphere, which is the third most abundant nitrogen-containing gas in the atmosphere after N<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O, and together with NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, it is collectively referred to as NH<sub>x</sub> (NH<sub>3</sub> + NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>) (Seinfeld et al. 1998; Walters and Hastings 2018). NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> are important components of secondary inorganic aerosols (SNA), and they participate in various reactions that affect the global nitrogen cycle (Behera et al. 2013; Tang et al. 2006; Walters and Hastings 2018). Recent studies have shown that precursors of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> also can promote the formation of sulfates and in so doing aggravate atmospheric pollution (Cheng et al. 2016). Therefore, it is of great importance to understand the chemical formation of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> and how these substances are removed from the atmosphere.

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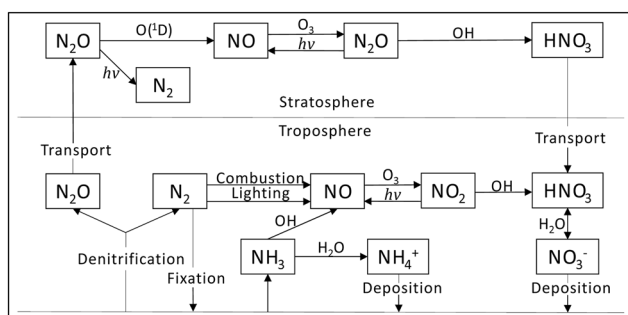
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Moreover, the sources and mechanisms leading to the formation of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  in urban aerosols are not yet fully understood, and the rapid increases in concentrations of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  during heavy pollution is also uncertain. Stable isotopes have become more widely used in studies of the sources, chemical formation and migration process of pollutants in recent years (Zhao et al. 2019), and the determination of the N and O isotopic composition of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  can be used to identify sources and investigate conversion processes (Xu et al. 2014; Zhao et al. 2019). The application of stable isotope techniques holds promise for tracing the movements of atmospheric  $\text{NO}_3^-$ , and similarly, N isotope measurements of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  may provide insights into N sources and removal processes (Walters and Hastings 2018). Therefore, this paper reviews the existing research on N isotope analysis of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{NH}_4^+$ .

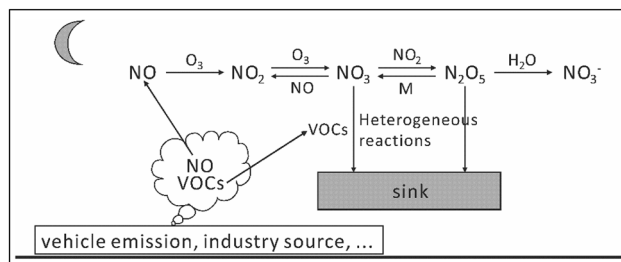
## 2 Analytical Techniques for Nitrogen Isotopes in Nitrate and Nitrogen Oxides

### 2.1 Nitrogen Isotopes and the Formation of Nitrogen Oxides

$\text{NO}_3^-$  in the atmosphere mainly forms through reactions of  $\text{NO}_x$  and free radicals. It is generally agreed that during the daytime, the formation of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  is mainly driven by gas-phase reactions between  $\text{NO}_2$  and OH radicals ( $\text{NO}_2 + \text{OH}$ ) (Fig. 1) (Seinfeld and Pandis 2016; Tang et al. 2006). At night,  $\text{HNO}_3$  mainly forms through reactions of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$  in the liquid phase ( $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$ ) (Fig. 2) (Jia et al. 2006). The factors that affect the formation of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  include not only temperature but also relative humidity (RH) and solar radiation intensity (Elliott et al. 2009). In addition,  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$  at night also forms through multi-step reactions of  $\text{NO}_x$  involving  $\text{O}_3$ . The main sources for gaseous  $\text{NO}_x$  include emissions from soil microbes, biomass burning, thermal power plants and motor vehicle exhaust (Bao et al. 2015; Wang et al. 2014).



