

The effect of viscosity and diffusion on the HO₂ uptake by sucrose and secondary organic aerosol particles

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Abstract

We report the first measurements of HO₂ uptake coefficients, γ , for secondary organic aerosol particles (SOA) and for the well-studied model compound sucrose which we doped with copper (II). Above 65% relative humidity (RH), γ for copper (II) doped sucrose aerosol particles equalled the surface mass accommodation coefficient $\alpha = 0.22 \pm 0.06$ but decreased to $\gamma = 0.012 \pm 0.007$ upon decreasing the RH to 17%. The trend of γ with RH can be explained by an increase in aerosol viscosity and the contribution of a surface reaction, as demonstrated using the kinetic multi-layer model of aerosol surface and bulk chemistry (KM-SUB). **At high RH the total uptake was driven by reaction in the near-surface bulk limited by mass accommodation whilst at low RH it was limited by surface reaction.** SOA from two different precursors, α -pinene and 1,3,5-trimethylbenzene (TMB), was investigated, yielding low uptake coefficients of $\gamma < 0.001$ and $\gamma = 0.004 \pm 0.002$, respectively. It is postulated that the larger values measured for TMB derived SOA compared to α -pinene derived SOA are either due to differing viscosity, a different liquid water content of the aerosol particles or a HO₂ + RO₂ reaction occurring within the aerosol particles.

Introduction

OH and HO₂ radicals play a vital role in atmospheric chemistry by controlling the oxidative capacity of the troposphere, with HO₂ acting as a short-lived reservoir for OH. Oxidation by the OH radical determines the lifetime and concentrations of many trace gases within the troposphere such as NO_x (NO and NO₂), CH₄ and volatile organic compounds (VOCs). The reaction of HO₂ with NO also constitutes an important source of ozone, which is damaging to plants, a respiratory irritant and a greenhouse gas (Pöschl and Shiraiwa, 2015;Fowler et al., 2009). It is therefore important to have a thorough understanding of the reactions and processes that affect HO_x concentrations. However, during field campaigns HO₂ concentrations have sometimes been measured as being lower than the concentrations predicted by constrained box models implying a missing HO₂ sink, which has often been attributed to HO₂ uptake by aerosol particles (e.g. (Kanaya et al., 2007;Mao et al., 2010;Whalley et al., 2010)).

SOA is generated from low-volatility products formed by the oxidation of VOCs, and it accounts for a large fraction of the organic matter in the troposphere. For example, in urban areas it can account for up to 90 % of the organic particulate mass (Kanakidou et al., 2005;Lim and Turpin, 2002). Lakey et al. (2015a) previously measured the HO₂ uptake coefficient onto single component organic aerosol particles as ranging from $\gamma < 0.004$ to $\gamma = 0.008 \pm 0.004$ unless elevated transition metal ions, that catalyse the destruction of HO₂, were present within the aerosol. Taketani et al. (2013) and Taketani and Kanaya (2010) also measured the HO₂ uptake coefficient onto dicarboxylic acids ($\gamma = 0.02 \pm 0.01$ to $\gamma = 0.18 \pm 0.07$) and levoglucosan ($\gamma < 0.01$ to $\gamma = 0.13 \pm 0.03$) over a range of humidities. However, there are currently no measurements of the HO₂ uptake coefficient onto SOA published in the literature.

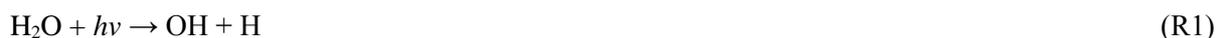
Using the kinetic multi-layer model of aerosol surface and bulk chemistry (KM-SUB), Shiraiwa et al. (2011b) have shown that the bulk diffusion of a species within an aerosol matrix can have a large impact on a measured uptake coefficient. Diffusion coefficients of a particular species within a particle are related to the viscosity of that particle with larger diffusion coefficients in less viscous particles. Traditionally, the relationship between viscosity and diffusion coefficients is given by the Stokes-Einstein equation, although this relation was found to break down for concentrated solutions and solutions near their glass transition temperature or humidity (Champion et al., 1997;Power et al., 2013). Zhou et al. (2013) have also shown that the rate of heterogeneous reaction of particle-borne benzo[a]pyrene (BaP) with ozone within SOA particles was strongly dependent upon the bulk diffusivity of the SOA. Along the same lines, Steimer et al. (2015) and Steimer et al. (2014) demonstrated a clear link between the ozonolysis rates of shikimic acid and the changing diffusivity in the transition between liquid and glassy states. Previous measurements of both N₂O₅ uptake coefficients and HO₂ uptake coefficients onto humic acid aerosol particles and N₂O₅ uptake coefficients onto

malonic acid and citric acid aerosol particles have shown much lower uptake coefficients at low relative humidities compared to higher humidities (Badger et al., 2006;Thornton et al., 2003;Lakey et al., 2015a;Gržinić et al., 2015). However, viscosity effects have not been investigated systematically for HO₂ uptake, and the first aim of this paper was to investigate whether a change in aerosol viscosity, exemplified using the well-studied model compound sucrose (Berkemeier et al., 2014;Price et al., 2014;Zobrist et al., 2011), could impact the HO₂ uptake coefficient. The second aim of this study was to measure the HO₂ uptake coefficient onto two different types of SOA representative of biogenic and anthropogenic SOA. α -pinene is the major terpene that forms biogenic SOA, while 1,3,5-trimethylbenzene (TMB) is representative of alkyl benzenes which are the most abundant aromatic hydrocarbons and form anthropogenic SOA (Calvert et al., 2002;Qi et al., 2012). SOA is known to be highly viscous with viscosities of $10^3 - 10^6$ Pa s at 50 % RH (Renbaum-Wolff et al., 2013).

Experimental

The general experimental setup for the Leeds aerosol flow tube and the data analysis methodology to determine values of γ have previously been discussed in detail by George et al. (2013). This is the same experimental setup and data analysis methodology that was used for the copper (II) doped sucrose experiments, which were also performed at the University of Leeds. Therefore, only a brief description of the setup is included below, with the emphasis being on changes made to the apparatus for the SOA experiments undertaken at the Paul Scherrer Institute (PSI), for which a schematic is shown in Figure 1. For all experiments the HO₂ radical was released at the end of an injector which was moved backwards and forwards along an aerosol flow tube. The flow from the injector was 1.32 ± 0.05 slpm. For the copper doped sucrose experiments the humid aerosol flow was 1.0 ± 0.1 slpm, and was mixed with a much drier flow (with the humidity of this flow being controlled by mixing a flow from a water bubbler with a dry flow in different ratios) of 3.0 ± 0.3 slpm within a conditioning flow tube for approximately ten seconds before entering the aerosol flow tube. Nitrogen was used for all of these flows. For the SOA experiments the flow from the smog chamber or Potential Aerosol Mass (PAM) chamber at PSI was 4.0 ± 0.3 slpm. Decays of the HO₂ radical along an aerosol flow tube were measured using a Fluorescence Assay by Gas Expansion (FAGE) detector in both the absence and presence of different concentrations of aerosol particles. All experiments were performed at room temperature (293 ± 2 K).

