1	Rate constant and secondary organic aerosol formation from the

2 gas-phase reaction of eugenol with hydroxyl radicals

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16	Abstract. Methoxyphenols are an important organic component of wood-burning
17	emissions and considered to be potential precursors of secondary organic aerosols
18	(SOA). In this work, the rate constant and SOA formation potential for the OH-initiated
19	reaction of 4-allyl-2-methoxyphenol (eugenol) were investigated for the first time in an
20	oxidation flow reactor (OFR). The rate constant was $(8.01 \pm 0.40) \times 10^{-11} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecule}^-$
21	¹ s ⁻¹ , determined by the relative rate method. The SOA yield first increased and then
22	decreased as a function of OH exposure, and was also dependent on eugenol
23	concentration. The maximum SOA yields (0.11-0.31) obtained at different eugenol
24	concentrations could be expressed well by a one-product model. The carbon oxidation
25	state (OS _C) increased linearly and significantly as OH exposure rose, indicating that the
26	high oxidation degree was achieved for SOA. In addition, the presence of SO_2 (0–198
27	ppbv) and NO ₂ (0–109 ppbv) was conducive to increasing SOA yield, for which the
28	maximum enhancement values were 38.6% and 19.2%, respectively. The N/C ratio
29	(0.032-0.043) indicated that NO ₂ participated in the OH-initiated reaction,
30	subsequently forming organic nitrates. The results could be helpful for further
31	understanding the SOA formation potential from the atmospheric oxidation of
32	methoxyphenols and the atmospheric aging process of smoke plumes from biomass-
33	burning emissions.

34 1 Introduction

35 Wood combustion is a major contributor to atmospheric fine particulate matter (PM) 36 (Bruns et al., 2016), which could contribute approximately 10-50% of the total organic 37 fraction of atmospheric aerosols (Schauer and Cass, 2000). In some regions with cold 38 climates, wood smoke-associated aerosols are estimated to account for more than 70% 39 of PM_{2.5} in winter (Jeong et al., 2008; Ward et al., 2006). Recently, significant potential 40 of secondary organic aerosol (SOA) formation from wood smoke emissions has been reported (Bruns et al., 2016; Gilardoni et al., 2016; Tiitta et al., 2016; Ciarelli et al., 41 42 2017; Ding et al., 2017). In addition, the organic compounds derived from wood combustion and their oxidation products may contribute significantly to global 43 44 warming due to their light-absorbing properties (Chen and Bond, 2010). It has been reported that wood smoke particles are predominant in the inhalable size range (Bari et 45 46 al., 2010) and their extracts are mutagenic (Kleindienst et al., 1986). Exposure to wood 47 smoke can result in adverse health effects associated with acute respiratory infections, 48 tuberculosis, lung cancer, cataracts, etc. (Bolling et al., 2009). Therefore, wood 49 combustion has multifaceted impacts on climate, air quality, and human health. 50 Methoxyphenols produced by lignin pyrolysis are potential tracers for wood smoke,

and their emission rates are in the range of 900–4200 mg kg⁻¹ wood (Schauer et al., 2001; Simpson et al., 2005; Nolte et al., 2001). The highest level of methoxyphenols in the atmosphere always appears during a wood smoke-dominated period, with observed values up to several mg m⁻³ (Schauer and Cass, 2000; Schauer et al., 2001; Simpson et al.,

55	al., 2005). Methoxyphenols are semi-volatile aromatic compounds with low molecular
56	weight, and many of them are found to mainly exist in the gas phase at typical ambient
57	temperature (Schauer et al., 2001; Simpson et al., 2005). Thus, methoxyphenols can be
58	chemically transformed through gas-phase reactions with atmospheric oxidants (Coeur-
59	Tourneur et al., 2010a; Lauraguais et al., 2012, 2014a, 2014b, 2015, 2016; Yang et al.,
60	2016; Zhang et al., 2016; El Zein et al., 2015). The corresponding rate constants control
61	their effectiveness as stable tracers for wood combustion and atmospheric lifetimes. In
62	recent years, the rate constants for the gas-phase reactions of some methoxyphenols
63	with hydroxyl (OH) radicals (Coeur-Tourneur et al., 2010a; Lauraguais et al., 2012,
64	2014b, 2015), nitrate (NO ₃) radicals (Lauraguais et al., 2016; Yang et al., 2016; Zhang
65	et al., 2016), chlorine atoms (Cl) (Lauraguais et al., 2014a) and ozone (O ₃) (El Zein et
66	al., 2015) have been determined. Some studies have indicated significant SOA
67	formation from 2,6-dimethoxyphenol (syringol) and 2-methoxyphenol (guaiacol) with
68	respect to their reactions with OH radicals (Sun et al., 2010; Lauraguais et al., 2012,
69	2014b; Ahmad et al., 2017; Yee et al., 2013; Ofner et al., 2011). Although biomass-
70	burning emissions have been indicated to have great SOA formation potential via
71	atmospheric oxidation (Bruns et al., 2016; Gilardoni et al., 2016; Li et al., 2017; Ciarelli
72	et al., 2017; Ding et al., 2017), SOA formation and growth from methoxyphenols are
73	still poorly understood. Besides, the observed SOA levels in the atmosphere cannot be
74	well explained by the present knowledge on SOA formation, which reflects the fact that
75	a large number of precursors are not taken into account in the SOA-formation reactions

included in the atmospheric models (Lauraguais et al., 2012).