**Fig. 1** Oxidation of  $\text{NO}_x$  to  $\text{NO}_3^-$  during the day (Seinfeld and Pandis 2016; Tang et al. 2006)



**Fig. 2** Oxidation of  $\text{NO}_x$  to  $\text{NO}_3^-$  at night (Jia et al. 2006)

Previous studies have shown that the normalized ratios of  $^{14}\text{N}$  to  $^{15}\text{N}$  isotopes ( $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ ) of  $\text{NO}_x$  to its oxidation product,  $\text{NO}_3^-$ , can be used as a type of "fingerprint" to evaluate the contributions of  $\text{NO}_x$  from various sources to atmospheric nitrogen deposition (Elliott et al. 2007). The N isotope ratios for  $\text{NO}_x$  vary among sources, and therefore, the stable N isotope ratio for  $\text{NO}_3^-$  ( $\delta^{15}\text{N}-\text{NO}_3^-$ ) can be used to trace its main sources. In addition,  $^{15}\text{N}$  fractionation occurs during the oxidation of  $\text{NO}_x$  to  $\text{NO}_3^-$  (Walters and Michalski 2016), and therefore, N isotopes also can provide insights into  $\text{NO}_3^-$  formation (Walters and Michalski 2016; Zhang and Gao 2012; Zheng 2000). A limitation in the application of N isotope for source assessments is that the  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values for  $\text{NO}_x$  from different sources can overlap to a degree, and the fractionation that occurs when  $\text{NO}_x$  is converted to  $\text{NO}_3^-$  can be another confounding effect. To maximize the usefulness of isotopic information, both N and O isotopes are often measured together in the stable isotope analysis of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  (Qin et al. 2019). This approach makes use of the fact that the oxygen isotope composition of  $\text{O}_3$  and OH radicals are different ( $\delta^{18}\text{O}-\text{O}_3$ : +90 to +120‰ versus  $\delta^{18}\text{O}-\text{OH}$ : -89 to -56‰) (Johnston and Thiemens 1997; Michalski et al. 2012). Indeed,  $\delta^{18}\text{O}-\text{NO}_3^-$  can provide additional insights into the formation of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  because data for both O and N isotopes can compensate for the limitations in relying on  $\text{NO}_3^-$  nitrogen isotopes alone (Altieri et al. 2013; Wankel et al. 2009). Therefore, the use of isotope techniques can effectively investigate the sources for  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and the oxidation pathways for  $\text{NO}_x$ .

### 2.2 Methods for Measuring Nitrogen Isotopes in Nitrate

Quartz fiber filters are commonly used to collect aerosol  $\text{NO}_3^-$  particles, and then, ultrapure water is used to extract  $\text{NO}_3^-$  for subsequent analysis. The solution is then used for the N and O isotope determination of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  (Zhao et al. 2019). At present, the methods for determining the N isotopes in  $\text{NO}_3^-$  involve distillation, diffusion, graphite combustion, ion exchange resins, denitrifying bacteria, and chemical reduction (Qin et al. 2019; Zhao et al. 2019).

The operating principles for the distillation and diffusion methods are straightforward; that is,  $\text{NO}_3^-$  is reduced to  $\text{NH}_4^+$  for the instrumental analysis. However, these two methods require relatively large sample sizes, and isotope fractionation is likely to occur during the procedures, resulting in large uncertainties in the results. More important, these techniques cannot be used to determine nitrogen and oxygen isotopes simultaneously, so their applications are limited (Liu et al. 2017; Xiao and Liu 2001b; Zhao et al. 2019). For the graphite combustion procedure, which has been improved several times, the  $\text{NO}_3^-$  sample and granular graphite are first placed in a glass/graphite carbon reaction tube, and then they are converted into  $\text{N}_2$  and  $\text{CO}$  at a high pyrolysis temperature of 1400 °C. After purification, N and O isotopes can be simultaneously determined by mass spectrometry, and this method been automated (Kornexl et al. 1999; Qin et al. 2019). The ion exchange method uses an anion resin to adsorb and concentrate  $\text{NO}_3^-$  from aqueous solution, and HCl is then used to remove the adsorbed  $\text{NO}_3^-$ . After a series of purification steps, N and O isotopes can be determined by mass spectrometry (Qin et al. 2019; Silva et al. 2000). However, the pretreatment steps for the ion exchange method are cumbersome, require large sample quantities, and the cost of pretreatment is high because of the consumables used; therefore, this method is not often used (Liu et al. 2017; Xiao and Liu 2001b).