The HO₂ radical was formed via Reactions 1 – 2, by passing a humidified flow over a mercury penray lamp (L.O.T. Oriel, model 6035) in the presence of trace amounts (20 – 30 ppm) of oxygen in the nitrogen flow.



Data acquisition was only started once HO₂ concentrations within the flow tube were stable which occurred within 1 minute of switching on the mercury lamp. The HO₂ radicals entered the FAGE cell through a 0.7 mm diameter pinhole, and were then converted to OH by reacting with added NO. The FAGE cell was either kept at a pressure of ~ 0.85 Torr or ~ 1.5 Torr using a combination of a rotary pump (Edwards, model E1M80) and a roots blower (EH1200). The OH radicals were detected by laser induced fluorescence at 308 nm (Heard and Pilling, 2003; Stone et al., 2012). Initial HO₂ concentrations (obtained by calibration) exiting the injector were measured as ~ 1 × 10⁹ molecule cm⁻³ for all experiments (following mixing and dilution with the main flow), and the concentration was then measured as a function of distance along the flow tube.

For the experiments using copper doped sucrose aerosol particles, 3.42 grams of sucrose (Fisher, > 99%) and 0.125 grams of copper (II) sulphate pentahydrate were dissolved in 500 ml of milliQ water. These solutions were then placed in an atomiser (TSI, 3076) in order to form aerosol particles. The aerosol particles passed through a neutraliser (Grimm 5522) and an impactor before entering the conditioning flow tube. The size distribution of the aerosol particles were then measured at the end of the reaction flow tube using a Scanning Mobility Particle Sizer (SMPS, TSI, 3080).

The experimental setup used to measure previous HO₂ uptake coefficients (George et al., 2013; Matthews et al., 2014; Lakey et al., 2015a; Lakey et al., 2015b) was transported from the University of Leeds, UK, to the Paul Scherrer Institute, Switzerland, where it was connected to the Paul Scherrer Institute (PSI) smog chamber and, for some of the experiments, also to a Potential Aerosol Mass (PAM) chamber (see Figure 1). The PSI smog chamber has a volume of 27 cubic metres, it is made from 125 µm Teflon fluorocarbon film and has been described elsewhere (Paulsen et al., 2005). To initiate photochemical reactions four 4 kW xenon arc lamps (light spectrum >280 nm, OSRAM) and eighty black lights (100W tubes, light spectrum between 320 and 400 nm, Cleo Performance) were used. For most experiments the chamber was first humidified to 50% relative humidity, but for two experiments this was increased to 80%, after which the precursor gases were added. The concept, design and operation of a PAM chamber has also previously been described (Kang et al., 2007). The PAM chamber at PSI is a flow tube of 0.46 m in length and 0.22 m internal diameter. Two low pressure Hg lamps mainly emitting at 185 and 254 nm produce ozone in the chamber. Water vapour was photolysed by the 185 nm radiation to produce OH and HO₂ and also photolysed O₂ to produce O₃, whereas the 254 nm light could also photolyse O₃ to produce OH following the reaction of O(¹D) with water vapour. Upper-

limit OH production rates are in the range of $1 \times 10^{12} - 2 \times 10^{12}$ molecule $\text{cm}^{-3} \text{s}^{-1}$ (Bruns et al., 2015). The composition and oxidation state of SOA formed within PAM chambers has previously been shown to be similar to SOA generated within environmental chambers (Bruns et al., 2015; Lambe et al., 2011a) and SOA in the atmosphere (Ortega et al., 2015).

Four different types of experiments were performed.

(i) α -pinene ozonolysis in the PSI smog chamber (600 ppb α -pinene, 280 ppb ozone: ozone was added first to the chamber; after injection of α -pinene particle nucleation and growth rapidly occurred).

(ii) OH initiated α -pinene photochemistry in the smog chamber (500 ppb α -pinene, 350 ppb NO_2 : Xenon and black lights were used to initiate photochemical reactions).

(iii) OH initiated α -pinene photochemistry in the PAM chamber (500 ppb α -pinene was filled into the large smog chamber at 50 or 80 % RH to supply a constant concentration of α -pinene to the PAM chamber, all SOA was formed within the PAM chamber).

(iv) OH initiated TMB photochemistry in the PAM chamber (2 ppm TMB was filled into the large smog chamber at 50 % RH to supply a constant concentration of TMB to the PAM chamber, all SOA was formed within the PAM chamber).

These precursor concentrations were chosen in order to obtain a large enough aerosol surface area in the flow tube to be able to measure a HO_2 uptake coefficient. Experiments were performed only once the aerosol surface area within the aerosol flow tube exceeded $5 \times 10^{-5} \text{cm}^2 \text{cm}^{-3}$, and in the case of the smog chamber experiments once a maximum aerosol concentration had been reached (as summarised in the Results Section). Prior to entering the flow tube, the aerosol flow from the smog or PAM chamber (4.0 slpm) was passed through either two or three cobalt oxide denuders in series (each 40 cm long, 0.8 cm inner diameter quartz tubes coated with cobalt oxide prepared by thermal decomposition of a saturated $\text{Co}(\text{NO}_3)_2$ solution applied to its inner walls at 700°C as described in Ammann (2001)), which in turn were in series with a charcoal denuder (length = 16.4 cm, diameter = 0.9 cm, 69 quadratic channels) in order to remove NO_x species, RO_2 , VOC's and ozone that had been present in the chamber. These denuders have previously been shown to be extremely efficient at removing gas phase NO_x and VOCs (Arens et al., 2001). It should be noted that the flows were drawn through the aerosol flow tube using a pump instead of the normal procedure whereby the flows are pushed through the experimental setup using mass flow controllers. The pumping setup led to slightly reduced pressures (904 – 987 mbar) in the aerosol flow tube, and so careful checks were performed to ensure that the flow tube was vacuum tight. The aerosol size distribution from which the surface area exiting the flow tube was calculated was measured using a Scanning Mobility Particle Sizer (SMPS), which consisted of a neutraliser (Kr-85), a Differential Mobility Analyser (DMA, length 93.5 cm, inner

radius 0.937 cm and outer radius 1.961 cm) and a CPC (TSI, model 3022). A typical surface weighted aerosol size distribution for the α -pinene derived aerosol particles is shown in Figure 2. Note that an impactor was not used in the experimental setup for the SOA measurements as this restricted the flow that could be pumped through the flow tube and was also found to be unnecessary as the aerosol size distribution from the chambers fell entirely within the range of aerosol sizes that the SMPS could measure.