4-Allyl-2-methoxyphenol (eugenol) is a typical methoxyphenol produced by ligin 77 78 pyrolysis with a branched alkene group. It is widely detected in the atmosphere with the concentration on the order of ng m⁻³, which is comparable to those of other 79 80 methoxyphenols (e.g., guaiacol and syringol) (Schauer et al., 2001; Simpson et al., 2005; 81 Bari et al., 2009). Its average emission concentration and factor in beech burning are $0.032 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$ and $1.52 \ \mu g \ g^{-1}$ PM, respectively, which are both higher than those (0.016 82 μ g m⁻³ and 0.762 μ g g⁻¹ PM) of guaiacol (Bari et al., 2009). It has even be detected in 83 84 human urine after exposure to wood smoke (Dills et al., 2006). Eugenol has been observed to mainly distribute in the gas phase in wood smoke emissions (Schauer et al., 85 86 2001), and its gas/particle-partition coefficient is lower than 0.01 (Zhang et al., 2016), 87 thus indicating the importance of its gas-phase reactions in the atmosphere. For this 88 reason, the aim of this work was to determine the rate constant and explore the SOA 89 formation potential for eugenol in the gas-phase reaction with OH radicals using an Oxidation Flow Reactor (OFR). In addition, the effects of SO₂ and NO₂ on SOA 90 91 formation were investigated. To our knowledge, this work represents the first 92 determination of the rate constant and SOA yield for the gas-phase reaction of eugenol 93 with OH radicals.

94 2 Experimental section

95 The detailed schematic description of the experimental system used in this work is96 shown in Figs. S1 and S2. The gas-phase reactions were conducted in the OFR, of which

97	detailed description has been presented elsewhere (Liu et al., 2014b). Before entering
98	into the OFR, gas-phase species were mixed thoroughly in the mixing tube. The
99	reaction time in the OFR was 26.7 s, calculated according to the illuminated volume
100	(0.89 L) and the total flow rate (2 L min ⁻¹). OH radicals were generated by photolysis
101	of O_3 in the presence of water vapor using a 254 nm UV lamp (Jelight Co., Inc.), and
102	their formation reactions have been described elsewhere (Zhang et al., 2017). The
103	concentration of OH radicals was governed by O3 concentration and relative humidity
104	(RH). O_3 concentration was controlled by changing the unshaded length of a 185 nm
105	UV lamp (Jelight Co., Inc.). O ₃ with the concentration of 0.94–9.11 ppmv in the OFR
106	was produced by passing zero air through an O3 generator (Model 610-220, Jelight Co.,
107	Inc.), which was used to produce OH radicals. RH and temperature in the OFR were
108	$(44.0 \pm 2.0)\%$ and (301 ± 1) K, respectively, measured at the outlet of the OFR. The
109	steady-state concentrations of OH radicals were determined using SO ₂ as the reference
110	compound in separate calibration experiments. It is a widely-used method for
111	calculating OH exposure in the OFR, but could not well describe the potential OH
112	suppression caused by the added external OH reactivity (Zhang et al., 2017; Lambe et
113	al., 2015; Simonen et al., 2017; Li et al., 2015; Peng et al., 2015, 2016). The decay of
114	SO ₂ from its reaction with OH radicals (9×10^{-13} cm ³ molecule ⁻¹ s ⁻¹) (Davis et al., 1979)
115	was measured by a SO ₂ analyzer (Model 43i, Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc.). The
116	concentration of OH radicals ([OH]) in this work ranged from approximately 4.5×10^9
117	to 4.7×10^{10} molecules cm ⁻³ , and the corresponding OH exposures were in the range of

118 $1.21-12.55 \times 10^{11}$ molecules cm⁻³ s or approximately 0.93 to 9.68 d of equivalent 119 atmospheric exposure, which was calculated using a typical [OH] of 1.5×10^{6} 120 molecules cm⁻³ in the atmosphere (Mao et al., 2009).

121 An Aerodyne high-resolution time-of-flight aerosol mass spectrometer (HR-ToF-122 AMS) was applied to perform online measurement of the chemical composition of 123 particles and the non-refractory submicron aerosol mass (DeCarlo et al., 2006). The size distribution and concentration of particles were monitored by a scanning mobility 124 125 particle sizer (SMPS), consisting of a differential mobility analyzer (DMA) (Model 126 3082, TSI Inc.) and a condensation particle counter (CPC) (Model 3776, TSI Inc.). 127 Assuming that particles are spherical and non-porous, the average effective particle density could be calculated to be 1.5 g cm⁻³ using the equation $\rho = d_{va}/d_m$ (DeCarlo et al., 128 129 2004), where d_{va} is the mean vacuum aerodynamic diameter measured by the HR-ToF-130 AMS and $d_{\rm m}$ is the mean volume-weighted mobility diameter measured by the SMPS. The particle size for HR-ToF-AMS measurement was calibrated using NH₄NO₃ 131 132 particles with the diameter between 60-700 nm selected by a DMA. The mass 133 concentration of particles measured by HR-ToF-AMS was corrected by SMPS data in this work using the same method as Gordon et al. (2014). Eugenol and reference 134 135 compounds were measured by a high-resolution proton-transfer reaction time-of-flight 136 mass spectrometer (HR-ToF-PTRMS) (Ionicon Analytik GmbH). More experimental 137 details were described in the Supplement.

