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Efficient Coupling of Reaction Pathways of Criegee Intermediates and Free Radicals in the Heterogeneous Ozonolysis of Alkenes

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ABSTRACT: In the gas-phase, ozonolysis of olefins is known to be a significant source of free radicals. However, for heterogeneous and condensed phase ozone reactions the importance of reaction pathways that couple Criegee intermediates (CI) with hydroxyl (OH), alkoxy, and peroxy free radicals remains uncertain. Here we report experimental evidence for substantial free radical oxidation during the heterogeneous reaction of O₃ with cis-9-tricosene (Tri) aerosol. A kinetic model with three coupled sub-mechanisms that include O₃, CI, and free radical reactions is used to explain how the observed Tri reactivity and its product distributions depend upon $[O_3]$, [OH], and the presence of CI scavengers. During multiphase ozonolysis, the kinetic model predicts that only ~ 30% of the alkene is actually consumed by O₃, while the remaining ~ 70% is consumed by free radicals that cycle through pathways involving CI. These results reveal the importance of free radical oxidation during heterogeneous ozonolysis, which has been previously difficult to isolate due to the complex coupling of CI and OH reaction pathways.

In the environment, multiphase oxidation of organic molecules play a central role in air pollution and aerosol formation chemistry, which in turn have larger scale impacts on human health and climate.¹⁻⁴ The two most important oxidants are ozone (O_3) and the hydroxyl radical (OH) that together account for the majority of oxidative transformations in the troposphere.⁵ Oxidation proceeds through networks of many elementary reactions involving highly reactive intermediates.^{3,6} With a few exceptions, O₃ and OH reactions proceed by separate mechanisms involving distinct intermediates. O₃ reactions produce Criegee intermediates (CI),7-9 while OH oxidation proceeds through elementary reactions of peroxy and alkoxy free radicals.⁶ Here we examine the heterogeneous ozonolysis of a model alkene and find evidence that oxidation proceed by the substantial coupling between reaction pathways of CI and peroxy/alkoxy radicals.

In the gas phase, O_3 reacts with alkenes to produce CI that decompose to produce OH ¹⁰⁻¹³ and a vinoxy radical (RO) coproduct in substantial yields (e.g. 0.3 for cis-3-hexene¹⁰). This is one of the main mechanistic links between free radical oxidation and ozonolysis. In contrast, the importance of OH production during heterogeneous reactions of O₃ with alkene surfaces (i.e. aerosol) remains more uncertain,¹⁴⁻¹⁹ in part because previous studies have not universally observed oxidation products that could be unambiguously attributed to OH. This is likely explained by recent results reported by Beauchamp and coworkers,^{20,21} who observed evidence for a new reaction pathway where β -hydroxy-peroxy radicals (β -RO₂), formed in the presence of O₂ when OH adds to a C=C bond, undergo facile bond scission to produce CI.^{20,21} The β -RO₂ intermediate connects ozonolysis and free radical oxidation pathways in a new way that was later implicated in chain cycling mechanisms (i.e. OH $\rightarrow \beta$ -RO₂ \rightarrow CI \rightarrow OH) in the autoxidation of unsaturated lipids.²² The β -RO₂ \rightarrow CI pathway suggests that definitive observations of OH reaction products in previous studies is likely difficult,^{14,15,23} since O₃ and OH could form similar products (i.e. secondary ozonides, aldehydes). Here we report experimental results and kinetic modeling that reveals the importance of free radical generation in multiphase ozonolysis, which contributes substantially to the overall oxidation rate of an unsaturated aerosol.

A flow reactor¹⁵ (see Section S1 and Fig. S1 of Supporting information) is used to investigate the heterogeneous reactions of O₃ with a model organic aerosol comprised of cis-9-tricosene (Tri, C23H46, as shown in Fig. 1A). Tri is selected as a model system since it has a simple molecular structure, a single C=C bond and multiple C-H sites (6 primary, 34 secondary, 2 vinylic, and 4 secondary allylic C-H sites) for H-abstraction by OH. Importantly, this molecule lacks oxygen functional groups (e.g. carbonyls or acids) that undergo bimolecular reactions with CI, which simplifies product assignments and enhances our ability to observe evidence for unimolecular decomposition of the CI. To separate pathways due solely to OH reactions from those involving ozonolysis, an additional set of experiments (without O_3) were conducted in a continuous flow tank reactor (CFSTR) as shown in Fig. S2.^{22,24} For both reactors, kinetics and products are measured in real time using a vacuum ultraviolet aerosol mass spectrometer (VUV-AMS).25

Previous OH oxidation studies of organic aerosols, comprised of chemically reduced, saturated organic molecules (i.e. hydrocarbons), identified major oxidation products as ketones and alcohols.^{6,24,26-28} These oxygen functional groups form via H-abstraction by OH, followed by O₂ addition to the resulting alkyl radical, to form peroxy radicals (RO₂). In the absence of HO₂, RO₂ reacts with other RO₂ to form ketones and alcohols by the well-known Russell and/or Bennett Summers mechanisms.²⁹⁻³² The net reaction replaces a C-H group with either a C-OH or C=O moiety. In a liquid aerosol, repeated OH attack occurs sequentially and forms multiple generations of oxygenated products with a Poisson distribution of ketone/alcohol functional groups.²⁸

Shown in Fig. 1A is a mass spectrum of the oxidation products observed in the Tri + OH reaction. Products denoted as TriO and TriO₂ (molecular structures illustrated in Fig. 1B) are consistent with the previous H-abstraction mechanism discussed above. Additional peaks in the mass spectra appear at m/z = 212 and 228 and correspond to $C_{14}H_{28}O$ and $C_{14}H_{28}O_2$, respectively. $C_{14}H_{28}O$ is assigned to ntetradecanal, which is formed by pathways shown in Fig. S3. $C_{14}H_{28}O_2$ could be a fragment (or a product) of the C_{14} α hydroxyalkyl hydroperoxide (C_{14} HAH, m/z = 246) as shown in Fig. S4. The TriO and TriO₂ products are different from those formed by ozone reactions, which are lower molecular weight aldehydes, produced when the primary ozonide (POZ) decomposes, and secondary ozonides (SOZs) formed by the reaction of a CI with a carbonyl.^{15,23,33} So in this system, TriO and TriO₂ serve as fingerprints for the presence of OH chemistry.



