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Connecting the Elementary Reaction Pathways of Criegee Intermediates to the Chemical Erosion of Squalene Interfaces during Ozonolysis

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8 Criegee Intermediates (CI), formed in alkene ozonolysis, are central for controlling the multiphase 9 chemistry of organic molecules in both indoor and outdoor environments. Here we examine the 10 heterogeneous ozonolysis of squalene, a key species in indoor air chemistry. Aerosol mass spectrometry is used to investigate how the ozone (O₃) concentration, relative humidity (RH) and 11 12 particle size control reaction rates and mechanisms. Although the reaction rate is found to be 13 independent of RH, the reaction products and particle size depend upon H₂O. Under dry conditions (RH = 3%) the reaction produces high molecular weight secondary ozonides (SOZ), which are 14 known skin irritants, and a modest change in particle size. Increasing the RH reduces the aerosol 15 size by 30%, while producing mainly volatile aldehyde products; increasing potential respiratory 16 exposure. Chemical kinetics simulations link the elementary reactions steps of CI to the observed 17 18 kinetics, product distributions and changes in particle size. The simulations reveal that ozonolysis 19 occurs near the surface, and is O₃ transport limited. The observed secondary ozonides are 20 consistent with the formation of mainly secondary CI, in contrast to gas phase ozonolysis 21 mechanisms.

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29 Introduction

30 Accurately predicting molecular weight growth and decomposition of products formed 31 during the oxidation of organic material requires understanding how the reaction pathways of 32 transient intermediates such as free radicals or Criegee intermediates (CI) generate multiphase 33 reaction products. CI produced from the ozonolysis of terpenes build molecular weight by forming condensable vapors and organic aerosol in the troposphere.^{1, 2} On indoor surfaces, thin films of 34 skin lipids (e.g. squalene, unsaturated acids) contain reactive C=C bonds that are oxidized by 35 ozone, producing both gas and condensed phase reaction products.³⁻⁶ Here we examine the 36 ozonolysis of liquid squalene aerosol in an effort to elucidate how CI reaction steps control product 37 38 formation on model indoor interfaces.

39 Understanding and improving indoor air quality is important,⁷ especially as people spend a significant fraction of their daily life inside (over 90%).⁸ In contrast to the extensive research 40 41 devoted to the health effects of outdoor air pollution, significantly less is known about the impact 42 of indoor air quality. A prevalent indoor oxidant, ozone (O₃), readily reacts with unsaturated organic molecules in the gas phase and on surfaces such as skin.^{4,9} Reactions with O₃ can produce 43 harmful substances and increase the quantity of volatile organic compounds (VOC), with 44 45 associated impacts on the respiratory system. High indoor concentrations of VOCs are mainly the 46 consequence of large surface areas and diverse sources, such as cleaning products, cooking and occupants, which are concentrated in small enclosures often with limited air exchange.^{10, 11} 47

48 Skin lipids on indoor surfaces are typically emitted via desquamation from skin and hair, 49 or from clothes³ at a rate of 30–90 mg of skin flakes/h.¹² Squalene (Sqe) represents one of the most 50 abundant unsaturated constituents of the human sebum ($\leq 12\%$).¹³ Its six double bonds make Sqe 51 highly reactive towards ozone. As a result, significant effort has been devoted to identifying the volatile and semi-volatile oxidation products formed in Sqe ozonolysis (e.g. in chamber studies,⁵ 52 an aircraft cabin,¹⁴ class rooms¹⁵ and office environments¹⁶). A study by Lakey *et al.* explored how 53 54 semi-volatile and low volatile reaction products diffuse through skin layers and enter the bloodstream.¹⁷ In laboratory experiments, Zhou et al. quantified some of the condensed phase 55 56 products of Sqe ozonolysis and found evidence that the relative humidity (RH) played a large role in the reaction mechanism.⁶ These studies clearly show that distribution of products remaining on 57 58 the skin versus those that are in the gas phase can vary greatly (along with potential health effects) 59 and will depend upon the changes in the indoor environment (RH, O_3 concentration [O₃], air 60 exchange rate, etc.).

61 The objective of this study is to develop a quantitative description of reactive uptake of 62 ozone onto Sqe gas-liquid interfaces. Here the squalene surface is in the form of an aerosol, such as would occur from cooking with oil,¹⁸ rather than a film on an indoor surface (e.g. skin, window 63 64 or tabletop). Submicron particles are used to take full advantage of advanced aerosol mass 65 spectrometry and mobility sizing techniques to measure the real-time evolution of reactants and 66 products, enabling closer examination of how their formation connects to the chemical erosion of 67 the interface. Our objective is to use these measurements to develop a predictive, quantitative 68 kinetic model of the multiphase chemistry that in turn can be adapted to any sample configuration 69 (aerosol or monolayer). We focus on how the elementary reaction pathways of CI depend upon 70 relative humidity and ozone concentration, and how these pathways produce both gas and 71 condensed phase reaction products. Furthermore, we explore the origin of the large discrepancy in reported uptake coefficients which range from 10⁻³ to 10⁻⁶ 6, 19-23, and discuss impacts of the 72 73 reactions and conditions on indoor air quality and health.