138 **3** Results and discussion

139 **Rate constant** 3.1

The possible effect of O₃ on the decay of eugenol and reference compounds was 140 investigated in this work. As shown in Fig. S3, their concentrations were not affected 141 142 by O₃. Meanwhile, no SOA formation was observed by the SMPS and HR-ToF-AMS. 143 In addition, in order to investigate the possible photolysis of eugenol and reference 144 compounds at 254 nm UV light in the OFR, the comparative experiments were conducted with UV lamp turned on and turned off, when eugenol and reference 145 compounds were introduced into the OFR. The normalized mass spectra of eugenol and 146 147 reference compounds in the dark and light were shown in Fig. S4. The results showed that no significant decay (< 5%) by photolysis was observed and could be neglected. 148 According to the results reported by Peng et al. (2016), the photolysis of phenol and 149 150 1,3,5-trimethylbenzene could be ignored when the ratio of exposure to 254 nm and OH is lower than 1×10^6 cm s⁻¹, of which values (1.6×10^2 to 1.7×10^3 cm s⁻¹) in this work 151 152 also met this condition. In addition, the initial concentration of eugenol was determined 153 with UV lamp turned on. Therefore, the effect of photolysis could be neglected in this 154 work. However, it cannot be ruled out that photolysis under UV irradiation might have 155 influence on the evolution of the oxidation products.

156 The rate constant for the gas-phase reaction of eugenol with OH radicals was 157 determined by the relative rate method, which can be expressed as the following 158 equation (Coeur-Tourneur et al., 2010a; Yang et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2016):

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 $\ln(C_{E0}/C_{Et}) = \ln(C_{R0}/C_{Rt})k_E / k_R$ (1) 160 where C_{E0} and C_{Et} are the initial and real-time concentrations of eugenol, respectively.

161 $k_{\rm E}$ is the rate constant of the eugenol reaction with OH radicals. C_{R0} and C_{Rt} are the 162 initial and real-time concentrations of reference compound, respectively. $k_{\rm R}$ is the rate 163 constant of the reference compound with OH radicals, of which values for *m*-xylene 164 and 1,3,5-trimethylbenzene are 2.20 × 10⁻¹¹ and 5.67 × 10⁻¹¹ cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹, 165 respectively (Kramp and Paulson, 1998; Coeur-Tourneur et al., 2010a).

166 Data obtained from the reactions were plotted in the form of Eq. (1) and were well fitted by linear regression ($R^2 > 0.97$, Fig. 1). A summary of the slopes and the rate 167 168 constants are listed in Table 1. The errors in $k_{\rm E}/k_{\rm R}$ are the standard deviations generated from the linear regression analysis and do not include the uncertainty in the rate 169 constants of the reference compounds. The rate constants are $(7.54 \pm 0.28) \times 10^{-11}$ and 170 $(8.47 \pm 0.51) \times 10^{-11}$ cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹, respectively, when using 1,3,5-171 172 trimethylbenzene and *m*-xylene as reference compounds. According to the US EPA 173 AOP WIN model based on the structure activity relationship (SAR) (US EPA, 2012), the rate constant was calculated to be 6.50×10^{-11} cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹ (Table 1), which 174 175 is lower than that obtained in this work. Inaccurate performance of the AOP WIN model has been observed for other multifunctional organics due to the inaccurate 176 177 representation of the eletronic effects of different functional groups on reactivity 178 (Coeur-Tourneur et al., 2010a; Lauraguais et al., 2012). In addition, the difference 179 between density functional theory (DFT) calculation and lab study has been also observed. For example, the DFT-predicted rate constant of 2-methoxyphenol with OH 180

radicals $(12.19 \times 10^{-11} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecule}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1})$ is higher than that $(7.53 \times 10^{-11} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecule}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1})$ 181 ¹ s⁻¹) obtained by lab study (Coeur-Tourneur et al., 2010a; Priva and Lakshmipathi, 182 2017). These suggest that it is necessary to determine the rate constants of 183 184 multifunctional organics through lab experiments. The rate constant determined in this 185 work can be used to calculate the atmospheric lifetime of eugenol with respect to its 186 reaction with OH radicals. Assuming a typical [OH] for a 24 h average value to be 1.5 \times 10⁶ molecules cm⁻³ (Mao et al., 2009), the corresponding lifetime of eugenol was 187 calculated to be (2.31 ± 0.12) h with the average rate constant of $(8.01 \pm 0.40) \times 10^{-11}$ 188 cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹. This short lifetime indicates that eugenol is too reactive to be used 189 190 as a tracer for wood smoke emissions, and also implies the possible fast conversion of 191 eugenol from gas-phase to secondary aerosol during the transportation process. 192 The rate constant obtained in this work is about 2 orders of magnitude faster than that for eugenol with NO₃ radicals $(1.6 \times 10^{-13} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecule}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1})$ (Zhang et al., 2016), 193 194 which suggests that the OH-initiated reaction of eugenol might be the main chemical 195 transformation in the atmosphere. The rate constants of the OH-initiated reactions of guaiacol, 2,6-dimethylphenol, and syringol were 7.53×10^{-11} , 6.70×10^{-11} , and 9.66×10^{-11} 196 10⁻¹¹ cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹, respectively (Coeur-Tourneur et al., 2010a; Thuner et al., 2004; 197 198 Lauraguais et al., 2012), while their corresponding rate constants were calculated to be 2.98×10^{-11} , 5.04×10^{-11} , and 16.51×10^{-11} cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹, according to the US EPA 199 200 AOP WIN model (US EPA, 2012). These differences among rate constants suggest that

201 the rate constants of multifunctional organics should be necessarily determined via lab

experiments. The reactivity of eugenol toward OH radicals is slightly higher than those 202 of guaiacol and 2,6-dimethylphenol, while slightly slower than that of syringol. The 203 presence of two methoxyl groups (-OCH₃) in syringol activates the electrophilic 204 205 addition of OH radicals to the benzene ring by donating electron density through the 206 resonance effect (Lauraguais et al., 2016). The activation effect of the methoxyl group 207 is much larger than those of alkyl groups (McMurry, 2004). In a recent study, the 208 reported energy barrier of NO₃ electrophilic addition to eugenol was about 2-fold than that of 4-ethylguaiacol, indicating that the activation effect of the allyl group 209 210 (-CH₂CH=CH₂) is lower than that of the ethyl group (-CH₂CH₃) (Zhang et al., 2016). 211 These results are in accordance with the activation effects of the substituants toward the 212 electrophilic addition of OH radicals (McMurry, 2004).