Figure 1. Difference mass spectra (unreacted Tri – reacted Tri) shows major reaction products of cis-9-tricosene (Tri), such as ketone (TriO and TriO₂) and α -alkoxyalkyl hydroperoxide (AHH). (A) Reaction products during the Tri + OH reactions in the CFSTR ([OH] ~ 1.6 × 10⁷ molecules·cm⁻³). (B and C) Reaction products observed during the Tri + O₃ reactions without (B) and with the 2-octyl-1-dodecanol (C) ([O₃] ~ 4.0 × 10¹³ molecules·cm⁻³). The chemical structures of Tri and

possible isomers of TriO and TriO₂ are shown as insets. Structures of the C_{29} and C_{34} AAH are shown in Fig. S3.

As shown in Fig. 1B, the same TriO and TriO₂ products appear in the Tri + O₃ reactions. SOZ products, typical of ozonolysis in other systems,^{15,23,34} are not detected. This is due to the location of the C=C bond in Tri, which during bond scission of the POZ, produces a volatile C₉ and semivolatile C₁₄ aldehyde (m/z = 212, Fig. 1), as shown in Fig. S3. A substantial fraction (c.a. >80%) of the C₉ and C₁₄ aldehydes partition to the gas phase³⁵ and explains why SOZs are not observed in this system as discussed in Ref.²² and Sections S1.2 and S2.1. The observation of TriO and TriO₂ products in separate O₃ and OH experiments provides evidence for the production of OH during ozonolysis; likely formed by unimolecular scission of the CI to form OH and an alkoxy (RO) radical co-product as is well known in gas phase.^{36,37}

A CI scavenger (a saturated liquid alcohol, 2-octyl-1dodecanol) is added to the aerosol prior to ozonolysis. Although unreactive towards O₃, 2-octyl-1-dodecanol reacts efficiently with CI to produce a distinctive α -alkoxyalkyl hydroperoxide (AAH) products^{38,39} as shown in Fig. 1C. With the addition of the scavenger, the peaks corresponding to TriO and TriO₂ disappear, instead yielding new peaks in the mass spectrum located between m/z = 400 and 550. These peaks are assigned to AAHs, once fragmentation (likely due to dissociative photoionization) is considered as shown in Figs. S3 and S5 and discussed in Ref.²². These observations point to a mechanistic link between the CI and the formation pathways of TriO and TriO₂.

To quantify the significance of these free radical reaction pathways in ozonolysis, Tri reaction probabilities (or effective uptake coefficients, γ_{eff}) are quantified as a function of the amount of the CI scavenger (i.e. 2-octyl-1-dodecanol) in the aerosol phase, as shown in Fig. 2A. γ_{eff} is the fraction of surface ozone collisions with Tri that yield a reaction as described previously.^{26,40} Without the CI scavenger, γ_{eff} for Tri is determined to be 5.2×10^{-4} . This value is larger than previous measurements (6×10^{-5})⁴¹ that quantified uptake by the loss of O₃ above a Tri surface. This difference in uptake coefficient is expected since gas phase determinations of reactive uptake are insensitive to secondary radical chemistry occurring in the particle-phase.⁴¹

If O_3 were the only species to react with Tri, then γ_{eff} would remain unchanged with alcohol fraction, since γ_{eff} is normalized to the quantity of Tri in the aerosol. Instead, γ_{eff} decreases by ~ 2x indicating that increasing the alcohol fraction removes a substantial second reactive sink for Tri (Fig. 2A). This is accompanied by a decrease in TriO and, as expected, the AAHs products increase with the quantity of 2-octyl-1-dodecanol in the aerosol (Figs. 2 and S6).

The observations, summarized in Fig. 2, are qualitatively consistent with the following set of reaction pathways: O_3 reacts with Tri to produce CI, which either decomposes to form OH and RO or reacts instead with the CI scavenger to form AAHs products. H-abstraction reactions by OH and RO lead to the formation of TriO and TriO₂. The relative importance of these two CI reaction pathways (unimolecular decomposition vs. bimolecular AAH

formation) is controlled by the quantity of the CI scavenger inside the aerosol.

Mass spectra (Fig. S7) are recorded for the Tri + O_3 reactions under wet (relative humidity = 60%) conditions since water reacts with CI to produce α -hydroxyalkyl hydroperoxide (HAH) products as shown in Fig. S4.^{42,43} In the condensed phase, HAH is in equilibrium with a carbonyl and H₂O₂,^{15,43,44} which are the products that are generally detected in many experiments rather than HAH. Consistent

with previous observations, 15,22 increased relative humidity has no discernable effect on the global reactivity of Tri (i.e. γ_{eff}) as shown in Fig. 2A. This can be explained by OH regeneration from HAH as discussed in Refs. 43,44 and shown in Fig. 3B. Adding water to the reactor decreases the intensity of TriO and TriO₂ (Fig. 2B), which is similar to what is observed for the alcohol as discussed above. This is not surprising since H₂O and H₂O dimers, like 2-octyl-1-dodecanol, are efficient CI scavengers.



Figure 2. (A) Effective uptake coefficients (γ_{eff}) of cis-9-tricosene (Tri) and (B) the production of TriO, as a function of 2-octyl-1dodecanol or relative humidity. (C) The production of α -alkoxyalkyl hydroperoxide (AHH) during ozonolysis ([O₃] ~ 4.0 × 10¹³ molecules·cm⁻³) of aerosol comprised of varying amounts of Tri and 2-octyl-1-dodecanol. Symbols and solid lines are measured and simulated results, respectively.

The experimental observations presented above are explained qualitatively using the abbreviated reaction mechanism shown in Fig. 3. To simplify the discussion, the mechanism is divided into three parts (O₃, CI and OH / RO chemistries, Figs. 3A-C) each of which is characterized by a unique set of reaction products, pathways, and intermediate(s). The three sub-mechanisms (Figs. 3A-C) are linked by the formation and decomposition pathways of the CI. Electrophilic addition of ozone to the C=C bond of Tri forms a primary ozonide (POZ). The POZ decomposes into a CI and aldehyde co-product. Once formed, the CI can undergo bimolecular reactions with alcohol^{38,39}. H₂O^{42,43} and $O_{3.45}$ These bimolecular steps compete with unimolecular decomposition of the CI, which in the gas phase forms highly reactive OH and RO^{36,37} that launch additional free radical reactions as shown in Fig. 3C.



