

1 **Molecular corridors and kinetic regimes in the multiphase chemical evolution of**
2 **secondary organic aerosol**

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21 **Abstract.**

22 The dominant component of atmospheric organic aerosol is that derived from the
23 oxidation of volatile organic compounds (VOCs), so-called secondary organic aerosol
24 (SOA). SOA consists of a multitude of organic compounds, only a small fraction of
25 which has historically been identified. Formation and evolution of SOA is a complex
26 process involving coupled chemical reaction and mass transport in the gas and
27 particle phases. Current SOA models do not embody the full spectrum of reaction and
28 transport processes nor do they identify the dominant rate-limiting steps in SOA
29 formation. Based on **molecular identification of SOA oxidation products**, we show
30 here that the chemical evolution of SOA from a variety of VOC precursors adheres to
31 characteristic “molecular corridors” with a tight inverse correlation between volatility
32 and molar mass. The slope of these corridors corresponds to the increase in molar
33 mass required to decrease volatility by one order of magnitude ($-dM/d\log C_0$). **It varies**
34 **in the range of 10-30 g mol⁻¹ depending on the molecular size of the SOA precursor**
35 **and the O:C ratio of the reaction products**. Sequential and parallel reaction pathways
36 of oxidation and dimerization or oligomerization progressing along these corridors
37 pass through characteristic regimes of reaction-, diffusion-, or accommodation-limited
38 multiphase chemical kinetics that can be classified according to reaction location,
39 degree of saturation, and extent of heterogeneity of gas and particle phases. The
40 molecular corridors and kinetic regimes **help to** constrain and described the properties
41 of the products, pathways and rates of SOA evolution, thereby facilitating the further
42 development of aerosol models for air quality and climate.

43

44 **Introduction.**

45 Organic aerosol is ubiquitous in the atmosphere and its major component is
46 secondary organic aerosol (SOA) (Jimenez et al., 2009). Reaction of atmospheric
47 VOCs with oxidants such as OH, O₃, and NO₃ initiate the formation of semi-volatile
48 organic compounds (SVOCs), which can undergo further gas-phase oxidation to form
49 low-volatility organic compounds (LVOCs) that will preferentially partition into the
50 particle phase (Kroll and Seinfeld, 2008; Hallquist et al., 2009; Donahue et al., 2012).
51 A fraction of the SVOCs partitions into the particle phase, wherein they can be
52 transformed into LVOCs such as dimers, oligomers and other high molecular mass
53 compounds (Jang et al., 2002; Kalberer et al., 2006; Ervens et al., 2011; Ziemann and
54 Atkinson, 2012; Shiraiwa et al., 2013a). Some portion of the LVOCs can be
55 transformed back to (semi-)volatile compounds or CO/CO₂ by fragmentation
56 reactions triggered by OH or other oxidants **at the particle surface or** in the particle
57 **bulk** (Bertram et al., 2001; Kroll and Seinfeld, 2008; Jimenez et al., 2009). SOA
58 partitioning is also affected by particle-phase state, non-ideal thermodynamic mixing
59 and morphology (Chang and Pankow, 2006; Zuend and Seinfeld, 2012; Shiraiwa et
60 al., 2013b).

61 SOA consists of a myriad of organic compounds, of which only 10-30% have
62 been identified (Goldstein and Galbally, 2007). **Common techniques applied for the**
63 **analysis of SOA are gas chromatography/electron impact ionization mass**
64 **spectrometry (GC/EI-MS) and liquid chromatography/electrospray ionization mass**
65 **spectrometry (LC/ESI-MS) (e.g., Surratt et al., 2006). Hard ionization, such as**
66 **electron impact ionization, generally causes significant fragmentation of organic**
67 **molecules, which makes molecular identification challenging, but can provide**
68 **molecular structural information. The recent advent of soft ionization methods such as**
69 **electrospray ionization (ESI), matrix-assisted laser desorption ionization (MALDI),**
70 **atmospheric pressure chemical ionization (APCI), and direct analysis in real time**
71 **(DART) ionization has facilitated the identification of the dominant fraction of the**
72 **compounds constituting SOA by preserving analytes as intact or nearly intact during**
73 **ionization (Kalberer et al., 2006; Williams et al., 2010; Laskin et al., 2012a; Laskin et**
74 **al., 2012b; Chan et al., 2013; Nguyen et al., 2013; Vogel et al., 2013; Schilling-**
75 **Fahnestock et al., 2014). This powerful methodology opens up a window onto the**
76 **pathways of SOA formation and aging that was heretofore unavailable. Taking**
77 **advantage of such data here we present a new 2D map for SOA evolution of molar**

78 mass vs. volatility, which can be linked to kinetic regimes and reaction pathways of
79 formation and aging of SOA that is currently poorly constrained and a major
80 limitation in the understanding and prediction of atmospheric aerosol effects.

81

82 **Molecular corridors for different SOA precursors.**

83 Figure 1 shows 2D maps of molecular weight or molar mass (M) plotted
84 against volatility or saturation mass concentration (C_0) for organic compounds in
85 SOA from a range of anthropogenic and biogenic precursors: (a, b) dodecane (Yee et
86 al., 2012), (c, d) cyclododecane, (e, f) hexylcyclohexane (Schilling-Fahnestock et al.,
87 2014), (g) α -pinene (Docherty et al., 2005; Claeys et al., 2007; Claeys et al., 2009;
88 Zuend and Seinfeld, 2012; Kahnt et al., 2014; Kristensen et al., 2014), (h) limonene
89 (Jaoui et al., 2006; Kundu et al., 2012), (i) isoprene (Surratt et al., 2006; Surratt et al.,
90 2010; Lin et al., 2012; Lin et al., 2013), (j) glyoxal and methylglyoxal (Lim et al.,
91 2010; Sareen et al., 2010; Zhao et al., 2012). Experimental conditions including
92 oxidants, NO levels and seed particles used in earlier studies are summarized in Table
93 A1. The experimental conditions and methods applied in this study to analyze the
94 formation and composition of SOA from C_{12} alkanes under low- and high-NO
95 conditions are detailed in Appendix A and Schilling-Fahnestock et al., (2014).
96 DART is a soft ionization technique of atmospheric pressure ionization that has
97 recently been used for the analysis of a variety of organic compounds with minimal
98 fragmentation (Chan et al., 2013). SOA compounds identified include alcohols,
99 ketones, aldehydes, hydroxycarbonyls, organic hydroperoxides and nitrates, which are
100 generated in the gas phase (open markers), as well as dihydrofuran, furan, ether, ester,
101 peroxyhemiacetal, hemiacetal, dimer, and imine, which are likely particle-phase
102 products (Ziemann and Atkinson, 2012) (solid markers).

103 Vapor pressures and saturation mass concentrations of organic compounds
104 were estimated using the EVAPORATION model (“Estimation of vapor pressure of
105 organics, accounting for temperature, intramolecular, and non-additivity effects”,
106 (Compernelle et al., 2011). The EVAPORATION model estimates vapor pressure of
107 molecules with the following functionalities: aldehyde, ketone, alcohol, ether, ester,
108 nitrate, acid, peroxide, hydroperoxide, peroxy acyl nitrate and peracid. Organosulfates
109 and imidazoles are not covered and were thus not included in our analysis, although
110 they have been identified in SOA from biogenic precursors and glyoxal (Iinuma et al.,
111 2007; Surratt et al., 2008; Ervens et al., 2011).

112 The markers in Fig. 1 are color-coded with atomic O:C ratio. Generally,
113 volatility decreases and molar mass increases with chemical aging of SOA both in the
114 gas and particle phases. Consequently, molar mass of oxidation products tightly
115 correlates with volatility with high coefficient of determination (R^2) as summarized in
116 Table 1. The 95% prediction intervals (dashed lines in Fig. 1) can be regarded as
117 molecular corridors within which additional unidentified oxidation products are likely
118 to fall. The negative slope of the fit lines corresponds to the increase in molar mass
119 required to decrease volatility by one order of magnitude, $-dM/d\log C_0$. It increases
120 from $\sim 10 \text{ g mol}^{-1}$ for glyoxal and methylglyoxal to $\sim 25 \text{ g mol}^{-1}$ for dodecane and
121 cyclododecane, depending on the molecular size of the SOA precursor and the O:C
122 ratio of the reaction products as will be discussed below. The mean value of $-$
123 $dM/d\log C_0$ averaged over all investigated systems is $20 \pm 4 \text{ g mol}^{-1}$.

124 The composition of SOA may vary depending not only on the organic
125 precursor but also on the oxidant and other reaction conditions of formation and aging
126 (Presto et al., 2005; Surratt et al., 2006; Lin et al., 2012; Lin et al., 2013; Kristensen et
127 al., 2014; Loza et al., 2014; Xu et al., 2014). The atomic O:C ratio tends to be higher
128 at high NO concentrations, partly due to the formation of organonitrates (Nguyen et
129 al., 2011; Schilling-Fahnestock et al., 2014). Even though Fig. 1(g), (h), (i) contain
130 biogenic SOA oxidation products measured under different conditions as specified in
131 Table A1, the molecular corridors are relatively tight with $R^2 > 0.85$. The molecular
132 corridors of alkane SOA formed under low and high NO conditions are also quite
133 similar (Figs 1a-f). Thus, the molecular corridors of SOA formation appear to be
134 determined primarily by the organic precursor, and the extent to which they are
135 influenced by reaction conditions warrants further studies.

136

137 **Kinetic regimes and limiting cases.**

138 Traditionally, SOA formation has been modeled based on instantaneous gas-
139 particle equilibrium partitioning, implicitly assuming that gas-phase reactions are the
140 rate-limiting step of SOA formation and growth (Pankow, 1994; Donahue et al., 2006;
141 Hallquist et al., 2009). Recent studies, however, have shown that mass transport and
142 chemical reaction in the particle phase may also play an important role (Fig. 2)
143 (Ervens et al., 2011; Ziemann and Atkinson, 2012; Shiraiwa et al., 2013a). Recently,
144 Berkemeier et al. (2013) provided a conceptual framework which enables the
145 characterization of heterogeneous reactions and gas uptake in atmospheric aerosols

146 and clouds by a well-defined set of distinct kinetic regimes and limiting cases. We
147 extended this framework to cover the complex interplay of gas- and particle-phase
148 reactions in the evolution of SOA and enable a systematic classification of rate-
149 limiting processes in the analysis and interpretation of laboratory chamber data and
150 ambient measurements, as well as in the comparison of experimental results with
151 theoretical predictions.

