

DRIFTS and Knudsen  
cell study

M. Ullerstam et al.

# DRIFTS and Knudsen cell study of the heterogeneous reactivity of SO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> on mineral dust

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Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Print Version

Interactive Discussion

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## Abstract

The heterogeneous oxidation of SO<sub>2</sub> by NO<sub>2</sub> on mineral dust was studied using Diffuse Reflectance Infrared Fourier Transform Spectroscopy (DRIFTS) and a Knudsen cell. This made it possible to characterise, kinetically, both the formation of sulfate and nitrate as surface products and the gas phase loss of the reactive species. The gas phase loss rate was determined to be first order in both SO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub>. From the DRIFTS experiment the uptake coefficient,  $\gamma$ , for the formation of sulfate was determined to be of the order of 10<sup>-10</sup> using the BET area as the reactive surface area. No significant formation of sulfate was seen in the absence of NO<sub>2</sub>. The Knudsen cell study gave uptake coefficients of the order of 10<sup>-6</sup> and 10<sup>-7</sup> for SO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub>, respectively. There was no significant difference in uptake when SO<sub>2</sub> or NO<sub>2</sub> were introduced individually compared to experiments in which SO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> were present at the same time.

## 1. Introduction

Particulate matter present in the Earth's atmosphere provides reactive surfaces for heterogeneous chemistry. A large contribution to the tropospheric aerosol budget is mineral aerosol that originates from arid and semi-arid areas. The annual flux of mineral aerosol to the atmosphere is estimated to be between 1000 and 3000 Tg, and with changes in precipitation patterns and land use, the emissions of mineral aerosol may increase substantially which would increase their importance in the atmosphere (Dentener et al., 1996; Tegen and Fung, 1994; Zhang and Carmichael, 1999). Atmospheric aerosol particles are known to affect radiative transfer by scattering and absorbing light and they can also influence the optical properties of clouds. Understanding interactions between the gas and the condensed phase is important because these processes may influence the photochemical oxidation capacity of the atmosphere as well as changing aerosol composition and size distribution (Dentener et al., 1996; Galy-Lacaux et al.,

## DRIFTS and Knudsen cell study

M. Ullerstam et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Print Version

Interactive Discussion

---

**DRIFTS and Knudsen  
cell study**M. Ullerstam et al.

---

[Title Page](#)[Abstract](#)[Introduction](#)[Conclusions](#)[References](#)[Tables](#)[Figures](#)[◀](#)[▶](#)[◀](#)[▶](#)[Back](#)[Close](#)[Full Screen / Esc](#)[Print Version](#)[Interactive Discussion](#)

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2001; Martin et al., 2003; Zhang and Carmichael, 1999). Recent modeling work has shown how aerosols modify the chemical properties of the atmosphere, decreasing the photolysis rate of ozone and the concentration of HO<sub>x</sub>, increasing the concentration of CO, and producing HNO<sub>3</sub> from NO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>3</sub> (Martin et al., 2003).

5 Field measurements of the chemical composition of aerosol particles in East Asia show strong correlations between nitrate and non-sea-salt calcium (i.e. the mineral aerosol fraction) (Carmichael et al., 1996; Nishikawa et al., 1991; Zhang et al., 2000). Such a correlation, while not as strong, is also seen for non-sea-salt sulfate and mineral aerosol (Carmichael et al., 1996; Nishikawa et al., 1991; Zhang et al., 2000).  
10 The observed correlations could be caused by surface reactions of sulfur and nitrogen species. An indication that particles originating from soil are more likely to contain a mixture of sulfate and nitrate than other kinds of particles has also been found (Zhang et al., 2000).

15 However, large uncertainties remain concerning the effect of chemical composition and surface properties on heterogeneous reaction kinetics.

In the present study, the heterogeneous reaction of SO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> on mineral dust was investigated using the Knudsen cell and Diffuse Reflectance Infrared Fourier Transform Spectroscopy (DRIFTS) techniques. Mineral dust samples from the Cape Verde Islands, located off Mauritania and Senegal on the west coast of Africa, were  
20 used for the experiments. The mineral dust consists of a < 20 μm diameter fraction and has a BET surface area of 5 × 10<sup>5</sup> cm<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup>. The samples are representative of mineral dust from the Saharan desert and the main content of the samples is quartz and potassium feldspars (Desboeufs et al., 1999; Rognon et al., 1996).

## 2. Experimental

### 2.1. Knudsen cell experiments

A Knudsen cell was used for the analysis of loss from the gas phase due to surface reactions or adsorption. The Knudsen cell reactor consists of a chamber with an isolated sample compartment and a small orifice through which gas phase reactant and product species can escape to be detected by mass spectrometry. To assure molecular flow, the mean free path must be at least a factor of 10 greater than the diameter of the exit orifice, which was maintained by a low pressure in the cell (Golden et al., 1973). The Knudsen reactor setup has previously been described (Monster et al., 2002). The reaction chamber is a 6-way ISO 100 cross sealed with Viton O-rings, which is connected to a quadrupole mass spectrometer (Leda Mass). Inside the reactor a plunger makes it possible to either cover or expose the sample holder. To minimize wall reactions the reactor walls were passivated with a coating of Teflon. The temperature of the sample holder can be controlled from 233 to 373 K using a Peltier cooler and a cryofluid pump. The design of the gas system makes it possible to introduce the reactive gases in two ways, either through a pulsed valve or as a continuous flow through needle valves. The pulsed valve is a solenoid valve (General Valve P/N 009-1562-900) with a 0.8 millimetre orifice, and can generate pulses from a few hundred microseconds to several hours at a repetition rate of up to 2500 Hz. The use of a pulsed valve in combination with a Knudsen cell was first described by Tabor et al. (1994). The system uses a dual needle valve (Nupro) to regulate the gas flow in the steady state mode.

The dust samples were applied to the sample holder using an atomizer containing a water suspension of the mineral dust. The aerosol is sprayed onto the sample holder which was preheated to 373 K. This procedure enables the formation of a thin uniform surface of the mineral dust. The sample was kept in the evacuated reaction chamber at 333 K for 1h prior to experiments. This treatment has been shown to give a reproducible reactivity, and removes excess water from the sample (Ullerstam et al., 2002). After the system was cooled to room temperature the plunger was lowered and the sample was

## DRIFTS and Knudsen cell study

M. Ullerstam et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Print Version

Interactive Discussion

---

**DRIFTS and Knudsen  
cell study**M. Ullerstam et al.

---

[Title Page](#)[Abstract](#)[Introduction](#)[Conclusions](#)[References](#)[Tables](#)[Figures](#)[◀](#)[▶](#)[◀](#)[▶](#)[Back](#)[Close](#)[Full Screen / Esc](#)[Print Version](#)[Interactive Discussion](#)

© EGU 2003

covered. A fresh mixture of the reactive gases with known concentration was made before every experiment and was introduced into the chamber either as a pulse or as a steady state flow. Parameters for the Knudsen reaction chamber can be found in Table 1.

- 5  $\text{NO}_2$  (>98%, Hede Nielsen) and  $\text{SO}_2$  (99.9%, Gerling Holtz and Company) were used for the Knudsen cell experiments.