Figure 3. The three sub-mechanisms considered during the ozonolysis of cis-9-tricosene (Tri): (A) O_3 , (B) Criegee intermediate (CI) and (C) hydroxyl (OH) / alkoxy (RO) radical reaction pathways. The reaction is initiated by Tri + O_3 to produce a primarily ozonide (POZ) then a CI. The propagation

reactions mainly include the unimolecular bond scission of the CI to produce OH and RO, and the scission of β -hydroxy-peroxy radical (β -RO₂) to produce CI. The main termination reactions include bimolecular reactions of CI and bimolecular reactions of peroxy radicals (RO₂).

Once formed, OH reacts via two main pathways: Habstraction from secondary or allylic C-H bonds in Tri/TriO and OH addition to the C=C of Tri/TriO (Fig. 3). RO reacts mainly by H-abstraction. These abstraction and addition reactions create two different peroxy radicals. Habstraction, after O₂ addition, creates an RO₂ that leads to the formation of TriO and TriO₂, via RO₂ + RO₂ reactions, which terminate the radical chain. Alternatively, OH addition forms a β -hydroxy-peroxy (β -RO₂) radical as shown in Fig. 3 and discussed above. β -RO₂ is consumed via several possible reaction pathways. One pathway is a similar bimolecular self-reaction (i.e. β -RO₂ + RO₂) that terminates the radical chain by forming a stable hydroxyketone (or hydroxy-alcohol) product. Alternatively, unimolecular C-C bond scission of the β -RO₂ forms a CI (and an alkyl radical co-product) as first reported by Beauchamp and coworkers.^{20,21} The CI can in turn react with alcohol or water, as discussed above, or decompose to regenerate OH and RO, which further propagates oxidation.

To quantitatively explain the experimental observations presented above, we construct a kinetic model based upon the mechanism outlined in Fig. 3. The model is intended to be predictive, so rate coefficients for the elementary reaction steps are constrained by prior literature or are computed using structure activity relationships (SAR), as shown in Table S1. Further information about the model, which includes a discussion of which reaction steps are included or excluded as well as details about the kinetic simulations can be found in the *Section S2 of Supporting Information*.

The only adjustable parameter in the model that is uncertain is the rate coefficient for β -RO₂ \rightarrow CI, which is

assumed to be unimolecular (R13, Table S1). Although Beauchamp and coworkers^{20,21} presented a plausible pathway for this reaction, which is mediated by O_2 , further theoretical effort is needed to establish the exact mechanism (unimolecular vs. bimolecular), how it might be mediated by H_2O or neighboring molecules, barrier heights and rate coefficients.

The model predictions are compared to two independent data sets. First, the CI and OH/RO sub-mechanisms (shown in Figs. 3B and 3C) are compared to the Tri + OH measurements in the CFSTR reactor. This allows the portion of the model containing only OH reactions to be evaluated separately from the full model that includes elementary steps involving ozone. The model results and experimental data are compared in Figs. S11-S12. The model replicates the decay of Tri and the formation kinetics of TriO at three different [OH] (Fig. S11). In the model, Tri is consumed by three main pathways: gas/surface OH reactions, particle phase OH produced by decomposition of the CI and Habstraction by RO. OH reacts both by H-abstraction as well as OH addition to C=C. The rate coefficients for these steps are from previous literature or are computed using SAR and the weighted distribution of reactive moieties in Tri. A sensitivity analysis for H-abstraction and OH addition is shown in Fig. S12. Changing the relative rates of Habstraction vs. OH addition has a somewhat counterintuitive effect on the predicted Tri decay kinetics, since Habstraction ultimately leads to radical termination, whereas OH addition propagates the radical chain through the CI.

Ozone reaction steps are then added to the model and compared with the measured flow reactor kinetics for the $Tri + O_3$ reactions. As shown in Fig. S13, the agreement between the model and the observed decay of Tri is reasonable with some differences noted at high O₃ exposures. The model also replicates the formation kinetics of TriO during ozonolysis. Shown in Fig. 2 are model predictions of γ_{eff} , TriO and AAH as a function of 2-octyl-1dodecanol (the CI scavenger) mole fraction. The model captures the overall trends in γ_{eff} and TriO observed in the experiments. Although the model captures the increase in AAH with increasing alcohol, there are some differences between simulation and experiment. One likely reason is missing AAH reaction steps, especially consumption pathways in the condensed phase, which require further study to provide better modeling constraints.

From the model we can estimate the main reactive sinks for Tri during ozonolysis, which yields insights into the importance of radical chain cycling in this model system. Shown in Fig. 4 are the consumption pathways for Tri as a function of 2-octyl-1-dodecanol mole fraction.



Figure 4. Relative contribution of reactions of cis-9-tricosene (Tri) with O_3 , alkoxy radical (RO), and OH (addition and H-abstraction) as a function of 2-octyl-1-dodecanol mole fraction in the aerosol phase.

It can be seen in the Fig. 4 that increasing the alcohol fraction decreases the importance of OH and RO reactions during ozonolysis. At 39% alcohol, nearly ~ 60% of Tri is oxidized by O₃. This is because the bimolecular reaction of the CI with 2-octyl-1-dodecanol effectively outcompetes its unimolecular decomposition, which produces OH and RO (i.e. chain propagation). As the alcohol fraction is reduced, free radical reactions become more pronounced and Tri is increasingly consumed by OH and RO. Without alcohol to scavenge the CI, nearly 70% of the Tri reactions during ozonolysis are actually due to free radical oxidation. This is a surprising result that the dominant sink for Tri during ozonolysis is not O₃. This analysis reveals in a more detailed way how competitive pathways evolve and ultimately explains why there is a factor of ~ 2 decrease in measured γ_{eff} vs. alcohol fraction observed in Fig. 2.

Tri is an exceptional model system due to the location of its C=C bond. This is because an O_3 attack at this location produces relatively small volatile aldehydes that partition mainly to the gas phase. Evaporation of these aldehydes eliminates a significant condensed phase sink for CI, thereby enhancing the relative importance of unimolecular decomposition. In alkenes with differing structure, decomposition of the POZ would produce a CI and aldehyde co-product that both remain in the aerosol phase, which react to form a SOZ product.^{15,22} Thus, the contribution of free radical oxidation to heterogeneous ozonolysis will depend sensitively on molecular structure, which is one important factor that controls the competition of unimolecular and bimolecular CI reaction pathways.