152 Different types of kinetic behavior can be characterized by three basic criteria
153 as detailed in the Appendix B: (1) the location of the chemical reaction leading to
154 SOA formation or aging (gas phase, particle surface, particle bulk), (2) the saturation
155 ratio of the reactants (ratio of ambient concentration to saturation concentration), and
156 (3) the extent of spatial heterogeneity of the gas and particle phases (concentration
157 gradients). The kinetic regimes and limiting cases **defined by these criteria** can be
158 visualized on a “kinetic cuboid”, in which each axis corresponds to one of the three
159 classification parameters as shown in Fig. 3(a). The symbols “G”, “S”, and “B”
160 indicate the predominant reaction location: gas phase, particle surface, or particle
161 bulk, respectively. A subscript denotes the rate-limiting process for SOA formation
162 and aging: “rx” indicates chemical reaction; “bd” indicates bulk diffusion; “ α ”
163 indicates mass accommodation; “gd” indicates gas-phase diffusion. Depending on
164 atmospheric composition and reaction conditions, which vary widely in space and
165 time, the chemical evolution of organic compounds and SOA particles can progress
166 through any of these regimes.

167 The left part of the cuboid can be regarded as a particle-phase chemistry
168 regime and the right side as a gas-phase chemistry regime. As shown in Fig. 3(b), the
169 particle-phase chemistry regime (SB, including surface (S) or bulk (B) reaction) can
170 be further subdivided into a reaction-diffusion regime (SB^{rd}), where the system is
171 limited by reaction or diffusion in the particle-phase, and a mass-transfer regime
172 (SB^{mt}) limited by mass accommodation at the interface or diffusion through the gas
173 phase (Berkemeier et al., 2013). The gas-phase chemistry regime (G) comprises the
174 traditional scenario of SOA formation determined by a rate-limiting chemical reaction
175 in the gas phase followed by quasi-instantaneous gas-particle partitioning of the
176 reaction products (G_{rx}), corresponding to so-called quasi-equilibrium growth
177 (Shiraiwa and Seinfeld, 2012; Zhang et al., 2012). The rest of the gas-phase chemistry
178 regime is mass transport-limited and corresponds to so-called non-equilibrium growth
179 (Perraud et al., 2012; Zaveri et al., 2014), which can be kinetically limited by gas-to-

180 particle mass transfer (gas-phase diffusion and accommodation at the interface; G^{mt})
181 or retarded diffusion in the particle phase (G_{bd}).

182

183 **Characteristic Pathways and Properties.**

184 Figure 4(a) shows the ensemble of molecular corridors from Fig. 1 with a total
185 of 909 identified oxidation products from seven different SOA precursors. They are
186 constrained by two boundary lines corresponding to the volatility of n -alkanes
187 C_nH_{2n+2} and sugar alcohols $C_nH_{2n+2}O_n$. These lines illustrate the regular dependence of
188 volatility on the molar mass of organic compounds; the different slopes of 30 g mol^{-1}
189 for C_nH_{2n+2} and 12 g mol^{-1} for $C_nH_{2n+2}O_n$ reflect that the decrease of volatility with
190 increasing molar mass is stronger for polar compounds (see Fig. A4 for alternative
191 representation).

192 Many early generation gas-phase oxidation products of alkanes as well as
193 dimers or oligomers with low O:C ratio (LOC) fall into a molecular corridor close to
194 the C_nH_{2n+2} line, which we designate as LOC corridor ($-dM/d\log C_0 \geq \sim 25 \text{ g mol}^{-1}$,
195 blue shaded area). Aqueous-phase reaction and autoxidation products with high O:C
196 ratio (HOC), on the other hand, tend to fall into a corridor near the $C_nH_{2n+2}O_n$ line,
197 which we designate as HOC corridor ($-dM/d\log C_0$ of $\leq \sim 15 \text{ g mol}^{-1}$, red shaded area).
198 The area in between is characterized by intermediate O:C ratios and accordingly
199 designated as IOC corridor ($-dM/d\log C_0 \approx \sim 20 \text{ g mol}^{-1}$). Among the SOA systems
200 investigated in this study, the small precursor VOCs glyoxal, methylglyoxal and
201 isoprene (C_2 - C_5) evolve through the HOC corridor, and the terpenes α -pinene and
202 limonene (C_{10}) through the IOC corridor. The alkanes dodecane and cyclododecane
203 (C_{12}) evolve through the LOC corridor, while hexylcyclohexane exhibits a branching
204 between the LOC and HOC corridors, suggesting the involvement of different
205 reaction pathways. For unidentified SOA products, the molecular corridor ensemble
206 in Fig. 4(a) and alternative representations (Fig. A4(a)) may also be used as a look-up
207 plot to obtain a rough estimate of volatility by comparison of molar mass and O:C
208 ratio (e.g., from soft-ionization high-resolution mass spectrometry) to the data in the
209 plot.

210 Characteristic reaction pathways and relevant kinetic regimes are outlined in
211 Fig. 4(b). SOA precursor VOCs with high volatility and low molar mass are located
212 in the lower right corner of the molecular corridor ensemble. As illustrated in the
213 insert in Fig. 4(b), single-step functionalization usually leads to a small increase in

214 molar mass, corresponding to one order of decrease in volatility (Donahue et al.,
215 2006), while dimerization and oligomerization tend to multiply molar mass, and thus
216 decrease volatility by multiple orders of magnitude (Trump and Donahue, 2014) (e.g.,
217 three to four orders of magnitude for alkane and terpene SOA, see Fig. 1).
218 Fragmentation, on the other hand, can lead to a substantial decrease of molar mass
219 and increase in volatility (Bertram et al., 2001; Yee et al., 2012; Schilling-Fahnestock
220 et al., 2014). As a result, simple gas-phase oxidation products are confined to the
221 lower right area in the 2D space. Such oxidation products ($C_0 > 10 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) tend to fall
222 into the gas-phase reaction limiting case G_{rx} (quasi-equilibrium growth), as their gas-
223 particle equilibration timescale is on the order of seconds to minutes (Shiraiwa and
224 Seinfeld, 2012) (see Appendix C&D).

225 Particle-phase dimerization and oligomerization involving two or more
226 molecules usually leads to the formation of compounds with low volatility and high
227 molar mass lying in the upper left area in the 2D space. The formation of such
228 particle-phase products is likely limited by reaction or diffusion in the particle bulk
229 (SB^{rd}), as rate coefficients for dimer formation are relatively low ($< 10 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$)
230 (Ziemann and Atkinson, 2012) and large molecules tend to diffuse slowly (Pfrang et
231 al., 2011; Shiraiwa et al., 2011; Abramson et al., 2013; Zhou et al., 2013). An
232 example of reaction pathways leading to dimerization is shown in Fig. 5 for dodecane
233 SOA (Appendix D, Shiraiwa et al., 2013a). Within the molecular corridor of
234 dodecane SOA evolution, Fig. 5 illustrates a specific trajectory from the precursor
235 (dodecane, 0) through multiple generations of surrogate products of gas-phase
236 oxidation and functionalization (multifunctional alcohols, ketones, and peroxides, 1-
237 5), gas-phase fragmentation (aldehydes, 6), and particle-phase dimerization between
238 aldehydes and peroxides to peroxyhemiacetals (7). Numerical model results shown in
239 Fig. A2 indicate that the trajectory of chemical evolution passes through different
240 kinetic regimes, i.e., from limitation by gas-phase reaction (G_{rx}) to particle-phase
241 reaction and diffusion (SB^{rd}). Note that particle-phase reactions may also be limited
242 by gas-to-particle mass transfer (e.g., accommodation, supply of reactive gases into
243 the particle), when they are sufficiently fast, such as catalyzed by acids (Jang et al.,
244 2002; Iinuma et al., 2004; Offenberg et al., 2009; Surratt et al., 2010).

245 Aqueous-phase processing of glyoxal and methylglyoxal is an efficient
246 pathway for formation of low volatility and semi-volatile HOC compounds (Liggio et
247 al., 2005; Carlton et al., 2007; Lim et al., 2010; Ervens et al., 2011; Zhao et al., 2012).

248 Uptake of glyoxal into the particle phase leads to hydration and acid catalysis to form
249 hemiacetals, aldols, imines, anhydrides, esters and organosulfates (Lim et al., 2010).
250 Reactive uptake of isoprene epoxydiols (IEPOX) and subsequent formation of
251 oligomers (Surratt et al., 2010; Lin et al., 2012; Lin et al., 2013) also progresses over
252 the HOC corridor. Whether multiphase chemistry of glyoxal and IEPOX is limited by
253 mass transfer or chemical reactions may depend on various factors including reaction
254 rate coefficients, relative humidity, particle pH, and Henry's law constant (Ervens and
255 Volkamer, 2010; McNeill et al., 2012; Kampf et al., 2013).

256 Recently, highly oxidized extremely low volatility organic compounds
257 (ELVOC) have been detected in field and chamber experiments (Ehn et al., 2012;
258 Schobesberger et al., 2013; Ehn et al., 2014). Such compounds may populate the
259 upper left corner of the HOC corridor. It has been shown that such compounds can be
260 formed via autoxidation (inter- and intramolecular hydrogen abstraction by peroxy
261 radicals) in the gas and particle phases (Crouse et al., 2013). When they are formed
262 in the gas phase, the equilibration timescale of partitioning is long due to their low
263 volatility and the SOA growth is limited most likely by mass transfer (gas-phase
264 diffusion and accommodation; G^{mt}) (see Appendix C and Fig. A2) (Pierce et al.,
265 2011; Riipinen et al., 2011; Shiraiwa and Seinfeld, 2012). Note that kinetic limitation
266 by retarded bulk diffusion (G_{bd}) is also possible for semi-volatile and low volatility
267 products, when organic particles adopt amorphous solid state (Virtanen et al., 2010;
268 Cappa and Wilson, 2011; Shiraiwa et al., 2011; Vaden et al., 2011; Kuwata and
269 Martin, 2012; Perraud et al., 2012; Shiraiwa and Seinfeld, 2012; Renbaum-Wolff et
270 al., 2013; Zaveri et al., 2014). Indeed, recent observation found that some SVOCs do
271 not necessarily adhere to equilibrium partitioning (Vogel et al., 2013).

272 Formation of high molecular weight SOA compounds from oligomerization or
273 autoxidation results in high average molar mass for the biogenic systems of isoprene
274 and α -pinene (Kalberer et al., 2006) as well as the anthropogenic C_{12} alkanes (Fig. 1
275 and Tab. 1; Schilling-Fahnestock et al., 2014). Figure 4(a) shows that most identified
276 oxidation products with molar masses higher than 300 g mol^{-1} are particle-phase
277 products (solid markers). Thus, the relatively high average molar mass observed for
278 laboratory-generated SOA points to the importance of particle-phase chemistry in
279 these systems. Some SOA compounds with higher molar mass are gas-phase
280 oxidation products including ELVOC and ester dimers observed in α -pinene

281 oxidation (Ehn et al., 2014; Kristensen et al., 2014), and there are also some particle-
282 phase products with relatively low molar mass including furans and dihydrofurans in
283 dodecane and cyclododecane SOA (Yee et al., 2012; Loza et al., 2014) as well as
284 glyoxal and IEPOX products in isoprene SOA (Lim et al., 2010; Surratt et al., 2010).
285 Nevertheless, the clustering of identified reaction products in molecular corridors may
286 facilitate estimation of the relative importance of gas- vs. particle-phase routes to
287 SOA formation (Fig. 1).