74 Methods

75 **Experiment.** The heterogeneous reaction of ozone with Sqe is measured in an aerosol flowtube 76 reactor. Polydisperse Sqe particles with a log-normal size distribution with a mean surface-77 weighted diameter of $\sim 250 \pm 40$ nm are generated from heated liquid Sqe (T = 145°C) in a tube 78 furnace. Particles are entrained in a 300 sccm flow of N₂ and passed through an activated charcoal 79 denuder in order to remove gas phase components. For monodisperse measurements, the aerosol 80 flow is size-selected with a TSI Electrostatic Classifier (3080L). The aerosol flow is then mixed 81 with 10% O₂, and variable amounts of dry and humidified N₂ (RH) as well as O₃ (0-4 ppm), 82 yielding a total flowrate of 1 lpm. The gas/particle mix is introduced into the flow reactor with a residence time of 37 s.²⁴ Ozone is produced by a corona discharge generator and measured with 83 84 an ozone monitor (2B Technology 106-L). The flow exiting the reactor is analyzed by a second 85 TSI Electrostatic Classifier coupled with a butanol TSI Condensation Particle Counter (3772) and 86 a homebuilt vacuum ultraviolet aerosol mass spectrometer (VUV-AMS). For analysis of the 87 heterogeneous kinetics and product formation, the aerosol is thermally vaporized followed by 88 photoionization using 10.2 eV VUV radiation at the Chemical Dynamics Beamline (Advanced Light Source, Berkeley CA.)²⁵ Using mass spectral intensities to determine reaction product 89 90 populations is difficult due to uncertainties in cross sections and ion fragmentation. Thus, 91 comparisons between model and measured reaction products are expected to capture only the 92 product kinetic evolution vs. ozone exposure and RH rather than absolute product abundance.

The main experimental observables are the reactive decay of squalene exposed to ozone as a function of particle size and relative humidity, the formation kinetics of the major reaction products, and changes in particle size. These form the data set against which the mechanistic model description of the heterogeneous reaction, described below, is developed and evaluated.

97 Simulation methodology. Kinetic modeling of the experimental results is conducted using Kinetiscope,²⁶ which uses stochastic algorithms to propagate sets of elementary reactions. As 98 described in previous publications on heterogeneous aerosol chemistry,²⁷⁻²⁹ the aerosol is 99 100 represented as a single instantaneously mixed volume, which is a valid assumption for reactions on particles that are well-mixed relative to the heterogeneous gas-aerosol collision frequency.³⁰ To 101 102 properly account for surface to volume scaling when the aerosol volume changes dynamically 103 during the reaction, the aerosol is represented by a 1 nm x 1 nm x R/3 nm rectangular volume where R is the measured experimental aerosol radius. 29 O₃ adsorption occurs only in a 1 nm thick 104 portion of the 1 nm² surface region, rather than throughout the entire volume of the aerosol. Within 105 106 this subvolume it is assumed that each Sqe molecule provides 1 adsorption site for gaseous O_3 , 107 and this number of sites is held constant as the reaction proceeds. Because the single compartment 108 model used in this work involves surface reactions as well as bulk reactions, all reaction rates are 109 expressed in per unit volume form, since it is not possible to mix 2- and 3- dimensional kinetics 110 using the stochastic algorithm in its current form. Description of a surface reaction in terms of a 111 volume is not a drastic assumption for liquids and soft solids since the outer surfaces are diffuse.

112 **Construction of the reaction mechanism.** As will be detailed below, the model incorporates three 113 main processes: 1) ozone adsorption, 2) condensed phase reactions within the particle, and 3) 114 evaporation of volatile reaction products.

115 Ozone adsorption kinetics. The pseudo-first order rate constant of ozone adsorption on the 116 aerosol surface is,

$$[0_3] \cdot Z \cdot S, \tag{1}$$

where $[O_3]$ is the average gas phase ozone concentration in the experiment, S is the sticking 118 119 coefficient, and Z is the ozone collision frequency, given by: $\sigma \cdot v$, with σ as collision cross section (1 x 1 nm²), and v the mean speed of ozone (390.29 m/s). A value of $S = 1.96 \cdot 10^{-4}$ was measured 120 previously for ozone sticking on submicron carbonaceous particles.³¹ To achieve model agreement 121 with the experimental data a slightly smaller value is needed $(1.8 \cdot 10^{-4})$, which appears reasonable 122 123 given our estimated error in previous experiments and the expected differences between sticking 124 on the squalene surface vs. a carbonaceous particle. This single value of S, originally obtained 125 using a single data set was found to accurately represent the global data set (i.e. squalene decay 126 kinetics vs. particle size). As discussed below, we evaluated the possibility that the ozonolysis 127 reaction occurs through the entire volume of the particle. In this case, the rate would not be 128 governed by the surface collision frequency but rather by the Henry's Law solubility of O₃.

