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Aerosol Fragmentation Driven by Coupling of Acid-Base and Free-Radical Chemistry in the Heterogeneous Oxidation of Aqueous Citric Acid by OH Radicals.

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Authors

Liu, Matthew J Wiegel, Aaron A Wilson, Kevin R <u>et al.</u>

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1 Aerosol Fragmentation Driven by Coupling of Acid-Base and Free Radical

2 Chemistry in the Heterogeneous Oxidation of Aqueous Citric Acid by OH

3

Radicals

Matthew J. Liu,^{a,b} Aaron A. Wiegel,^a Kevin R. Wilson,^{†a} and Frances A. Houle^{†a}
^aLawrence Berkeley National Laboratory, Chemical Sciences Division, Berkeley, CA, USA
94702
^bUniversity of California, Berkeley, Department of Chemical and Biomolecular Engineering, Berkeley, CA, USA 94720

9[†] Authors to whom correspondence should be addressed:

10Frances A. Houle (<u>fahoule@lbl.gov</u>) and Kevin R. Wilson (<u>krwilson@lbl.gov</u>) 11

12Abstract

13A key uncertainty in the heterogeneous oxidation of carboxylic acids by hydroxyl radicals (OH) 14in aqueous phase aerosol is how the free radical reaction pathways might be altered by acid-base 15chemistry. In particular, if acid-base reactions occur concurrently with acyloxy radical formation 16and unimolecular decomposition of alkoxy radicals, there is a possibility that differences in 17reaction pathways impact the partitioning of organic carbon between the gas and aqueous phases. 18To examine these questions, a kinetic model is developed for the OH initiated oxidation of citric 19acid aerosol at high relative humidity. The reaction scheme, containing both free radical and 20acid-base elementary reaction steps with physically validated rate coefficients, accurately 21predicts the experimentally observed molecular composition, particle size, and average elemental 22composition of the aerosol upon oxidation. The difference between the two reaction channels 23centers on the reactivity of carboxylic acid groups. Free radical reactions mainly add functional 24groups to the carbon skeleton of neutral citric acid, because carboxylic acid moieties deactivate 25the unimolecular fragmentation of alkoxy radicals. In contrast, the conjugate carboxylate groups 26 originating from acid-base equilibria activate both acyloxy radical formation and carbon-carbon 27bond scission of alkoxy radicals, leading to the formation of low molecular weight, highly 280xidized products such as oxalic and mesoxalic acid. Subsequent hydration of carbonyl groups in 29the oxidized products increases the aerosol hygroscopicity and accelerates the substantial water 30uptake and volume growth that accompany oxidation. These results frame the oxidative lifecycle 31of atmospheric aerosol: it is governed by feedbacks between reactions that first increase the 32particle oxidation state, then eventually promote water uptake and acid-base chemistry. When 33 coupled to free radical reactions, acid-base channels lead to formation of low molecular weight 34gas phase reaction products and decreasing particle size.

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40I. Introduction

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41Sub-micron-sized atmospheric organic aerosols profoundly influence Earth's climate by 42interacting with incoming solar radiation and serving as cloud condensation nuclei, altering 43cloud formation and albedo.¹ The extent to which these processes occur is determined by the 44size, chemical composition, shape, and lifetime of the aerosol, making their characterization 45crucial for the predictive accuracy of air quality and climate models. However, describing the 46oxidative evolution (aging) of organic aerosol is difficult due to the extensive and complex 47chemical reactions that occur. The oxidation of organic aerosol is thought to have a major 48influence on particle composition and size, leading to numerous studies of the heterogeneous 49oxidation of organic particles by gas-phase hydroxyl radicals (OH). Laboratory investigations of 50model atmospheric aerosols² provide insight into how the formation of new oxygenated 51functional groups (i.e. functionalization) and C-C bond scission (i.e. fragmentation) reactions 52together alter particle composition and size.³⁻⁷ These experimental studies are particularly 53valuable when coupled with detailed kinetics models since the resulting predictive description 54connects key elementary reaction steps to changes in the physical properties of the aerosol.

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56When an organic aerosol becomes very heavily oxidized, significant concentrations of carboxylic 57acid groups build up on the particle surface.⁸ As a result, initially hydrophobic aerosol develops 58hydrophilic character. Under humid conditions, water will accumulate on a hydrophilic surface 59over time, transforming the reaction environment from a purely organic matrix into an aqueous 60solution. This is a very late phase of chemical ageing of a chemical reduced aerosol, and gaining 61an understanding of the factors that control reactivity in this regime and what role may be played 62by carboxylic acid moieties are the primary goals of this work.

63

3 ⊿ 64There have been a number of important studies of the aqueous phase chemistry of oxidized 65aerosol constituents that examine reaction rates and mechanisms⁹⁻¹⁵ as well as the relationship 66between aerosol phase state, heterogeneous reaction rate and ultimately cloud nucleation 67activity.¹⁶⁻²⁵ In general these systems exhibit substantial C-C bond fragmentation and 68volatilization, in contrast to what is generally observed in the heterogeneous oxidation of reduced 69organics.^{20, 26} For example, levoglucosan, an anhydrosugar, has been widely studied as a model 70for aqueous biomass derived aerosol, undergoes significant fragmentation.^{21-22, 27-29} The same 71behavior is reported for the heterogeneous oxidation of aqueous erythritol, another highly 72oxygenated model system.^{20, 30} In this case, Kessler et. al.²⁰ found evidence that hydrogen 73abstraction by OH from a hydroxyl group leads to α-hydroxy alkoxy radical formation and 74subsequent decomposition by C-C bond scission.

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76The differences in reactivity between heavily and lightly oxidized systems originate from the 77presence of oxygen-containing functional groups located on or adjacent to peroxy and alkoxy 78radical intermediates, whose chemistry in turn controls the extent of fragmentation and 79subsequent volatilization.^{20, 31} For example, for a series of structurally related model dicarboxylic 80acid aerosol with a common C₄ backbone, the distribution of primary, secondary and tertiary 81peroxy and alkoxy radicals, formed after the initial OH radical reaction, was observed to play a 82large role in ultimately governing the quantity and identity of smaller molecular weight C-C 83bond scission products.¹⁶⁻¹⁸ In most of these previous studies experimental observations were 84rationalized solely by free radical reaction pathways initiated by OH. However, we expect that 85for the vast majority of highly oxidized ambient organic aerosol (e.g. secondary organic aerosol), 86which are hydrophilic in nature, the presence of an aqueous phase will lead to carboxylic acids 87being in equilibrium with their conjugate base. Thus, OH will react with both neutral and ionic 88forms. Acid-base chemistry should occur simultaneously with free radical oxidation, and 89constitute an important aging mechanism for particles in the troposphere.

90

91To our knowledge there have been only a few detailed experimental investigations³²⁻³⁶ of 92heterogeneous OH reactions in systems where free radical and acid-base chemistry can occur 93simultaneously. In this work, we investigate the heterogeneous OH oxidation of aqueous citric 94acid (CA) aerosol by OH. CA is a reasonable model for highly oxidized organic aerosol 95(C₆H₈O₇), containing three carboxylic acid functional groups and a single alcohol moiety. CA 96should exhibit many of the OH-driven aging pathways that occur in secondary organic aerosol. 97Because of its low pKa, CA is expected to react with OH in both neutral and acid-base forms. 98We develop a molecular level kinetic description of the chemistry for this system using the 99generalized oxidation mechanism for triacontane as a foundation.⁸ The model predictions are 100compared to an extensive experimental dataset obtained previously by Davies and Wilson,³⁷ 101which includes the CA decay kinetics, product mass spectra, elemental ratios, and aerosol size; 102all of which evolve with OH exposure. We focus on the dataset obtained at a relative humidity 103(RH) of 64.5%, where the aerosol is liquid and well-mixed on the timescale of the OH reaction 104 frequency. Since the aerosol is an aqueous solution of CA in equilibrium with its conjugate base, 105we have included reactions of OH with ionic species as well as with neutrals. We have performed 106simulations for three scenarios to elucidate how key reaction steps control reactivity and physical 107properties of the aerosol in aqueous vs. non-aqueous aerosol systems. We find that only those 108simulations that include both acid-base and free radical pathways yield model predictions 109consistent with the global experimental dataset.

