

Response to Reviews

We thank the referees for their helpful comments, which allowed us to improve the manuscript significantly. Some of the questions raised have been addressed only in this response, as the discussion is too specialized for inclusion in the current paper.

Anonymous Referee #1

This paper reports the structure-activity relationship (SAR) for the rate coefficients for the isomerization reactions of organic peroxy radicals (RO₂) to QOOH based on the experimental and theoretical investigations. It adds new class of knowledge on the atmospheric chemistry. I request the authors to address the following comment on the assumption in the analysis of experiments.[1] In the analysis of experimental data, authors simple one-way reaction (R1). RO₂ → HOOQO₂ (R1) However, this should be actually the two-step reactions. RO₂ → QOOH (R2) QOOH → RO₂ (R-2) QOOH + O₂ → HOOQO₂ (R3) The assumption of simple one-way reaction (R1) is only valid when $k_3[\text{O}_2] \gg k_2$. My rough calculation shows that k_2 may be as large as 10⁷ to 10⁸ s⁻¹, which is comparable order with $k_3[\text{O}_2]$ at the authors experimental condition, (0.9 atm, 298 K, synthetic air), $k_3[\text{O}_3] = 3 \times 10^7 \sim 1 \times 10^8$. Authors should properly discuss the effects of the backward reactions(R-2).

We added a section dedicated to the reverse reaction; as this is a significant extension of the text a draft version was uploaded prior to the end of the reviewing period so referees could get a feel for what we had in mind, and could comment on it.

In this section, we conclude, based on the available literature data, that in near-atmospheric conditions the reverse reaction for (substituted) aliphatic hydrogens is unlikely to affect the rate coefficients by more than about 10%, less than other sources of uncertainty affect the predictions and measurements. As such, both the experimentally observed rates and the rate coefficients included in the SAR are expected to be reliable within the stated uncertainties. For non-aliphatic hydrogens, e.g. for hydroxy-H migration, it is emphasized that the reverse reaction is sometimes expected to be dominant.

Anonymous Referee #2

The authors present an extensive structure activity relationship for the prediction of temperature-dependent rate coefficients for H-shift isomerisation reactions in substituted alkyl peroxy radicals under atmospheric conditions. Training data for the construction of the SAR is mainly based on (high level) theoretical calculations, supplemented with some experimental data. Both literature theoretical and experimental datasets are used to evaluate the SAR, including some product studies reported in this work.

40 This is an excellent, well written and thorough piece of work, providing much needed
chemical insight into unimolecular RO₂ H-migration reactions. Such theoretical
SARs, anchored to experimental studies, are crucial in developing our chemical
understanding of atmospheric chemistry, providing focus for targeting research in
areas of particular uncertainty and in deriving chemical mechanism for scientific and
45 policy modelling. The development of the SAR is described well, including
limitations, simplifications and thorough descriptions of the theoretical techniques
applied. The SAR is presented in a form that is easy to read and implement into
automatic mechanism development methodologies. There is a very useful and
comprehensive supplementary folder supplied.
50 I recommend publication into ACP after the following suggestions and clarifications
are considered and addressed:

(1) In terms of chemical notation, I would recommend that IUPAC notation is
followed through out. All rate expression terms given in italics e.g. $k_{298\text{ K}}$ or
55 $k(298\text{ K})$, $k(T)$, A , etc...

We have gone over the text in detail, changing the formatting and naming as requested.

It would also be useful to clarify and define the way you are using the modified
60 form of the Arrhenius expression (Kooij formula) in the main text and the SAR
tables. Why is $(T/K)^n$ used and not $(T)^n$?

The T power factor must be a unit-less value, and $(T)^n$ (with n a real number) strictly speaking isn't due
to the temperature unit of T . In atmospheric chemistry literature it is implicitly understood that T here
65 should be the value of the temperature in Kelvin (dropping the unit), and not e.g. the temperature in °C.
The $(T/K)^n$ notation merely makes this explicit, forcing a value in Kelvin by unit conversion. We hope
this helps prevent potential erroneous implementation in software by non-chemists, or complications in
software that uses physical values (i.e. value + unit objects).

70 (2) This work seems to nicely follow on from discussions in Jenkin et al., (2019)
[<https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-19-7691-2019>] on their SAR for “Estimation of
rate coefficients and branching ratios for reactions of organic peroxy radicals”
where they introduce discussions on the need for systematic structure–activity
methods for a wide range of RO₂ radicals and their potential isomerization
75 reactions. They also discuss that the rates of the reverse isomerization
reactions are sometimes sufficiently rapid that the product radical may not be
fully trapped by onward reaction (e.g. addition of O₂) under atmospheric
conditions” The way the SAR in this work is set up is that the reverse

80 reactions are not explicitly taken into account (for good reasons, given the
theoretical complexities involved). More discussion on this is needed but I
see that one of the Referees has brought this up and the authors have
already responded.

85 We now added a new section on the reverse H-migrations. Note that the reverse reaction problem can
never be included in the forward reaction SAR, as there is no guarantee that any reaction from the
product radical is the reverse of the forming reaction. Rather, a separate H-migration SAR for alkyl
radical, alkoxy radicals, and other products must be developed; some such SARs exist in the literature
(e.g. from combustion literature for alkyl radicals, or our earlier work on alkoxy radicals), but
reviewing or developing such SARs is well outside the scope of this paper.

90 (3) It would be useful to the reader if more schematic figures and worked
examples were shown in order to show exactly how the SARs work/ can be
implemented and to illustrate how some of the more interesting reactions work
e.g. the effects of allyl resonance stability in unsaturated RO2 species.

95 The supporting information now has examples of 13 reactions spanning a wide range of substituents,
showing the application of the SAR for the derivation of partial and total rate coefficients.

100 It is also unclear to me how the product studies work really links into the
evaluation of the SAR. Here, showing how the reaction mechanism for n-
pentyl RO2 is predicted by the SAR in Figure 10 would be useful. It would
also be useful to add the structures associated with the masses show in
Figure 9.

105 The product study section is not part of the section of SAR validation, as it does not derive rate
coefficients. Its purpose is to show that the observed products match the mechanistic details covered by
the SAR, indicating that the reactions proceed indeed following the proposed rearrangements, thus
yielding the anticipated intermediary products. Not all experimental data provides such information,
but track the reaction rate either by loss of reactants, or indirectly by secondary products. We felt that
this information was valuable in this context.

110 The supporting SAR now has extensive examples on how to apply the SAR, including for aliphatic
cases such as these in figure 9/10.

The peaks figure 9 are now all labeled with a short-notation formula, and the caption explicitly refers to
figure 10 for the Lewis structures.

115 (4) Test vs. Training dataset. It would be useful to highlight your strategy of
picking what (Scarce) experimental data was used in the training vs. test

datasets early on in the manuscript when talking about the development of the SARs. Some of this is brought out more in the evaluation section. It would also be useful to distill out the experimental dataset used into a fully referenced Table in the supplementary.

Only 4 experimental data points were used in the derivation of the SAR, and 3 of those only by being included in the geometric averaging across several literature or calculated values to obtain the target $k(298\text{ K})$. The experimental values used thus are now explicitly marked in Table 9 with an asterisk. The SAR design section now also explicitly refers to these marked values, explaining how these were included in the SAR derivation. As only 4 values were used, we feel an additional table is not warranted; Table 9 is fully referenced. The introduction shortly discusses why not *all* experimental data can be directly used in the SAR derivation.

Note that the table with experimental data now includes two more items for validation, i.e. one rate and one rate ratio.

Anonymous Referee #3

This RO₂ H-shift SAR is a long-awaited advance in atmospheric chemistry. The authors quite sensibly choose to simplify the enormously complex RO₂ chemistry by striving to create a (rather comprehensive) “single-functionality” SAR, which can then (assuming some simple additivity rules) be used as a good initial guess also for more complex multi-functional systems (and e.g. R/S stereochemistry, cyclic structures inside the TS ring, etc). Instead of attempting to generate comprehensive conformer sets for all their structures, they also really heavily on what they call “rel-MC-TST”, where the “full” set of conformers (at a given level of quantum chemical theory) is generated only for a reference reaction, and more complex systems are studied by only computing a subset of conformers for those systems, including both ones as similar as possible to the reference system, and others “representing the change in molecular structure between reference and target systems”. While I’m dubious as to the universal applicability of this approach, e.g. for systems with multiple (non-alkyl) functional groups and thus a large number of H-bonding patterns, as in heavily oxidised large RO₂, it is likely a good and cost-effective choice for the systems with relatively few non-alkyl functional groups studied here.

rel-MC-TST is a relative method, and like relative methods in experimental studies, they work best if the new systems are as similar as possible to the reference system. Though mathematically rel-MC-TST will give the correct result even if in cases of poor comparability (i.e. a “universal application” is possible), it will likely only converge in the limit of many/most/all conformers included in the rate ratio calculations, negating the benefit of the relative method. Still, even in the case of heavily oxidized large

RO2, rel-MC-TST can be applied with success, but best by using another heavily oxidised large RO2 as reference reaction, comparable to the target system. This point will be emphasized in our separate publication on rel-MC-TST. For now, the text in the SI has an additional paragraph indicating that rel-MC-TST is expected to work best for comparable-sized molecules, that a suitable MC-TST calculation of a reference reaction must be available, and that drastically changing the number of conformers between reference and target reaction makes efficient application hard.

The authors are also to be commended for providing their raw data as a supplement- though I'm not sure if the provided data actually contains conformer data as well? (Given how important the authors consider the conformers to be, I would argue that the dataset perhaps SHOULD contain also at least the most important conformers for each system; see also comment 12 above.)

The supporting information contains the conformer data; for some reactions it was already included in our previous publications (Nozière and Vereecken 2019, Novelli et al. 2020, Fuchs et al. 2018,...).

I have a number of somewhat technical issues that I would like to hear the author's comments on. Some of these may require minor revisions to the manuscript, for others I'd just like to hear the authors' response here in the discussion area.

1) Please define exactly what is meant by a "first-order SAR"?

We now state explicitly in the introduction why we label this a "first-order" SAR:

"We label this a first-order SAR, as we derive this SAR without rigorously incorporating all literature data available, by including lower-level theoretical predictions, and where needed build on reactivity trends of analogous classes without necessarily being able to validate the transferability of these trends. The current SAR is then a starting framework upon which to build a more complete and accurate SAR as more data becomes available, while retaining immediate usability within the expected accuracy."

2) Please explain what is meant by the sentence "for the remaining reactions the product energy is assumed to be similar to analogous reactions with similar product characteristics"? I first assumed this refers to cases where the H-shift leads to prompt decomposition, i.e. where a QOOH "product" minimum does not exist. But upon closer reading, I realised this probably part of the authors' general "rel-MC-TST" philosophy, where computational time is saved by not explicitly computing product energies for all reactions...Anyway, this could if possible be reformulated to make the issue even clearer.

rel-MC-TST is only used in a subset of the reactions, whereas most calculations used in the SAR as obtained in this paper and the literature are absolute rate determinations; rel-MC-TST is thus not the general philosophy of the SAR.

The omission of explicitly calculating all of the product energy is indeed to reduce the computational cost, as the energy difference between the peroxy radical reactant and the alkyl radical product is well understood based on available bond strengths, and little is gained from calculating dozens of primary, secondary and tertiary alkyl radicals explicitly, especially as the tunneling correction is not sensitive to minor differences between such individual radicals. The text was rephrased to:

"for most H-migrations, the reaction energy used in this tunneling correction is estimated from an explicit product characterization (usually 1 conformer only). For the remaining reactions, the product energy is instead estimated based on the product energy of analogous reactions; as the energy of alkyl radicals is well understood, and as the tunneling correction is not overly sensitive to this parameter, this reduced the computational effort without significantly influencing the rate predictions."

3) The authors argue against H-shifts in "trans"-alkenes by stating "To reduce the strain in the transition states very large migrations spans would then be required, leading again to low rate coefficients due to entropic disadvantage. ". But wouldn't the presence of the double bond remove at least one of the internal rotors, thus reducing the entropic disadvantage? Wouldn't it be worth checking e.g. some 1,8 or 1,9 H-shifts trans-alkenes (with otherwise favourable substituents for H-shifts) to make sure the argument holds? Note that similar arguments also apply to conjugated or triple bonds, as well as cyclic substituents within the TS ring, as in many monoterpene-derived RO2: the steric strain likely prevents most H-shifts, but on the other hand the entropic penalty is lesser, potentially making for example even 1,9 H-shifts feasible (e.g. in the d3-carene + O3 system). On the other hand, it's perfectly understandable that the authors wish to limit the scope of their SAR - the number of potential RO2 systems is after all enormous - so the trans-conformers can well be left to a future study.

We have significantly extended our discussion of migration across unsaturated moieties, and now include triple bonds, trans-alkenes, conjugated double bonds, allenes, and cumulenes. We now refer explicitly to literature for smallest isolable rings containing such unsaturated groups, and make explicit geometric arguments as to the lowest number of backbone atoms we expect. We feel that 1,8-H-shift remain very unlikely, and even 1,9-H-shifts are still likely to have several kcal/mol ring strain, making any additional calculations on such shifts of less importance at this time.

We have not included cyclic structure due to the large number of possible variations and the rather specific impact of each (multi)ring system on the barrier.

4) Illustrative (stick diagram) pictures of the different H-shift cases studied could aid readers especially from the "physics-side" of the ACP community. I'm a chemist, but even I needed some time to understand exactly what "allylic H-migration with a endo-cyclic gem-substituted double bond" refers to.

Each section now has an inset stick diagram of the pertaining reaction, including a reference to the related SAR table, if any. We opted for insets rather than a single large figure to aid the reader in easily finding the section in the text for a reaction of interest.

5) The authors report large discrepancies (of unknown origin) between different studies concerning rates of “scrambling” H-shifts between RO2 and ROOH groups.

We have extended the discussion on the discrepancy for scrambling reactions based on test calculations at the same level of theory as the deviating literature results. We found that B3LYP, used in these latter calculations, has an anomalously large difference, 5 kcal/mol, in the barrier height compared to higher levels of theory, whereas for other H-migrations it is only incorrect by 1-2 kcal/mol (a well-known defect of B3LYP for H-migrations). This is likely affecting the TS geometries which, combined with the fact that no full analysis of the conformational space was done for these larger H-migration spans, is then the likely cause of the mentioned discrepancy.

In our experience, transition states for such reactions are particularly prone to artefacts in the Hartree-Fock stage of coupled-cluster calculations, where the HF algorithms used in programs such as Gaussian, Molpro etc. converge to an incorrect, higher-energy solution, analogous to local minima in geometry optimisations. That can then lead to either higher - or sometimes lower, but in any case incorrect - coupled cluster energies. Whether or not this error occurs seems to be almost random, with different HF algorithms (i.e. either different programs, or different algorithm choices within the same program), and different basis sets leading to different results - but sadly none of the combinations we have tested so far (including using the otherwise very robust MCSCF algorithm in Molpro for the initial HF guess) seems to be guaranteed to always give the lowest possible HF energy. For some discussion on this, see for example the Moeller et al 2019 paper cited in the manuscript. One quick way to check if this is an issue (apart from systematically performing “orbital rotation” checks on all HF energies as suggested for example by Vaucher and Reiher, J. Chem. Theory Comput. 2017, 13, 3, 1219-1228) would be to compare the “DFT-only” level results from different papers on this reaction class. Generally, we would expect (much) larger scatter in the DFT results due to larger inherent errors, and to differences between different functionals, but since DFT seems to be generally less affected than coupled cluster by this “local-minimum orbital” problem, then this case might be the exception...

We are aware of such convergence problems, and routinely compare our DFT results against the CCSD(T) results, and against test calculations at other levels of theory. See for example Vereecken et al. 2017 where we explicitly provide DFT/CCSD(T) comparisons in the supporting information (table 11, p. 29); scatter on the correlation there is a few tenths of a kcal/mol. Another metric for the above convergence failures is that the T1 diagnostic is often, but not always, much higher, even for accompanying CCSD(T) energies close to the expected value. Any metric that deviates from the expected norm is scrutinized in detail, with additional calculations at different basis sets, different

convergence algorithms, and different methodologies, until we are satisfied the result is robust. In SAR development, detecting aberrant calculations is more straightforward than in singular PES studies, as more reference material is available.

Vereecken, L., Novelli, A. and Taraborrelli, D.: Unimolecular decay strongly limits concentration of Criegee intermediates in the atmosphere, *Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys.*, 19, 31599–31612, doi:[10.1039/C7CP05541B](https://doi.org/10.1039/C7CP05541B), 2017.

6) Is there a particular reason the authors choose to use canonical CCSD(T), rather than the potentially more cost-effective variants such as CCSD(T)-F12, DLPNO-CCSD(T), or the very recent combination of the two, DLPNO-CCSD(T)-F12? I am fully aware that the details of the CCSD(T) correction is unlikely to be the major error source on the rates, I'm just interested in their reasoning here.

The listed methods would have been suitable alternatives, but we chose CCSD(T) for practical reasons. We do not have access to a CCSD(T)-F12 program that is applicable to all our projects (e.g. singlet biradicals), so have standardized mostly on CCSD(T) that is available in more software packages. We likewise do not have the computational resources to do CCSD(T)-F12/aug-cc-pVTZ calculations for all species of interest, and with only access to aug-cc-pVDZ or smaller we would not have the same abilities to verify the behavior of the calculations with respect to systematic basis set series in case of problematic results (see also previous comment), even when we recognize CCSD(T)-F12/aVDZ as being as close or closer to the CBS limit than CCSD(T)/aVTZ. Other practical considerations are the flexibility of the software with regards to (minimum) per-process and overall memory and disk use, the number of software packages to license and keep up to date on our cluster, etc.

The current results are based on calculations spread out over more than a decade, and the above methods were not available to us through the entirety period of time. Using multiple methods within the same SAR is to be avoided, as each method has its own biases and scatter that make it harder to discern trends. This is also one of the reasons why we do not include all of our calculations in the SAR derivation but only those at a few selected levels of theory.

7) One more recent reference containing some “medium-level accuracy” computed RO₂H-shift rates for multifunctional systems (e.g. -ONO₂ and C=O; also a C₃ ring inside the TS) is: D. Draper et al., Formation of Highly Oxidized Molecules from NO₃ Radical Initiated Oxidation of Δ-3-Carene: A Mechanistic Study, *ACS Earth Space Chem.* 2019, 3, 8, 1460-1470. The authors might wish to compare their SAR predictions also to the rates given therein.

As explained in the text, giving an exhaustive overview of the RO₂ literature is beyond the scope of this paper, as hundreds of papers would have to be taken into account. At this stage, discussing a handful of additional RO₂ radicals with a very specific substructure is unlikely to benefit the overall

goal of our first-order SAR, and instead we intend to use the myriad of literature data for a later, more complete validation and optimization of the SAR.

8) In their explanation of rel-MC-TST (supplementary material), I believe they slightly mis-
characterise the approach proposed by Moeller et al 2016 (and related approaches): they do not
“generate a limited number of conformers at a very low level of theory rather than attempting a near-
exhaustive characterization of the full population”, instead they explicitly DO attempt to generate the
full population at a very low level of theory, and then attempt to come up with cost-effective
approaches of limiting the number of calculations needed at higher levels. The authors may well be
correct that with currently available method combinations, this then fails to “reliably generate the most
contributing conformer” - but that is a different issue.

Also, I would note that while, as said, the authors’ present approach is likely very appropriate for their
present systems, then as chemical complexity increases, something like the Moeller 2016 approach will
inevitably be needed. Consider for example the case of a RO₂ from a monoterpene containing 8 or so
O atoms - corresponding to the least condensing “monomer” products in monoterpene oxidation. This
could easily (depending of course on the number of remaining cyclic structures) contain on the order of
15 or so relevant dihedral angles, implying at least millions of relevant conformers. No matter how
clever the selection of “reference” systems, at some point the “judicious selection of conformers by
hand” just becomes impossible, and a systematic and automated approach -inevitably relying on
analysing a large number of conformers at a lower level, chosen to maximise error cancellation with
the desired final level - will be required.

