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# A Multiphase Mechanism for the Production of Sulfuric Acid from SO<sub>2</sub> by Criegee Intermediates Formed During the Heterogeneous Reaction of Ozone with Squalene

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**ABSTRACT:** Here we report a new multiphase reaction mechanism by which Criegee Intermediates (CI), formed by ozone reactions at an alkene surface, convert SO<sub>2</sub> to SO<sub>3</sub> to produce sulfuric acid; a precursor for new particle formation (NPF). During the heterogeneous ozone reaction, in the presence of 220 ppb SO<sub>2</sub>, an unsaturated aerosol (squalene) undergoes rapid chemical erosion, which is accompanied by NPF. A kinetic model predicts that mechanism for chemical erosion and NPF originate from a common elementary step (CI + SO<sub>2</sub>) that produces both gas phase SO<sub>3</sub> and small ketones. At low relative humidity (RH = 5%), 20% of the aerosol mass is lost, with 17% of the ozone-surface reactions producing SO<sub>3</sub>. At RH = 60%, the aerosol shrinks by 30% and the yield of SO<sub>3</sub> is < 5%. This multiphase formation mechanism of H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> by CIs is discussed in the context of indoor air quality and atmospheric chemistry.

## TOC GRAPHIC



Surface reactions of gas phase oxidants (e.g. O<sub>3</sub> and OH) and organic molecules play a substantial role in the chemical erosion and molecular weight growth at indoor surfaces and in the atmosphere (e.g. aerosols).(1-7) Although major oxidation pathways of many organic molecules are known in the gas phase and to a large extent in the condensed phase, there remains considerable uncertainty in understanding the multiphase pathways (e.g. gas + liquid) of transient intermediates, such as free radicals and Criegee Intermediates (CI). Key questions include whether reactions at aerosol and other surfaces are a source of gas phase radicals or CIs, or whether these intermediates formed at an interface can initiate chemistry with trace gas species.(7-9) Here we examine how CIs, formed by ozonolysis reactions at an organic interface, can oxidize SO<sub>2</sub> to SO<sub>3</sub>, which then reacts rapidly with water vapor to form H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>.

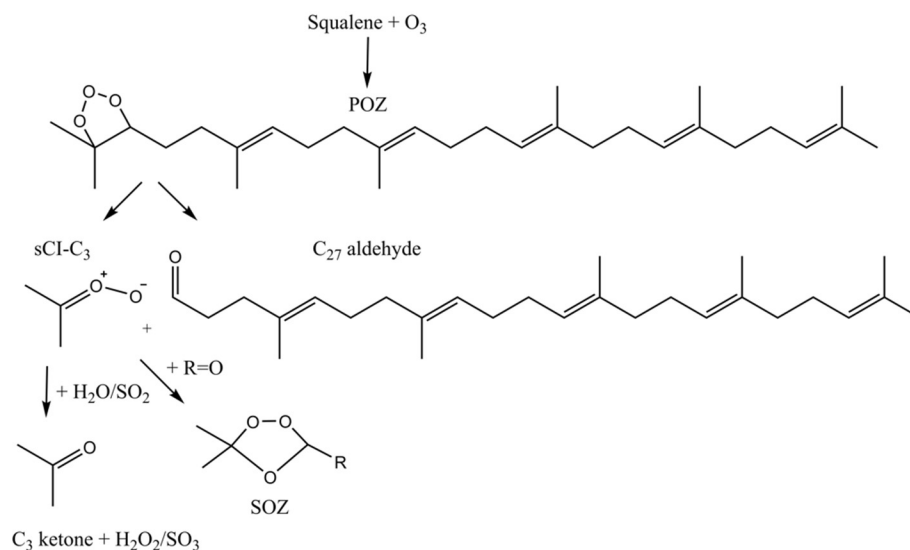
SO<sub>2</sub> is an anthropogenic pollutant that, when oxidized to H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>, plays a central role in acid rain and new particle formation (NPF) in the troposphere.(10-13) Key gas phase reaction pathways (e.g. OH + SO<sub>2</sub>) that oxidize SO<sub>2</sub> to H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> are well known. Recently, it was shown that the gas phase reaction of CIs with SO<sub>2</sub> are many orders of magnitude faster than with H<sub>2</sub>O. (14-18) Huang *et al.* demonstrated that stabilized secondary CIs react with SO<sub>2</sub> at nearly the gas kinetic-limit, and only slowly with water vapor, leading to the survival of these intermediates even at high relative humidity (RH).(18) There are also known heterogeneous pathways that convert gas phase SO<sub>2</sub> to sulfate on mineral surfaces, marine aerosol and droplets (i.e. acid rain).(19-21) Li *et al.* showed