## 2.2. Experiments using the DRIFTS technique

The DRIFTS technique was used to analyse the surface reactions. Infrared spectra were recorded in the spectral range from 4000 to 600  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  with a Bruker Equinox 55  
10 FTIR spectrometer equipped with a mercury cadmium telluride (MCT) detector and DRIFTS optics (model DRA-2CO, Harrick Scientific Corp.). General features of the setup have previously been described (Borensen et al., 2000; Ullerstam et al., 2002). Spectra were recorded at a resolution of 4  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  and 100 scans were averaged for each spectrum resulting in a time resolution of 1 min. The dust samples were prepared as a  
15 water suspension on glass plates, with dimensions of 9 × 9  $\text{mm}^2$  followed by drying in an oven (10 min, 333 K). The reaction chamber was flushed with He carrier gas while the sample was kept at 333 K for 1 h at a pressure of 4.5 mbar before an experiment was started. Spectra were collected as difference spectra with the unreacted dust as the background, thus surface products appear as positive bands while losses of  
20 surface species give rise to negative bands. Surface reactants were quantified by ion chromatography using a Dionex DX 120 system, equipped with a Dionex AS 14 analytical column and a conductivity detector (CD 20) with detection stabilizer. A more detailed description of the analysis is available (Ullerstam et al., 2002).

25  $\text{NO}_2$  for the DRIFTS experiments was synthesized from the reaction between NO (>99.5%, Messer-Griesheim) and  $\text{O}_2$  (>99.998%, Messer-Griesheim).  $\text{SO}_2$  (>99.98%, Messer-Griesheim) was diluted with He before use.

### 3. Results

#### 3.1. Observed products

The unexposed dust sample is used to collect a background spectrum and therefore both positive and negative features were observed in the subsequent spectra. Investigations were made in which mineral dust was reacted just with NO<sub>2</sub>, or with SO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> simultaneously using the DRIFTS technique. When only NO<sub>2</sub> was added a number of absorption bands were observed, as can be seen in Fig. 1a. The most prominent positive features are two bands between 1500 and 1300 cm<sup>-1</sup> which can be assigned to the degenerate asymmetric stretch vibration of the nitrate ion (Borensen et al., 2000; Hadjiivanov et al., 1994; Nakamoto, 1997; Underwood et al., 1999). The splitting of the ν<sub>3</sub> vibration is due to an interaction with the surface, resulting in a reduced symmetry for the nitrate species. The nitrate ion can coordinate to a metal as a unidentate, chelating bidentate or bridging bidentate ligand. It is difficult to distinguish between these possibilities since the symmetry differs very little (Nakamoto, 1997). At lower wavenumbers at the end of the nitrate band at 1250 cm<sup>-1</sup> there is a smaller positive band that may be assigned to the asymmetric stretch of nitrite (Borensen et al., 2000; Hadjiivanov et al., 1994). Both nitrate and nitrite ions are found in the ion chromatography analysis. A small negative band is also present at 1650 cm<sup>-1</sup> indicating loss of surface species originating from surface-adsorbed water (Nakamoto, 1997). This loss of water during the reaction is also seen as a negative band in the area around 3200 cm<sup>-1</sup>. The loss of different types of free OH groups at the surface is evidenced as a small negative band at 3700 cm<sup>-1</sup> (not shown in figure) (Tsyganenko and Mardilovich, 1996). When SO<sub>2</sub> is introduced simultaneously with NO<sub>2</sub> the bands of nitrate are still dominant, especially when the ratio of SO<sub>2</sub> to NO<sub>2</sub> is low, cf. Fig. 1b. However at higher ratios the bands of sulfur species become evident. The small narrow band at 1330 cm<sup>-1</sup> on the top of the broader nitrate band is due to physisorbed SO<sub>2</sub> (Chang, 1978; Datta et al., 1985; Deo and Dalla Lana, 1971; Goodman et al., 2001; Nakamoto, 1997; Ullerstam et al., 2002). The nitrate band is also to some extent distorted and the nitrite band is superimposed

## DRIFTS and Knudsen cell study

M. Ullerstam et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Print Version

Interactive Discussion

---

**DRIFTS and Knudsen  
cell study**


---

M. Ullerstam et al.

---

[Title Page](#)
[Abstract](#)
[Introduction](#)
[Conclusions](#)
[References](#)
[Tables](#)
[Figures](#)
[◀](#)
[▶](#)
[◀](#)
[▶](#)
[Back](#)
[Close](#)
[Full Screen / Esc](#)
[Print Version](#)
[Interactive Discussion](#)

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on the band of surface bound sulfate at  $1240\text{ cm}^{-1}$  (Meyer et al., 1980; Schoonheydt and Lunsford, 1972; Ullerstam et al., 2002; Usher et al., 2002). The loss of free OH groups is larger when  $\text{SO}_2$  is present which indicates that  $\text{SO}_2$  is adsorbed to these free OH groups while  $\text{NO}_2$  may adsorb on other reactive sites as well. A broad band at  $2450\text{ cm}^{-1}$  during exposure to  $\text{SO}_2$  also indicates some formation of hydrogen sulfite (Meyer et al., 1980; Nakamoto, 1997). Subtraction of the nitrate features in the spectra derived from experiments with both  $\text{SO}_2$  and  $\text{NO}_2$  present, using the pure  $\text{NO}_2$  experiment as a reference, results in a spectrum with a band around  $1280\text{ cm}^{-1}$  (Fig. 1c) which is assigned to the sulfate band although shifted  $40\text{ cm}^{-1}$  relative to the band of surface bound sulfate. The peak at  $1330\text{ cm}^{-1}$  is due to physisorbed  $\text{SO}_2$  which is not subtracted. A similar procedure was made to subtract the sulfate band revealing the nitrate features between  $1500$  and  $1300\text{ cm}^{-1}$  which can be seen in Fig. 2c. The reference spectra (a) in Fig. 2 with features of physisorbed  $\text{SO}_2$  and  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  were obtained from an earlier experiment with the same substrate (Ullerstam et al., 2002). Weak features below  $1000\text{ cm}^{-1}$  may not be detectable due to the low signal-to-noise ratio in this region.

### 3.2. Kinetics, Knudsen cell

The total uptake coefficient ( $\gamma_{\text{total}}$ ) is defined as the fraction of collisions with the surface that results in loss of the molecule from the gas phase divided by the total number of surface collisions per unit time. From the Knudsen experiments this can be calculated from the first order rate constant of the uptake ( $k_f$ ), the collision frequency ( $Z$ ) and the reactive surface area ( $A_s$ ).

$$\gamma_{\text{total}} = \frac{k_f}{Z \times A_s} \quad (1)$$

$$Z = \sqrt{\frac{8 \times R \times T}{\pi \times M}} \times \frac{1}{4V}, \quad (2)$$

---

**DRIFTS and Knudsen  
cell study**

 M. Ullerstam et al.
 

---

[Title Page](#)
[Abstract](#)
[Introduction](#)
[Conclusions](#)
[References](#)
[Tables](#)
[Figures](#)
[◀](#)
[▶](#)
[◀](#)
[▶](#)
[Back](#)
[Close](#)
[Full Screen / Esc](#)
[Print Version](#)
[Interactive Discussion](#)

© EGU 2003

where  $R$  is the gas constant ( $\text{J mol}^{-1} \text{K}^{-1}$ ),  $T$  is the temperature (K) and  $V$  is the volume of the reactor ( $\text{m}^3$ ).