288 Molar mass and O:C ratio also correlate with the glass transition temperature
289 of organic compounds, which tends to increase with increasing molar mass and O:C
290 ratio (Koop et al., 2011). As elevated glass transition temperatures are indicative of
291 semi-solid or amorphous solid states, SOA evolution represented in molecular
292 corridors allows one to infer the regime, in which particles are likely to become
293 highly viscous. For example, recent experiments have shown an order of magnitude
294 increase in the viscosity of oleic acid particles upon reaction with ozone owing to
295 formation of oligomers (Hosny et al., 2013), and model calculations indicate that this
296 may lead to the formation of surface crusts (Pfrang et al., 2011).

297 In summary, presenting identified SOA products in a molecular corridor
298 encapsulates fundamental aspects of SOA formation and aging: volatility, molar
299 mass, O:C ratio, and phase state. Such a representation can be used to
300 constrain/predict the properties of unidentified SOA oxidation products. The kinetic
301 regimes, within which SOA evolution is occurring along the molecular corridor,
302 facilitate the specification of the rate of progression to higher generation products.
303 Thus, molecular corridors may serve as a basis for compact representation of SOA
304 formation and aging in regional and global models of climate and air quality.

305

306 **Appendix A. Product analysis of alkane SOA**

307 Photo-oxidation and subsequent SOA formation of *n*-dodecane,
308 cyclododecane, and hexylcyclohexane was conducted in the 28 m³ Teflon reactors in
309 the Caltech Environmental chamber (Yee et al., 2012; Loza et al., 2014; Schilling-
310 Fahnestock et al., 2014). Aqueous H₂O₂ solution was evaporated into the chamber as
311 the OH source, followed by the atomization of an aqueous ammonium sulfate solution
312 generating seed particles, which were subsequently dried. Experiments were
313 conducted under low-NO conditions, in which alkyl peroxy radicals (RO₂) react
314 primarily with HO₂, and under high-NO conditions, in which RO₂ react primarily
315 with NO (Loza et al., 2014).

316 SOA particles were collected on Teflon filters (Pall Life Sciences, 47 mm, 1.0
317 μm pore size). Off-line analysis of collected particles was conducted by solvent
318 extraction and gas chromatography time-of-flight mass spectrometry (GC-TOF-MS,
319 GCT Premier, Waters) and GC/ion trap mass spectrometry (Varian Saturn 2000,
320 Agilent), and by direct analysis in real time (DART)- time-of-flight and ion trap mass
321 spectrometry (DART-AccuToF, JEOL USA; Caltech Mini-DART; LTQ, Thermo
322 Fisher). **Further details on experimental conditions and analytical methods can be**
323 **found in Schilling-Fahnestock et al. (2014).**

324 The average molar mass of SOA was estimated by taking the sum of the
325 product of the percent relative concentration of each compound with respect to the
326 internal standard (dibutyl phthalate present in each filter) by each compound's molar
327 mass. The relative concentration for each compound was obtained through the
328 relationship of ion current intensity and concentration for DART-MS. In DART
329 analysis, ion current intensity (*I*) is proportional to the concentration (*C*), vapor
330 pressure (*P*_{vap}) and proton affinity (*A*): $I = AP_{vap}C$. This equation is written for both
331 the analyte and the internal standard and then the ratio was calculated, which allows
332 for the cancellation of the proton affinity term. Analyte vapor pressures were
333 estimated by using proposed structures based on HR-MS data-derived formulae and
334 known mechanisms with the EVAPORATION (Estimation of vapor pressure of
335 organics, accounting for temperature, intramolecular, and non-additivity effects)
336 model (Compernelle et al., 2011). When rewritten to solve for the relative
337 concentration of the analyte with respect to the concentration of the internal standard,
338 the equation becomes:

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$$\frac{C_A}{C_{IS}} = \frac{P_{vap,IS} I_A}{P_{vap,A} I_{IS}}$$

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Atomic O:C ratio vs. volatility is used to represent formation and aging of SOA (Jimenez et al., 2009; Donahue et al., 2011). By analogy to Figs. 1 and 4, major oxidation products are shown in Figures S1 and S2. The markers are color coded by molar mass. Upon gas-phase oxidation, volatility decreases and O:C ratio increases, leading to a linear correlation in O:C ratio vs. volatility for gas-phase oxidation products. Particle-phase products, however, exhibit generally lower volatility and O:C ratio as compared to gas-phase oxidation products. Consequently, the overall correlation between O:C ratio and volatility for the full spectrum of SOA products has a low coefficient of determination and wide prediction interval (Table 1, Figure S1). Figure S2 shows the summary of O:C ratio vs. volatility, showing that the oxidation products cover almost the full area in this 2D space. Clear trend is found that volatile compounds have low molar mass, whereas low volatility compounds with low O:C ratio have high molar mass.

Appendix B. Kinetic regimes for SOA formation

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Figure A1 shows a classification scheme for kinetic regimes and limiting cases for SOA formation and aging. Note that the term *limiting case* is reserved for a system that is governed by a single, clearly defined limiting process; the term *kinetic regime* designates a system that is governed by a few (often only one or two) clearly defined rate-limiting processes (Berkemeier et al., 2013). The classification within the particle phase regime (right-hand side of Fig. 3) is explained in detail by Berkemeier et al. (2013). In this study, the gas-phase regime (left-hand side of Fig. 3) extends the classification scheme to SOA formation. The cases of limiting behavior arise from three criteria that are fundamental to formation and partitioning of an oxidation product: 1) the location (gas phase, particle surface, particle bulk) of the reaction leading to SOA formation, 2) the species' saturation ratio (ratio of ambient concentration to saturation concentration) of the oxidation products, and 3) the extent of spatial heterogeneity of the gas and particle phases. Identifying kinetic regimes and limiting cases can be facilitated by an aerosol model, such as the kinetic multi-layer model for gas-particle interactions (KM-GAP) that explicitly resolves mass transport and chemical reactions in the gas and particle phases (Shiraiwa et al., 2012).

372 **B.1. Criterion 1: Reaction location (Gas vs. Surface vs. Bulk)**

373 *Where does formation of oxidation products that contribute to SOA mass*
374 *predominantly occur, gas phase, particle surface or particle bulk?* A two-pronged
375 criterion can be developed. The first sub-criterion evaluates the relative contribution
376 of gas- vs. particle-phase chemistry. The gas- vs. particle-phase contribution ratio
377 (GPCR) can be defined as ratio of the production rate of the oxidation product in the
378 gas phase (P^g) to the total production rate in gas and particle phases ($P^g + P^p$):

379
$$\text{GPCR} = P^g / (P^g + P^p) \quad (1)$$

380 As GPCR approaches unity, an oxidation product is produced primarily in the gas
381 phase; and as GPCR approaches zero, it is primarily produced in the particle phase.

382 If particle-phase chemistry dominates ($\text{GPCR} \approx 0$), the surface to total particle
383 phase contribution ratio (STCR) is used to assess the extent to which production
384 occurs predominantly at the surface or in the bulk. STCR can be calculated using the
385 production rate of the oxidation product at the surface (P^s) and in the particle bulk
386 (P^b):

387
$$\text{STCR} = P^s / (P^s + P^b) \quad (2)$$

388 If the particle-phase reaction primarily occurs at the surface, STCR approaches unity;
389 and STCR approaches zero if the reaction occurs primarily in the bulk.

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391 **B.2. Criterion 2: Saturation ratio**

392 *Is mass transfer of an oxidation product through the gas or into the particle*
393 *phase limiting SOA growth?* After determination of the reaction location, this
394 criterion further classifies the system based on the abundance of oxidation products at
395 the particle surface versus in the near-surface bulk.

396 In the gas-phase regime, the surface saturation ratio (SSR) can be used to
397 judge the extent to which kinetic limitation of mass transport occurs in the gas phase.
398 With this parameter, the surface concentration of an oxidation product Z, $[Z]_s$, is
399 compared to its surface saturation concentration $[Z]_{s,\text{sat}}$. In the absence of reaction or
400 diffusion into the bulk, $[Z]_{s,\text{sat}}$ is determined by the gas-phase concentration of Z, $[Z]_g$,
401 and the rates of adsorption and desorption k_a and k_d : $[Z]_{s,\text{sat}} = k_a / k_d [Z]_g$ (Pöschl et al.,
402 2007; Berkemeier et al., 2013). The SSR is defined as the ratio of $[Z]_s$ to its saturation
403 concentration at adsorption equilibrium:

404
$$\text{SSR} = [Z]_s / [Z]_{s,\text{sat}} \quad (3)$$

405 The numerical interpretation of SSR is: 1) As SSR approaches zero, the
406 surface is starved of Z, and the system is limited by mass transfer (**G^{mt} regime**) either
407 by gas-phase diffusion (G_{gd} limiting case) or surface accommodation (G_α limiting
408 case). As SSR approaches unity, the surface is adequately supplied with Z and the
409 system can be limited by production of Z in the gas phase (G_{rx} limiting case) or mass
410 transport into the bulk (G_{bd} limiting case).

411 In the particle-phase regime, the classification step is based on SSR or the
412 bulk saturation ratio (BSR) to distinguish between systems in the reaction-diffusion
413 regime or the mass-transfer regime (Berkemeier et al., 2013). The BSR is defined
414 analogously to SSR as the ratio of near-surface bulk concentration of an oxidation
415 product to its saturation concentration.

416

417 **B.3. Criterion 3: Mixing Parameters (MP)**

418 *Is SOA growth limited by diffusion in the gas or particle phase?* Depending on
419 the reaction location and saturation ratio, mixing parameters are used to assess the
420 heterogeneity of the gas-particle system. One can define the surface mixing parameter
421 (SMP), the bulk mixing parameter (BMP), the gas-phase diffusion correction factor
422 (C_g), and the gas-particle mixing parameter (GMP). SMP is defined as the ratio of the
423 actual surface concentration of compound *i* to the maximum possible surface
424 concentration in the case of perfect particle-phase mixing. BMP is defined using an
425 effective reacto-diffusive length (Berkemeier et al., 2013). As a MP approaches zero,
426 a strong concentration gradient exists and the system is limited by diffusion; as MP
427 approaches unity, the system is well-mixed and limited by reaction.

428 In mass-transfer limited systems (indicated by a low SR), C_{g,i} distinguishes
429 between gas-phase diffusion limitation and accommodation limitation. C_{g,i} is defined
430 as the ratio of the concentration of compound *i* in the near-surface gas phase (one
431 mean free path away from the surface) to that in the gas phase far from the particle
432 (Pöschl et al., 2007):

$$433 \quad C_{g,i} = C_i^{gs} / C_i^g \quad (4)$$

434 As C_{g,i} approaches zero, the compound *i* exhibits a strong concentration gradient in
435 the gas phase and the system is classified as gas-phase diffusion limited (G_{gd} limiting
436 case); as C_{g,i} approaches unity, the system is designated as accommodation-limited
437 (G_α limiting case).