129 Construction of the ozonolysis reaction scheme. The ozonolysis mechanism of Sqe used for the simulations was previously reported, and is shown schematically in Figure 1.6, 20, 32 The rate 130 131 constants are shown in Table 1. It is preferable to use condensed phase rate coefficients but 132 unfortunately for many reactions studied here they are not available. For the model gas-phase rate 133 constants are used as reasonable starting points since energy barriers for many reactions should be 134 similar in both phases. The mechanism has three main parts: 1) the formation of the primary 135 ozonide (POZ, R1), followed by 2) dissociation of the POZ into a ketone or aldehyde and CI (R1), 136 and 3) subsequent reactions of the CI (**R2-R6**).

Formation of the POZ is multigenerational, since a single squalene molecule (with six double bonds) can undergo repeated **R1** reactions with O₃. The POZ is transient, and the rate coefficient is for a composite step that forms either a primary or a secondary CI. For simplicity, we use the same rate coefficients for each generation in the reaction mechanism. We assume that each double bond is equally reactive, and the literature rate coefficient for the overall reaction (e.g. Sqe + O₃) is divided by the number of double bonds (the statistical factor) to obtain the rate coefficient for each. This appears to be a reasonable approximation for this study, which is mainly focused on the formation pathways of the first and second generation reaction products. Reactions at each unique double bond location are tracked explicitly since the reaction products and the CI that are formed in step **R1** depend upon where the reaction with ozone occurs. Additional model details can be found in the Supporting Information (SI).

Once formed, the main reaction pathways of CI are: (**R2**) reaction with water to form carbonyls, (**R3**) reaction with carbonyls to form secondary ozonides (SOZ), (**R4**) unimolecular rearrangement, and (**R6**) reaction with ozone to form a carbonyl.

As seen in the experiments described below, water plays a central role both in the specific products that remain in the particle and those that are released to the gas phase (inferred via mass loss from the aerosol). **R2** and **R3** are competitive sinks for the CI, depending directly and indirectly on water, and producing the observed carbonyl and SOZ products. The rate coefficient used for **R2** is taken from a previous gas phase measurement of $CI + H_2O.^{33}$ **R2** is assumed to occur in the bulk of the aerosol so its overall rate is also governed by RH in the reaction and by the Henrys law constant for H₂O in an organic solvent (Table 1).

To our knowledge, the only coefficients for **R3** (*kco*) are for the simplest gas phase CI (formaldehyde oxide) reacting with either acetone ($k_{CO}=2.3\pm0.3\cdot10^{-13}$ cm³ molec.⁻¹ s⁻¹) or acetaldehyde ($k_{CO}=9.5\pm0.7\cdot10^{-13}$ cm³ molec.⁻¹ s⁻¹).³⁴ Unfortunately, these gas phase CI + carbonyl rate coefficients produced simulation results that are not in agreement with observations, suggesting that entropic factors are significant. Specifically, **R3** (i.e. CI + carbonyl) was predicted

163 to be the dominant sink for the CI, producing large quantities of SOZ at RH = 60% and substantial 164 aerosol growth under dry conditions. Neither is consistent with experimental measurement of the 165 products and aerosol size. Therefore, we treated k_{CO} as the only adjustable parameter in the model. 166 An estimate for it was made by varying k_{CO} until the RH dependence of the carbonyl and SOZ 167 could be reasonably reproduced. k_{CO} was concentrations product optimized at 1.33·10⁻¹⁸ cm³ molec.⁻¹ s⁻¹ for species that form and immediately react within the same solvent 168 cage, and 6.7·10⁻¹⁹ cm³ molec.⁻¹ s⁻¹ for all other combinations. That these values are so small 169 170 relative to the gas phase is not surprising since the cage effect on recombination rate coefficients 171 is well known. The factor of ~ 2 difference between the intra-cage and extra-cage reaction 172 coefficients has been observed in other systems. For example the recombination rate coefficient of 173 newly formed acetyl peroxide radicals in octadecane is approximately double the value obtained when one of the radical species leaves the solvent cage and reacts later.³⁵ 174

175 The rate constant for $CI + O_3$ (**R6**) is taken from Veerecken *et al.* and is based on coupled 176 cluster calculations in combination with theoretical kinetic predictions of the rate coefficients.³⁶

177 The unimolecular reactions of the CI include isomerization to acids (R4a) or α -178 hydroxyketones (R4b), and 1,4 H-shifts (R5). The rate coefficient for isomerization (R4) is 179 assumed to be equal to that for the decomposition of CIs in the gas phase. In the gas phase, an 180 excited acid intermediate forms and rapidly eliminates CO₂, forming a new C=C bond that can 181 react further with O₃. In the condensed phase, however, this intermediate is collisionally stabilized to form an acid product. Literature values for CI isomerization range from 1.5 to 305 s⁻¹.^{37, 38} Here, 182 5 s^{-1} is used for the simulations. A sensitivity test (Figure S1) shows that this isomerization rate is 183 184 too slow to be kinetically competitive with the bimolecular reaction **R2** when the RH is elevated. The hydride shift reaction **R5** has been observed in the gas phase^{37, 39} and its importance in the 185

186 condensed phase reactions is uncertain as will be discussed below in the context of the 187 experimentally observed reaction products.