213 **3.2** Effects of eugenol concentration and OH exposure on SOA formation

214 In this work, a series of experiments were conducted in the OFR with different eugenol 215 concentrations. The SOA yield was determined as the ratio of the SOA mass concentration ($M_0 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$) to the reacted eugenol concentration (Δ [eugenol], $\mu g \ m^{-3}$) 216 217 (Kang et al., 2007). The experimental conditions and maximum SOA yields are listed in Table 2. The wall loss of aerosol particles in the OFR could be ignored, according to 218 219 our previous results reported by Liu et al. (2014a). Fig. S5 shows the plots of the SOA 220 yield versus OH exposure at different eugenol concentrations. Higher concentrations 221 resulted in higher amounts of condensable products and subsequently increased SOA yield (Lauraguais et al., 2012). SOA mass also directly influences the gas/particle 222

223	partitioning, because SOA can serve as the adsorption medium for oxidation products,
224	and higher SOA mass generally results in higher SOA yield (Lauraguais et al., 2012,
225	2014b). In the OFR, in all cases the SOA yield first increased and then decreased as a
226	function of OH exposure (Fig. S5). This trend is the most common phenomenon
227	observed in the studies conducted in the OFR and Potential Aerosol Mass (PAM) reactor
228	(Lambe et al., 2015; Ortega et al., 2016; Palm et al., 2016, 2018; Simonen et al., 2017).
229	In this work, according to the OFR exposure estimator (v2.3) developed by Jimenez's
230	group based on the estimation equations reported in the previous work (Li et al., 2015;
231	Peng et al., 2015, 2016), the maximum reduction of OH exposure by eugenol in the
232	OFR was approximately 90%. Its detailed calculation has been shown in the
233	Supplement. Although OH suppression by eugenol was not well determined in the OFR,
234	OH radicals were expected to be the main oxidant due to the fast reaction rate constant
235	of eugenol toward OH radicals obtained in this work. The decrease of SOA yield at high
236	OH exposure is possibly contributed from the C-C bond scission of gas-phase species
237	by further oxidation or heterogeneous reactions involving OH radicals, which would
238	generate a large amount of fragmented molecules that subsequently volatilize out of
239	aerosol particles (Lambe et al., 2015; Ortega et al., 2016; Simonen et al., 2017).
240	SOA yield can be described using a widely-used semi-empirical model on the basis
241	of the absorptive gas-particle partitioning of semi-volatile products, in which the overall

242 SOA yield (Y) is given by (Odum et al., 1996):

243
$$Y = \sum_{i} M_{o} \frac{\alpha_{i} K_{om,i}}{1 + K_{om,i} M_{o}}$$
(2)

where α_i is the mass-based stoichiometric coefficient for the reaction producing the semi-volatile product i, $K_{om,i}$ is the gas-particle partitioning equilibrium constant, and M_o is the total aerosol mass concentration.

247 The SOA yield data in Table 2 can be plotted in the form of Eq. (2) to obtain the yield curve for eugenol (Fig. 2). The simulation of experimental data indicated that a 248 one-product model could accurately reproduce the data ($R^2 = 0.98$), while the use of 249 250 two or more products in the model did not significantly improve the fitting quality. 251 Odum et al. (1996) reported that the SOA yield data from the oxidation of aromatic 252 compounds could be fitted well using a two-product model. However, a one-product model was also efficient for describing the SOA yields from the oxidation of aromatics 253 including methoxyphenols (Coeur-Tourneur et al., 2010b; Lauraguais et al., 2012, 254 255 2014b). The success of simulation with a one-product model in this work is likely to 256 indicate that the products in SOA have similar values of α_i and $K_{om.i}$, i.e., that the obtained α_i (0.36 ± 0.02) and K_{om,i} (0.013 ± 0.002 m³ ug⁻¹) represent the average values. 257 258 In this work, considering that the product composition of SOA was not determined, the 259 volatility basis set (VBS) approach was not applied to simulate SOA yields. Fig. S6 shows a plot of the SOA mass concentration (Mo) versus the reacted eugenol 260 concentration (\triangle [eugenol]). Its slope was 0.37 as obtained using linear least-squares 261 262 fitting, which is very close to the α_i value (0.36). This suggests that the low-volatility products formed in the reaction almost completely disperse on the particle phase 263 264 according to the theoretical partition model (Lauraguais et al., 2012, 2014b). In other

265 words, SOA yield was approximately an upper limit for eugenol oxidation in the OFR. In view of the residence time in this work, it seems be in contradiction with the 266 267 recommendation of longer residence time made by Ahlberg et al. (2017), who found that the condensation of low-volatility species on SOA in the OFR was often kinetically 268 269 limited at low mass concentrations. In our recent experiments (not published), the SOA 270 yields for guaiacol oxidation by OH radicals obtained under the similar experimental 271 conditions as this work, could be comparable to those obtained in the chamber studies 272 conducted at low RH (Fig. S7) (Lauraguais et al., 2014b; Yee et al., 2013). This suggests 273 that the effect of kinetic limitations on SOA condensation for the OH-initiated oxidation 274 of methoxyphenols in this system might be not important.