438 The gas-particle mixing parameter (GPMP) measures the extent to which the
 439 gas-particle system is in quasi-equilibrium and is defined as the ratio of equilibrium
 440 gas-phase mass concentration of compound i , $C_i^{g,eq}$, to gas-phase mass concentration,
 441 C_i^g (far from particle), which is equivalent to the ratio of particle-phase mass
 442 concentration, C_i^{PM} , to equilibrium particle-phase mass concentration, $C_i^{PM,eq}$:

$$443 \quad GPMP_i = C_i^{g,eq} / C_i^g = C_i^{PM} / C_i^{PM,eq} \quad (5)$$

444 $C_i^{g,eq}$ and $C_i^{PM,eq}$ can be calculated using an equilibrium partitioning theory (Pankow,
 445 1994; Donahue et al., 2006):

$$446 \quad C_i^{g,eq} = C_i^* C_i^{PM} / C_{Tot} \quad (6)$$

$$447 \quad C_i^{PM,eq} = C_i^g C_{Tot} / C_i^* \quad (7)$$

448 where C_i^* is the effective saturation mass concentration of compound i and C_{Tot} is the
 449 total particle mass concentration. In the case of ideal mixing, C_i^* is equal to the gas-
 450 phase saturation mass concentration over the pure subcooled liquid (C_i^0). Note that
 451 $C_i^{g,eq}$ can be regarded as a gas-phase mass concentration just above the particle
 452 surface, C_i^s , when Raoult's law is strictly obeyed and C_i^s is in equilibrium with the
 453 whole particle (i.e., usually the case for liquid particles).

454 The value of GPMP determines the extent to which SOA growth is controlled
 455 by quasi-equilibrium growth or mass transport limited growth. $C_i^g = C_i^{g,eq}$ (or $C_i^{PM} =$
 456 $C_i^{PM,eq}$) at gas-particle equilibrium. The particle still grows, if C_i^g changes slowly and
 457 $C_i^{g,eq}$ follows C_i^g instantaneously (quasi-equilibrium growth) (Shiraiwa and Seinfeld,
 458 2012; Zhang et al., 2012). If $C_i^g > C_i^{g,eq}$, compound i will diffuse from the gas to the
 459 particulate phase, driven by concentration or partial pressure gradient between the gas
 460 and particle phases (non-equilibrium or mass transport limited growth). Thus, the
 461 numerical interpretation of GMP is: 1) As GPMP approaches 0, SOA growth is
 462 limited kinetically by mass transport; 2) As GPMP approaches unity, SOA growth is
 463 in quasi-equilibrium and the system is subject to the gas-phase reaction limitation
 464 case G_{rx} (the system is limited only by the gas-phase formation rate).

465 Note that GPMP is small for the limiting cases of G_{bd} , G_α , and G_{gd} . In these
 466 limiting cases, SOA growth is still sensitive to the gas-phase formation rate (as it
 467 determines the gas-phase concentration), but is limited by interfacial transport, which
 468 comprises gas-phase diffusion, surface accommodation, and surface-to-bulk transport
 469 processes. Gas-phase diffusion and surface accommodation limitation can be
 470 differentiated from surface-to-bulk transport limitation either by SSR or by comparing
 471 surface (α_s) and bulk (α_b) accommodation coefficients, each of which is resolved by

472 KM-GAP. α_s is defined as the probability of a molecule sticking to the surface upon
473 collision, whereas α_b is defined as the respective probability of a molecule to enter the
474 bulk of the particle (Pöschl et al., 2007; Shiraiwa et al., 2012). If $\alpha_s \approx \alpha_b$, then
475 interfacial transport is not limited by surface-to-bulk exchange and thus is limited by
476 either gas-phase diffusion or surface accommodation; if $\alpha_s > \alpha_b$, then the interfacial
477 transport is limited by surface-to-bulk transport, (dissolution or bulk diffusion). For
478 additional discussion of accommodation vs. surface-bulk exchange see Appendix C in
479 Berkemeier et al. (2013).

480

481 **Appendix C. Examples of kinetic regimes and limiting cases**

482 Here we use KM-GAP to model condensation of a semi-volatile compound
483 generated by oxidation of a parent VOC. We assume that the parent VOC with an
484 initial concentration of 10^{10} cm^{-3} is converted to a semi-volatile product with a first-
485 order rate coefficient of 0.1 min^{-1} . Conversion of the first-generation product to higher
486 generation products and particle-phase reactions need not be considered. The initial
487 number and mass concentrations of non-volatile pre-existing particles are taken as 10^3
488 cm^{-3} and $0.1 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, respectively. The initial particle size distribution is assumed log-
489 normal with mean diameter of 50 nm and a standard deviation of 1.5. The required
490 kinetic parameters for the simulation are given in Table A2. Gas-phase diffusion
491 coefficient (D_g) of an oxidation product is varied between $0.01 - 0.05 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ (Bilde et
492 al., 2003; Bird et al., 2007). Surface accommodation coefficient ($\alpha_{s,0}$) and bulk
493 diffusion coefficient (D_b) are also varied to illustrate the different kinetic regimes and
494 limiting cases for SOA formation in the gas-phase regime.

495 Figure A2 shows the results of such simulation. The temporal evolution of
496 mass concentration of the parent VOC (black), the oxidation product in the gas phase
497 (C^g , solid blue), in the near-surface gas phase (C^{gs} , dotted blue), in the particle phase
498 (C^{PM} , red), and equilibrium gas-phase concentration ($C^{g,eq}$, dashed blue) are shown. In
499 the simulation presented in Figure A2a, SOA growth is limited by mass transfer,
500 namely gas-phase diffusion and accommodation (G^{mt} regime, lying between limiting
501 cases G_{gd} and G_a) up to ~ 10 s, indicated by a low surface saturation ratio (SSR) and a
502 low the gas-phase diffusion correction factor ($C_g = C^g / C^{gs} \approx 0.7$). The gas-phase
503 concentration gradient vanishes within ~ 10 s ($C^g \approx C^{gs}$), and as C^g continues to
504 increase due to the conversion of the parent VOC, $C^{g,eq}$ follows the change in C^g

505 essentially instantaneously and C^p increases. In this case, the gas-phase rate of
506 formation of the oxidation product controls particle growth corresponding to the
507 limiting case of G_{rx} (so-called quasi-equilibrium growth) (Shiraiwa and Seinfeld,
508 2012; Zhang et al., 2012).

509 In the simulation presented in Figure A2b with a relatively low surface
510 accommodation coefficient of 10^{-3} , a steep concentration gradient exhibits between
511 the gas phase and the particle surface ($C^g \approx C^{gs} > C^{g,eq}$) during SOA growth. The
512 system is limited by accommodation (G_a), as SSR is low but C_g is 1. Figure A2c
513 shows the corresponding results for particles in an amorphous semi-solid state with
514 the low bulk diffusion coefficient of $10^{-17} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$. In this case, particle growth is
515 limited by surface-to-bulk transport (G_{bd}), as SSR is high and GPMP is low. **Note that**
516 **GPMP refers to the gap between C^g and $C^{g,eq}$.** The bulk accommodation coefficient α_b
517 is $\sim 10^{-5}$, much smaller than the surface accommodation coefficient α_s . Sensitivity
518 studies with varying D_b reveal that when $D_b < \sim 10^{-15} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ the timescales for
519 surface-bulk exchange and bulk diffusion become longer than that of gas-phase
520 diffusion and accommodation (Shiraiwa and Seinfeld, 2012). From the Stokes-
521 Einstein relation, this value corresponds to a viscosity of $\sim 10^7 \text{ Pa s}$, which is on the
522 same order as the viscosity of α -pinene SOA at 40 % RH (Renbaum-Wolff et al.,
523 2013). Thus, SOA growth can be limited by bulk diffusion at low RH; whereas
524 surface accommodation becomes more important at high RH.

525 **Figure A2d shows the simulation for gas-phase formation and partitioning of low**
526 **volatility oxidation products ($C_0 = 10^{-3} \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) into liquid particles. SSR is low over**
527 **the course of particle growth, indicating persistence of a strong concentration gradient**
528 **between the gas phase and the particle surface. The gas-phase diffusion correction**
529 **factor (C_g) stays at 0.7 up to $\sim 10^3 \text{ s}$, indicating that near-surface gas phase**
530 **concentration $[Z]_{gs}$ is depleted by 30% compared to gas phase concentration $[Z]_g$ due**
531 **to rapid uptake and slow gas diffusion ($D_g = 0.01 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$). C_g decreases substantially**
532 **down to ~ 0.2 only when gas-phase formation ceases at $\sim 10^3 - 10^4 \text{ s}$. Overall, SOA**
533 **growth is limited by mass transfer (gas-phase diffusion and accommodation; G^{mt}**
534 **regime). When a very low bulk diffusivity is assumed ($D_b \approx 10^{-19} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$; figure not**
535 **shown), SSR is close to 1 and GPMP is very low during particle growth; thus the**
536 **system is limited by bulk diffusion (G_{bd}). Consequently, partitioning of low volatility**

537 compounds could be limited by bulk diffusion, when organic particles adopt
538 amorphous solid state (Shiraiwa and Seinfeld, 2012; Zaveri et al., 2014).

539

540 **Appendix D. Application to chamber data: Dodecane photooxidation**

541 Here we apply the classification scheme to experimental data on SOA
542 formation from oxidation of the C₁₂ alkane, dodecane (C₁₂H₂₈) in the Caltech
543 Environmental Chamber (Yee et al., 2012). 34 ppb dodecane was oxidized by OH
544 radicals over 20 hours in the presence of dry ammonium sulfate seed particles at low
545 concentrations of NO_x typical of nonurban conditions. KM-GAP was used to simulate
546 the evolution of SOA mass, the organic atomic oxygen-to-carbon (O:C) ratio, and
547 particle-size distribution in the chamber experiments (Shiraiwa et al., 2013a). In the
548 gas phase, SVOCs resulting from up to five generations of OH oxidation are
549 considered. Some of the fourth generation products have been established to be
550 multifunctional carbonyl compounds (aldehydes) that can react in the particle phase
551 with hydroperoxide, hydroxyl, and peroxy-carboxylic acid groups, forming
552 peroxyhemiacetal (PHA), hemiacetal, and acylperoxyhemiacetal, respectively
553 (Docherty et al., 2005; Yee et al., 2012; Ziemann and Atkinson, 2012). The observed
554 evolution of the particle size distribution is simulated successfully, only if such
555 particle-phase chemistry is included (Shiraiwa et al., 2013a).

556 Figure 5 shows the span of molar mass and gas-phase saturation
557 concentrations over the pure subcooled liquids (C_i^0) for gas-phase oxidation products
558 and particle-phase products of the dodecane system. The smaller symbols indicate
559 individual products predicted in the dodecane photooxidation chemical mechanism
560 (Yee et al., 2012) and the large solid circles indicate the surrogate compounds used in
561 the KM-GAP simulations (Shiraiwa et al., 2013a). Upon gas-phase multi-generation
562 oxidation, the volatility of SVOCs decreases from $\sim 10^6 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (dodecane) to $\sim 1 \mu\text{g}$
563 m^{-3} . The particle-phase products have significantly lower volatilities of $\sim 10^{-2} \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$.