In order to check that the experimental setup used at PSI produced consistent results with those previously performed at the University of Leeds, an experiment was performed with ammonium sulphate aerosol particles. The ammonium sulphate aerosol particles were formed using an atomiser rather than aerosol particles being formed in a chamber, but were then passed through the same set up (including the denuders) as the SOA was passed through. The experiment was performed at a flow tube pressure of 915 mbar, due to the flows being pumped through the setup, (compared to pressures of 904 – 987 mbar for the SOA experiments), and a HO₂ uptake coefficient of 0.004 ± 0.002 was measured at 60% RH which is in agreement with previous experiments by George et al. (2013), which were performed at atmospheric pressure (~ 970 – 1040 mbar).

Data analysis

Experiments were performed by moving the HO₂ injector backwards and forwards along the flow tube either in the presence of or in the absence of aerosol particles, and recording the FAGE signal from HO₂ radicals. The background signal in the absence of HO₂ (mercury lamp in the injector switched off), but with the NO entering the FAGE cell, was recorded and was subtracted, from the signal during experiments. For α -pinene experiments this background signal was small and similar to previous experiments using dust, organic and inorganic salt aerosol particles (George et al., 2013; Lakey et al., 2015b; Lakey et al., 2015a; Matthews et al., 2014). However, for the TMB experiments this background signal varied from about half to two thirds of the signal from HO₂ with the mercury lamp in the injector switched on. The background signal disappeared when the NO added to the FAGE cell was switched off showing that it was not due to OH. The background signal within experiments did not change when aerosol particles were present compared to when they were completely filtered out (see Figure 1). **Although the denuders are efficient at removing gas phase species (Arens et al., 2001), it can be hypothesized that the signal was due to the formation of HO₂ and RO₂ radicals generated by a small fraction of ozone, precursors and oxidation products passing through the denuders for the TMB experiments.** RO₂ species would have been observed as a HO₂ interference by the FAGE detection method. FAGE interferences have previously been observed for alkene, aromatic and > C₃ alkane

derived RO₂ (Fuchs et al., 2011; Whalley et al., 2013). A box model was run, utilising chemistry within the Master Chemical Mechanism (MCM 3.2), which is detailed further in Whalley et al. (2013)), and constrained to the experimental concentrations, and showed that the expected interference from TMB RO₂ and α -pinene RO₂ would have been equivalent to $0.59 \times [\text{HO}_2]$ and $0.44 \times [\text{HO}_2]$, respectively, at a NO flow of 50 ml min⁻¹ into the FAGE cell, a FAGE pressure of 1.5 Torr and a flow through the FAGE pinhole of 4.2 slpm. However, for α -pinene experiments the background signal did not change between the NO being switched on and off with the mercury lamp switched off in the injector, indicating the absence of interferences in the FAGE cell for these experiments. **The lack of interference for the α -pinene experiments suggests that the denuders were more efficient at removing the gas phase precursors and oxidation products from the chamber and that only** negligible concentrations of RO₂ species were present in the flow tube. Nevertheless, since for the TMB experiments a significant background signal was observed, that signal was measured regularly throughout the experiment and used to correct the measurement data.

HO₂ decays along the flow tube in the presence and absence of aerosol particles were measured between ~ 10 and 18 seconds flow time after the point of injection to ensure thorough mixing. A previous calculation showed that the flows should be fully mixed by ~ 7 seconds (George et al., 2013). An example of the HO₂ decays in the presence and absence of aerosol particles for a TMB experiment is shown in Figure 3, plotted as the natural logarithm of HO₂ signal (proportional to concentration) against reaction time according to:

$$\ln \frac{[\text{HO}_2]_t}{[\text{HO}_2]_0} = -k_{obs}t \quad (\text{E1})$$

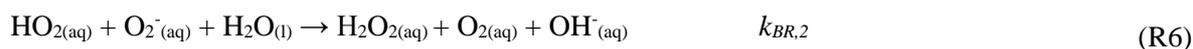
There is clear uptake of HO₂ observed by the SOA derived from TMB. The pseudo first-order rate coefficients (k_{obs}) were then corrected for wall losses and non-plug flow conditions using the methodology described by Brown (1978). **The average correction was 22%.** These corrected rate constants (k') were related to the HO₂ uptake coefficient (γ_{obs}) by the following equation:

$$k' = \frac{\gamma_{obs}\omega_{\text{HO}_2}S}{4} \quad (\text{E2})$$

where ω_{HO_2} is the molecular thermal speed of HO₂ and S is the total aerosol surface area. Examples of k' as a function of the aerosol surface area is shown in Figure 4. The HO₂ uptake coefficients were then corrected for gas-phase diffusion limitations using the methodology described by (Fuchs and Sutugin, 1970), although this correction changed the uptake coefficient by less than 1 % for all experiments.

Model description

The kinetic multi-layer model of aerosol surface and bulk chemistry (KM-SUB) has been described in detail by Shiraiwa et al. (2010). It is a multi-layer model comprising a gas phase, a near-surface gas phase, a sorption layer, a near-surface bulk layer and a number of bulk layers **arranged in spherical geometry**. Processes that can occur within the model include gas-phase diffusion, adsorption and desorption, bulk diffusion, and chemical reactions in the gas phase, at the surface and in the bulk. **In contrast to traditional resistor models, the KM-SUB model enables efficient treatment of complex chemical mechanisms**. Input parameters to the model are summarised in Table 1 whilst the reactions that were included are shown below:



The bulk layer number was set to 100 corresponding to a bulk layer thickness of 0.5 nm which is only slightly larger than the diameter of HO₂ (0.4 nm) **and implies that HO₂ only needs to travel approximately the distance of its own diameter to go from being an adsorbed radical on the surface of the aerosol particle to a dissolved aqueous radical. The same short distance must be overcome by HO₂ to move between bulk layers, which is important for convergence of the numerical model, especially when the chemical reactions within the aerosol particles are very fast compared to the diffusion time scales, leading to steep concentration gradients within the particle.** Reducing the bulk layer thickness further did not significantly impact the calculated uptake coefficients.

During experiments the average radius was observed to change by less than 10 % over the range of humidities, and therefore an assumption was made within the model that the average aerosol radius remained constant over the range of relative humidities. For the diffusion coefficient of HO₂ within aerosol particles we used the measured diffusion coefficients of H₂O within sucrose solutions, which we then corrected using the Stokes-Einstein equation to take into account the larger radius of HO₂ radicals compared to H₂O molecules (Price et al., 2014; Zobrist et al., 2011). The correction resulted in

a factor of 1.22 decrease in the diffusion coefficients of HO₂ compared to the diffusion coefficients of H₂O. It should be noted that above a viscosity of 10 Pa s the Stokes-Einstein relationship starts to fail and that the effect of increasing molecular size may become much stronger (Power et al., 2013). Price et al. (2014) estimated diffusion coefficients of H₂O by using Raman spectroscopy to observe D₂O diffusion in high-viscosity sucrose solutions whilst Zobrist et al. (2011) used optical techniques to observe changes in the size of sucrose particles when exposed to different relative humidities.