We find evidence for substantial radical chain cycling, which accounts for a substantial portion of the alkene reactivity and is driven by the coupling of CI and free radical oxidation pathways. These results further point to new mechanistic links between ozonolysis and free radical chain cycling. Once OH and RO are formed during ozonolysis, many of the free radical reaction pathways lead to radical termination and stable products (i.e. $RO_2 + RO_2$), while others cycle reactivity between CI and OH (i.e. O_3 + alkene \rightarrow CI \rightarrow OH \rightarrow β -RO₂ \rightarrow CI \rightarrow OH \rightarrow ...), leading to more substantial heterogeneous oxidation of a surface or aerosol

than would be otherwise predicted when considering O_3 alone.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at http://pubs.acs.org.

Supporting information for experiments (Figs. S1 to S7) and simulations (Figs. S8 to S14, Tables S1 and S2).

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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Supporting information for

Efficient Coupling of Reaction Pathways of Criegee Intermediates and Free Radicals in the Heterogeneous Ozonolysis of Alkenes

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S1. Supporting information for experiments

S1.1. Experimental setup

The experimental setup consists of three main parts: (1) plumbing and instrumentation that feeds gas and particles to the (2) reactor and (3) particle and mass spectrometry detectors used to quantify heterogeneous kinetics. Detailed descriptions can be found in prior references so only a brief overview will be provided here.¹⁻³

Polydisperse liquid aerosols are produced by passing dry N₂ through a heated Pyrex tube, located in a temperature-controlled furnace. The Pyrex tube is filled with liquid cis-9-tricosene (Tri, Sigma-Aldrich, 97% pure) or mixed with 2-octyl-1-dodecanol (Sigma-Aldrich, 97% pure). The furnace temperatures are adjusted for each experiment to generate stable droplets (~ 110 °C for pure Tri aerosols and several degrees lower for the Tri/2-octyl-1-dodecanol mixtures). Residual gas-phase organics are removed prior to the reactor by passing the aerosols/N₂ flow through an annular activated charcoal denuder. The aerosol flow is then mixed with gas flows that include the oxidants (i.e. H₂O₂ or O₃), O₂ and humidified (or dry) N₂.

For ozonolysis, the mixture of aerosols and gases (O₃, O₂, humidified or dry N₂) are introduced into a flow reactor (Fig. S1) with an average residence time of ~ 37 seconds at a total flow of 1.1 SLM. O₃ is produced by passing 0.05-SLM O₂ through a corona discharge generator, which is diluted by dry N₂ (3 SLM). The O₃ concentration (0 – 10 ppm) is then measured with an ozone monitor (2B technology model 202M).



Figure S1. A schematic view of the flow reactor used in the heterogeneous ozonolysis experiments. The SMPS and AMS are scanning mobility particle sizer and aerosol mass spectrometer, respectively.

For the OH oxidation experiments, the mixture of aerosols and gases (H₂O₂, O₂, humidified or dry N₂, OH tracer) are introduced into a continuous flow stirred tank reactor (CFSTR) as shown in Fig. S2. OH is generated *in situ* by the photolysis of gas-phase H₂O₂ (< 10 ppm) using UV lamps ($\lambda \sim 356$ nm). H₂O₂ vapor is generated by passing the dry N₂ (0.1 SLM) through a heated bubbler (60 °C) containing a 50/50 mixture urea-hydroperoxide (CO[NH₂]₂·H₂O₂, Sigma-Aldrich, 97% pure) and sand (SiO₂, 50–70 mesh particle size, Sigma-Aldrich). The concentration of gas-phase H₂O₂ in the CFSTR after ~ 2 hours of filling is several ppm (<10 ppm), which is measured by a Vaisala H₂O₂ sensor (HPP272). Gas-phase 2-methyl-2-butene (< 200 ppb) is introduced as a tracer to quantify the average OH concentration in the reactor.^{1,4} The total flow rate through the CFSTR was kept at ~1.1 SLM, yielding reaction times of hours.



Figure S2. A schematic view of the continuous flow stirred tank reactor (CFSTR) used in the heterogeneous OH oxidation experiments. The UHP in the bubbler is urea-hydroperoxide. The GC, SMPS and AMS are gas chromatograph, scanning mobility particle sizer, and aerosol mass spectrometer, respectively.

The reactions are monitored using three detectors. The particle-size distribution is measured by a scanning mobility particle sizer (SMPS, TSI 3080L DMA and 3025A CPC). The decay of the gas-phase tracer, 2-methyl-2-butene, is measured using a gas chromatograph (GC, SRI Instruments 8610C with FID detection). The chemical composition of the aerosol is measured using a home-made vacuum ultraviolet aerosol mass spectrometer (VUV-AMS)⁵ located at the Chemical Dynamics Beamline (9.0.2), Advanced Light Source (ALS), Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory, Berkeley, CA, USA. Due to the lack of photoionization cross-sections and ion fragmentation patterns, it is very hard to measure absolute concentrations of products. Instead, we use relative abundance (%). The relative abundance for species X is normalized by the unreacted Tri (i.e. $[X]/[Tri]_0)$ signal, which is used to compare with the simulated results produced by our kinetic model. Reaction products with mass-to-charge-ratio (m/z) < 200 are not shown since it is difficult to distinguish smaller reaction products from ion fragments of larger species produced by dissociative photoionization (e.g. possible ion fragments from α -alkoxyalkyl hydroperoxides

shown in Figs. S3 and S5). Additionally, smaller reaction products in this mass range are expected to be too volatile to remain in the aerosol. This experimental setup has been used extensively in prior studies of heterogeneous reactions and further details can be found in Refs.^{2-4,6}.

S1.2. Reaction scheme and product identification

As shown in Figs. 3 and S3, ozonolysis of Tri (C₂₃H₄₆) begins by the electrophilic addition of O₃ to the C=C bond in Tri. This produces a primary ozonide (POZ, C₂₃H₄₆O₃), that undergoes bond scission to produce a C₁₄ aldehyde (C₁₄H₂₈O) and a C₉ CI (C₉H₁₈O₂), or a C₉ aldehyde (C₉H₁₈O) and a C₁₄ CI (C₁₄H₂₈O₂). The C₉ and C₁₄ aldehydes are volatile and evaporate easily into gas phase. The C₉ and C₁₄ CI can react with H₂O to produce α -hydroxyalkyl hydroperoxides (HAH), which can be consumed via three unimolecular pathways^{7,8} as shown for the C₁₄ CI in Fig. S4. Bimolecular reactions of the C₉ CI and the C₁₄ CI with the CI scavenger (2-octyl-1-dodecanol, C₂₀H₄₂O) produce two α -alkoxyalkyl hydroperoxides: C₂₉H₆₀O₃ (C₂₉ AAH) and C₃₄H₇₀O₃ (C₃₄ AAH), respectively.