564 Figures. A3a and b show the temporal evolution of mass concentration of the
565 1st and 5th generation oxidation products in the gas phase (C^g), at the particle surface
566 (C^s), and in the particle phase (C^{PM}). C^g is slightly higher than $C^{\text{g,eq}}$ up to ~ 5 h due to
567 continuous generation of oxidation products in the gas phase, and eventually reaching
568 $C^g \approx C^{\text{g,eq}}$ for both products (GMP ≈ 1). Note that mass concentration in the near
569 surface gas phase (C^{gs}) is identical to C^g , indicating that gas-phase diffusion is not a

570 limiting step. The same trend is seen for other generation products. Thus, the
571 contribution of gas-phase semi-volatile oxidation products to SOA formation is
572 limited by their formation in the gas phase, corresponding to the limiting case of G_{rx} .

573 Particle-phase products are formed by the reaction of reactive aldehydes with
574 SVOCs in the particle phase. Simulations suggest that this reaction occurs mainly at
575 the surface and in the near-surface bulk (Shiraiwa et al., 2013a). Aldehydes and
576 SVOCs are both saturated in the bulk (BSR is high). A strong concentration gradient
577 of aldehydes in the bulk is predicted, whereas SVOCs are predicted to be essentially
578 homogeneous in the bulk ($BMP_{XY} \approx 0.5$). Bulk reaction is tightly coupled with bulk
579 diffusion and the system falls into the reaction-diffusion regime (SB^{rd}), particularly
580 the traditional reacto-diffusive case (B^{rd}_{trad}) (Worsnop et al., 2002; Pöschl et al., 2007;
581 Kolb et al., 2010; Berkemeier et al., 2013).

582

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589

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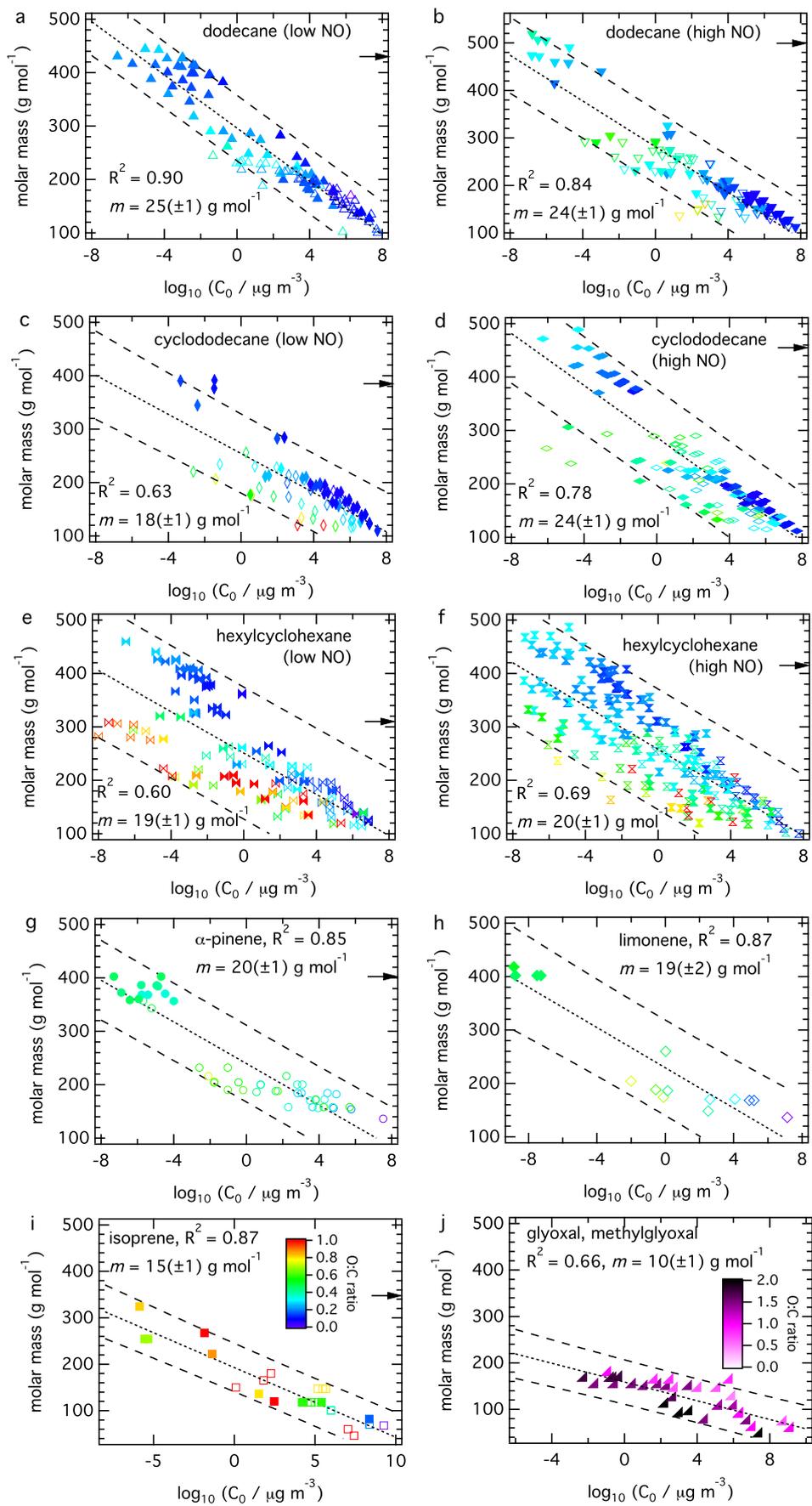
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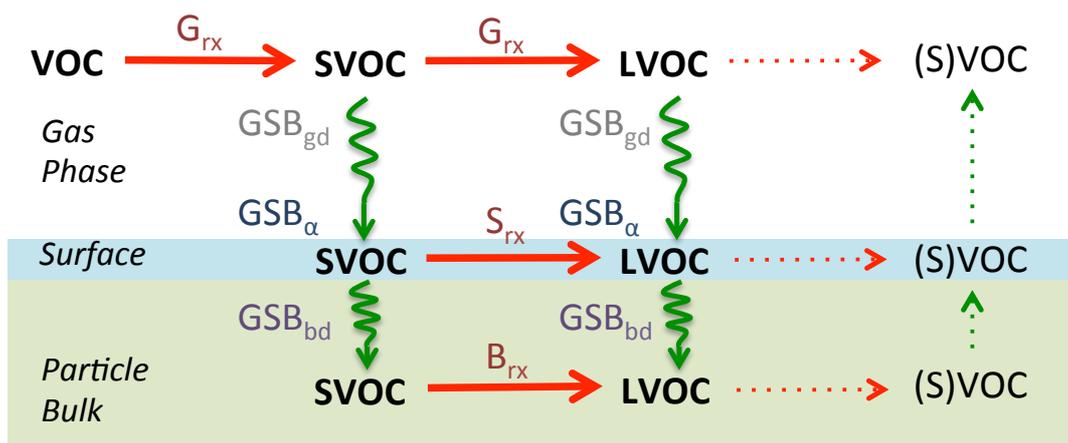
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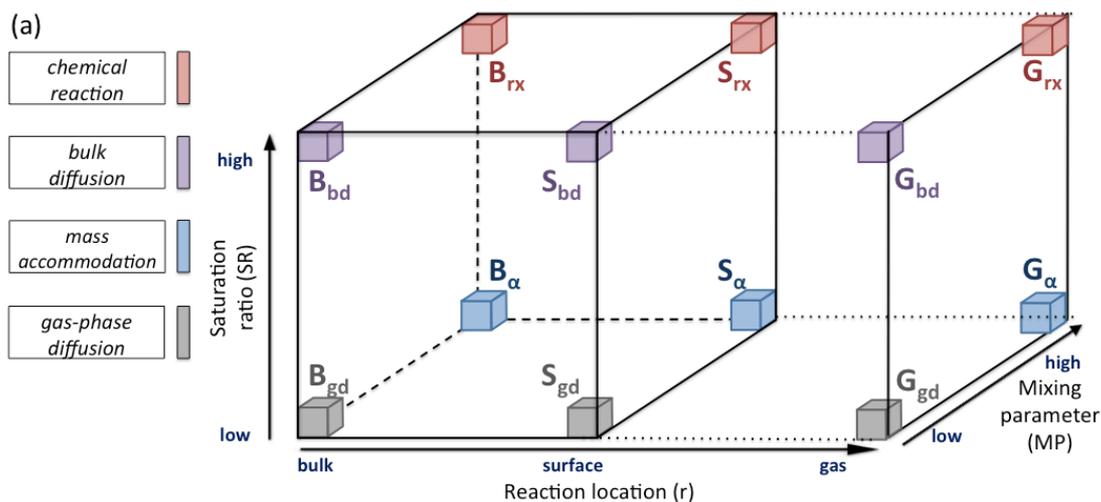


887 **Figure 1.** Molecular corridors of SOA evolution for different precursor compounds.
888 Molar mass vs. volatility (saturation mass concentration, C_0) at 298 K for oxidation
889 products of dodecane at low (a) and high (b) NO condition, cyclododecane at low (c)
890 and high (d) NO condition, and hexylcyclohexane at low (e) and high (f) NO
891 condition and isoprene (g), α -pinene (h), limonene (i), and glyoxal and methylglyoxal
892 (j). The open and solid markers correspond to the gas- and particle-phase products,
893 respectively, color-coded by atomic O:C ratio (note different color scale for panel j).
894 With a linear regression analysis, the coefficient of determination (R^2), fitted lines
895 (dotted lines) and their slopes (m), and prediction intervals with 95% confidence
896 (dashed lines) are shown. The arrows on the right axis indicate average molar mass
897 for isoprene and α -pinene (Kalberer et al., 2006) as well as for alkanes as measured in
898 this study.
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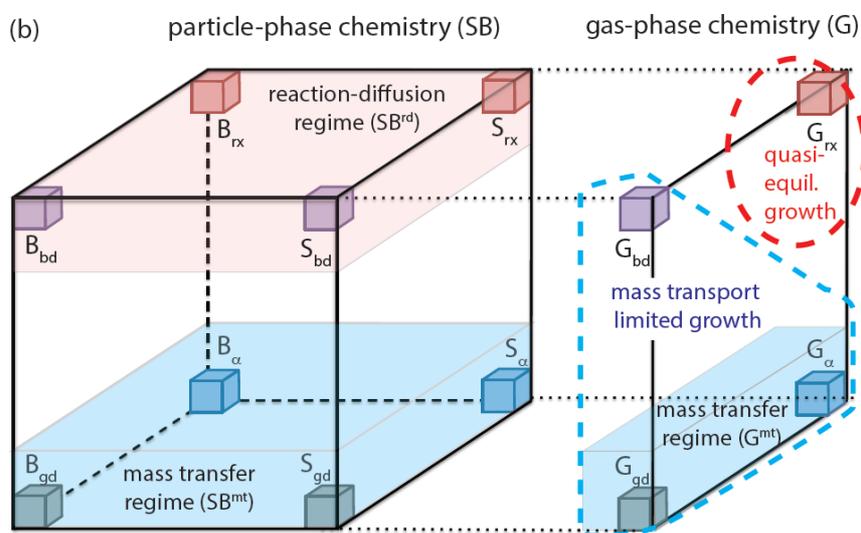


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901 **Figure 2.** Molecular processes of SOA evolution: schematic outline of formation and
 902 aging. Red and green arrows denote chemical reactions and mass transport,
 903 respectively. Sequential and parallel reactions in the gas phase, at the particle surface,
 904 and in the particle bulk lead to multiple generations of volatile, semi-volatile and low-
 905 volatile organic compounds (VOC, SVOC, LVOC). Dotted arrows denote
 906 revolatilization resulting from fragmentation reactions. Labels on arrows relate to
 907 kinetic regimes outlined in subsequent figure.