Sensitivity tests showed that the diffusion rate constants of O₂⁻, Cu⁺ and Cu²⁺ did not influence calculation results. The reaction rate coefficients involving copper ($k_{BR,3}$ - $k_{BR,6}$) are so large that O₂⁻ is produced *in situ* and consumed locally. The catalytic nature of these reactions cause Cu⁺ and Cu²⁺ to rapidly interconvert meaning that they remain available at high concentrations in the upper layers of the aerosol particle. Similarly, as sucrose does not react with any species within the model, its diffusion within the model is unimportant to the outputted HO₂ uptake coefficient.

Results and Discussion

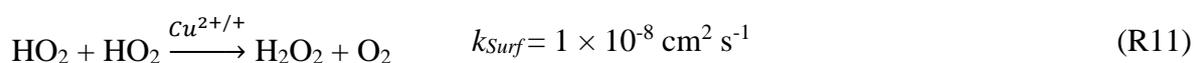
HO₂ uptake by copper doped sucrose aerosol particles

The results of the HO₂ uptake coefficient measurements onto copper doped sucrose aerosol particles as a function of relative humidity (RH) are shown in Figure 5. The results show a large dependence upon relative humidity with the HO₂ uptake coefficient increasing from 0.012 ± 0.007 at 17 ± 2 % RH to 0.22 ± 0.06 at relative humidities above 65%. The latter value is likely equal to the surface accommodation coefficient, and is consistent with many previous studies (Takahama and Russell, 2011; George et al., 2013; Lakey et al., 2015b). At lower humidities, the diffusion coefficients decrease which leads to slower transport of HO₂ within the bulk, and therefore to a slower overall rate of HO₂ destruction (Reactions 7 – 10). The HO₂ reacto-diffusive length (Hanson et al., 1994; Schwartz and Freiberg, 1981) varied from between $\sim 4 - 7$ nm at the highest relative humidity that was used (71 % RH) down to $\sim 0.006 - 0.05$ nm at the lowest relative humidity (17 % RH). The range of values for the reacto-diffusive length at a given RH is due to the difference between the parameterizations of the diffusion coefficient in Price et al. (2014) and Zobrist et al. (2011). These reacto-diffusive lengths indicate that at all relative humidities HO₂ radicals will be limited to the outermost molecular layers of the particle before reacting away, which is in agreement with the model. Note that it was shown in previously that the uptake of gas-phase species generally increases with increasing reacto-diffusive length, which is consistent with our HO₂ uptake coefficient measurements (Slade and Knopf, 2014; Davies and Wilson, 2015; Houle et al., 2015). The red and blue lines in Figure 5 show the predicted

HO₂ uptake coefficients using the KM-SUB model when using two different parameterisations for HO₂ diffusion coefficients as a function of RH (see the model description). There is good agreement between the model and the measurements suggesting that the change in HO₂ uptake over the range of humidities is indeed due to a change in the HO₂ diffusion coefficient which is in turn due to a change in the viscosity of the aerosol particles. Sensitivity tests showed that an increase in the rate constants of reactions R7 – R10 does not affect the HO₂ uptake coefficient. **A two order of magnitude decrease in the rate constants affects the uptake coefficient marginally by reducing it by less than 10 % in the 40 – 55 % relative humidity range, but has no impact at the lower or higher relative humidities.**

Using the kinetic framework and classification scheme of Berkemeier et al. (2013), Figure 6 illustrates how the change in relative humidity leads to a change in the kinetic regime of HO₂ uptake. At the highest relative humidities the uptake is limited by surface accommodation. At intermediate relative humidities with $\gamma < \alpha_{s,o}$, the uptake is limited by surface-to-bulk transport, which is related to both solubility (Henry’s law coefficient) and diffusivity (diffusion coefficient) in the kinetic model. Under both conditions, the uptake is driven by chemical reaction in the near-surface bulk and effectively limited by mass accommodation, which includes both surface accommodation and surface-to-bulk transport (Behr et al., 2009; Berkemeier et al., 2013). At low relative humidities the HO₂ uptake coefficient was limited by chemical reaction at the surface as discussed below (Berkemeier et al., 2013).

Although the viscosity changes by more than 8 orders of magnitude and the diffusion coefficients change by 5-7 orders of magnitude over the investigated range of relative humidity, the measured HO₂ uptake coefficients change by only ~ 1 order of magnitude. This can be explained to some extent by the uptake coefficient being proportional to the square root of the diffusion coefficient when the uptake is controlled by reaction and diffusion of HO₂ in the bulk (Davidovits et al., 2006; Berkemeier et al., 2013). If this were the only mechanism involved, however, one would still expect a change in the uptake coefficient by 2.5 – 3.5 orders of magnitude. The most plausible explanation for the relatively high HO₂ uptake coefficients observed at low relative humidities is a surface reaction of HO₂. For example, at 17 % RH and without a surface reaction, γ values as low as $\sim 5 \times 10^{-4}$ and $\sim 3 \times 10^{-5}$ would be expected using the Zobrist et al. (2011) and Price et al. (2014) parameterisations, respectively. However, by including the following **self-reaction of HO₂** at the surface of the sucrose particles, much better agreement with the observed values of around $\sim 10^{-2}$ could be obtained (Fig. 5):



Although the true mechanism for reaction at the surface remains unclear, the large rate constant for this reaction suggests that copper could potentially be catalyzing the destruction of HO₂ at the surface of the sucrose particles which is consistent with the higher HO₂ uptake coefficients measured onto solid aerosol particles containing transition metals compared to solid aerosol particles containing no transition metal ions (Matthews et al., 2014; Lakey et al., 2015a; Bedjanian et al., 2013; George et al., 2013). Note however that for a relevant surface reaction in kinetic flux models, it is necessary to use an effective desorption lifetime τ_d in the millisecond to second time range (Berkemeier et al., 2016; Shiraiwa et al., 2010). This is many orders of magnitude longer than would be expected due to pure physisorption as estimated by molecular dynamic simulations (Vieceli et al., 2005), indicating that the adsorption process should involve chemisorption or formation of long-lived intermediates that would have the potential to extend these effective desorption lifetimes (Shiraiwa et al., 2011a; Berkemeier et al., 2016). The effect and importance of surface reactions is consistent with previous work by Gržinić et al. (2015), Steimer et al. (2015) and Berkemeier et al. (2016) for the uptake of N₂O₅ to citric acid and the uptake of O₃ to shikimic acid over a range of relative humidities. A second potential reason for the discrepancy at low humidities could be an incomplete equilibration of the aerosol particles with respect to RH, as they had only been mixed with the conditioning flow for ~ 10 seconds before entering the reaction flow tube. Bones et al. (2012) inferred from measurements on larger particles that for 100 nm diameter sucrose aerosol particles the equilibration time would be more than 10 seconds when the viscosity increased above ~ 10⁵ Pa s, which would occur at ~ 43 % RH (Power et al., 2013). The actual diffusion coefficients would thus be higher than assumed in calculations which assume fully equilibrated particles. However, the near-surface bulk of the aerosol particles, where the reactions occur, would be much better equilibrated with respect to RH than the inner core of the aerosol particles (Berkemeier et al., 2014). This means that the lack of aerosol equilibration with respect to RH is likely to have a negligible impact upon the HO₂ uptake coefficient.