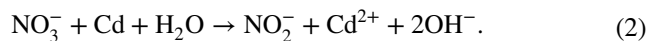
More recently, denitrifying bacteria and chemical reduction methods have developed for isotopic  $\text{NO}_3^-$  analyses with  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  as the final product. These methods are not sensitive to atmospheric background, and they can be used for small samples (usually 10–60 nmol) (Casciotti et al. 2002; Mcilvin and Altabet 2005; Sigman et al. 2001). The molecular structure of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  is such that the  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  value for this compound is the average of the  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  for the two nitrogen atoms (Wang et al. 2015) as follows:

$$\delta^{15}\text{N}_{(\text{N}_2\text{O})} = \frac{\delta^{15}\text{N}_{(15\text{N}-\text{N}-\text{O})} + \delta^{15}\text{N}_{(\text{N}-15\text{N}-\text{O})}}{2}. \quad (1)$$

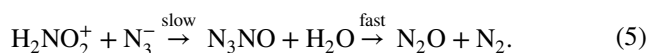
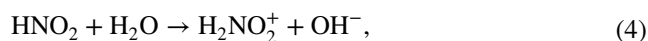
The denitrifying bacteria method uses obligate denitrifying bacteria lacking  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  reductase to reduce all  $\text{NO}_3^-$  to  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  in the sample solution. Nitrogen and oxygen isotopes are then determined using a mass spectrometer (Casciotti et al. 2002; Sigman et al. 2001; Yang et al. 2014; Zhang et al. 2010). The denitrifying bacteria method is suitable for different types of samples, and it can be used to measure very low concentration (10–20 nmol N) samples (Liu et al. 2017; Sigman et al. 2001). Meanwhile, the precision of the final analytical results is very high (around 0.2‰) (Sigman et al. 2001). The drawbacks for the method are complex biological responses, poor universality, degradation of bacteria characteristics, and high maintenance costs, and therefore, it is not so commonly used (Wang et al. 2015; Zhao et al. 2019). A chemical reduction method

has been developed by Mcilvin and Altabet (2005), and it is based on two reduction steps. The first step is to reduce  $\text{NO}_3^-$  to  $\text{NO}_2^-$  over cadmium (Cd), and the second step is to use the sodium azide ( $\text{NaN}_3$ ) prepared in an acidic buffer (commonly an acetic acid buffer) to quantitatively reduce  $\text{NO}_2^-$  to  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ . After that, the ratios of N and O isotopes can be determined by isotope ratio mass spectrometry. The specific reaction equation is as follows (Wang et al. 2015):

The first step of the reduction method occurs in a weakly alkaline environment, and Cd is used to reduce  $\text{NO}_3^-$  in the solution to  $\text{NO}_2^-$ :



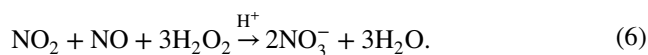
The second step of the reduction method is in a sodium azide-acetic acid buffer system, where  $\text{N}_3^-$  is used to reduce  $\text{NO}_2^-$  to  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  gas:



The chemical reduction method has a wide range of applications and is operationally simple, highly sensitive, and relatively inexpensive, and it is now commonly used in China (Liu et al. 2017; Tu et al. 2016; Wang et al. 2015). However, a shortcoming of this method is that the azide reagent is toxic, requiring careful operation in a fume hood and appropriate safety measures in cleaning operations (Liu et al. 2017; Mcilvin and Altabet 2005).

### 2.3 Nitrogen Isotope Determination Methods for Nitrogen Oxides

The methods for determining N isotopes in  $\text{NO}_x$  are similar to those used for  $\text{NO}_3^-$ . The biggest difference between them is in the methods used for collection and pretreatment. For the collection of  $\text{NO}_x$ , a gas absorption bottle is typically used (Felix et al. 2012; Wang et al. 2015). After the end of sampling, the sealed gas absorption bottle, which contains a fixed volume of an absorption liquid, is shaken to oxidize the  $\text{NO}_x$  to  $\text{NO}_3^-$ , the later of which becomes dissolved in the absorbing liquid. The bottle is left for a sufficient amount of time to ensure that all  $\text{NO}_x$  is converted to  $\text{NO}_3^-$ . The reaction equation for the oxidation of  $\text{NO}_x$  to  $\text{NO}_3^-$  by  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  is as follows (Wang et al. 2015):



The methods used for the determination of  $\text{NO}_x$  nitrogen isotopes are the same as those previously described for  $\text{NO}_3^-$  nitrogen isotopes in Sect. 2.2.

