

Interactive comment on “Heterogeneous photochemistry of imidazole-2-carboxaldehyde: HO₂ radical formation and aerosol growth” by L. González Palacios et al.

We thank both of the reviewers for their helpful comments and suggestions. In the following we respond to all of the reviewer comments. The Reviewer Comment is first copied using regular text in black, followed by our response using italic font in blue. A copy of the text that we have changed in the manuscript is also added (in green) to facilitate a simultaneous consideration of the reviewers' comments and our replies where appropriate.

Anonymous Referee #1

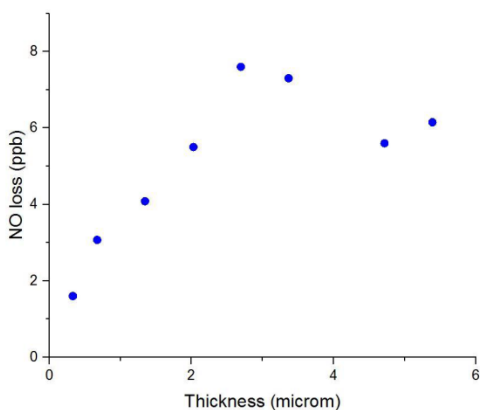
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This is a nice manuscript that should be of great interest to the atmospheric community. HO₂ production from aerosols has not been widely investigated; this work suggests that it should not be ignored. I recommend that this manuscript be published following some minor revisions and clarifications.

Major comments:

Is the reaction occurring only at the surface, or also in the bulk? Did PHO₂ depend at all on film thickness? If only the surface reaction matters, then bulk phase diffusion (and reactions) can be ignored. If production in the bulk is important, I would expect HO₂ production to depend on film thickness. Did it?

Response: The reaction occurs both in the bulk and at the surface of the studied films, as HO₂ production was observed for both solid and liquid (viscous) films. In the latter case, an experiment performed at PSI by PCA where IC:CA ratio was kept constant shows the classical behavior of reaction governed by reaction and diffusion (see figure below). At low thicknesses, P_{HO2} increases linearly with thickness, but saturates at higher thickness above 2-3 μm. Therefore, P_{HO2} represents clearly HO₂ production throughout the top few μm. HO₂ produced further below is likely lost by self-reaction in the bulk.



We have added this Figure in the SI text of the revised manuscript, and added some discussion in Section 3.1.

What is the expected extent of light attenuation throughout the film? If light is attenuated by the film, photolysis in CWFT experiments would occur primarily at the glass-film interface, and any HO₂ formed would have to diffuse to the surface before being released to the gas phase. Conversely, photolysis in the aerosol flow tube would occur primarily at the aerosol-air interface, and no diffusion would be required prior to HO₂ desorption to the gas phase. Could this explain the greater gas-phase HO₂ production in the aerosol flowtube compared to in the CWFT (either in addition to or in place of increased surface area of the aerosols)?

Response: The glass-film interface question can be answered by the response above. The films under study were about 3-4 μm; the above figure shows that these values are too thick for the glass-film interface to play a role in the HO₂ production observed.

For the light attenuation, we base our response on Figure S2. Our NO₂ actinometry studies show that there is not a significant decrease of photolysis to the gaseous NO₂ in the presence of a citric acid film (these studies were not performed in the presence of IC though). All photons need to penetrate the aqueous film before they can photolyze NO₂ in our setup, and if the film attenuated the light, there should be a significant decrease to the JNO₂ value when the film is present.

Notably, the IC is an optically thin absorber in our films. The optical density (O.D.) of IC in the film at 300 nm is 0.058, at 320 nm is 0.0095 and at 330 nm is 0.0019 (following Eq. $O.D. = c \times \sigma \times l$, where c is 0.300 M of IC in the film, the σ at 300 nm is $9.2 \times 10^{-18} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ molecule}^{-1}$, the σ at 320 nm is $1.5 \times 10^{-18} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ molecule}^{-1}$, and the σ at 330 nm is $3.0 \times 10^{-19} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ molecule}^{-1}$ and l is 3.81 μm. Since the peak of the JIC spectrum is near 330 nm (Fig. S3), the effect of IC inside the film on the JIC is insignificant.

We believe that the higher production of HO₂ in aerosols (no diffusion needs to be accounted) is due to the potential higher reaction rate coefficient of limonene with the triplet state of IC compared to the reaction rate coefficient of citric acid. We assume this since in the AFT experiments, the concentration limonene that is exposed to the excited triplet state of IC is much lower than in the CWFT experiments.

In the Conclusion the authors state that HO₂ production is reduced at dry film surfaces due to increased viscosity (and therefore decreased IC and HO₂ mobility) within the film. Is it possible that the reactions occur at the surface and are enhanced by the presence of water? At what RH is a monolayer of water expected to exist at the film surface? Could ionized citric acid behave differently than molecular CA?

Response: Water seems to play a role when the H-donor is in the aqueous phase (compared to the aerosol studies where the H-donor is in the gas-phase, and low RH did not seem to have a significant effect on P_{HO2} as it did in the CWFT studies). Figure 5 further suggests a complex role of water. According to Zardini et al. (2008) pure citric acid solution does not efflorescence; therefore, the film remained as a homogeneous aqueous solution under all RH conditions, and

thus the conclusion that the lower P_{HO_2} is reduced due to lower diffusivity at low RH is well justified.

At the high citric acid activities of this study, acidity is very low, and citric acid predominantly is in its non-dissociated form. pH may have an effect on the absorbance of IC and thus probably on the P_{HO_2} , but this was not investigated.

In the revised manuscript we have added the following in line 525 after P_{HO_2} : “Zardini et al. (2008) demonstrates that pure citric acid does not effloresce, this suggests, that the film remained as a homogenous aqueous solution under all RH conditions. This supports our conclusion that there is lower diffusivity at low RHs since the IC/CA reaction is favored by a certain amount of water molecules present, the range which has been previously stated.”

Minor Comments:

Equation 1 uses 300 nm as a lower limit. Is this appropriate? Is light at that wavelength absorbed by the jacketed flow tube? Even a small change in the wavelength limits could change the calculated photon flux significantly.

Response: The limit at 300 nm is appropriate based on a limitation from the emission of the fluorescence lamps used (the emission below 300 nm is significantly low) and the material of the flow tube (DURAN glass, see <http://www.duran-group.com/en/about-duran/duran-properties/optical-properties-of-duran.html>). Since the peak of the JIC is near 330nm, and rapidly decreasing at shorter wavelengths (Fig. S3), changing the lower wavelength limit is not expected to change JIC more than the reported uncertainty in JIC.

Equation 1 also bases the absorption cross section of IC on that measured in aqueous solution. Is the absorbance of IC in a solid film expected to be the same as that in aqueous solution?

Response: Our films are not solid, but an aqueous solution of IC and CA. Nevertheless, matrix effects on the absorbance would deserve further investigation beyond the scope of the present study; we have allowed ample uncertainty on the calculated JIC to take into account such caveats.

There is only one data point at O₂ levels greater than 55% shown in Figure 6. I would feel more comfortable with the stated conclusion that HO₂ production decreases above 55% O₂ with more measurements at higher O₂ fractions.

Response: Lines 368-371, have been changed to: “We assume that at 55% O₂, the quenching of excited triplet states by O₂ has an effect on HO₂ production. This effect may decrease HO₂ production based on our results being qualitatively consistent with the observations of decreasing aerosol growth at high O₂ in the autophotocatalytic aerosol growth described in Aregahegn et al. (2013). However, the experimental focus of this study was based on atmospheric O₂ mixing ratios and thus we cannot conclude about the HO₂ production at high O₂ mixing ratios.”

p. 4 lines 103-106: “... that in absence of other known radical sources confirm that HO₂ production from aerosols can start photochemistry.” I don’t understand what this sentence means. Doesn’t photochemistry form the HO₂?

Response: The motivation for this sentence comes from the overarching role of gas phase radical sources in atmospheric chemistry. We have modified the sentence. It now reads: “Section 2.2 describe aerosol flow tube experiments that confirm the photochemical production of HO₂ radicals in the absence of other known gas-phase radical sources.”

p.7 line 182-183: What do you mean by a “thin” film? Be a bit more quantitative.

Response: We have changed the sentence to: “...which was then dispersed into a thin (3 – 4 μm) and viscous film.” We have also changed line 180 to: “The range of concentrations in the films was between 0.148 – 0.671 M of IC and 5.29 – 6.68 M of CA.”

p. 11 line 303: “Each data point was measured from a freshly prepared coated film in the flow tube.” What is meant by “each data point”? Figure 2 is a time series; presumably each data point was acquired during the same experiment (using the same film).

Response: We have changed the sentence to: “For irradiation, humidity and oxygen dependence experiments, each data point represents a separate experiment using a freshly prepared coated film in the flow tube.”

p. 13 line 365: In describing Figure 6, the authors say that “A marginal decrease below 15% O₂...” Marginal might not be the most appropriate term, since HO₂ production decreases to zero in the absence of O₂.

Response: We have removed ‘marginal’ here.

p. 18 line 508 -510: OH does not start Fenton reactions. Please reword.

Response: We have modified the sentence to read: “The unknown amount of HO₂ that remains in the condensed phase is a further source of OH in the same phase; this OH, in the presence of reduced metals, can trigger a cycle of Fenton reactions or other oxidizing pathways that can further age the aerosol.”

Figure 4: What are the open circles in the plot?

Response: We have added a sentence in line 743: “The solid symbols represent the flux of HO₂ and the open circles represent the flux of HONO.”

Anonymous Referee #2

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The work by González Palacios et al. provides indirect evidence for the formation of HO₂ during photosensitized reactions of aerosols and thin surface films containing an imidazole and a H-atom donor (e.g., citric acid or limonene). This is a complicated system. The results are of high quality and appropriate methods and techniques were applied to the problem. I recommend publishing after the following points are addressed.

It was not clear how the data support that this reaction is autocatalytic? Are not autocatalytic processes characterized by a logistic product profile, whereas the NO₂ vs time profile shown in Figure 2 show NO₂ formed decreasing between 20 and 75 minutes. Is there any indication that this will level off at some significant steady state at later reaction times? On line 296-299 the authors state that the system only slowly evolves into a steady state; however how long does that take? If it does not reach steady-state, and the system ceases to convert NO into NO₂ over time, then this is not an autocatalytic system.

Response: We have substituted the term 'autophotocatalytic' by 'photocatalytic'. We agree that our data do not allow for a firm conclusion about the autocatalytic nature of the mechanism. The initial autophotocatalytic statement applies to aerosol growth, not the CWFT films, and was based on previous studies (Aregahegn et al., 2013; Rossignol et al., 2014). We ran experiments in the CWFT overnight with a single film (> 10 hrs). Consistently the peak NO₂ production is observed shortly upon turning lamps ON; NO₂ reach sort of a plateau within the first hour, and in the overnight experiments NO₂ formation was always observed. While the 10hr integral HO₂ production rate is smaller than the added amount of IC, the 10hr integral photoexcitation rate of IC in the film is larger than the added amount of IC. Hence, the fact that NO₂ formation is observed in the overnight experiments supports the photocatalytic claim. Notably, there is nothing in our data that would contradict the earlier conclusions in previous studies (Aregahegn et al., 2013; Rossignol et al., 2014).

The paragraph starting on Line 70 explains the motivation behind studying imidazole photochemistry. As stated by the authors, imidazole is thought to be generated from the reaction of glyoxal with ammonium and amines. The authors only discuss imidazole in SOA has been strictly in laboratory settings (see references cited), which may or may not be reflective of the real environment. I feel this section should include current views (for and against) on the importance of imidazole in atmospheric samples. The recent article by Teich et al. (ES&T 2016, 50, 1166) may be of help here. Such a discussion will help to better convey the atmospheric significance of this study.

Response: We have added discussion about field measurements of IC, including the results presented in Teich et al., 2016 in the revised manuscript.

The following text was added: "Field measurements of imidazoles are generally sparse, yet, recently Teich et al. (2016) identified five imidazoles (1-butylimidazole, 1-ethylimidazole, 2-ethylimidazole, IC and 4(5)-methylimidazole) in ambient aerosols in concentrations ranging

from 0.2 to 14 ng/m³. IC, the molecule under study in this article, was measured in its hydrated form in ambient aerosols in three urban areas with signs of air pollution and biomass burning (Leipzig, Germany, Wuqing and Xianghe, China). The observed quantities of hydrated IC ranged from 0.9 to 3.2 ng/m. The authors claim that these values could be a lower limit due to high losses of IC during sample preparation indicated by low recovery from standard solutions. This suggests that IC and other imidazole derivatives are present in areas with high pollution and biomass burning. Field measurements in Cyprus during the CYPHEX campaign in 2014 detected IC and bis-imidazole in ambient aerosol samples (Jakob et al. 2015). The IC diurnal cycles showed the highest concentrations at night (0.02 – 0.115 ng/m³), and lower concentrations during the day, suggesting that ambient concentrations of IC in aerosols are a balance between photochemical sources and sinks. While imidazoles seem to be widespread in polluted and remote areas, the atmospheric implications of IC, and possibly other photosensitizers related to brown carbon light absorption as radical sources in ambient aerosols deserve further study.”

Did the authors determine the concentration of nitrate present in their coatings during or following their reactions? When such high levels of NO_x, it may be possible that some nitrate could be deposited to the surface. In such a case, photolysis of nitrate could release NO₂ into the gas phase. Also, what was the pH of the films coating the glass walls? If citric acid was used this could have lowered the coating pH, in which case one must consider acid-base chemistry as well. This could impact organic photochemical reaction intermediates and also the yield of HO₂, NO₂ (via nitrate photolysis) and HONO generated in the system.

Response: We did not measure nitrate in either systems. However, this response follows Response #3 to Reviewer #1 (please see above). As stated above, the high CA concentrations in the studied films have a very low pH (not measured). According to studies from Laskin et al. (2014) in a citric acid-nitrate system HNO₃ is in the gas-phase at low pH; this depletes nitrates by 45 – 55%, and lowers the chance of any photolyzed nitrate to contribute to the NO₂ observed.

We have added the following statement in the Conclusion section of the manuscript: “A systematic study of the effect of pH on the IC and CA absorption cross-sections, and the product yields from the IC photochemistry is desirable.”

In the case of the aerosol flow reactor, citric acid was not used; Limonene was used instead, which would not acidify the particle. This represents a major difference between the CWFT and aerosol flowtube measurements that was not discussed. I would be interested in seeing if the authors think this difference could explain why NO_x consumption in the aerosol system was so different than during the CWFT experiments.