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189 **Evaporation.** Evaporation is considered to be an irreversible desorption step from the surface of 190 the particle. Repartitioning of gas phase products that have undergone further reaction are 191 neglected, since C=C bond scission favored under wet conditions will form products that remain 192 in the gas phase. Evaporation rate constants, k_{evap} , were calculated using the formulation reported in Wiegel et al.^{27,40} (see also Equation (2) in the SI), and depend upon the geometry of the particle 193 and the saturation vapor pressure (p_{sat}) of the corresponding species.⁴¹ If available, measured vapor 194 195 pressures are used. If they are not, psat are computed (see Table S1) using group contribution methods (i.e. EVAPORATION),⁴² and are reasonably consistent with previous estimates 196 employing a different software package.¹⁷ Uncertainties in the estimated vapor pressures are 197 198 evaluated as shown in Figure S2. The aerosol volume is obtained from the simulation compartment 199 volume, which is calculated from the instantaneous populations and densities of all condensed 200 phase species. As species evaporate from the aerosol, the volume dynamically decreases, leading to increases in concentrations and reaction rates. An increase or decrease of k_{evap} by a factor of 10 201 202 has a negligible effect on the predicted reaction kinetics and volume change of the particle.

203 Results and Discussion

In this section we examine the experimental and simulated decay of Sqe to elucidate where the reaction occurs (heterogeneous vs. bulk) and whether ozone uptake is transport or reaction limited. We identify the major reaction products, their kinetic evolution and RH dependence. This provides the basis for understanding which key reaction pathways are active and why. Finally, we discuss implications of the results for indoor air chemistry.

209 Heterogeneous kinetics of squalene ozonolysis. Shown in Figure 2a is the measured decay of 210 Sqe as a function of ozone exposure and RH, determined using the parent molecular ion (at m/z211 =410) in the aerosol mass spectrum (Figure 3) as a function of ozone exposure. The observed 212 decays are nearly exponential and independent of RH. Also shown in Figure 2a is the simulated 213 decay of Sqe at all four RHs, which agree with experiment and depend only on the average ozone 214 concentration of the particular experiment. Although recent work has shown compelling evidence that O₃ reacts within the first 1-2 nm of a squalene surface,¹⁹ we have nevertheless considered two 215 216 different simulation scenarios to examine the (i) surface vs (ii) bulk reactivity of O₃.

217 As described earlier, two elementary steps are used to describe the reaction of O₃ with Sq. 218 In the simulation, ozone first adsorbs to the squalene surface (described by Equation (1)) after 219 which it reacts with Sqe (R1, Figure 1). There are two previously reported values for the rate 220 coefficient for the Sqe + O₃ reaction that differ by a factor of 100: one for Sqe + O₃ in a dilute solution of chloroform $(1.25 \cdot 10^{-15} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ s}^{-1})^{43}$ and the other is estimated from O₃ transmission 221 measurements through a thin squalene coating (1.21·10⁻¹³ cm³ s⁻¹).¹⁹ To determine which is 222 223 correct, we have compared experimental values for the phenomenological rate coefficients (k_{obs}) 224 calculated from an exponential fit of the measured decay of Sqe (as a function of aerosol size) to 225 those for simulated decays as shown in Figure 2c at RH=3%. The model used a Sqe + O₃ rate coefficient of $1.25 \cdot 10^{-15}$ cm³ s⁻¹ (k_1 , Scenario 1) or $1.21 \cdot 10^{-13}$ cm³ s⁻¹ (k_2 , Scenario 2). For both 226 227 simulation and experiment the aerosol size ranged from 71 to 530 nm. For diameters between 200 228 and 500 nm both model Scenarios predict nearly identical results, despite the factor of 100 229 difference in Sqe + O₃ rate coefficient. It is only for experiments on smaller particles that a 230 difference between Scenario 1 and 2 appears, indicating that neither Scenario completely 231 reproduces the entire data set. It is interesting to note that although there is an increase at smaller sizes, k_{obs} does not strictly follow the inverse radius scaling expected for a reaction localized at the surface, suggesting a more complex relationship. It appears that the observed decay of squalene is not simply controlled by the Sqe + O₃ rate coefficient but rather that it is the adsorption rate of O₃ on the surface that is limiting (i.e. gas phase transport limited).