that while gas phase SO<sub>2</sub> reacts only very slowly with O<sub>3</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O, sulfur dioxide adsorbed on CaCO<sub>3</sub> surfaces can be rapidly converted to sulfuric acid.(22-23) In comparison, little is known about the heterogeneous conversion of SO<sub>2</sub> to SO<sub>3</sub> by CIs produced from surface alkene reactions with O<sub>3</sub>.

Here we examine the reaction between an aerosol comprised of squalene (Sqe, a C<sub>30</sub>H<sub>50</sub> branched alkene with 6 C=C bonds) and gas phase ozone as a function of both relative humidity and trace amounts of SO<sub>2</sub> (Scheme 1) to explore viable pathways for the heterogeneous production of SO<sub>3</sub>. Sqe accounts for ≤12% of human skin oil, and is found on many indoor surfaces due to frequent skin shedding.(24-26) Sqe reacts rapidly with ozone, and constitutes the main indoor sink for this oxidant. Gas phase products from this reaction are commonly observed in indoor air and are known respiratory irritants.(24, 27-29) Thus ozone oxidation of Sqe on indoor surfaces and human skin is a key reaction for indoor air chemistry and thus air quality, and it is therefore important to better understand the reaction mechanisms and products, especially at relevant oxidant and trace gas concentrations.

To study this reaction a flow tube reactor is combined with an aerosol mass spectrometer, described in Heine *et al.* and summarized in the Supplementary Information (SI).(30) This approach is used to quantify the kinetic decay of Sqe, the formation kinetics of major reaction products and the change in particle size as a function of ozone exposure ([O<sub>3</sub>] x time).

The experimental observations presented here are compared to predictions from a previously developed and validated kinetic model implemented in Kinetiscope, extended to include SO<sub>2</sub> chemistry.(31) The model already successfully explains the molecular mechanism for chemical erosion observed during the heterogeneous ozonolysis of Sqe aerosol (without SO<sub>2</sub>). (30)



**Scheme 1.** A simplified Sqa ozonolysis reaction scheme showing how  $H_2O$  and  $SO_2$  participate in the formation pathways of the major carbonyl and secondary ozonide (SOZ) products.

The model captures multiphase processes including the adsorption of  $O_3$  to the particle surface and the evaporation of volatile reaction products. Scheme 1 summarizes the main product formation channels, and **R1**, **2a**, **3**, **4** and **6** in Table 1 show the elementary steps, stoichiometry and rate constants.  $O_3$  adds to 1 of the 6 double bonds, forming a primary ozonide (POZ), which decomposes into a carbonyl and a zwitterion, the Criegee Intermediate (CI). The bond location of the ozone attack produces CIs and carbonyl co-products with distinct carbon chain lengths. The presence of a branched methyl group on the  $C=C$  bond means that decomposition of the POZ is asymmetric, forming either a CI on a primary carbon atom (pCI) and ketone co-product or a CI on a secondary carbon (sec-CI) and an aldehyde (see Scheme 1 and Fig. S1 for detailed reaction mechanism).