110

111**II.** Model Framework

112Complex sets of chemical reactions are traditionally analyzed using sets of coupled ordinary 113differential equations in which continuous variables evolve deterministically. Although this 114reasonably describes test-tube sized or larger systems,³⁸ as system size decreases to the size of an 115aerosol, discreteness and stochasticity can have much greater impacts on system behavior. Under 116such conditions, molecular populations are better viewed as integer variables evolving 117stochastically. Kinetiscope,³⁹ the software used here, is based on a stochastic algorithm that 118 propagates a simulation by randomly selecting among probability-weighted elementary reaction 119steps (events).⁴⁰⁻⁴¹ The rate law for each of elementary step is used to calculate the probabilities, 120and establish an absolute time base for direct comparison of simulations to experiment. The 121method has been shown to be a rigorous solution to the master equation for Markov processes. It 122has been extended to simulate kinetics in systems with variable volume⁴² and is well suited to 123cases such as aqueous citric acid aerosol oxidation. Additional information is available on the 124software's website and in prior work on aerosol oxidation.^{31, 43} Reaction mechanisms are 125constructed inductively, that is, by starting from the simplest description and adding new reaction 126steps when the simulation results fail to agree with experiment. Rate coefficients for each step 127are taken directly from literature, calculated from experimental data or quantum theory, or 128estimated using quantitative structure-activity relationship models. Initial concentrations are used 129to replicate experimental conditions. Further discussion of the methodology is presented in the 130Supplementary Information (SI), section S1.

132The current model includes a number of elements previously developed^{8, 31, 43} to describe the 133multiphase chemistry of organic aerosols. These elements (outlined briefly in Sec. IIa), include 134the simulation geometry, kinetic descriptions of OH sticking and reaction, evaporation of 135products as well as the central pathways for peroxy and alkoxy reactions. Several new elements, 136outlined in detail in Sec. IIb-d, have been added to simulate the heterogeneous reaction of CA 137aerosol by OH. They include acid-base reactions and equilibria, and accurately capture the 138changes in aerosol size during oxidation due to dynamic uptake and release of ambient water.

140a. OH uptake and reaction, evaporation, and radical reaction pathways

141*OH uptake.* As described in previous studies, the reaction rate of OH at the surface of the aerosol 142is controlled by two separate elementary steps.^{8, 31, 43} First the OH absorbs to a surface site from 143the gas phase, then it reacts with CA or its products. The absorption step is described by a 144pseudo first order rate coefficient (k_{ad} in Table 1). k_{ad} depends on three factors: the OH 145concentration in the gas phase, the gas-surface collision frequency, and the OH sticking 146probability. While two of these are known quantities, the sticking probability is usually not 147known and for this is systems is expected to be rather complex since the aerosol surface has 148substantial water coverage in addition to organic reactants and products.³⁷ Accordingly, a value 149of 0.052 s⁻¹ is determined for k_{ad} by adjusting it until the calculated citric acid concentration vs 150time curve is in quantitative agreement with experiment.^{8, 43} The collision frequency of OH, k_{coll} , 151at a density of 7.5 x 10¹⁰ molec/cm³ with the 10⁻¹⁴ cm² surface area of the reaction compartment 152(Section IId) is calculated to be 12.4 s⁻¹. Since $k_{ads} = []k_{coll}$, this gives a value of 4.2 x 10⁻³ for [], 153the sticking coefficient. This is in the range estimated for [] in simulations of OH reacting with 154squalane (10⁻⁴) ⁴³ and triacontane (5 x 10⁻⁵, calculated from the reported rate coefficient).⁸ Since 155the sticking coefficient for water to water surfaces is 1,⁴⁴ and OH to water is in the same range,⁴⁵ 156the low value suggests that the outer surface of the aerosol has a strongly organic character 157despite the significant amount of water present. All other coefficients in the mechanism are 158derived from experiment and theory.

159

160*Evaporation*. The simulated aerosol volume dynamically evolves both by the formation of higher 161density reaction products that bind water formed by OH reactions or accrete waters of solvation 162from the ambient, and by the evaporation of high volatility small molecule products and 163eventually their water shells. Loss of water is assumed to be instantaneous following desorption 164of products from the aerosol surface. Products containing 2 carbons, such as oxalic acid, have 165much higher vapor pressure than those with 3 carbons and greater,⁴⁶ and are assumed to be the 166only ones that undergo significant evaporation. Their vapor pressures are set to be 1 x 10⁻⁴ Pa, a 167value typical for small dicarboxylic acids at room temperature.⁴⁶ The evaporation rate coefficent 168computed from this vapor pressure and the simulation geometry, as described in Wiegel et al, ^{8, 31} 169is 0.35 s⁻¹.

170

171*Radical reaction pathways*. Because the possible reactions are relatively few, the elementary 172steps used to describe the heterogeneous reaction of CA with OH are written explicitly (i.e. 173involving individual molecules) rather than using the lumped reaction scheme based on 174functional group chemistry introduced previously to model the multi-generational oxidation of 175alkanes.^{8, 31} As shown in Table S1 in the SI, the full range of possible reaction products is 176considered and includes C₆ functionalization products as well as C₂-C₅ species formed via C-C 177bond scission reactions. These product species are formed via the generic elementary reaction 178steps, shown in Figure 1, that have been used in previous studies.^{4-5, 8, 31, 43, 47-48}

179

180Briefly, OH can abstract a hydrogen atom from a $-CH_2$ or -OH moiety located on CA or its 181reaction products (generically represented as RH in Figure 1). The rate coefficient for H-182abstraction from these sites are taken from the literature and shown in Table 1. The resulting H-183abstraction reaction at the $-CH_2$ group produces an alkyl radical (R), which is rapidly converted 184(in the presence of O₂) into a peroxy radical (RO₂). RO₂ is the central intermediate that controls 185much of the oxidative transformation of CA and its subsequent products. For instance, RO₂ + 186RO₂ reactions produce either stable products with new alcohol and carbonyl functionalities or 187alkoxy radicals (RO). Previous work³¹ has shown that the aerosol oxidation chemistry is 188consistent with 90% of the secondary RO₂ + RO₂ reactions yielding stable products (i.e. carbonyl 189and alcohol), and the remaining 10% forming alkoxy radicals and O₂. H abstraction from the – 190OH group directly forms an alkoxy (RO) radical or, in the case of an -OH group on a carboxylic 191acid, an acyloxy radical. Unimolecular decomposition of alkoxy and acyloxy radicals as well as 192intermolecular H-abstraction by RO are included in the model. As shown in Figure 1, 193hydroperoxide (ROOH) products are formed by the RO₂ + HO₂ reaction.

194

195In following sections, we describe extensions to the oxidation mechanism. They include the 196implementation of the new acid-base reaction steps, the calculation of their rate constants, and a 197description of how these acid-base equilibria are coupled to the free radical reaction scheme 198described above. This is followed by a description of how water is included in the simulation to 199order to properly account for the hygroscopic growth of the aerosol during oxidation.

15 16

201b. Acid-Base chemistry

202The aqueous environment requires the inclusion of acid-base chemistry in modeling the 2030xidative evolution of the aerosol. While free radical chemistry in hydrophobic organic aerosol is 204well-constrained by known reaction pathways and rate coefficients, little work has explicitly 205focused on how free radical chemistry is modified in aqueous organic aerosol where acid-base 206chemistry occurs simultaneously. CA has a pKa₁ of 3.13, and dissociates in water to produce 207hydronium and citrate, the conjugate base of CA. This relatively acidic environment leads to 208further deprotonation of the numerous triacid and diacid products (see Table S1) formed from 209CA oxidation. Thus, we expect the formation of radical anions as the system is oxidized, and are 210interested in how the reactivity of these radical anions differs from their neutral counterparts (e.g. 211citrate *vs* citric acid). In particular, we focus on the unimolecular fragmentation rates of anionic 212alkoxy radicals compared to their neutral analogs. Because several key rate coefficients have not 213been measured, we used *ab initio* calculations of the reaction barriers to estimate them.