We examined the possibility that the O_3 + Sqe reaction occurs within the volume of the aerosol rather than at its surface. In this case $[O_3]$ would be governed by its Henry's law constant rather than a transient surface population. Details of this kinetic description are given in the SI. Figure 2b compares the experimental Sqe decay with the simulated surface and bulk reaction predictions. Both bulk Scenarios predict a much slower consumption rate of Sqe than is observed by experiment or in the surface Scenarios. This result further confirms the previously determined short reactive-diffusive lengths (~1 nm) of ozone in Sqe.¹⁹

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244 Reaction products. Reaction products are formed according to the mechanism in Figure 1. The 245 exact distribution of products is governed by the location (i.e., which C=C bond) of the initial 246 ozone attack. Squalene has six double bonds, and because of symmetry there are only three unique 247 reactive sites for the formation and decomposition of the POZ. If the POZ decomposes into a 248 primary CI (p-CI, **R1** Figure 1) then its co-product will be a ketone. Thus there are three unique 249 p-CI that could form with carbon lengths of C₂₇, C₂₂ and C₁₇ as shown in Figure S3. The ketone 250 coproducts of these CI have corresponding carbon numbers of C3 (acetone), C8 and C13, 251 respectively. Alternatively, the POZ could form a secondary CI (s-CI) and an aldehyde. In this 252 case, reaction at the three double bonds will produce smaller s-CI with carbon lengths of C_3 , C_8 253 and C13. The aldehyde co-products have corresponding carbon numbers of C27, C22, and C17, 254 respectively (see Figure S4). Thus, the chemistry of squalene will be controlled in large part by how the POZ decomposes to form p- and/or s-CI, with the corresponding small carbon number
ketones and/or larger molecular weight aldehydes.

257 Figure 3 shows aerosol mass spectra (MS) of the ozonolysis products as function of RH. 258 These spectra are all recorded after approximately 50% of the Sqe in the aerosol has been 259 consumed. Peaks corresponding to pure squalene have been removed by subtracting the unreacted 260 squalene mass spectrum. Analysis of the lower mass range (m/z < 150) in Figure 3 is challenging, 261 since it is difficult to distinguish small molecular weight reaction products from fragment ions 262 produced by dissociative photoionization of larger species. Products in this mass region will most 263 likely evaporate from the aerosol, and thus be underrepresented. Thus, we focus on explaining the 264 kinetics of the main SOZ and aldehyde products.

The product distribution is a sensitive function of relative humidity as expected from the mechanism in Figure 1. The spectrum recorded at the lowest humidity (3% RH, Figure 3a) shows a series of peaks at masses larger than unreacted squalene (m/z = 410), which can be easily assigned to SOZs. The highest intensity SOZ appears at m/z = 458 and is assigned to the C₃₀ SOZ. The other SOZ's are observed at m/z = 322.25, 390.31, 526.43 and 594.50 and are assigned to C₂₀, C₂₅, C₃₅ and C₄₀ SOZ's, respectively.

The observed pattern of SOZ's (C_{20} , C_{25} , C_{30} , C_{35} , C_{40}) reveals key details about the reaction mechanism. Most of the C_{30} SOZ likely forms inside a solvent cage by the reaction of a CI with its coproduct carbonyl; both originating from a common POZ. This reaction requires a simple molecular rotation of the CI relative to the carbonyl co-product. If the CI and its carbonyl coproduct escape the solvent cage before reacting, then a much larger array of possible SOZ's can form. As shown in Figure S5 and Table S2, there are 15 possible SOZ's that could form from all of the potential reactive combinations of p- and s-CI with ketones and aldehydes. These are C₆, C11, C16, C20, C21, C25, C26, C30, C34, C35, C39, C40, C44, C49, and C54. Only a small subset of these
SOZ possibilities are observed in the experiment; C20, C25, C30, C35, and C40. This can only be
explained if the POZ that is formed decomposes exclusively into either a p-CI and a ketone or a sCI and an aldehyde as shown in Figure S6 and Table S2. Analysis of the changes in aerosol volume
indicate that Sqe ozonolysis forms mainly s-CI and aldehydes as will be demonstrated below.

As the relative humidity increases, the SOZ products decrease, vanishing completely at RH = 60%. Since SOZ's (**R3**, Figure 1) are formed by the reaction of the CI with a carbonyl, this indicates that formation of a CI dominates, and the observed trend in yield of the SOZ's with RH is controlled by the competing loss reaction of CI with water (i.e. **R2**).

There are three other main product peaks at masses less than Sqe. These peaks correspond to C₁₇-trienal (m/z 248.2), C₂₂-tetraenal (m/z 316.3), and C₂₇-pentaenal (m/z 384.3). These carbonyl species appear under dry conditions, and increasing the RH doubles their intensity. This can be explained qualitatively as being due to the CI + H₂O reaction that inhibits SOZ formation.