The data treatment of the first order rate constant ( $k_f$ ) depends on whether the reactive gases are introduced as a pulse or as a steady state flow. In an experiment with pulsed flow the decay rate is measured with and without the sample covered. The decay is equal to the lifetime of the gas in the chamber which is the inverse of the loss rate,  $k = 1/\tau$ . Experiments are performed with the sample holder covered or open.

$$k_{Kc} = k_e \quad (3)$$

$$k_{Kc+s} = k_e + k_u. \quad (4)$$

Here  $Kc$  signifies Knudsen cell;  $e$ , escape;  $u$ , uptake and  $s$ , sample exposed. Rearranging gives,

$$k_u = k_{Kc} + sk_{Kc}. \quad (5)$$

Thus  $k_u$  in Eq. (5) is equal to the first order rate ( $k_f$ ) in Eq. (1) and no knowledge of the theoretical value of  $k_e$  is necessary. The value  $k_e$  is the theoretical escape rate for the specific gas and aperture.

$$k_e = Z \times A_h, \quad (6)$$

where  $A_h$  is the area of the escape aperture, corrected for the limitation to the flow caused by the nonzero length of the aperture.

For a steady state flow experiment, the first order rate is obtained by measuring the relative intensity of the signal before ( $S_0$ ) and during ( $S_R$ ) the exposure of the sample according to Eq. (7).

$$k_f = k_e \left( \frac{S_0}{S_R} - 1 \right). \quad (7)$$

To study the dependence of the uptake coefficient on sample mass, using the geometric area (projected surface) as the effective surface area, a number of experiments with



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**DRIFTS and Knudsen  
cell study**M. Ullerstam et al.

---

different sample mass but constant concentration of SO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> were performed; the results are shown in Fig. 3. This was done to ensure that experiments were conducted in the linear mass regime where the entire sample participates in the reaction and the BET surface area can be used as the reactive surface area (Grassian, 2002; Underwood et al., 2000). These experiments were made with a pulsed flow where each pulse contained  $2.7 \times 10^{11}$  and  $1.7 \times 10^{11}$  molecules of SO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub>, respectively. An example of a typical experiment is shown in Fig. 4. The resulting uptake coefficient for SO<sub>2</sub> was determined to be  $(1.6 \pm 0.1) \times 10^{-5}$  using the BET area as the reactive surface area.

A number of experiments were carried out using a constant concentration of NO<sub>2</sub> while the concentration of SO<sub>2</sub> was varied, to study the uptake coefficient of SO<sub>2</sub> in the presence of NO<sub>2</sub>. Another set of experiments was made with different concentrations of NO<sub>2</sub> but constant concentration of SO<sub>2</sub> to obtain the uptake coefficient of NO<sub>2</sub> in the presence of SO<sub>2</sub>. A typical experiment is shown in Fig. 5. All the experiments were made with a steady state flow of the reactive gases and the sample mass was kept at around 20 mg of mineral dust to maintain “linear mass” conditions. A summary of the results can be found in Table 2. The errors are reported at the 95% confidence interval, as determined from the standard deviation of an ensemble of experiments. It can be seen that the results from the steady state experiment give an uptake coefficient that is around 3 times smaller relative to the pulsed experiments. The discrepancy may be caused by the lower time resolution of a steady state experiment. In a steady state experiment, the true initial uptake coefficient may be hidden because of the time required to lift the sample cover (Monster et al., 2002).

The observed relative loss of SO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> from the gas phase during the experiments was  $63 \pm 10$  and  $18 \pm 5\%$ , respectively. A log-log plot of the initial loss rate of SO<sub>2</sub> versus the concentration of SO<sub>2</sub> shown in Fig. 6, gives a slope of  $1.02 \pm 0.24$  ( $2\sigma$ ) i.e. the SO<sub>2</sub> loss has an apparent first order dependence on [SO<sub>2</sub>]. An equivalent plot was made for NO<sub>2</sub> which gave a slope of  $0.86 \pm 0.18$  ( $2\sigma$ ) which also indicates a reaction order of 1 for NO<sub>2</sub> which is shown in Fig. 7. This means that in both cases

[Title Page](#)[Abstract](#)[Introduction](#)[Conclusions](#)[References](#)[Tables](#)[Figures](#)[I◀](#)[▶I](#)[◀](#)[▶](#)[Back](#)[Close](#)[Full Screen / Esc](#)[Print Version](#)[Interactive Discussion](#)

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the adsorption rate depends on the concentration of the reactive species and that the uptake coefficient is independent of concentration.

### 3.3. Kinetics, DRIFTS

The amount of sulfate on the sample was determined by ion chromatography in order to quantify the sulfate formation rate  $d [\text{SO}_4^{2-}] / dt$  in terms of the reactive uptake coefficient. The initial formation rate was translated from absorption units  $\text{s}^{-1}$  to  $\text{SO}_4^{2-} \text{ s}^{-1}$  by a conversion factor obtained from a calibration plot. Since the absorption bands of the different reaction product species overlap one another, the bands are deconvoluted before integration. The reactive uptake coefficient ( $\gamma_{\text{rxn}}$ ) is defined as the number of reactive collisions with the surface ( $d [\text{SO}_4^{2-}] / dt$ ) divided by the total number of surface collisions per unit time ( $\Omega$ ).

$$\gamma_{\text{rxn}} = \frac{d [\text{SO}_4^{2-}] / dt}{\Omega} \quad (8)$$

$$\Omega = \frac{1}{4} \times A_s \times [\text{SO}_2] \times v_{\text{SO}_2}, \quad (9)$$

where  $v$  is the mean molecular velocity of  $\text{SO}_2$  calculated as  $\sqrt{8RT/\pi M_{\text{SO}_2}}$  and  $A_s$  is the effective sample surface.  $d [\text{SO}_4^{2-}] / dt$  was obtained from the absorbance/time plot at  $t_0$  i.e. the initial rate, thus no saturation effects on  $\gamma$  are expected.

A sequence of experiments was performed with a constant concentration of  $\text{NO}_2$  and varying concentrations of  $\text{SO}_2$ . The results can be seen in Table 2. The observed relative loss from the gas phase resulting in reactive species on the surface was between 1.5% to 7.8% and 0.15% to 0.57% for  $\text{SO}_2$  and  $\text{NO}_2$ , respectively. The experiments that were terminated at a short reaction time were the ones with largest relative loss from the gas phase. This is expected since the loss rate of reactive species is fast in

## DRIFTS and Knudsen cell study

M. Ullerstam et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Print Version

Interactive Discussion

---

**DRIFTS and Knudsen  
cell study**

 M. Ullerstam et al.
 

---

[Title Page](#)
[Abstract](#)
[Introduction](#)
[Conclusions](#)
[References](#)
[Tables](#)
[Figures](#)
[I◀](#)
[▶I](#)
[◀](#)
[▶](#)
[Back](#)
[Close](#)
[Full Screen / Esc](#)
[Print Version](#)
[Interactive Discussion](#)

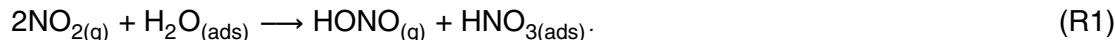
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the initial phase of the experiment but decreases with increasing exposure due to the loss of reactive sites on the surface.