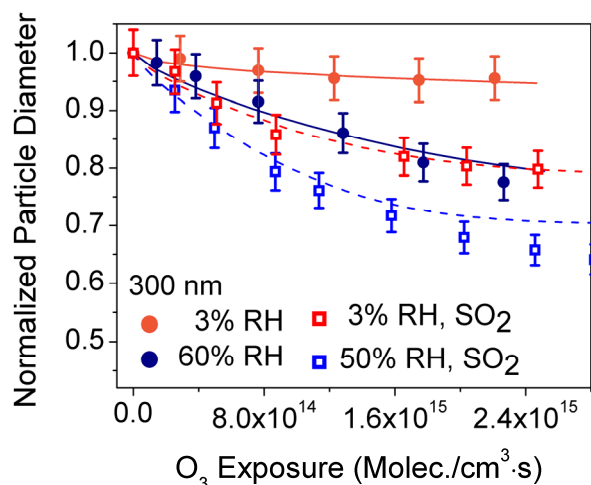
**Table 1.** Reaction scheme and rate constants for stochastic simulations.

| No.        | Reaction step  | Rate constant   | Notes                  |
|------------|--|---|------------------------|
|            | $O_3_{\text{gas}} \rightarrow O_3_{\text{adsorbed}}$                           | $1.97 \text{ s}^{-1}$   | a)                     |
| <b>R1</b>  | $\text{Sqe} + O_3 \rightarrow \text{sec/p-CI} + \text{R=O}$                    | $1.25 \cdot 10^{-15} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molec}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$                    | b),c)                  |
| <b>R2a</b> | $\text{CI} + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{R=O} + \text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ | $5.14 \text{ s}^{-1}$   | d)                     |
| <b>R2b</b> | $\text{CI} + \text{SO}_2 \rightarrow \text{R=O} + \text{SO}_3$                 | $58.4 \text{ s}^{-1}$   | e)                     |
| <b>R3</b>  | $\text{CI} + \text{R=O} \rightarrow \text{SOZ}$                                | $6.7 \cdot 10^{-19}, 1.3 \cdot 10^{-18} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molec}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ | f)                     |
| <b>R4</b>  | $\text{CI} \rightarrow \text{R(O)OH}, \text{HOR=O}$                            | $5 \text{ s}^{-1}$  | Ref.(32) <sup>g)</sup> |
| <b>R5</b>  | $\text{CI} \rightarrow \cdot\text{R=O} + \text{OH}\cdot$                       |   | h)                     |
| <b>R6</b>  | $\text{CI} + O_3 \rightarrow \text{R=O}$                                       | $4 \cdot 10^{-13} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molec}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$                       | Ref.(33) <sup>i)</sup> |
| <b>R7</b>  | $\text{SO}_3 \rightarrow \text{SO}_3_{\text{gas}}$                             | $2.8 \cdot 10^9 \text{ s}^{-1}$   | j)                     |

a) Rate coefficient depends on  $O_3$  sticking coefficient ( $1.8 \cdot 10^{-4}$ )(34), particle diameter ( $d$ ) and average  $[O_3]$ ; here:  $d=300 \text{ nm}$ ,  $[O_3]=2.81 \cdot 10^{13} \text{ molecules cm}^{-3}$ . b) Either a pair of aldehyde and secondary Criegee intermediate (sec-CI) or ketone and primary CI (pCI) can be formed. In previous work we showed that the ratio of this fragmentation is 1:9 (pCI:sec-CI). c) Experimental second-order rate constant taken from Ref. (35). d) Treated as pseudo first order where  $[\text{H}_2\text{O}] = 3\text{-}60\%$  (shown for 3%),  $k = 1 \cdot 10^{-14} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecules}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$  (from Ref. (15)) and the dimensionless Henry's law constant is  $2.6 \cdot 10^{-2}$ , which applies to solubility of water in aliphatic compounds with comparable viscosity.(36) e) Treated as pseudo first order where  $[\text{SO}_2] = 220 \text{ ppb}$ ,  $k = 3.9 \cdot 10^{-11} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecules}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$  (from Ref. <sup>15</sup>) and the dimensionless Henry's law constant of  $2.7 \cdot 10^{-1}$ , for the solubility of  $\text{SO}_2$  in aliphatic compounds with comparable viscosity.(37) f) Constrained by calculation and experiment see Heine *et al.*(30) for details. g) Sensitivity tests of this rate coefficient are shown in Fig. S7 h) R5 was not considered in the model, see SI and Ref. (30) for details. i) Sensitivity tests of this rate coefficient are shown in Fig. S8 j)Evaporation rate constant calculated from  $\text{SO}_3$  vapor pressure (2.07 bar).(38) For details see text and Ref. (39).