Response: The higher NO_x consumption in the AFT is probably the result of vigorous gas-phase secondary chemistry, possibly involving NO₃ radicals, and the longer reaction times in the AFT experiments; HNO₃ formation is further expected to result into significant acidification in the AFT experiments, but not in the CWFT experiments. The NO_x consumption was not the focus of this study, and deserves further investigation.

line 40. The phrase, “. . . implications consist in a. . .” is awkwardly phrased. Perhaps revise to say rather: “Our results indicate a potentially relevant contribution. . .”

Response: We have adopted the reviewer suggestion.

line 58. Include “concentrations” after OH₂

Response: Changed.

lines 83-84: Paragraph too long. I suggest inserting a paragraph break between these lines

Response: Changed.

lines 128-134: It appears that J-values for NO₂ photolysis were calculated using clean flow tubes (i.e., in the absence of a coating). Therefore, one is assuming that the J-values for the clean tube are the same as those for a coated tube. Does the IC coating on the coated-wall flow tube attenuate the light enough to invalidate this assumption? If the IC coating does attenuate the light transmitted through the flowtube, how could this bias interpretation of the results?

Response: This is not correct. The actinometry was measured in a clean glass tube and in a citric acid coated flow tube – the IC absorption in the actinic window (see Fig. S3) is very small. See also our response to Reviewer #1.

line 253 (and other places where the term “H-donor” is used): The authors might want to clarify that the VOCs are H-atom donors, rather than proton donors as in the case of a Bronsted acid.

Response: We have clarified this. The following sentence was added to Section 1, line 91. The sentences after were made a new paragraph. “The citric acid and limonene are H-atom donors (referred to as H-donor from hereon), rather than proton donors as in the case of a Bronsted acid. In particular, the transfer of the H-atom leads to the formation of an alkyl-radical species. The H-atom transfer thus has the same effect as an H-atom abstraction reaction by Cl or OH radicals.”

lines 314-318: It is not clear to me: Do the authors think that the NO to NO₂ conversion by HO₂ is occurring in the organic surface film or in the gas phase? How can they be sure?

Response: As stated above (see replies to reviewers 1, and new Figure added to the SI), the HO₂ formation occurs at the surface and in the bulk of the condensed phase. It is somewhat improbable that NO reacts with HO₂ in the condensed (due to low NO solubility); formation of NO₂ may occur at the interface and in the gas phase. The comparison between the AFT and CWFT data suggests that the NO to NO₂ conversion is happening in the gas-phase, since this is a very fast reaction, apparently observed with higher efficiency in the system with the lower total surface area (AFT).

lines 319-323: The concentration of citric acid [CA] is in such excess relative to the imidazole. Could it not be assumed that [CA] is constant over the course of the experiments? In that case, why not just plot [HO₂] vs [IC] instead of vs [IC]x[CA].

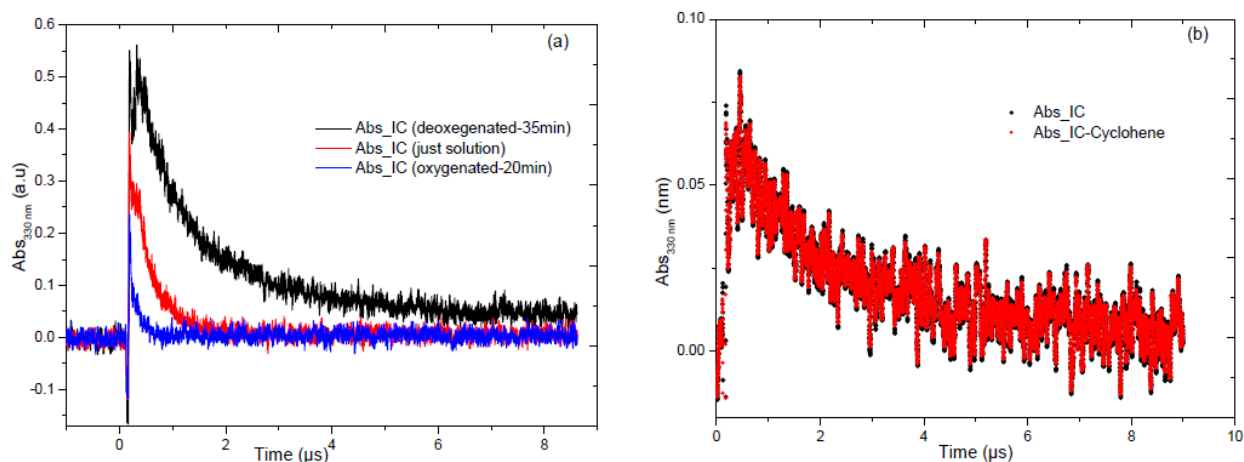
Response: CA is constant throughout all experiments, and thus it could be presented either way. We prefer to show the product of IC x CA due to CA representing an H-atom donor, and thus plays a crucial role in the mechanism.

lines 344-347: The authors discuss the role of coating viscosity on photochemistry. A recent article by Hinks et al. (PCCP, 2015, DOI: 10.1039/c5cp05226b) discusses this effect nicely and should be cited here.

Response: Thanks for pointing this out. The reference has been added. “Hinks et al. (2016) observed that the photodegradation rate of their studied secondary organic material increases with increased RH. This suggests that the motion of the molecules in a viscous film at a low RH is hindered and thus results in a lower photochemical reaction.”

line 361: Cannot also H₂O photophysically quench the triplet excited state? Is this important for this system?

Response: In laser photolysis experiments (not reported here), it was shown that oxygen may quench the triplet state of IC (without suppressing it even in oxygenated solutions – see figure below) and that the decay rate was first order in the H-donor. This is strongly suggestive of a minor role (if any) of the products of that reaction on the lifetime of the triplet state of IC



*Figure 5-2 Triplet-triplet absorption of IC in water-acetonitrile (3:2);
(a) effect of degassing, (b) in the presence of cyclohexene.*

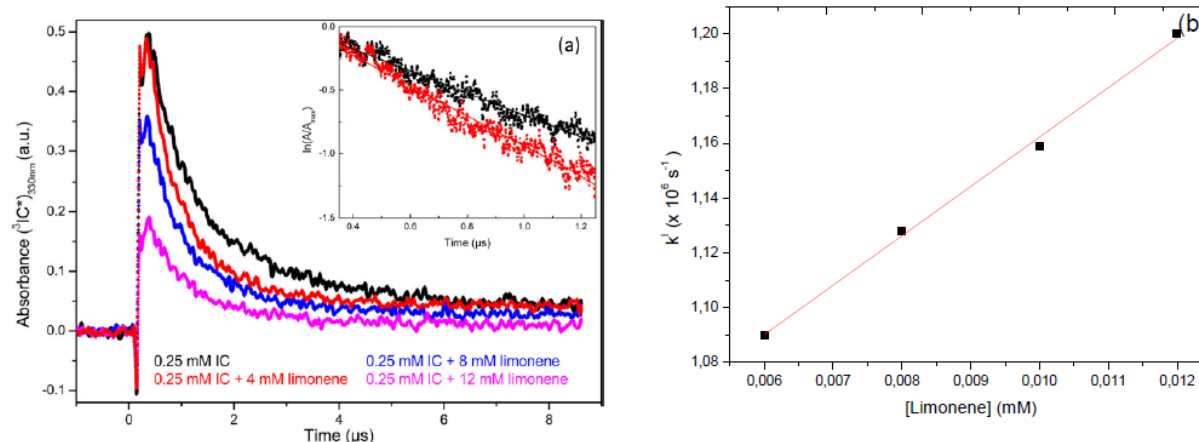
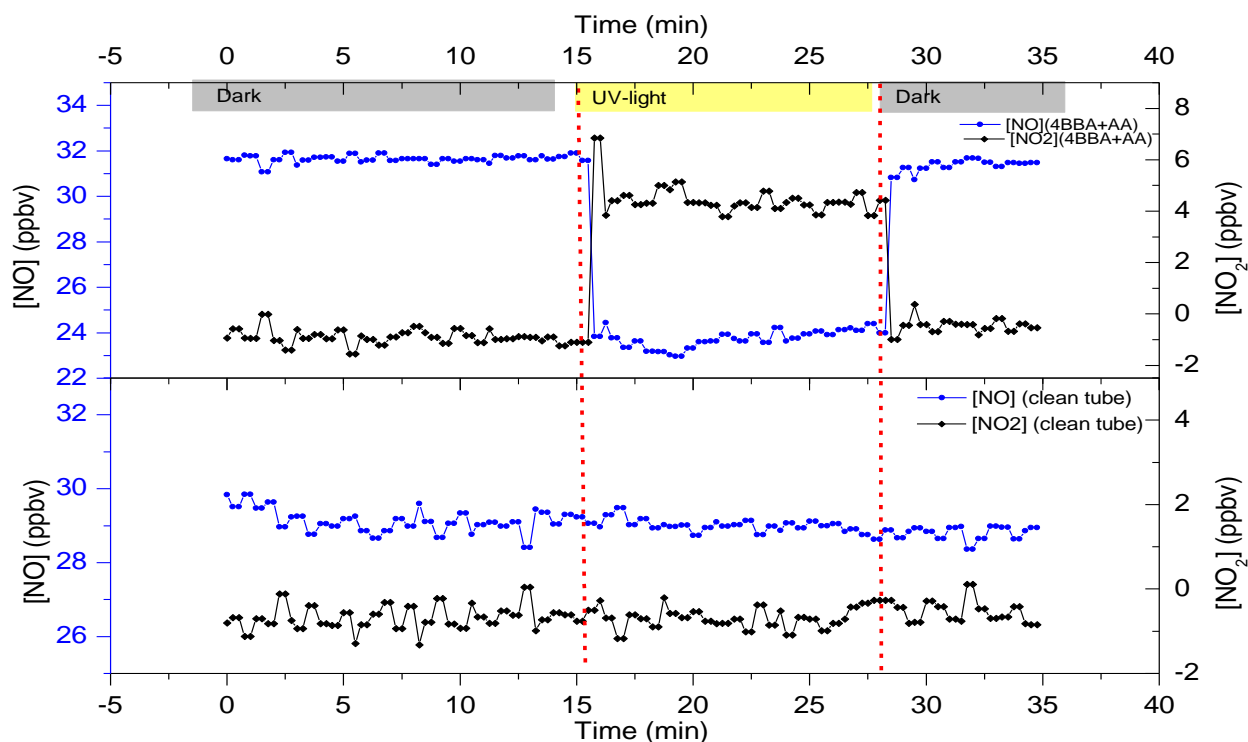


Figure 5-3 The change in the first order rate constant of IC for different limonene concentration; (a) transient absorption of excited triplet state of IC (0.25 mM). In the presence of (4 mM-Red), (8 mM – Blue) and (12 mM-pink) limonene; (b) first order rate constant as a function of limonene concentration.

lines 403-406: The authors mention that the photosensitizer 4-BBA behaves similar to IC. I would like to see this data included in the SI.

Response: The figures below have been added to the SI. The reader is reminded to see this Figure in the SI in Section 3.1.2.



lines 426: With respect to ozone formation in the flowtube and aerosol systems, did the authors measure ozone and can they confirm that it was not observed in the system? Lifetimes of ozone were indicated for these experiments, do they account for heterogeneous loss as well?

Response: Ozone formation was measured to be ca. 20 ppbv in the AFT experiments in presence of NO. It was produced due to the significant extent of NO₂ photolysis during these experiments (operated with long residence times (ca. 20-50 min) and led to the secondary chemistry mentioned above (and in the manuscript). Secondary chemistry and O₃ formation were suppressed in the CWFT experiments (1 ppm NO, limited NO₂ photolysis over 2 sec residence time). We estimate the upper limit for the O₃ concentration < 0.5 ppbv O₃. Attempts to measure O₃ during selected experiments showed it below the detection limit. This is the primary reason why we believe the CWFT provides more quantitative determinations of P_{H2O2}.

Figure 8: Focusing on the “IM-C-OH(dot)” intermediate, should not the dot be centered on the carbon and not the alcohol H?

Response: This has been changed. Write as IM-C(dot)-OH.

Heterogeneous photochemistry of imidazole-2-carboxaldehyde: HO₂ radical formation and aerosol growth

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Abstract

The multiphase chemistry of glyoxal is a source of secondary organic aerosol (SOA), including its light-absorbing product imidazole-2-carboxaldehyde (IC). IC is a photosensitizer that can contribute to additional aerosol ageing and growth when its excited triplet state oxidizes hydrocarbons (reactive uptake) via H-transfer chemistry. We have conducted a series of

photochemical coated-wall flow tube (CWFT) experiments using films of IC and citric acid (CA), an organic proxy and H-donor in the condensed-phase. The formation rate of gas-phase HO₂ radicals (P_{HO2}) was measured indirectly by converting gas-phase NO into NO₂. We report on experiments that relied on measurements of NO₂ formation, NO loss, and HONO formation. P_{HO2} was found to be a linear function of (1) the [IC]×[CA] concentration product, and (2) the photon actinic flux. Additionally, (3) a more complex function of relative humidity (25% < RH < 63%), and of (4) the O₂/N₂ ratio (15% < O₂/N₂ < 56%) was observed, most likely indicating competing effects of dilution, HO₂ mobility and losses in the film. The maximum P_{HO2} was observed at 25-55% RH and at ambient O₂/N₂. The HO₂ radicals form in the condensed-phase when excited IC triplet states are reduced by H-transfer from a donor, CA in our system, and subsequently react with O₂ to re-generate IC, leading to a catalytic cycle. OH does not appear to be formed as a primary product but is produced from the reaction of NO with HO₂ in the gas phase. Further, seed aerosols containing IC and ammonium sulfate were exposed to gas-phase limonene and NO_x in aerosol flow tube experiments, confirming significant P_{HO2} from aerosol surfaces. [Our results indicate a](#) ~~Atmospheric implications consist in a~~ potentially relevant contribution of triplet state photochemistry for gas-phase HO₂ production, aerosol growth and ageing [in the atmosphere](#).