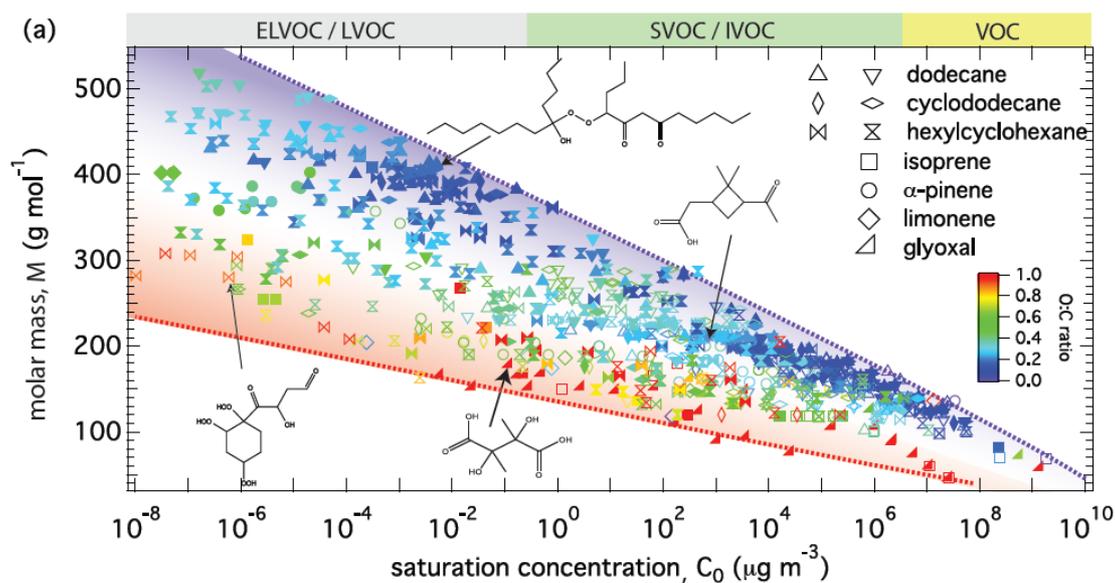


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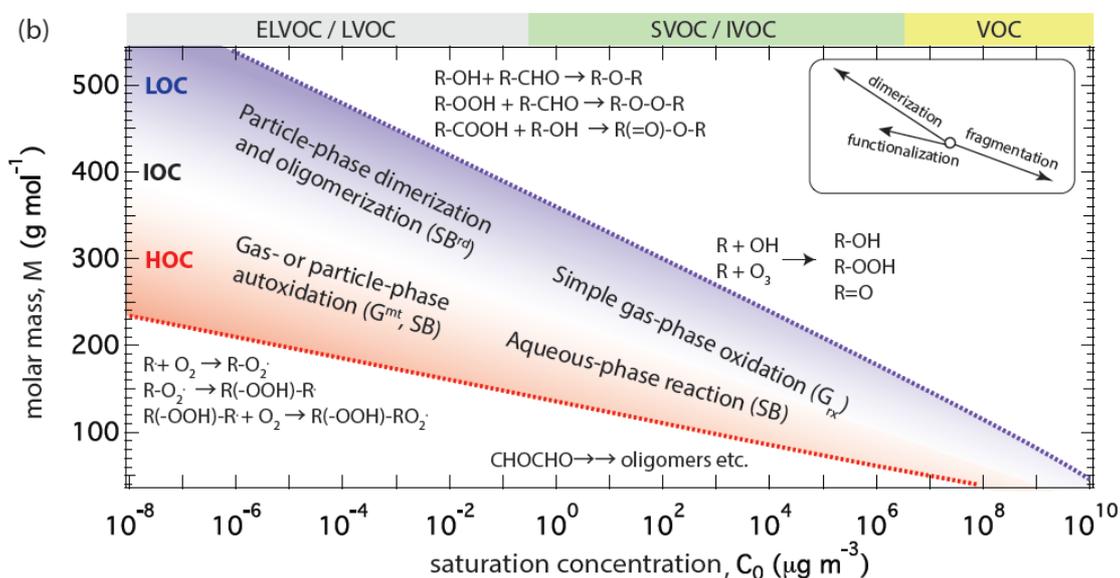


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910 **Figure 3.** Kinetic regimes and limiting cases of SOA evolution mapped onto the axes
 911 of a cuboid representing reaction location, saturation ratio, and mixing parameter. (a)
 912 Horizontal edges of the cuboid (left to right) correspond to four regimes governed by
 913 chemical reaction (“rx”, red), bulk diffusion (“bd”, purple), mass accommodation (“
 914 α ”, blue), or gas-phase diffusion (“gd”, grey). Each of these regimes includes three
 915 distinct limiting cases characterized by a single rate-limiting process and a dominant
 916 reaction location (particle bulk, B; surface, S; gas phase, G). (b) The left side of the
 917 cuboid can be regarded as a particle-phase chemistry regime (SB) and subdivided into
 918 a reaction-diffusion regime (SB^{rd}) and a mass transfer regime (SB^{mt}). The right side of
 919 the cuboid can be regarded as a gas-phase chemistry regime (G) and subdivided into a
 920 traditional scenario of “quasi-equilibrium growth” limited only by a gas phase
 921 reaction followed by quasi-instantaneous gas-particle partitioning (G_{rx}) and a mass-
 922 transport limited regime of “non-equilibrium growth” that may be kinetically limited
 923 by gas-to-particle mass transfer (G^{mt}) or diffusion in the particle (G_{bd}).



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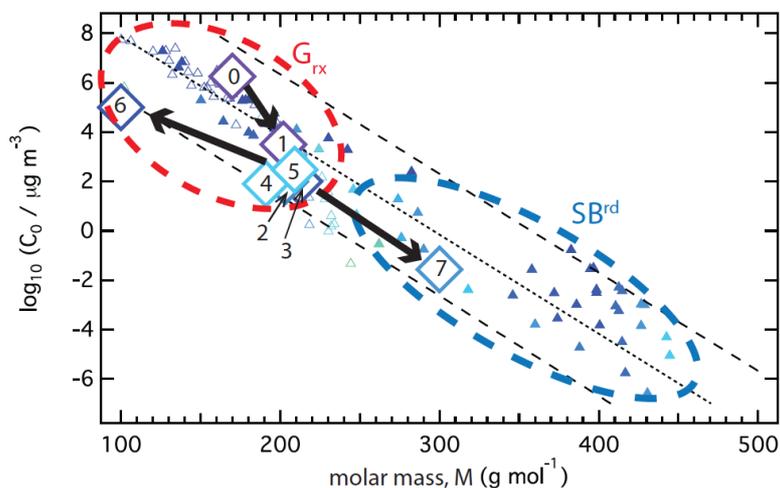
926 **Figure 4.** Ensemble of molecular corridors and kinetic regimes of SOA evolution. (a)
 927 Molar mass vs. volatility (C_0) at 298 K for gas-phase (open) and particle-phase (solid)
 928 oxidation products of anthropogenic precursors (dodecane, cyclododecane,
 929 hexylcyclohexane) under low/high NO conditions, biogenic precursors (α -pinene,
 930 limonene, isoprene) and aqueous-phase reaction products of glyoxal and
 931 methylglyoxal. The dotted lines represent linear alkanes C_nH_{2n+2} (purple with O:C =
 932 0) and sugar alcohols $C_nH_{2n+2}O_n$ (red with O:C = 1). Chemical structures of some
 933 representative products are shown. (b) Characteristic reaction pathways with most
 934 probable kinetic regimes. Molecular corridors consists of high, intermediate and low
 935 O:C corridors (HOC, red shaded area; IOC, white area; LOC, blue shaded area). SOA
 936 products evolve over the molecular corridor driven by three key reaction types of

937 functionalization, oligomerization and fragmentation as illustrated in the insert (note
938 different lengths of arrows indicating different intensities of effects on volatility).

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943 **Figure 5.** Evolution of reaction pathways over the molecular corridor of dodecane
944 SOA under low NO condition. The large diamonds indicate the surrogate compounds
945 used in the KM-GAP simulations (Appendix D; Shiraiwa et al., 2013a), including the
946 precursor (dodecane, 0), 1st – 5th generations of surrogate products of gas-phase
947 oxidation (1-5), gas-phase fragmentation (aldehydes, 6), and particle-phase
948 dimerization products (7). The smaller symbols indicate identified individual products
949 (as shown in Fig. 1a).