To avoid any misrepresentation of the Møller et al. 2016 approach, the text was modified to indicate
that "a limited number" is about half of the population, and now specifies that the difference lies in the
use of semi-empirical methods versus wavefunction/DFT methods in the sampling. A paragraph was
also added indicating that rel-MC-TST is expected to work best for comparable-sized molecules, that a
suitable MC-TST calculation of a reference reaction must be available, and that drastically changing
the number of conformers between reference and target reaction hampers efficient application. The
method is compared to rel-MC-TST specifically because both methods are based on a selection of
conformers, and we felt it was necessary to inform less specialized readers on the specific differences
in the selection process.

Stating that the Møller et al. 2016 approach explicitly tries to cover all conformers is to our opinion not
fully correct, as the semi-empirical methodology is known to miss 50-70% of the reactant and TS
conformers, in every benchmark we are aware of (e.g. Møller et al 2016, Novelli et al. 2020). It also
misses a similar fraction of the low-energy conformers in complex cases. The Novelli et al. study for
example shows that for diHPCARP-RO₂, the Møller et al 2016 methodology recovers 600 out of the 1500 reactant
conformers (40%) and 8 out of 27 (30%) in the lowest 2 kcal/mol bracket (+3 found by expensive IRC calculations (now
40%)), while dozens of conformers are needed to describe 80 to 90% of the population. It appears that typically about
half or more of the population-relevant conformers are not recovered by semi-empirical methods. Similar

conclusions were reached by Vereecken and Peeters in 2002-2003, who therefore chose not to use semi-empirical methods as their lowest-level methodology even though the computational savings would have been very welcome in those days. These details can not be suitably discussed in the current manuscript, but the discussion in Novelli et al 2020 is referenced in the text.

We wish to emphasize that we are not opposed to the use of the Møller et al. 2016 technique, and use a lot of data derived with this technique in the SAR derivation. The Møller et al. approach, like full MC-TST and rel-MC-TST, has its place in the spectrum of theoretical kinetic methodologies, all somewhere between full-CI dynamics on diatomics and semi-empirical studies of polymers or proteins. The reduced computational burden of the conformer sampling in Møller et al. 2016 makes it indeed suitable for molecules with a higher number of internal rotors, and we agree with Reviewer 3 that, as chemical complexity increases, some trade-off is inevitably needed to alleviate the computational burden. All of the MC-TST, rel-MC-TST, Møller et al. 2016 and related approaches have their role to play, each with their own benefits and weaknesses, but the current paper is not the place for a review on kinetic methodologies. The topic was only touched through the necessary but preliminary introduction of rel-MC-TST (see above).

We hope that the changes in the text clarify these points, without going too far into a methodological comparison.

9) The authors could briefly explain what procedure they carry out to ensure they have indeed found the “full” conformer population for their reference systems in rel-MC-TST: presumably this involves scanning over all dihedral angles (in 120-degree increments, or perhaps even smaller?) and then optimising all the obtained combinations (excluding obviously impossible ones) with the desired final DFT method? And then they must have some approach for distinguishing between (and eliminating) duplicates, as multiple inputs can lead to the same DFT local minimum, but with small differences due to the convergence criteria?

Referee 3's description is exactly right: we use a template to generate scans over all dihedral angles, in a degree increment relevant for the angle considered (usually 120 degrees as mentioned, smaller for e.g. substituents on rings, or across sp²-sp³ bonds). Good starting angles are readily obtained from general chemical knowledge or simple test calculations. All geometries are optimized and compared. Detection of doubles compares bond lengths, angles and dihedral angles within a preset tolerance, typically about 0.01 Å for bond lengths, a degree for bond angles and 2-3 degrees for dihedral angles. Convergence to an incorrect molecule is detected by comparison of the molecular graph to a target graph, or visualizing conformers directly.

We do not feel the need to provide so much detail in the paper as other authors are likely to use a very similar approach, as there are no obvious other ones, the differences in the implementations being only in how automated the entire process is. There is also some software available on the web, sometimes with a GUI, for doing such systematic calculations.

Typically we prefer a rate prediction as accurate as feasible, thus aiming to include as many conformers as possible. Some of the aforementioned comparison and culling is automated but unclear cases are intentionally left to individual decision. Manual checks include metrics such as visualizing the aligned conformers in a chemical viewer, as well as comparing energies, partition functions, contribution to the population, etc. Starting geometries are tweaked to try and locate higher-energy conformers. Note that it is intrinsically impossible to know if one has all conformers, and only valid conformers. This depends on the methodology used, and one can only strive to be as complete as possible for the chosen methodology. The problem of sampling the conformer space, and the need for improved techniques to handle large systems, is discussed in more detail in the supporting information in Novelli et al. 2020 (cited).

10) Line 340: comapred is a typo.

corrected

11) While I don't dispute that the SAR performs well, I wonder slightly at how impressive the factor of 2 agreement quoted in the abstract is, given that the total number of experimental data points included by the authors appears to be 22, and the SAR contains a fairly large number of parameters. (I understand the authors do not actually claim it is particularly impressive on its own, I would just like to hear their thoughts on this.)

For full-MC-TST calculations at an adequate level of theory (CCSD(T) on a geometry from a modern DFT functional, both at least with an aug-cc-pVTZ basis set), the accuracy is typically a factor of 2 to 3; this was verified in all the comparisons made with experiments and for all the reactions studied by us so far (some better, some worse).

A SAR is by definition less accurate because each SAR class lumps in many reactions. Furthermore, for some of the reaction classes in the current SAR, there are no calculations, or only low-level calculations available. Also, e.g. stereoisomers often have rate coefficients differing by an order of magnitude, such that uncertainties smaller than a factor 3-4 for all cases are unattainable except for extremely detailed SARs. The average factor 2 agreement with the experiments in this paper is thus at least partially fortuitous. The one example with a large deviation illustrates this well: it is based on the lowest-level data only, and this immediately deteriorates the performance of the SAR. Still, this suggests easy improvements by additional calculations. The range of spectator substitutions in the comparison is fairly wide, but the good agreement here means mostly that substituents not located on the reactive sites (H-atom, OO radical) are not affecting the rate all that much and need not be parameterized in the SAR. The factor 2 found is encouraging, but the sample set is too small to really validate the SAR. The theoretical data, with an order of magnitude scatter for full-MC-TST data on multi-functionalized species is probably a more accurate assessment of the expected overall accuracy.

To further illustrate the reliability of the SAR derivation procedure, the supporting information now includes a discussion of the transferability of the temperature dependence across reactions, illustrated with a set of graphs.

435 12) Do the authors have some guidelines on what to do for more complex systems not covered directly by the SAR? Obviously, the SAR prediction is a very good starting point and sanity check - if it's very low, then likely the H-shift will not be relevant anyway, but what about the cases where the SAR prediction is fairly high, and we need a more precise value? Would the next step be to find the closest reference system covered by the SAR, and attempt to apply the authors rel-MC-TST approach? (If yes, 440 then it would DEFINITELY be good if the authors uploaded also their conformer data - as said I'm not sure from a quick glance if that's already included in the supplementary material)

We have no recommendations for molecules not covered by the SAR. The current SAR is a good start, but needs a lot more work before it is universally applicable with good accuracy. Still, that is a 445 mammoth job, and should not stop us now from starting with a SAR, lest the perfect becomes the enemy of the good.

If a more accurate value is needed than available in the SAR, one could try measuring it, or do explicit rate calculations. Rel-MC-TST might be an option; all conformers are in the supporting information, or in the SI of earlier publications. Other publications likewise have made their conformers available. 450 However, depending on how much "more complex" the system is, one should consider that relative methods may not be the optimal choice (addressed in more detail in an earlier response).

H-migration in peroxy radicals under atmospheric conditions

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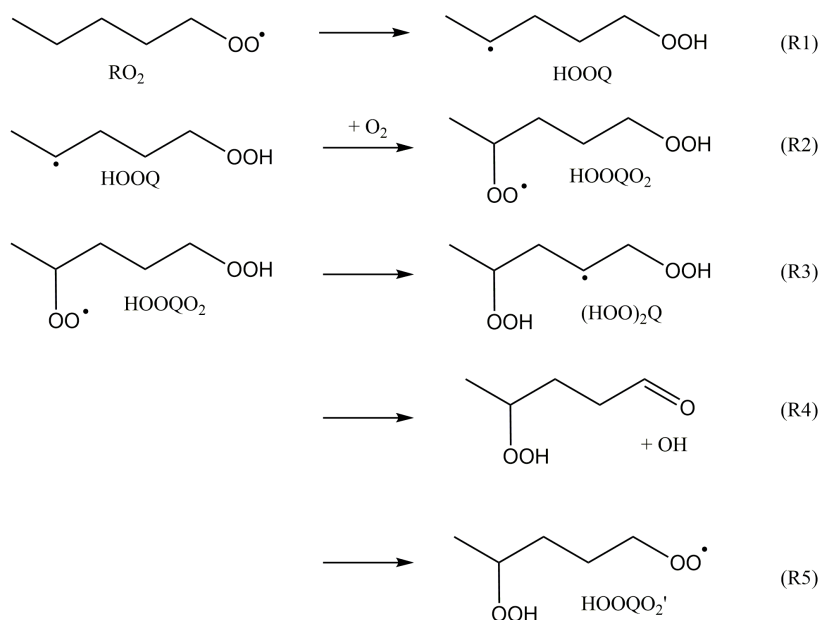
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Abstract. A large data set of rate coefficients for H-migration in peroxy radicals is presented, and supplemented with literature data to derive a structure-activity relationship (SAR), for the title reaction class. The SAR supports aliphatic RO₂ radicals, as well as unsaturated bonds and β-oxo substitution both endo- and exo-cyclic to the transition state ring, and α-oxo (aldehyde), –OH, –OOH, and –ONO₂ substitutions, including migration of O-based hydrogen atoms. Also discussed are –C(=O)OH and –OR substitutions. The SAR allows predictions of rate coefficients $k(T)$ for a temperature range of 200 to 450 K, with migrations spans ranging from 1,4 to 1,9-H-shifts depending on the functionalities. The performance of the SAR reflects the uncertainty of the underlying data, reproducing the scarce experimental data on average to a factor of 2, and the wide range of theoretical data to a factor 10 to 100 depending also on the quality of the data. The SAR evaluation discusses the performance in multi-functionalized species. For aliphatic RO₂, we also present some experimental product identification that validates the expected mechanisms. The proposed SAR is a valuable tool for mechanism development, experimental design, and guides future theoretical work, which should allow rapid improvements of the SAR in the following years; relative multi-conformer TST (rel-MC-TST) kinetic theory is introduced as an aid for systematic kinetic studies.

1 Introduction

H-migration in alkylperoxy radicals, RO₂, is a well-known reaction in combustion processes, where it is a major path in OH radical generation in cool flames (Battin-Leclerc et al., 2011). Over the last few years, RO₂ H-migration is also studied intensively at ambient temperatures, owing to its role in important atmospheric processes, such as the (re)generation of OH and HO₂ radicals, and the formation of low-volatility oxygenated compounds and highly oxygenated molecules (HOMs) (Bianchi et al., 2019; Ehn et al., 2017; Hallquist et al., 2009; Jokinen et al., 2014; Vereecken et al., 2018). The wide range of implications of these reactions is due to the properties of the hydroperoxides formed in the H-migration (R1).



Firstly, RO₂ H-migrations can be chained, having multiple H-migration reaction that sequentially add O₂ moieties to a molecule (R2 and R3). Secondly, by H-bonding and inductive effects the –OOH group facilitates faster H-migration reactions, enhancing the formation of highly oxidized molecules. The bond strength of the α-OOH hydrogen atoms is reduced, allowing for fast H-migration of these H-atoms (R4); the resulting α-OOH alkyl radicals were shown theoretically to be unstable, decomposing spontaneously to a carbonyl compound with an OH radical co-product that acts as an important oxidant in the atmosphere (Vereecken et al., 2004), and is responsible for chain branching in low-temperature combustion (Battin-Leclerc et al., 2011). Finally, hydroperoxide-substituted RO₂ radicals can rapidly scramble the peroxy H-atoms (R5) (Jørgensen et al., 2016; Miyoshi, 2011; Nozière and Vereecken, 2019), allowing access to subsequent reactions and products that may not be accessible from the originally formed HOOQO₂.

The RO₂ H-migration reactions have a comparatively high barrier and are often too slow to compete against the traditional atmospheric bimolecular reactions of peroxy at room temperature, i.e. their reaction with NO, HO₂, and other RO₂ radicals (Atkinson, 2007; Jenkin et al., 2019). These latter reactions have been studied extensively and are included in all chemical models, while their rate coefficients and products can be reasonably well predicted as function of the RO₂ molecular structure (Jenkin et al., 2019). The rate coefficient of the unimolecular reactions, however, depends strongly on the span of the H-migration, the substitution pattern around the migrating H-atom and peroxy radical moiety, and the nature of the substitution. In particular, unsaturated oxygenated RO₂ radicals were found to have H-migration reactions that are competitive in pristine environments. RO₂ H-migration reactions are typically not well-represented in chemical atmospheric models, as they remain poorly characterized and no generally applicable quantitative structure-activity relationship (SAR) is available to aid in the construction of mechanisms (Vereecken et al., 2018).

Though high-quality theoretical work has been available for RO₂ H-migration for quite some time, as discussed below, direct experimental data on the rate coefficients remains limited. Recent work by Nozière and Vereecken (2019) studied H-migration in aliphatic RO₂, by combined experimental and theoretical methodologies, examining migration of primary,

505 secondary and tertiary H-atoms over spans from 1,5-H- to 1,8-H-migrations. This experimental study of aliphatic RO₂ H-migration is currently the only available direct measurement of aliphatic RO₂ H-migration rate coefficients, and thus represent important reference data in the development of SARs. H-migration from aliphatic carbons is a critical step in the formation of highly oxygenated molecules where oxygen-to-carbon ratios O:C as high as 2 have been observed, implying that (nearly) all carbons have been oxygenated (Bianchi et al., 2019; Ehn et al., 2017). All other experimental studies we are
510 aware of involve (unsaturated) oxygenated peroxy radicals, mostly RO₂ radicals derived from isoprene and its oxidation products (Crounse et al., 2011, 2012, 2013; Jorand et al., 2003; Perrin et al., 1998; Praske et al., 2018, 2019; Xu et al., 2019). Modern explicit atmospheric models have extensive representations of this isoprene RO₂ chemistry (Carter, 2010; Jenkin et al., 2015; Novelli et al., 2020; Wennberg et al., 2018), derived mostly from the Leuven Isoprene Mechanisms LIM0 and LIM1 (Peeters et al., 2009, 2014) .

515 A recent review of RO₂ chemistry by Jenkin et al. (2019), aimed at developing SARs for use in mechanism development, included a short list of recommendations for H-migrations but although the authors rely on theoretical data they refrained from developing a generally applicable SAR based on the systematic theoretical studies available in the literature. More recently, Nozière and Vereecken (2019) proposed a simple SAR for aliphatic and OOH-substituted RO₂ radicals, combining their theoretical and experimental data with the systematic theoretical studies by Miyoshi (2011), Sharma et al. (2010), and
520 Otkjær et al. (2018). Older work by Vereecken and Peeters (Vereecken, 2012; Vereecken and Peeters, 2010b) presented an extensive SAR covering aliphatic, unsaturated, and oxygenated RO₂, but this data was never formally published. Extensive theoretical data is also available on multi-functionalized RO₂ radicals (e.g. Fuchs et al., 2018; Jørgensen et al., 2016; Møller et al., 2019; Novelli et al., 2020; Praske et al., 2018, 2019; da Silva, 2010b, 2010a, 2011). Combined, this theory-based data set is sufficiently large to derive a first-order SAR covering many of the needs in atmospheric chemistry, and serving as a
525 basis for future improvements. If the rate coefficient predictions carry an uncertainty of an order of magnitude or less, many questions regarding the competitiveness of the RO₂ H-migration relative to other RO₂ loss processes could be answered, and (semi-)quantitative models could be constructed.

In this work, we present an additional large theory-based data set, and derive a first-order SAR for RO₂ H-migration covering a wide range of chemical functionalities, with a reasonable level of reliability of ~1 order of magnitude, depending
530 on the molecular structure. We label this a first-order SAR, as we derive this SAR without rigorously incorporating all literature data available, by including lower-level theoretical predictions, and where needed build on reactivity trends of analogous classes without necessarily being able to validate the transferability of these trends. The current SAR is then a starting framework upon which to build a more complete and accurate SAR as more data becomes available, while retaining immediate usability within the expected accuracy. A full review of the RO₂ literature is thus outside the scope of the current work, and only data used in deriving or validating our SAR is discussed. Work is ongoing to include more experimental data, to systematically re-evaluate the theoretical data at higher levels of theory, or to fill in missing data, and the current SAR helps to identify the most relevant reactions on which to dedicate limited computational and experimental resources. Where possible, experimental literature data will be used to validate and/or fine-tune the rate coefficient predictions. Unfortunately, not all experimental data is readily incorporated. For example: at high temperatures, the rate of reaction is
540 determined strongly by the entropic changes from the reactant chain internal rotors to the cyclic transition states, while at

lower temperatures the energy barrier height and tunneling of the H-atom are the most critical parameters. This transition leads to strongly non-linear Arrhenius behavior, making extrapolation of the high temperatures data to ambient conditions more difficult. Similarly, the experimental data often provides bulk rate coefficients, convoluting multiple elementary reactions that may act on different time scales. One should bear in mind that the rate coefficient for H-migration may not be sufficient to determine the impact of a reaction. Specifically, the reverse reaction must be slow enough to allow the (alkyl) reaction product to undergo a subsequent transition or chemical reaction rather than return to the parent RO₂ radical. Examples of such subsequent capture reactions are O₂ addition on the alkyl radical site (in the atmosphere typically at a rate of $k_{O_2} \sim 10^6 \text{ s}^{-1}$ (Atkinson, 2007)) or fast decomposition of the product. The reverse H-migration is likewise slowed down by physicochemical effects such as allyl or vinoxy resonance stabilization of the radical electron, hydrogen bonding of the –OOH product moiety, etc. Several authors have listed rate coefficients for reverse reactions (e.g. Jørgensen et al., 2016; Miyoshi, 2011; Otkjær et al., 2018); by and large, faster RO₂ H-migration reactions tend to have slower reverse reactions, such that in atmospheric conditions the reverse reactions are typically relevant only for those RO₂ reactions already too slow to compete. The experimental data on RO₂ H-migration reactions is not only scarce, they are often also indirect and obtained for molecules with complex (oxygenated) substitution, with rate coefficients inferred from product observations without experimental confirmation that the assumed underlying mechanisms are correct and complete. A recent paper by Novelli et al. (2020) for example briefly discusses how isoprene mechanisms have changed responding to new data. The recent experiments described in Nozière and Vereecken (2019) are the most direct measurements currently available of RO₂ H-migration reactions. In this work, we supplement these experiments with an analysis of the stable products in these studies, validating the expected reaction mechanisms.

2 Methodology

2.1 Quantum chemical calculations

The supporting information lists a large data set for RO₂ H-migration reactions, as obtained over the last decade by our research group. Many levels of theory were employed for geometry optimization, ranging from older B3LYP/6-31G(d,p) to modern M06-2X-D3/aug-cc-pVTZ methodologies, and combined with single point energy calculations ranging from CBS-QB3, to CCSD(T) calculations with extrapolations to the complete basis set limit. The supporting information lists the methodologies. Each methodology has its own advantages and drawbacks, and unfortunately its own specific uncertainties and systematic bias. To reduce the method-induced scatter in the data set, we preferentially limit ourselves to data obtained at three levels of theory. The first is the CCSD(T)/aug-cc-pVTZ//M06-2X/aug-cc-pVTZ level of theory (wavenumber scaling factor 0.971) (Bao et al., 2017; Dunning, 1989; Purvis and Bartlett, 1982; Zhao and Truhlar, 2008), a high-end methodology that has been used extensively by our group in recent publications (Fuchs et al., 2018; Novelli et al., 2020; Nozière and Vereecken, 2019), and was found by Nozière and Vereecken (2019) to reproduce the direct experimental data for RO₂ H-migration faithfully. A second set of calculations are based on CBS-QB3//B3LYP/6-31G(d,p) (5 d-orbitals, scaling factor 0.977) (Bao et al., 2017; Becke, 1992; Lee et al., 1988; Montgomery et al., 2000). These calculations carry a

somewhat larger error and scatter, but we find the obtained rate coefficients to mostly remain within a factor of 5 compared to more rigorous methodologies. A third set of data is based on CCSD(T)//M05-2X/6-311G(d,p) calculations (scaling factor 0.964) (Bao et al., 2017; Purvis and Bartlett, 1982; Zhao et al., 2006), of a reliability intermediate between the two earlier methods. Finally, relative rate estimates are based directly on B3LYP/6-31G(d,p) calculations; these relative rates estimates (see below) build solely on energy and entropic changes, not their absolute value, benefiting from cancellation of error.