1. Introduction

The sources and sinks of radicals play an important role in the oxidative capacity of the atmosphere. Radicals and other oxidants initiate the chemical degradation of various trace gases, which is key in the troposphere (Jacob, 1999). The hydroxyl (OH) and peroxy (HO₂) radicals belong to the HO_x chemical family and are primarily generated by ultraviolet radiation photochemical reactions (Calvert and Pitts, 1966), like the reaction of O(¹D) (from O₃) with H₂O, or photolysis of HONO, HCHO, H₂O₂, or acetone. Some secondary gas-phase sources are the ozonolysis of alkenes or O(¹D) + CH₄ (Monks, 2005). The oxidation of VOCs by OH and other oxidants in the presence of NO leads to perturbations in the HO_x, NO_x, and RO_x radical cycles that affect O₃ and aerosol formation (Monks, 2005; Sheehy et al., 2010). The kinetics and photochemical parameters of these reactions are relatively well-known in the gas-phase (Atkinson et al., 2004; Sander et al., 2011). However, this does not apply to the sources and sinks for HO_x in atmospheric droplets and on aerosol surfaces (Ervens et al., 2011). Uptake of OH from the gas-

phase, and H₂O₂ photolysis in the condensed phase are the primary known sources for HO_x in the condensed-phase. HO₂ is highly soluble and the concentrations of OH, the most effective oxidant in the condensed phase, depend on HO₂ [radicals](#). Another source of HO_x radicals is from the chemical reactions of reduced metal ions and H₂O₂, known as Fenton reactions (Fenton, 1894; Deguillaume et al., 2005). Direct photolysis of H₂O₂, nitrite, nitrate (Zellner et al., 1990), hydroperoxides (Zhao et al., 2013), and light absorbing secondary organic aerosol (SOA) (Badali et al., 2015) are also sources of HO_x in the condensed-phase. Other studies have shown that the photochemistry of iron (III) oxalate and carboxylate complexes, present in aqueous environments (e.g. wastewater, clouds, fogs, particles), can initiate a radical chain reaction serving as an aqueous source of HO₂ and Fe²⁺. Fe²⁺ can then regenerate OH starting a new cycle of Fenton reactions (Weller et al., 2013a, 2013b). The temperature dependent rate constants of OH in the aqueous phase have been studied for a limited subset of organics (Ervens et al., 2003). However, there is still a wide gap with respect to understanding the sources, sinks, kinetics and photochemical reaction pathways of HO_x radicals in the condensed phase (George et al., 2015).

Our study investigates photosensitizers as an additional HO_x source that may be relevant to further modify RO_x and NO_x reaction cycles in both the condensed- and gas-phases. It is motivated by the formation of superoxide in terrestrial aqueous photochemistry (Draper and Crosby, 1983; Faust, 1999; Schwarzenbach et al., 2002), by more recent observations that irradiated surfaces containing titanium dioxide generate HO_x radicals in the gas-phase (Yi et al., 2012) and by the generation of OH from metal oxides acting as photocatalysts in mineral dust (Dupart et al., 2012). Past studies have demonstrated the reactivity of glyoxal towards ammonium ions and amines as a source for light-absorbing brown carbon (Nozière et al., 2009; Galloway et al., 2009; Shapiro et al., 2009; Kampf et al., 2012). One of these products is imidazole-2-carboxaldehyde (IC) (Galloway et al., 2009), which absorbs light at UV wavelengths ($\lambda < 330$ nm) (Maxut et al., 2015). Other imidazole-type compounds and light-absorbing products are formed in minor amounts but can nonetheless impact optical and radiative properties of SOAs (Sareen et al., 2010; Trainic et al., 2011). Photochemical reactions by these species are not typically accounted for in models yet, but have a possible role for SOA formation and aerosol aging mechanisms (Sumner et al., 2014). Photosensitizers are light absorbing compounds that absorb and convert the energy of photons into chemical energy that can facilitate reactions, e.g., at surfaces or within aerosols (George et al., 2015). For example, aerosol seeds containing humic acid or 4-(benzoyl)benzoic acid (4-BBA),

two other known photosensitizers, can induce the reactive uptake of VOCs when exposed to light, leading to secondary organic aerosol (SOA) formation (Monge et al., 2012). Aregahegn et al. (2013) and Rossignol et al. (2014) suggested a mechanism for autophotocatalytic aerosol growth, where radicals are produced from the reaction of an H-donor hydrocarbon species, in this case limonene, and the triplet state of IC. The condensed-phase citric acid and the gas-phase limonene are H-atom donors (in this article we refer to them as H-donor), rather than proton donors as is the case of a Brønsted acid. In particular, the transfer of the H-atom leads to the formation of an alkyl-radical species. The H-atoms transfer thus has the same effect as an H-atom abstraction reaction by Cl or OH radicals.

Field measurements on fog water samples confirmed that triplet excited states of organic compounds upon irradiation can oxidize model samples such as syringol (a biomass burning phenol) and methyl jasmonate (a green leaf volatile), accounting for 30 – 90% of their loss (Kaur et al., 2014). There are very few field measurements of imidazoles; a recent study by Teich et al. 2016 identified five imidazoles (1-butyylimidazole, 1-ethylimidazole, 2-ethylimidazole, IC and 4(5)-methylimidazole in ambient aerosols in concentrations ranging from 0.2 to 14 ng/m³. IC, the molecule of interest in this study, was measured in its hydrated form in ambient aerosols in three urban areas with signs of air pollution and biomass burning (Leipzig, Germany, Wuqing and Xianghe, China). The observed quantities of hydrated IC ranged from 0.9 to 3.2 ng/m. The authors claim that these values could be a lower limit due to high losses of IC during sample preparation indicated by low recovery from standard solutions. This suggests that IC and other imidazole derivatives are present in areas with high pollution and biomass burning. Field measurements in Cyprus during the CYPHEX campaign in 2014 detected IC and bis-imidazole in ambient aerosol samples (Jakob, Ronit, 2015). The IC diurnal cycles showed the highest concentrations at night (0.02 – 0.115 ng/m³), and lower concentrations during the day, suggesting that ambient concentrations of IC in aerosols are a balance between photochemical sources and sinks. While imidazoles seem to be widespread in polluted and remote areas, the atmospheric implications of IC, and possibly other photosensitizers related to brown carbon light absorption as radical sources in ambient aerosols is another motivation to conduct this study.

The existence of such photocatalytic cycles could be of atmospheric significance. Canonica et al. (1995) suggested indeed that the initial carbonyl, triggering the photochemical properties, is regenerated via a reaction with oxygen producing HO₂. To our knowledge, the production of such

radical side products was not investigated under atmospheric conditions previously. We therefore report here on the HO₂ radical production from IC in the condensed-phase.

2. Experimental Section

A series of flow tube experiments were conducted to investigate the formation of gas-phase HO₂ radicals from IC photochemistry using two different CWFT reactors (Sect. 2.1). Section 2.2 describes aerosol flow tube experiments ~~that in absence of other known radical sources that confirm the photochemical production of~~ HO₂ radicals in the absence of other known gas-phase radical sources in aerosols. ~~production from aerosols can start photochemistry.~~ All experiments were performed at atmospheric pressure.

2.1. Coated-wall flow tube experiments

The CWFT experiments were designed to investigate the gas-phase production of HO₂ radicals from a film containing IC and citric acid (CA) matrix as a function of UV light intensity, IC concentration in the film, relative humidity (RH), and O₂ mixing ratio. Two similar experimental setups were used as shown in Fig. 1. Some of the differences, not major, consist in the flow reactor volume, surface area, flow rates, IC mass loading, NO mixing ratio, temperature inside the reactor and the connected instrumentation.

Setup 1. Experiments were conducted in a photochemical flow-system equipped with a Duran glass CWFT (0.40 cm inner radius, 45.2 and 40.0 cm length, inner surface = 113.6 and 100.4 cm², S/V = 5.00 cm⁻¹), which was housed in a double jacketed cell coupled to a re-circulating water bath to control the temperature at 298 K; The setup is shown in Fig. 1A. A thin film of IC+CA was deposited inside the tubular glass flow tube. The experimental procedure for the preparation of the films is described in Sect. 2.1.2. The system consisted of seven ultraviolet lamps (UV-A range, Philips Cleo Effect 22 W: 300-420 nm, 41 cm, 2.6 cm o.d.) surrounding the flow tube in a circular arrangement of 10 cm in diameter.

Setup 2. The second CWFT (CWFT 0.60 cm inner radius, 50 cm length, inner surface 188.5 cm², S/V = 3.33 cm⁻¹) reactor had a glass jacket to allow water to circulate and maintain temperature control inside the tube at 292 K. The coated-wall tubes were snugly fit into the CWFT as inserts. The CWFT was surrounded by the same seven fluorescent lamps as in Setup 1. The light passed

through different circulating water cooling jackets for both setups, thus providing a different light path for each setup.

Setup 1 and 2. The actinic flux in the flow tube reactor, $F_{FT}(\lambda)$, was measured by actinometry of NO_2 (see Supplement for description of J_{NO_2} measurements), independently for both setups. The flows of N_2 , O_2 , air and NO were set by mass flow controllers. The RH was set by a humidifier placed after the admission of N_2 and O_2 gases but before the admission of NO or NO_2 (see Fig. 1), in which the carrier gas bubbles through liquid water at a given temperature. The humidifier could also be by-passed to set a RH of near zero. A typical measurement sequence is described in Sect. 2.1.2.

The J_{NO_2} was measured for both Setup 1 and 2 using NO_2 actinometry. The J_{NO_2} with seven lamps was found to be $2 \times 10^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ for Setup 1 and $1 \times 10^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ for Setup 2 (see Fig. S12 for Setup 1, and Supplemental Information text for both Setups). These values were compared to direct irradiance measurements in the flow tube and thus normalized (see Sect. 3.1.1).

2.1.1. Flow tube instrumentation

The following gas-phase products exiting the flow tube were measured by three different instruments: NO_2 by the University of Colorado Light Emitting Diode Cavity-Enhanced Differential Optical Absorption Spectroscopy (LED-CE-DOAS) instrument (Thalman and Volkamer, 2010), HONO by a Long Path Absorption Photometer (LOPAP, QuMA GmbH, Heland, J., 2001; Kleffmann et al., 2002), and NO by a chemiluminescence analyzer (Ecophysics CLD 77 AM, also used for NO_2 in Setup 2). HO_2 radicals were indirectly measured by detecting NO_2 with the LED-CE-DOAS (Setup 1) and by the loss of NO with the chemiluminescence detector (Setup 2). The latter was preceded by a molybdenum converter to transform HONO and NO_2 to NO , and by an alkaline trap for HONO. Both, trap and converter, had a bypass to allow sequential measurements and thereby obtaining the concentration of NO_2 and HONO separately. HONO was measured by the LOPAP during some selected experiments (Kleffmann et al., 2002, 2006).

LED-CE-DOAS

The LED-CE-DOAS instrument (Thalman and Volkamer, 2010) detects NO₂ absorption at blue wavelengths. A high power blue LED light source (420–490 nm) is coupled to a confocal high finesse optical cavity consisting of two highly reflective mirrors ($R = 0.999956$) peaking at 460 nm that are placed about 87.5 cm apart (sample path length of 74 cm). The absorption path length depends on wavelength, and was about ~11 km near peak reflectivity here. A purge flow of dry nitrogen gas is added to keep the mirrors clean. The light exiting the cavity is projected onto a quartz optical fiber coupled to a Princeton Instruments Acton SP2156 Czerny-Turner imaging spectrometer with a PIXIS 400B CCD detector. The mirror reflectivity was calculated by flowing helium and nitrogen gas, exploiting the difference in the Rayleigh scattering cross sections of both gases as described in Thalman et al. (2014). The gas exiting the flow tube was directly injected into the CE-DOAS cavity, and spectra were recorded every 60 seconds, and stored on a computer. For analysis we use BBCEAS fitting at NO₂ concentrations exceeding few ppbv (Washenfelter et al., 2008) and DOAS least squares fitting methods at lower concentrations (Thalman et al., 2015). The mirror alignment was monitored online as part of every spectrum by observing the slant column density of oxygen collision complexes, O₂-O₂ (O₄) (Thalman and Volkamer, 2010, 2013). The following reference spectra were taken from the literature: NO₂ (Vandaele et al., 2002) and O₂-O₂ collision complexes (Thalman and Volkamer, 2013b). The detection limit for NO₂ was 50–100 pptv.

2.1.2. Experimental conditions

The IC+CA solutions were prepared by adding IC into a 1 M CA solution in 18 MΩ ultra-pure water to achieve IC to CA molecular ratios between 0.026 to 0.127 in the film. The bulk solutions for both [sSetups](#) were prepared by weighing out 384–400 mg of CA in 2 mL of water and adding 4–20 mg of IC to the solution. The solutions for both setups were freshly prepared for each experiment and the masses in the film were calculated at 50% RH from the CA hygroscopic growth factors reported by Zardini et al., 2008 for both setups (for Setup 1: 5–18 mg of IC and 44 mg of CA, for Setup 2: 1–5 mg of IC and 77 mg of CA). The range of concentrations in the films was between 0.148 – 0.671 M [of IC and 5.29 – 6.68 M of CA](#).