It should also be noted that the KM-SUB modelling results were very sensitive to the initial aerosol pH. For example, at a pH of 4.1 (used in Figure 5, the reason for this value is discussed below) the HO₂ uptake coefficient as predicted by the KM-SUB model at 50 % RH (using the Zobrist et al. (2011) H₂O diffusion coefficients) was $\gamma = 0.06$ compared to $\gamma = 0.11$ at pH 5 and $\gamma = 0.21$ at pH 7. The reason for this strong dependence upon pH has been discussed previously and is due to the partitioning of HO₂ with its conjugate base O₂⁻, as shown by Reaction 4, affecting the effective Henry's law coefficient and the effective rate constants (Thornton et al., 2008). Although it was not possible to measure the actual pH of the aerosol particles, it was possible to estimate the concentration of copper (II) sulphate (which is a weak acid) within the aerosol particles using the known growth factors of sucrose aerosol particles (Lu et al., 2014). The pH of 0.05 M and 0.1 M copper (II) sulphate solutions (which were calculated to be the extremes of the possible copper concentrations over the RH range) were then measured using a pH meter (Jenway, 3310) as being in the range of 4.10 ± 0.05 . It is expected

that the pH would be dominated by the presence of copper sulfate rather than sucrose which has a pH of 7 in water and a very high pKa of 12.6. Therefore, there is confidence that the correct initial aerosol pH was inputted into the model. Hence, while the HO₂ uptake coefficient might depend on further factors such as aerosol pH, a clear dependence on relative humidity, and hence particle viscosity could be observed, and it remains likely that at low humidity a surface loss process becomes dominating.

HO₂ uptake by SOA

A summary of all HO₂ uptake experiments performed on SOA is shown in Table 2. On average the HO₂ uptake coefficient was measured as 0.004 ± 0.002 onto TMB derived aerosol particles produced in the PAM chamber, whereas for α -pinene derived aerosol particles only an upper limit of 0.001 (obtained from the error in the slope of Figure 4(a)) could be placed on the HO₂ uptake coefficient at 50 and 80 % RH. It should be noted that for the α -pinene experiments the HO₂ uptake coefficient was non-measurable for both ozonolysis and photochemistry experiments using both the smog chamber and the PAM chamber as sources of the SOA, and therefore only upper limits of individual experiments are reported in

Table 2. There was some variability for the upper limits that were measured for individual α -pinene experiments which is likely to be due to the maximum aerosol surface-to-volume ratio that was obtained in each experiment.

There are several possible reasons for the larger HO₂ uptake coefficients being measured for the TMB derived aerosol particles compared to the α -pinene derived aerosol particles. These reasons will be summarised below, but include a differing particle viscosity, a different particle liquid water content or a HO₂ + RO₂ reaction occurring within the aerosol particles. Although the viscosity of α -pinene derived aerosol has been measured as $\sim 10^3$ Pa s at 70 % RH and $> 10^9$ Pa s for RH < 30 %, to our knowledge, there are currently no measurements of the viscosity of TMB derived aerosol published in the literature (Renbaum-Wolff et al., 2013). By running the KM-SUB model it can be estimated that the diffusion coefficient of HO₂ within the particles would need to be approximately 1×10^{-10} cm² s⁻¹ for TMB derived aerosol particles and $< 5 \times 10^{-12}$ cm² s⁻¹ for α -pinene derived aerosol particles. This range of values seems to be consistent with the diffusion coefficients estimated by Berkemeier et al. (2014) and Lienhard et al. (2015) for water diffusion in low and medium O:C SOA.

Thornton et al. (2003) previously suggested that for malonic acid aerosol particles the liquid water content could be limiting the aqueous chemistry below 40 % RH. As can be seen by the HO₂

reaction scheme, the rate of Reaction R6 is dependent upon the liquid water concentration within the aerosol, and therefore the uptake coefficient could be limited by a low aerosol liquid water content. However, there remains some uncertainty as to whether the liquid water content of TMB derived aerosol particles would be higher than the liquid water content of α -pinene derived aerosol particles. Duplissy et al. (2011) measured a higher hygroscopicity parameter (κ_{org}) for TMB derived aerosol particles compared to α -pinene derived aerosol particles whereas Lambe et al. (2011b) and Berkemeier et al. (2014) stated the opposite. However, as well as being dependent upon the hygroscopicity parameter, the liquid water content of the aerosol particles would also be dependent upon the O:C ratio in the SOA.

If the viscosity and liquid water content of the α -pinene and TMB derived aerosol particles are similar, the larger HO₂ uptake coefficients measured for TMB derived aerosol particles could be due to a higher reactivity of these aerosol particles towards HO₂. This could be the case if the TMB derived aerosol particles contained reactive radical species such as organic peroxy radicals, RO₂, which partition into the aerosol or are formed within the aerosols by intra-particle reactions (Donahue et al., 2012; Lee et al., 2016). As previously stated in the Data Analysis section, during α -pinene experiments, no indication of RO₂ being present in the flow tube was observed by FAGE as a HO₂ interference. However, for TMB derived aerosol particles, a large background signal was observed by FAGE indicating that reactive radical species were likely to be present within the flow tube. If the reaction of HO₂ with these species at the surface or within the bulk of the aerosol was faster than the equivalent gas phase reaction, a larger HO₂ uptake coefficient would be observed.

Atmospheric implications and conclusions

The effect of aerosol viscosity upon HO₂ uptake coefficients was systematically investigated with a combination of HO₂ uptake coefficient measurements and a state-of-the-art kinetic model. A good correlation was obtained between measured HO₂ uptake coefficients onto copper doped sucrose aerosols as a function of RH and the KM-SUB model output. **At higher relative humidities the uptake was limited by mass accommodation whilst at lower relative humidities the aerosol particles were viscous and the uptake was limited by surface reaction.** These results imply that viscous aerosol particles will have very little impact upon gaseous tropospheric HO₂ concentrations.