The introduction of SO<sub>2</sub> to the reactive gas reduces the formation of surface nitrate species compared to experiment with only NO<sub>2</sub>. From the ion chromatography analysis at the end of the experiment in which only NO<sub>2</sub> was introduced, the total amount of surface nitrate was 2.1 × 10<sup>16</sup> ions ([NO<sub>2</sub>] = 2.2 × 10<sup>13</sup> molecule cm<sup>-3</sup>, reaction time = 160 min). A similar experiment in which SO<sub>2</sub> also was present only produced 7.6 × 10<sup>15</sup> ions of surface nitrate species, which corresponds to a reduction by almost 40% ([NO<sub>2</sub>] = 2.1 × 10<sup>13</sup> molecule cm<sup>-3</sup>, [SO<sub>2</sub>] = 2.4 × 10<sup>12</sup> molecule cm<sup>-3</sup> and reaction time = 150 min).

### 3.4. Mechanism

The reaction of NO<sub>2</sub> with surface adsorbed water is well-known and has been shown to be first order in NO<sub>2</sub> (Jenkin et al., 1988; Kleffmann et al., 1998; Langer et al., 1997; Mertes and Wahner, 1995; Pitts et al., 1984; Sakamaki et al., 1983; Svensson et al., 1987).



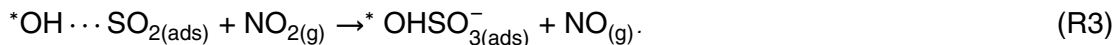
In this study the experiments were performed under “dry” conditions. However, some adsorbed water will be present in the dust sample, since the samples were only heated to 333 K prior to exposure. Different types of water-related reactive sites are present on the surface in the form of O<sup>-</sup> or OH groups.

A previous study of the uptake of SO<sub>2</sub> proposed a two step mechanism for the oxidation of SO<sub>2</sub> where the first step is a reversible adsorption of SO<sub>2</sub> onto the surface followed by a second, irreversible reaction in which adsorbed SO<sub>2</sub> is oxidized to sulfate (Ullerstam et al., 2002).



were \*OH denotes free surface OH groups.

In the present investigation the oxidant is gaseous NO<sub>2</sub> which reacts with the surface adsorbed SO<sub>2</sub> forming surface sulfate and NO which escapes to the gas phase.



There would appear to be a competition for NO<sub>2</sub>, between surface adsorption forming nitrate, and its acting as an oxidant, forming sulfate (i.e. reaction (R1) vs. (R3)). The oxidation is not fast enough to be the only process on the surface: the surface formation of nitrates is also taking place. This is also indicated by the reduction of surface nitrate products from the experiments in which both reactive gases are present compared, to experiments with only NO<sub>2</sub> exposure.

#### 4. Discussion and conclusions

The uptake coefficients for SO<sub>2</sub> in the presence of NO<sub>2</sub> measured using the two different techniques differ by a factor of around 10<sup>3</sup> and 2 × 10<sup>4</sup> (“geometric” and BET ratios, respectively), where the DRIFTS technique produces the lower results. This cannot only be accounted for by the lower time resolution of the DRIFTS technique. The uptake coefficients obtained using the two techniques are fundamentally different. The Knudsen cell measures the loss of gaseous species during exposure, while the DRIFTS technique determines the rate of formation of products on the surface. The discrepancy between the results can be explained by the equilibrium between species physisorbed on the surface and those found in the gas phase. The higher relative loss of gaseous SO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> from the Knudsen cell experiments compared to the DRIFTS experiments support this. In the Knudsen experiments there is no difference between the uptake coefficients measured using pure SO<sub>2</sub> or NO<sub>2</sub>, and the uptake coefficient measured in experiments with both reactive gases present. In the case of uptake of SO<sub>2</sub> this is likely because the rate of physisorption is faster than the rate of sulfate formation and thus the uptake coefficient is determined by the rate of physisorption.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Print Version

Interactive Discussion

**DRIFTS and Knudsen  
cell study**

M. Ullerstam et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Print Version

Interactive Discussion

© EGU 2003

There have been a number of studies concerning the uptake of NO<sub>2</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub> on different surfaces or materials. Very often substances that are components of crustal material are used, such as Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, MgO, and SiO<sub>2</sub>. There are also a few studies in which natural dust samples have been used. One such study investigated the uptake of NO<sub>2</sub> and reported uptake coefficients of the order of 10<sup>-6</sup> on China Loess and Saharan sand (Underwood et al., 2001). An uptake coefficient for SO<sub>2</sub> on China Loess of the order of 10<sup>-5</sup> has also been reported (Usher et al., 2002). This is a factor of ten higher than our result for both NO<sub>2</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub>.

The SO<sub>2</sub> deposition velocity on limestone and sandstone in the presence of NO<sub>2</sub> has been reported with a maximum of 0.45 cm s<sup>-1</sup> (Ausset et al., 1996). A rough estimate of the equivalent uptake coefficient from the deposition velocity can be made using the expression  $\gamma = 4v_d/v_m$ , where the  $v_d$  is the deposition velocity and  $v_m$  the molecular velocity (Dentener et al., 1996). The uptake coefficient is estimated to be  $5 \times 10^{-5}$ , which is also around a factor of ten higher than our result. It is clear that natural mineral samples with different compositions will have different reactivities.

The formation of surface sulfate is an important characteristic since it changes the physical properties of the mineral dust particle. A particle coated with sulfate is hygroscopic and will take up water; it may therefore take up more SO<sub>2</sub> into this aqueous layer that would otherwise be formed (Zhang and Chan, 2002). The formation of sulfate on mineral dust is thus a competing oxidation process for SO<sub>2</sub> in the atmosphere. This may affect the estimated cooling effect of sulfate aerosols since sulfate on mineral particles is not believed to change the radiative properties of those dust particles (Dentener et al., 1996).

To be able to compare the lifetime and the importance of heterogeneous reactions with other losses such as gas phase reactions the heterogeneous rates were translated to a pseudo-first order mass transfer constant as described by Li and co-workers (Li et

al., 2001).

$$K_j = \int_{r_2}^{r_1} 4\pi r^2 F(r) \frac{dn}{dr} dr \quad (10)$$

$$F(r) = \frac{D_j/r}{1 + f(K_n, \gamma)K_n} \quad (11)$$

$$f(K_n, \gamma) = \frac{1.333 + 0.71 K_n^{-1}}{1 + K_n^{-1}} + \frac{4(1 - \gamma)}{3\gamma}, \quad (12)$$

5 where  $k_j$  is the overall mass transfer coefficient, in  $\text{cm}^3 \text{s}^{-1}$ , for species  $j$ ;  $D_j$  is the gas phase diffusion coefficient in  $\text{cm}^2 \text{s}^{-1}$ ;  $K_n$  is the dimensionless Knudsen number ( $= \lambda/r$ ),  $\gamma$  is the effective free path of a gas molecule in air;  $r$  is the particle radius;  $F(r)$  is the flux of the trace species to the surface of the aerosol particle with radius  $r$  in molecule  $\text{cm} \text{s}^{-1}$ ;  $dn/dr$  is the number-size distribution of aerosol particles, and  $\gamma$   
10 is the uptake coefficient.