The IC+CA solution coatings were produced by depositing 220–250 μL (Setup 1) and 400 μL (Setup 2) of the desired solution in a Duran glass tube, which was then dispersed into a thin_ and

viscous film of 3 – 4 μm . The film was dried with a gentle N_2 stream humidified to a RH similar to the experimental RH and room temperature. The film was rolled and turned upside down to deposit a homogenous film throughout the entire inner surface of the flow tube. The homogeneity of the film was confirmed by visual inspection. If a bright clear homogenous amorphous film from the super-cooled solution was not observed, the film was discarded (e.g. observation of a turbid and cracked crystallized appearance). The carrier gas flows consisted of premixed dry N_2 and O_2 (a ratio of 4.5/1 in Setup 1 and a ratio of 2 in Setup 2), and NO controlled by mass flow controllers. The total flow rates were: 500 mL/min for Setup 1 and 1500 mL/min for Setup 2. In Setup 1, a dilution flow of 1000 mL/min was added at the end of the flow tube for a total of 1500 mL/min during experiments when HONO was measured along with NO_2 . All experiments were conducted at ambient pressure, leading to gas residence times of 2.1 – 2.4 s (depending on flow tube volume, for both setups) under laminar flow conditions. The O_2 flow rate was varied between 0-110 mL/min to observe the dependence of O_2 while keeping the total flow rate constant. A ratio of 4.5:1 of N_2 : O_2 was maintained if any of the other gas flows were changed (e.g. NO, and/or NO_2) for Setup 1. For Setup 2, a ratio of 2:1 of N_2 : O_2 was also maintained, except for the O_2 concentration dependence studies. The RH was kept constant at 50% RH during most experiments, and varied between 10-60% RH to study humidity effects of the HO_2 radical production. The concentration of NO was ~ 1 ppmv (Setup 1) and varied between 100 and 500 ppbv (Setup 2). Scavenging of HO_2 was achieved by the following reaction:



The lifetime of HO_2 is about 5 ms when 2.5×10^{13} molecules cm^{-3} of NO are present (Setup 1), which assures efficient conversion of HO_2 molecules into NO_2 ($k = 8.0 \times 10^{-12}$ cm^3 molecule $^{-1}$ s $^{-1}$ at 298 K, Sander et al., 2011). As shown in Fig. S24, 500 ppbv NO, the concentration used in Setup 2, was sufficient to efficiently convert HO_2 into NO_2 , see Sect. 3.1.1. The lifetime of gas phase HO_2 with respect to loss to the organic film is about 0.1 s, based on a similar formula shown in Equation S3, where $\gamma = 10^{-3}$ (upper limit by Lakey et al., 2015). Note that in view of the essentially diffusion controlled loss of HO_2 to the CWFT and tubing walls, the chosen scheme for determining the production of HO_2 radicals from the films by fast scavenging with NO is superior to a more selective detection method, e.g. LIF, which would require passing the HO_2 radicals into a separate setup with substantial losses. For selective experiments, the films were exposed to

UV irradiation for over six hours which showed [a-only a](#) minor change in the decrease of NO₂ concluding the stability of the reactivity of the films.

2.1.3. J_{IC} calculations

The absorption cross section of IC and the calculated photolysis rate are shown in Fig. S3. The photolysis frequencies of IC were calculated using a similar procedure as described in Schwarzenbach et al. (2002). The spectral irradiance in the flow tube system was interpolated to the surface area of the flow tube to calculate the spectral photon flux density and the absorbed photon flux:

$$F_a^{IC} = \int_{300}^{420} F \times [1 - 10^{-\sigma_{IC}(\lambda) \times b \times C_{IC}}] d\lambda, \quad \text{where } F = \frac{F_{FT}(\lambda) \times SA}{N_a \times V_{film}}, \quad (1)$$

Where F_a^{IC} is the mean absorbed photon flux in Ein L⁻¹ s⁻¹ nm⁻¹ (1 Ein = 3.0 × 10⁵ J per mole of photons at 400 nm), F is the spectral flux density that reaches the film in the flow tube in moles L⁻¹ s⁻¹ nm⁻¹, b is the optical path length taken as the thickness of the film and C_{IC} is the concentration of IC in the film, and σ_{IC} is the IC absorption cross section. The absorption spectrum of IC in water was based on the measurements by Kampf et al. (2012), and re-normalized to the peak value of 10205 ± 2400 M⁻¹ cm⁻¹ at 284 nm (Maxut et al., 2015). V_{film} is the volume of the film calculated from the deposited mass of CA and the hygroscopic growth factors of CA (Zardini et al., 2008), SA is the surface area of the flow tube of the film, taken as the geometric area of the inner surface area of the flow tube in cm², N_a is Avogadro's number in molecules mole⁻¹. The IC photoexcitation rate J_{IC} was about 1.0 × 10⁻³ s⁻¹ (upper limit).

We have also attempted to calculate an effective quantum yield for the formation of gas-phase HO₂ radicals (ϕ_{HO_2}):

$$P_{HO_2} = \frac{[NO_2] \times flow}{N_a \times V_{film}} \quad \phi_{HO_2} = \frac{P_{HO_2}}{F_a^{IC}} \quad (2)$$

Where P_{HO_2} is the HO₂ production rate in mol L⁻¹ s⁻¹, F_a^{IC} is the calculated mean absorbed photon flux by IC (Eq. 1), $[NO_2]$ is the gas-phase concentration of NO₂ in molecules cm⁻³ assuming a 1:1 ratio to HO₂ conversion, $flow$ is the volumetric gas flow at the temperature in the CWTF and atmospheric pressure in cm³ s⁻¹, and V_{film} is in L.

2.2. Aerosol flow-reactor experiments

A detailed description of the aerosol flow tube (AFT) is reported elsewhere (Monge et al., 2012; Aregahegn et al., 2013), therefore, only some principles are recalled below. The SOA experiments were conducted in a horizontal, cylindrical, Pyrex, aerosol flow reactor (13 cm i. d., 152 cm length) surrounded by seven UV lamps (Philips CLEO, 80W) with a continuous emission spectrum ranging from 300-420 nm (total irradiance of 3.31×10^{16} photons $\text{cm}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$). The flow reactor consisted of Teflon stoppers and different flow controllers that maintained the gas/aerosol/UV irradiation contact time between 20-50 minutes. This flow reactor also consisted of an outer jacket that controlled the temperature at 293 ± 2 K by water circulation using a thermostat (Model Huber CC 405).

Seed aerosols (50 nm) were produced by nebulizing a solution (at pH 6) containing ammonium sulfate (AS, 0.95 mM) and IC (1.3 mM), size selected by a DMA, and exposed to gas-phase limonene (500 ppbv) in the aerosol flow reactor. The typical aerosol mass loading in the reactor was $2\text{-}3 \mu\text{g cm}^{-3}$, corresponding to ~ 15000 particles cm^{-3} with a starting diameter of 50 nm. As shown by Aregahegn et al. (in 2013), limonene is an efficient H-donor VOC that forms SOA via reactive uptake to IC containing seed aerosol. Due to the excess of limonene, and low seed aerosol surface area the consumption of limonene was below the detection limit. The aerosol growth was measured by means of an Ultrafine Condensation Particle Counter (UCPC) and a Scanning Mobility Particle Sizer Spectrometer (SMPS; both TSI), and similarly to the CWFT experiment, a flow of gaseous NO (from a 1 ppmv cylinder, Linde) was added to the carrier gas, and its conversion to NO₂ monitored by chemiluminescence detector with a detection limit of 0.05 ppbv (ECO PHYSICS CLD 88). Due to the long residence time, the NO₂ concentration is affected by its photolysis in the AFT. As discussed below, P_{HO₂} was calculated, in this case, from the growth of the particle diameter measured at the exit of the flow tube; the assumption is that growth was due to reactive uptake of limonene only, and that each limonene forms one HO₂ radical. At 30 ppbv NO, the HO₂ radical lifetime is around 2 sec.

2.2.1. Experimental conditions

The total flow rate in the aerosol flow reactor was between 400 – 1000 ml/min, ensuring laminar flow conditions. The RH was varied between 0 – 50%. The RH of particles in the flow reactor was controlled by saturating the carrier gas via a bubbler containing ultra-pure water (Milli Q, 18

Mohm). The RH in the flow reactor system was varied by changing the gas flow rates to the bubbler and the temperature of the circulating water jacket of the bubbler. The RH was measured with a humidity sensor (Meltec UFT 75-AT, Germany) at the exit of the flow reactor. The concentrations for the flow tube experiments were the following: 30 ppbv of NO and 500 ppbv of limonene.

2.3. Chemicals

The following chemicals were used without further purification for CWFT studies: IC (97%, Sigma Aldrich), and CA (Sigma Aldrich). For Setup 1, the Duran glass tubes were soaked in a deconex® cleaning solution overnight, the next day they were rinsed with 18 MΩ water (Milli Q Element system). These flow tubes were etched with a 5% hydrofluoric acid solution after the washing procedure and again rinsed with water before any experimental use. The Duran flow tubes for Setup 2 were not initially etched with any acid but stored in a NaOH solution after washing and lastly rinsed with water; Setup 2 later confirmed that the treatment of flow tube with acids affects P_{HO_2} by rinsing with HCl and etching with HF solutions.

For the aerosol flow-reactor experiments gas-phase limonene was generated from commercially available limonene (Aldrich, 97%) by means of a permeation tube. The following chemicals were used without further purification: IC (97%, Sigma Aldrich) and succinic acid (Sigma Aldrich, $\geq 99.5\%$); 4-benzoylbenzoic acid (4-BBA, Aldrich 99%) and adipic acid (AA, Aldrich, $\geq 99.5\%$) were used to expand the CWFT studies to other photosensitizers.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1. Coated-wall flow tube

The following results represent the light dependent formation of HO_2 indirectly from measurements of NO_2 production and NO loss, measured with setup 1 and 2, respectively. Figure 2 shows a time series of NO_2 measured with setup 1 as a function of UV-A light, which confirms the light dependent radical production. This particular film had an IC/CA ratio of 0.026 (0.148M IC and 5.77M CA in the film). An evident increase of NO_2 is observed upon UV irradiation, directly reflecting the light mediated release of HO_2 , as shown in reaction (R1). The NO_2 signal

decreases over time with all seven lamps was a common feature observed in all films; this could be due to HO₂ sinks in the film increasing with time, thus, the system only slowly evolves into a steady state. A small amount of NO₂ (0.5-1.5 ppbv) was observed during experiments that used only CA in absence of IC; therefore, the data in Fig. 2 and all data reported below have been corrected for this NO₂ background, measured routinely in between experiments. Figure 2 also indicates a strong correlation with irradiance, which is further discussed in the context of Fig. 4. For irradiation, humidity and oxygen dependence experiments, each data point was measured represents a separate experiment using a freshly prepared coated film in the flow tube. The uncertainty for experiments was based on the standard deviation of n , the number of experiments. The total uncertainty was $\pm 6-27\%$ (propagated error for normalization was $\pm 7-29\%$) for the IC mass loading experiments in Setup 1 and up to a factor of two for the light dependence experiments. The uncertainty in Setup 2 was 10-50%. As discussed earlier, the lifetime of HO₂ in the system was about three orders of magnitude less than the residence time in the flow tube, therefore suggesting that most, if not all, reacted with NO to produce the observed NO₂ (R1). Theoretically, the system was clean of other oxidants such as O₃ (and thus NO₃). The uptake of NO₂ in the film was very small to further produce any nitrate radicals, and the photolysis of NO₂ in the experiments to produce O₃ was insignificant ($< 1\%$). The recombination of NO and O₃ contributes a negligible ($< 0.1\%$) NO₂ source under our experimental conditions. RO₂ generation from the reaction between CA and OH from HONO photolysis was also ruled out since it is approximated to account for only 1% of the NO₂ production if we assume every OH from the photolysis reacts with CA. To our knowledge, the direct photolysis of CA to produce any RO₂ radicals has not been observed. Therefore, we believe that HO₂ is the essential oxidant for NO and refer to the measured NO₂ as HO₂ formation.

Figure 3 shows that the HO₂ production fluxes, in molecules cm⁻² min⁻¹, increased with IC mass loading. The CA concentration was kept constant, and results are shown as the product between [IC] \times [CA], since we expect that the production rate of HO₂ is proportional to the concentration of IC, at constant illumination, and that of the potential H-donor, CA. For Setup 1, the HO₂ fluxes were measured as NO₂ mixing ratios, and calculated using the following equation:

$$Fluxes_{HO_2} = \frac{[NO_2] \times flow}{SA} \quad (3)$$

the description of these parameters have been previously explained (see Sect. 2.1.3). For Setup 2, the HO₂ flux was calculated similarly, but only about half of the observed NO [loss](#) was considered to account for the loss of NO via the reaction with OH (see reaction in Supplement R1), meaning that for each HO₂ scavenged two NO molecules were lost. In Figure 3, the data from Setup 1 are represented by the black squares and the data from Setup 2 are represented by the gray circles. Setup 1 measurements were taken at about ~50% RH and at room temperature. Setup 2 measurements were taken at 45% RH and at 292 K. Temperature has an effect on the observed gas-phase HO₂ release from the film and thus needs to be accounted for, which is not accounted for in Fig. 3 but it is described in detail in Sect. 3.1.1.

Figure 4 shows that the HO₂ production exhibited a linear dependence on the actinic flux for various [IC] × [CA] molar products. From Sect. 2.1.3, we estimated an experimental ϕ_{HO_2} of about 6×10^{-5} , reflecting other probable, unknown quenching processes in our system. Figure 4 also shows the formation of HONO from three different IC mass loadings. In all three cases the HONO:NO₂ ratio is < 1, confirming HO₂ as a primary product and OH as a secondary product.

Figure 5 shows the dependence of HO₂ production observed via the loss of NO (Setup 2) on relative humidity (0 – 65%). Water partial pressure is an important parameter in the atmosphere and it seems to also have an important effect on the photochemical reactions studied here. At RH below ~10%, and at high RH above ~55%, the yield of HO₂ radicals decreases. The maximum HO₂ radical production is observed at moderate RH (20 – 55%). This is probably due to a combination of factors. In particular, at low RH the film may become more viscous reducing mobility, and thus the energy transfer within the film. This may decrease the HO₂ yield as shown in Fig. 5. [Hinks et al. \(2016\) observed that the movement of molecules in a viscous film at a low RH is hindered and thus decreases the photochemical reaction rate of secondary organic material.](#)

The reduced diffusivity of HO₂ may also increase the residence time in the film and facilitate the self-reaction in the bulk phase: The diffusivity of H₂O in citric acid is in the range of $10^{-7} - 10^{-8} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ at 50% RH. If the HO₂ diffusivity is between a factor of 10 and 100 lower than that of H₂O due to its larger size, $10^{-9} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$, the first order loss rate coefficient for diffusion out of the film, D/δ^2 , δ denoting the film thickness ($4 \times 10^{-4} \text{ cm}$), becomes about $k_D = 10^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$. From the observed F_{HO_2} , the steady state concentration is then about $F_{HO_2}/k_D/\delta = 4 \times 10^{16} \text{ cm}^{-3} = 10^{-7} \text{ M}$. The loss rate coefficient due to HO₂ self-reaction in the condensed phase ($7.8 \times 10^5 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$) at this concentration would become nearly 0.1 s^{-1} , somewhat higher than that for diffusional loss. Of course these

estimates carry a high uncertainty, but indicate that at lower humidity diffusivity gets low enough to effectively reduce the diffusional loss of HO₂ to the gas phase and favor its loss by self-reaction in the condensed phase. The potential presence of condensed phase sinks, such as RO₂, formed from secondary chemistry of oxidized citric acid may add to this uncertainty. [Figure S4 shows that bulk diffusion can be neglected since any HO₂ produced below the first couple of micrometers at the top of the film are likely lost to self-reaction in the condensed phase. This supplementary experiment studied the thickness dependence of the films keeping the IC:CA ratio constant. The results show that P_{HO₂} increases linearly with thickness up to ~2.5 μm, however, after this thickness the film saturates, showing that this must happen at our films that are between 3–4 μm thick.](#) At high RH (> 55%), the amount of water associated with CA dilutes the reactants, and quenching of the excited IC triplet states gains in relative importance, consistent with findings in other studies (Stemmler et al., 2006, 2007; Jammoul et al., 2008). The RH effect can decrease the HO₂ production by a factor of 3, compared to the plateau of maximum HO₂ production between 20 – 55% RH.