The first measurements of the HO₂ uptake coefficient onto SOA have been reported in this work. The HO₂ uptake coefficient measured for α -pinene derived aerosol particles was below the limit of detection of the apparatus ($\gamma < 0.001$) whereas for TMB derived aerosol particles the uptake coefficient was measurable ($\gamma = 0.004 \pm 0.002$). These results are consistent with the copper doped sucrose results, and indicate that the impact of SOA on gaseous HO₂ concentrations would likely be

small. However, it remains unclear as to the reasons for the larger HO₂ uptake coefficient measured onto TMB derived aerosol particles compared to α -pinene derived aerosol particles. The possibility that the larger uptake coefficient onto TMB derived aerosol particles was due to a lower viscosity of the aerosol particles or a higher liquid water content compared to α -pinene derived aerosol particles cannot be confirmed until further measurements of the viscosity and liquid water content of TMB derived aerosol particles are published in the literature. However, if the larger uptake coefficients are due to a HO₂ + RO₂ reaction within the aerosol, this could impact the HO₂ uptake coefficient for any aerosol containing RO₂. The actual increase would depend on a variety of factors such as the concentrations of RO₂, the partition coefficients of RO₂ to the aerosol particles, the reactivity of different RO₂ species with HO₂ radicals and the intra-particle formation of RO₂ and other reactive radicals (Lee et al., 2016; Donahue et al., 2012; Tong et al., 2016). The HO₂ + RO₂ reaction could potentially occur within the majority of aerosol particles within the atmosphere, this could have implications for the gaseous HO₂ and RO₂ concentrations in the troposphere which could then impact upon the concentrations of other species such as ozone.

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Figures

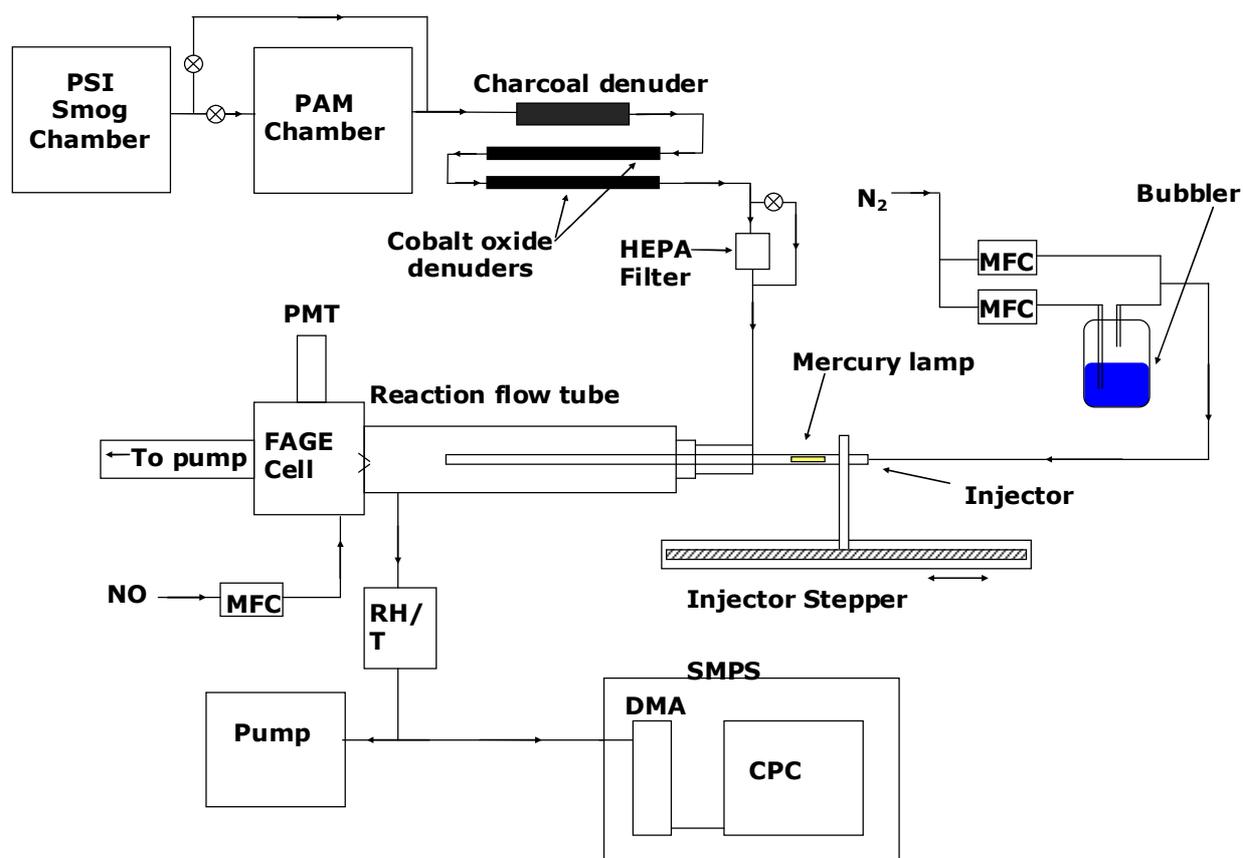


Figure 1: A schematic of the experimental setup used to measure HO₂ uptake coefficients onto SOA aerosol particles. Key: PAM- Potential aerosol mass, PMT- Photomultiplier tube, FAGE- Fluorescence Assay by Gas Expansion, MFC- Mass flow controller, RH/ T- relative humidity and temperature probe, SMPS- Scanning mobility particle sizer, DMA- Differential mobility analyser, CPC- Condensation particle counter.

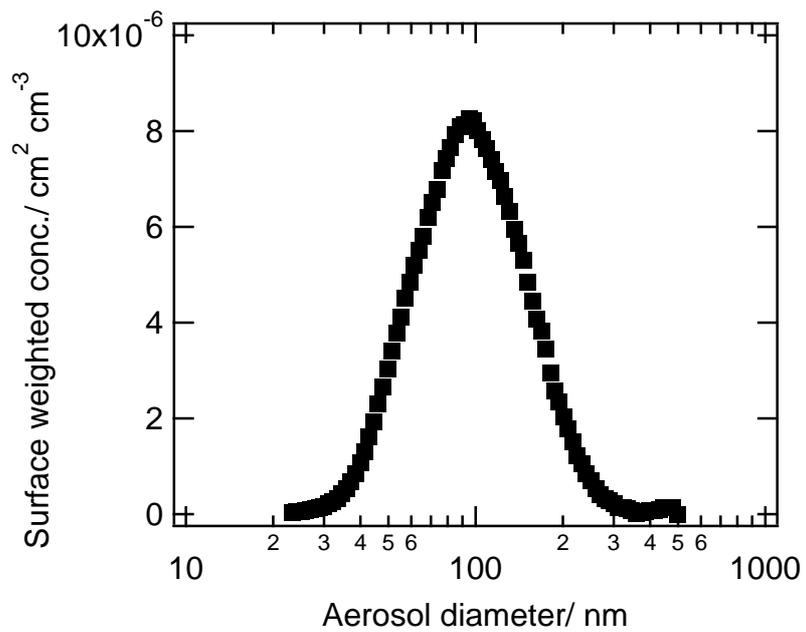


Figure 2: An example of the size distribution for α -pinene derived aerosol particles formed in the PAM chamber at a relative humidity of $\sim 50\%$.