Reaction of the CI with either water or a carbonyl (Scheme 1) leads to the formation of the two main product classes (carbonyls and secondary ozonides, SOZ respectively).(30) At solid alkene interfaces, Karagulian et al. proposed an alternative mechanism in which  $O_3$  and  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  directly react with a long lived POZ to form carbonyl and SOZ products.(40) In Ref. (30) we show, however, that the observed carbon number distribution of SOZs, as well as product evolution and volume change of the aerosol as a function of RH, are due to the formation of mainly sec-CI and aldehyde coproducts. The sec-CIs are small ( $C_3$ ,  $C_8$ , and  $C_{13}$ ), and react with water to form ketones that erode the particle surface. This process is responsible for the substantial decrease (by  $\sim 20\%$ ) in aerosol size (i.e. chemical erosion) at  $\text{RH} = 60\%$  as shown in Fig. 1 and Ref.(30) To capture the effect of adding  $\text{SO}_2$ , a reaction step was added to the model(30):  $\text{CI} + \text{SO}_2 \rightarrow \text{carbonyls} + \text{SO}_3$

(R2b in Table 1). SO<sub>2</sub> is assumed to react in the bulk and its concentration is given by its Henry's law solubility. The pseudo first order rate coefficient is calculated using the dimensionless Henry's law constant, [SO<sub>2</sub>] and the SO<sub>2</sub> + CI gas phase rate constant measured for the reaction of SO<sub>2</sub> with CH<sub>2</sub>OO.(14, 41-43)



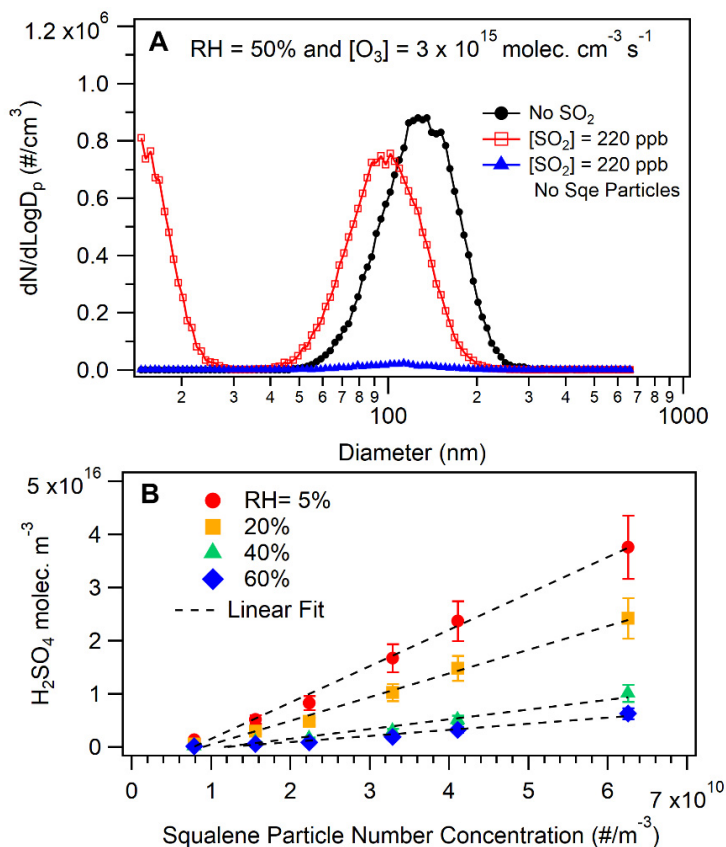
**Figure 1.** Normalized particle diameter of size-selected (300 nm) Sqe particles without (circles) and with (squares) 220 ppb SO<sub>2</sub> as function of RH. Solid and dashed lines represent model predictions. Error bars are estimated from the SMPS bin width and replicate measurements.