215Using Gaussian09,⁴⁹ the ground state energy of the radical is obtained by optimization of all its 216conformers using the SMD/IEF-PCM solvent model for water and the M06-2x functional and the 2176-31G(d,p) basis set. The solvent model was shown by Marenich et. al.⁵⁰ to reduce mean 218unsigned errors in the solvation energies of both neutral and charged species while the functional 219was shown by Walker et. al.⁵¹ to be a superior choice compared to B3LYP in systems with 220dispersion and ionic hydrogen-bonding interactions. Vibrational frequencies of the ground state 221are computed at the same level of theory to ensure the optimized structure corresponds to a local 222minimum. For the transition state calculation, the Berny option with a calculation of force 223constants is used. The length of the fragmenting C-C bond is set to the value obtained by a

224relaxed potential energy surface scan for a local maximum in total molecular energy. The barrier 225height for dissociation, E_b , is taken as the difference between the ground and transition state 226energies. Rate coefficients for β C-C bond scission of substituted alkoxy radicals are estimated 227using the following structure-activity relationship model developed by Vereecken and Peeters,⁵²

228
$$\frac{\frac{T}{298 K}}{\overset{i}{\underset{l}{\iota}}}_{k_{diss}}(T) = L \times A_{TST}(298 K) \times \overset{i}{\iota}$$
 (Eq. 1)

229where L is the number of identical bond scissions and $A_{TST}(298 K)$ is the pre-exponential 230factor at 298 K based on Transition State Theory. Further details are presented in section S5 231of the SI.

232

233As observed in previous work^{31, 52-53} and further confirmed by this set of calculations, the barrier 234height for β -scission of an alkoxy radical is found to be lowered when a ketone or hydroxyl 235functional group is located on an adjacent carbon atom as shown in Scheme 1. The reduction in 236barrier height is significant, such that unimolecular decomposition of activated RO is the primary 237sink for alkoxy radicals rather than, for example, hydrogen abstraction (i.e. RO + RH).

238

239 As shown in Scheme 1c, the barrier height for the already-activated alkoxy radical is reduced 240even further when the adjacent carboxyl group is deprotonated. Indeed, $\cdot COOH$ is reported

241to be a fleeting radical while the $\cdot COO^{i}$ radical anion has been observed to form in aqueous

242solutions due to stabilization by the solvent.⁵⁴⁻⁵⁷ However, activation of the carboxylate group is

243not limited to those pathways that form $\cdot COO^{i}$. As shown in Scheme 2, formation of a larger 244radical anion is still more favorable than its neutral form. The difference in fragmentation rate 245coefficients calculated using these barriers confirms the necessity of including acid-base 246chemistry in the model to capture the low energy reaction pathways.

247

248c. Inclusion of rapidly maintained equilibria.

249Explicit simulations of rapidly maintained acid-base equilibria using stochastic methods are 250exceedingly slow.^{39, 58-59} This is because reaction steps at equilibrium have a high probability of 251being selected relative to the other reaction steps, and the simulation's timescale barely advances. 252Thus, explicit inclusion of equilibrium steps for the deprotonation and protonation of carboxyl 253groups in CA is impractical, and they are included implicitly, as described below. Extensive 254checks were made to verify that this approximation does not change the simulation results; they 255are presented in section S3 of the SI.

256

257The deprotonation of CA to form citrate and its subsequent reaction with OH can be described by 258the following steps, where R1 and R2 are added together, and explicit treatment of water and 259hydronium formation becomes implicit:

$$+\dot{\iota}, K_{eq}$$
$$-\dot{\iota} + H_3 O^{\dot{\iota}}$$
$$CA + H_2 O \leftrightarrow CA^{\dot{\iota}}$$
(R1)

261
$$\begin{array}{c} -\dot{\iota} + H_2 O, k_2 \\ -\dot{\iota} + \cdot OH \rightarrow \cdot CA^{\dot{\iota}} \\ CA^{\dot{\iota}} \end{array}$$
(R2)

262
263

$$+i, k_3$$

 $-i+H_3O^i$
 $CA+\cdot OH \rightarrow \cdot CA^i$
(R3)

264The forward rate of reaction (
$$R3$$
) $\begin{array}{c} CA & & i\\ \vdots\\ \vdots\\ \vdots\\ \vdots\\ i \end{array}$, where $\begin{array}{c} CA & & -i\\ H\\ \vdots\\ \vdots\\ \vdots\\ i\\ i \end{array}$. This yields the rate constant

$$\begin{array}{c}
H \\
\dot{\iota} \\
+\dot{\iota} \\
+\dot{$$

266a nearly constant ratio (section S3 in the SI). This justifies the assumption that a strict 267equilibrium between water and hydronium is maintained, i.e. pH is constant. By using the

269Table 1. Thus, CA^{i} is no longer explicitly included in the mechanism, since its concentration

270is embedded in the rate constant k_3 which is proportional to the CA acid-base, K_{eq} . We extend 271this method of modeling protonation and deprotonation to all other acid products in the system 272by using their respective K_a values (Table S1 in the SI), making simulation runtimes much more 273practical.

274

275Some reaction products observed in the experiment contain new carbonyl functionalities. As a 276result, hydration reactions of these species (R=O \leftrightarrow R(OH)₂) are included in the simulations. The 277equilibrium constants K_h for these products, described below, are computed using structure 278activity relationships in Ref ⁶⁰ and listed in Table S1 in the SI. In the simulation, hydration is 279assumed to be instantaneous for species with K_h > 100. Otherwise, using the treatment for acid-280base chemistry described above, K_h is combined with the OH abstraction reaction coefficient for 281the alcohol form (Table 1) to generate an effective rate coefficient.

282

283d. Treatment of water and aerosol volume.

284As will be discussed further below, the experimentally observed CA aerosol volume increases by 285~50% during the initial stages of the reaction. In the simulations, the volume is calculated

286dynamically using the instantaneous amounts and densities of all species present (Table S1 in the 287SI). This allows concentrations and reaction rates to be continuously corrected as the volume 288changes.

289

290The substantial volume increase is much larger than can be rationalized solely by the formation 291of oxidation products. Previous studies report a variety of approaches to estimate the 292hygroscopicity of oxidized aerosol, the simplest of which uses O/C as the primary predictor.⁶¹⁻⁶² 293Suda et. al.⁶³ examined the influence of the location and number of functional groups on organic 294aerosol hygroscopicity, and concluded that hydroxylation is a key pathway by which aerosols 295become more hygroscopic. In view of the literature, the likeliest explanation for the initial 296increase in volume is uptake of ambient water, promoted by formation of new hygroscopic 297species during oxidation. After the initial period of growth, the subsequent volume loss 298originates from the desorption of volatile organic compounds and their waters of solvation when 299fragmentation becomes kinetically significant.