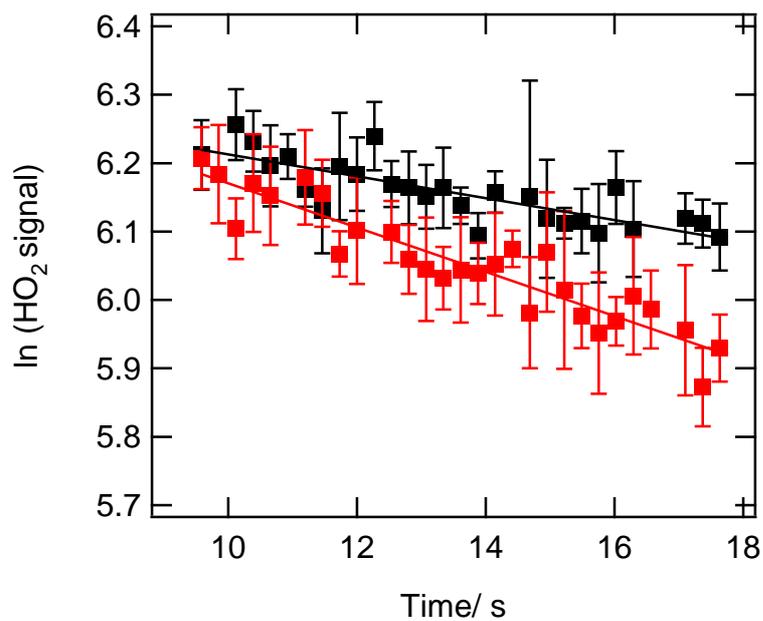


Figure 3: Examples of the HO₂ wall loss without any aerosol particles along the flow tube (black squares) and the HO₂ loss with an aerosol surface area of $2.2 \times 10^{-4} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ for TMB derived aerosol particles at an initial HO₂ concentration of $\sim 1 \times 10^9 \text{ molecule cm}^{-3}$ (red squares) and for RH = 50 %. The error bars represent one standard deviation in the measured HO₂ signal for a measurement time per point of 3 seconds.

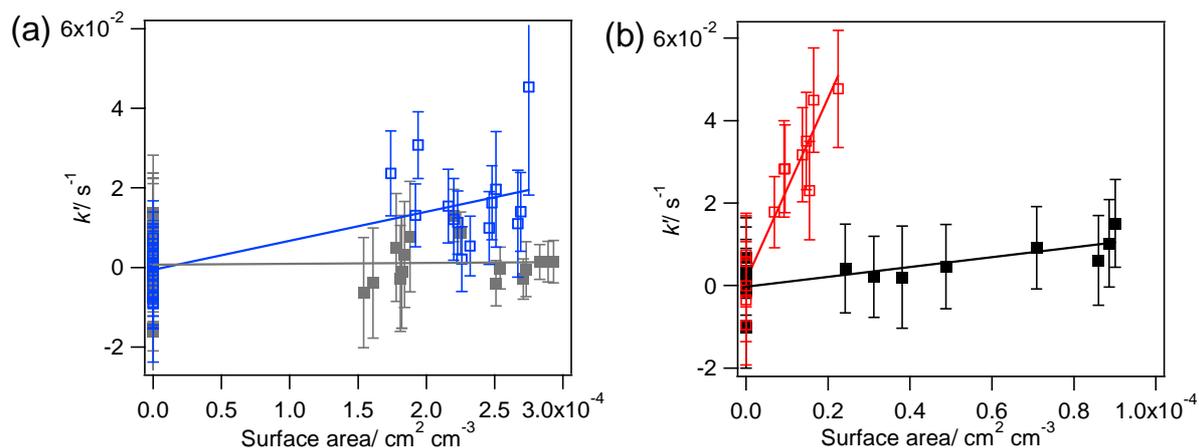


Figure 4: The pseudo-first-order rate constants with the wall losses subtracted as a function of aerosol surface area for (a) α -pinene derived aerosol particles (grey) and TMB derived aerosol particles (blue) at 50 % RH and a pressure of 904 – 929 mbar and (b) copper doped sucrose aerosol particles at 17% RH (black) and 71% RH (red) at atmospheric pressure. Experiments were performed at 293 ± 2 K. In panel (a) experiments were performed using the PAM chamber as the source of aerosol particles and represent experiments 5 and 6 in Table 2. Error bars represent the 1 standard deviation propagated uncertainty for individual determinations of k' . The data points at an aerosol surface area of $0 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ (no aerosol particles present) are repeats of the wall loss decays taken throughout the experiment and are within error of each other.

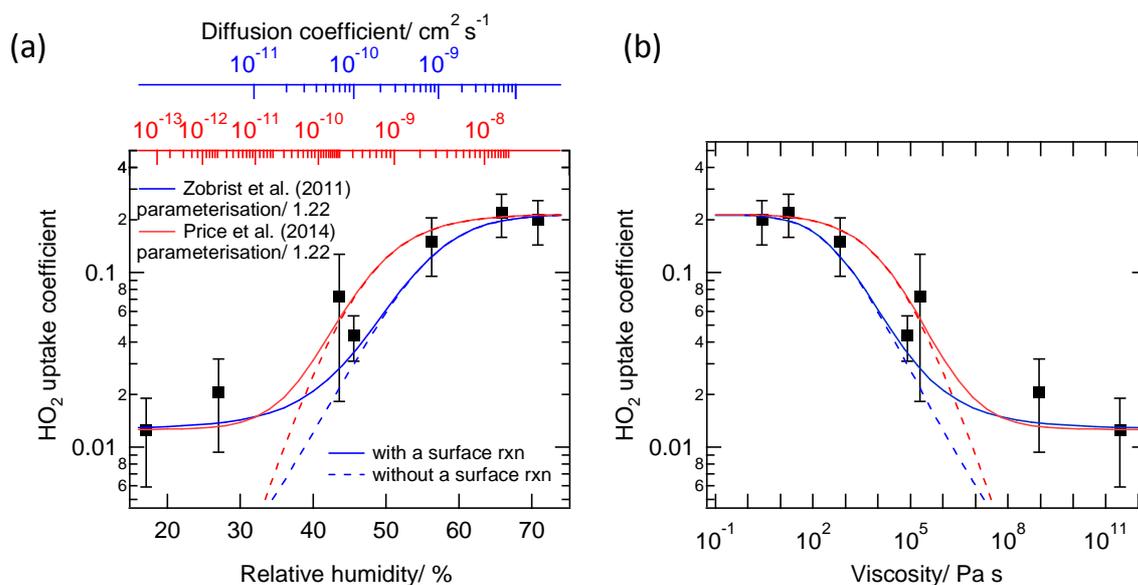


Figure 5: The HO_2 uptake coefficient onto copper (II) doped sucrose aerosol particles as a function of (a) relative humidity and (b) aerosol particle viscosity. The lines represent the expected HO_2 uptake coefficient calculated using the KM-SUB model using the Price et al. (2014) (red) and Zobrist et al. (2011) (blue) diffusion parameterisations (see model description section) and with (solid) and without (dashed) the inclusion of a surface reaction (Reaction R11). The viscosity within sucrose aerosol particles is based upon the data and fitting shown in Power et al. (2013) and Marshall et al. (2016) whilst the red and blue axes in panel (a) are the Price et al. (2014) and Zobrist et al. (2011) diffusion parameterisations, respectively. The error bars represent two standard deviations of the propagated error in the gradient of the k' against aerosol surface area graphs.