275 Elemental ratios (H/C and O/C) could provide insights into SOA composition and 276 chemical processes along with aging (Bruns et al., 2015). As shown in Fig. 3, O/C ratio 277 of SOA increased and H/C ratio decreased with increasing OH exposure, because 278 oxygen-containing functional groups were formed in the oxidation products. In addition, 279 the organic mass fractions of m/z 44 (CO₂⁺) and m/z 43 (mostly C₂H₃O⁺), named f_{44} 280 and f_{43} , respectively, could also provide information about the nature of SOA formation. Fig. S8 shows the evolution of f_{44} and f_{43} versus OH exposure at low (272 µg m⁻³) and 281 high (1328 μ g m⁻³) concentrations of eugenol. The values of f_{44} were much higher than 282 283 those of f_{43} , and increased significantly as a function of OH exposure, suggesting that 284 SOA formed in the experiments became more oxidized. The f_{44} value in this work ranged up to 0.26, which was consistent with that observed for ambient low-volatility 285

286 (LV-OA), higher than 0.25 (Ng et al., 2010).

287	The average carbon oxidation state (OS_C) proposed by Kroll et al. (2011) is
288	considered a more accurate indicator of the oxidation degree of atmospheric organic
289	species than the O/C ratio alone, because it takes into account the saturation level of the
290	carbon atoms in the SOA. OS _C is defined as $OS_C = 2O/C - H/C$ (Kroll et al., 2011),
291	calculated according to the elemental composition of SOA measured by the HR-ToF-
292	AMS. In this work, the OS_C values obtained at low (272 $\mu g~m^{\text{-}3})$ and high (1328 $\mu g~m^{\text{-}}$
293	³) concentrations of eugenol were compared. As shown in Fig. 3, OS_C values for low
294	concentration $(0.035-1.78)$ were much larger than those for high concentration
295	(0.0036–1.09), and increased linearly ($R^2 > 0.96$) with OH exposure of (1.21–12.55) ×
296	10^{11} molecules cm ⁻³ s. The results were well supported by the evolution of SOA mass
297	spectra obtained by the HR-ToF-AMS at the same eugenol concentrations (Fig. S9).
298	Similar trends have been observed in the smog chamber and PAM reactor (Simonen et
299	al., 2017; Ortega et al., 2016). The OS_C value in this work extended as high as 1.78,
300	which was in good agreement with that observed for ambient LV-OA, up to 1.9 (Kroll
301	et al., 2011). Recently, Ortega et al. (2016) reported that the OS_C value for SOA formed
302	from ambient air in an OFR ranged up to 2.0; and Simonen et al. (2017) determined a
303	high OS_C value (> 1.1) for SOA formed from the OH-initiated reaction of toluene in a
304	PAM reactor with an OH exposure of 1.2×10^{12} molecules cm $^{-3}$ s. In general, the OS_{C}
305	values for the PAM reactor are higher than those for smog chambers because OH
306	exposure in the PAM reactor is about 1-3 orders of magnitude higher than that in smog

307 chamber (Simonen et al., 2017; Ortega et al., 2016; Lambe et al., 2015). Higher OS_C 308 value indicates greater age, where the SOA components are further oxidized through 309 heterogeneous oxidation, adding substantial oxygen and reducing hydrogen in the 310 molecules in the particle-phase to increase OS_C values despite the overall loss of SOA 311 mass (Ortega et al., 2016).

312 3.3 Effect of SO₂ on SOA formation

313 As shown in Fig. 4, the presence of SO₂ favored SOA formation, and the sulfate concentration increased linearly ($R^2 = 0.99$) as a function of OH exposure. The 314 315 maximum SOA yield enhancement of 38.6% was obtained at OH exposure of 5.41 \times 10^{11} molecules cm⁻³ s, and then decreased with the increase of OH exposure possibly 316 317 due to the fragmented molecules formed through the oxidation of gas-phase species by 318 high OH exposure (Lambe et al., 2015; Ortega et al., 2016; Simonen et al., 2017). The SOA yield and sulfate concentration both increased linearly ($R^2 > 0.97$) as SO₂ 319 concentration increased from 0 to 198 ppbv at OH exposure of 1.21×10^{11} molecules 320 cm⁻³ s (Fig. S10). Compared to the initial SOA yield (0.049) obtained in the absence of 321 322 SO_2 , the SOA yield (0.066) obtained in the presence of 198 ppbv SO_2 was enhanced by 34.7%. In previous studies, Kleindienst et al. (2006) reported that the SOA yield from 323 324 α -pinene photooxidation increased by 40% in the presence of 252 ppbv SO₂; Liu et al. 325 (2016b) recently found that the SOA yield from 5 h photochemical aging of gasoline 326 vehicle exhaust was enhanced by 60-200% in the presence of ~ 150 ppby SO₂.