## 2.4 Recent Research Progress

Tu et al. (2016) improved the chemical reduction methods (cadmium + hydrazoic acid) that were developed for determining N and O isotopes in  $\text{NO}_3^-$ . First, the sponge cadmium or activated cadmium was replaced with cadmium powder for the  $\text{NO}_3^-$  reduction step, and the reaction was carried out under ultrasound. Second, the amount of sodium azide in the acetic acid buffer was decreased to only 1% of the original method for the second reduction step; that reduced the amount of toxic reagents used. Third, sodium acetate was added to the buffer along with the sodium azide because that improved the performance of the buffer and decreased the oxygen isotope exchange with water during the  $\text{NO}_2^-$  reduction process (Liu et al. 2017).

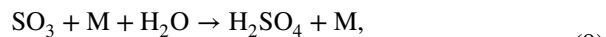
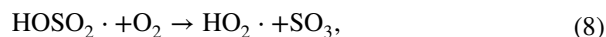
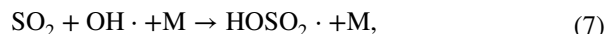
The types of cadmium powders used for the chemical reduction methods can affect the reaction systems and kinetics, pH, etc. (Tu et al. 2016; Wang et al. 2015). Zhao et al. (2019) studied the two-step chemical reduction methods under different conditions and optimized the scheme for accurate determination of N and O isotopes in  $\text{NO}_3^-$  aerosols. Their studies showed that when the concentration of  $\text{Cl}^-$  in the solution was  $\geq 5$  mol/L and pH 8, the cadmium powder was activated by HCl and that favored the reduction of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  to  $\text{NO}_2^-$ . And then,  $\text{NO}_2^-$  was reduced to  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  with the sodium azide in an acetic acid buffer at a pH of 4.5–4.6, and isotopic determinations were performed with an isotope ratio mass spectrometer. The measurement accuracy for N isotopes determined by this method is  $\pm 0.08\%$ , and the corresponding accuracy for O isotopes is  $\pm 0.24\%$ .

## 3 Nitrogen isotope Analytical Techniques for Ammonium and Ammonia

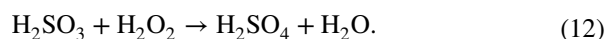
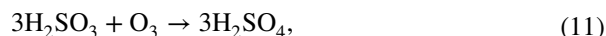
### 3.1 Formation Mechanisms for Ammonium and Tracing the Reactions with Nitrogen Isotopes

Ammonium ( $\text{NH}_4^+$ ) ions are formed by the reaction of gaseous  $\text{NH}_3$  with acids in the atmosphere, mainly  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$  and  $\text{HNO}_3$ . Reaction products include ammonium hydrogen sulfate ( $\text{NH}_4\text{HSO}_4$ ), ammonium sulfate ( $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ ), and ammonium nitrate ( $\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3$ ), all of which are important aerosol particle components that can degrade atmospheric visibility (Liu 2017).  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$  and  $\text{HNO}_3$  are most often formed through the oxidation of  $\text{SO}_2$  and  $\text{NO}_2$  in the atmosphere by OH radicals,  $\text{O}_3$ ,  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ , etc., and they further react with  $\text{NH}_3$  to form  $\text{NH}_4\text{HSO}_4$ ,  $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$  and  $\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3$  (Kong et al. 2014; Wang et al. 2012). The specific reaction equations are as follows (Seinfeld and Pandis 2016; Wang et al. 2009):

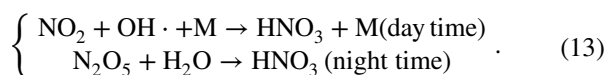
#### 1. Formation of $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$ :