300

301In the model described here, the rates of adsorption, absorption and desorption of water 302molecules are assumed to be very fast relative to the chemical reaction rate, and therefore are not 303treated explicitly. Instead, each species in the simulation is assumed always to have a number of 304water molecules solvating it, contributing to its effective density. Because few data are available 305for the size of stable water solvation shells for species involved in the oxidation reactions, 306estimates are made based on the literature value of 6-7 waters per CA molecule, computed for 307neutral species from room temperature solubility data.⁶⁴ The average number of waters, 6.5, are 308apportioned among the functionalities as 2 waters per –COOH moiety, and 0.5 waters per alcohol

309or carbonyl moeity. If a species can deprotonate to form hydronium, the hydronium is modeled 310as having 3 additional water molecules.⁶⁵ We assume that the formation of two adjacent alcohol 311groups via the hydration of carbonyls results in the addition of 0.5 waters to the solvation shell. 312Because the model does not explicitly contain ionic species their waters are included indirectly. 313The percent CA dissociation obtained from explicit model simulations is used as a weighting 314factor to calculate the average number of water molecules associated with each acidic species. 315The total number of waters estimated using these criteria for each species is shown in Table S1 in 316the SI. The partial volume of water is added to the molar volume of the organic to estimate the 317density of each organic+water group. These values are also listed in Table S1.

318

319In addition to changes of volume and concentrations in the particle, and thus reaction rates, 320changes in the surface to volume ratio of the aerosol impact the relative importance of surface 321and bulk chemical reactions. Because the aqueous aerosol has low viscosity, it is represented 322using a single instantaneously mixed compartment rather than multiple diffusion-coupled 323compartments, which has been shown to be valid for reactions in well-mixed aerosol.^{31, 43} This is 324computationally efficient but poses challenges for proper weighting of surface to volume kinetics 325when there are large volume changes. Bulk reactions occur throughout the volume, but OH 326adsorption only takes place at the surface. To ensure that this balance is correctly represented in 327the simulations, the single compartment is treated as a slim 1 nm x 1 nm x R/3 nm cuboid in the 328aerosol, where the outer surface of the aerosol is represented as a fixed 1 nm² square and R is the 329instantaneous radius of the spherical aerosol that is being simulated. This is implemented by 330assuming that the number of surface sites (1 site per initial surface CA molecule within 1 nm of 331the surface, calculated from the density of CA in solution), available for adsorption and 332desorption as the reaction proceeds, is constant. Consequently, the dimension of R/3 is equal to

333the ratio of the instantaneous volume to the fixed surface area. This representation maintains the 334correct scaling between compartment volume and area of the spherical aerosol modeled in the 335experiment, and thus the correct weighting of surface and bulk chemical processes.

336

337e. Photolysis of hydroperoxides

338There are reaction pathways in the model that produce hydroperoxides (ROOH). As such we 339consider that possibility that if these species are formed that they could be photolyzed by the 254 340nm light source used in the experiment to generate OH. We assume that the photon flux incident 341on particle phase ROOH is the same as that for ozone in the flow tube reactor (value in Table 1). 342The photolysis of ozone can be described as:

343
$$\begin{array}{c}
(i^{1}\Delta) \\
(i^{1}D) + O_{2}i \\
O_{3}k_{p}, hv O i
\end{array}$$
(R4)

344where we determine value of k_p that best replicates the experimental [OH]. A value of 345 $k_p = 0.5 s^{-1}$ produces an average [OH] which matches experiment. From this value, we can 346estimate the rate coefficient for ROOH photolysis by scaling k_p by ratio of ROOH and O₃ 347cross sections (σ) at 254 nm and 293.15K,

348
$$ROOH ROOH k_{photolysis} = \frac{k_p * \sigma_{ROOH}}{\sigma_{ozone}}$$
 (R5)

349 σ_{ROOH} is estimated by averaging values for small hydroperoxides CH_3OOH and

 $_{350}$ HOCH₂OO (see Table 1).⁶⁶

31

351

352III. Results

353The simulation results are compared with previous measurements reported in Davies and 354Wilson.³⁷ As detailed below, the experimental measurements include: (a) the reactive decay of 355CA, (b) average aerosol elemental composition, product mass spectra and formation kinetics, (c) 356particle volume as a function of OH exposure. A successful model will generate predictions that 357are within the experimental errors for this entire suite of measurements. Three model scenarios 358are considered and compared with experiment in order to explore separately the effects of free 359radical and acid-base chemistry, and to assess the importance of fragment evaporation on the 360physiochemical evolution of the aerosol. As summarized in Table 2, Scenario 1 includes free 361radical chemistry only without evaporation; Scenario 2 includes free radical and acid base 362chemistry without evaporation and Scenario 3, the most complete simulation, includes free 363radical + acid base chemistry and evaporation of C₂ reaction products.

364

365 a. Citric Acid Decay as a Function of OH Exposure

366The normalized decay of CA as a function of OH exposure is plotted for the experiment and the 367three model scenarios in Figure 2. All three scenarios accurately predict, within experimental 368error, most of the exponential decay of CA observed in the experiment. The first few 369experimental points at low exposure are the exception: they deviate from a purely exponential 370function. The reason for this is unclear, and is not predicted by any of the model scenarios. 371Phenomenological CA disappearance rate constants (k_{obs}) are extracted from exponential fits to 372the experiment and simulations. As shown in Table 3 the range is relatively small, but Scenario 3 373is in closest agreement with observations.

374

375 b. Average Aerosol Elemental Composition and Product Mass Spectra

376The average aerosol elemental composition observed during the reaction is shown in Figure 3. 377This representation, known as a van Krevelen diagram, shows the relationship between the 378hydrogen-to-carbon (H/C) and oxygen-to-carbon (O/C) ratios. Before reaction the elemental 379composition of CA is H/C = 1.33 and O/C = 1.16. Both the H/C and O/C change substantially 380during the experiment yielding a final average elemental composition of H/C = 1.1 and O/C = 3811.4 at [OH]t = 4.4 x 10¹² molec. cm⁻³ s. All three scenarios predict similar van Krevelen trends 382and all are within the overall experimental error of the experiment.

383

384Despite similarities in average aerosol composition, significant differences among the scenario 385predictions appear when they are compared to the experimentally observed population of major 386reaction products detected via aerosol mass spectrometry.³⁷ The ionization source used in the 387experiments is Direct Analysis in Real Time (DART), which produces negatively charged M-H⁻ 388ions. For example, neutral CA (C₆H₈O₇) molecules appear in the negative ion mass spectrum at 389m/z = 191.02 (C₆H₇O₇⁻). The experimental data are not corrected for ionization cross section 390differences. Data are shown in Figures 4 and 5.

391

392It is clear from Figure 4 that only Scenario 3 predicts all 5 major products observed aerosol mass 393spectra. There is also good agreement between Scenario 3 and the experimental mass spectrum 394recorded at lower OH exposures (OH exposure = 2.2×10^{12} molec. cm⁻³ s) as shown in Figure S5 395in the SI, indicating that this scenario replicates all of the major reaction products observed over 396the course of the reaction. Scenarios 1 and 2 fail to capture the dominant product peak observed 397at m/z = 116.98, which is assigned to mesoxalic acid. Furthermore, Scenario 2 predicts little if 398any m/z = 207.01, assigned to the $C_6H_8O_8$ functionalization product (i.e. CA + an alcohol group). 399Scenario 1 produces only small quantities of the product at m/z = 133.01, assigned to the C₄ 400fragmentation product malic acid (C₄H₆O₅).

401

402The experimental mesoxalic acid (m/z = 116.98) formation kinetics are compared to predictions 403by the model scenarios in Figure 6. It is clear that while all the scenarios produce some 404mesoxalic acid, since there are multiple pathways for its formation, Scenarios 1 and 2 produce 405mesoxalic acid either too quickly or slowly relative to the experiment. Only Scenario 3 correctly 406predicts the experimentally observed mesoxalic acid formation as a function of OH exposure.

407

408c. Aerosol volume

409The measured change in aerosol volume vs. OH exposure is shown in Figure 7. At the start of 4100xidation the aerosol grows by ~50% from the initial unreacted aerosol. As noted above, the 411magnitude of this volume increase cannot be explained solely from a change in density as CA is 412consumed and the reaction products observed in the experimental mass spectrum form (Figure 4134). Rather it is more likely that much of the observed growth is due to an increase in the aerosol 414hygroscopicity (water uptake). The measured aerosol volume reaches a maximum around an OH 415exposure of ~ 2 x 10¹² molec. cm⁻³ s after which it decreases towards the end of the reaction, with 416a final volume ~25% larger than the unreacted CA aerosol. It is clear from the experiment that 417there is a complex interplay between the formation and evaporation of reaction products and 418water uptake.