The mass transfer coefficient ( $k_j$ ) was calculated from the above expressions as a function of uptake coefficient by using the lognormal distribution for the aerosol number-size distribution.

$$\frac{dn(r)}{d(\log r)} = \sum_{i=1}^3 \frac{n_i}{\log \sigma_i \sqrt{2\pi}} \exp \left\{ \frac{-(\log r/R_i)^2}{2(\log \sigma_i)^2} \right\}, \quad (13)$$

15 where  $r$  is the particle radius in  $\mu\text{m}$ ,  $n(r)$  is the cumulative particle number distribution in  $\text{cm}^{-3}$  for particles larger than  $r$ ,  $R$  is the mean particle radius in  $\mu\text{m}$ ,  $n$  is the integral of the lognormal function, and  $\log \sigma$  is a measure of particle polydispersity.

The corresponding lifetime is calculated as a function of  $\gamma$  as is shown in Fig. 8. The lifetime of  $\text{SO}_2$  calculated from the reaction with OH radicals in the gas phase is

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Print Version

Interactive Discussion

**DRIFTS and Knudsen  
cell study**

M. Ullerstam et al.

[Title Page](#)[Abstract](#)[Introduction](#)[Conclusions](#)[References](#)[Tables](#)[Figures](#)[I◀](#)[▶I](#)[◀](#)[▶](#)[Back](#)[Close](#)[Full Screen / Esc](#)[Print Version](#)[Interactive Discussion](#)

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equal to 13 days ( $k = 8.8 \times 10^{-13} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecule}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$  and  $[\text{OH}] = 1 \times 10^6 \text{ molecule cm}^{-3}$ ) (DeMore et al., 1997). From the plot it can be seen that this would correspond to a  $\gamma$  in the order of around  $10^{-4}$ . The lifetime of  $\text{NO}_2$  in the gas phase is even lower considering the reaction with OH radicals and  $\text{O}_3$  which corresponds to 16 h and 3.5 h, respectively ( $k_{\text{OH}} = 8.8 \times 10^{-12}$  and  $k_{\text{O}_3} = 3.2 \times 10^{-17}$  in  $\text{cm}^3 \text{ molecule}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ,  $[\text{OH}] = 1 \times 10^6$  and  $[\text{O}_3] = 2.5 \times 10^{12}$  in  $\text{molecule cm}^{-3}$ ). However, during episodes of high dust loading in the atmosphere, heterogeneous reactions are likely to be the dominant loss process for  $\text{SO}_2$ . In addition to the increased heterogeneous loss of  $\text{SO}_2$  caused by increased dust surface area, loss of  $\text{SO}_2$  by reaction with OH is suppressed. The OH concentrations will fall due to the absorption and scattering of sunlight by the dust.

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**DRIFTS and Knudsen  
cell study**

---

M. Ullerstam et al.

---

[Title Page](#)[Abstract](#)[Introduction](#)[Conclusions](#)[References](#)[Tables](#)[Figures](#)[I◀](#)[▶I](#)[◀](#)[▶](#)[Back](#)[Close](#)[Full Screen / Esc](#)[Print Version](#)[Interactive Discussion](#)

© EGU 2003

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**DRIFTS and Knudsen  
cell study**

M. Ullerstam et al.

[Title Page](#)[Abstract](#)[Introduction](#)[Conclusions](#)[References](#)[Tables](#)[Figures](#)[◀](#)[▶](#)[◀](#)[▶](#)[Back](#)[Close](#)[Full Screen / Esc](#)[Print Version](#)[Interactive Discussion](#)

© EGU 2003

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**DRIFTS and Knudsen  
cell study**M. Ullerstam et al.

---

[Title Page](#)[Abstract](#)[Introduction](#)[Conclusions](#)[References](#)[Tables](#)[Figures](#)[◀](#)[▶](#)[◀](#)[▶](#)[Back](#)[Close](#)[Full Screen / Esc](#)[Print Version](#)[Interactive Discussion](#)

© EGU 2003

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**DRIFTS and Knudsen  
cell study**

M. Ullerstam et al.

[Title Page](#)[Abstract](#)[Introduction](#)[Conclusions](#)[References](#)[Tables](#)[Figures](#)[◀](#)[▶](#)[◀](#)[▶](#)[Back](#)[Close](#)[Full Screen / Esc](#)[Print Version](#)[Interactive Discussion](#)

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**Table 1.** Knudsen reactor parameters

Knudsen reactor parameter	
reactor volume, $V$	$3,72 \pm 0.03 \text{ dm}^3$
experimental temperature, $T_{\text{exp}}$	$299 \pm 0.2 \text{ K}$
escape orifice (pulsed flow), $\phi$	11 mm
escape orifice (steady state flow), $\phi$	2 mm
geometric sample area, $A_{\text{geo}}$	$33.2 \text{ cm}^2$

DRIFTS and Knudsen  
cell study

M. Ullerstam et al.

**Table 2.** Reactive uptake coefficients and other experimental data for the reaction of SO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> with mineral dust at 299 K. BET surface area, 5.0 × 10<sup>5</sup> (cm<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup>)

[SO <sub>2</sub> ] molecule cm <sup>-3</sup>	[NO <sub>2</sub> ] molecule cm <sup>-3</sup>	γ(SO <sub>2</sub> ) geometric	γ(SO <sub>2</sub> ) BET	γ(NO <sub>2</sub> ) Geometric	γ(NO <sub>2</sub> ) BET
(2.6 – 87) × 10 <sup>11</sup>	9.8 × 10 <sup>12</sup>	<sup>a</sup> (1.5 ± 0.6) × 10 <sup>-3</sup>	<sup>a</sup> (5.7 ± 1.9) × 10 <sup>-6</sup>	–	–
(5.4 – 15) × 10 <sup>12</sup>	–	<sup>a</sup> (1.3 ± 0.3) × 10 <sup>-3</sup>	<sup>a</sup> (4.6 ± 0.3) × 10 <sup>-6</sup>	–	–
5.3 × 10 <sup>12</sup>	(1.7 – 10) × 10 <sup>12</sup>	–	–	<sup>a</sup> (2.0 ± 0.4) × 10 <sup>-4</sup>	<sup>a</sup> (6.3 ± 1.0) × 10 <sup>-7</sup>
–	(1.0 – 1.5) × 10 <sup>13</sup>	–	–	<sup>a</sup> (1.9 ± 0.4) × 10 <sup>-4</sup>	<sup>a</sup> (6.2 ± 3.4) × 10 <sup>-7</sup>
(1.4 – 9.3) × 10 <sup>12</sup>	2.4 × 10 <sup>13</sup>	<sup>b</sup> (1.6 ± 0.6) × 10 <sup>-6</sup>	<sup>b</sup> (2.6 ± 1.1) × 10 <sup>-10</sup>		

<sup>a</sup> Knudsen experiment.<sup>b</sup> DRIFTS experiments.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