Figure 6 shows the dependence of the HO₂ production based on the observed NO loss on the O₂ mixing ratio (Setup 2). The HO₂ production varied by about 20% over the range of conditions investigated. A ~~marginal~~ decrease below 15% O₂ appears to be significant compared to the maximum HO₂ production at ~40% O₂, indicating that O₂ is needed for HO₂ formation. Sufficient O₂ dissolves in the aqueous phase to produce HO₂ radicals efficiently at atmospheric O₂ mixing ratios. [We assume that at Above 55% O₂, the HO₂ production decreased, which is probably due to quenching of excited IC triplet states by O₂ has an effect on HO₂ production. This effect may decrease P_{HO₂} based on our results being are](#) qualitatively consistent with the observations of decreasing aerosol growth at high O₂ in the autophotocatalytic aerosol growth described in Aregahegn et al. (2013). [However, the experimental focus of this study was based on atmospheric O₂ mixing ratios and thus we cannot conclude about the HO₂ production at high O₂ mixing ratios.](#)

In order to test the possibility for excited IC triplet states to react with NO₂ at the surface of the film, experiments were conducted with NO₂. While we did observe that the uptake of NO₂ on irradiated surfaces scaled with light intensity (see Fig. S54) the reactive uptake coefficient of NO₂ to produce HONO at the surface is rather small (< 2.5 × 10⁻⁷), corresponding to a *k_w* of 10⁻³ s⁻¹ and thus neither a significant loss of NO₂ nor a significant source of HONO. The primary fate of the nitrogen-containing aromatic alkoxy IC radical under atmospheric conditions is reaction with O₂.

However, we have not tested alternative quenching reactions of the triplet state, or other pathways of the reduced ketyl radical that do not result into formation of HONO.

3.1.1 Comparison of data sets

The experimental conditions probed differ in the actinic flux, NO concentration, temperature, and acidity. Here, we use the dependencies established in Sect. 3.1 to compare results from both setups. The data from Setup 2 were normalized to conditions of Setup 1. The difference in J_{NO_2} corresponds to multiplying results from Setup 2 with a factor of 2.0 ± 0.1 . HO_2 was measured indirectly by reacting it with NO, and Fig. S24 indicates the minimum NO concentration needed to efficiently scavenge all gas-phase HO_2 is ~ 460 ppbv of NO, indicating efficient conversion for Setup 1, and a conversion efficiency of ~ 0.6 for Setup 2. The data from Setup 2 were multiplied by 1.66 ± 0.10 to normalize for the NO conversion efficiency (Fig. S24), and by an additional factor 1.25 ± 0.10 to match temperatures. We observed some limited variability depending on whether HF or HCl were used to clean the flow tube prior to experiments. A higher P_{HO_2} was observed when cleaning with HF (Setup 1) compared to storing in NaOH and either rinsing with water or HCl (Setup 2); this is accounted by multiplying data from Setup 2 with a factor of 1.25 ± 0.30 . Notably, the error of the correction for the cleaning procedure that is propagated here is larger than the correction factor. The effect of the pretreatment of the flow tubes was not systematically studied, and thus remains a primary uncertainty in the comparison. No further correction was applied for slight differences in RH. The overall correction factor amounts to 5.2 ± 1.4 , with the error reflecting the propagated uncertainty. This explains most the difference in P_{HO_2} between both setups. The normalized results agree within a factor of 2, which is a reasonably good agreement.

3.1.2 Extension to other photosensitizers

A limited number of experiments were performed using the CWFT approach, using 4-BBA as a photosensitizer, in presence of 790 ppbv of gaseous limonene (a possible H-donor) and NO. The organic thin film contained an organic acid matrix made of 4-BBA with/without adipic acid (AA). Also in this system a substantial conversion of NO into NO_2 was observed (see Fig. S6). That 4-BBA behaves similar to the IC system demonstrates that the chemistry discussed above can occur on different excited carbonyls. It is interesting to note that this photo-induced conversion, and HO_2 production, was observed to be sustained over long times i.e., more than 15 h probably due to the catalytic nature of the underlying chemical cycles. However, a fraction of the IC did get consumed

by photolysis reactions that do not form the excited triplet state (observed during overnight experiments). The HO₂ flux for the 4-BBA system was estimated to be 2.77×10^{10} molecules cm⁻² min⁻¹ making the same assumption that each HO₂ molecule reacts with NO to generate an NO₂ molecule. The calculation is based on Eq. 3, where it depends on the concentration of NO₂ as well as the surface area and residence time.

3.2. Aerosol Flow Tube

The aerosol flow tube experiments were conducted similarly to the study by Aregahegn et al. (2013), i.e., who demonstrated that in the absence of NO and known gas phase oxidants, seed particles containing IC can initiate SOA growth in presence of a gaseous H-donor (limonene). Figure 7 shows the results from similar experiments when NO was added to the system. No conversion of NO to NO₂ was observed prior to the injection of limonene into the flow tube. The presence of a gaseous H-donor and light clearly initiated a series of photochemical processes, leading to SOA growth and gaseous NO₂ production. However, the quantitative interpretation of these experiments is not straightforward due to efficient radical cycling in the VOC/NO_x/light photochemical system, and the lack of a blank experiment that did not contain IC as part of the seed particles. Limitations arise from the much longer residence time, which allows NO₂ to be significantly photolyzed. The J_{NO_2} was estimated as $\sim 6.75 \times 10^{-3}$ s⁻¹, and corresponds to a photolysis lifetime of 2.5 minutes, which is smaller than the actual residence time in the flow tube (~40 mins). Secondary chemistry can lead, among others, to ozone production (O₃ lifetime at 500 ppbv limonene is ~7 min), and secondary OH radical formation from the ozonolysis of limonene. Notably, NO_x is not consumed in Fig. 7. The overall effect of this secondary chemistry is an increased SOA growth compared to an experiment without added NO (Aregahegn et al., 2013). As a consequence, the NO₂ yield cannot be used directly to assess P_{HO2} in presence of NO.

However, in the absence of NO these secondary processes can largely be avoided, and are reduced at a level where they cannot be identified (Aregahegn et al., 2013). Under such conditions, the particle growth rates presumably carry information about the photosensitizer cycling and subsequent HO₂ production. If we assume one molecule of limonene reacts to produce one HO₂, the volume change of aerosols is proportional to the overall number of HO₂ produced. For example, a growth of 15,000 particles cm⁻³ from diameter 51.4 nm to 68.5 nm in 40

mins (residence time) is equal to P_{HO_2} of 1.67×10^{14} molecules $cm^{-2} min^{-1}$. This should be interpreted as an upper limit for the actual P_{HO_2} , because water uptake may also be contributing to the volume growth. However, compared to the CWFT experiments the much higher surface to volume ratio of nanoparticles is expected to enhance the chemical coupling of a gas-phase H-donor and the excited IC triplet state at the aerosol surface. This is at least in part deemed responsible for the two orders of magnitude higher P_{HO_2} in the aerosol flow tube compared to the CWFT experiments. Notably, even if ϕ_{HO_2} in the aerosol flow tube was two order of magnitude higher than in the CWFT, it is still significantly smaller than unity.

Primary HO_2 formation from IC

One of the main advantages of the CWFT is that it operates at much shorter residence time. From Setup 1, we derive a P_{HO_2} of 1.76×10^{12} molecules $cm^{-2} min^{-1}$ for $IC/CA = 0.1$ and $J_{NO_2} = 8 \times 10^{-3} s^{-1}$. This corresponds to 2.9×10^4 molecules $cm^{-3} s^{-1}$ once normalized by aerosol surface area ($1.18 \times 10^{-6} cm^2 cm^{-3}$), and J_{NO_2} in the aerosol flow tube. Such a primary radical flux is equivalent to the OH radical production rate resulting from photolysis of ~ 1 pptv of HONO in the aerosol flow tube. Conversely, a P_{HO_2} of 1.67×10^{14} molecules $cm^{-2} min^{-1}$ is equivalent to the OH radical production rate from ~ 100 pptv HONO in the aerosol flow tube. We conclude that seed particles containing IC contribute significantly (equivalent to 1-100 pptv HONO) to the primary HO_x radical production rate in the aerosol flow tube experiments in the presence of NO (Fig. 7). Primary HO_2 radicals formed from IC containing seed particles react rapidly with NO to form OH radicals under the conditions shown in Figure 7. The H-donor species is further expected to form primary RO_2 radicals. These primary HO_2 and RO_2 radicals add directly to the conversion of NO into NO_2 , and indirectly by driving secondary NO-to- NO_2 conversion from the RO_2/HO_2 radical chain. The aerosol flow tube experiments thus qualitatively confirm the results obtained from macroscopic surfaces, and highlight the potentially important role of surface-to-volume ratio and gaseous H-donors to enhance the relevance of H-donor photochemistry as sources for HO_x/RO_x radicals and SOA.

3.3. Proposed mechanism

A mechanism that can describe the results from the CWFT experiments is shown in Fig. 8. It follows the mechanism first proposed by Canonica et al., in 1995. The primary product in our system is the HO_2 radical, which forms from the reaction between a nitrogen-containing aromatic

alkoxy IC radical and a ground state oxygen molecule, recycling the IC molecule. The aromatic alkoxy radicals form from the excited triplet state of IC via transfer of an H atom from an H-donor (in our case likely to be CA, or the CA/H₂O matrix). While a fraction of the IC will get consumed by photolysis reactions that do not form the excited triplet state (see Sect 3.1.2.), IC is also continuously produced from multiphase reactions, e.g., of glyoxal (Yu et al., 2011; Kampf et al., 2012; Maxut et al., 2015). Another conclusion is that OH is a secondary product. If OH was a first generation product we would have expected HONO:NO₂ ratios larger than 1:1. A smaller ratio was observed, as shown in Fig. 4, indicating that there was no direct evidence for primary formation of OH radicals. Interestingly, the H-donor species becomes activated as a result of H-abstraction, and can react further to produce organic peroxy radicals, as evidenced by the aerosol flow tube results.

4. Atmospheric relevance

The atmospheric relevance of our findings consists of the possible effect of heterogeneous radical sources to modify atmospheric HO₂ radical concentrations, and facilitate aerosol growth and ageing by adding a radical source within aerosol particles. The production of ~~gas-phase~~ HO₂ from IC photosensitized heterogeneous chemistry is a possible source of gas-phase HO₂ radicals in ambient air. In order to estimate the possible relevance for HO₂ radical concentrations in urban air, we assume P_{HO₂} of 2×10^{12} molecules cm⁻² min⁻¹ (IC/CA = 0.1, Setup 1) as a lower limit, and 2×10^{14} molecules cm⁻² min⁻¹ (IC/AS = 0.1, aerosol flow tube) as an upper limit, and typical conditions in Mexico City (i.e., $J_{NO_2} = 8 \times 10^{-3}$ s⁻¹ at noontime in Mexico City, aerosol surface area = 15 cm² m⁻³; Volkamer et al., 2007). The normalized P_{HO₂} during noon time in Mexico City ranges from 2×10^5 to 2×10^7 molecules cm⁻³ s⁻¹. This corresponds to a rate of new HO₂ radical production of 4 to 400 pptv/hr HONO around solar noon in Mexico City (Li et al., 2010), where other radical sources produce about 5.9×10^7 molecules cm⁻³ s⁻¹ at solar noon (Volkamer et al., 2010). The upper range value suggests that aerosol surfaces can be a significant source of gas-phase HO_x in places like Mexico City. However, the IC molar ratios used here are likely an upper limit compared to ambient aerosols, yet, in principle other brown carbon molecules (i.e. HULIS and/or other imidazole derivatives) may form additional gas-phase HO₂. The heterogeneous HO₂ radical source could further be relatively more important in unpolluted regions under biogenic

influences, where gas-phase radical production rates are lower. A more comprehensive characterization of the heterogeneous HO₂ source effect on gas-phase HO₂ radical concentrations hence deserves further investigation.

OH radical uptake from the gas-phase is a primary OH source in aerosols (Ervens and Volkamer, 2010). Assuming a gas-phase OH concentration of 10⁶ molecules cm⁻³, 15 cm² m⁻³ aerosol surface area, and γ_{OH} of unity, the rate of OH uptake is approximately 2.3 × 10⁵ molecules cm⁻³ s⁻¹. The above estimated P_{HO₂} is a result from H-transfer to form organic peroxy radicals which is comparable to the rate of OH uptake. The two similar estimates of HO_x suggest that IC is a significant source of radicals in the condensed phase of particles. This is a lower limit due to the unknown radical losses of HO_x to the condensed phase, which hold potential to leverage the HO_x source by up to a factor 10,000 if limited by the IC excitation rate. The unknown amount of HO₂ that remains in the condensed-phase is a further source of OH in the condensed-phase; this OH, in the presence of reduced metals, that can trigger a cycle of start-Fenton reactions (if iron is present) or other oxidizing pathways that can further age the aerosol.

These results show that IC, and other aromatic carbonyl photosensitizers, are likely a relevant radical source in aerosol particles. Photo-induced radical generation in condensed phases is currently not represented in atmospheric models that describe aerosol ageing, and warrant further study.