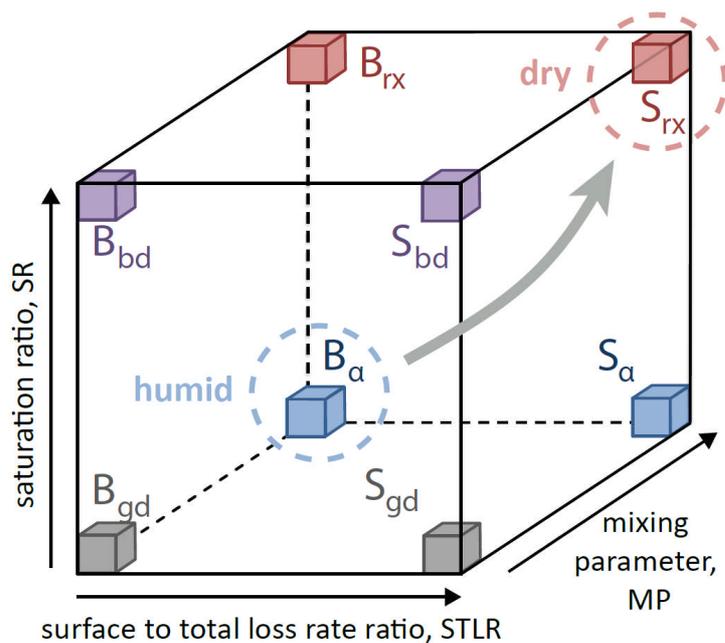


Figure 6: The kinetic cube representing the eight limiting cases for uptake of gases to aerosol particles (Berkemeier et al., 2013). B_{rx} : bulk reaction limited by chemical reaction, B_{bd} : bulk reaction limited by bulk diffusion of the volatile reactant and the condensed reactant, B_{α} : bulk reaction limited by mass accommodation, B_{gd} : bulk reaction limited by gas-phase diffusion; S_{rx} : surface reaction limited by chemical reaction, S_{bd} : surface reaction limited by bulk diffusion of a condensed reactant, S_{α} : surface reaction limited by surface accommodation, S_{gd} : surface reaction limited by gas-phase diffusion. For copper doped sucrose aerosol particles, the HO_2 uptake coefficient is limited by mass accommodation under humid conditions and by chemical reaction at the surface at low relative humidity.

Tables

Table 1: The parameters used in the KM-SUB HO₂ uptake model **over all relative humidities**.

Parameter	Description	Value at 293 K	Reference
$k_{BR,1}$	Rate constant, R5	$1.3 \times 10^{-15} \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$	Thornton et al. (2008)
$k_{BR,2}$	Rate constant, R6	$1.5 \times 10^{-13} \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$	Thornton et al. (2008)
$k_{BR,3}$	Rate constant, R7	$1.7 \times 10^{-13} \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$	Jacob (2000)
$k_{BR,4}$	Rate constant, R8	$1.3 \times 10^{-11} \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$	Jacob (2000)
$k_{BR,5}$	Rate constant, R9	$2.5 \times 10^{-12} \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$	Jacob (2000)
$k_{BR,6}$	Rate constant, R10	$1.6 \times 10^{-11} \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$	Jacob (2000)
k_{GP}	Rate constant, R3	$3 \times 10^{-12} \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$	Sander et al. (2003)
K_{eq}	Equilibrium constant, R4	$2.1 \times 10^{-5} \text{ M}$	Thornton et al. (2008)
H_{HO_2}	HO ₂ Henry's law constant	5600 M atm^{-1}	Thornton et al. (2008)
τ_d	HO ₂ desorption lifetime	$1.5 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}$	Shiraiwa et al. (2010)
$\alpha_{s,0}$	HO ₂ surface accommodation at time 0	0.22	
D_{g,HO_2}	HO ₂ gas phase diffusion rate constant	$0.25 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$	Thornton et al. (2008)
[Cu]	Copper concentration (used when modelling copper doped sucrose aerosol particles)	$5 \times 10^{19} \text{ cm}^{-3}$	
T	Temperature	293 K	

Table 2: Summary of the reactants and conditions that were utilised and the HO₂ uptake coefficients that were measured during the experiments. Experiments 1 - 4 were performed using the smog chamber whereas experiments 5 - 9 utilised the PAM chamber.

Experiment number	Reaction type	Initial precursor concentrations	UV	Relative humidity in the chamber/%	Pressure in the flow tube/mbar	Maximum aerosol surface to volume ratio in the flow tube/cm ² cm ⁻³	HO ₂ uptake coefficient (γ)
1	α -pinene ozonolysis	[α -pinene] = 600 ppb [O ₃] = 280 ppb	Off	50	987	6.30×10^{-5}	< 0.01
2	α -pinene ozonolysis	[α -pinene] = 600 ppb [O ₃] = 280 ppb	Off	50	965	1.30×10^{-4}	< 0.004
3	α -pinene ozonolysis	[α -pinene] = 200 ppb [O ₃] = 310 ppb	Off	80	939	7.10×10^{-5}	< 0.006
4	α -pinene photochemistry	[α -pinene] = 500 ppb [NO ₂] = 350 ppb	On	50	940	6.30×10^{-5}	< 0.018
5	α -pinene photochemistry	[α -pinene] = 500 ppb	On	50	929	2.93×10^{-4}	< 0.001
6	TMB photochemistry	[TMB] = 2 ppm	On	50	923	2.75×10^{-4}	0.004 \pm 0.002
7	TMB photochemistry	[TMB] = 2ppm	On	50	918	2.32×10^{-4}	0.004 \pm 0.003
8	α -pinene photochemistry	[α -pinene] = 500 ppb	On	50	927	1.88×10^{-4}	< 0.005
9	α -pinene photochemistry	[α -pinene] = 1 ppm	On	80	904	3.90×10^{-4}	< 0.001

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