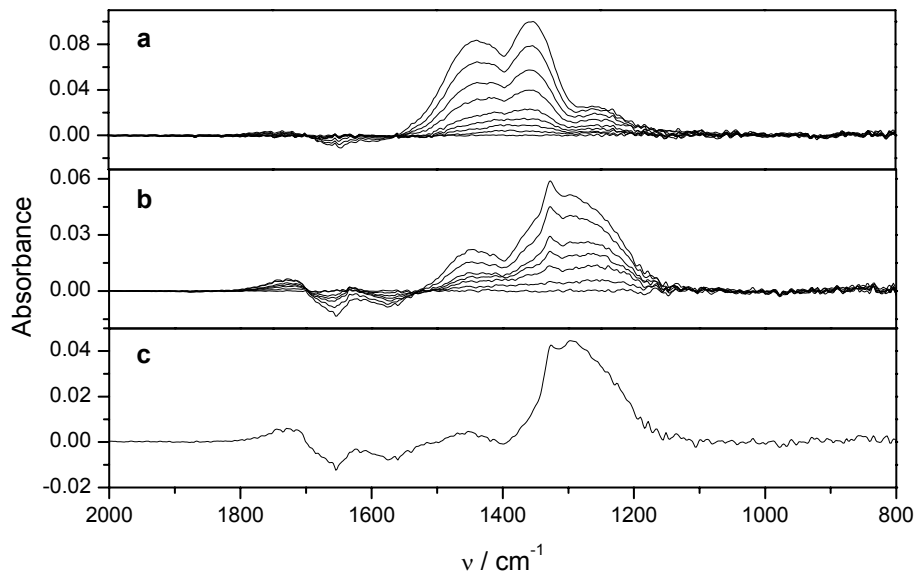
Print Version

Interactive Discussion

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DRIFTS and Knudsen  
cell study

M. Ullerstam et al.



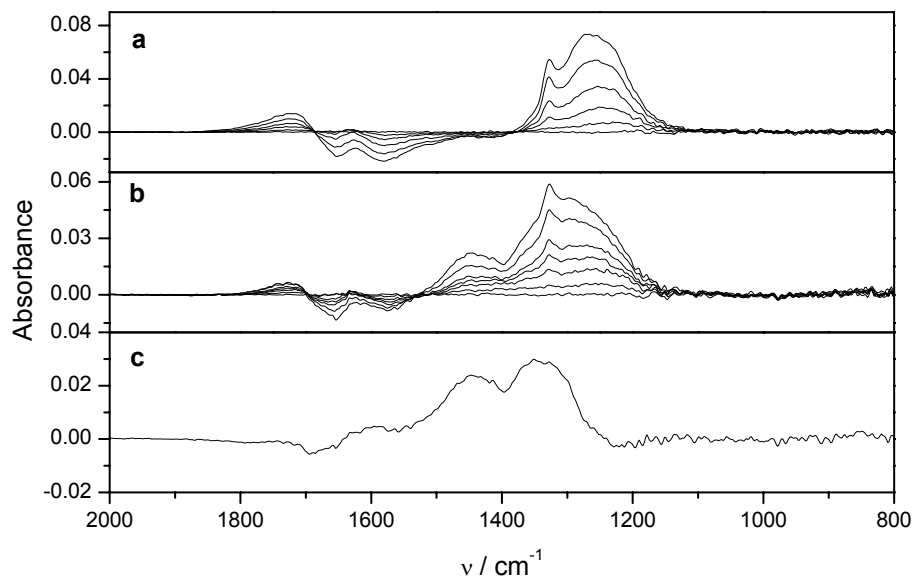
**Fig. 1.** Absorption difference spectra recorded during the reaction of mineral dust with  $\text{SO}_2$  and  $\text{NO}_2$ . **(a)** experiment where the surface is exposed to  $\text{NO}_2$  only ( $[\text{NO}_2] = 2.2 \times 10^{13}$  molecule  $\text{cm}^{-3}$ ). **(b)** experiment with exposure of both  $\text{SO}_2$  and  $\text{NO}_2$  ( $[\text{SO}_2] = 9.4 \times 10^{12}$  and  $[\text{NO}_2] = 2.5 \times 10^{13}$  in molecule  $\text{cm}^{-3}$ ). **(c)** residue from subtraction of reference spectrum (a) from the final spectra of (b).

[Title Page](#)[Abstract](#)[Introduction](#)[Conclusions](#)[References](#)[Tables](#)[Figures](#)[I◀](#)[▶I](#)[◀](#)[▶](#)[Back](#)[Close](#)[Full Screen / Esc](#)[Print Version](#)[Interactive Discussion](#)

© EGU 2003

DRIFTS and Knudsen  
cell study

M. Ullerstam et al.



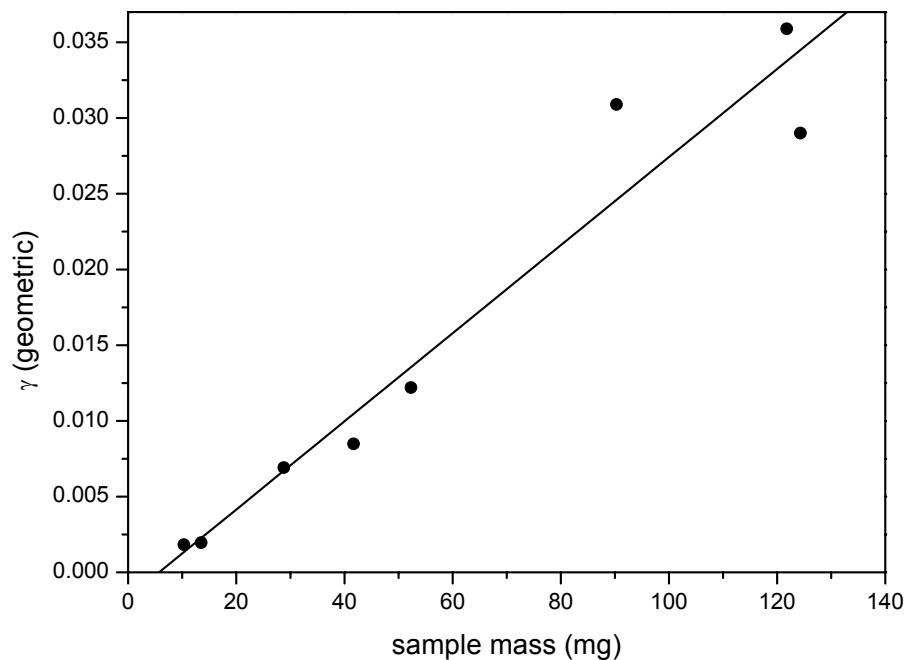
**Fig. 2.** Absorption difference spectra recorded during the reaction of mineral dust with  $\text{SO}_2$  and  $\text{NO}_2$ . **(a)** reference spectra of sulfur species from reaction of  $\text{SO}_2$  on mineral dust in the presence of  $\text{O}_3$  (Ullerstam et al., 2002). **(b)** experiment with exposure of both  $\text{SO}_2$  and  $\text{NO}_2$  ( $[\text{SO}_2] = 9.4 \times 10^{12}$  and  $[\text{NO}_2] = 2.5 \times 10^{13}$  in molecule  $\text{cm}^{-3}$ ). **(c)** residue from subtraction of reference spectrum (a) from the final spectrum of (b).