420Figure 7 compares experiment with predictions from Scenario 1 (radical only chemistry, no 421evaporation) and Scenario 2 (radical + acid-base chemistry, no evaporation) and Scenario 3 422(radical + acid-base chemistry, with evaporation). Scenario 1 under-predicts the magnitude of 423the change in aerosol volume with OH exposure, while Scenario 2 greatly overestimates the 424change in aerosol volume. Neither Scenario 1 or 2 includes product evaporation, and thus as 425expected cannot capture the decrease in volume at larger OH exposures. In contrast, Scenario 3 426produces the correct shape, within experimental uncertainty, as well as the absolute magnitude of 427the aerosol volume over the entire range of OH exposures used in the experiment.

428 429**IV. Discussion**

430It is clear from Figures 2, 3, 4, 6, and 7 that the Scenario 3 predictions, involving simultaneous 431free radical and acid-base OH oxidation channels with fragmentation and volatilization, correctly 432describe the observed trends in volume, composition and reactivity as a function of OH 433exposure. Comparison of the Scenario predictions reveals that OH-abstraction initiates free 434radical reactions that functionalize the carbon skeleton, while OH reactions with carboxylate 435groups arising from acid-base chemistry activate carbon-carbon bond scission in alkoxy radicals, 436leading to the formation of low molecular weight, highly oxidized products such as malic and 437mesoxalic acid. The extensive fragmentation predicted by Scenarios 2 and 3 is consistent with 438the results of previous studies of oxidation of highly oxidized aerosol as discussed in the 439Introduction, suggesting that carboxylate formation is a key species that drives aerosol 440volatilization. As more highly oxidized products are formed, they accrete water, which causes the 441substantial initial volume growth observed to accompany oxidation. The decrease in volume, at 442larger OH exposures, originates from the formation and subsequent evaporation of volatile C_2 443reaction products along with their waters of solvation into the gas phase, which is held at 62.5% 444RH. These results highlight the significant role of water in controlling not only changes in 445physical properties but also the mechanisms of oxidation and fragmentation of aerosol 446components in the atmosphere.

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448The importance of including coupled acid-base/free radical reaction pathways is primarily 449revealed by predictions of aerosol composition, since there are no clear features in the CA decay 450kinetics or the average O/C and H/C to indicate that more than free radical chemistry is occurring 451(i.e. all scenario predictions compare favorably with experiment within the error). Rather, a 452primary signature of acid-base chemistry is found in the formation of a specific product: 453mesoxalic acid (m/z = 116.98), which is the most abundant product in CA oxidation. The specific 454reaction channel controlling the formation of this C₃ diacid is the rate at which acyloxy radicals 455 form from carboxyl groups. This can occur *via* two distinct pathways: (1) the H atom abstraction 456 from a carboxylic acid group by OH and (2) the OH charge transfer reaction at a carboxylate 457 group. Figure 8 compares the rate coefficients for these channels, 67-68 showing that k for the 458charge transfer pathway is 80 times larger. This explains the simulation predictions using 459Scenario 1, which lacks acid/base chemistry. In Scenario 1, the acyloxy radical formation 460channel, and hence fragmentation, is less important because it is slower than other competing 461hydrogen abstraction reactions (e.g. H atom abstraction from a –CH₂ group). The lack of 462carboxylate species in Scenario 1 eliminates the additional carboxylic acid formation pathways 463shown in Figure 9. These pathways, which involve fragmentation and decrease carboxylic acid 464carbons numbers by 1, account for over 90% of the total malonic acid (C₃H₄O₄) production in the 465model. As shown in Figure 10, malonic acid is a critical precursor for mesoxalic acid. OH 466radical abstraction from malonic acid followed by O₂ addition forms a peroxy radical which can

467then react with RO₂ or HO₂ to yield mesoxalic acid. The simulations suggest that the RO₂ and 468HO₂ pathways to form mesoxalic acid are equally important.

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470The decarboxylation pathway (Figure 9), is operative only in those Scenarios that include acid 471-base chemistry (Scenarios 2 and 3) and is the major source of C_3 products generated by CO_2 472elimination from C_4 species. This is clearly seen in the carbon number plot in Figure 11, where 473Scenario 1 produces mainly C_4 products and only very small quantities of C_3 reaction products, 474unlike Scenarios 2 and 3 (which include carboxylate pathways) and the experimental 475observations.

476

477As seen in Figure 11, another notable difference between Scenario 1 and Scenarios 2 and 3 is the 478production rate of C₅ products, which are observed in the experiments. This result can be 479explained by the relative barrier heights for alkoxy radical decomposition. As shown in Figure 48012, H atom abstraction by OH from the alcohol group of CA forms an alkoxy radical adjacent to 481a carboxyl functionality. The subsequent unimolecular fragmentation rate of the alkoxy radical 482anion in aqueous solution is many orders of magnitude faster than that of its neutral form, 483particularly if a carboxylate forms during the C-C bond rupture. Accordingly, the resulting C₅ 484product, β-ketoglutaric acid (C₅H₆O₅), which is observed experimentally is only produced in 485Scenarios 2 and 3 (Figure 11) via reaction pathways involving the conjugate base of CA. When 486acid-base chemistry is absent (i.e. Scenario 1) this particular fragmentation pathway is of minor 487importance because it is slow relative to other possible alkoxy radical reactions. Interestingly, the 488differences in product distributions due to the presence or absence of acid-base chemistry have a 489negligible impact on the predicted van Krevelen diagrams. This suggests that average aerosol 490elemental composition, not surprisingly, is a blunt probe of the underlying elementary reaction 491pathways.

492

493The acyloxy reaction pathway shown in Figure 9 is the direct route to transform mesoxalic acid 494into oxalic acid. Oxalic acid, the most abundant atmospheric particulate organic diacid, has 495temporally varying concentrations (seasonal and diurnal) that suggest its abundance is controlled 496by secondary processes.⁶⁹⁻⁷² Indeed, field measurements of oxalic acid support an in-cloud 497formation mechanism.⁷³⁻⁷⁴ In model scenarios 2 and 3, oxalic acid is the most abundant acid in 498the system by the end of the simulation runs. Thus, the activation of the carboxylate group 499towards acyloxy radical formation and its subsequent reactions as shown in Figures 8 and 9 500provide a possible mechanism for oxalic acid formation in the atmosphere.

501

502The aerosol volumes (Figure 7) predicted in Scenarios 1 and 2 continuously increase over time, 503in contrast to Scenario 3 (and the experiment), which exhibit a maximum. This is not surprising 504since only Scenario 3 allows for the production of reaction products that partition to the gas 505phase resulting in a net decrease of material in the aerosol. In particular, we find that C_2 product 506evaporation is the most important contributor to the observed decrease in aerosol volume. The 507large increase in aerosol volume at early OH exposures can be explained by an increase of 508aerosol hygroscopicity due to the increase in the total quantity of soluble molecules (i.e. 509fragmentation products) originating from the extensive C-C bond scission chemistry discussed 510above. This initial increase is much steeper for Scenario 2 than 1 and can be explained by the 511larger population of C_3 and C_5 fragmentation products (Figure 11) produced in Scenario 2 via the 512carboxylate reactions discussed above.

514Finally, in all three scenarios, ROOH photolysis is found to be a negligible reaction pathway. In 515the simulations, photolysis occurs on average once for every 20,000 β -scission reactions. Rather, 516the main sink for ROOH is C-H attack by OH, as shown in Figure 13, which functionalizes the 517carbon skeleton with a ketone group. Subsequent hydration, hydrogen abstraction from the 518hydroxyl group, and fragmentation yields oxaloacetic acid (C₄H₄O₅), the key C₄ product 519undergoing the carboxyl-forming pathway in Figure 9. Thus, ketone production from ROOH 520reaction with OH is a major contributor to eventual C₃ product formation. This is only possible 521when acid-base chemistry activates acyloxy radical formation.