Fig. 1 presents experimental and model simulation results that show that the addition of 220 ppb ( $5.6 \cdot 10^{12}$  molec./cm<sup>3</sup>) of SO<sub>2</sub> to the flow reactor produces a substantial change in aerosol diameter. This provides clear evidence that, similar to water, SO<sub>2</sub> produces chemical erosion. The quantity of aerosol mass lost as a function of ozone exposure is much larger for SO<sub>2</sub> than H<sub>2</sub>O. Under SO<sub>2</sub>-free conditions the particle diameter shrinks by ~5% at RH = 3% increasing to ~20% at RH = 60%. Addition of only 220 ppb SO<sub>2</sub> under dry conditions (RH = 3%) leads to a ~20% decrease in particle diameter, equivalent to what is observed at RH = 60% without SO<sub>2</sub>. As shown in Scheme 1, the

reaction steps involved are analogous for SO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O. SO<sub>2</sub> reacts with CIs to form carbonyls and SO<sub>3</sub>.(11, 13, 32, 44-47) The CI + H<sub>2</sub>O reaction also produces carbonyls, albeit with a different co-product, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. The substantial difference in [SO<sub>2</sub>] and [H<sub>2</sub>O] that is needed to achieve equivalent levels of chemical erosion suggests that the overall CI + SO<sub>2</sub> reaction rate constant is substantially greater than that of the analogous CI + H<sub>2</sub>O reaction.

As shown in Fig. S2, the presence of SO<sub>2</sub> does not alter the decay kinetics of S<sub>q</sub>e as a function of ozone exposure and RH. This shows that the formation of SO<sub>3</sub> (or the presence of gas phase SO<sub>2</sub>) does not accelerate the consumption rate of S<sub>q</sub>e through secondary or chain propagation reactions. Also, adding SO<sub>2</sub> does not alter the identity of the major ozonolysis products (aldehydes and SOZs) previously observed(30) and shown in Fig. S3. No evidence is found for new products such as organosulfates, as was recently reported for heterogeneous SO<sub>2</sub> + alkene reactions.(48)





**Figure 2.** a) Particle size distribution (normalized concentration as function of particle diameter), with and without Sqe ( $d \sim 180 \text{ nm}$ ) and  $SO_2$  showing chemical erosion and NPF. Particle size measurements are shown for  $RH = 50\%$  and  $[O_3] = 3 \cdot 10^{15} \text{ molec./cm}^3 \cdot \text{s}$ . Black circles show Sqe-only measurements, red squares show results from the addition of  $SO_2$ . Blue triangles depict measurements with  $SO_2$ , but without Sqe. b)  $H_2SO_4$  concentration as a function of Sqe particle number concentration and  $RH$  at  $[O_3] = 1.2 \cdot 10^{16} \text{ molec./cm}^3 \cdot \text{s}$ .

Instead of forming new molecular products, new particle formation (NPF) is observed. Fig. 2a shows a typical size distribution with and without Sqe aerosol and  $SO_2$  at  $RH = 50\%$  and  $[O_3] = 3 \cdot 10^{15} \text{ molec./cm}^3 \cdot \text{s}$ . The Sqe particle distribution is centered at  $180 \text{ nm}$  without  $SO_2$ . With  $220 \text{ ppb}$   $SO_2$  there is a decrease in the average Sqe aerosol size distribution (due to chemical erosion discussed above), which is accompanied by a new mode at  $\sim 14.6 \text{ nm}$  that is assigned to NPF. Additional measurements have been carried out using a nano DMA to cover a size range specific

to the newly formed particles as shown in Fig. S4. The chemical identity of the new particles is established as follows. NPF only occurs in the presence of Sqe aerosol, O<sub>3</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub> together, and disappears when Sqe is removed from the reactor. Furthermore, at each RH there is a linear increase (Fig. 2b) in the quantity of new particles that depends upon the total number of Sqe aerosol introduced into the flow reactor. These observations show that the NPF mode observed in Fig. 2a is from heterogeneous reactions (in the presence of O<sub>3</sub>) and not from purely gas phase reactions (e.g. SO<sub>2</sub> + O<sub>3</sub>). The primary new product formed from SO<sub>2</sub> reacting with sec-CI is SO<sub>3</sub>. Since SO<sub>3</sub> reacts rapidly with water to make H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>, and H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> is known to nucleate to form particles, we assign the new mode to small H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> particles.(49-53)