[Title Page](#)[Abstract](#)[Introduction](#)[Conclusions](#)[References](#)[Tables](#)[Figures](#)[◀](#)[▶](#)[◀](#)[▶](#)[Back](#)[Close](#)[Full Screen / Esc](#)[Print Version](#)[Interactive Discussion](#)

© EGU 2003

DRIFTS and Knudsen  
cell study

M. Ullerstam et al.



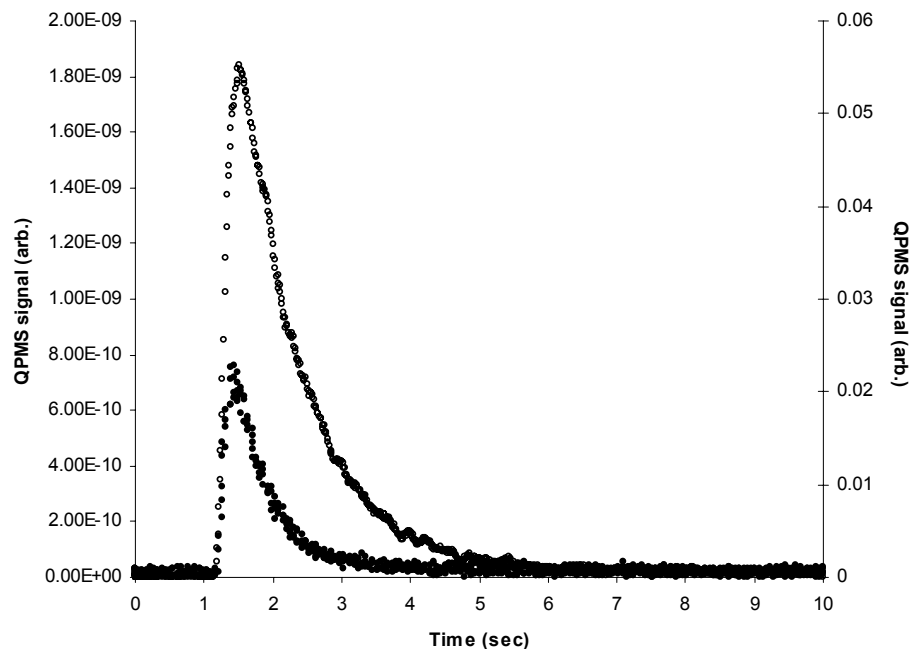
**Fig. 3.** Total uptake coefficient for  $\text{SO}_2$  calculated using the geometric surface area as the effective surface area as a function of sample mass. Experiments were performed with a pulsed flow of  $\text{SO}_2$  and  $\text{NO}_2$ . Initial concentrations of  $\text{SO}_2$  and  $\text{NO}_2$  were  $2.7 \times 10^{11}$  and  $1.7 \times 10^{11}$  molecules  $\text{cm}^{-3}$ , respectively.

[Title Page](#)[Abstract](#)[Introduction](#)[Conclusions](#)[References](#)[Tables](#)[Figures](#)[◀](#)[▶](#)[◀](#)[▶](#)[Back](#)[Close](#)[Full Screen / Esc](#)[Print Version](#)[Interactive Discussion](#)

© EGU 2003

DRIFTS and Knudsen  
cell study

M. Ullerstam et al.



**Fig. 4.** An example of a typical Knudsen experiment performed with a pulsed flow showing the decay of the  $\text{SO}_2$  signal ( $m/z = 64$ ). Initial concentrations of  $\text{SO}_2$  and  $\text{NO}_2$  were  $2.7 \times 10^{11}$  and  $1.7 \times 10^{11}$  in molecules  $\text{cm}^{-3}$ , respectively. Empty circles represent the decay of  $\text{SO}_2$  signal when the surface is covered, see right y-axis. Filled circles represent the decay of  $\text{SO}_2$  signal during exposure of the sample surface, see left y-axis.

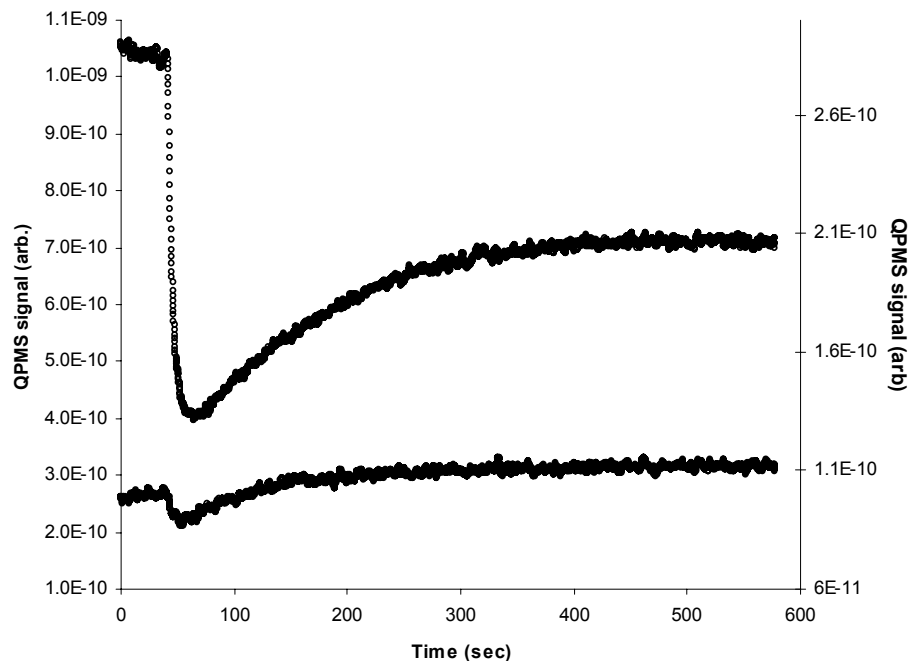
[Title Page](#)[Abstract](#)[Introduction](#)[Conclusions](#)[References](#)[Tables](#)[Figures](#)[◀](#)[▶](#)[◀](#)[▶](#)[Back](#)[Close](#)[Full Screen / Esc](#)[Print Version](#)[Interactive Discussion](#)

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DRIFTS and Knudsen  
cell study

M. Ullerstam et al.



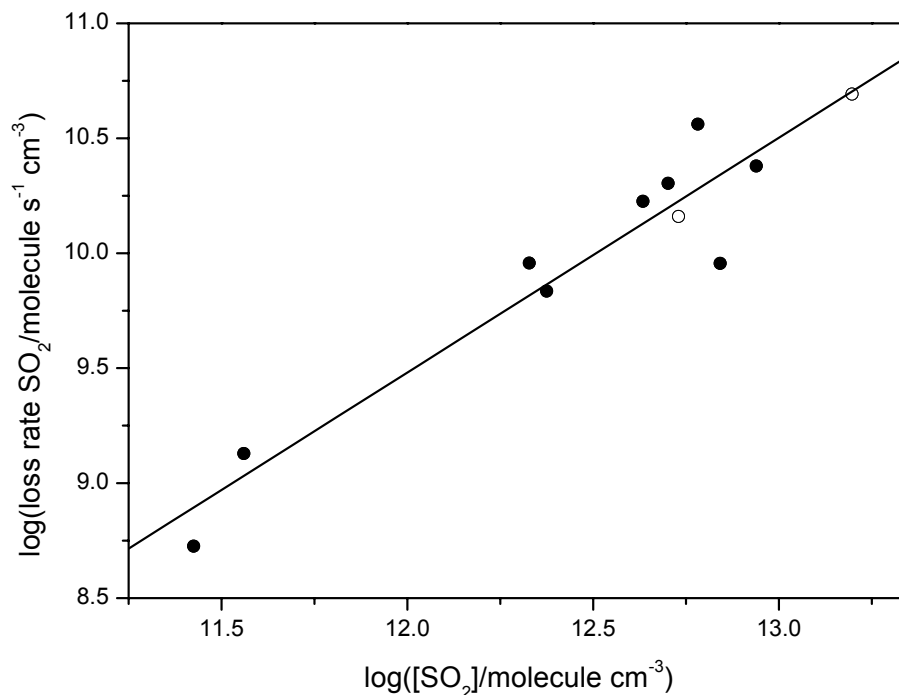
**Fig. 5.** An example of a typical Knudsen experiment performed with a steady state flow. Steady state concentrations of  $\text{SO}_2$  and  $\text{NO}_2$  were  $5.0 \times 10^{12}$  and  $1.0 \times 10^{13}$  molecules  $\text{cm}^{-3}$ , respectively. The top line represents the signal for  $\text{SO}_2$  ( $m/z = 64$ ) and belong to the left y-axis. The lower line represents the signal for  $\text{NO}_2$  ( $m/z = 46$ ) and belong to the right y-axis.