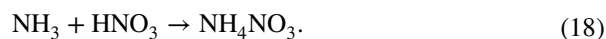
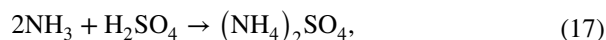
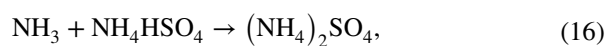
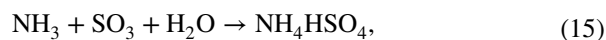
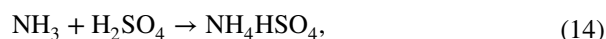
Or:



#### 2. Formation of $\text{HNO}_3$ :



#### 3. Formation of $\text{NH}_4^+$ :

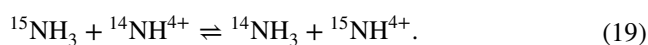


$\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$  has a lower saturation vapor pressure than  $\text{HNO}_3$ , and therefore,  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$  will preferentially react with  $\text{NH}_3$  to form  $\text{NH}_4\text{HSO}_4$  and  $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$  (Baek and Aneja 2004; Liu 2017). That is, when the concentration of  $\text{NH}_3$  is low, it will preferentially react with  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$  to form  $\text{NH}_4\text{HSO}_4$  and  $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ , but when  $\text{NH}_3$  is in abundance, the excess  $\text{NH}_3$  will react with  $\text{HNO}_3$  to form  $\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3$ . The main factors affecting the formation of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  are the concentrations of  $\text{NH}_3$ ,  $\text{SO}_2$ ,  $\text{NO}_x$  and other precursors, temperature, relative humidity (RH), solar light intensity and weather conditions (Hu 2015; Liu 2017). In particular, the main factors affecting the reversible reaction between  $\text{NH}_3$  and  $\text{HNO}_3$  that forms  $\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3$ , are the concentration of  $\text{NH}_3$ , and temperature (Hueglin et al. 2005). In addition,  $\text{NH}_3$  is the main precursor of  $\text{NH}_4^+$ , and it can be oxidized by OH radicals to form  $\text{NO}_x$ , which in turn is involved in the formation of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  in a related nitrogen cycle (as shown in Fig. 1) (Seinfeld and Pandis 2016; Tang et al. 2006).

The source of  $\text{NH}_3$  in different regions is generally different. In agricultural areas,  $\text{NH}_3$  is mainly derived from animal husbandry and the use of fertilizers (Zbieranowski and Aherne 2013). In urban areas,  $\text{NH}_3$  has many sources, including industrial sources, vehicle exhaust, external area transmission, solid waste, sewage, and human feces (Dentener and Crutzen 1994; Dong et al. 2010; Gu et al. 2012). In the suburbs,  $\text{NH}_3$  is mainly derived from natural emissions such as microbial activities and animal wastes (Sutton et al. 2009). The nitrogen isotope composition of  $\text{NH}_3$  ( $\delta^{15}\text{N-NH}_3$ ) emitted from different emission sources is generally different (Fig. 3), and the nitrogen isotope composition of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  ( $\delta^{15}\text{N-NH}_4^+$ ) produced is also different. Therefore, the nitrogen isotope composition of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  in atmospheric aerosols can effectively trace its source and formation and transformation processes (Felix et al. 2013).

Previous studies have used a wide variety of collection techniques for measuring the nitrogen isotope composition of  $\text{NH}_3$  emission sources ( $\delta^{15}\text{N-NH}_3$ ), and it has been found that there can be large variations in  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  from a single  $\text{NH}_3$  emission source. There also can be considerable overlap in the  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values for different  $\text{NH}_3$  emission sources (Chang et al. 2016; Felix et al. 2013; Freyer 1978; Heaton 1987; Hristov et al. 2009; Savard et al. 2017; Smirnov et al. 2012; Walters and Hastings 2018). This suggests that there needs to be better information on nitrogen isotopes for that major  $\text{NH}_3$  sources, and the development of a representative database will require extensive field sampling with many actual measurements (Zong et al. 2017). Another complicating factor is that some processes involving  $\text{NH}_3$  can cause isotope fractionation: one example of this is the evaporation of  $\text{NH}_3$  which can lead to increases in  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  in the sample.