291 Carboxylic acids might be formed by the isomerization of p-CIs (R4a) with carbon 292 numbers of 17 (m/z=264.4), 22 (m/z=332.5), and 27 (m/z=400.6). There are peaks in the mass 293 spectra consistent with these products, although at very low intensity. As found in previous studies, these peaks decrease with increasing RH.⁶ The C₄ species levulinic and succinic acid, formed from 294 295 sequential reactions of Sqe with ozone, were recently identified as main products in a monolayer study.6 These products cannot be definitively observed here; if present the peaks are small and 296 297 appear in a congested region of the mass spectrum. The lack of strong carboxylic acid signals is 298 consistent with product trends with RH that suggest only s-CI is formed in significant quantities. 299 It should be noted, however, that the differences in measured acid concentration between this and 300 previous studies may originate from the different ionization sources used, since DART mass

301 spectrometry, employed by Zhou *et al.*⁶, is known to have very high ionization sensitivity towards
302 acids.

Typical products from OH reactions, such as alcohols,⁴⁴ are not observed. This suggests that under our reaction conditions OH formation from the 1,4 H-shift, observed in the gas phase, is a minor pathway, and therefore is not included in the simulations. However, it may be important under typical indoor air conditions where chemistry can occur over longer timescales and at lower [O₃], which can alter the relative importance of unimolecular vs. bimolecular pathways.

308 While the reactive decay of Sqe is observed to be independent of RH (Figure 2a), the SOZ, 309 C₂₇ aldehyde products and aerosol diameter exhibit a substantial dependence on water (Figure 4). 310 At low RH (3%) there is a minimal loss of mass from the aerosol, resulting in shrinking of its 311 diameter by 5%. As the RH is increased to 60% the diameter is observed to decrease by $\sim 30\%$, 312 indicating the formation of substantial quantities of gas phase reaction products. This decrease in 313 aerosol diameter with RH is accompanied by similar decreases in the quantity of the particle phase 314 C₃₀ SOZ and C₂₇ aldehyde products. When RH increases from 3 to 60%, the aldehyde increases 315 by about 3x. The C_{30} SOZ exhibits the opposite behavior, a \sim 3x reduction in intensity occurs on 316 going from RH = 3% to 60%. Together these observations show that there are substantial changes 317 in the multiphase ozonolysis products of squalene driven mainly by the water content in the reactor. 318 Lower molecular weight carbonyls form under wet conditions and the higher mass forms SOZ 319 under dry conditions.

Simulation results are compared to experiment in Figure 4. Overall, the agreement for C₂₇ formation and decay and particle size changes in Figures 4a and 4b is reasonable. The model predicted intensities of 30% SOZ and 70% carbonyls at 30% RH (Figure S7) are reasonable within experimental uncertainty, compared to recent velocity map imaging experiments, which measured values of 15% and 85%, respectively.²⁰ It is clear from Figure 4c, however, that the simulation does not predict the relative humidity dependence of C_{30} SOZ formation above an RH of 3%, indicating that the mechanism is incomplete.

327 Several previous studies have examined the lifetime of Sqe in the presence of O₃ under a variety of conditions.^{6, 19, 20, 22, 23, 32} These studies report a wide range of uptake coefficients, that 328 329 depend on experimental conditions (e.g. RH, concentration and phase state of Sqe, etc.). In light 330 of our results, measured uptake coefficients are an aggregate of two elementary steps (adsorption 331 and reaction). The adsorption rate is controlled by site concentration, collision frequency and 332 sticking probability. The adsorption site density will vary from experiment to experiment 333 depending on, for example, whether bulk liquid, dispersed droplets on a support, or a thin uniform 334 film is used. Thus one could imagine determining uptake coefficients in two very different kinetic 335 regimes where: 1) O₃ adsorption *is not* the limiting step, i.e. the reaction is relatively slow, and 2) 336 where O₃ adsorption *is* limiting due to low [O₃] or adsorption sites or both. The applicable kinetic 337 regime for the experiment will determine the overall consumption rate of Sqe and hence the uptake 338 coefficient. Furthermore, the substantial change in aerosol size under wet conditions can 339 complicate the determination of uptake coefficients, which scale as the inverse square of the 340 diameter.

Branching Ratio Primary vs. Secondary CI. As described above, the pattern of SOZ's observed in the experiment is consistent with forming mainly p-CI or s-CI rather than the gas phase POZ decomposition branching ratio (BR) of p-CI:s-CI = 53.5:46.5.⁴⁵ Using this gas phase branching ratio would produce a much larger array of possible SOZ as shown in Table S2 and Figure S5. For example, equal quantities of p- and s-CI should produce significant numbers of C₂₁, C₃₉, C₄₄, C₄₉, and C₅₄ SOZ products (see Table S2), which are not observed in the experiment. 347 Based on these experimental findings we performed simulations to test sensitivities to two 348 different BRs for p- and s-CI formation (Figure 5). The solid lines are for a BR of p-CI:s-CI = 349 10:90, which provides the best description of the experimental results. The dashed lines are for a 350 BR of p-CI:s-CI = 50:50. It is clear that there is too much mass loss from the aerosol when p- and 351 s-CI are formed with equal probability. In addition the aerosol size exhibits only a very weak RH 352 dependence with the 50:50 assumption, which is inconsistent with observation. Why the selectivity 353 in condensed phase is so different from that found in the gas phase is not clear; this finding would 354 benefit from further theoretical and experimental investigations.