The supporting information provides some more details on the calculation, including additional performance tests. It was found that CCSD(T) extrapolation to the complete basis set is not cost-effective at this time, considering the other contributions to the uncertainty of the SAR. IRCMax calculations show that the TS geometries obtained using B3LYP are subject to larger additional errors, sometimes exceeding 1 kcal mol⁻¹ on the absolute barrier height, compared to using more modern functionals such as M05-2X and M06-2X.

2.2 Absolute rate coefficient calculations

The rate coefficients of all reactions are calculated between 200_K and 450_K using multi-conformer transition state theory (MC-TST) as described by Vereecken et al. (Vereecken and Peeters, 2003), and applied extensively and successfully in earlier work. The method is based on canonical transition state theory (CTST) calculations (Truhlar et al., 1996) in a rigid rotor harmonic oscillator approximation but explicitly including all conformers of reactants and transition states to accommodate the effect of internal rotation, and the differences in energy and entropy of each of the conformers. The calculations are performed at the high-pressure limit; earlier work has found that the rates of RO₂ H-migration are sufficiently slow to be negligibly affected by pressure fall-off at 1 atm (Miyoshi, 2012; Peeters et al., 2014; Xing et al., 2018; Zhang and Dibble, 2011). Tunneling is incorporated using asymmetric Eckart tunneling (Eckart, 1930; Johnston and Heicklen, 1962); for most H-migrations, the reaction energy used in this tunneling correction is estimated from an explicit product characterization (usually 1 conformer only), ~~while for the remaining reactions, the product energy is assumed~~ instead estimated to be similar to based on the product energy of analogous reactions with similar product characteristics; as the energy of alkyl radicals is well understood, and as the tunneling correction is not overly sensitive to this parameter, this reduced the computational effort without significantly influencing the rate predictions.

2.3 Relative rate coefficient calculations

Relative rate coefficient estimates were performed using the relative multi-conformer transition state theory (rel-MC-TST) described in the supporting information. Briefly, this method derives a rate coefficient from an MC-TST prediction for a reference compound, and the change in rate induced by a modification of the molecular structure from the reference compound to the target compound, quantified by the characterization of a (small) subset of reactant and transition state conformers of the reference and target reaction. The method provides a cost-effective estimate of the rate coefficient, where the approximation becomes better as the molecular structure between reference and target reaction is more similar, and as more conformers are included in the relative rate change calculations. When including all conformers the method becomes the equivalent of a full MC-TST calculation. We have performed a set of calculations using heptane and octane as reference

compounds, looking at the impact of methyl-, hydroxy-, and oxo-substitution, as well as the impact of double bond. This new methodology will be benchmarked in a separate paper.

2.4 Theoretical literature data

A few extensive theory-based data sets have been published over the last decade which, combined with the data set presented in this work and our earlier publications, form the basis of our current work. Several of these studies were aimed at combustion temperatures, and don't include data below 300 K. As a result, these rate equation are unlikely to properly describe the tunneling-induced curvature in the Arrhenius plot below 300 K, possibly underestimating the rate coefficients at the lowest temperatures considered in this work, 200 K. We briefly list some methodological aspects of a selection of papers.

Sharma et al. (2010) studied a systematic series of H-migrations, using very high levels of methodology, explicitly accounting for quantum internal rotation but using less accurate Wigner tunneling corrections, at temperatures ranging from 300 to 1500 K. This work contains aliphatic RO₂ compounds, examining 1,3- to 1,7-H-shifts looking at abstraction of primary, secondary and tertiary H-atoms. A study by Miyoshi (2011) used similarly high levels of theory, with explicit consideration of internal rotation and applying more accurate Eckart tunneling corrections, at temperatures 500-1250 K and pressures from 0.1 to 100 atm. This work examines aliphatic and hydroperoxy-substituted RO₂, examining 1,4- to 1,8-H-migrations and categorizing the reactions based on substitution on the carbons bearing the -OO• radical and the migrating H-atom; this categorization is adopted in the current work. The Sharma et al. (2010) and Miyoshi (2011) data sets form a large part of the current SAR, and are considered to be generally reliable. Nozière and Vereecken (2019) recently derived a simple SAR based on these data sets, finding excellent agreement with experimental measurements. Data by Zang and Dibble (2011) covers a smaller set of migrations, mostly limited to 1,5-H-migrations, but includes a set of unsaturated hydrocarbons; the rate equations are derived for temperatures 300-2500 K. Otkjær et al. (2018) recently performed a systematic study of 1,4- through 1,10-H-migrations, examining a wide range of substitutions (alkyl, oxo, F-atom, hydroxy, hydroperoxide, nitrate, methoxy, and unsaturated functionalities) at high levels of theory, with a MC-TST-based kinetic analysis. These authors examined the 290-320 K temperature range, but due to the chosen $k(T)$ function the temperature dependence can not be reliably extrapolated beyond this range. Mohamed et al. (2018b, 2018a) performed a systematic study on hydroperoxide-substituted RO₂ radicals in the temperature range 300-1500 K. The internal rotors are represented by a Pitzer and Gwinn approximation based on averaged barriers to rotation in the lowest-energy conformer, as obtained by explicit (partial) optimization of the rotational energy profile. At this time, we choose not to incorporate the results by Yao et al. (2017); their predictions for the 500-1200 K range are not compatible with the experimental data, overestimating the room temperature rate coefficients by several orders of magnitude.

In addition to these larger data sets, we include data from a number of other publications, which are cited in the relevant sections.

640 2.5 Theory-based rate coefficients

The theoretical predictions for ~150 rate coefficient derived using MC-TST and rel-MC-TST rate theory are tabulated in the supporting information sects. 2 and 3. This data set collects rate coefficients obtained by our research group over the last decade, including some which have been presented before (Fuchs et al., 2018; Novelli et al., 2020; Vereecken, 2012; Vereecken and Peeters, 2010b). The rate coefficients published by other authors, representing a few hundred data points, are
645 not replicated here, but can be found in the respective publications.

2.6 Structure-Activity Relationship design

Merging the different data sets into a structure-activity relationship follows a set of steps for each rate coefficient in the data set. First, each reaction is categorized in one of the categories based on the migration span, and the substitution pattern around the migrating H-atom and the -OO* moiety. Next, the rate coefficient is calculated across the temperature range 200-
650 450_K, or the temperature range where the kinetic expression is expected to be valid (e.g. 290-330_K for the data from Otkjær et al. (2018)) to avoid introducing extrapolation errors. The $k(298_K)$ target rate coefficient at 298_K is then obtained by geometrically averaging (equal weight) selected rate coefficients at that temperature. For 3 reactions, the experimental rate coefficients near 298 K were also included in the averaging, while for 1 reaction the target $k(298_K)$ was set directly to the experimental value (see Table 9). Source rate coefficients are within a factor 2 to 3 of the obtained $k(298_K)$ average for
655 aliphatic RO₂, indicating good agreement of the data sets; for other functionalities there can be significantly more scatter. To determine the temperature profile of the SAR rate coefficient, the rate coefficients over the 200-450 K temperature range are geometrically averaged (equal weight). Any data that is deemed of insufficient quality is excluded in the previous steps; the selected data sets, however, contain few excluded data. The most common reason for rejection is suspicion of low-
660 temperature rate under-prediction due to limitations in the tunneling corrections and the extrapolation from higher temperatures. The subset of rate predictions in the $k(T)$ profile prediction can be smaller than for determining $k(298_K)$, as not all data sets are valid over the required temperature range, or have limitations in their tunneling corrections and extrapolation from higher temperatures. The obtained $k(T)$ temperature-dependent profile is then shifted to match the target $k(298_K)$ by altering the reaction barrier height, i.e. a correction term $\exp(\text{Corr}/T)$ is factored into the $k(T)$ profile. Finally, the shifted $k(T)$ rate coefficients are then fitted to a modified Arrhenius expression (Kooij expression) $k(T) = A \times (T/K)^n \times \exp(-E_a/T)$ and listed in the SAR tables below. Figure 1 shows an example of this procedure, showing the original literature
665 data, and the final $k(T)$ SAR rate coefficient. Figure 2 shows an example of one of the SAR classes where many data points are available, showing the scatter on the literature data, and the averaging effect of the SAR procedure. The supporting information contains a spreadsheet that has values and figures for all the underlying data and the derived SAR $k(T)$.

The resulting $k(T)$ expressions are expected to be less sensitive to the idiosyncrasies of the individual methodologies than
670 any specific theoretical methodologymethod —at least where multiple data sets are available— and to provide a good prediction of the class-specific behavior of RO₂ H-migration, especially when multiple molecules are included within the class, thus averaging out the molecular specifics. The use of geometric averaging, and temperature-dependent correction factors reflects that the largest contributions to the uncertainty of theoretical predictions are due to uncertainties on the barrier height and tunneling, both of which affect the rate coefficient non-linearly as a function of temperature. The transfer

675 | to the final SAR expression of temperature-dependencies sourced from the most reliable $k(T)$ predictions ensures the best possible temperature dependence, and avoids extrapolation problems from high-temperature data.

In some cases, there is insufficient data to derive a temperature dependence, even though room temperature data is available. In such cases, given that the temperature dependence is comparable in all RO₂ H-migration after correction by a shifting factor $\exp(\text{Corr}/T)$, we resort to using the temperature dependence of a similar reaction, the average T -dependence in the reaction class, or the average T -dependence of a comparable reaction class, to derive a rate expression. [The applicability of this correction factor between classes to transfer a \$T\$ -dependence between classes is illustrated in the supporting information.](#) Finally, in case no data at room temperature is available for a SAR class with a particular substitution, we base a tentative rate expression on the rate difference at 298_K between the corresponding classes for aliphatic RO₂. The uncertainty on these latter rate expressions is significantly larger than classes for which direct data is available, and is likely no better than 2 orders of magnitude when factoring in the uncertainties on the underlying data and on transferability of kinetic properties. We provide such rate coefficients mostly in an attempt to provide a rough estimate, rather than providing no guidance at all. The different levels of approximations on the rate coefficient expressions are marked in the respective tables below.

685 | The SAR parameters are presented as a set of lookup tables, showing both the $k(298_K)$ value as the parameters for the modified Arrhenius rate expression $k(T) = A \times (T/K)^n \times \exp(-E_a/T)$, combined with a few correction terms that only adjust the effective activation energy. An earlier H-migration SAR for alkoxy radicals (Vereecken and Peeters, 2010a) presented the results as distinct contributing factors for ring strain, rigidity, conformers, tunneling, etc.. Other authors employed expressions factoring in a rate equation and a tunneling correction ($\sim \exp(A/T^3)$). These approaches are thought to be cumbersome in practice due to incompatibilities with existing tool chains, and we feel the current approach is significantly more accessible both for direct lookup by humans, as for implementation in model generation software.

At this time, we choose not to focus the SAR on multi-functionalized compounds, i.e. we derive our SAR for aliphatic and mono-functionalized compounds, in as much as data is available for these. We also do not distinguish between stereoisomers of chiral carbons (R/S-geometries) even though we find that the rate coefficients can differ by up to two orders of magnitude for complex, multi-functionalized species with multiple chiral carbons. As discussed below in more detail, we only [consider/include](#) H-migrations in *cis*- and *gem*-substitutions in unsaturated species [with a double bond; a more in-depth discussion is given for other classes](#).

While not included in the derivation of the SAR, the data on multi-functionalized molecules is used to determine the performance of the SAR when extrapolated to such more complex molecules. The scope of applicability for spectator functionalities, H-migration affected by multiple functionalities, and cyclic compounds, is examined in a later section.

705 | 2.7 Experimental methodology

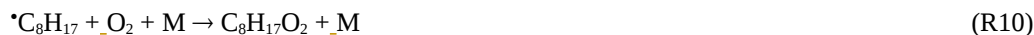
For the experimental studies of the H-migration reaction of aliphatic RO₂, the methodology has been described in detail in earlier work (Nozière and Vereecken, 2019); we only provide a brief description here.

2.7.1 Radical generation

H-migration reactions for a series of aliphatic RO₂ (1-butylperoxyO₂, 1-pentylperoxyO₂, 1-hexylperoxyO₂, ethyl-hexylperoxyO₂ and dimethyl-hexylperoxyO₂) were studied experimentally at room temperature ($T = 298 \pm 5$ K) in a cylindrical flow reactor (Quartz, inner diameter 5 cm, length 120 cm). The RO₂ were produced in a flow of synthetic air (3 – 4 sLm, standard temperature = 273 K and pressure = 1 atm), to which was added an organic precursor 3×10^{15} to 5×10^{16} molecule cm⁻³. For 1-butylperoxyO₂, 1-pentylperoxyO₂, 1-hexylperoxyO₂, and ethyl-hexylperoxyO₂, the precursor was the iodinated analog: iodobutane, iodopentane, iodoheptane, and 2-ethylhexyl iodide, respectively. For dimethyl-hexylperoxyO₂ it was 2,5-dimethylhexane. The radicals were produced by irradiating the flow mixture over 30 – 40 cm at mid-length of the reactor with 4 fluorescent lights (Philips TL12, 40 W, emitting over 280-400 nm). The iodinated precursors were photolyzed directly, thus ensuring the formation of a single radical in each case. For instance, for 1-butylperoxyO₂:



For dimethyl-hexylperoxyO₂, Cl₂ ($\sim 10^{15}$ molecule cm⁻³) was also added to the reactor and photolyzed in the presence of dimethyl hexane:



2.7.2 Radical and stable product detection

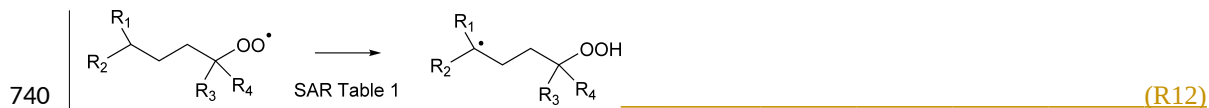
A small fraction (50 – 100 sccm) of the reaction mixture was sampled through a sampling line at the output of the flow reactor and analyzed with a quadrupole Chemical Ionization Mass Spectrometer (CIMS) using proton transfer at high pressure as ionizing technique (Hanson et al., 2004, 2003; Nozière and Hanson, 2017; Nozière and Vereecken, 2019). With this technique, the RO₂ and their stable products were detected by reacting with proton-water clusters, H⁺(H₂O)_n with n = 1 to 5, in the ionization region of the CIMS:



Thus, a compound of molecular weight M was typically detected at the ion masses $M+1$, $M+19$, $M+37$ and $M+55$. Typical resolution for the instrument was $M/\Delta M \sim 250$ and the detection limit between 10^8 and 10^9 molecule cm⁻³. The radicals were unambiguously distinguished from potential stable isomers in the mass spectra by adding NO periodically in the reactor, resulting in their consumption. The periodic variation of other masses upon addition of NO also confirmed the identification of the stable compounds of the photochemical system, and allowed to distinguish them from potential artefacts or pollution in the flow system.

3 Structure activity relationship

3.1 Aliphatic RO₂



745 Linear and branched aliphatic peroxy radicals are described by the SAR rate coefficients in Table 1, and is derived based on our calculations (see supporting information) and selected literature data (Miyoshi, 2011; Otkjær et al., 2018; Praske et al., 2019; Sharma et al., 2010; Zhang and Dibble, 2011). No rate coefficients are included for 1,3-H-migration, as these have been found to have high barriers and very low rate coefficients, $k(298\text{ K}) \leq 10^{-16} \text{ s}^{-1}$, making them irrelevant for atmospheric chemistry (Sharma et al., 2010). 1,4-H-migrations have likewise high barriers and low rate coefficients, $k(298\text{ K}) \leq 10^{-7} \text{ s}^{-1}$, for aliphatic compounds and are negligible in atmospheric conditions. Furthermore, the reaction barriers for 1,4-H-migration tend to be higher than for the (also slow) HO₂ elimination forming an alkene, making H-migration a minor channel even if accessible. The 1,4-H-migration is included here mostly to serve as a basis for substituted 1,4-H-migration, such as aldehydic H-migration where significantly lower barriers are found. Rate coefficients for 1,8-H-migration are

750 similarly low, $k(298\text{ K}) \leq 10^{-6} \text{ s}^{-1}$, due to the entropic disadvantage of losing a large number of internal rotors in the cyclic transition state; again, we include them here mostly for possible use as a reference rate coefficient. H-migration at even larger spans, e.g. 1,9- or 1,10-H-shifts, have been studied by Otkjær et al. (2018), finding even lower rate coefficients and negligible contribution of these long-range migrations. Aliphatic RO₂ H-migration is then mostly governed by 1,5-H-, 1,6-H-, and 1,7-H-migrations. The predicted rate coefficients in Table 1 show that substitution around the migrating H-atom is of critical importance, with tertiary H-atoms migrating several orders of magnitude faster than primary H-atoms. Substitution around the –OO• moiety has less impact on the rate, and the impact varies with the substitution. We find no significant influence of the length of the alkyl chain attached, in agreement with e.g. Otkjaer et al. (2018).

3.2 Unsaturated RO₂

760 To parameterize the impact of double bonds in the peroxy radicals, one should in principle account not only for the substitution around the peroxy and migrating H-atom, but also whether the double bond has zero, one or both carbon atoms within the TS cycle, whether the product radical is stabilized by allyl resonance, and if so, what the substitution is on the second radical site, and possibly on the center carbon of the C•–C=C allylic group. Abstraction of vinyl H-atoms, =CH–, is known to be negligibly slow at room temperature, of the order of $k(298\text{ K}) \sim 10^{-10} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (Zhang and Dibble, 2011), and is not considered in this work. There is little direct information on substitution on the central carbon of the allylic radical group,

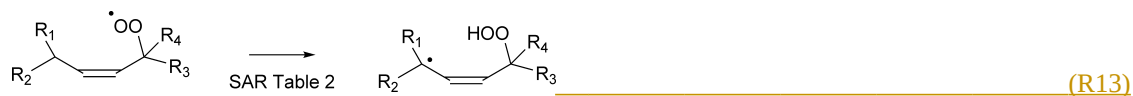
765 but the scarce data suggests the impact on $k(298\text{ K})$ to be of the order of a factor of ~2 for H-atom versus alkyl substitution. This comparatively small factor is not separable from the uncertainty in our data set, and our SAR reaction classes don't distinguish between these substitutions. Although it is technically feasible to migrate between trans-substituents, we find significant barriers for such processes even when forming allyl-stabilized alkyl radicals, e.g. 46 kcal mol⁻¹ for 1,6-H-migration in *E*-2-butene-1-peroxy radicals, or 31 kcal mol⁻¹ for 1,7-H-migration in *E*-3-pentene-1-peroxy radicals. To

reduce the strain in the transition states very large migrations spans would then be required, leading again to low rate coefficients due to entropic disadvantage. Hence, in this work we focus only on substituents located on the same side of the double bond, i.e. gemini-substitution on the same carbon in the double bond, or cis-substituents on the same side of the double bond carbon atoms.