522

523V. Conclusion

524A detailed, physically based kinetics model is formulated for the heterogeneous oxidation of 525aqueous citric acid aerosol by OH. Citric acid is a reasonable proxy for understanding the 526fundamental chemical pathways that might be important for prediction of secondary organic 527aerosol and late-stage aging of primary aerosol in the troposphere. We find that substantial 528coupling of acid-base and free radical chemistry is needed to explain the heterogeneous 529oxidation of CA by OH, and that carboxylate groups are central to trends in aerosol composition 530and size observed as a function of OH exposure. When present in carboxylic acid form only, 531reactions with OH lead mainly to functionalization of CA. When neutral CA is equilibrated with 532its conjugate base, extensive fragmentation occurs following H abstraction. Larger carbon 533numbered diacids are transformed into smaller diacids through the interplay of acid-base and free 534radical chemistry, activating acyloxy formation and driving subsequent decarboxylation and 535carboxyl-group formation. In addition, the carboxylate group significantly lowers the barrier 536height to C-C bond scission in alkoxy radicals. Together, these two effects of acid-base chemistry 537are essential to simultaneously predict the kinetic decay of citric acid, changes in aerosol volume, 538and the product distribution within the aerosol. The presence of mesoxalic acid as a product is a 539key signature of acid-base chemistry in this system; reaction rates and elemental compositions 540alone do not provide evidence that this reaction channel is occurring. The simulation results also 541provide insight to how elementary reaction steps controls the evolution of aerosol size during 542oxidation. The detailed trend is controlled by a subtle balance of chemical erosion and 543hygroscopic growth.

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545How does this fit in with what is known about aerosol ageing processes? As shown by Lambe et 546al.,⁷⁵ the quantity of secondary aerosol formed by the reaction of OH with alkanes evolves 547dynamically by functionalization and fragmentation.³ Functionalization dominates early stage 548oxidation and leads to substantial aerosol yield. At higher oxidation levels, the aerosol yield 549reaches a maximum, and further reaction reduces the quantity of aerosol by the production of gas 550phase products (i.e. fragmentation). Carboxylic acids are expected to be key particle phase 551products that contribute substantially to lowering aerosol volatility (i.e. enhancing the quantity of 552aerosol) while raising its oxidation state and hygroscopicity. Our results suggest a new 553connection between aerosol pH and water that may govern the balance of functionalization and 554fragmentation in aqueous secondary organic aerosol. As the oxidation state of the aerosol 555increases by the formation of acids, water uptake naturally follows, opening acid-base reaction 556channels. This indicates that carboxylic acids could play a dual role. At early stages, these highly 557oxidized species mainly contribute to increase in aerosol mass and water uptake. When the 558character of the aerosol becomes aqueous, acid-base equilibria lead to an increase in carboxylate-559mediated chemistry which largely consists of C-C bond scission reactions (i.e. chemical erosion). 560

561Here we have considered only a single relative humidity (RH = 64.5%) where the aerosol is a 562well-mixed aqueous solution on the timescale of the OH reaction frequency. We expect more 563complex behavior to appear as the RH is lowered and the aerosol and its subsequent 564transformations are governed increasingly by nanoscale interfacial gradients produced by slow 565diffusional timescales in the particle.^{8, 37} For these cases we might expect much more complex 566feedbacks to emerge between aerosol viscosity and hygroscopicity and the underlying 567elementary free radical and acid-base reaction pathways.

568

569Supporting Information

570Model construction; Structures, pKa, Kh and densities of organic acid species used in 571simulations; Validation of implicit acid-base modeling (explicit acid-base model results); 572Comparison of scenario 3 mass spectrum with experiment; Sample Gaussian09 results for alkoxy 573radical anion ground state and transition state; Evaluation of sensitivity of the simulation results 574for Scenario 3 with faster peroxy-peroxy kinetics

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844Table 1: Key Model Parameters and Rate Coefficients

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Paramete r	Value	Description and References
RH	64.5%	Relative Humidity
d _p	97 nm	Diameter of particle
k _{ad}	0.052 s ⁻¹	Pseudo-first order adsorption rate coefficient of OH
[OH]	7.5×10^{10} molec. cm ⁻³	Average experimental [OH] ³⁷
k _{RO2+O2}	$2.0 \times 10^5 \mathrm{s}^{-1}$	Pseudo-first order reaction rate coefficient of $RO_2 + O_2^a$
k _{photolysis}	$1.3 \times 10^{-4} \mathrm{s}^{-1}$	Rate coefficient of ROOH photolysis (see text for details)
k _{CA(CH2)} +OH	$5.1 \times 10^{-14} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecules}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$	Rate coefficient of H abstraction from $-CH_2$ group in CA^b
k _{СА(ОН)} +он	$9.7 \times 10^{-14} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecules}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$	Rate coefficient of H abstraction from -OH group in CA ^b
$k_{\rm RO2+HO2}$	$3.8 \times 10^{-15} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecules}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$	Rate coefficient of $RO_2 + HO_2^{c}$
k _{ROOH+OH}	$3.7 \times 10^{-12} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecules}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$	Rate coefficient of ROOH + OH ^d
k _{RO2+RO2}	$1.6 \times 10^{-15} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecules}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$	Rate coefficient of $RO_2 + RO_2^{-76}$
k _{RCOOH+OH}	$2.3 \times 10^{-15} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecules}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$	Rate coefficient of RCOOH + OH e, 67
k _{RCOO-+OH}	$2.0 \times 10^{-13} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecules}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$	Rate coefficient of RCOO- + OH ⁶⁸
<i>k</i> _{но2+он}	$1.7 \times 10^{-11} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecules}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$	Rate coefficient of $HO_2 + OH^{66}$
k _{HO2+HO2}	$1.7 \times 10^{-15} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecules}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$	Rate coefficient of $HO_2 + HO_2^{66}$
K _{hydration}	Structure activity relationships	Equilibrium Constant for R=O \leftrightarrow R(OH) ₂ ^f

846^a Pseudo first order rate coefficient was computed using the Henry's Law constant⁷⁷ of 0.0138 and a rate 847coefficient⁷⁶ for RO₂ + O₂ of 2.5 x 10^{-12} cm³ molec⁻¹ s⁻¹

848^b Computed via structure activity relationships described in Refs. ⁷⁸⁻⁷⁹ Values for all the other species in the 849reaction (Table S1 in the SI) are similarly calculated and fall in the range of $10^{-14} - 10^{-13}$ cm³ molecules⁻¹ s⁻ 850¹.

851^c The RO₂ + HO₂ rate coefficient in the aqueous phase is estimated using the 2-3 times difference in the 852rate coefficient⁸⁰ from HO₂ + HO₂ observed in the gas phase.⁸¹⁻⁸² Peroxy-peroxy rate coefficients in 853solution can span a large range, and the values used here are at the lower end of the range. The sensitivity 854of the results to values set to the high end of the range is discussed in the SI (See section S6, Scenario 4).

855^d Rate coefficient used is consistent with values (~ 10⁻¹² cm³ molec⁻¹ s⁻¹) reported in Refs. ^{80, 83}

856^e This rate coefficient is that for abstraction of H from the carboxylic acid group in oxalic acid.

857^f The equilibrium constants for hydration reactions were calculated from the structure activity 858relationships and are listed in Table S1 in the SI. (see Ref. ⁶⁰) As described for acid-base chemistry, this 859equilibrium constant was folded into an effective rate constant.