5. Conclusion

Three different experimental setups consistently show that HO₂ radicals are produced from the photochemistry of IC in a CA+H₂O matrix and in seed aerosols containing ammonium sulfate (in presence of a gas-phase H-donor, limonene). The linear correlations of P_{HO₂} (with [IC]/[CA] and irradiation) yielded maximum P_{HO₂} under atmospherically relevant irradiation, O₂ and RH, but also revealed a complex role of film viscosity, and possibly acidity effects (a systematic study of the effect of pH on the IC and CA absorption cross-sections and the product yields from the IC photochemistry is desirable). If the H-donor species is in the condensed phase, significant amounts of HO₂ reach the gas-phase only for moderately high RH (~25 – 55% RH) that facilitates H-transfer, and allows molecules (IC, HO₂) to move freely towards the surface of the film. When the film was too dry this mobility is inhibited due to enhanced viscosity and significantly decreases

the P_{HO_2} . At RH and O_2 higher than 55%, we observe a decrease in P_{HO_2} probably due to dilution by water and competing quenching reactions in the film. [We know from Zardini et al. \(2008\) that pure citric acid does not efflorescence and thus the film remains homogenous in its aqueous phase under all RH conditions. This supports our conclusion that the \$P_{HO_2}\$ is RH dependent since it is partially controlled by the diffusivity in the film. On the contrary, if](#) the H-donor species is in the gas-phase, significant HO_2 production is also observed under dry conditions. The primary fate of the $IC\bullet-OH$ radical at the surface is reaction with O_2 to form HO_2 . NO_2 reactions do not appear to form HONO at the surface. Our results suggest that the radical source from photosensitizers such as IC can help jump-start photochemistry of VOCs. The effect on the gas-phase HO_2 radical concentration increases for higher surface to volume ratio of aerosols, and in the presence of gas-phase H-donors. The autophotocatalytic growth of aerosols containing photosensitizers via H-donor chemistry is a SOA source also in the presence of NO , and adds oxidative capacity inside aerosol particles. Further research on other types of H-donors and photosensitizers is necessary to compare different P_{HO_2} and rates of aerosol growth from reactive uptake of VOC that could potentially have a significant atmospheric relevance for SOA formation and heterogeneous aerosol ageing.

Author contributions

M.A. and R.V. designed the experiments at PSI; C.G. and B.N. those at IRCELYON. L.G.P., P.C.A., and K.Z.A. conducted the measurements, analyzed data, and contributed equally to this work. S.S.S., T.B.R. helped during the experiments, and all co-authors contributed to the data interpretation. L.G.P. and R.V. prepared the manuscript with contributions from all co-authors.

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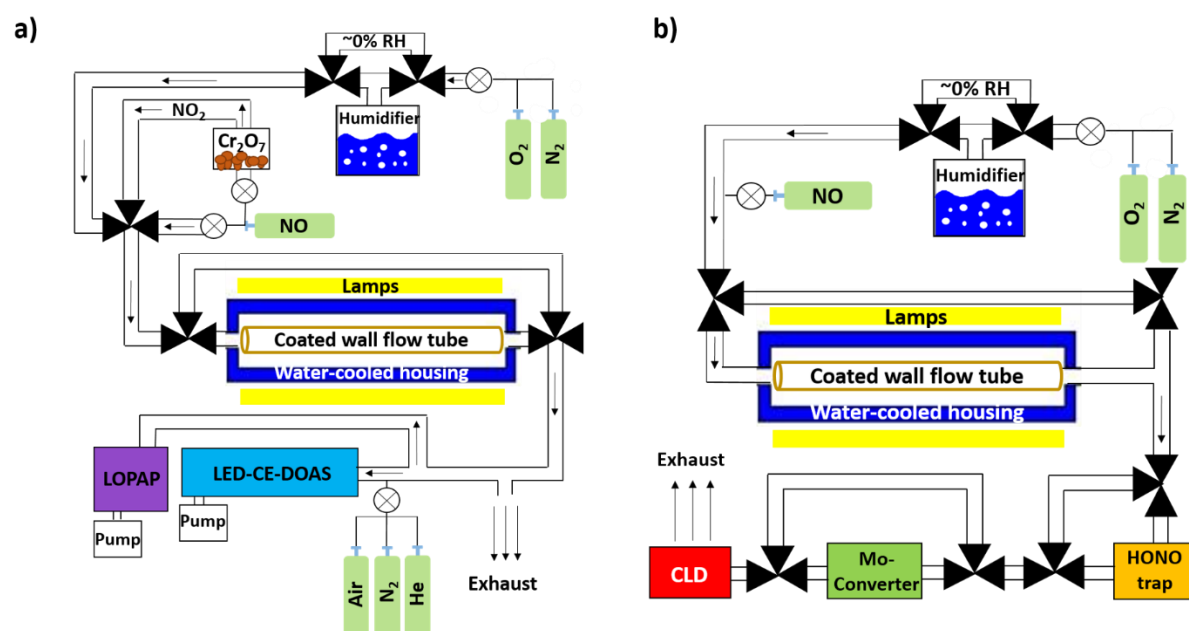
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Figures



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769 Figure 1. Sketch of the photochemical flow tube reactor setups at PSI for a) Setup 1 in 2013

770 measuring NO₂ generation and b) for Setup 2 in 2014 measuring NO loss.

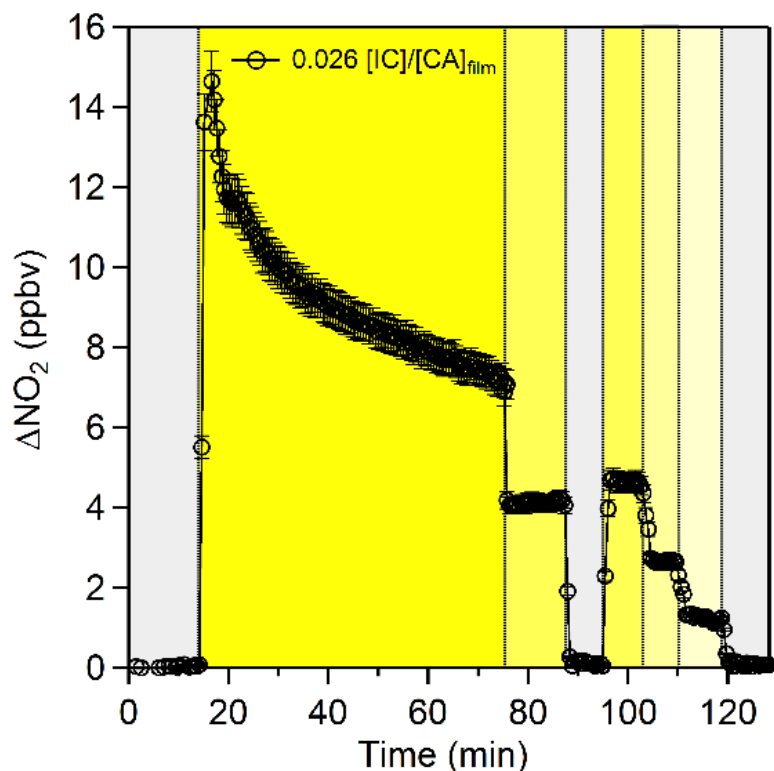


Figure 2. NO₂ profile for a 0.025M IC bulk solution, whose concentration increases to ~0.2 M of IC in the film due to the citric acid hygroscopic properties. The gray shaded areas indicate periods where NO was exposed in the dark. The yellow shaded areas indicates the period of irradiation; the decrease in the intensity of yellow represents the decrease in irradiance (2.26×10^{16} , 1.47×10^{16} , 1.14×10^{16} , and 3.94×10^{15} photons $\text{cm}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$, for seven, five, three and one lamp, respectively). This timeseries clearly indicates the light dependence production of HO₂ radicals from the photosensitization of IC in a CA film.

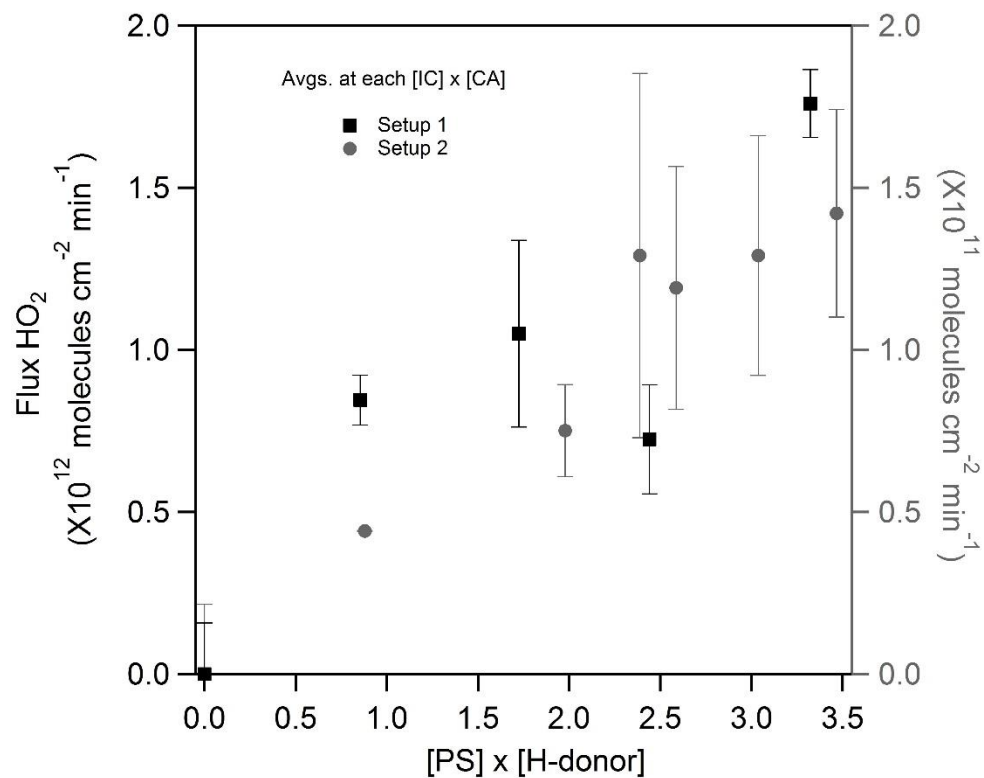


Figure 3. A linear correlation of HO_2 as a function of IC concentration. The left y-axis represents the values for Setup 1, while the right y-axis represents the values for Setup 2, (an order of magnitude difference for both scales). The Setup 2 data falls between a factor of 2 and 3 from Setup 1 after accounting for differences between Setup 1 and 2, see Sect. 3.1.1.

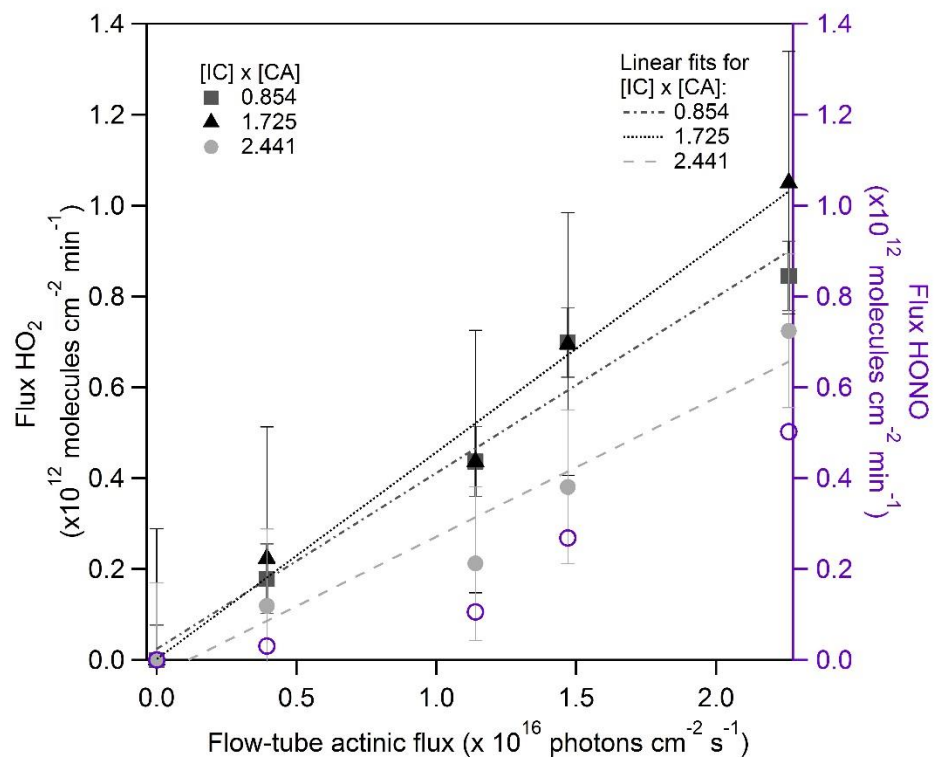


Figure 4. HO_2 fluxes ($\text{molecules cm}^{-2} \text{min}^{-1}$) as a function of actinic flux for a 300-420 nm range (solid symbols). The data is plotted as a concentration product of $[\text{IC}] \times [\text{CA}]$ (shown in the legend) which shows the photochemical reaction between IC and CA in H_2O matrix and gaseous NO. HONO for 2.441 ($[\text{IC}] \times [\text{CA}]$) is plotted on the right axis (open circles), showing a ratio of $\text{HONO}:\text{NO}_2 < 1$, which suggests OH as a secondary product.

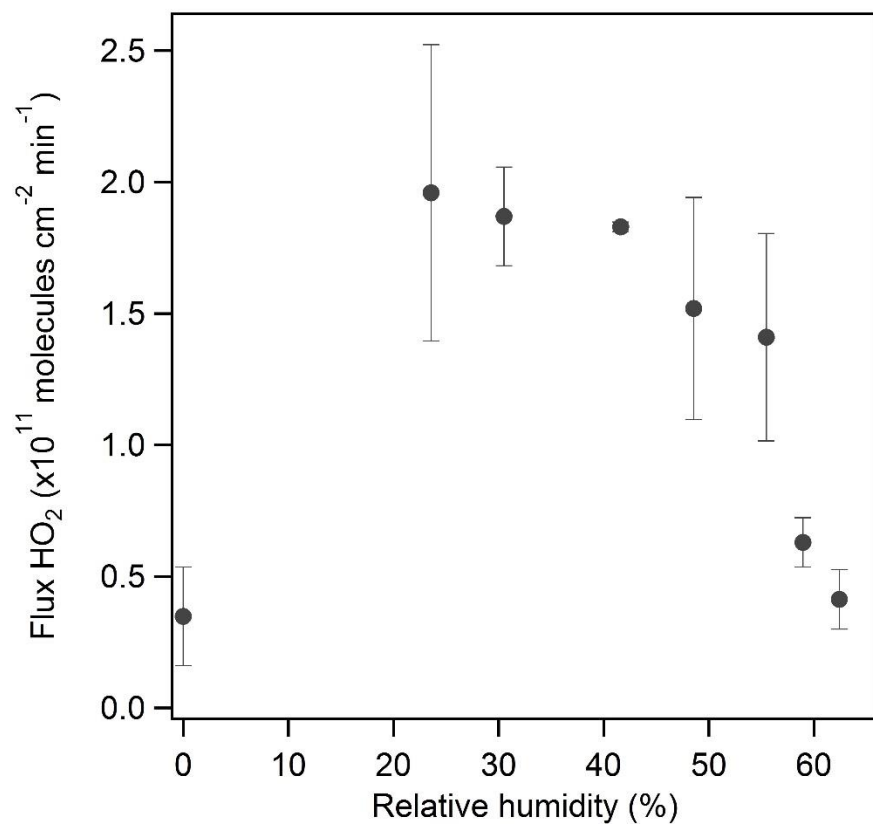


Figure 5. The NO loss normalized to the film surface area as a function of relative humidity.