Shown in Fig. 2b is the measured NPF mass/m<sup>3</sup> (expressed in molecular units, H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>) as a function of Sqe particle number and RH. In addition to the increase in NPF mass and diameter with increasing [O<sub>3</sub>] (shown in Fig. S4), there is a clear increase in the quantity of H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> when the RH is decreased from 60% to 5%.

As noted above, **R2b** is assumed to occur in the particle bulk. An alternative is that SO<sub>2</sub> only reacts at the particle surface. In this case the reaction rate would be governed by the SO<sub>2</sub> collision frequency, sticking probability and particle surface area. Simulations of this scenario, which include the range of reported CI + SO<sub>2</sub> rate coefficients, shown in Fig. S6, predict a much smaller change in particle diameter than is observed even if a sticking probability of 1 is assumed.(17-18) This validates our assumption that the CI + SO<sub>2</sub> reaction occurs mainly in the interior of the aerosol.

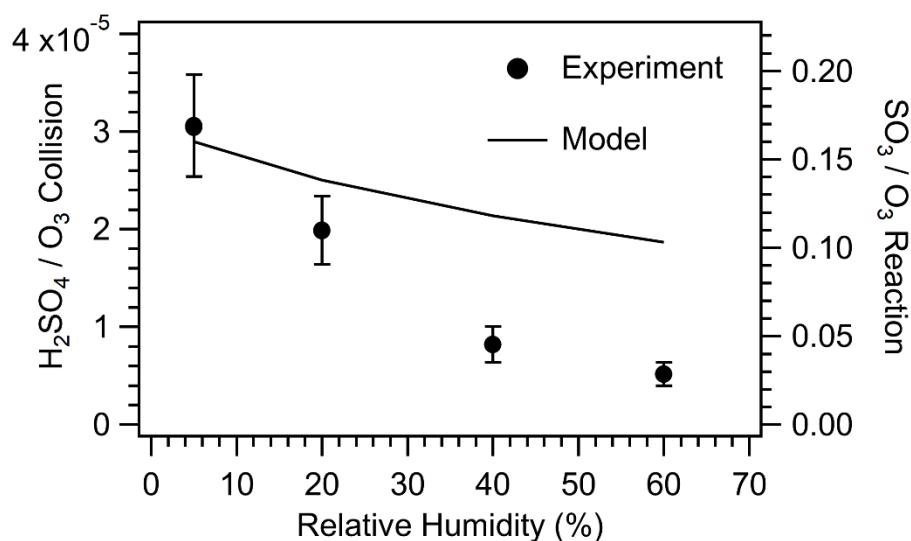
After SO<sub>3</sub> is formed, it can react with dissolved water in the particle or evaporate since it has a substantial vapor pressure. An evaporation step is included in the model (**R7**) using the vapor

pressure of SO<sub>3</sub>(38) to compute an evaporation coefficient ( $k_{\text{evap}} = 2.8 \cdot 10^9 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) as described in Ref.(54). The pseudo first order reaction rate constant for SO<sub>3</sub> with dissolved water at RH =60% is computed to be  $12.3 \text{ s}^{-1}$  using the Henry's law constant for water shown in Table 1 and the bimolecular SO<sub>3</sub> + H<sub>2</sub>O rate coefficient ( $1.2 \cdot 10^{-15} \text{ molec./cm}^3 \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ ).(49) This rate constant is  $\sim 2.2 \cdot 10^8$  times slower than that for evaporation, suggesting that once formed, SO<sub>3</sub> desorbs into the gas phase rather than reacting with aerosol water. This was confirmed by running simulations with and without the particle phase SO<sub>3</sub> + H<sub>2</sub>O reaction step, confirming that it is kinetically insignificant. Once SO<sub>3</sub> desorbs into the gas phase, it rapidly reacts with water vapor to form sulfuric acid. The estimated gas phase lifetime of SO<sub>3</sub> under our reaction conditions is short (e.g.  $\sim 2 \text{ ms}$  at RH = 60%).