327 As shown in Figs. 4 and S10, the increase of sulfate concentration was favorable

328	for SOA formation. In this system, it is difficult to completely remove trace NH ₃ , thus
329	the formed sulfate was the mixture of sulfuric acid (H_2SO_4) and a small amounts of
330	ammonium sulfate ((NH ₄) ₂ SO ₄). The in situ particle acidity was calculated as the $\mathrm{H^{+}}$
331	concentration ([H ⁺], 40.23–648.39 nmol m ⁻³) according to the AIM-II model for the
332	$H^+ - NH_4^+ - SO_4^{2-} - NO_3^ H_2O$ systems (http://www.aim.env.uea.ac.uk/aim/model2
333	/model2a.php; Liu et al., 2016b). The detailed description of the calculation method has
334	been represented elsewhere (Liu et al., 2016b). The elevated concentration of sulfate in
335	the particle phase with the increases of SO_2 concentration and OH exposure was an
336	important reason for the enhanced SOA yields (Kleindienst et al., 2006; Liu et al.,
337	2016b). Cao and Jang (2007) indicated that SOA yields from the oxidation of toluene
338	and 1,3,5-trimethylbenzene increased by 14-36% in the presence of acid seeds, with
339	$[H^+]$ of 240–860 nmol m ⁻³ compared to those obtained in the presence of nonacid seeds.
340	Similar results concerning the effect of particle acidity on SOA yields were reported in
341	other studies (Kleindienst et al., 2006; Liu et al., 2016b; Jaoui et al., 2008; Xu et al.,
342	2016). However, Ng et al. (2007b) found that particle acidity had a negligible effect on
343	SOA yields from photooxidation of aromatics, possibly due to the low RH (\sim 5%) used
344	in their work. The water content of aerosol plays an essential role in acidity effects (Cao
345	and Jang, 2007). Under acidic conditions, the gas-phase oxidation products of eugenol
346	partitioned onto the particle-phase would be further oxidized into low volatility
347	products or produce oligomers by acid-catalyzed heterogeneous reactions, subsequently
348	enhancing SOA yields (Cao and Jang, 2007; Jaoui et al., 2008; Liu et al., 2016b; Xu et

349 al., 2016). In addition, the formed sulfate not only serves as the substrate for product condensation and likely participates in new particle formation (NPF) (Jaoui et al., 2008; 350 351 Wang et al., 2016), but also enhances the surface areas of particles to facilitate 352 heterogeneous reactions on aerosols (Xu et al., 2016). These roles of sulfate are also 353 favorable for increasing SOA yields. Recently, Friedman et al. (2016) have indicated 354 that SO₂ could participate in the oxidation reactions of α -and β -pinene and perturbs 355 their oxidation in the OFR, but this possible effect could be ignored in this work due to the relatively high RH and the negligible S/C ratio observed by the HR-ToF-AMS 356 357 (Friedman et al., 2016).

358 **3.4 Effect of NO₂ on SOA formation**

359 It is well known that high NO_x concentration almost always plays a negative role in 360 NPF and SOA formation because the reaction of NO with RO2 radicals would result in 361 the formation of more volatile products compared to the reaction of HO₂ with RO₂ 362 radicals (Sarrafzadeh et al., 2016). Previous studies reported that nitro-substituted 363 products were the main products for SOA formed from OH-initiated reactions of phenol 364 precursors including methoxyphenols, in the presence of NO_x (Ahmad et al., 2017; Finewax et al., 2018; Lauraguais et al., 2012, 2014b). Thus, the effect of NO₂ on SOA 365 formation from eugenol oxidation by OH radicals was investigated. As shown in Fig. 366 367 5, the nitrate concentration measured by the HR-ToF-AMS increased as a function of OH exposure in the presence of 40 ppbv NO₂, but it was much lower than the sulfate 368 369 concentration (Fig. 4) even though the OH rate constant for NO₂ was faster than that

370	for SO ₂ (Atkinson et al., 1976; Davis et al., 1979). The possible explanation was that
371	the formed HNO ₃ mainly existed in the gas phase, and the relatively high temperature
372	$(301 \pm 1 \text{ K})$ was not favorable for gaseous HNO ₃ distribution in the particle phase
373	(Wang et al., 2016). It has been indicated that the temperature range for the greatest loss
374	of nitrate is 293–298 K (Keck and Wittmaack, 2005). As illustrated in Fig. 5, the SOA
375	yield enhancement and N/C ratio both increased firstly and then decreased with rising
376	OH exposure. The increase of NO_2 concentration (40–109 ppbv) was beneficial to SOA
377	yields (0.053–0.062), N/C ratio (0.032–0.041), and nitrate formation (4.29–6.30 $\mu g~m^{-}$
378	³) (Fig. S11). Compared to the presence of 41 ppbv SO ₂ , the maximum SOA yield
379	enhancement (19.17%) in the presence of 40 ppbv NO ₂ was lower. For most aromatic
380	precursors, the addition of ppbv levels of NO2 should have a negligible effect on SOA
381	formation, because the rate constants of phenoxy radicals with O ₂ and NO ₂ are on the
382	order of approximate 10 ⁻¹⁶ and 10 ⁻¹¹ cm ³ molecule ⁻¹ s ⁻¹ , respectively (Atkinson and Arey,
383	2003). But, for phenol precursors only about 0.5 ppbv NO_2 is enough to compete with
384	O_2 for the reaction with phenoxy radicals (Finewax et al., 2018). Therefore, the
385	enhancement effect of NO_2 on SOA formation might be relevant to the special case of
386	phenols or methoxyphenols but not for other aromatic precursors.
387	It is noteworthy that the N/C ratio is in the range of $0.032-0.043$, suggesting that

NO₂ participated in the OH reactions of cyclic alkanes, and the N/C ratios were in the range

391	of 0.031–0.064, higher than those obtained in this work. The nitro-substituted products
392	were reported to be the main reaction products of the OH reactions of guaiacol and
393	syringol in the presence of NO ₂ (Lauraguais et al., 2014b; Ahmad et al., 2017). The N-
394	containing products might be also formed through the reactions involving with NO_3
395	radicals, which could be generated by the reaction between NO_2 and O_3 in this system
396	(Atkinson, 1991). Using the box model (Peng et al., 2015) and the maximum O_3
397	concentration (9.11 ppmv) in this work, the maximum NO ₃ exposure was calculated to
398	be approximately 1.7×10^{11} molecules cm ⁻³ s. Compared to the rate constant of eugenol
399	with OH radicals obtained in this work, the rate constant ($1.6 \times 10^{-13} \text{ cm}^3$ molecule ⁻¹ s ⁻
400	¹) of eugenol with NO ₃ radicals was about 2 orders of magnitude lower (Zhang et al.,
401	2016). Thus, the contribution of NO_3 radicals on the decay of eugenol was insignificant.
402	The relative low volatility of N-containing products could reasonably contribute to SOA
403	formation (Duporté et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2016a). In addition, higher NO ₂ /NO ratio
404	favors the formation of nitro-substituted products, which are potentially involved in
405	NPF and SOA growth (Pereira et al., 2015). Ng et al. (2007a) also indicated that NO_x
406	could be beneficial to SOA formation for sesquiterpenes, due to the formation of low
407	volatility organic nitrates and the isomerization of large alkoxy radicals, resulting in
408	less volatile products. The decrease in the N/C ratio at high OH exposure suggested that
409	more volatile products were generated through the oxidation of particle-phase species
410	by OH radicals.