AAH products are not detected as parent ions but at m/z's corresponding the elimination of H₂O and H₂O₂ as described in Ref.² and shown in Fig. S3. The C₃₄ AAH product exhibits additional fragmentation pathways as shown in Fig. S5. 2-Octyl-1-dodecanol is also not detected as its parent molecular ion (C₂₀H₄₂O, m/z = 298) but instead at a m/z corresponding to -H₂O loss (C₂₀H₄₀, m/z = 280). Unfortunately, as shown in Fig. S5, the C₃₄ AAH also has a fragment at m/z= 280, which prevents us from measuring the kinetic evolution of 2-octyl-1-dodecanol during the Tri + O₃ experiments. As previously noted, fragmentation in VUV aerosol mass spectra is quite sensitive to the aerosol vaporization temperature and photoionization energy.⁵



Figure S3. (A) Reaction pathways of cis-9-tricosene and ozone to produce CI and aldehydes. (B) Reaction pathways of cis-9-tricosene and OH to produce CI and aldehydes. (C) Reactions pathways of the CI scavenger (2-octyl-1-dodecanol) to produce two α -alkoxyalkyl hydroperoxides. Also shown are the *m/z*'s used for assignment in VUV-AMS mass spectrum.



Figure S4. The reaction pathway of C_{14} CI with H₂O produces the C_{14} α -hydroxyalkyl hydroperoxide (C_{14} HAH) and three unimolecular decomposition pathways of the C_{14} HAH. VUV dissociative photoionization of C_{14} HAH can also generate the n-tetradecanoic acid and H₂O as indicated by blue arrow.



Figure S5. Fragmentation pathways of the C₃₄ α -alkoxyalkyl hydroperoxide. Fragment *m/z*'s are shown to justify their assignment in the VUV-AMS mass spectrum. Fragments are likely produced by dissociative photoionization.



Figure S6. Difference mass spectra (unreacted Tri – reacted Tri) showing the major reaction products, such as ketone (TriO and TriO₂) and α -alkoxyalkyl hydroperoxide (AHH) during (A) the 100% Tri + O₃ reactions; (B) 87% Tri, 13% 2-octyl-1-dodecanol + O₃ reactions; (C) 78% Tri, 22% 2-octyl-1-dodecanol + O₃ reactions; (D) 61% Tri, 39% 2-octyl-1-dodecanol + O₃ reactions.

S1.3. Relative humidity dependence for Tri + O₃ reactions

As shown in Fig. S7, the Tri + O₃ reaction is measured under dry and wet (relative humidity = 60%) conditions. As discussed in the main text, the concentrations of TriO and TriO₂ decrease with the addition of water vapor (Figs. 2B, S7A-S7B) since H₂O acts as a CI scavenger via the bimolecular reaction shown in Fig. 3. However, in the presence of particle-phase alcohol, relative humidity does not change the observed intensities of the α -alkoxyalkyl hydroperoxide (AAH) products (Figs. S7C-S7D). This shows that 2-octyl-1-dodecanol is a more effective CI scavenger than water.



Figure S7. Difference VUV-AMS spectra (unreacted Tri – reacted Tri) observed in the Tri + O₃ reactions (A and B), and spectra recorded for the Tri/2-octyl-1-dodecanol + O₃ reactions (C and D) under dry conditions and at 60% relative humidity ($[O_3] \sim 4.0 \times 10^{13}$ molecules cm⁻³).

S2. Supporting information for simulations

S2.1. Simulation methods and model development

A chemical kinetic model is developed in Kinetiscope^{©9}, which had been used extensively to model heterogeneous chemical reactions.^{3,10-16} As shown previously for heterogeneous reactions with $OH^{11-13,15,16}$ and $O_3^{3,14}$, a single instantaneously mixed compartment is used to represent the aerosol, which is a valid assumption for a liquid that is well-mixed on reaction timescales.¹⁰ To properly account for surface-to-volume scaling in the spherical aerosols, the single compartment is represented by a 1 nm × 1 nm × (R/3) nm rectangular volume, where R is the measured radius of the aerosol. Gas-phase O₃ (or OH) adsorption occurs in a 1 nm thick surface region as discussed in Ref.³. The model is comprised of three parts: (a) the adsorption of gas-phase O₃ (or OH) onto the surface of the aerosol; (b) condensed-phase chemical reactions and (c) evaporation of volatile products, such as the volatile aldehydes (C₁₄H₂₈O and C₉H₁₈O) in Fig. S3. How evaporation has been previously modeled is described in prior studies.^{3,13}

(a) Adsorption of gas-phase O₃ (or OH)

Here we assume a Langmuir Hinshelwood mechanism, where OH or O₃ adsorbs to the surface prior to reaction and that there is one adsorption site per molecule. A pseudo-first order rate coefficient (k_{ads}) is used to describe the adsorption of O₃ (or OH) onto the surface of the aerosols by using equations S1 for O₃, and S2 for OH, respectively.

$$k_{ads,O_3} = [O_3] \times Z \times S_{O_3} \tag{S1}$$

$$k_{ads,OH} = [OH] \times Z \times S_{OH} \tag{S2}$$

Here, [O₃] and [OH] are the measured concentrations used in the experiment. Z is the collision frequency of O₃ (or OH), which is $\sigma \times v$. σ is the collision cross-section of the surface (1 nm × 1 nm) and v is the mean speed of ozone (390 m·s⁻¹) or OH (610 m·s⁻¹). S is the sticking coefficient of O₃ (or OH). The sticking coefficient of O₃ (S_{O_3}) used in the model is 2.4 × 10⁻⁵, which is within the range (10⁻⁵ ~ 10⁻⁴) reported in the Refs.^{17,18}. It is smaller than the value (1.8 × 10⁻⁴) used previously to model the Sqe + O₃ reaction³ and is roughly consistent with the difference in the number of C=C bonds in Sqe (6 C=C bonds) vs. Tri. The sticking coefficient of OH (*SoH*) used in present model is estimated to be 0.2, in order to achieve a global agreement between simulations and experiments as shown in Fig. S11. The rate constants for the adsorption are shown in Table S1.