As already shown extensively, migration of an allylic H-atom is found to be significantly faster than migration of an aliphatic carbon (Otkjær et al., 2018; Zhang and Dibble, 2011). The scatter between the available data sets is significantly larger than for aliphatic RO₂, with differences of over an order of magnitude between methodologies and/or authors. The cases with the largest deviation from the average can often be traced to the absence of important (lower-energy) conformers in the multi-conformer analysis. In some compounds, we find large differences between the rate coefficients for endo- or exocyclic double bonds in the TS ring, up to two orders of magnitude on $k(298_K)$, though for other H-migrations the difference is negligible, making it hard to judge whether this is due to methodological scatter, or to the impact of ring strain and internal rotations on the entropy. At this time, we choose to distinguish between endo- and exo-cyclic double bonds until more data is available.

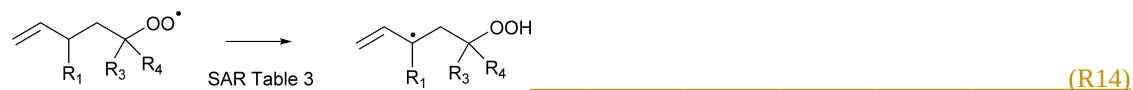
We have only a single data point, a 1,7-H-migration in Z-2-heptene-1-peroxy, where a double bond is present in the TS ring, but where the migrating hydrogen is not an allylic H-atom; the rate coefficient is indistinguishable from its aliphatic equivalent. As such, we only consider SAR classes for migration of allylic H-atoms, until more information is available on the entropic effect of a non-allylic double bond in the TS ring.

3.2.1 Allylic H-atom migration with a TS *endo*-cyclic double bond



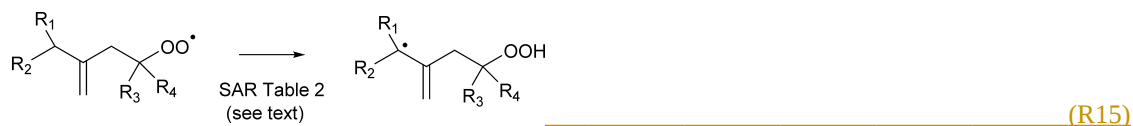
The SAR expressions (see Table 2) for *endo*-cyclic double bonds in the TS ring are derived based on our calculations (see supporting information) and the data by Zhang and Dibble (2011).

3.2.2 Allylic H-atom migration with a TS *exo*-cyclic double bond



The SAR expressions (see Table 3) for *endoexo*-cyclic double bonds in the TS ring are derived based on our calculations (see supporting information) and selected literature data (Otkjær et al., 2018; Zhang and Dibble, 2011).

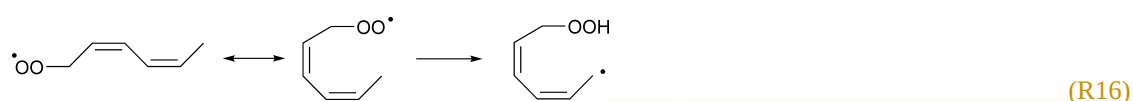
3.2.3 Allylic H-migration with an *endo*-cyclic *gem*-substituted double bond



The delocalizing double bond of the allylic H-atom can have only a single carbon in the TS cycle, which occurs when the •OO-bearing and the migrating-H-bearing substituent are in *gemini*-substitution (same carbon atom) of the double bond.

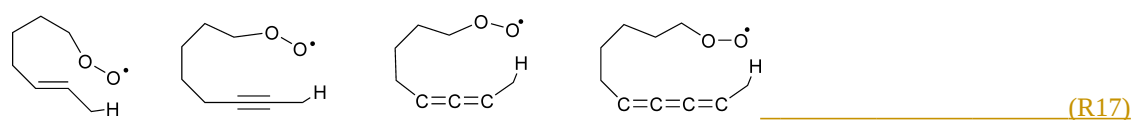
This configuration is somewhat different than endo-cyclic double bonds with both carbons in the TS ring, due to differences in the number of internal rotors, rigidity, etc. *A priori*, one would expect these H-migrations to be entropically disadvantaged ~~compared~~ compared to *endo*-cyclic double bonds, due to the loss of a higher number of internal rotors in the *gem*-TS ring, and therefore slower than *exo*-cyclic double bonds. We have very few data points for such structures, mostly for methyl-H-migrations in isoprene-derived peroxy radicals after reaction with OH or NO₃, but the scarce data points do not indicate a significant difference between *gem*- and *endo*-double bonds, with rate coefficient differences of an order of magnitude at most. Until more systematic data is available, we recommend using the same rate coefficients for *gem*-substitution as for *endo*-cyclic double bonds.

3.2.4. RO₂ with conjugated double bonds



At this time, we have no systematic data available for RO₂ with conjugated double bonds. Conjugated systems are virtually always more stable in their *s-trans* conformer, with the orientation across the central single bond such that the double bonds are parallel (left-hand side of the diagram above). The H-migration TS across such moieties, however, will force the central single bond to a less favorable *s-cis* of *s-gauche* orientation (central structure in the diagram above), incurring an increase in the barrier height and a decrease of the phenomenological rate coefficient. In the TS, the radical electron is involved in the H-migration and is not yet free to be delocalized over the π -system, and as such does not aid much to reduce the barrier height increase. However, the presence of the rigid double bonds reduces the number of degrees of freedom for internal rotation that are lost in the H-shift TS, providing an entropic advantage compared to H-migration in aliphatic RO₂ radicals. It is unclear at this time whether this entropic advantage is able to overcome the energetic disadvantage for H-migration across conjugated bonds, and we refrain from making recommendations for the rate coefficients until more data is available.

3.2.54 RO₂ with trans-alkene, alkyne, allene, or cumulene, substitution



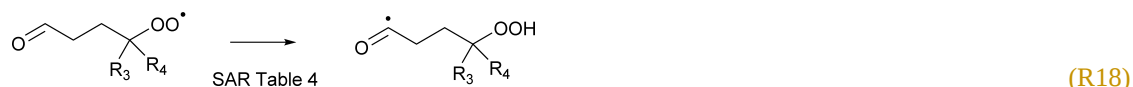
Conjugated Allene, --C=C=C-- , cumulene, --C=C=C=C-- , or triple bonded, $\text{--C}\equiv\text{C--}$, unsaturated groups are characterized by a rigid structure with at least 3 to 4 atoms linearly aligned. Similarly, trans-alkenes have 4 co-planar backbone atoms with diametrically positioned outer atoms. The smallest ring structures known with such unsaturated groups and still with a low enough ring strain to be isolable are *trans*-cyclooctane, cyclooctyne, 1,2-cyclooctadiene, and 1,2,3-cyclodecatriene, though smaller (hetero)rings are known (Barrows and Eberlein, 2005; Greenberg and Liebman, 1978; Johnson, 1989). H-migrations across such subgroups, i.e. with the unsaturation within the TS cycle, are geometrically ~~very difficult~~ demanding, and only long-range migrations, 1,8-H-migration or further, might be feasible. Indeed, with three co-planar carbons in the TS ring, at least 2 carbons are required to point the backbone back to the start without high ring strain (as in cyclohexane), followed by another 2 to 3 carbons reaching across the unsaturated moiety to potentially reach any H-atoms on the other side. For *trans*-

alkenes, 8-membered rings are not viable as an energetically accessible H-migration TS due to the high ring strain, exceeding 10 kcal mol⁻¹ over its *cis*-counterpart, and only at about 11 backbone atoms does the energy of a *trans*-cycloalkene become more favorable than its *cis*-cycloalkenes (Barrows and Eberlein, 2005). Similar energetic considerations pertain to the other unsaturated rings. In the H-migration TS, the ring strain in the smaller rings will be further increased as the strained geometry requires that the O–H–C moiety must be strongly bent, whereas the energetically most favorable orientation is a (near-)linear O–H–C moiety. For all unsaturated moieties considered here, we thus estimate that at least 9, but likely 10 or more backbone atoms (including the peroxy O-atoms) are needed before the ring strain is reduced sufficiently for the TS to approach accessible energy barriers. Hence, only long-range migrations are accessible. Although the unsaturated bonds makes these reactions entropically slightly more favorable, as 1 less degree of freedom for internal rotation is lost in the TS compared to aliphatic backbones, H-migrations across these spans have typically low rate coefficients. We surmise that H-migration reactions across these moieties are never competitive in atmospheric conditions, though validating calculations remain useful. Rate coefficients for these spans tend to be rather low, and at this moment we assume H-migrations across conjugated or triple bonds to be negligible.

There is not enough information to reliably derive rate coefficients for these unsaturations when outside the TS cycle and leading to resonance-stabilized alkyl radicals; at this time, we propose to apply the SAR for allylic H-atom migration with exocyclic double bonds, through the uncertainty on the predicted rate coefficients is expected to be large.

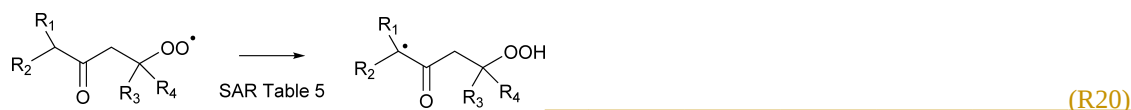
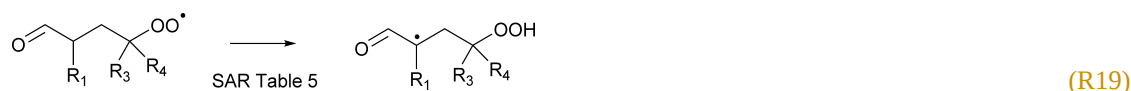
3.3 Oxo-substituted RO₂

3.3.1 Migration of aldehydic H-atoms



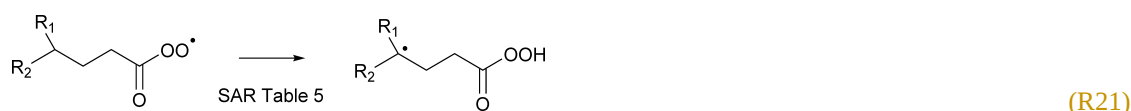
The abstraction of aldehydic H-atoms is comparatively fast, $k(298\text{ K}) \geq 0.5\text{ s}^{-1}$, even for the short span of 1,4-H-migrations. Our calculations are the only data points in our data sets for mono-substituted aldehydic RO₂ radicals, and we resort to using information on hydroxy-substituted aldehydic RO₂ for some of the aldehydic SAR classes. This includes acrolein and methacrolein, as found in our data set, the theoretical data by Møller et al. (2016) and da Silva (2011), and the MACR experimental rate determination by Crounse et al. (2012). As discussed in the section for OH-substituted RO₂, the β-OH substitution of the peroxy radical moiety could affect the rate coefficient, and we should allow for an overestimation of a factor of 10 in our SAR predictions for 1,4-H-migration. The OH-substitution is likely also the cause for the low rate of 1,5-aldehyde H-migration in 3-hydroxypropanal-3-peroxy described Møller et al. (2016). Additional calculations on aldehydic compounds would be valuable. The SAR parameters are listed in Table 4.

3.3.2 Migration of β -oxo H-atoms



The data set of Otkjær et al. (2018) combined with our data set allows an approximate evaluation of the impact of β -oxo substitution of the migrating H-atom, forming vinoxyl-stabilized product radicals. The effect of this substitution has both an energetic component, due to the stabilization of the product radical, as well as an entropic component, where the carbonyl bond changes ring strain and rigidity. One should thus consider ring size as well as endo- or exo-cyclic position of the $>C=O$ moiety in the TS. Generally, we find that β -oxo substitution enhances the H-migration rates compared to analogous aliphatic RO_2 . Exocyclic carbonyl bonds strongly enhance H-migration rates with strained rings, have a more limited effect with rings with less strain and geometric constraints, and are expected to have no significant effect with very large rings. This is in agreement with e.g. VOC H-abstraction rates by OH radicals, where a carbonyl group has little to no impact on the rate coefficient (e.g. ethane+OH versus acetone+OH). For endocyclic carbonyls, we find the opposite effect, where the presence of a rigid carbonyl group in an already strained ring decreases the rate coefficient, but where for large rings it has no strong effect. We summarized the scarce data as a set of correction factors (see Table 5) on the rate coefficient of the corresponding aliphatic RO_2 , as a function of the position of the carbonyl group and the migration span. We have no information available for 1,8-H-migrations.

3.3.3 Migration in other oxo-substituted RO_2 radicals

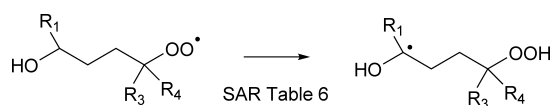


We have almost no data for peroxy radicals where the carbonyl is not in β -position to the migrating H-atom. For aliphatic H-migration in acylperoxy radicals, Møller et al. (2019) calculated rate coefficients in multi-substituted RO_2 , finding faster reactions compared to aliphatic peroxy radicals. We tentatively summarize the differences as a factor $\exp(900\text{ K}/T)$, listed in Table 5. Knap and Jørgensen (2017) calculated an α -OOH 1,6-H-migration in an acylperoxy radical, finding a rate coefficient of 98 s^{-1} , a factor 4×10^3 faster than the α -OOH 1,6-H-migrations in aliphatic peroxy radicals; they also characterized aldehyde-H-migrations by acylperoxy radicals that are significantly faster than in regular RO_2 . Knap and Jørgensen (2017) also describe H-scrambling in acyl peroxy radicals, finding rate coefficients ranging from 10^3 to 10^6 s^{-1} in agreement or faster than the H-scrambling data described elsewhere in this work. At the same time, these authors find much slower reactions for the reverse H-scrambling from peracid groups ($-C(=O)OOH$). The above data indicates strongly that acylperoxy radicals are significantly more reactive towards H-migration owing to the higher stability of the product peracid group, and should be investigated in more detail.

We have no systematic information for endocyclic oxo substituents that are in β -position to neither the migrating H-atom nor the peroxy radical group. Our data set includes a single data point for an endo- β -oxo-substituted $-\text{OO}^\bullet$ group; our relative MC-TST calculation on this latter 1,6-H-migration indicates an impact of less than a factor of 5, but this value is not reliable enough to use as a basis for a SAR proposal. da Silva (2010a) calculated a rate coefficient $k(T) = 5.86 \times 10^3 T^{2.662} \exp(-6358 \text{ K}/T) \text{ s}^{-1}$ for the 1,4-H-shift in $^\bullet\text{OOC}(=\text{O})\text{CH}=\text{O}$, i.e. $k(298 \text{ K}) = 12 \text{ s}^{-1}$, faster than the 1,4 aldehyde-H-migrations rate coefficients in the SAR. Due to the paucity of data, we currently make no recommendations for any of these types of RO_2 H-migrations with endo-cyclic oxo substitutions.

3.4 Hydroxy-substituted RO_2

3.4.1 Migration of α -OH H-atoms

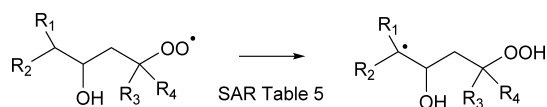


(R22)

α -OH substitution is known to reduce the C–H bond strength compared to an alkyl substitution, allowing for faster H-abstraction (IUPAC Subcommittee on Atmospheric Chemical Kinetic Data Evaluation, 2017) or H-migration (Vereecken and Peeters, 2010a). In RO_2 radicals, we observe the same effect, with an increase in rate coefficient of about a factor 10 at room temperature. The SAR predictions for migration of α -OH-H-atoms are listed in Table 6, as derived from our calculations (see supporting information) and selected literature data (Jørgensen et al., 2016; Otkjær et al., 2018; Praske et al., 2018, 2019). There is direct experimental data available at higher temperatures, $\sim 450\text{--}525 \text{ K}$ (Jorand et al., 2003; Perrin et al., 1998). Our theoretical calculations reproduce these experimental results well, within a factor ~ 5 , and the SAR rate equations reproduce these values within a factor 3.5, well within our SAR accuracy goal.

There is very little information for gemini-di-hydroxy substitution; we are only aware of our own calculations on the 1,3- and 1,4-H-migration in hydroxy-methylperoxy versus dihydroxy-methylperoxy (see supporting information). These data do not provide a good reference for developing a generally applicable SAR correction, as the product radical decomposes, forming OH (1,3-H-shift) or HO_2 (1,4-H-shift), respectively. The scarce data does suggest that adding a second $-\text{OH}$ substitution increases the H-migration rate significantly.

3.4.2 Migration of β -OH H-atoms



(R23)

The scarce data available on non-multi-functionalized RO_2 with β -OH substitution next to the migrating H-atom (this work, Praske et al., 2018, 2019; da Silva and Bozzelli, 2009) suggests that β -OH substitution next to the migrating H-atom slows down H-migration, on average by a factor 0.17 at room temperature, both when the OH group is in endo- or exo-position on the TS ring. This corresponds to an increase in barrier height of about 1 kcal mol^{-1} . The reason appears to be that the H-bonding is absent or less favorable in the TS cycle due to geometric constraints, as opposed to the reactant where the peroxy

radical group can interact freely with the –OH group. We propose that the rate coefficients for H-migration of aliphatic H-atoms with a β-OH substituent are corrected by a factor $\exp(-528_K/T)$ to account for this effect (see Table 5).

The information of β-OH substitution of the –OO• group is even more scarce (Jørgensen et al., 2016) and not entirely consistent across the reactions studied. Although the data suggests that the rate coefficient might increase by as much as a factor 10, we do not propose a correction factor until more data becomes available.

3.4.3 Migration of hydroxyl-H-atoms



H-migration of a non-enolic hydroxy-H-atom has been considered in many studies (e.g. this work, Asatryan et al., 2010; Fuchs et al., 2018; Jørgensen et al., 2016; Kuwata et al., 2007; Møller et al., 2019; Peeters et al., 2009; Piletic et al., 2019).

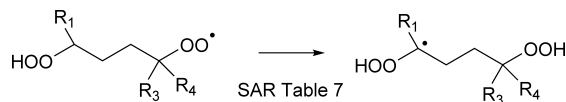
The rate coefficients tend to be fairly low, $k(298_K) \sim 1 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$, and the reaction plays only a very small role in the atmosphere even in pristine conditions. Furthermore, the reverse reaction, i.e. the abstraction of a hydroperoxide OOH atom by an alkoxy radical, is rather fast, typically $\geq 10^{10} \text{ s}^{-1}$, such that even if the reaction occurs, the regeneration of the original peroxy radical is often the main fate. Some exceptions to this reaction reversal have been reported though, such as the Waddington mechanism where the H-shift is followed by fast decomposition of the resulting alkoxy radical (Lizardo-Huerta et al., 2016; Ray et al., 1973a, 1973b). For example, Peeters et al. (Peeters et al., 2009) showed that 1,5-H-migration in hydroxy-isoprene-peroxy radicals could not be reversed due to immediate dissociation of the β-unsaturated-β-OOH-alkoxy radical products. Given the generally low importance of hydroxy-H-migrations, we do not derive a SAR for this reaction class at this time.

The abstraction of an enolic hydrogen atom, $\text{C}=\text{C}-\text{OH}$, forms a vinoxy-stabilized product radical, $\text{C}^\bullet-\text{C}=\text{O}$, which is more stable than the alkoxy products discussed above, thus preventing rapid reversal of the H-migration. The rate coefficient is significantly faster than the reactions above, $k(298_K) \geq 10^4 \text{ s}^{-1}$ for a 1,6-enol H-migration (Peeters and Nguyen, 2012). A recent review by Jenkin et al. (2019) recommends $k(T) = 0.24 \times T^{4.1} \times \exp(-2700_K/T)$.

Finally, we should note that α-OH peroxy radicals can undergo an HO₂ elimination, forming a carbonyl compound with an HO₂ co-product. Jenkin et al. (2019) tabulates these eliminations as a 1,4-H-migration, but mechanistically these reactions occur by a concerted elimination characterized by a weakened, long C–OO bond in the transition state. These reactions have been studied in detail both theoretically and experimentally (Hermans et al., 2004, 2005b, 2005a; Linguerrri et al., 2017; Tomas et al., 2001; Veyret et al., 1989). The recent review by Jenkin et al. (2019) has recommendations for tertiary and quaternary carbons based on these studies; for secondary carbons, i.e. HO₂ elimination from HOCH₂OO•, we calculated a rate coefficient of $1.8 \times 10^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$, in agreement with these recommendations (see supporting information).