[Title Page](#)[Abstract](#)[Introduction](#)[Conclusions](#)[References](#)[Tables](#)[Figures](#)[◀](#)[▶](#)[◀](#)[▶](#)[Back](#)[Close](#)[Full Screen / Esc](#)[Print Version](#)[Interactive Discussion](#)

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DRIFTS and Knudsen  
cell study

M. Ullerstam et al.



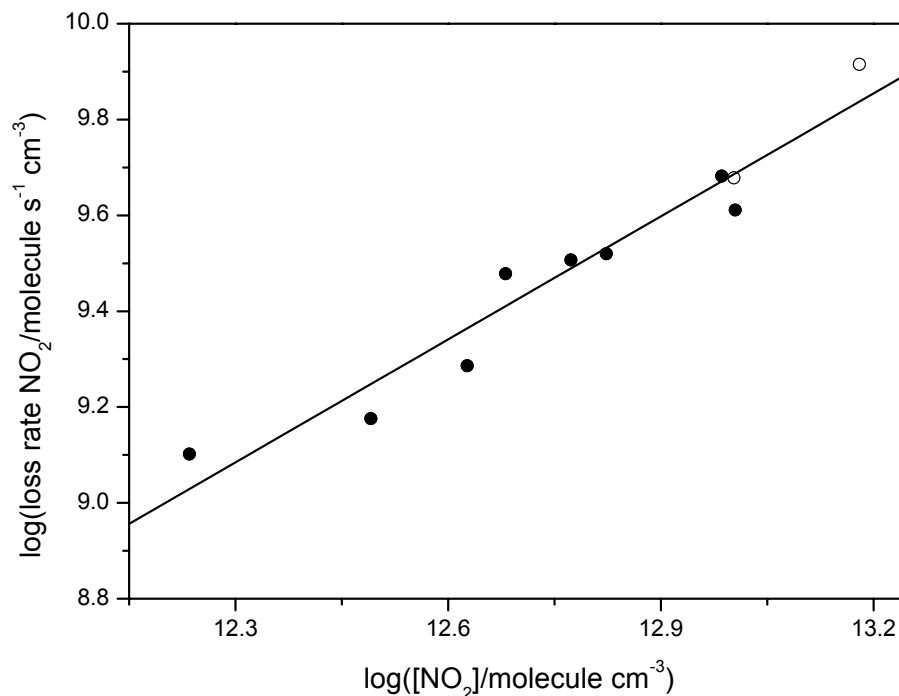
**Fig. 6.** A bilogarithmic plot of the loss rate of SO<sub>2</sub> as a function of [SO<sub>2</sub>]. Filled circles are experiments with SO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> present, open circles are from experiments with only SO<sub>2</sub> present. From linear regression of experiments with both SO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> present (filled circles) the reaction order was determined to be  $n = 1.01 \pm 0.15$  ( $2\sigma$ ).

[Title Page](#)[Abstract](#)[Introduction](#)[Conclusions](#)[References](#)[Tables](#)[Figures](#)[◀](#)[▶](#)[◀](#)[▶](#)[Back](#)[Close](#)[Full Screen / Esc](#)[Print Version](#)[Interactive Discussion](#)

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DRIFTS and Knudsen  
cell study

M. Ullerstam et al.



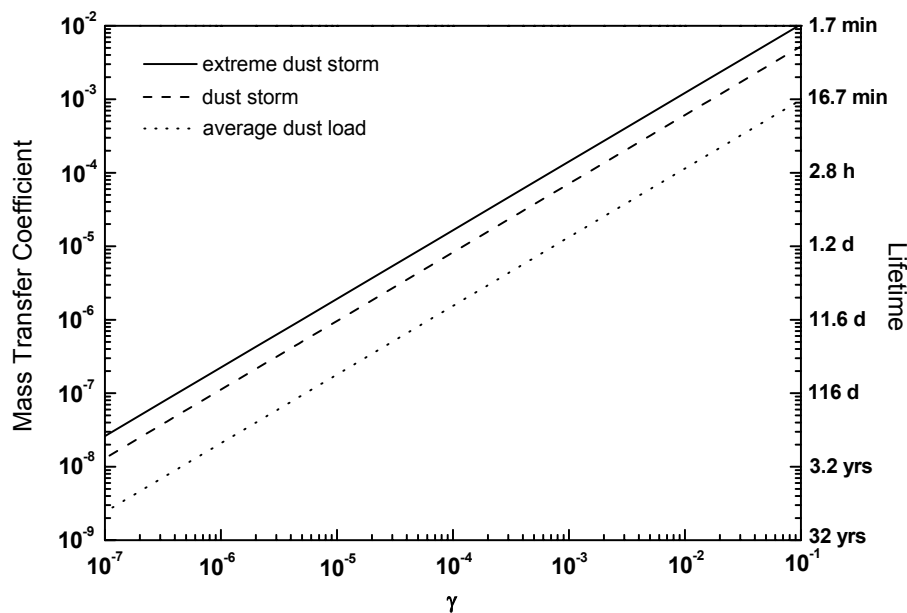
**Fig. 7.** Bilogarithmic plot of the loss rate of NO<sub>2</sub> as a function of [NO<sub>2</sub>]. Filled circles are from experiments with both SO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> present, open circles are from experiments with only NO<sub>2</sub>. The reaction order was determined to be  $n = 0.85 \pm 0.28$  ( $2\sigma$ ) from linear regression of the experiments with SO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> present (filled circles).

[Title Page](#)[Abstract](#)[Introduction](#)[Conclusions](#)[References](#)[Tables](#)[Figures](#)[◀](#)[▶](#)[◀](#)[▶](#)[Back](#)[Close](#)[Full Screen / Esc](#)[Print Version](#)[Interactive Discussion](#)

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DRIFTS and Knudsen  
cell study

M. Ullerstam et al.



**Fig. 8.** Calculated mass transfer coefficients as a function of the heterogeneous uptake,  $\gamma$ , as described in the text Li et al. (2001). Data used for the calculations: Diffusion constant ( $D$ ),  $0.126 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ , Lognormal distribution for mineral dust:  $N(\text{average}) = 798$ ,  $N(\text{storm}) = 2800$ ,  $N(\text{extreme storm}) = 5600$ ;  $r$ ,  $0.88 \mu\text{m}$ ;  $\log(\sigma)$ ,  $0.23$ ;  $\rho_s = 2.0 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ . (Li et al., 2001; Zhang et al., 1999; Alpert et al., 2001).

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Print Version

Interactive Discussion

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