(b) Condensed-phase chemical reactions

Shown in Table S1 are the elementary reaction steps used in the model, which reflect the three sub-mechanisms shown schematically in Fig. 3. A discussion and analysis of additional reactions that are not included in the model can be found in Section S2.2. References for the rate coefficients are also shown in Table S1. We use the general notation of RH to represent stable molecules (e.g. RH = Tri). The sub-mechanism for the heterogeneous ozonolysis of alkenes is quite well-known and is taken from prior work.^{3,14,19,20} One lumped reaction step (R1), which neglects the explicit formation/decomposition of the POZ, is used to form the CI and aldehyde (C=O) consistent with previous models of ozonolysis.³

The CI is consumed via four main pathways (R2-R5). The unimolecular reaction of CI produces an alkoxy radical (RO) and OH (R2). Bimolecular steps of CI include reaction with the CI scavenger (2-octyl-1-dodecanol, ROH) to produce α -alkoxyalkyl hydroperoxide (AAH),

reaction with O₃ produce a ketone (C=O), and reaction with H₂O produce α -hydroxyalkyl hydroperoxide (HAH). The consumption pathways of HAH are mainly its unimolecular reaction to produce an RO and OH, or to produce ketone and H₂O₂.^{7,8} The bimolecular reaction of CI with aldehydes to produce a secondary ozonide (SOZ) is neglected since they are not detected in the experiment.

The radical sub-mechanism includes OH, alkoxy (RO) and peroxy (RO₂) radical reactions (R6-R13). Elementary OH steps include H-abstraction (R6) and OH-addition (R7). H-abstraction by RO is shown in step R8. The addition of RO to Tri is not considered since the experiment yielded no evidence for products that would be produced by this reaction.

The alkyl radical (R), produced by H-abstraction reactions, and the hydroxy alkyl radical (R_OH), produced from the OH-addition reactions, contribute to the formation of peroxy radical (RO₂) and β -hydroxy-peroxy radical (β -RO₂), respectively. O₂ addition to these alkyl radicals, is described as pseudo first order, as shown in R9 and R10. Peroxy radical steps include self-reactions (i.e. RO₂ + RO₂) form stable ketone and alcohol (R11) products or two alkoxy radicals (R12).

The β -hydroxy-peroxy radical (β -RO₂) decomposes to form a CI (R13) as reported by Beauchamp and coworkers.^{21,22} However, we lack theoretical calculations or experiments to constrain this rate constant. Thus this is an adjustable parameter in the model. We assume this step is unimolecular and a value of 120 s⁻¹ produces model results in reasonable agreement with the global data set. We note that H₂O (or O₂) could facilitate this reaction as suggested in Ref.²¹. Thus, further theoretical study is needed to provide more stringent constrains for this reaction step.

No.	Reactions	Rate constant	Notes	
	$O_3 \text{ gas} \rightarrow O_3_ads$	0.37 s ⁻¹	а	
	$OH \text{ gas} \rightarrow OH_ads$	$1.96 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$	а	
R1	$RH + O_3 \rightarrow CI + C=O$	$2.00 \times 10^{-16} \text{ cm}^3 \cdot \text{molec.}^{-1} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$	Ref. ³	
R2	$CI \rightarrow RO + OH$	205 s ⁻¹	<i>Ref.</i> ²³	
R3	$CI + ROH \rightarrow AAH$	$6.70 \times 10^{-19} \text{ cm}^3 \cdot \text{molec.}^{-1} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$	b	
R4	$CI + O_3 \rightarrow C=O$	$4.00 \times 10^{-13} \text{ cm}^3 \cdot \text{molec.}^{-1} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$	Ref. ³	
R5	$CI + H_2O \rightarrow HAH$	2.17 s ⁻¹	С	
Triggered radical chemistry				
R6	$RH + OH \rightarrow R + H_2O$	$2.00 \times 10^{-11} \text{ cm}^3 \cdot \text{molec.}^{-1} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$	d	
R7	$RH + OH \rightarrow R_OH$	$6.60 \times 10^{-11} \text{ cm}^3 \cdot \text{molec.}^{-1} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$	<i>Ref.</i> ²⁴	
R8	$RH + RO \rightarrow R + ROH$	$1.66 \times 10^{-15} \text{ cm}^3 \cdot \text{molec.}^{-1} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$	<i>Ref.</i> ²⁵	
R9	$R + O_2 \rightarrow RO_2$	$1.10 \times 10^6 \text{ s}^{-1}$	е	
R10	$R_OH + O_2 \rightarrow \beta - RO_2$	$1.10 \times 10^6 \text{ s}^{-1}$	е	
R11a	$RO_2 + RO_2 \rightarrow RC = O + ROH$	$4.00 \times 10^{-15} \text{ cm}^3 \cdot \text{molec.}^{-1} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$	<i>Ref.</i> ²⁵	
R11b	β -RO ₂ + β -RO ₂ \rightarrow RC=O + ROH	$4.00 \times 10^{-15} \text{ cm}^3 \cdot \text{molec.}^{-1} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$	<i>Ref.</i> ²⁵	
R12	$RO_2 + RO_2 \rightarrow RO + RO + O_2$	$1.00 \times 10^{-16} \text{ cm}^3 \cdot \text{molec.}^{-1} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$	<i>Ref.</i> ²⁵	
R13	β -RO ₂ \rightarrow CI + R_OH	120 s ⁻¹	f	

Table S1. Reaction scheme and rate coefficients for stochastic simulations.

Note: "Rate coefficients depend on the [OH] or $[O_3]$ concentration; ^bRate coefficient is the same as the reaction of CI with aldehydes to produce secondary ozonides from Ref.³; ^cTreated as pseudo-first-order rate constant where $[H_2O] = 3\%$ for dry condition, $k = 4.3 \times 10^{-15}$ cm³·molec.⁻¹·s⁻¹ from Ref.²³. ^dRate coefficients for the H-abstraction reaction are calculated from the structure-activity relationship (SAR) in Refs.^{26,27}, such as 2.00×10^{-11} cm³·molec.⁻¹·s⁻¹ for Tri and OH. ^eTreated as pseudo-first-order rate constant where $[O_2] = 10\%$, $k = 2.5 \times 10^{-12}$ cm³·molec.⁻¹·s⁻¹ from Refs.^{10,25}. ^fEstimated in this work, see text for details.