The model, including the elementary SO<sub>2</sub> steps described above, quantitatively predicts the experimental S<sub>q</sub>e decay (Fig. S2), the carbonyl formation kinetics (Fig. S5) and the decrease in aerosol diameter (Fig. 1) as a function of ozone exposure and RH. The model fails to capture the RH dependence of the SOZs formation kinetics (Fig. S5). This is a deficiency found in our previous study, and it reflects gaps in our understanding of how SOZ reacts with [H<sub>2</sub>O].(30)

The model confirms that the chemical erosion at RH = 3% is driven mainly by the SO<sub>2</sub> + CI reaction, whose rate constant is  $\sim 4000$  times larger than CI + H<sub>2</sub>O. Both reactions form small molecular weight ketones with high volatility, as shown in Scheme 1 and Fig. S1. With increasing RH, the CI + H<sub>2</sub>O reaction grows in importance, providing a second path for chemical erosion of the aerosol. By use of markers in the simulations, the model allows us to track products specific to either of those reactions. At RH=3%, 9.3% of acetone comes from CI + SO<sub>2</sub> and only 0.9% from CI + H<sub>2</sub>O, while at RH = 60%, 12% of acetone is formed via the water reaction vs. 9.3% from SO<sub>2</sub>.

From the slope of the linear fit to the results shown in Fig. 2b, the number of H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> molecules produced per squalene particle at [O<sub>3</sub>] = 1.2·10<sup>16</sup> molec./cm<sup>3</sup>·s can be estimated. The experimental yield of H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> per particle can then be used to compute to the number of H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> molecules produced per O<sub>3</sub> collision with the particle surface. This is shown in Fig. 3, and compared to the model predictions. At RH = 5% the model and experiment are in reasonable agreement with a H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> (SO<sub>3</sub>) production probability of ~3·10<sup>-5</sup> per O<sub>3</sub> collision. As shown in Fig 3, this corresponds to a ~17% probability of producing a H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> (SO<sub>3</sub>) molecule per O<sub>3</sub> reaction, since the O<sub>3</sub> sticking probability is rather small, 1.8·10<sup>-4</sup> (a value constrained in the O<sub>3</sub>-Sqe simulations(30)). As RH increases, the CI + H<sub>2</sub>O reaction becomes more important, decreasing the reactive yield of SO<sub>3</sub> to less than 5% per O<sub>3</sub> reaction at RH = 60%.



**Figure 3.** Measured (circles) and predicted (line) concentration of sulfuric acid per O<sub>3</sub> collision (left axis) and reactivity to produce SO<sub>3</sub> in the aerosol particle (right axis) as a function of RH. Error bars are estimated from the error of the linear fit in Fig. 2b and the uncertainty of [O<sub>3</sub>].

While the model captures the overall trend of decreasing SO<sub>3</sub> yield with increasing RH, the predictions increasingly deviate from experiment at higher RH (i.e. by a factor of ~2 at RH = 60%).

There are aspects of the model that can lead to over prediction of H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>. As discussed in previous

work(30), the model has a sec-CI to SO<sub>3</sub> path that is too fast at higher RH. This channel would result in SO<sub>3</sub> concentrations that are too high. The model also lacks sinks (e.g. flow tube walls) for H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> that might become more important under wet conditions. It could be feasible to assess the importance of these possibilities by predicting NPF, which involves nucleation and surface catalyzed growth.(22, 55-58) These processes are complex to integrate into the simulation framework used here, however, and are beyond the scope of this work.