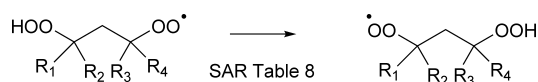
3.5 Hydroperoxide-substituted RO₂

3.5.1 Migration of α -OOH H-atoms



For many of the α -OOH H-migrations, there are significant differences between the different literature sources (this work; Miyoshi, 2011; Mohamed et al., 2018b, 2018a; Otkjær et al., 2018; Praske et al., 2019; Sharma et al., 2010), of up to several orders of magnitude for some of the reactions considered, though for some of the reactions near-identical values are found by all authors. This scatter reduces the reliability of the SAR predictions significantly, and in many cases the $k(298\text{ K})$ geometric average of the literature rate coefficients will have an uncertainty exceeding an order of magnitude. Furthermore, most of the data sets are derived at high temperatures, $\geq 300\text{ K}$, and do not reproduce the curvature in the Arrhenius plot that is evident in our predictions down to 200 K. To improve the prediction of the rate coefficients below room temperature, we apply the temperature-dependence of our work (α -OOH 1,6-H-migrations) to all 1,5 through 1,7-H-migrations. This does not affect the SAR rate coefficient above 300 K appreciably, and thus remains in agreement with the literature values at higher temperatures. 1,4-H-migrations have high barriers and their Arrhenius plots are more linear due to different tunneling properties; we do not apply the $k(T)$ curvature as above but solely rely on the geometric average of the reported $k(T)$ values. The product α -OOH alkyl radical formed after migration of the α -OOH hydrogen atom is unstable, and falls apart spontaneously to a carbonyl compound with an OH radical co-product; the addition of O₂ on this radical is not competitive (Vereecken et al., 2004).

3.5.2 Migration of hydroperoxide H-atoms (scrambling)



The available theoretical data on migration of hydroperoxide-H-atoms can be divided into two groups. On one hand are the studies by Miyoshi (2011) and Mohamed et al. (2018b), who find comparatively slow H-atom exchange between hydroperoxide group and the $-OO\cdot$ radical, with rate coefficients of the order of 1 s^{-1} to 10^{-5} s^{-1} , depending on the migration span (1,6- to 1,8-H-migration) and substitution around the oxygenated moieties. These calculations are based on single-conformer CBS-QB3 calculations with explicit treatment of internal rotation. Our own calculations (Novelli et al., 2020; Nozière and Vereecken, 2019), however, find rate coefficients $\geq 10^2\text{ s}^{-1}$, as do theoretical calculations by Jørgensen et al. (2016), Møller et al. (2019), and Praske et al. (2019), who find $k(298\text{ K})$ of 10^2 to 10^6 s^{-1} , for a large set of H-exchange reactions. These latter group of calculations are all based on multi-conformer TST calculations based on higher-level CCSD(T)//M06-2X or CCSD(T)-F12// ω B97X-D calculations. Experimental data by Praske et al. (2019), constrained by observed products as a function of the competing reaction with NO, finds rate coefficients $k(296\text{ K}) \sim 10^2\text{ s}^{-1}$ for a 1,6-H-migration, and even $k(296\text{ K}) > 10^4\text{ s}^{-1}$ for a 1,7-H-migration, corroborating the higher values in the second group of theoretical data. The reason for this dichotomy in theoretical data is not evident, and requires further analysis.

980 due to the use of B3LYP geometries in the Miyoshi (2011) and Mohamed et al. (2018b) studies: this methodology is known to underestimate H-migration energy barriers, typically by a few kcal mol⁻¹, which can mostly be rectified by the subsequent CBS-QB3 energy calculations. For scrambling reaction specifically, however, our test calculations show that B3LYP underestimates the barrier height by as much as 5 kcal mol⁻¹, a very large error that probably leads to incorrectly optimized geometries affecting subsequent single point energy calculations. This, and the fact that these studies do not explicitly consider all conformers, suggests that their low rate coefficients are the result of not using the lowest-energy geometries for the transition states.

985 Experimental data by Praske et al. (2019), constrained by observed products as a function of the competing reaction with NO, finds rate coefficients $k(296\text{ K}) \sim 10^2\text{ s}^{-1}$ for a 1,6-H-migration, and even $k(296\text{ K}) > 10^4\text{ s}^{-1}$ for a 1,7-H-migration, corroborating the higher values in the second group of theoretical data. Unfortunately, the study by Miyoshi (2011) is the only extensive, systematic study of the scrambling reactions available (1,6- through 1,9-H-migration, for all 9 substitution patterns around the active sites). Nozière and Vereecken (2019) pragmatically scaled up the rate coefficients by Miyoshi by a factor 10⁴, the average difference between the Miyoshi predictions and the observations of Praske et al. (2019). In this work, we apply a similar procedure, where we use the systematic study of Miyoshi (2011) as a basis, but scale the rate coefficients at 298 K for 1,6-H-migration upwards by a factor 4.8×10^2 , as obtained by taking the ratio of the experimental value of Praske et al. (2019) of 10^2 s^{-1} , and the theoretical $2.1 \times 10^{-1}\text{ s}^{-1}$ (under)estimate by Miyoshi. Likewise, 1,7-H-migrations $k(298\text{ K})$ are scaled up by a factor 5.6×10^3 , based on the experimental lower limit of 10^4 s^{-1} of Praske et al. and the corresponding value of Miyoshi. Theoretically predicted rate coefficients are typically another factor $\sim 10^2$ higher, suggesting that we will underestimate H-scrambling rates. Finally, 1,8- and 1,9-H-migrations are scaled up by a factor 1.6×10^5 , by comparing the predictions from Miyoshi against the Nozière and Vereecken (2019) predictions for 1,8-H-migrations. Additionally, we apply the temperature dependence derived from these latter calculations to incorporate the impact of entropy and tunneling on the rate coefficient curvature in the low-temperature range. Where available, data by Mohamed et al. (2018b), Praske et al. (2019), and Nozière and Vereecken (2019) are included when calculating the rate coefficient.

1000 For 1,5-H-migration no data is available; this reaction class implies gemini-OOH/OO* groups for which there are no obvious atmospheric formation pathway, so we ignore this class of scrambling reactions at this time.

The above scaling procedure is, overall, rather unsatisfactory, and it is clear that more theoretical and experimental data is needed to reduce the uncertainties and avoid the poorly founded corrections. One redeeming factor, however, is that the experimental data and much of the theoretical calculations suggest that H-scrambling reactions across -OOH and -OO* groups are significantly faster than most, if not all, other RO₂ H-migration reactions. Hence, for many practical purposes, the hydroperoxide hydrogens can be considered mobile at the timescale of other product-forming H-migration reactions, and the reactants can be merged into a single reactant pool reacting at bulk reaction rates. This is discussed in more detail in Sect. 5.

1010 3.6 Carboxylic acid-substituted RO₂



(R27)

The migration of acidic H-atoms was shown by da Silva (2010b) to be a potential route to OH regeneration in the atmosphere. The migration of the acid H-atom is aided by the formation of a resonance-stabilized acyloxy radical, $\text{C}(=\text{O})\text{O}^\bullet$, which readily eliminates CO_2 , thus preventing reversal of the H-migration. In the case of a β -peroxy radical, e.g. $^\bullet\text{OOCH}_2\text{C}(=\text{O})\text{OH}$, the resulting α -OOH alkyl radical product is even intrinsically unstable, spontaneously falling apart to CO_2 , an OH radical, and a carbonyl compound (da Silva, 2010b; Vereecken et al., 2004). Our own calculations on ethanoic acid-2-peroxy and 3-hydroxy-2-methyl-propanoic acid-2-peroxy radicals (derived from methacrylic acid by addition of OH and O_2) are in good agreement with the data by da Silva (2010b) on ethanoic acid-2-peroxy, propanoic acid-2-peroxy, and 3-hydroxy-propanoic acid-2-peroxy radicals (derived from acrylic acid by addition of OH and O_2), with rate coefficients ranging from $3 \times 10^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ to 6 s^{-1} . As only information is available on β -carboxylperoxy radicals, we can not derive generally applicable SAR expressions at this time; studies on the atmospheric oxidation of (unsaturated) carboxylic acids could benefit from more information on this pathway.

3.7 α -nitrate-substituted RO₂

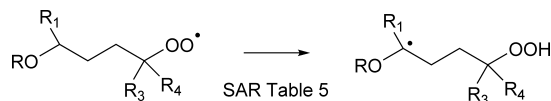


(R28)

The data set of Otkjær et al. (2018) contains a number of α -ONO₂-substituted H-migrations, while our data set (see supporting information) has some information for unsaturated nitrated RO₂ derived from isoprene + NO₃ + O₂ reactions. Compared to an alkyl group, a nitrate group reduces the rate coefficient somewhat, in agreement with e.g. the known inhibiting effect for H-abstraction by OH radicals from nitrate-substituted VOCs. The inhibition is similar for H-migrations across all spans in both aliphatic and unsaturated RO₂, ranging from 0.001 to 0.9 at room temperature, with an average across the data sets of a factor ~ 0.04 . We include this effect in the SAR by a temperature-dependent correction factor $k_{\text{NO}_3}(T) = k_{\text{aliphatic}}(T) \times \exp(-950 \text{ K}/T)$ (see Table 5)

The product α -ONO₂ alkyl radical formed after migration of the α -nitrate hydrogen atom is unstable, and falls apart spontaneously to a carbonyl compound with an NO₂ radical co-product; the addition of O₂ on this radical is not competitive (Vereecken, 2008).

1035 3.8 Other substitutions



(R29)

Otkjær et al. (2018) has some information on F-atom substitution for a range of H-migrations; at this time we do not include halogen atom substitution in our SAR. We have not found systematic data on other relevant substitutions such as the

nitrogen oxides $-\text{NO}$, $-\text{NO}_2$, $-\text{ONO}$, $-\text{OONO}$, $-\text{OONO}_2$, nor for peroxides $-\text{OOR}$. Otkjær et al. (2018) lists a set of rate coefficients for ether substitution on the migrating H-atom, $\alpha\text{-OR}$, finding rate coefficients within a factor of 3 up or down of the corresponding $\alpha\text{-OH}$ -substituted H-migration. At this time, we recommend using the $k_{\alpha\text{OH}}(T)$ values for these $\alpha\text{-OR}$ -substituted H-atoms (see Table 5).

4 SAR validation and scope of applicability

Aside from a comparison against the scarce experimental data, it is not overly useful to examine the agreement between the SAR predictions and the data used to derive the SAR, as the SAR parameters are typically derived using only a few data points, ensuring good apparent agreement between SAR and training data. Occasionally, the underlying data has been intentionally strongly corrected (e.g. H-scrambling), such that the predictions will not match the data. Hence, the SAR parameters are subject more to the (sometimes large) uncertainties on the training set data points than the fitting procedure, making a visual comparison or statistical goodness-of-fit analysis unrewarding. It is more useful to validate the SAR to its robustness, examining the reproduction of data points that were not part of the training data; we refer to Vereecken et al. (2018) for a more in-depth discussion of SAR validation needs in atmospheric chemistry. In this work, we specifically aim to test the scope of applicability of the SAR, applying it to a test set of over 100 data points that were not in the training set, and that furthermore are multi-functionalized and thus represent data points that are outside the coverage of the training set. We distinguish between three groups of data. The first are rate coefficients for reactions that formally work on multi-functionalized RO_2 , but where only one functionality is expected to influence the reactivity strongly; the impact of all other functionalities, or of substituents that are not included in the SAR, are neglected ("spectator" groups). A second group of data are those where multiple functionalities affect the reaction rate, e.g. two substituents located in α - and β -position of the migrating H-atom. Thirdly, we visualize the results for cyclic species, where the H-migration involves a peroxy radical or migrating H-atom on the parent molecule cycle, or where the migration spans carbons part of the (mono- or multi-cyclic) ring structure. The resulting changes in ring strain or geometric constraints are not accounted for in the SAR, and we explicitly expect the SAR to perform poorly for such compounds.

4.1 Comparison against experimental data

Table 9 lists the available [literature](#) experimental rate coefficients, and compares them to the SAR predictions at the appropriate temperature, accounting for multiple channels where necessary. [A later section provides additional experimental validation for \$\text{RO}_2\$ H-migrations.](#) For ~~21 of the 22~~ [nearly all](#) available values, the performance is excellent, reproducing the values on average by a factor of 2 (see Figure 3). Only a single, multi-functionalized molecule, $\text{OO-CH}(\text{CH}_3)\text{-C(=O)-CH(OOH)-CH}_3$, does not match the predictions, by a large factor $\sim 10^2$. The direct theoretical calculations of 0.25 and 0.54 s^{-1} by Møller et al. (2019) conform to the lower limit found by Crounse et al. (2013), $\geq 0.1 \text{ s}^{-1}$, so clearly the SAR does not behave as desired for this compound. As our SAR matches the theoretical predictions for $\alpha\text{-OOH}$ -substituted RO_2 well, the likely culprit for the failure is the SAR correction for endo- β -oxo 1,5-H-migrations (see Table 5). It is the only β -oxo correction to slow down the reaction, and was derived from a single data point, obtained by a rel-MC-TST calculations

using only 3 conformers, making it one of the least reliable values used the SAR. An alternative source of error could be that the SAR should account for interactions between β -oxo and α -OOH substitutions. Additional training data is needed to resolve this issue.

1075 | 34.2 Performance with spectator substitution

To keep the number of SAR parameters manageable, and to make the SAR easily applicable, one hopes that each SAR class is applicable to a wide range of compounds, without having to resort to explicitly examining all possible permutations of functionalities on the reactant. Due to the nature of the title reaction, a fairly large number of SAR classes is unavoidable, as the reaction acts from short to long range, and is dependent on two reactive sites ($-\text{OO}^\bullet$ moiety and migrating H-atom) that
1080 can be influenced by their neighbors (even long-range neighbors in case of delocalization). In this test set, we include those compounds that have non-aliphatic "spectator" substituents located such that they are not expected to have an overly large effect on the H-migration reaction. Examples include substituents outside the TS cycle, or located sufficiently far from both reaction sites.

Figure 4 shows the agreement between the SAR predictions and our theory-based data set (see supporting information), for
1085 those reactions of non-cyclic RO_2 not included in the training set. The performance is comparatively good, with most predictions within an order of magnitude. Given that this set includes stereo-isomers where direct calculations show rate coefficient differences of almost 2 orders of magnitude, this indicates that the SAR performs well, and that spectator functionalities can be well approximated by aliphatic substituents. The largest scatter is found for a very slow H-migration,
| $k_{\text{theory}}(298\text{ K}) \sim 10^{-10} \text{ s}^{-1}$, which is not relevant in the atmosphere, and for H-scrambling reactions, which have been discussed
1090 earlier to suffer from large discrepancies between the predictions in the various literature sources. As expected (see above), we typically under-predict H-scrambling rates; despite this we still find that the scrambling reactions are several orders of magnitude faster than other H-migrations, supporting pooling hydroperoxide-substituted RO_2 radicals, as discussed in section 5. A similar analysis of selected literature data is shown in Figure 5 (D'Ambro et al., 2017; Jørgensen et al., 2016; Knap et al., 2015, 2016; Knap and Jørgensen, 2017; Kurtén et al., 2015; Møller et al., 2016, 2019; Piletic et al., 2019; Praske et al., 2018, 2019; Wang et al., 2018; Xing et al., 2018). The SAR predictions show a significantly wider scatter than
1095 for the previous test set. However, one should take into account that this data is based on a wider range of theoretical methodologies, and the wider scatter is at least partly caused by the use of MC-TST calculations based on a limited number of conformers, or from the use of DFT-based energies which carry a larger uncertainty. At this point, we anticipate that the scatter relative to the SAR prediction will decrease strongly when applying better quantum chemical methodologies, and by
1100 incorporating more conformers in the kinetic analysis, either by full MC-TST or rel-MC-TST.

4.3 Multi-functionalized compounds

Our SAR currently does not directly support the prediction of rate coefficients for RO_2 radicals when the H-migration is affected by more than one functionality, due to the lack of data to derive reliable cross terms accommodating two or more simultaneous functionalities. As a test case, however, we examine here the 1,6-H-migration in methyl-4-hydroxy-2-butene-
1105 1-peroxy, i.e. the Z- δ -1-OH-isoprene-4-peroxy (Z-HO-CH₂-C(CH₃)=CH-CH₂OO $^\bullet$, Z- δ -RO₂-1) and Z- δ -4-OH-isoprene-1-

peroxy ($Z^{\bullet}\text{OO-CH}_2\text{-C(CH}_3\text{)=CH-CH}_2\text{OH}$, $Z\text{-}\delta\text{-RO}_2\text{-4}$) radicals of critical importance in the isoprene oxidation (Bianchi et al., 2019; Nguyen et al., 2010; Novelli et al., 2020; Peeters et al., 2009, 2014; Wennberg et al., 2018). Teng et al. (2017) derived rate coefficients for these unimolecular reactions from experiments, finding rates of $0.36 \pm 0.14 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ($Z\text{-}\delta\text{-RO}_2\text{-1}$) and $3.7 \pm 1.0 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ($Z\text{-}\delta\text{-RO}_2\text{-4}$), in good agreement with the theoretical data, e.g. 0.49 s^{-1} and 5.4 s^{-1} as derived by Peeters et al. (2014) for the LIM1 mechanism. These values have been incorporated in atmospheric models (e.g. Wennberg et al., 2018), though some models use lower rate coefficients; the MCM v3.3.1 (Jenkin et al., 2015) for example uses 0.11 and 1.2 s^{-1} , respectively. The overall kinetics is mostly sensitive (Novelli et al., 2020) to the ratio of the H-migration rate over O_2 -elimination and other reactions, whose rate coefficients also differ in these models. The rate coefficient for 1,6-H-migration is significantly faster than in the corresponding aliphatic compounds, and is accelerated by the formation of a stable $\alpha\text{-OH}$ allyl radical. The main impact is due to the allylic resonance, which enhances the rate by over a factor 700 (see Table 2); the $\alpha\text{-OH}$ substitution has an impact of a factor of ~ 10 in our SAR (see Table 6). A SAR prediction including only the TS endo-cyclic double bond, 0.65 s^{-1} , reproduces the experimental and direct theoretical results within a factor of 6 to 8; bearing in mind that our SAR does not distinguish between substitutions on the second allylic radical site, which in this case has an impact of a factor 10, this is remarkably good. Applying corrections for both the allylic and $\alpha\text{-OH}$ functionalities, yielding 6.5 s^{-1} , apparently overestimates the rate coefficients by up to a factor 20. This test suggests that there is mutual influence between multiple functionalities beyond a purely additive or multiplicative combination. However, within the uncertainties of our SAR, i.e. allowing for the scatter on the underlying data and the simplifications in the SAR such as ignoring stereochemistry and secondary allylic sites, we would be hard-pressed to make a case for including a second-order bi-functional correction on the basic SAR at this time.

Figure 6 shows an analysis of available rate coefficients on multi-functionalized species (This work; Knap and Jørgensen, 2017; Møller et al., 2019; Peeters et al., 2009), approximating the rate coefficient using only the existing SAR parameters for mono-functional RO_2 radicals. We find that the agreement is generally good; the large scatter on the Knap and Jørgensen (2017) data appears due to the use of lower-level, DFT-based reaction energies.

4.4 Cyclic structures

For completeness, Figure 7 depicts the SAR performance for a set of H-migrations in cyclic species, such as substituted menthenyl-peroxy radicals, pinonaldehyde-peroxy radicals, and bicyclic peroxide-peroxy radicals (This work; Kurtén et al., 2015; Xu et al., 2019). As the SAR has no provisions for strained bicyclic structures, these predictions are not expected to be particularly good.