In addition, when  $\text{NH}_3$  is converted to  $\text{NH}_4^+$ , equilibrium fractionation of the N isotopes occurs (Freyer 1978; Savard et al. 2017), and that affects the isotopic composition of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  and  $\text{NH}_3$ . The specific reaction equation is as follows (Urey 1947):



The equilibrium constant ( $K$ ) or isotope fractionation coefficient ( $\alpha$ ) for the above formula is  $1.034 \pm 0.002$  at 298.1 K (Urey 1947), and therefore

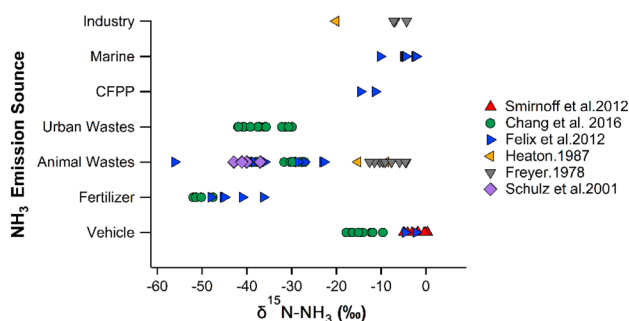
$$K_{298.1\text{ K}} = \alpha_{298.1\text{ K}} = \frac{^{15}\text{NH}_4^+ / ^{14}\text{NH}_4^+}{^{15}\text{NH}_3 / ^{14}\text{NH}_3} = 1.034 \pm 0.002. \quad (20)$$

This shows that conversions between  $\text{NH}_3$  and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  should favor the partitioning of  $^{15}\text{N}$  into  $\text{NH}_4^+$ , and the net result would be higher  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values for  $\text{NH}_4^+$  compared with  $\text{NH}_3$  (Urey 1947). Therefore, the determination of  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  for  $\text{NH}_x$  provides information on the heterogeneous conversion of  $\text{NH}_3$  into new particles, and that has implications for the relative importance of kinetics versus equilibrium control in the formation of  $\text{NH}_4^+$ . As the  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  of  $\text{NH}_3$  may change during the formation of new particles, the form of  $\text{NH}_x$  must be considered in field sampling and laboratory measurements, and the source of the emissions should also be determined to minimize the effects of chemical and physical processes and to obtain meaningful data for the  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  in  $\text{NH}_4^+$  and  $\text{NH}_3$  (Walters and Hastings 2018).

### 3.2 Nitrogen Isotope Determination Methods for Ammonium Ion

Quartz fiber filters are generally used for the collection of aerosol  $\text{NH}_4^+$ , and ultrapure water is then used to extract the  $\text{NH}_4^+$  from the particles, and the solution is then used for the nitrogen and oxygen isotope determinations of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  (Huang et al. 2018; Xiang et al. 2019). The methods currently used for determining  $\text{NH}_4^+$  nitrogen isotopes ( $\delta^{15}\text{N-NH}_4^+$ ) can be divided into two categories: Duma and chemical conversion methods (Liu et al. 2017). The Duma methods are traditional, mainly including distillation, diffusion, ion exchange, etc. These methods usually convert the  $\text{NH}_4^+$  extracted from the sample into  $\text{N}_2$  by combustion and oxidation, and then the N isotopes of the  $\text{NH}_4^+$  are determined by isotope ratio mass spectrometry (IRMS) (Liu et al. 2017; Wen et al. 2016; Xiang et al. 2019).

For the distillation method, the filter extract is heat-distilled in an alkaline environment to convert  $\text{NH}_4^+$  into  $\text{NH}_3$ , which is then absorbed by an acidic liquid (most often  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$ ) (Freyer 1978; Heaton 1987; Velinsky et al. 1989). Then the Dumas combustion method is used to convert  $\text{NH}_4^+$  into  $\text{N}_2$  for the measurements of nitrogen isotopes (Liu et al. 2017; Wen et al. 2016). Although this method has a high nitrogen recovery rate, it is prone to cross-contamination of  $^{15}\text{N}$ . The diffusion method for  $\text{NH}_4^+$  nitrogen isotope measurements is similar to the distillation method, but for the diffusion method, the

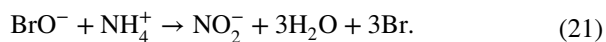


**Fig. 3** Previously reported  $\delta^{15}\text{N-NH}_3$  values of  $\text{NH}_3$  source emissions (Chang et al. 2016; Felix et al. 2013; Freyer 1978; Heaton 1987; Schulz et al. 2001; Smirnov et al. 2012)