S2.2. Additional mechanistic tests of the model

In addition to the reactions included in the base model shown in Table S1 (Section S2.1), below we evaluate the possible importance of a number of other pathways involving CI, RO₂ and

RO. These steps are shown in Table S2 and are denoted Test_R1-5. These reaction steps are individually added to the base model (Table S1) to produce a new test model. The relative kinetic importance of these reactions are then evaluated by comparing the output from the test model with experimental observations and the base model predictions as discussed below.

No.	Reactions in Test model	Rate constant	Notes	
Test_R1	$CI + Tri \rightarrow CHP$	$7.0 \times 10^{-16} \text{ cm}^3 \cdot \text{molec.}^{-1} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$	<i>Ref.</i> ²⁸	
Test_R2	$RO_2 + Tri \rightarrow RO + Epoxide$	$1.66 \times 10^{-21} \text{ cm}^3 \cdot \text{molec.}^{-1} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$	<i>Ref.</i> ²⁹	
Test_R3	$RO_2 + Tri \rightarrow ROOH + Tri_R$	$2.3 \times 10^{-21} \text{ cm}^3 \cdot \text{molec.}^{-1} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$	<i>Ref.</i> ²⁵	
Test_R4	$Tri_RO_2 \rightarrow Tri_QOOH$	$5 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$	<i>Ref.</i> ³⁰	
Test_R5	$RO \rightarrow Unimolecular decomposition$	See text	<i>Refs</i> . ^{31,32}	

 Table S2. Additional reaction types (named as Test_R) and rate coefficients used in the test model.

Reaction of CI with alkenes. In the gas phase CI react with alkenes to produce a five membered cyclic hydroperoxide (CHP).^{28,33} Given the high concentration of Tri in the particle we evaluate the potential importance of these reactions for the present work shown as Test_R1 in Table S2. The reaction of the C9 and C₁₄ CI (C9H₁₈O₂ and C₁₄H₂₈O₂, Fig. S3) with Tri (C₂₃H₄₆) would produce a C₃₂ CHP and C₃₇ CHP, i.e. C9H₁₈O₂ + C₂₃H₄₆ \rightarrow C₃₂H₆₄O₂; and C₁₄H₂₈O₂ + C₂₃H₄₆ \rightarrow C₃₇H₇₄O₂. These two reactions are added to the base model (Table S1) and a new simulation is conducted (termed test model). The rate constant used for these steps is 7.0 × 10⁻¹⁶ cm³·molec.⁻¹·s⁻¹ as reported in Ref.²⁸ As shown in Fig. S8, the simulated concentrations of TriO and AAH in the test model are much lower (i.e. near zero) than experimental observations and the predictions of the base model, which lacks the CI + Tri reaction. As shown with reaction step markers in Fig. S8A, the consumption of the CI is dominated by the CI + Tri reactions. When included the CI + Tri pathways outcompete unimolecular decomposition of the CI, effectively shutting off free radical production, which is the source of TriO as shown in Figs. S8A and S8B. This is also the case for AAH production shown in Fig. S8C, where the reactions of CI + 2-octyl-1-dodecanol cannot compete with Tri + CI.

We find no evidence for the production of the C₃₂ CHP (m/z = 480) and C₃₇ CHP (m/z = 550) products in the mass spectrum (e.g. Fig. 1). This is consistent with many previous studies, which do not report evidence for this reaction or the formation of CHP during the heterogeneous ozonolysis of unsaturated compounds.^{3,19,20,34-36} Thus, these reaction steps are not included in the base model shown in Table S1.



Figure S8. (A) Simulated concentrations and reaction markers for two competitive consumption pathways of CI in the base model (Table S1), and the test model (Table S1 + (Tri + CI reactions)) during the Tri + O₃ reactions. (**B** and **C**) Experimental (symbols) and simulated (lines) concentrations of TriO and AAH. Solid and dash lines are simulations by the base model and test model, respectively.

Reaction of RO₂ with alkenes. RO₂ can react with an alkene to produce a RO and epoxide as discussed in Ref.²⁹. To evaluate the effects of including this reaction type in the simulations, the reactions of RO₂ with Tri to produce a RO and an epoxide (i.e. RO₂ + Tri \rightarrow RO + epoxide, Test_R2 in Table S2) are added to the base model. The rate constant for this reaction type is 1.66 $\times 10^{-21}$ cm³·molec.⁻¹·s⁻¹ from Ref.²⁹. The results of simulations with and without this reaction type are nearly identical as shown in Fig. S9A. For example, the relative contribution of the RO₂ + Tri reactions to the consumption of Tri is ~ 0.5%, compared with contributions from other reactions (Fig. 4), i.e. the Tri + O₃, Tri + OH, and Tri + RO reactions. The relative contribution of this reaction type to the consumption of RO₂ is \sim 1%, compared with competing reactions such as the bimolecular reaction of two RO₂. The concentration of the epoxide from this reaction type is also negligible. Given that this reaction type plays a minor role under our experimental conditions, we have not included this reaction type in the base model shown in Table S1.



Figure S9. Experimental (symbols) and simulated (lines) concentrations of Tri, (**A**) Epoxide, (**B**) ROOH and (**C**) Tri_QOOH during the Tri + O₃ reactions. Solid lines are simulations by the base model. Dash lines are simulations by the test model, which includes (**A**) Test_R2, RO₂ + Tri \rightarrow RO + Epoxide; (**B**) Test_R3, RO₂ + Tri \rightarrow ROOH + Tri_R; (**C**) Test_R4, Tri_RO₂ \rightarrow Tri_QOOH, respectively.

H-abstraction by RO₂. H-abstraction reactions of organic molecules by RO₂ (e.g. Tri) produce a hydroperoxide (ROOH) and alkyl radical (R) as discussed in Refs.^{25,37,38} To test the importance of this reaction type in the simulations under our reaction conditions, the reactions of the RO₂ with Tri to produce the ROOH and the Tri alkyl radical (i.e. $RO_2 + Tri \rightarrow ROOH + Tri_R$, Test_R3 in Table S2) are added to the base model shown in Table S1. The rate constant (2.3 × 10⁻²¹ cm³·molec.⁻¹·s⁻¹) is estimated from Ref.²⁵ The inclusion of these reaction steps do not alter the predictions of the base model as shown in Fig. S9B. For example, the relative contributions of this reaction type (RO₂ + Tri) to the consumption of RO₂ and Tri are small (~ 1%). Thus, for simplicity these reactions are not included in the base model (Table S1).