4.5 Untestable SAR parameters

Much of the uncertainty on the SAR predictions are not shown in the above tests. In particular, the values in the SAR that are inferred only by relative rate considerations—either the temperature-dependence $k(T)$ and/or absolute value at 298 K—can not be tested due to lack of data for comparison. While the other SAR predictions are seen above to be somehow "average" to the available data, albeit possibly with a large uncertainty, a critical difference with the guestimated values is that these could have a (large) systematic bias that influences how we perceive the importance of these reactions. In this

1140 respect, it is important that further systematic studies are performed to provide a reference value in each of the SAR categories. Until then, we rely solely on the assumption that the reactivity trends are applicable across SAR classes.

5. Implications of rapid H-atom scrambling in HOO-RO₂

1145 The rapid migration of hydroperoxide-H-atoms in HOO-substituted peroxy radicals has some interesting ramifications for the chemistry and kinetics of these radicals. As already earlier, the scrambling reactions are typically several orders of magnitude faster than other RO₂ H-migration reactions. As a result, the HOO-RO₂ isomeric population will readily equilibrate, and re-equilibrate to compensate for loss (or gain) of specific isomers; for the reaction rates at play, this typically means that the isomers are present in their Boltzmann equilibrium relative concentrations. It then becomes convenient to describe the isomers as a single equilibrated pool of HOO-RO₂ molecules (see Figure 8). As the effective contribution of an isomer is then no longer equal to the total concentration (or its original concentration implied by any formation processes), the elementary rate coefficient is not a good measure of the rate of product formation unless the isomer-specific contribution is explicitly accounted for. This is done by "bulk" rate coefficients, operating on the pool of HOO-RO₂ molecules.

1150 For a specific elementary reaction, one then finds a bulk rate coefficient as:

$$k_{bulk}(T) = \frac{k_1(T) Q_1(T) \exp\left(\frac{-E_1}{kT}\right)}{Q_1(T) \exp\left(\frac{-E_1}{kT}\right) + Q_2(T) \exp\left(\frac{-E_2}{kT}\right) + \dots} \quad (E1)$$

1155 which can be used to convert elementary rate coefficients to population-weighted rate coefficients (Vereecken et al., 2017), with $Q_i(T)$ the partition functions of each of the isomers, E_i their relative energy, and k_i the elementary rate coefficient for a reaction starting from isomer 1. If a product is formed in more than one channel, the bulk rate coefficients are summed. Using the equilibrium constant expressed as a ratio of partition functions and relative energies, and using the resulting contributing fractions of each isomer in the total concentration, we can rewrite this equation as follows:

1160 $k_{bulk}(T) = f_i(T) \cdot k_1(T)$ (E2)

where $f_i(T)$ is the temperature-dependent fraction of reactant i in the isomer pool and undergoing reaction 1 with elementary rate coefficient $k_i(T)$.

1165 These formulae imply that the effective, bulk rate coefficient is less than the elementary rate coefficients obtained by the theoretical rate calculations and SAR predictions for a single isomer. Bulk rate coefficients have been described and applied earlier, both based on HOO-RO₂ scrambling and other RO₂-equilibrating mechanisms (Novelli et al., 2020; Nozière and Vereecken, 2019; Peeters et al., 2009, 2014), and have proven necessary to connect the elementary reaction kinetics to the phenomenological observations.

1170 The ability to describe the pool of HOO-RO₂ as a single species in a kinetic model could lead to significant simplification, and a more natural implementation for comparison against experiment. For studying the formation of highly oxidized molecules (HOM), typically multi-OOH-substituted molecules formed through multiple RO₂-H-migrations + O₂ addition

sequences, the pooling could provide a more direct link to aerosol models, which often lump species in similarity classes. Unfortunately, there is no simple method to predict the relative contributions of the HOO-RO₂ in a pool and thus obtain $k_{pool}(T)$. A pragmatic solution proposed by Nozière and Vereecken (2019) involves simply counting the number of isomers n contributing to the pool, assigning an equal population fraction $f_i = 1/n$ to each, and using this as a measure for the bulk rate coefficient ratio relative to the elementary rate coefficient $k_i(T)$:

$$k_{pool}(T) = \frac{1 \cdot k_{elem}(T)}{\sum_i 1} = \frac{k_{elem}(T)}{n} \quad (E3)$$

This solution is readily implemented both manually and in automated mechanisms, but it implies that the isomers should be present in roughly equal concentrations. In some cases, one/some of the isomers could be dominant or negligible, e.g. due to stabilization by H-bonding, or by formation of more stable hydroperoxides (e.g. peracids). The simplified approach above thus carries a larger uncertainty if the isomers are not sufficiently "similar".

A corollary of the fast re-equilibration is that the HOO-RO₂ molecules have access to all exit channels in the pool, irrespective of the isomer that was originally formed. An example of such a system has been recently described by Novelli et al. (2020), where the initially formed isomer of di-HPCARP-RO₂, a dihydroperoxy-aldehyde-peroxy radical formed from isoprene (3 isomers per pool), initially- does not have access to a fast aldehyde-H-migration pathway (only a slow 1,4-H-shift), but fast scrambling allowed access to much faster 1,5- and 1,6-aldehyde-H-migration channels, leading to acyl radical formation as the dominant channel. Again, this could allow reductions in mechanism complexity, as less favorable exit channels for some of the isomers can be omitted in favor of dominant exit channels through other isomers in the HOO-RO₂ pool. Such mechanism reductions are readily implemented.

Unfortunately, there are conditions where the reduction of the mechanism by pooling isomers is unlikely to work. An example is a mechanism that should be applicable across a large range of RO₂ co-reactant (e.g. NO) concentrations. At low concentrations where the bimolecular reaction is slower than the H-atom scrambling, use of an HOO-RO₂ pool will be appropriate, but for increasingly high concentrations the bimolecular reaction will compete with and eventually overwhelm the equilibration by H-scrambling, leading to product yields that are determined by the nascent isomeric contributions rather than the equilibrium contributions. For such broadly applicable models, an explicit multi-conformer mechanism must be constructed (as in panel (a) of Figure 8), though some model reduction may still be possible by omission of some of the slower H-migration channels.

6. The post-H-migration reaction dynamics

In atmospheric chemistry, the unimolecular reactions of the alkyl radical products are typically not considered explicitly, and mechanisms such as the Master Chemical Mechanism assume, by default, O₂ addition for all alkyl radicals unless a special reaction is known to occur (Saunders et al., 2003). Examples of the latter includes >C*(OH) + O₂, epoxide formation in C*-COOH, or OH elimination in C*OOH. For aliphatic alkyl radicals, the rate of H-migration or elimination reactions rarely reaches 10⁴ s⁻¹ at room temperature, such that O₂ addition is dominant (Miyoshi, 2011; Villano et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2015). The weaker OO-H bond in hydroperoxides as formed in the currently considered reactions, however, facilitates

H-migration in $^{\bullet}\text{QOOH}$ radicals, possibly allowing reversal of the RO_2 H-migration. If we assume that only the reverse $^{\bullet}\text{QOOH}$ to RO_2 reaction can occur in competition with O_2 addition, the effective rate of HOOQOO_2 formation will be dependent on the rate of $^{\bullet}\text{QOOH}$ formation, k_1 , and of the reverse reaction k_{-1} competing against the O_2 addition, $k_{\text{O}_2}[\text{O}_2]$:

$$k_{\text{eff}}(T) = k_1(T) \frac{k_{-1}(T)}{k_{-1}(T) + k_{\text{O}_2}(T)[\text{O}_2]} \quad (\text{E4})$$

i.e. the faster the reverse reaction, the slower effective product formation k_{eff} will be for a given $k_{\text{O}_2}[\text{O}_2]$ value. A structure activity relationship for RO_2 H-migration can not account for the effect of the reverse H-migration reaction, as other reaction paths may be accessible, such as alkyl ring closure reactions, epoxidation, HO_2 elimination forming alkenes, and other rearrangements which have been amply studied at the higher temperatures found in combustion systems (see e.g. Miyoshi, 2011). A full analysis of the fate of the $^{\bullet}\text{QOOH}$ intermediates is outside the scope of the present paper, and we refer to the cited papers for reaction rate rules.

The experimental studies by Nozière and Vereecken (2019) examined migration of aliphatic H-atoms, which are comparatively slow, have a high forward barrier, and are endoergic by $\sim 15 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$, leading to reverse barriers of 10 kcal mol^{-1} or less. They concomitantly have a rather high reverse rate coefficient k_{-1} , and are thus potentially affected by $^{\bullet}\text{QOOH}$ H-migration. A theory-based comparison by Miyoshi (2011) found that for 1,7-H-shift spans or larger, the entropic disadvantage of the cyclic H-migration TS against the more facile O_2 addition (0.2 atm O_2) allows the latter to dominate at room temperature by a factor $\sim 10^3$ or higher. For 1,5 to 1,6-H-migrations, however, the ratio $k_{-1}(298 \text{ K})/k_{\text{O}_2}(298 \text{ K})[\text{O}_2]$ is closer to 10, indicating that the effective rate of product formation $k_{\text{eff}}(298 \text{ K})$ could be reduced by $\sim 10\%$ compared to the elementary reaction rate for RO_2 H-migration. Since 1,5- and 1,6-H-migrations are typically the most favorable H-migration spans, this reverse reaction may need to be taken into account for highly accurate analyses. Future work could examine this aspect in more detail; at the present time, the estimated impact is smaller than the total uncertainties on the measurements (Nozière and Vereecken, 2019). Experiments at varying, elevated O_2 concentrations could directly probe the impact of the competition between k_{-1} and k_{O_2} on the phenomenological rate coefficient.

The RO_2 H-migration reaction rates are subject to Bell-Evans-Polanyi relationships, where more exothermic reactions have lower forward energy barriers and higher reverse barriers. A good correlation is only found within a single substituent group, though, as e.g. allyl resonance stabilization and other effect can affect the post-TS stabilization of the product energy by a larger amount than in the transition state. Faster H-migration reactions then tend to have slower reverse reactions, and RO_2 reactions fast enough to be important in atmospheric conditions are likely to have slow enough reverse reactions to safely assume that O_2 addition in the product alkyl radical is dominant. The experiments by Nozière and Vereecken (2019) then appear to be a worst case scenario regarding the difference between elementary and phenomenological rates, and we propose that reverse H-migration generally has a very limited impact under atmospheric conditions. For some radicals, such as allyl-stabilized or aromatic radicals, effective O_2 addition is significantly slower than for aliphatic alkyl radicals (Peeters et al., 2009; Vereecken, 2019). Furthermore, such stabilized radicals are readily formed, with the SAR described in this paper showing that unsaturated functionalities generally lead to fast RO_2 migration of the β -H-atoms. The same electronic stabilization that hampers O_2 addition, however, also reduces the rate of the reverse alkyl radical H-migration, mitigating the slower HOOQOO^{\bullet} formation.

Many of the organic compounds emitted to the atmosphere are (multi-)unsaturated, allowing for the possibility of alkyl cycloaddition reactions. The predicted rate coefficients near room temperature are of the order of 10^6 s^{-1} or less, and are not effectively competing against O_2 addition (Wang et al., 2015).

67. Further Experimental verification of peroxy radical reaction mechanisms

In addition to RO_2 and HOOQO_2 , a number of stable products were detected in the experiments described earlier by Nozière and Vereecken (2019). For all the RO_2 studied, the carbonyl compound corresponding to initially formed RO_2 was observed and represented by far the main reaction product, evidencing the importance of the keto-hydroxy channel in the self-reaction of RO_2 in all cases. These products were mostly observed at mass $M+19$, and at lower intensities at $M+37$ and sometimes even $M+55$. Thus, in the 1-butylperoxy system, butanal ($\text{MW} = 72 \text{ g mol}^{-1}$) was mostly observed at $m/z = 91$ and 109, in the 1-pentylperoxy system, pentanal ($\text{MW} = 86 \text{ g mol}^{-1}$) at $m/z = 105$ and 123, in the 1-hexylperoxy system, hexanal ($\text{MW} = 100 \text{ g mol}^{-1}$) at $m/z = 119$ and 137, in the ethylhexylperoxy system, ethylhexanal ($\text{MW} = 128 \text{ g mol}^{-1}$) was observed at $m/z = 147$. For dimethylhexylperoxy, 2,5-dimethyl-hexanal and isomers ($\text{MW} = 128 \text{ g mol}^{-1}$) were mostly observed at $M+1$ ($m/z = 129$) and $M+19$ ($m/z = 147$). Note, however, that the technique does not distinguish between isomers, therefore the position of the carbonyl groups in these compounds (and of the other substituents in the other types of products discussed below) could not be confirmed. The ROOH hydroperoxides produced by the $\text{RO}_2 + \text{HO}_2$ reactions were also observed in most systems, but their main peak at $M+19$ (Nozière and Hanson, 2017) overlapped with the $M+37$ peaks for the main carbonyl products: butylhydroperoxide, $\text{MW} = 90 \text{ g mol}^{-1}$ and $m/z_{M+19} = 109$; pentylhydroperoxide, $\text{MW} = 104 \text{ g mol}^{-1}$ and $m/z_{M+19} = 123$; hexylhydroperoxide, $\text{MW} = 118 \text{ g mol}^{-1}$ and $m/z_{M+19} = 137$; 2,5-dimethyl-hexylhydroperoxide, $\text{MW} = 146 \text{ g mol}^{-1}$ and $m/z_{M+19} = 165$. The contribution of the hydroperoxides to these signals was thus determined by adding NO periodically in the reactor. The systematic decrease of these signals in the presence of NO confirmed the significant contribution of hydroperoxides, as these compounds are formed only in the absence of NO . In the 1-butylperoxy, 1-pentylperoxy and 1-hexylperoxy systems, peaks corresponding to the alcohols produced by the self-reaction of RO_2 were also observed at their $M+19$ and $M+37$ peaks: in the 1-butylperoxy system butanol ($\text{MW} = 74 \text{ g mol}^{-1}$) was thus observed at $m/z = 93$ and 111, in the 1-pentylperoxy system, pentanol ($\text{MW} = 88 \text{ g mol}^{-1}$) at $m/z = 107$ and 125, and in the 1-hexylperoxy system, hexanol ($\text{MW} = 102 \text{ g mol}^{-1}$) was observed at $m/z = 121$ and 139. These peaks were found to disappear systematically when NO was added to the reactor, confirming that they were produced by the reaction of the RO_2 radicals in the absence of NO , in agreement to known $\text{RO}_2 + \text{RO}_2$ chemistry. Finally, in the 1-pentylperoxy, 1-hexylperoxy and dimethylhexylperoxy systems, peaks corresponding to the carbonyl analogs of HOOQO_2 were observed. Interestingly, where the HOOQO_2 radicals were exclusively observed at their $M+55$ peaks due to water clustering (Nozière and Vereecken, 2019), these carbonyls were also observed at their $M+55$ and even $M+73$ peaks. In the 1-pentylperoxy system, pentanone-yl-hydroperoxide ($\text{MW} = 118 \text{ g mol}^{-1}$) was thus observed at $m/z = 173$ and 191; in the 1-hexylperoxy system, hexanone-yl-hydroperoxide ($\text{MW} = 132 \text{ g mol}^{-1}$) was observed at $m/z = 187$ and 205, and in the dimethylhexylperoxy system dimethylhexanone-yl-hydroperoxide ($\text{MW} = 146 \text{ g mol}^{-1}$) was observed at $m/z = 201$ and 219. The formation of these carbonyl compounds was consistent with the fast decomposition of the α -OOH alkyl radicals

produced by the fast H-migration from the HOOQO₂ (pathway R4 shown in introduction). The observation of all these products is illustrated for the case of the 1-pentylperoxyO₂ system in Figure 9 and Figure 10. These products thus confirmed the main expected reaction pathways for RO₂ and HOOQO₂.

78. Discussion and conclusions

In this work, an extensive SAR is presented for predicting the temperature-dependent rate coefficient for H-migration in substituted alkylperoxy radicals. The SAR is mostly based on theoretical data at various levels of theory, using both newly presented and literature data. The theoretical methodology used to predict the rate coefficient is evaluated, taking the best available data into account when deriving the absolute rate coefficient and its temperature dependence, thus leading to the best available estimates. Modified Arrhenius parameters are presented for the temperature range 200-450 K, sufficient to cover all relevant atmospheric conditions. Experimental data is scarce but is used when available. The SAR generalized earlier work on RO₂ H-migration, and can provide valuable guidance for mechanism development in atmospheric conditions. The reliability of the SAR depend strongly on the SAR reaction class. For aliphatic RO₂, there is ample theoretical data, which tends to agree well, allowing for robust predictions across the entire temperature range. The experimental data by Nozière and Vereecken on aliphatic RO₂ H-migration was not used in the derivation, but provides very valuable verification of the *a priori* predictions, as aliphatic RO₂ serve as the core of the SAR, representing the main features of the carbon backbone of the molecules. Migration spans from 1,4- to 1,8 are considered.

For unsaturated RO₂, we have generated a large number of characterizations, and find that allylic stabilization of the alkyl radical greatly enhanced the H-migration rate. The SAR distinguishes between endo- and exo-cyclic double bonds in the cyclic transition state. Likewise, β-oxo substitution on the migrating H-atom, either endo- or exo-cyclic in the TS, can enhance the rate of migration. Hydroxy and hydroperoxide-substituted RO₂ radicals show enhanced abstraction rates for the α-H-atoms. Migration of aldehydic and acidic H-atoms are likewise fast, whereas nitrate-substitution slows down migration of the α-H-atoms. For none of the above SAR classes full coverage is available, with several reaction types that have no (reliable) rate predictions available in the literature. The current SAR derivation thus also serves as a good guide for future studies, indicating where efforts are best applied. A case in point would be the H-atom scrambling in hydroperoxide-substituted RO₂ radicals, for which the available data splits into two groups, predicting rate coefficients separated by 4 orders of magnitude or more. Targeted calculations could prove very valuable to resolve this issue. Other important reactions that could benefit specifically from additional data are the migration of aldehydic H-atoms, and the migration of β-oxo H-atoms, for which very few data is available for some of the migration spans yet have fast reaction rates that could be of importance in the atmosphere. In this work we introduce relative multi-conformers transition state theory, rel-MC-TST, a technique for reducing the computational cost of systematic rate studies that appears well suited to aid in the characterizing the many reaction rates needed to enhance the current SAR.

Compared to the scarce available experimental data, SAR performs very well, reproducing the data on average within a factor 2, comparable to the experimental uncertainty. While in some cases the experimental data was used in the SAR training data, most of the predictions are based primarily on theoretical data, suggesting that the theoretical data provides a

good basis for the SAR. A further analysis of the performance of the SAR focused on its application to multi-functionalized RO₂ radicals, probing the scope of applicability beyond the mono-functionalized training set. By and large, the SAR performs well, showing a scatter relative to the available theoretical data of about an order of magnitude; it should be noted here that the underlying data is itself expected to show scatter of this magnitude, and the SAR can thus not be tested beyond this accuracy. The SAR also suffers somewhat from pragmatic simplifications, such as the lumping of stereo-isomers which can show rate coefficients differing by up to two orders of magnitude.

In this work, we also report experimental verification of the reaction mechanisms by direct measurements of the products as a function of the reaction conditions; earlier experimental work is often indirect, relying to some extent on mechanistic assumptions to derive the rate coefficients of the elementary or bulk rate coefficients. We discuss in some detail the impact of fast isomerisation reactions by H-scrambling in hydroperoxide-RO₂, which affects the apparent rate coefficient and product distribution. Under conditions with sufficiently slow competing bimolecular reactions such as with NO, HO₂ and RO₂, the unimolecular decay of such HOO-RO₂ is better described using bulk rate coefficients acting on an equilibrated pool of peroxy radicals.

Though we anticipate that the SAR parameters will be improved rapidly over the next few years, the current SAR can already provide guidance in the generation of kinetic models, experimental design, and theoretical studies. Further literature review can also provide additional points of reference, though the status appears that the published data has quite some scatter for rather similar reactions, and adding more sources may thus not necessarily increase the reliability. Extension and refinement of the SAR should thus be based on combined literature data, new theoretical calculations at high levels of theory, and especially experimental work. We feel improvement for aldehydic H-migration and unsaturated compounds are most needed, as these reactions have the highest rate coefficients and the functionalities are the most common, affecting atmospheric chemistry most.