411 The NO^+/NO_2^+ ratios measured by the HR-ToF-AMS are widely used to identify

412	inorganic and organic nitrates. The NO^+/NO_2^+ ratios for inorganic nitrates have been
413	reported to be in the range of 1.08-2.81 (Farmer et al., 2010; Sato et al., 2010). The
414	ratio ranged from 2.06 to 2.54 in this work as determined by the HR-ToF-AMS using
415	ammonium nitrate as the calibration sample. However, the NO^+/NO_2^+ ratios during
416	oxidation of eugenol in the presence of 40 ppbv NO_2 were 3.98–6.09. They were higher
417	than those for inorganic nitrates and consistent with those for organic nitrates
418	(3.82–5.84) from the photooxidation of aromatics (Sato et al., 2010). According to the
419	method described by Fry et al. (2013) (shown in Supplement), the fraction of organic
420	nitrate was calculated to be in the range of 25.64% to 82.05%, using the NO^{+}/NO_{2}^{+}
421	ratios (3.98-6.09) obtained at different OH exposure. The results were comparable to
422	those reported in earlier studies (Liu et al., 2015; Hunter et al., 2014). Liu et al. (2015)
423	reported that the N-containing organic mass contributed $31.5 \pm 4.4\%$ to the total SOA
424	derived from m-xylene oxidation by OH radicals. Hunter et al. (2014) estimated the
425	organic nitrate yields of SOA to be 31-64%, formed in the OH-initiated reactions of
426	acyclic, monocyclic, and polycyclic alkanes. This range obtained in this work should
427	be the upper limit due to the possibility of C-C bond scission of gas- and particle-phase
428	organics oxidized by high OH exposure. Besides, the maximum yield of nitrates for a
429	single reaction step is expected to be approximately 30% (Ziemann and Atkinson, 2012),
430	this suggests that multiple reaction steps are needed.

3.5 Atmospheric implications

432 Biomass burning not only serves as a major contributor of atmospheric primary organic

433	aerosol (POA), but also has great SOA formation potential through atmospheric
434	oxidation (Bruns et al., 2016; Gilardoni et al., 2016; Li et al., 2017; Ciarelli et al., 2017;
435	Ding et al., 2017). Recent studies have indicated that SOA formed from biomass
436	burning plays an important role in haze pollution in China (Li et al., 2017; Ding et al.,
437	2017). Residential combustion (mainly wood burning) could contribute approximately
438	60-70% to SOA formation in winter at the European scale (Ciarelli et al., 2017). In
439	addition, methoxyphenols are the major component of OA from biomass burning
440	(Bruns et al., 2016; Schauer and Cass, 2000). Based on our results and those of previous
441	studies (Sun et al., 2010; Lauraguais et al., 2012, 2014b; Ahmad et al., 2017; Yee et al.,
442	2013; Ofner et al., 2011), more attention should be paid to the SOA formation from the
443	OH oxidation of biomass burning emissions and its subsequent effect on haze evolution,
444	especially in China with nationwide biomass burning and high daytime average [OH]
445	in the ambient atmosphere ((5.2–7.5) \times 10 ⁶ molecules cm ⁻³) (Yang et al., 2017).
446	Meanwhile, the potential contributions of SO ₂ and NO ₂ to SOA formation should also
447	be taken into account, because the concentrations of NO_{x} and SO_{2} could be up to close
448	200 ppbv in the severely polluted atmosphere in China (Li et al., 2017). Although
449	eugenol concentrations in this work are higher than those in the ambient atmosphere,
450	the results obtained in this work could provide new information for SOA formation
451	from the atmospheric oxidation of methoxyphenols, and might be useful for SOA
452	modeling, especially for air quality simulation modeling of the specific regions
453	experiencing serious pollution caused by fine particulate matter.

454 N-containing products formed from the oxidation of methoxyphenols could contribute to water-soluble organics in SOA (Lauraguais et al., 2014b; Yang et al., 2016; 455 456 Zhang et al., 2016), which have been widely detected in atmospheric humic-like 457 substances (HULIS) (Wang et al., 2017). Due to their surface-active and UV-light-458 absorbing properties, HULIS could influence the formation of cloud condensation 459 nuclei (CCN), solar radiation balance, and photochemical processes in the atmosphere 460 (Wang et al., 2017). In addition, the formation of oligomers in particle phase via OH-461 initiated reaction of methoxyphenols, which has been observed in aquesous oxidation of phenolic species (Yu et al., 2014), might also enhance light absorption in UV-visible 462 region. The high reactivity of methoxyphenols toward atmospheric radicals suggests 463 464 that SOA was formed from their oxidation processes with relatively high oxidation level, 465 subsequently leading to SOA with strong optical absorption and hygroscopic properties 466 (Lambe et al., 2013; Massoli et al., 2010). Therefore, SOA formed from the reactions 467 of methoxyphenols with atmospheric oxidants might have important effects on air 468 quality and climate. In addition, the experimental results from this study would help to 469 further the understanding of the atmospheric aging process of smoke plumes from biomass-burning emissions. 470