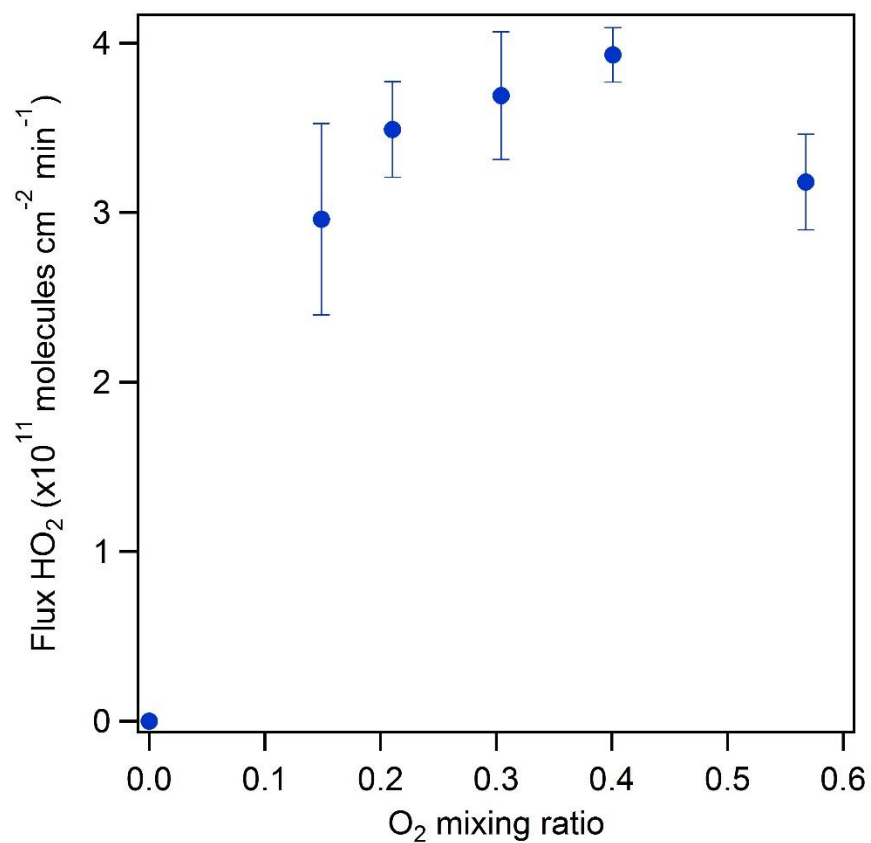
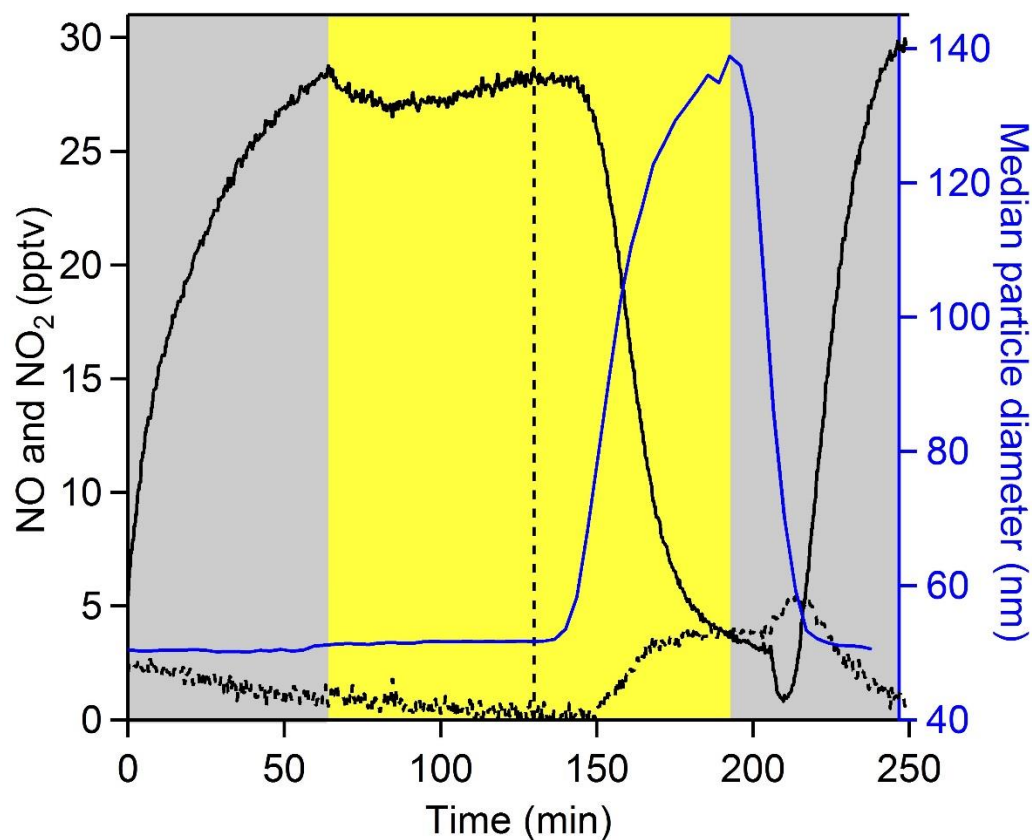


Figure 6. Measured loss of NO above a film composed of IC and CA normalized of the film surface area as a function of the O_2 mixing ratio.

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807
 808 Figure 7. Aerosol flow tube experiments show rapid conversion of NO (solid black line) into
 809 NO₂ (dashed black line) only after the time when limonene (gaseous H-donor) is added into the
 810 flowtube (vertical dashed line). The gray shaded areas represent experiment in the dark, and the
 811 yellow shaded area represents the experiment under light exposure. The blue line represents the
 812 growth of aerosols, right axis.

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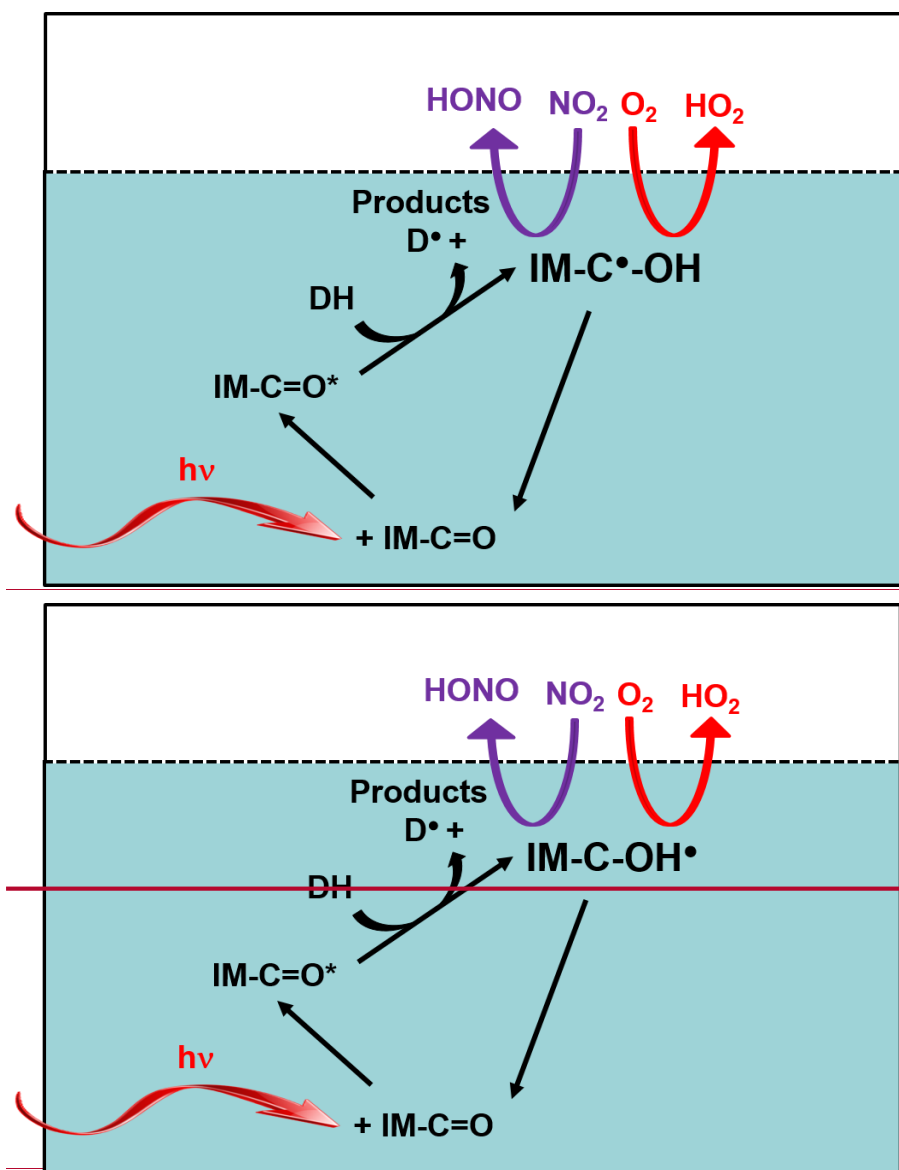


Figure 8. Proposed mechanism, modified and expanded to photosensitization of IC based on Canonica et al. (1995), George et al. (2005) and Aregahegn et al. (2013). The reaction in the white square represents the gas-phase, and the blue square represents the aqueous phase. DH is an H-donor (e.g. CA, another IC, $\text{H}_2\text{O}+\text{CA}$ matrix to be determined from flash photolysis).

Supplemental Information

Heterogeneous photochemistry of imidazole-2-carboxaldehyde: HO₂ radical formation and aerosol growth

L. González Palacios et al.

NO₂ actinometry

The actinic flux (photons cm⁻² sec⁻¹) was measured with one, three, five and all seven lamps of the photo reactor turned on using NO₂ actinometry (method A), and independent measurements of the photon actinic flux (method B). With method A, NO₂ in a N₂/O₂ gas mixture was added to the flow-tube under two different configurations: a) a bare glass flow-tube, and b) a blank coated flow-tube consisting of CA only, in the absence of IC. The NO₂ gas was produced from the oxidation of a gas flow of NO through a chromate salt reservoir, shown in Fig. 1A. In configuration a), the concentration of NO₂ was about 8 ppbv and in configuration b) it was about 40 ppbv. NO₂ actinometry is based on the following reaction:



The photolysis constant, J , in our case was treated as first-order rate constant, which quantifies the rate of photolysis of NO₂, J_{NO2} , in terms of a relative concentration change over time. The decrease in NO₂ was measured by the LED-CE-DOAS (Setup 1) and by the chemiluminescence (Setup 2); the NO₂ signal was allowed to stabilize, and lights were turned on sequentially. J_{NO2} was calculated using the measurements and the following equation:

$$J_{NO2} = \frac{d \ln[NO_2]}{dt}, \quad -\ln\left(\frac{[NO_2]_t}{[NO_2]_0}\right) = J_{NO2} \times t \quad (S1)$$

With all seven lamps turned on, the J_{NO2} was about $2 \times 10^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (Setup 1) and $1 \times 10^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (Setup 2). This is about 2-3 times the ambient J at mid-latitudes under summer noon-time conditions. The J_{NO2} for configurations a) and b) are compared in the Fig. S2, and agreed within 8 % at 7 lamps and this variability increases as the number of lamps (irradiation) decrease, up to a factor of 2 as a maximum.

The J -values of NO_2 were calculated using independent measurements of the photon actinic flux of the UV lamps, which had been determined by B. Bohn at Forschungszentrum Jülich (Germany) with a LICOR 1800 hemispherical, cosine corrected spectro-radiometer (method B). The following equation was used to calculate the first order photolysis rate, J -value:

$$J - \text{value} = \int_{300}^{420} F_{FT}(\lambda) \sigma(\lambda) \Phi(\lambda) d\lambda \quad (\text{S2})$$

where $F_{FT}(\lambda)$ is the actinic flux measured in our flow-tube system, $\sigma(\lambda)$ is the NO_2 cross section at 294 K in $\text{cm}^2 \text{ molecule}^{-1}$ (Vandaele et al., 2002), and $\Phi(\lambda)$ is the quantum yield data used from Sander et al., 2011. The J -values for NO_2 for methods A and B are compared in Fig. S2, and agree within a factor of 2 (higher J_{NO_2} for method A). The photon actinic flux shown in the Fig. S3 has been adjusted by this factor, and is compared with a typical solar spectral irradiance at the Earth surface (solar zenith of 48° , The American Society for Testing and Materials, ASTM).

Equation S1 shows the relationship between the loss of NO_2 , the derived pseudo-first order J_{NO_2} and the uptake coefficient (γ) for a heterogeneous reaction in a cylindrical flow-tube:

$$\frac{d[\text{NO}_2]}{dt} = -J_{\text{NO}_2}[\text{NO}_2] \quad J_{\text{NO}_2} = \frac{\gamma \langle c \rangle [\frac{S}{V}]}{4} \quad (\text{S3})$$

where $\langle c \rangle$ is the NO_2 mean molecular speed, $(8RT/\pi M)^{1/2}$, and $[\frac{S}{V}]$ is the surface area of the film per gas volume ratio in our flow-tube system. These calculations are represented in Fig. S4.

Figure Captions

Figure S1: [NO₂ j-values in s⁻¹ from the bare glass and citric acid blank coated flow-tubes in Setup 1.](#)

Figure S2: Determination of the NO concentration in the 2014 PSI flow-tube system. The lifetime of HO₂ is short enough at 500 ppbv with respect to its reaction with NO. This ensures a 1 NO:1 HO₂ molecular reaction in our experimental conditions. An IM/AC ratio of 0.088 was fixed for this specific experiment.