Supplement

The supplement related to this article is available online, and contains additional information on methodologies, the theoretically derived rate coefficients for ~150 compounds, the description of the rel-MC-TST methodology, a documented spreadsheet implementing the SAR derivation, and the raw quantum chemical data.

Author contributions

The quantum chemical calculations, theoretical kinetic calculations, literature study, and SAR analysis were performed by LV. The experiments and their analysis were done by BN. Both authors contributed to the discussion and writing of the manuscript.

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

Acknowledgments

1340 LV gratefully acknowledges the Max Planck Graduate Center–Johannes Gutenberg University Mainz (MPGC). He also thanks A. Kiendler-Scharr and A. Wahner (Forschungszentrum Jülich) for supporting this project.

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Table 1: Rate coefficients for H-migration in aliphatic peroxy radicals, accounting for all abstractable H-atoms in the group.

Substitution pattern		$k(298_K) / s^{-1}$	$k(200-450_K) = A \times (T/K)^n \times \exp(-E_a / T)$		
H-atom	–OO•		A / s^{-1}	n	E_a / K
1,4-H-migration					
–CH ₃	–CH ₂ OO•	1.98×10^{-11}	1.21E+07	1.4	14586
	>CHOO•	2.13×10^{-13}	2.74E+10	0.55	16790
	>C(OO•)-	2.68×10^{-13}	3.01E+10	0.6	16835
–CH ₂ –	–CH ₂ OO•	5.86×10^{-9}	1.43E+10	0.55	13551
	>CHOO•	3.72×10^{-11}	2.70E+10	0.45	15078
	>C(OO•)-	1.23×10^{-10}	6.85E+10	0.35	14829
–CH<	–CH ₂ OO•	1.62×10^{-7}	4.01E+10	0.4	12614
	>CHOO•	3.661×10^{-9}	6.35E+10	0.3	13715
	>C(OO•)-	4.17×10^{-8}	1.84E+11	0.2	13133
1,5-H-migration					
–CH ₃	–CH ₂ OO•	8.22×10^{-6}	1.01E-32	13.94	5195
	>CHOO•	1.50×10^{-5}	1.31E-27	12.46	6010
	>C(OO•)- ^a	2.22×10^{-4}	7.45E-23	10.79	5650
–CH ₂ –	–CH ₂ OO•	8.10×10^{-4}	5.00E-20	9.81	5534
	>CHOO•	1.23×10^{-3}	2.95E-24	11.26	4966
	>C(OO•)- ^a	4.49×10^{-4}	7.45E-23	10.79	5440
–CH<	–CH ₂ OO•	3.50×10^{-2}	1.77E-03	4.39	6563
	>CHOO•	5.80×10^{-2}	1.64E-35	14.99	2420
	>C(OO•)-	6.20×10^{-4}	2.24E-16	8.73	6280
1,6-H-migration					
–CH ₃	–CH ₂ OO•	4.06×10^{-6}	5.66E-17	8.59	7137
	>CHOO•	1.28×10^{-5}	2.22E-22	10.52	6353

	$>\text{C}(\text{OO}\cdot)\text{-}^{\text{a}}$	2.48×10^{-6}	3.47E-18	9.05	7235
$-\text{CH}_2-$	$-\text{CH}_2\text{OO}\cdot$	8.83×10^{-4}	1.68E-12	7.19	6223
	$>\text{CHOO}\cdot^{\text{a}}$	7.83×10^{-4}	3.47E-18	9.05	5519
	$>\text{C}(\text{OO}\cdot)\text{-}^{\text{a}}$	3.12×10^{-4}	3.47E-18	9.05	5793
$-\text{CH}<$	$-\text{CH}_2\text{OO}\cdot$	4.30×10^{-2}	1.88E-03	4.25	6285
	$>\text{CHOO}\cdot$	6.82×10^{-2}	1.28E-35	14.71	1831
	$>\text{C}(\text{OO}\cdot)\text{-}^{\text{a}}$	2.45×10^{-2}	3.47E-18	9.05	4493

1,7-H-migration

$-\text{CH}_3$	$-\text{CH}_2\text{OO}\cdot$	1.03×10^{-6}	1.47E-16	8.21	7186
	$>\text{CHOO}\cdot$	1.82×10^{-6}	4.57E-25	10.98	5873
	$>\text{C}(\text{OO}\cdot)\text{-}^{\text{a}}$	1.54×10^{-8}	2.52E-16	8.19	8561
$-\text{CH}_2-$	$-\text{CH}_2\text{OO}\cdot$	9.08×10^{-5}	3.72E-05	4.59	7535
	$>\text{CHOO}\cdot^{\text{a}}$	1.93×10^{-5}	2.52E-16	8.19	6435
	$>\text{C}(\text{OO}\cdot)\text{-}^{\text{a}}$	4.32×10^{-6}	2.52E-16	8.19	6882
$-\text{CH}<$	$-\text{CH}_2\text{OO}\cdot$	1.86×10^{-2}	1.61E-18	8.98	4218
	$>\text{CHOO}\cdot^{\text{a}}$	1.72×10^{-3}	2.52E-16	8.19	5097
	$>\text{C}(\text{OO}\cdot)\text{-}^{\text{a}}$	3.26×10^{-4}	2.52E-16	8.19	5593

1,8-H-migration

$-\text{CH}_3$	$-\text{CH}_2\text{OO}\cdot$	8.60×10^{-8}	3.89E-27	11.4	6083
	$>\text{CHOO}\cdot^{\text{a}}$	3.6×10^{-10}	7.49E-17	8.18	9307
$-\text{CH}_2-$	$-\text{CH}_2\text{OO}\cdot$	1.03×10^{-6}	6.83E-01	3.04	9150
	$>\text{CHOO}\cdot^{\text{a}}$	6.04×10^{-8}	7.49E-17	8.18	7769
$-\text{CH}<$	$-\text{CH}_2\text{OO}\cdot$	2.44×10^{-8}	1.58E-22	10.09	7395

^a Averaged temperature-dependence from other reactions used

Table 2: Rate coefficients for allylic H-migration in peroxy radicals with an endo double bond within the TS ring, accounting for all abstractable H-atoms in the group. These rates apply only to migration between cis- or gem-substituents.

Substitution pattern		$k(298_K) / s^{-1}$	$k(200-450_K) = A \times (T/K)^n \times \exp(-E_a / T)$		
H-atom	-OO•		A / s^{-1}	n	E_a / K
1,5-H-migration					
=C-CH ₃	=CHOO•	1.70×10^{-4}	1.91E-95	35.01	-2963
	=C(OO•)-	3.04×10^{-3}	1.02E-89	33.22	-2935
=C-CH ₂ -	=CHOO•	1.86×10^{-2}	2.31E-94	34.58	-4361
	=C(OO•)- ^{a,b}	6.15×10^{-3}	7.61E-87	32.2	-2910
=C-CH<	=CHOO•	8.73×10^{-1}	7.44E-68	25.98	-1906
	=C(OO•)- ^{a,b}	8.50×10^{-3}	7.61E-87	32.2	-3006
1,6-H-migration					
=C-CH ₃	-CH ₂ OO•	3.03×10^{-2}	4.65E-75	27.56	-3167
	>CHOO• ^{a,b}	1.55×10^{-2}	3.42E-67	25.07	-1803
	>C(OO•)- ^{a,b}	2.99×10^{-3}	3.42E-67	25.07	-1313
=C-CH ₂ -	-CH ₂ OO•	6.50×10^{-1}	7.21E-70	25.88	-3373
	>CHOO• ^{a,b}	9.46×10^{-1}	3.42E-67	25.07	-3028
	>C(OO•)- ^{a,b}	3.77×10^{-1}	3.42E-67	25.07	-2754
=C-CH<	-CH ₂ OO•	1.37×10^1	1.20E-56	21.76	-2204
	>CHOO• ^{a,b}	8.23×10^1	3.42E-67	25.07	-4359
	>C(OO•)- ^{a,b}	2.96×10^1	3.42E-67	25.07	-4054
1,7-H-migration					
=C-CH ₃	-CH ₂ OO•	1.20×10^0	8.54E-60	22.36	-2615
	>CHOO• ^{a,b}	3.72×10^{-1}	3.95E-52	19.88	-1227
	>C(OO•)- ^{a,b}	3.16×10^{-3}	3.95E-52	19.88	194
=C-CH ₂ -	-CH ₂ OO•	3.28×10^0	1.83E-44	17.39	-836
	>CHOO• ^{a,b}	3.96×10^0	3.95E-52	19.88	-1932

=C-CH<	>C(OO•)- ^{a,b}	8.85×10 ⁻¹	3.95E-52	19.88	-1486
	-CH ₂ OO• ^{a,b}	3.80×10 ³	3.95E-52	19.88	-3978
	>CHOO• ^{a,b}	3.53×10 ²	3.95E-52	19.88	-3270
	>C(OO•)- ^{a,b}	6.68×10 ¹	3.95E-52	19.88	-2774

^a Averaged temperature-dependence from other reactions used

1345 | ^b k (298 K) anchor value derived from relative rates of aliphatic RO₂, scaled to unsaturated RO₂

Table 3: Rate coefficients for allylic H-migration in peroxy radicals with a double bond outside the TS ring, accounting for all abstractable H-atoms in the group.

Substitution pattern		$k(298_K) / s^{-1}$	$k(200-450_K) = A \times (T/K)^n \times \exp(-E_a / T)$		
H-atom	$-OO^\bullet$		A / s^{-1}	n	E_a / K
1,4-H-migration					
$=C-CH_2-$	$-CH_2OO^\bullet$	1.56×10^{-5}	9.82E+01	2.65	9172
	$>CHOO^\bullet$ ^{a,b}	7.72×10^{-6}	9.82E+01	2.65	9382
	$>C(OO^\bullet)-$ ^{a,b}	2.55×10^{-5}	9.82E+01	2.65	9026
$=C-CH<$	$-CH_2OO^\bullet$ ^a	9.52×10^{-5}	9.82E+01	2.65	8634
	$>CHOO^\bullet$ ^{a,b}	7.50×10^{-4}	9.82E+01	2.65	8019
	$>C(OO^\bullet)-$ ^{a,b}	8.66×10^{-3}	9.82E+01	2.65	7290
1,5-H-migration					
$=C-CH_2-$	$-CH_2OO^\bullet$	2.71×10^0	5.52E-47	18.56	-525
	$>CHOO^\bullet$ ^{a,b}	2.58×10^{-2}	6.10E-25	11.23	3540
	$>C(OO^\bullet)-$	4.60×10^{-5}	6.74E-03	3.9	8104
$=C-CH<$	$-CH_2OO^\bullet$ ^a	6.15×10^{-1}	6.10E-25	11.23	2595
	$>CHOO^\bullet$ ^a	1.87×10^0	6.10E-25	11.23	2263
	$>C(OO^\bullet)-$ ^{a,b}	1.30×10^{-2}	6.10E-25	11.23	3744
1,6-H-migration					
$=C-CH_2-$	$-CH_2OO^\bullet$	2.04×10^0	8.49E-55	20.84	-1928
	$>CHOO^\bullet$ ^{a,b}	7.68×10^{-2}	7.71E-37	15.05	1531
	$>C(OO^\bullet)-$	4.27×10^0	7.72E-46	17.86	-1061
$=C-CH<$	$-CH_2OO^\bullet$ ^a	7.39×10^{-1}	7.71E-37	15.05	857
	$>CHOO^\bullet$ ^{a,b}	6.69×10^0	7.71E-37	15.05	200
	$>C(OO^\bullet)-$	4.17×10^{-3}	6.99E-10	6.43	6275
1,7-H-migration					

=C-CH ₂ -	-CH ₂ OO•	8.22×10 ⁰	4.62E-48	18.62	-1503
	>CHOO• ^{a,b}	2.55×10 ⁻²	4.62E-48	18.62	219
	>C(OO•)- ^{a,b}	5.70×10 ⁻³	4.62E-48	18.62	665
=C-CH<	-CH ₂ OO• ^a	3.56×10 ⁻¹	4.62E-48	18.62	-568
	>CHOO• ^{a,b}	2.27×10 ⁰	4.62E-48	18.62	-1120
	>C(OO•)- ^{a,b}	4.30×10 ⁻¹	4.62E-48	18.62	-624

^a Averaged temperature-dependence from other reactions used

| ^b k (298 K) anchor value derived from relative rates of aliphatic RO₂, scaled to unsaturated RO₂

1350

Table 4: Rate coefficients for H-migration in aldehydic peroxy radicals.

Substitution pattern		$k(298_K) / s^{-1}$	$k(200-450_K) = A \times (T/K)^n \times \exp(-E_a / T)$		
H-atom	–OO•		A / s^{-1}	n	E_a / K
1,4-H-migration					
–CH=O	–CH ₂ OO• ^a	2.56×10^0	5.24E-65	24.74	-2379
	>CHOO•	6.64×10^{-2}	1.08E-66	25.23	-1616
	>C(OO•)-	5.70×10^{-1}	2.54E-63	24.25	-1605
1,5-H-migration					
–CH=O	–CH ₂ OO•	9.84×10^0	3.66E-37	15.46	573
	>CHOO• ^{a,b}	1.62×10^2	3.66E-37	15.46	423
	>C(OO•)- ^{a,b}	1.74×10^{-1}	3.66E-37	15.46	1775
1,6-H-migration					
–CH=O	–CH ₂ OO•	4.98×10^0	2.03E-41	16.79	101
	>CHOO• ^{a,b}	790×10^0	2.03E-41	16.79	-37
	>C(OO•)- ^a	2.84×10^{-1}	2.03E-41	16.79	268
1,7-H-migration					
–CH=O	–CH ₂ OO•	1.84×10^0	2.91E-30	12.9	1458
	>CHOO• ^{a,b}	1.71×10^{-1}	2.91E-30	12.9	2167
	>C(OO•)- ^{a,b}	3.24×10^{-2}	2.91E-30	12.9	2663

^a Averaged temperature-dependence from other reactions used

^b $k(298\text{ K})$ anchor value derived from relative rates of aliphatic RO₂, scaled to aldehydic RO₂

Table 5: Rate coefficients corrections for oxo-, hydroxy-, nitrate- or alkoxy-substituted H-atoms in RO₂ radicals, or for acylperoxy radicals, relative to H-migration in aliphatic peroxy radicals, accounting for all abstractable H-atoms in the group.

H-atom	span	reference rate	<u>$k(298\text{ K})$ correction factor</u>	<u>$k(T)$ correction factor</u>
endo- β -oxo	1,5	$k_{\text{aliphatic}}(T)$	<u>0.22</u>	<u>$\exp(-450\text{ K}/T)$</u>
	1,6	$k_{\text{aliphatic}}(T)$	<u>8.6</u>	<u>$\exp(650\text{ K}/T)$</u>
	1,7	$k_{\text{aliphatic}}(T)$	<u>56</u>	<u>$\exp(1200\text{ K}/T)$</u>
exo- β -oxo	1,4	$k_{\text{aliphatic}}(T)$	<u>1.9×10^3</u>	<u>$\exp(2250\text{ K}/T)$</u>
	1,5	$k_{\text{aliphatic}}(T)$	<u>47</u>	<u>$\exp(1150\text{ K}/T)$</u>
	1,6	$k_{\text{aliphatic}}(T)$	<u>10</u>	<u>$\exp(700\text{ K}/T)$</u>
	1,7	$k_{\text{aliphatic}}(T)$	<u>6.3</u>	<u>$\exp(550\text{ K}/T)$</u>
β -OH	any	$k_{\text{aliphatic}}(T)$	<u>0.16</u>	<u>$\exp(-530\text{ K}/T)$</u>
α -ONO ₂	any	$k_{\text{aliphatic}}(T)$ or $k_{\text{allylic}}(T)$	<u>4.1×10^{-2}</u>	<u>$\exp(-950\text{ K}/T)$</u>
α -OR	any	$k_{\alpha\text{-OH}}(T)$	<u>1</u>	<u>1</u>
OO \cdot -group	span	reference rate	<u>$k(298\text{ K})$ correction factor</u>	<u>$k(T)$ correction factor</u>
C(=O)OO \cdot	any	$k_{\text{aliphatic}}(T)$	<u>20</u>	<u>$\exp(900\text{ K}/T)$</u>

Table 6: Rate coefficients for α -OH-substituted H-migration in peroxy radicals, accounting for all abstractable H-atoms in the group.

Substitution pattern		$k(298_K) / s^{-1}$	$k(200-450_K) = A \times (T/K)^n \times \exp(-E_a / T)$		
H-atom	–OO•		A / s^{-1}	n	E_a / K
1,4-H-migration					
–CH ₂ OH	–CH ₂ OO• ^{a,b}	9.79×10^{-4}	8.05E-02	3.81	7790
	>CHOO• ^a	2.40×10^{-6}	8.05E-02	3.81	9581
	>C(OO•)– ^{a,b}	2.06×10^{-5}	8.05E-02	3.81	8941
–CHOH–	–CH ₂ OO• ^a	8.25×10^{-6}	8.05E-02	3.81	9213
	>CHOO• ^a	3.13×10^{-5}	8.05E-02	3.81	8816
	>C(OO•)– ^{a,b}	6.97×10^{-3}	8.05E-02	3.81	7205
1,5-H-migration					
–CH ₂ OH	–CH ₂ OO• ^{a,b}	8.39×10^{-3}	8.05E-02	3.81	7150
	>CHOO• ^{a,b}	1.27×10^{-2}	8.05E-02	3.81	7026
	>C(OO•)– ^{a,b}	4.65×10^{-3}	8.05E-02	3.81	7326
–CHOH–	–CH ₂ OO•	4.42×10^{-2}	5.54E-02	4.12	7059
	>CHOO• ^a	9.55×10^{-2}	8.05E-02	3.81	6425
	>C(OO•)– ^a	3.31×10^{-1}	8.05E-02	3.81	6055
1,6-H-migration					
–CH ₂ OH	–CH ₂ OO• ^a	8.84×10^{-3}	8.05E-02	3.81	7134
	>CHOO•	3.10×10^{-1}	3.41E+07	0.86	6972
	>C(OO•)– ^{a,b}	4.58×10^{-3}	8.05E-02	3.81	7330
–CHOH–	–CH ₂ OO• ^a	1.82×10^{-1}	8.05E-02	3.81	6233
	>CHOO•	1.88×10^{-1}	3.03E-01	3.39	5905
	>C(OO•)– ^{a,b}	3.60×10^{-1}	8.05E-02	3.81	6030
1,7-H-migration					
–CH ₂ OH	–CH ₂ OO• ^{a,b}	6.86×10^{-4}	8.05E-02	3.81	7896

-CHOH-	$>\text{CHOO}^\bullet$ ^{a,b}	1.46×10^{-4}	8.05E-02	3.81	8358
	$>\text{C}(\text{OO}^\bullet)\text{-}$ ^{a,b}	3.26×10^{-5}	8.05E-02	3.81	8804
	$-\text{CH}_2\text{OO}^\bullet$	1.40×10^{-1}	1.17E-01	3.51	5907
	$>\text{CHOO}^\bullet$ ^{a,b}	1.30×10^{-2}	8.05E-02	3.81	7019
	$>\text{C}(\text{OO}^\bullet)\text{-}$ ^{a,b}	2.46×10^{-3}	8.05E-02	3.81	7515

^a Averaged temperature-dependence from other reactions used

^b k (298 K) anchor value derived from relative rates of aliphatic RO_2 , scaled to $\alpha\text{-OH RO}_2$

Table 7: Rate coefficients for H-migration of α -OOH H-atoms in peroxy radicals, accounting for all abstractable H-atoms in the group.