471 **4** Conclusions

For the first time, the rate constant and SOA formation from the gas-phase reaction of eugenol with OH radicals were investigated in an OFR. The second-order rate constant of eugenol with OH radicals was $(8.01 \pm 0.40) \times 10^{-11}$ cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹, measured by

475	the relative rate method, and the corresponding atmospheric lifetime was (2.31 ± 0.12)
476	h. In addition, the significant SOA formation of eugenol oxidation by OH radicals was
477	observed. The maximum SOA yields (0.11-0.31) obtained at different eugenol
478	concentrations could be expressed well by a one-product model. SOA yield was
479	dependent on OH exposure and eugenol concentration, which firstly increased and then
480	decreased as a function of OH exposure due to the possible C-C bond scission of gas-
481	phase species by further oxidation or heterogeneous reactions involving OH radicals.
482	The OS_C and O/C ratio both increased significantly as a function of OH exposure,
483	suggesting that SOA became more oxidized. The presence of SO_2 and NO_2 was helpful
484	to increase SOA yield, and the maximum enhanced yields were 38.6% and 19.2%,
485	respectively. The observed N/C ratio of SOA was in the range of 0.032-0.043,
486	indicating that NO ₂ participated in the OH-initiated reaction of eugenol, consequently
487	producing organic nitrates. The experimental results might be helpful to further
488	understand the atmospheric chemical behavior of eugenol and its SOA formation
489	potential from OH oxidation in the atmosphere.

490 Data availability

491 The experimental data are available upon request to the corresponding authors.

492 **Competing interests**

493 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

494 Author contributions

C.L., Y.L., and H.H. designed the research and wrote the manuscript. C.L., T.C., and
J.L. performed the experiments. C.L., Y.L., T.C., J.L., and H.H. carried out the data
analysis. All authors contributed to the final manuscript.

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 10.1039/c2cs35122f, 2012.

- 871 Table 1. Rate constant for gas-phase reaction of eugenol with OH radicals and
- 872 associated atmospheric lifetime.

Compound	Structure	References	$k_{\rm E}/k_{\rm R}$	$k_{ m E}{}^{ m a}$	kон ^a	<i>k</i> _E (average) ^a	$ au_{\rm OH}({\rm h})^{\rm b}$
eugenol	H ₃ CO	1,3,5-trimethylbeneze	1.33 ± 0.05	7.54 ± 0.28	6.50°	8.01 ± 0.40	2.31 ± 0.12
$(C_{10}H_{12}O_2)$	но	<i>m</i> -xylene	3.85 ± 0.23	8.47 ± 0.51	0.50		

- 873 ^a Units of 10^{-11} cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹.
- 874 ^b Atmospheric lifetime in hours. $\tau_{OH}=1/k_E[OH]$, assuming a 24 h average $[OH]=1.5 \times$
- 875 10^6 molecules cm⁻³ (Mao et al., 2009).
- ^c Calculated using US EPA AOP WIN model (US EPA, 2012).

Expt.	[eugenol]0 ^a	\triangle [eugenol] ^b	$M_{\rm o}{}^{\rm c}$	SO_2	NO ₂	$Y_{max}{}^{d} \\$	OH Exposure (10 ¹¹ molecules cm ⁻³ s) ^e	$\tau (d)^{\rm f}$
	(µg m ⁻³)	(µg m ⁻³)	(µg m ⁻³)	(ppbv)	(ppbv)			
#1	272	265	29	-	-	0.11	5.41	4.17
#2	351	339	54	_	_	0.16	5.41	4.17
#3	485	474	83	-	-	0.18	5.41	4.17
#4	636	625	145	_	_	0.23	5.41	4.17
#5	874	858	241	_	_	0.28	7.37	5.68
#6	1327	1304	399	_	_	0.31	8.91	6.87
#7	273	267	40	41	-	0.15	5.41	4.17
#8	273	266	35	_	40	0.13	5.41	4.17

877 **Table 2.** Experimental conditions and results for SOA formation.

878 ^a Initial eugenol concentrations.

- 879 ^b Reacted eugenol concentrations.
- 880 ^c SOA concentrations.
- 881 ^d Maximum SOA yields.
- ^e Corresponding OH exposure of maximum SOA yields.
- ^f Corresponding atmospheric aging time of maximum SOA yields, calculated using a
- typical [OH] in the atmosphere in this work $(1.5 \times 10^6 \text{ molecules cm}^{-3})$ (Mao et al.,

885 2009).

- 886 Figure Captions
- **Figure 1.** Relative rate plots for gas-phase reaction of OH radicals with eugenol.
- 888 Figure 2. Maximum SOA yields as a function of SOA mass concentration (Mo) formed
- from the OH reactions at different eugenol concentrations. The solid line was fit to the
- 890 experimental data using a one-product model. Values for α_i and K_{om,i} used to generate
- 891 the solid line are (0.36 ± 0.02) and (0.013 ± 0.002) , respectively.
- 892 Figure 3. OS_c, H/C, and O/C vs. the OH exposure for SOA formed at two eugenol
- 893 concentrations (272 and 1328 μ g m⁻³).
- 894 Figure 4. Evolution of the enhanced SOA yield and sulfate formation as a function of
- 895 OH exposure in the presence of 41 ppbv SO₂ at average eugenol concentration of 273
 896 μg m⁻³.
- 897 Figure 5. Evolution of the enhanced SOA yields, nitrate formation, and N/C ratio as a
- function of OH exposure in the presence of 40 ppbv NO₂ at average eugenol concentration of 273 μ g m⁻³.