The enhanced mass loss from the aerosol predicted when significant quantities of p-CI are formed is due to the evaporation of the small ketone (C_3 , C_8 , C_{13}) co-product. Since this step doesn't involve water, rapid chemical erosion via p-CI formation would be predicted even under dry conditions. Although the reaction of the p-CI with water (**R2**) will form the observed C_{27} , C_{22} , and C_{17} aldehydes, these species do not exhibit the sensitivity to RH that is observed in the experiment (Figure 5b). Thus the weak RH dependence observed in the 50:50 scenario originates solely from reactions involving s-CI.

362 The simulations that are most consistent with experiment indicate that s-CI are formed at 363 least 10 times faster than p-CI. This means that the most important CI's for squalene ozonolysis 364 have small carbon numbers: C₃, C₈, and C₁₃. According to **R1**, the corresponding coproducts of 365 these s-CI are the C₂₇, C₂₂, and C₁₇ aldehydes. These are the main aldehydes observed in the 366 experiment and they are present even under dry conditions since they originate directly from the 367 POZ decomposition. As the RH is raised, the reaction rate of C_3 , C_8 , and C_{13} s-CI with water (**R2**) 368 increases, forming the C_3 , C_8 , and C_{13} ketones, which are volatile and evaporate from the aerosol. 369 This explains the experimental observation that chemical erosion of the aerosol depends upon

water. This scenario also accounts for the changes in product distribution as a function of RH. At low RH, the C₃, C₈, and C₁₃ s-CI mainly react with C₂₇, C₂₂, and C₁₇ aldehydes to form the observed distribution of C₂₀, C₂₅, C₃₀, C₃₅, C₄₀ SOZ. At low RH, reaction with s-CI is the main sink for these aldehydes (i.e. via **R3**). As the RH is raised the s-CI no longer react only with the C₂₇, C₂₂, and C₁₇ aldehydes but rather increasingly react with water (**R2**), which explains why the experimental observed product distributions shift from SOZ to aldehydes as the availability of water increases.

376 In summary, using the rate coefficients and branching ratios for p-CI:s-CI described above, 377 the simulation can reproduce most of the experimental data. However, the loss of SOZ with 378 increasing RH remains under-predicted. This suggests that there are missing sink reaction 379 pathways for the SOZ not currently captured by **R1-R6**. We measured the hydrolysis rate of the 380 SOZ's, and detected little if any reaction over time scale of the experiment (37s) (see Figure S8). Additional possibilities for the difference between simulated and experimental SOZ concentrations 381 382 vs O₃ exposure include: 1) SOZ reactions with H₂O₂ formed in R2 2) other radical forming unimolecular decomposition pathways of SOZ⁴⁶ and 3) CI reactions with acids, which would 383 384 indirectly control the quantity of SOZ formed. To improve the agreement between the experiment 385 and the model, further work is needed to better understand the transformation chemistry of SOZ 386 particularly under conditions that replicate indoor environments.

Implications for indoor air quality. In an indoor environment Sqe, which is one of the main organic contaminants present, has shown to be a major ozone sink and one of the main ozone scavengers on human surfaces.⁵ The oxidation products influence air quality and occupant health, as they can act as skin and/or respiratory irritants. Gaining better mechanistic insight is therefore crucial for improving indoor air quality. Our study seeks to develop a detailed molecular-level understanding of the mechanistic pathways of the CI and their sensitivity to reaction conditions. We found that the decomposition of the POZ predominantly leads to the formation of small secondary CI, which furthermore form ketones or isomerize to α -hydroxy ketones. α -hydroxy ketones have been found in indoor measurements of gas phase species to be among the major volatile primary products.⁵ In a second generation ozonolysis step they can form dicarbonyl compounds, which are respiratory irritants⁴⁷ and may cause DNA damage.⁴⁸

The formation of ketones is enhanced with increasing relative humidity and results in chemical erosion of the Sqe aerosol or surface. Under dry conditions the lifetime of a CI is about 7 s (Figure S9), whereas in the presence of water, CI instantly reacts to form reaction products with high volatility. Given the high concentration of Sqe, its ozonolysis products may make up a dominant part of indoor VOCs, particularly under humid conditions. If these are formed on the body envelope, the concentration of potentially harmful VOCs is increased by 1.2 to 2.5 times in our breathing zone compared to room levels.⁵

405 Our finding that the reaction of ozone occurs rapidly on the aerosol surface and therefore 406 is transport limited may explain the wide range of reported uptake coefficients. Understanding 407 how the ozone uptake to Sqe surfaces depends on varying conditions is particularly vital for 408 improving comprehensive indoor air models, and predicting the proportions of gas phase and 409 surface-bound products that may impact occupant health.