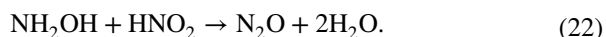
separated  $\text{NH}_3$  is absorbed into a solution using a filter device (Holmes et al. 1998). The diffusion method is less prone to cross-contamination, but the absorption time is long (Zeng et al. 2013). The ion exchange method for  $\text{NH}_4^+$  nitrogen isotopes uses a resin to adsorb  $\text{NH}_4^+$ , and after loading, the adsorbed ions are removed with a suitable eluent (Xiao and Liu 2001a, 2002). Unfortunately, the adsorption of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  in this method is susceptible to artifacts from strong ions (Hu and Liu 2013). In addition, all of the Duma methods use  $\text{N}_2$  for the IRMS analysis making them susceptible to interferences from the atmospheric  $\text{N}_2$  background. As a result, these methods are not suitable for the determination of low concentration samples.

Zhang et al. (2007) developed a new analytical technique for low-concentration samples ( $< 0.5 \mu\text{M}$ ) in which  $\text{NH}_4^+$  is chemically converted to  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  prior to mass spectrometry. The first step for the procedure is to add a low concentration of  $\text{BrO}^-$  solution to the original acidic absorption solution. The  $\text{NH}_4^+$  is oxidized to  $\text{NO}_2^-$  which in turn is converted into  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  for N isotope determinations with the use of sodium azide in an acetic acid buffer or hydroxylamine hydrochloride (Liu et al. 2014; Zhang et al. 2007). However, as noted above, hydrazoic acid is highly toxic, and it is also volatile, so it must be handled carefully in a fume hood. In comparison, hydroxylamine hydrochloride ( $\text{NH}_2\text{OH}\cdot\text{HCl}$ ) solutions are less volatile and less toxic. Indeed, Liu et al. (2014) used hydroxylamine hydrochloride to reduce the  $\text{NO}_2^-$  which is from the first step to  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  and then determined the N isotopes in  $\text{NH}_4^+$ . This recently developed conversion method does not require the use of toxic reagents, and it also has the advantage of being simple operationally. The precision of the final results is also very high ( $\sim 0.3\%$ ), and as a result, it has recently received much attention. The specific reaction equations are as follows:

1. In an alkaline environment,  $\text{BrO}^-$  oxidizes  $\text{NH}_4^+$  to  $\text{NO}_2^-$  (Zhang et al. 2007):



2. In an acidic environment, hydroxylamine hydrochloride reduces the  $\text{NO}_2^-$  to  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  (Bothner-By and Friedman 1952; Liu et al. 2014):



It is worth noting that when using chemical reagents (sodium azide in an acetic acid buffer or hydroxylamine hydrochloride) to reduce  $\text{NO}_2^-$  to  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ , it is necessary to add sodium arsenite solution to remove excess  $\text{BrO}^-$  reagent before adding the next chemical reagent. Otherwise, the remaining  $\text{BrO}^-$  will react with the next reducing agent, causing an interference (Liu et al. 2017).

### 3.3 Determination Nitrogen Isotopes in Ammonia

Passive samplers are commonly used for collecting dry N deposits because the samplers are inexpensive, easy to use, and do not require power. The passive samplers commonly used for  $\text{NH}_3$  sampling include those made by Ogawa and ALPHA (adapted low-cost passive high absorption)—these have been used many times to collect and measure  $\text{NH}_3$  (Felix et al. 2013). For passive  $\text{NH}_3$  sampling, polyamide fiber filters are typically impregnated with citric acid and then used to collect the samples. Compared with other acids, such as phosphoric acid or oxalic acid, the  $\text{NH}_4^+$  concentration gap of citric acid is lower, and that makes it more suitable for high time-resolution measurements (Felix et al. 2012, 2013; Walters and Hastings 2018).

After a suitable sampling period, the  $\text{NH}_3$  on the filter from the passive sampler is extracted with ultrapure water. Aliquots of the extract can then be used to determine the nitrogen isotope composition of  $\text{NH}_3$  ( $\delta^{15}\text{N}\text{-NH}_3$ ) by the same methods as described above for  $\text{NH}_4^+$ . In addition, as there are no interferences from  $\text{NO}_3^-$  or  $\text{NO}_2^-$  in the passively collected  $\text{NH}_3$  sample, the  $\text{NH}_3$  nitrogen isotope composition can be determined by the denitrifying bacteria method (Felix et al. 2013).