We considered two other possible pathways for NPF. First, we cannot entirely rule out that some fraction of C<sub>3</sub>, C<sub>8</sub>, and C<sub>13</sub> sec-CI themselves, once formed in the aerosol, could evaporate and react in the gas phase with SO<sub>2</sub>. The particle phase [sec-CI] directly controls SO<sub>3</sub> formation, and indirectly the population of aldehydes in the aerosol as shown by Heine *et al.*(30) If their evaporation were significant the RH dependence of all the major products as well as the volume loss from the particle would be substantially altered from what is observed. Second, it is possible that the C<sub>8</sub> and C<sub>13</sub> ketones (containing 1 and 2 C=C respectively), which are responsible for chemical erosion, could further react in the gas phase with O<sub>3</sub> forming CIs that subsequently react with gas phase SO<sub>2</sub> to form SO<sub>3</sub>. If this were the case we would expect NPF to be actually enhanced at high relative humidity where the concentration of these products is the highest. However, this is not what is observed in Fig. 3, where the SO<sub>3</sub>/H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> yield is the highest under dry conditions.

Given these considerations, the agreement between experiment and model appears reasonable, and provides evidence that NPF occurs via the following multiphase mechanism: *SO<sub>3</sub>, produced by the CI + SO<sub>2</sub> reaction in the aerosol, evaporates from the particle to react with water vapor to initiate NPF.*

Although our experiments use a simplified single component aerosol as proxy for the more complex unsaturated mixed aerosol or species on indoor surfaces and in the atmosphere, the results point to a new multiphase mechanism for SO<sub>2</sub> oxidation, which is expected to be general for similar unsaturated compounds and mixtures. Our results show that the oxidation of SO<sub>2</sub> via Criegee chemistry competes with water vapor and leads to an enhanced chemical erosion of the Sqe aerosol, as well the formation of sulfuric acid. The elementary reaction steps were reproduced with a kinetics model, which could also quantitatively predict the amount of H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> formed during the reaction.

The results of our study indicate that Sqe aerosol ozonolysis may have an impact on production pathways for new particles under both indoor and atmospherically relevant RH, SO<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>3</sub> concentrations. This pathway is enhanced under dry conditions, in which more SO<sub>2</sub> is oxidized to SO<sub>3</sub> (the precursor of H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>). Furthermore, the significant chemical erosion of the particles, which is even more pronounced under humid conditions, leads to an enhanced formation of volatile organic compounds, which may contribute to the formation of secondary organic aerosol (SOA) in the atmosphere. Enhanced SOA formation has been previously associated with sulfate-rich conditions, however, the underlying mechanism remained poorly understood.(7)

Our results suggest that in highly polluted and dry regions, such as low income homes in Africa where solid fuels are commonly burned for cooking and heating,(59-60) the formation of sulfuric acid from multiphase chemistry may constitute an additional and so far unknown source of respiratory irritants indoors. Sqe ozonolysis in SO<sub>2</sub> polluted homes may therefore furthermore increase the health risks that are already associated with high SO<sub>2</sub> by enhanced formation of the main volatile ozonolysis products, acetone, 6-Methyl-5-hepten-2-one, geranyl acetone, next to sulfuric acid.

## ASSOCIATED CONTENT

### Supporting Information.

S1. Experimental and Modeling Methods: Detailed description of experimental setup for measuring the heterogeneous ozone kinetics and NPF. Further details about the simulation methods are described.

S2. Reaction Mechanism: Schematic of the full reaction mechanism used in the model simulations.

S3. Supporting Results: Experimental results including the reactive decay of  $S_{qe}$ , product mass spectra and kinetic evolution are presented. NPF heterogeneous nucleation curves are shown as a function of particle loading, ozone exposure, and RH.

S4. Modeling Scenarios to evaluate surface vs. bulk reaction for the  $CI + SO_2$  elementary step. Sensitivity test for the isomerization rate constant (R4) and sensitivity test for the  $CI + O_3$  rate constant (R6).

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### Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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