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866Table 2: Model Scenarios

867	Scenario	Free Radical	Acid-Base	Evaporation of C ₂
868				Fragments
	1	1	×	×
	2	1	✓	×
	3	✓	✓	✓

Table 3: Decay Constant Comparison: Experimental and simulated reaction rate constant of 870CA. Coefficient of determination values (R²) are calculated for the model scenarios to validate 871the exponential fit. Note that only scenario 3 has a reaction rate constant value within 872experimental error.

Model Scenario	$k_{obs} \dot{c} cm^3 s^{-1} molec^{-1}$	R^2	
Experiment	$(5.27\pm0.28)\times10^{-13}$		
1	4.68×10^{-13}	.99	
2	6.08×10^{-13}	.99	
3	5.38×10^{-13}	.99	

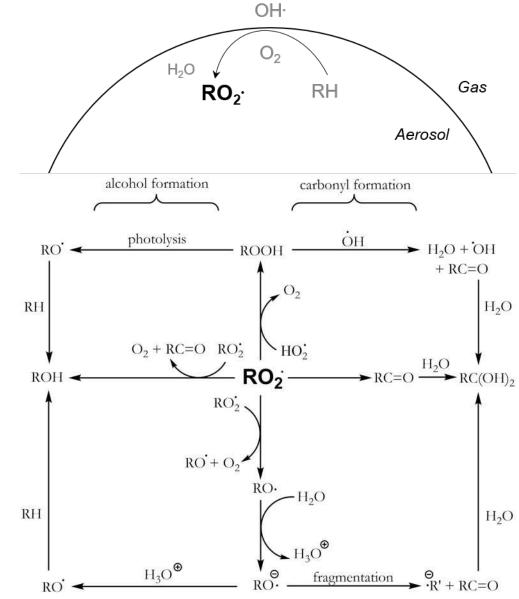
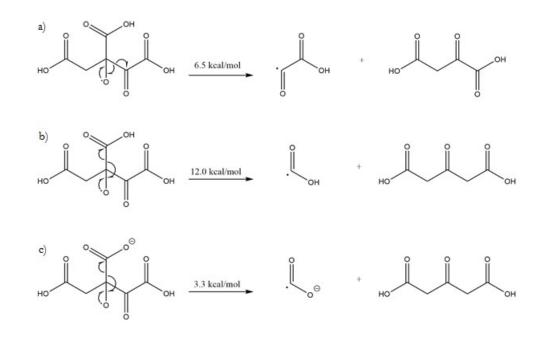
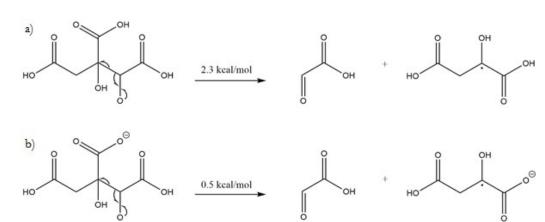


Figure 1: Reaction pathways of RO₂ to yield functionalized and/or fragmented products. A 878diagram of the free radical, pathways of RO₂ and subsequent acid-base and hydration reactions 879used to model the heterogeneous oxidation of aqueous citric acid aerosol by OH radicals. The 880left and right branches of the RO₂ reactions generate functionalized organic products. The top and 881bottom branches not only promote free radical cycling, but lead to bond cleaving reactions that 882produce lower weight, more functionalized reaction products. The RO fragmentation channel is 883significantly activated by an adjacent functional group and/or the deprotonation of a carboxyl 884group in the radical, as suggested by *ab initio* calculations (see text for details).



Scheme 2



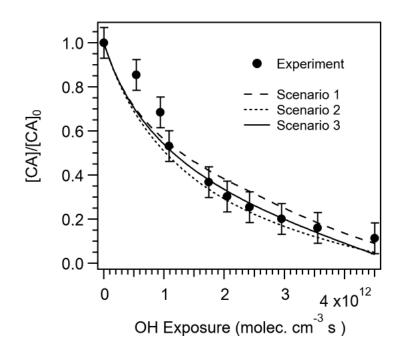


Figure 2. Experimental and simulated reactive decay of CA as a function of OH exposure. The 905experimental and simulation results were normalized to unreacted [CA]₀ prior to heterogeneous 906reaction. See Table 1 for simulations parameters and Table 2 for scenario descriptions. 907

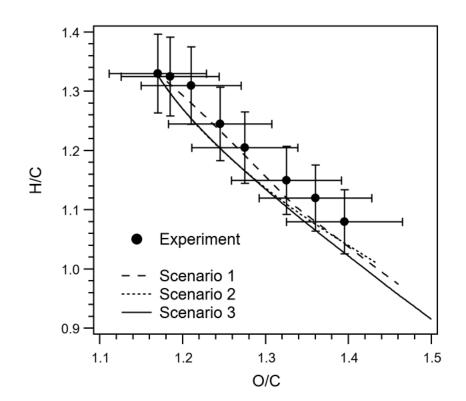


Figure 3. Experimental and simulated Van Krevelen plots (H/C vs. O/C) of average aerosol 924elemental composition. Simulation results fall within experimental error regardless of the model 925scenario. Note unreactive CA has H/C = 1.33 and O/C = 1.16. As the reaction progress the 926average H/C of the aerosol decreases and the O/C increases. 927

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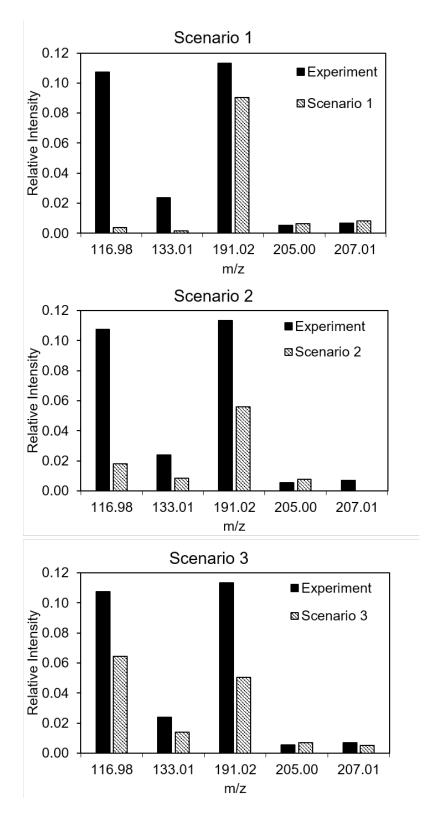


Figure 4. Experimental and simulated negative ion mass spectra of the major oxidation products 936 of CA produced at an OH exposure of 4.4×10^{12} molecules s cm⁻³. See Figure 5 for structures of 937these reaction products.

m/z	-ve ion	Structure	pKa	O/C	H/C
73.03	C ₂ HO ₃	ОН	3.32	1.50	1.00
116.98	C ₃ HO ₅	но сон Mesoxalic acid	1.15	1.67	0.67
119.00	C ₃ H ₃ O ₅	но он он	1.98	1.67	1.33
133.01	$C_4H_5O_5$	но он Malic Acid	3.40	1.25	1.50
191.02	C ₆ H ₇ O ₇	HO OH OH OH OH Citric Acid	3.13	1.17	1.33
205.00	C ₆ H ₅ O ₈	но он он он	2.23	1.33	1.00
207.01 8	C ₆ H ₇ O ₈		2.90	1.33	1.33

938 όΗ 939**Figure 5:** Molecular structures, negative ion m/z, H/C, O/C and pK_a of the major reaction 940products observed experimentally by Davies and Wilson.³⁷



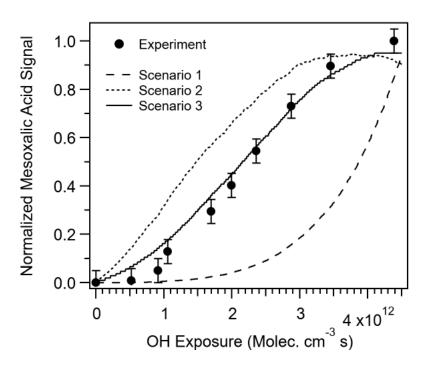


Figure 6: Experimental and simulated concentration of mesoxalic acid (m/z = 116.98) as 949function of OH exposure. For comparison the experimental and simulated concentration was 950normalized to the maximum value. Scenario 3 predictions are within experimental error. 951