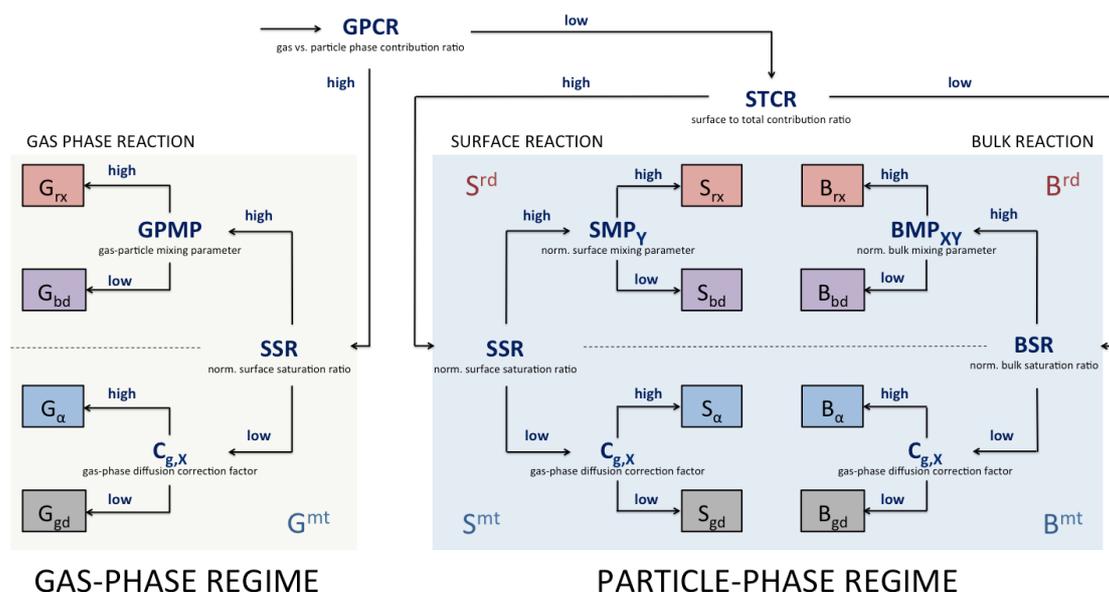
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951 **Table 1.** Summary of analysis of identified SOA oxidation products. Number of
 952 identified oxidation products N , average molar mass M_{ave} , negative slope ($-$
 953 $dM/d\log C_0$) of fitted lines in Fig. 2 of molar mass vs. logarithm of volatility,
 954 coefficients of determination R^2 as well as R^2 for O:C vs. logarithm of volatility

precursor	N	M_{ave} (g mol ⁻¹)	$-dM/d\log C_0$ (g mol ⁻¹)	R^2 (molar mass)	R^2 (O:C)
dodecane, low NO	116	429	25(±1)	0.90	0.22
dodecane, high NO	106	495	24(±1)	0.84	0.29
cyclododecane, low NO	77	384	18(±1)	0.63	0.08
cyclododecane, high NO	122	458	24(±1)	0.78	0.08
hexylcyclohexane, low NO	137	310	19(±1)	0.60	0.05
hexylcyclohexane, high NO	230	418	20(±1)	0.69	0.00
α-pinene	47	400*	20(±1)	0.85	0.13
limonene	17	-	19(±2)	0.87	0.38
isoprene	29	350*	15(±1)	0.87	0.09
glyoxal, methylglyoxal	35	-	10(±1)	0.66	0.16

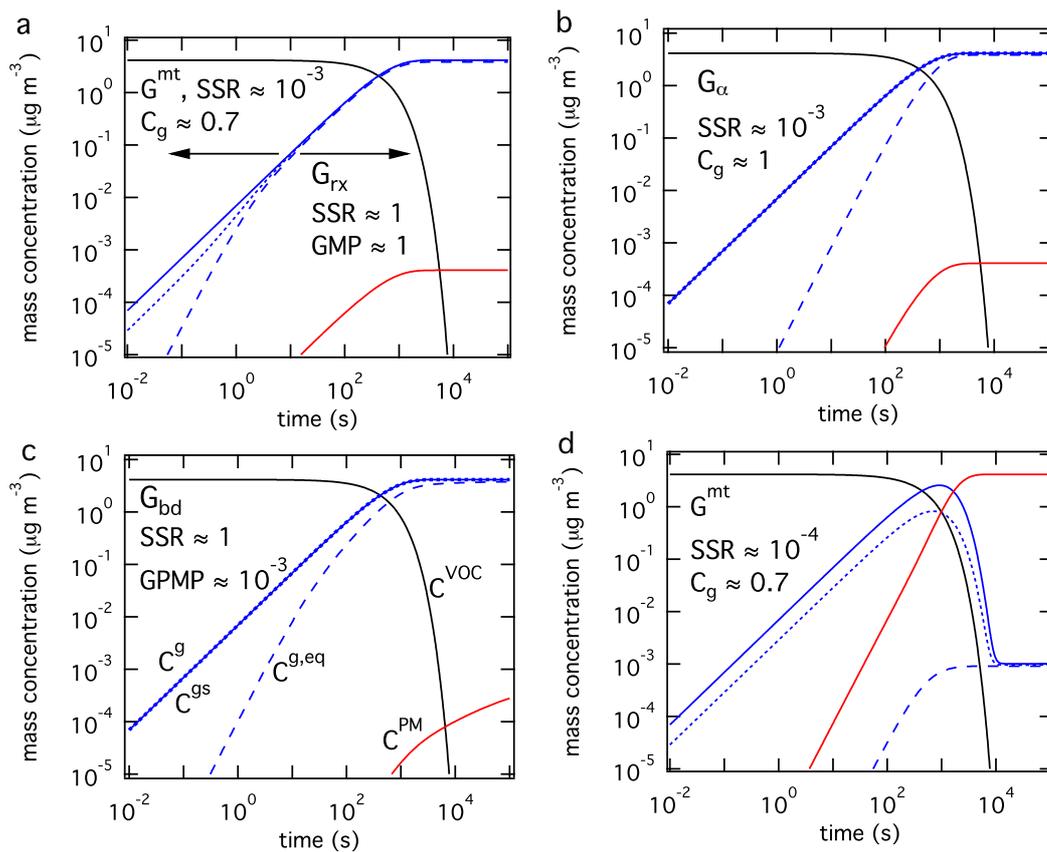
955 * (Kalberer et al., 2006)

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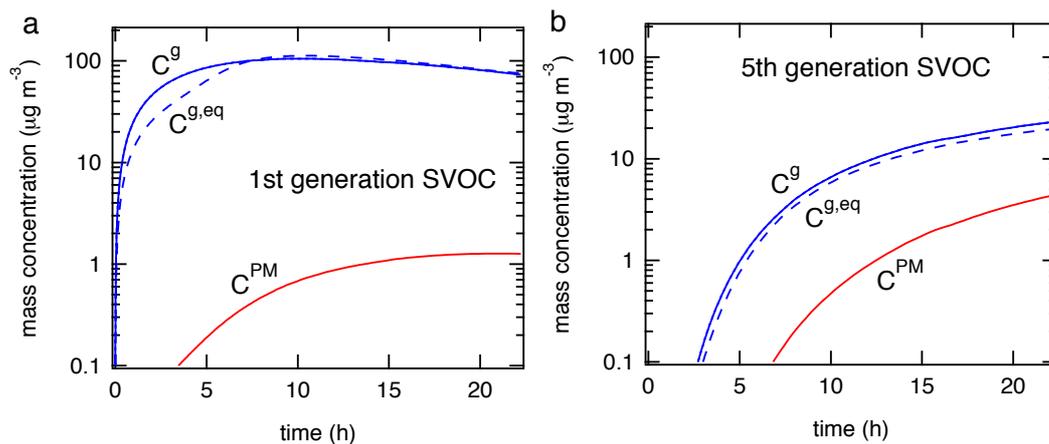
958 **Figure A1.** Decision tree for classification and distinction of limiting cases for
 959 multiphase chemical evolution of SOA. The classification is based on: 1) the location
 960 of the reaction leading to its formation, 2) its saturation ratio, and 3) its mixing
 961 parameter to assess the heterogeneity in the gas and particle phases. The resulting
 962 limiting cases are shown in the small boxes with reaction location in the gas phase
 963 (G), at the surface (S) and in the bulk (B) and limiting processes of chemical reaction
 964 (rx), bulk diffusion (bd), mass accommodation (α), and gas-phase diffusion (gd).



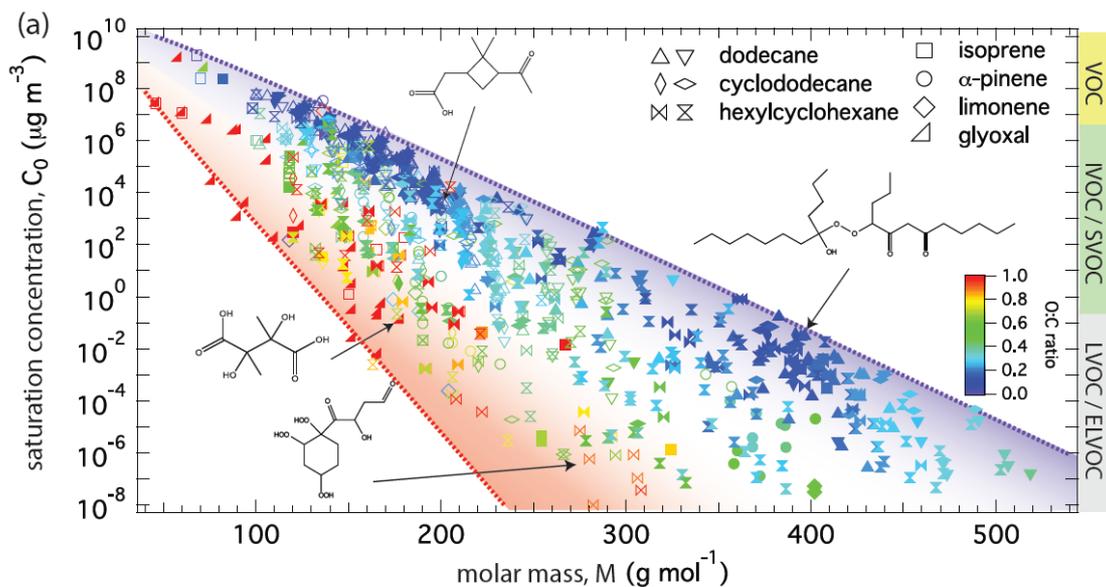
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966 **Figure A2.** Temporal evolution of mass concentration of the hypothesized VOC
 967 oxidation product in the gas phase (solid blue), in the near-surface gas phase (dotted
 968 blue), in the particle phase (red), and equilibrium gas-phase concentration (dashed
 969 blue). The gas-phase mass concentration of the parent VOC is shown by the black
 970 line. For semi-volatile oxidation products with $C^* = 10^3 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, SOA growth is
 971 limited by (a) gas-phase reaction (G_{rx}), (b) accommodation (G_{α}), and (c) bulk
 972 diffusion (G_{bd}). **Panel (d) shows an exemplary simulation for LVOCs with $C^* = 10^3$**
 973 **$\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ exhibiting kinetic limitation in the gas-particle mass transfer regime (G^{mt}).**

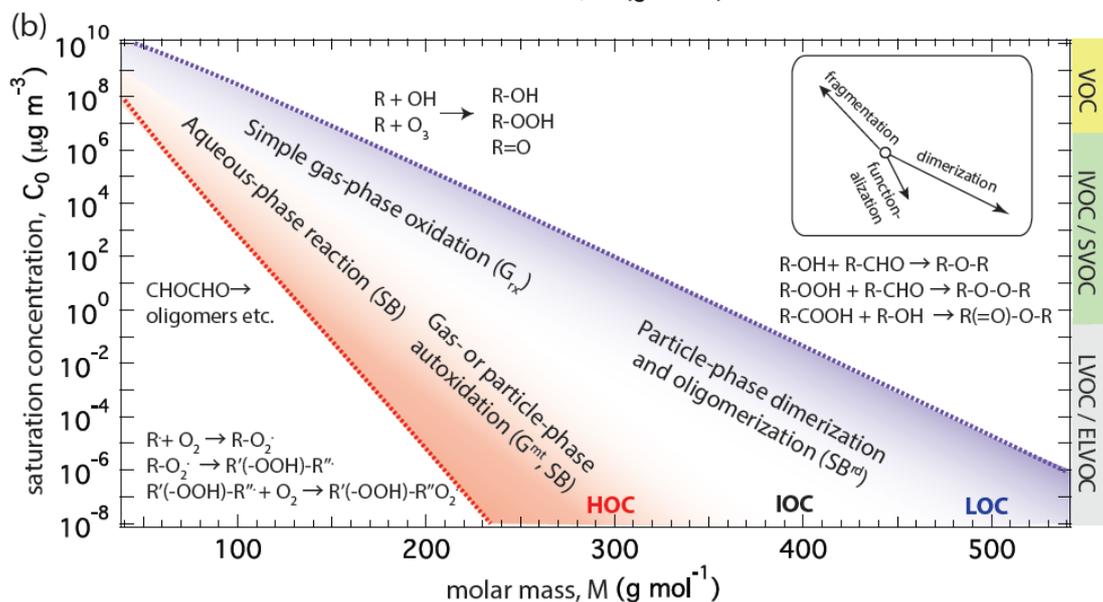
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 976 **Figure A3.** Modeling SOA formation from dodecane photooxidation. Temporal
 977 evolution of mass concentration of the (a) 1st and (b) 5th generation products in the
 978 gas (solid blue) and particle phases (red) and equilibrium gas-phase mass
 979 concentration (dashed blue).