## 4 Research Progress for the Determination of Stable Isotopes in Ammonia and Ammonium

The currently used  $\text{NH}_3$  collection methods have not yet been fully verified relative to the characterization of  $\delta^{15}\text{N}\text{-NH}_3$ , but Walters and Hastings (2018) have discussed the suitability of an established collection device for that purpose. The device uses a honeycomb denuder (HCD) that is acid-coated (2% citric acid (w/v) + 1% glycerol (w/v) in a 80:20 methanol to water solution) and housed in Chem-Comb Speciation Cartridge (CCSC) (Koutrakis et al. 1993, 1988; Walters and Hastings 2018). The polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE) coating inlet on the device can have a  $\text{NH}_3$  transmission efficiency  $> 97.3\%$ , and a circular reservoir on the  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  impactor is covered with PTFE to prevent particle bounce and to limit the absorption of  $\text{NH}_3$ . In practice, two HCDs are used in series, and they are separated by a PTFE spacer: the first HCD is used to capture  $\text{NH}_3$  from the sample airstream, and the second is used as a control to check for possible  $\text{NH}_3$  breakthrough. The subsequent chemical treatment for N isotope determinations is carried out using the chemical conversion method with sodium azide in an acetic acid buffer (Zhang et al. 2007).

Walters et al. evaluated the reagent blanks, matrix effects, collection efficiency, selectivity, operative capacity, the stability of reaction products, field utility, and isotope bias for

this device (Perrino et al. 1990), and they concluded that the method is suitable for the determination of  $\delta^{15}\text{N-NH}_3$ . The acid-coated HCD collection device for  $\delta^{15}\text{N-NH}_3$  analysis and the subsequent chemical treatment lead to extremely high accuracy, with a precision of  $\pm 1.6\%$  ( $2\sigma$ ;  $n = 75$ ). The device has an operational capacity (collection efficiency  $> 95\%$ ) of 400  $\mu\text{g}$  of collected  $\text{NH}_3$  at a concentration of  $\leq 207$  ppbv. In addition, this method is also applicable to studies of the natural atmosphere, and the resolution of  $\delta^{15}\text{N-NH}_3$  is  $\sim 1$  h (Walters and Hastings 2018). This sampler represents the first laboratory-proven  $\delta^{15}\text{N-NH}_3$  device that has high time resolution and excellent  $\delta^{15}\text{N-NH}_3$  accuracy, and it may well become the sampler of choice for the air quality studies needed to improve our understanding of  $\text{NH}_3$  sources and sedimentation processes.

If a filter suitable for collecting  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  is used, the HCD device could simultaneously measure  $\delta^{15}\text{N-NH}_3$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N-NH}_4^+$ , making it useful for studying  $\text{NH}_x$ . In addition, the combined denuder-filter collection technique may be extended to isotope analysis of other gaseous compounds such as sulfur dioxide ( $\text{SO}_2$ ), nitric acid ( $\text{HNO}_3$ ), and nitrogen dioxide ( $\text{NO}_2$ ) because, with a suitable HCD coating, the device may be used to collect different gases. For example,  $\text{NH}_3$  can be collected with the use of an acidic coating on the HCD, and acid gases such as  $\text{HNO}_3$  or  $\text{SO}_2$  can be collected by a carbonate coating on the HCD.

## 5 Conclusions

Due to the frequent haze events in China, there has been increasing interest and concern over the behavior of atmospheric  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{NH}_4^+$ . Analysis of the stable N isotopes of atmospheric  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  could provide a powerful tool to identify  $\text{NO}_x$  or  $\text{NH}_3$  sources. Combined with some models, the contribution of different sources can be qualitatively and quantitatively assessed by isotope techniques. With this tool, it is possible to control and reduce the emission of nitrogen-containing pollutants from the emission sources. Therefore, it is necessary to review the techniques used for measurements of N isotopes in atmospheric aerosols. However, there also can be considerable overlap in the  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values for different emission sources. This suggests that there should be further exploration of N isotopes of major emission sources.

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