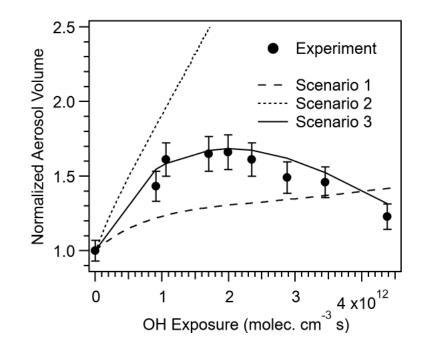


Figure 7: Experimental and simulated normalized aerosol volume as a function of OH exposure. 967The volume is normalized to the unreacted CA aerosol. The rapid growth observed in Scenario 2 968is due to lack of evaporation in this scenario. Scenario 1 fails to capture the initial increase in 969volume and similar to scenario 1, does not predict the decrease in volume due to a lack of 970evaporation. Scenario 3 is the only model to predict within experimental error the complex 971growth and decay in aerosol volume observed over the course of the reaction.

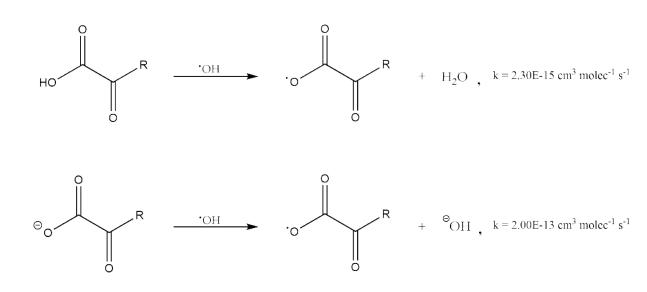
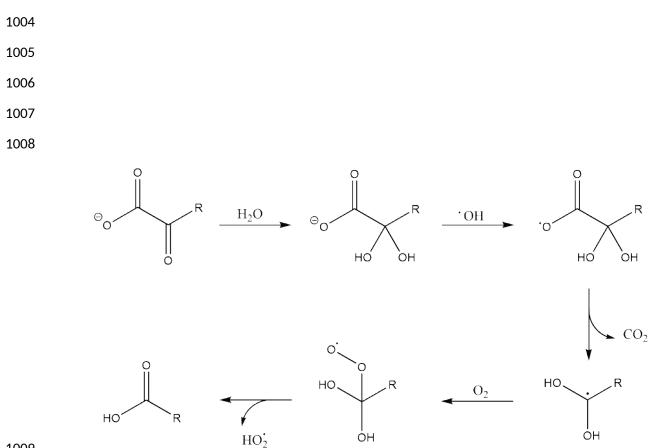


Figure 8: A comparison in acyloxy radical formation rate between an α -keto acid and its 987conjugate base. The charge transfer reaction of the base (bottom) has a rate coefficient that is 988approximately 2 orders of magnitude larger than the hydrogen abstraction reaction on the acid 989(top). The inclusion of acid-base chemistry substantially increases acyloxy radical formation 990rates.





1010Figure 9: Carboxyl group formation accompanied by one-carbon loss via acyloxy radical 1011formation. After decarboxylation of the acyloxy radical, addition of oxygen to the resulting 1012alpha-di-hydroxyalkyl radical and subsequent decomposition yields an acid that differs only by 1 1013carbon atom from the original reactant. Hydration is an essential part of this pathway, making it 1014unique to the aqueous-phase.

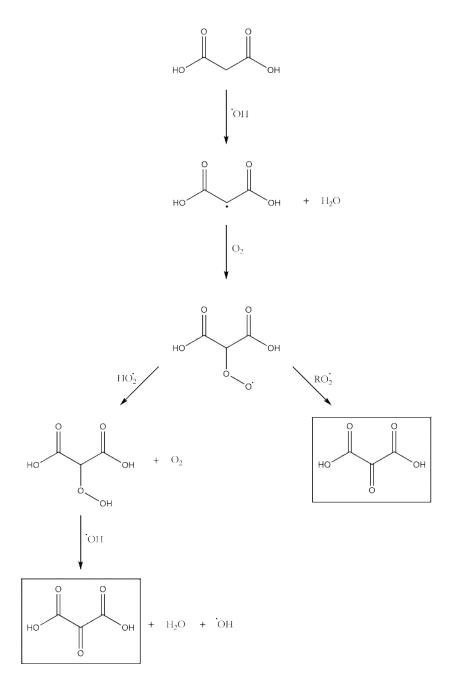


Figure 10: The two reaction pathways that produce mesoxalic acid (m/z = 116.98). In the right 1024branch, RO_2 may also react to yield 2-hydroxymalonic acid (i.e. $C_3H_4O_5$, tartronic acid). The 1025ROOH+OH reaction in the left branch regenerates OH further propagating the reaction.



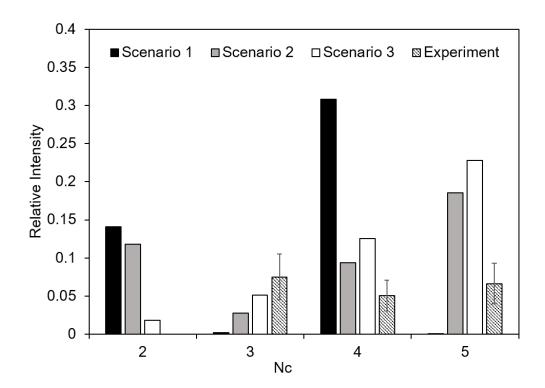


Figure 11: Simulated product carbon number (N_c) distributions (at OH exposure = 2.2×10^{12} 1041molec. cm⁻³ s) for Scenarios 1, 2 and 3. The experimental data are also shown at OH exposure = 10422.1 x 10^{12} molec. cm⁻³ s, for qualitative comparison to the calculations. Each carbon number is 1043computed by dividing the sum of all species corresponding to a carbon number by the initial 1044concentration of CA. Scenario 1 lacks C₅ products, which are only produced when acid-base 1045chemistry is included in the reaction scheme (i.e. Scenario 2 and 3). 1046



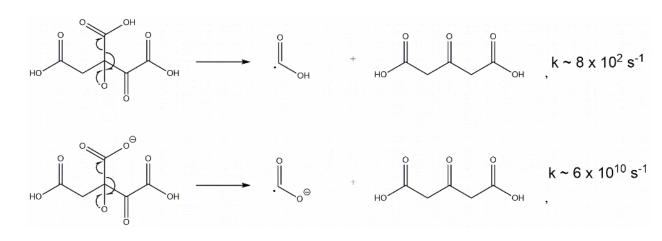
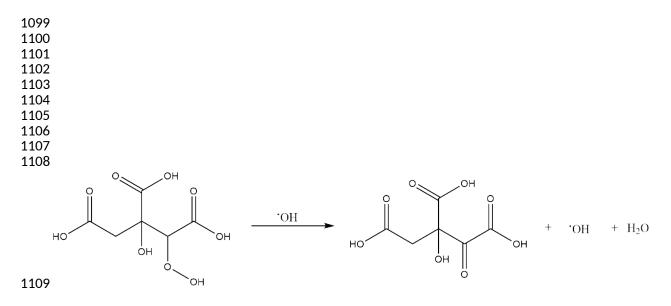




Figure 12: Computed rate coefficients for the unimolecular decomposition of alkoxy radicals 1069(see text for details). Fragmentation of the radical anion (bottom) is many orders of magnitude 1070faster than the neutral case (top). 1071



1110Figure 13: A significant reaction pathway that converts a ROOH group into a carbonyl with H₂O
111and OH as coproducts.
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1113

1120TOC Graphic