Figure S3: Solid line: the cross-section of IC in H₂O; the UV-VIS absorption of IC was measured by Kampf et al., 2010 and interpolated to more recent molar extinction measurements by Barbara Nozière at IRCELYon (right scale in cm²). Shaded gray: calculated wavelength dependent photolysis frequencies of imidazole-2-carboxaldehyde, j-values, based on the calculated quantum yield in our flow tube. Dotted line: actinic flux of the UV-light source in our flow-tube system from 300-420 nm range, the total flux is 2.26×10^{16} photons cm⁻² s⁻¹. Dashed line: a solar actinic flux spectrum for a solar zenith angle of 48°, 37° tilt towards the sun and clear skies ($\sim 2 \times 10^{16}$ photons cm⁻² s⁻¹ between 300-420 nm) obtained from the standard spectrum of the American Society for Testing and Materials (ASTM).

Figure S4: [Film thickness dependence represented by NO loss. The IC:CA ratio was kept constant to show the classic behavior of reactions governed by reaction and diffusion. At low thicknesses, P_{HO2} increases linearly and saturates at thicknesses >2 μm. This shows that the observed HO₂ is produced from the top few micrometers of the films under study.](#)

Figure S5: The photosensitized uptake coefficient of NO₂ (blue diamonds, right axis); this graph shows the inefficiency of NO₂ to compete with O₂ at atmospheric mixing ratios. The open red

circles represent the CA blank measurements, the closed red circles represent a $1.725 [\text{IC}] \times [\text{CA}]$ film measurements during NO_2 actinometry experiments (left axis).

Figure S6: NO to NO_2 conversion from similar CWFT experiments performed in a different photosensitizer, 4-BBA. The top figure shows that NO does react with HO_2 to produce NO_2 in the presence of 4-BBA and adipic acid (AA), as the organic aqueous base. The bottom figure shows no conversion in a clean tube.

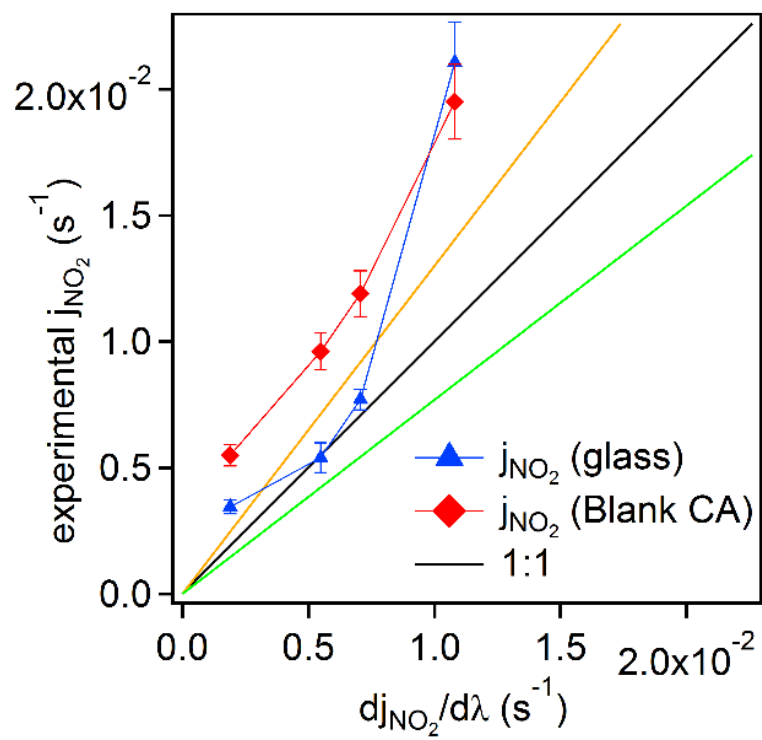


Figure S1

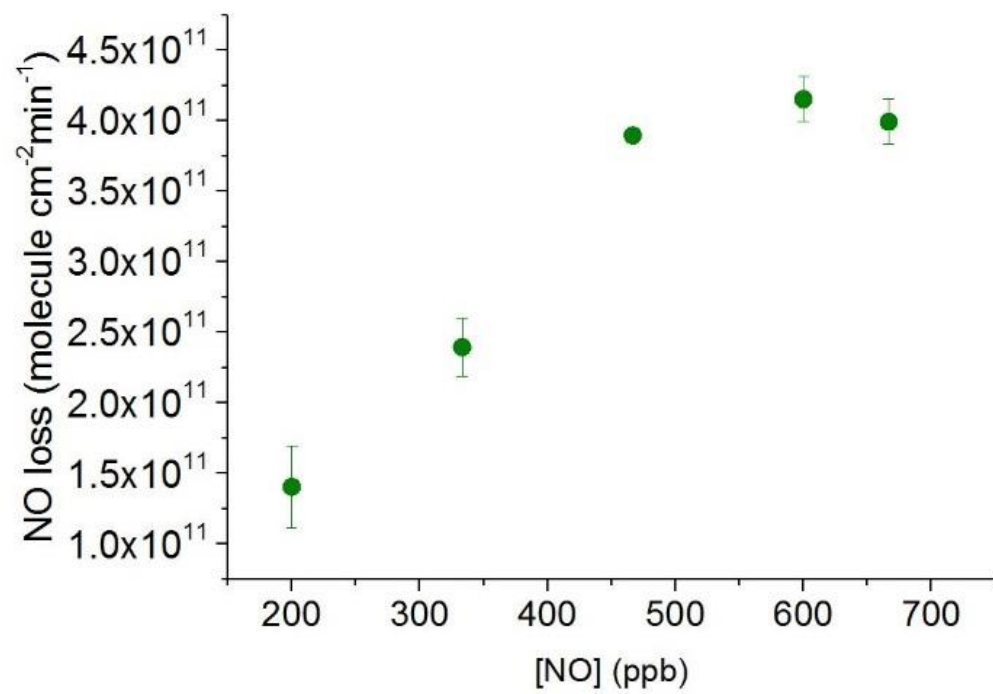


Figure S2

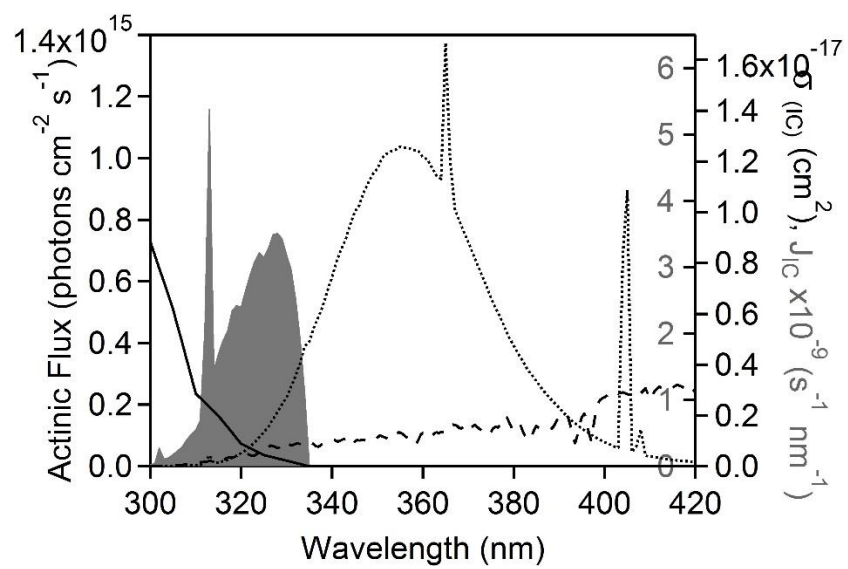


Figure S3

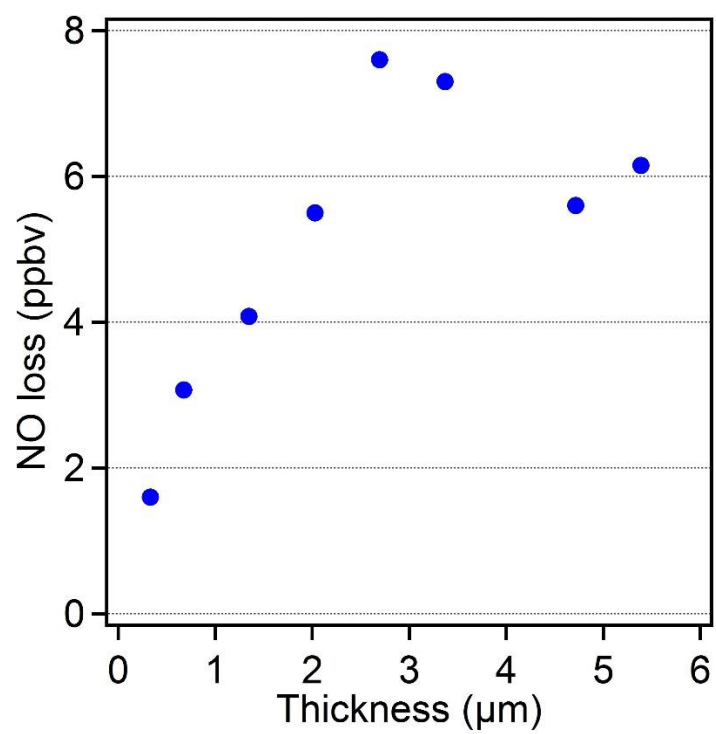


Figure S4

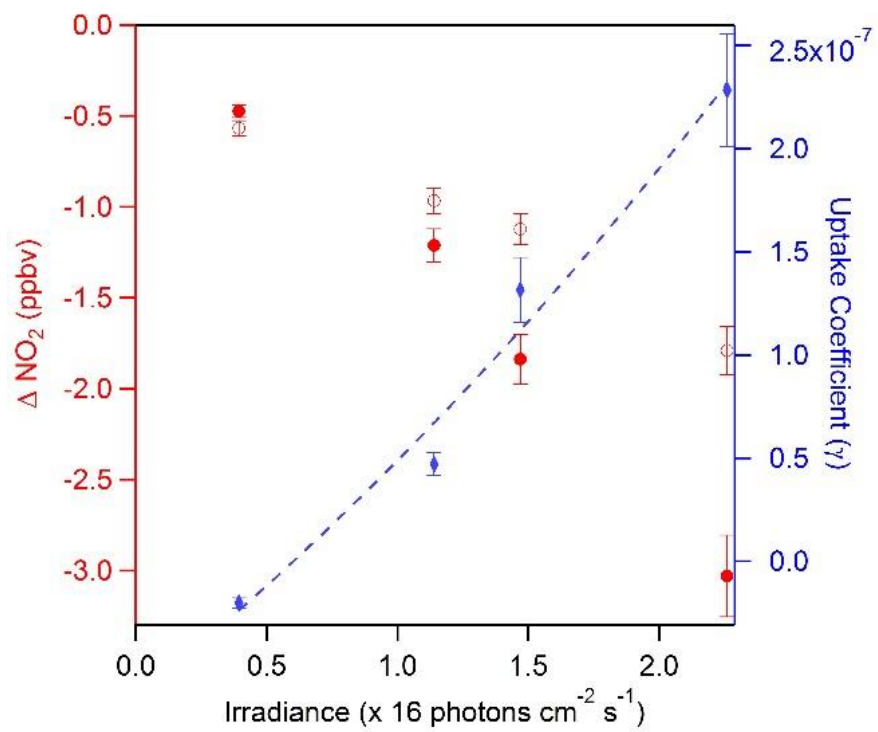


Figure S5

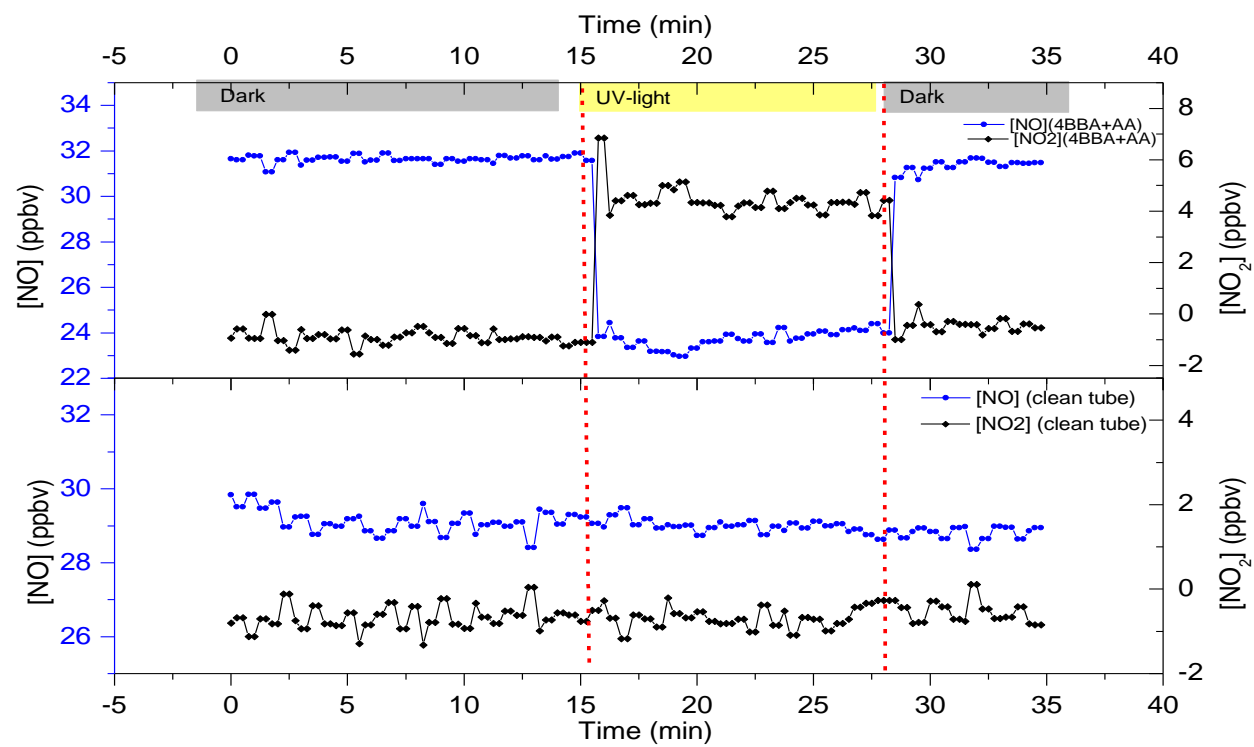


Figure S6