Isomerization of $RO_2 \rightarrow QOOH$. The isomerization reaction of RO₂, via an internal Hshift, can produce a hydroperoxyalkyl radical (QOOH) as discussed in Refs.^{30,39}. To test the effects of including this reaction type (Test_R4 in Table S2), the isomerization of Tri peroxy radical (Tri_RO₂) to produce a Tri hydroperoxyalkyl radical (Tri_QOOH) is added into a test model using the rate constant (5 × 10⁻⁴ s⁻¹) from Ref.³⁰ Test model simulations show that the relative contribution of this reaction to the consumption of Tri_RO₂ is negligible (~ 0%), compared with the competing bimolecular Tri_RO₂ + RO₂ (e.g. Tri_RO₂) reactions. The simulated concentration of Tri_QOOH by the test model is also negligible (~ 0%) as shown in Fig. S9C.

Unimolecular decomposition of RO. The unimolecular decomposition of the C₉ and C₁₄ CI can produce OH and conjugated RO radicals as shown in Fig. S10. Three unimolecular decomposition reactions of RO are possible (Fig. S10 and Test_R5 in Table S2) based on Refs.^{31,32} The β-C-C scission reaction of the C₉ RO to produce a hexyl (C₆ R) radical and acrolein (C₃H₄O) is similar to the β-C-C scission of n-butyl ($k = 1.2 \times 10^{-8} \text{ s}^{-1}$ from Ref.³²). The remaining two reactions, in Fig. S10, of the C₉ RO to produce C₉H₁₆O and H, or to produce C₈H₁₆ and HCO are analogous to C₃H₅O (CH₃CHCHO) reactions, which have rate coefficient of 1.66 × 10⁻²² and 3.5 × 10⁻¹⁸ s⁻¹ from Ref.³¹, respectively. As shown in R8 in Table S1, the rate constant for the bimolecular reaction of the RO with Tri via H-abstraction is 1.66 × 10⁻¹⁵ cm³ molecules⁻¹ s⁻¹. The pseudo-first-order rate constant for R8 is ~ 2.5 × 10⁶ s⁻¹ with the [Tri]₀ of 1.5 × 10²¹ molec.·cm⁻³. This rate is several orders of magnitude faster than the unimolecular decomposition reactions of RO (Fig. S10); showing that the main sink for RO, under our experimental conditions, is bimolecular H abstraction. Thus unimolecular decomposition reactions of RO were not included in the base model shown in Table S1.

Figure S10. The unimolecular decomposition reaction of C₉ CI produces OH and the conjugated C₉ RO. Three unimolecular decomposition pathways of C₉ RO.

S2.3. Simulation results for Tri + OH reactions in the CFSTR

As discussed in the main text, in order to isolate radical reactions (OH-RO-RO₂) from O₃ chemistry, we first evaluate the model against the experimental observations for the Tri + OH reaction (without O₃). These experiments are conducted in a continuous flow stirred tank reactor (CFSTR). As described by Che et al.¹ and reviewed briefly here, measurements in the CFSTR occur in two steps. The reactor is first filled with the fresh reagents (aerosols, gas-phase H₂O₂, gas-phase tracer 2-methyl-2-butene, dry or humidified N₂, O₂) with lamps off. After a ~ 2 hours of filling, the lamps are turned on to initiate the reaction by the photolysis of H₂O₂ to produce OH. During the reactor. Thus, in order account for this, two additional steps (S4 and S5) are added into the model to account for the continuous flow as described by Richards-Henderson et al.¹⁵. The rate constants for the flow process (S4 and S5) are the same (~ 10^{-4} s⁻¹) and are measured by quantifying the rate of increase of aerosol mass while filling an empty chamber¹.

$$Fill \rightarrow Tri + Fill$$
 (S4)

$$\Gamma ri \rightarrow out$$
 (S5)

The model prediction is compared to Tri + OH experiments conducted at three different [OH] in CFTSR as shown in Fig. S11. In the experiment, the peak in the mass spectrum corresponding to TriO appears to have two contributions: TriO (C₂₃H₄₄O) and a fragment ion produced by dissociative photoionization (-H₂O loss) of Tri_OH_CO (C₂₃H₄₆O₂). Thus to more closely compare with experiment, the modeled TriO species are a sum of tricosenyl ketone (TriO) and hydroxy-tricosenyl ketone (Tri_OH_CO) products. Overall, the model predictions are in reasonable agreement with experimental results.

Figure S11. Experimental (symbols) and simulated (lines) concentrations of (A) Tri and (B) TriO in the CFSTR under various [OH].

A model sensitivity test is performed and shown in Fig. S12. The base model, shown in Table S1, uses SAR to compute OH addition and H-abstraction rate coefficients. These computed rate coefficients are changed by a factor of 5 and compared to the experimentally observed Tri decay at $[OH] = 1.6 \times 10^7$ molecules cm⁻³. The decay of Tri becomes faster (or slower) by increasing the rate constant of OH addition (or H-abstraction), respectively. This is mainly because of the OH addition regenerates the CI via R13, which further propagates radical chain oxidation.

Figure S12. Sensitivity test of H-abstraction and OH addition rate coefficients. Symbols and lines are experimental and simulated results, respectively.

S2.4. Simulation results for Tri + O₃ reactions in the flow reactor

The kinetic model is compared with the Tri + O_3 experiments in the flow reactor. Figure S13 shows the simulated and experimental kinetics of Tri and TriO as a function of O_3 exposure (i.e. $[O_3] \times \text{time}$). The model predictions are in reasonable agreement with experiments.

Figure S13. Experimental (symbols) and simulated (lines) normalized concentrations of Tri and TriO during Tri + O₃ reactions in the flow reactor (the average $[O_3] \sim 4.0 \times 10^{13}$ molecules cm⁻³).

A similar test, as was presented above for the Tri + OH reactions in Fig. S12, was conducted to examine the model sensitivity to the rate constants for OH addition and H-abstraction. As shown in Fig. S14, the decay of Tri becomes slower by increasing the rate constant for H-abstraction reaction. This is consistent with H-abstraction pathways leading to chain terminating products, whereas OH addition propagates further oxidation through the CI. Overall, the sensitivity tests show in Figs. S12 and S14 suggest that the SAR values in the model provide a reasonable description of the free radical sub-mechanism.

Figure S14. Sensitivity test of H-abstraction and OH addition rate coefficients. Symbols and lines are experimental and simulated results, respectively.

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