410 Supporting Information. The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the ACS
411 Publications website at DOI:

412Ozone adsorption kinetics; evaporation description; Mass, compound names, density and413saturation vapor pressures of all modeled compounds; Model sensitivity tests for414isomerization and evaporation; Bulk reaction model scenario; Primary CI and415corresponding ketones; Secondary CI and corresponding aldehydes; SOZ formation

- 416 patterns; Total SOZ and Carbonyls; SOZ intensity under dry and humid conditions;
- 417 Lifetime of CI.

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- 567 Figure Captions
- 568 **Figure 1.** Generalized reaction scheme for the oxidation of unsaturated hydrocarbons by O₃.
- 569 Figure 2. a) Reactive decay of 300 nm size-selected Sqe aerosol (inferred from the intensity of the
- 570 peak at m/z 410.39) for RH = 3, 20, 40 and 60% with simulation results; b) simulated reactive
- 571 decay for two different k scenarios compared to experimental decay of Sqe (see Supplemental
- 572 Information); c) Comparison of measured (filled red points) and simulated (green and blue circles,
- 573 dashed lines) results, which evaluate sensitivity of the Sqe + O₃ rate coefficient. Red corresponds

574 to $k_1 = 1.25 \cdot 10^{-15}$ cm³ s⁻¹, green to $k_2 = 1.21 \cdot 10^{-13}$ cm³ s⁻¹.^{19, 43} Error bars in a and b are the standard 575 deviation of the measured ion signal about its average.

Figure 3. 10.2 eV photoionization mass spectra recorded for polydisperse Sqe aerosol at a) RH =
3, b) 30 and c) 60%. For clarity only normalized difference MS are displayed, original spectra are
shown in the SI (Figure S4).

Figure 4. Overlay of experimental measurements of 300 nm size-selected Sqe aerosol, after reactive uptake of ozone at different RH (3% to 60%), with simulation results. The same trends are observed for all measured particle diameters and polydispers aerosol (SI). a) Change of particle diameter; b) kinetic evolution of the secondary ozonide with the highest abundancy (m/z 458.38); c) kinetic evolution of C27 pentaenal (m/z 384.34). The error bars in a are estimated from the SMPS bin width and replicate measurements. The error bars in b and c are estimated using the standard deviation of the measured ion signal about its average.

Figure 5. Sensitivity test for different branching ratios of **R1**. Solid lines represent a 1:10 primary:secondary CI ratio, dashed lines are model results for a 1:1 ratio. a) Particle diameter change as function of RH. b) Maximum intensity of C27 (blue triangles) and SOZ (green circles) as function of RH.

No.	Reaction step	Rate constant	Notes
	$O_3_gas \rightarrow O_3_adsorbed$	1.97 s ⁻¹	b)
R 1	Sqe + O ₃ \rightarrow s/p-CI + R=O	$1.25 \cdot 10^{-15} \text{cm}^3 \text{molec}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$	c),d)
R2	$CI + H_2O \rightarrow R=O + H_2O_2$	5.14 s ⁻¹	e)
R3	$CI + R=O \rightarrow SOZ$	$6.7 \cdot 10^{-19}$, $1.3 \cdot 10^{-18}$ cm ³ molec ⁻¹ s ⁻¹	f)
R4	CI \rightarrow R(O)OH, HOR=O	5 s ⁻¹	Ref. ³⁷
R6	$CI + O_3 \rightarrow R=O$	$4 \cdot 10^{-13} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molec}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$	Ref. ³⁶

591 Table 1. Reaction Scheme and Rate Constants for Stochastic Simulations.^{a)}

592 ^{a)} R5 was not considered in the model (see text for details.^{b)} Rate coefficient depends on particle diameter (d) and average [O₃]; here: d=300 nm, [O₃]=2.81·10¹³ molecules cm⁻³. ^{c)} Either a pair of aldehyde and secondary Criegee 593 594 intermediate (sCI) or ketone and primary CI (pCI) can be formed. See Computational Details and Results and 595 Discussion for details on branching ratios.^{d)} Experimental second-order rate constant taken from Ref.⁴³.^{e)} Treated as pseudo first order where $[H_2O] = 3-60\%$ (shown for 0%), $k = 1 \cdot 10^{-14}$ cm³ molecules⁻¹ s⁻¹ (from Ref. ³³) and the 596 597 dimensionless Henry's law constant is 2.6·10⁻², which applies to solubility of water in aliphatic compounds with comparable viscosity.^{49 f)} Constrained by calculation and experiment, corrected for solvent-cage effects and optimized 598 599 to multiple experimental data sets (see text for details).





Figure 2





Figure 4



Figure 5



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