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981

982 **Figure A4.** Alternative representation of molecular corridors (Fig. 4) displaying
 983 volatility (C_0) as a function of molar mass, which appears more straightforward to use
 984 and interpret in mechanistic studies (see Fig. 5) and for direct comparison to mass
 985 spectra. Volatility decreases as molar mass increases from left to right, and the slope
 986 $\text{dlog}C_0/\text{d}M$ is steeper for molecules with higher O:C ratio and polarity due to stronger
 987 hydrogen bonding and evaporation enthalpy.

988

989 **Table A1.** Experimental conditions in studies identifying oxidation products as
 990 included in Figures 1 and 4.

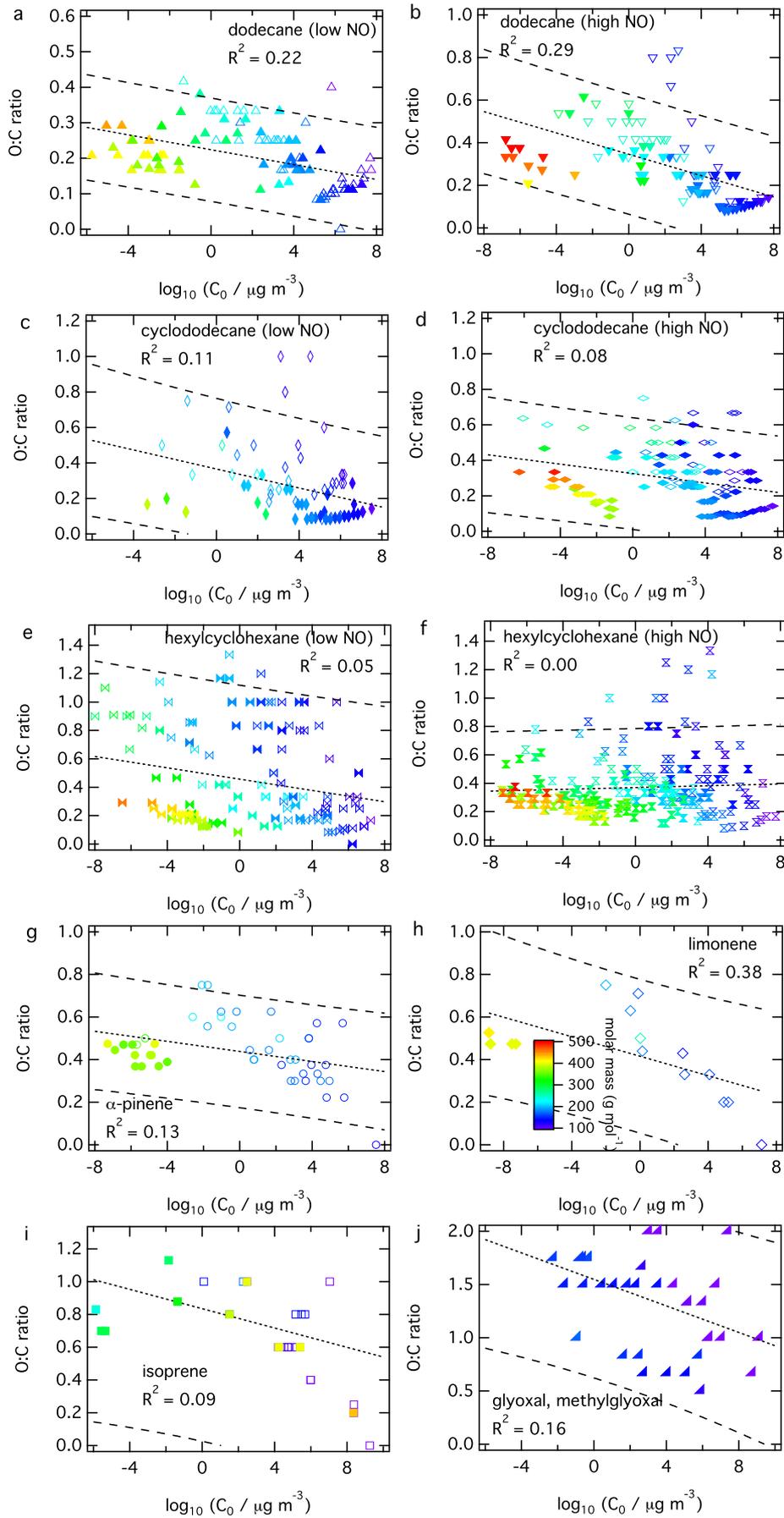
	study	oxidants	NO	seed
dodecane		OH	low / high	(NH ₄) ₂ SO ₄
cyclododecane	this study, Schilling-Fahnestock et al., 2014	OH	low / high	(NH ₄) ₂ SO ₄
hexylcyclohexane		OH	low / high	(NH ₄) ₂ SO ₄
α-pinene	Docherty et al 2005	O ₃	low	no seed
	Claeys et al., 2007	OH	high	no seed
	Claeys et al., 2009	OH, O ₃	high / low	(NH ₄) ₂ SO ₄ , H ₂ SO ₄ , MgSO ₄
	Kahnt et al., 2014	O ₃	high	(NH ₄) ₂ SO ₄ , H ₂ SO ₄
	Kristensen et al., 2014	OH, O ₃	high	(NH ₄) ₂ SO ₄ , H ₂ SO ₄ , MgSO ₄
	Zuend & Seinfeld, 2012	O ₃	low	(NH ₄) ₂ SO ₄
limonene	Jaoui et al., 2006	OH, O ₃	high	no seed
	Kundu et al., 2012	O ₃	low	no seed
isoprene	Surratt et al., 2006	OH	high / low	(NH ₄) ₂ SO ₄ , H ₂ SO ₄ , no seed
	Surratt et al., 2010	OH	high / low	(NH ₄) ₂ SO ₄ , H ₂ SO ₄ , no seed
	Lin et al., 2012	OH	high	no seed
	Lin et al., 2013	OH	low	(NH ₄) ₂ SO ₄ , H ₂ SO ₄ , MgSO ₄

991

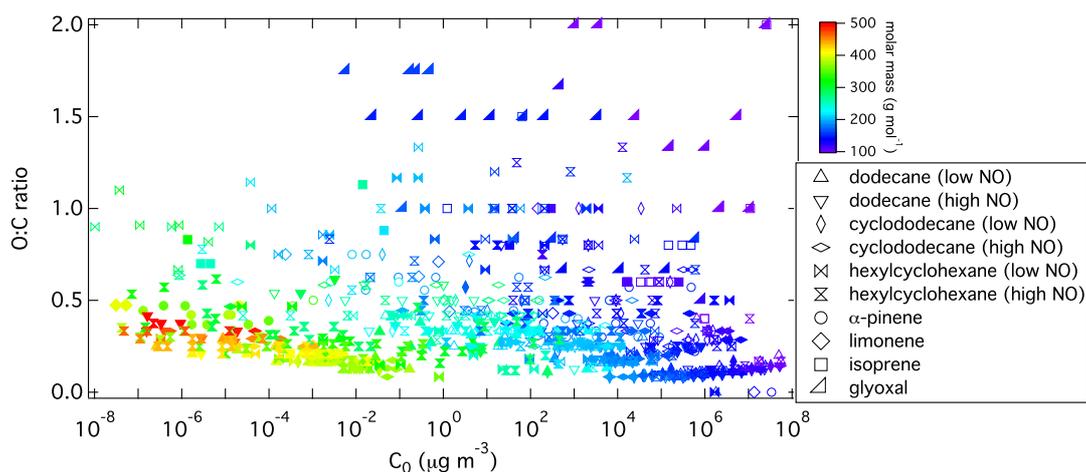
992 **Table A2.** Properties and kinetic parameters of the VOC oxidation product used in
 993 the simulations for SOA growth.

Parameter (Unit)	Description	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
$\alpha_{s,0}$	surface accommodation coefficient	1	10 ⁻³	1	1
τ_d (s)	desorption lifetime	10 ⁻⁶	10 ⁻⁶	10 ⁻⁶	10 ⁻⁶
C_0 (μg m ⁻³)	saturation mass concentration	10 ³	10 ³	10 ³	10 ⁻³
D_b (cm ² s ⁻¹)	bulk diffusion coefficient	10 ⁻⁵	10 ⁻⁵	10 ⁻¹⁷	10 ⁻⁵
D_g (cm ² s ⁻¹)	gas-phase diffusion coefficient	0.01	0.05	0.05	0.01
k_g (min ⁻¹)	first-order gas-phase reaction rate coefficient	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1

994



996 **Figure S1.** Atomic O:C ratio vs. volatility (C_0) at 298 K for oxidation products of
997 dodecane at low (a) and high (b) NO condition, cyclododecane at low (c) and high (d)
998 NO condition, and hexylcyclohexane at low (e) and high (f) NO condition and
999 isoprene (g), α -pinene (h), limonene (i), and glyoxal and methylglyoxal (j). The solid
1000 and open markers, color-coded with molar mass (g mol^{-1}), correspond to the gas- and
1001 particle-phase products, respectively. With a linear regression analysis, the correlation
1002 between both quantities has been evaluated (dotted lines) with coefficients of
1003 determination (R^2), including prediction intervals at the 95 % confidence level
1004 (dashed lines).



1010
1011 **Figure S2.** Summary of O:C ratio vs. C_0 for dodecane, cyclododecane,
1012 hexylcyclohexane, α -pinene, limonene, isoprene, and glyoxal. The solid and open
1013 markers, color-coded with molar mass (g mol^{-1}), correspond to the gas- and particle-
1014 phase products, respectively.