Substitution pattern		$k(298_K) / s^{-1}$	$k(200-450_K) = A \times (T/K)^n \times \exp(-E_a / T)$		
H-atom	–OO•		A / s^{-1}	n	E_a / K
1,4-H-migration					
–CH ₂ OOH	–CH ₂ OO•	2.37×10^{-8}	1.96E+07	1.61	12969
	>CHOO•	8.77×10^{-9}	2.38E+04	2.69	13103
	>C(OO•)-	3.56×10^{-7}	2.04E+05	2.45	12228
–CH(OOH)–	–CH ₂ OO•	2.33×10^{-7}	7.83E+04	2.24	11716
	>CHOO•	1.39×10^{-6}	1.22E+05	2.38	11559
	>C(OO•)-	5.30×10^{-7}	9.91E+05	1.86	11587
1,5-H-migration					
–CH ₂ OOH	–CH ₂ OO• ^a	4.13×10^{-4}	2.01E-52	19.91	654
	>CHOO• ^a	5.70×10^{-4}	2.01E-52	19.91	558
	>C(OO•)- ^a	1.89×10^{-2}	2.01E-52	19.91	-484
–CH(OOH)–	–CH ₂ OO• ^a	5.99×10^{-3}	2.01E-52	19.91	-143
	>CHOO• ^a	2.18×10^{-2}	2.01E-52	19.91	-527
	>C(OO•)- ^a	2.75×10^{-2}	2.01E-52	19.91	-597
1,6-H-migration					
–CH ₂ OOH	–CH ₂ OO• ^a	3.01×10^{-3}	2.01E-52	19.91	62
	>CHOO•	1.01×10^{-3}	3.77E-40	15.89	1981
	>C(OO•)- ^a	8.77×10^{-4}	2.01E-52	19.91	430
–CH(OOH)–	–CH ₂ OO•	5.70×10^{-2}	1.07E-64	23.93	-2406
	>CHOO• ^a	3.04×10^{-2}	2.01E-52	19.91	-627
	>C(OO•)- ^a	2.45×10^{-2}	2.01E-52	19.91	-563
1,7-H-migration					

-CH ₂ OOH	-CH ₂ OO• ^a	2.72×10 ⁻⁴	2.01E-52	19.91	778
	>CHOO• ^a	5.44×10 ⁻⁴	2.01E-52	19.91	572
	>C(OO•)- ^a	1.90×10 ⁻⁴	2.01E-52	19.91	886
-CH(OOH)-	-CH ₂ OO• ^a	1.30×10 ⁻²	2.01E-52	19.91	-374
	>CHOO• ^a	1.29×10 ⁻²	2.01E-52	19.91	-371
	>C(OO•)- ^a	1.07×10 ⁻²	2.01E-52	19.91	-315

^a Averaged temperature-dependence from other reactions used

^b k (298 K) anchor value derived from relative rates of aliphatic RO₂, scaled to α-OOH RO₂

Table 8: Rate coefficients for H-migration between –OOH groups and peroxy radicals.

Substitution pattern		$k(298_K) / s^{-1}$	$k(200-450_K) = A \times (T/K)^n \times \exp(-E_a / T)$		
H-atom	–OO•		A / s^{-1}	n	E_a / K
1,6-H-migration					
–CH ₂ OOH	–CH ₂ OO• ^{a,b}	1.90×10 ²	5.64E-20	8.46	-405
	>CHOO• ^{a,b}	2.51×10 ¹	5.64E-20	8.46	198
	>C(OO•)– ^{a,b}	2.47×10 ²	5.64E-20	8.46	-484
–CH(OOH)–	–CH ₂ OO• ^{a,b}	7.05×10 ²	5.64E-20	8.46	-796
	>CHOO• ^{a,b}	1.54×10 ³	5.64E-20	8.46	-1029
	>C(OO•)– ^{a,b}	1.00×10 ²	5.64E-20	8.46	-214
>C(OOH)–	–CH ₂ OO• ^{a,b}	1.10×10 ³	5.64E-20	8.46	-928
	>CHOO• ^{a,b}	1.34×10 ⁴	5.64E-20	8.46	-1674
	>C(OO•)– ^{a,b}	2.62×10 ³	5.64E-20	8.46	-1187
1,7-H-migration					
–CH ₂ OOH	–CH ₂ OO• ^{a,b}	3.26×10 ²	5.64E-20	8.46	-566
	>CHOO• ^{a,b}	6.07×10 ²	5.64E-20	8.46	-751
	>C(OO•)– ^{a,b}	2.13×10 ³	5.64E-20	8.46	-1126
–CH(OOH)–	–CH ₂ OO• ^{a,b}	1.59×10 ³	5.64E-20	8.46	-1038
	>CHOO• ^{a,b}	2.09×10 ³	5.64E-20	8.46	-1119
	>C(OO•)– ^{a,b}	1.16×10 ⁴	5.64E-20	8.46	-1630
>C(OOH)–	–CH ₂ OO• ^{a,b}	5.14×10 ³	5.64E-20	8.46	-1388
	>CHOO• ^{a,b}	9.92×10 ³	5.64E-20	8.46	-1584
	>C(OO•)– ^{a,b}	7.84×10 ²	5.64E-20	8.46	-827
1,8-H-migration					
–CH ₂ OOH	–CH ₂ OO• ^{a,b}	6.42×10 ¹	5.64E-20	8.46	-82
	>CHOO•	1.18×10 ²	9.14E-15	6.76	423

	$>\text{C}(\text{OO}\cdot)\text{-}$ ^{a,b}	1.92×10^2	5.64E-20	8.46	-408
$-\text{CH}(\text{OOH})-$	$-\text{CH}_2\text{OO}\cdot$	4.17×10^2	3.48E-25	10.16	-1327
	$>\text{CHOO}\cdot$ ^{a,b}	2.46×10^2	5.64E-20	8.46	-482
	$>\text{C}(\text{OO}\cdot)\text{-}$ ^{a,b}	1.36×10^3	5.64E-20	8.46	-991
$>\text{C}(\text{OOH})-$	$-\text{CH}_2\text{OO}\cdot$ ^{a,b}	2.51×10^2	5.64E-20	8.46	-489
	$>\text{CHOO}\cdot$ ^{a,b}	1.58×10^2	5.64E-20	8.46	-350
	$>\text{C}(\text{OO}\cdot)\text{-}$ ^{a,b}	2.25×10^2	5.64E-20	8.46	-456
1,9-H-migration					
$-\text{CH}_2\text{OOH}$	$-\text{CH}_2\text{OO}\cdot$ ^{a,b}	2.68×10^0	5.64E-20	8.46	864
	$>\text{CHOO}\cdot$ ^{a,b}	3.34×10^0	5.64E-20	8.46	791
	$>\text{C}(\text{OO}\cdot)\text{-}$ ^{a,b}	8.30×10^0	5.64E-20	8.46	528
$-\text{CH}(\text{OOH})-$	$-\text{CH}_2\text{OO}\cdot$ ^{a,b}	3.79×10^1	5.64E-20	8.46	75
	$>\text{CHOO}\cdot$ ^{a,b}	1.03×10^1	5.64E-20	8.46	464
	$>\text{C}(\text{OO}\cdot)\text{-}$ ^{a,b}	5.67×10^1	5.64E-20	8.46	-45
$>\text{C}(\text{OOH})-$	$-\text{CH}_2\text{OO}\cdot$ ^{a,b}	1.09×10^1	5.64E-20	8.46	448
	$>\text{CHOO}\cdot$ ^{a,b}	6.82×10^0	5.64E-20	8.46	586
	$>\text{C}(\text{OO}\cdot)\text{-}$ ^{a,b}	9.72×10^0	5.64E-20	8.46	481

^a Averaged temperature-dependence from other reactions used

^b k (298 K) anchor value derived from scaled values (see text)

Table 9: Comparison of the SAR predictions, $k_{\text{SAR}}(T)$ against the experimental values, $k_{\text{exp}}(T)$. *Values marked with an asterisk are used in the derivation of the SAR, usually by geometric averaging with theoretical data.*

Reference	Molecule	span / subst.	T / K	$k_{\text{exp}}(T)$	$k_{\text{SAR}}(T)$
Nozière and Vereecken (2019)	$\bullet\text{OO-CH}_2\text{-CH}_2\text{-CH}_2\text{-CH}_3$	all	298	$\leq (5 \pm 3) \times 10^{-4}$	8.1×10^{-4}
	$\bullet\text{OO-CH}_2\text{-CH}_2\text{-CH}_2\text{-CH}_2\text{-CH}_3$	all	298	$(2.4 \pm 1.3) \times 10^{-3}$	1.7×10^{-3}
	$\bullet\text{OO-CH}_2\text{-CH}_2\text{-CH}_2\text{-CH}_2\text{-CH}_2\text{-CH}_3$	all	298	$(1.7 \pm 0.6) \times 10^{-3}$	1.8×10^{-3}
	$\bullet\text{OO-CH}_2\text{-CH(C}_2\text{H}_5\text{)-CH}_2\text{-CH}_2\text{-CH}_2\text{-CH}_3$	all	298	$(2.2 \pm 1.5) \times 10^{-3}$	2.5×10^{-3}
	mixture of 2,5-diMe-hexylperoxy ^a	all	298	$(1.9 \pm 0.6) \times 10^{-2}$	2.7×10^{-2}
Crounse et al. (2012)	$\text{HOCH}_2\text{-C(CH}_3\text{)(OO}\bullet\text{)-CH=O}$	1,4 aldehyde-H	296	0.5 ± 0.3 *	0.5 ^b
Crounse et al. (2013)	$\bullet\text{OO-CH(CH}_3\text{)-C(=O)-CH}_2\text{-CH}_3$	1,5 endo- β -oxo	296	$\leq 2 \times 10^{-3}$	2.2×10^{-4}
	$\bullet\text{OO-CH(CH}_3\text{)-C(=O)-CH(OOH)-CH}_3$	1,5 α -OOH + endo- β -oxo	296	> 0.1	4.8×10^{-3}
Praske et al. (2018)	$\text{CH}_3\text{-CH}_2\text{-CH(OO}\bullet\text{)-CH}_2\text{-CH(OH)-CH}_3$	1,5 α -OH	296	$(4.8 \pm 2.4) \times 10^{-2}$ *	8.0×10^{-2}
			318	$(3.1 \pm 1.2) \times 10^{-1}$	4.7×10^{-1}
	$\text{CH}_3\text{-CH(OO}\bullet\text{)-CH}_2\text{-CH}_2\text{-CH(OH)-CH}_3$	1,6 α -OH	296	$(1.4 \pm 0.6) \times 10^{-1}$ *	1.6×10^{-1}
			318	$(5.5 \pm 1.6) \times 10^{-1}$	8.2×10^{-1}
Praske et al. (2019)	$\text{CH}_3\text{-C(CH}_3\text{)(OO}\bullet\text{)-CH}_2\text{-CH(OH)-CH}_3$	1,5 α -OH	296	$(2.2 \pm 0.9) \times 10^{-1}$	8.0×10^{-2}
			318	$(5.6 \pm 2.9) \times 10^{-1}$	4.7×10^{-1}
	$\text{CH}_3\text{-C(CH}_3\text{)(OO}\bullet\text{)-CH}_2\text{-CH(OOH)-CH}_3$	1,5 α -OOH	296	$(3.6 \pm 5.2) \times 10^{-2}$ *	2.4×10^{-2}
			318	$(1.3 \pm 1.6) \times 10^{-1}$	8.8×10^{-2}
Heiss and Sahetchian (1996)	<u>$\bullet\text{OO-CH}_2\text{-CH}_2\text{-CH}_2\text{-CH}_2\text{-OH}$ ^c</u>	<u>1,6 α-OH</u> ^c	<u>487</u>	<u>1.5×10^3</u>	<u>6.1×10^2</u>
Jorand et al. (2003)	$\text{CH}_3\text{-CH(OO}\bullet\text{)-CH}_2\text{-CH}_2\text{-CH(OH)-CH}_3$	1,6 α -OH	453	$(2.5 \pm 0.2) \times 10^3$	6.9×10^2
			483	$(6.7 \pm 0.2) \times 10^3$	1.9×10^3
Perrin et al. (1998)	$\text{CH}_3\text{-CH(OO}\bullet\text{)-CH}_2\text{-CH}_2\text{-CH}_2\text{(OH)}$	1,6 α -OH	463	$(6.7 \pm 0.6) \times 10^2$	1.9×10^3
			412	$(5.5 \pm 0.5) \times 10^3$	1.2×10^4
	<u>$\text{CH}_3\text{-CH(OO}\bullet\text{)-CH}_2\text{-CH}_2\text{-CH}_2\text{-CH}_3$</u>	<u>1,5/1,6</u> ^d	<u>453</u>	<u>0.795</u> ^d	<u>0.468</u> ^d
Teng et al. (2017)	$\text{Z-}\bullet\text{OO-CH}_2\text{-CH=C(CH}_3\text{)-CH}_2\text{OH}$	1,6 endo-allyl	297	0.36 ± 0.14	0.65

Z-•OO-CH ₂ -C(CH ₃)=CH-CH ₂ OH	1,6 endo-allyl	297	3.7 ± 1.0	0.65
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1375 | ^a SAR prediction for a mixture of 58:13:29 of 2,5-diMethyl-hexyl-1-, 2-, and 3-peroxy, respectively, following the procedure in Nozière and Vereecken (2019) for a reaction time of 1 min.

^b SAR matches experimental value by design. Excluding experimental value from the SAR derivation yields 0.23 s⁻¹, showing good agreement between theoretical and experimental data.

^c The observed reaction is identified based on the product study by Jorand et al. (1996)

1380 | ^d Ratio of the 1,5- over 1,6-H-migration rate.

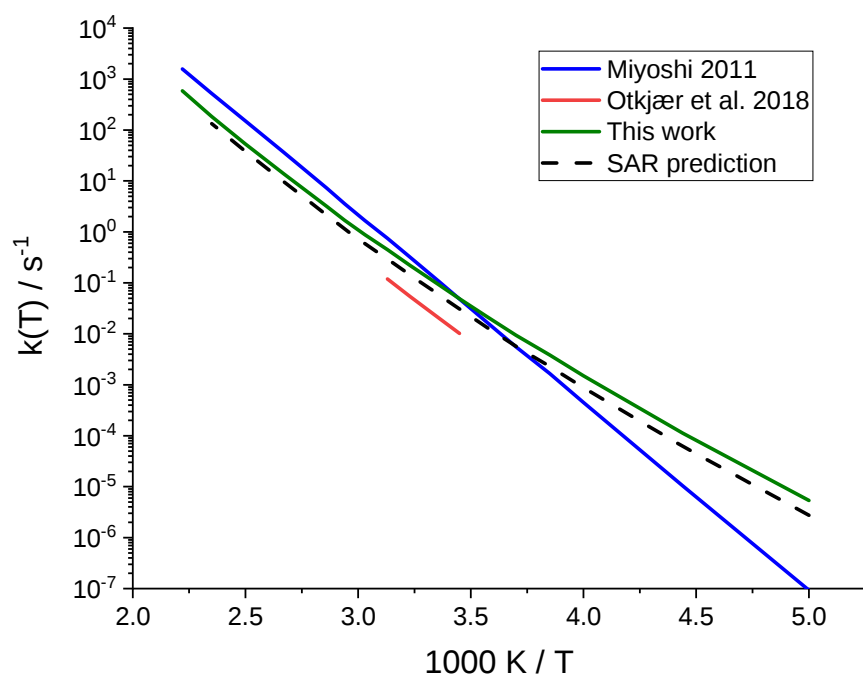


Figure 1: Rate coefficient for 1,5-*H*-migration in an aliphatic alkyl peroxy radical with a $>CH(OO^{\bullet})$ radical group, and a tertiary ($-CH<$) migrating *H*-atom. The SAR derivation matches a geometric average at 298 K, and uses the most reliable temperature-dependence accounting for tunneling at low temperatures.

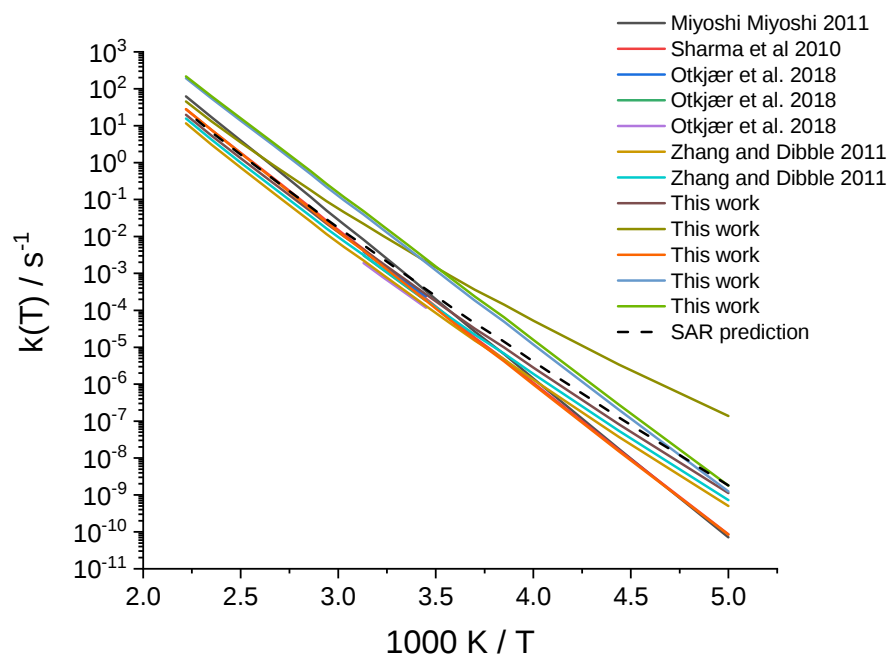


Figure 2: Rate coefficient for 1,5-*H*-migration in an aliphatic alkyl peroxy radical with a $>CH(OO^{\bullet})$ radical group, and a secondary ($-CH_2-$) migrating *H*-atom. The literature data for the various reactions in this class are scattered over a factor 22; the final SAR predictions is within a factor 7 of all data at 298 K, and incorporates the average temperature dependence of the 5 predictions that explicitly treat tunneling corrections below 300 K.

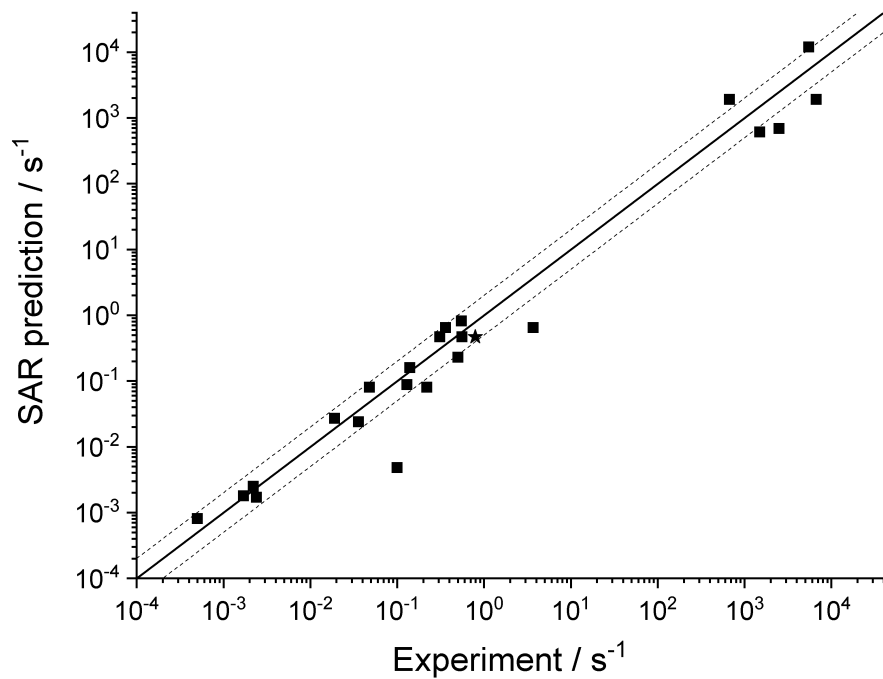


Figure 3: Comparison of the experimental values against the SAR predictions (various temperatures). The solid line shows a 1:1 agreement, with the dotted lines delineating a factor 2 uncertainty. The star indicates a rate ratio (see Table 9)

1390

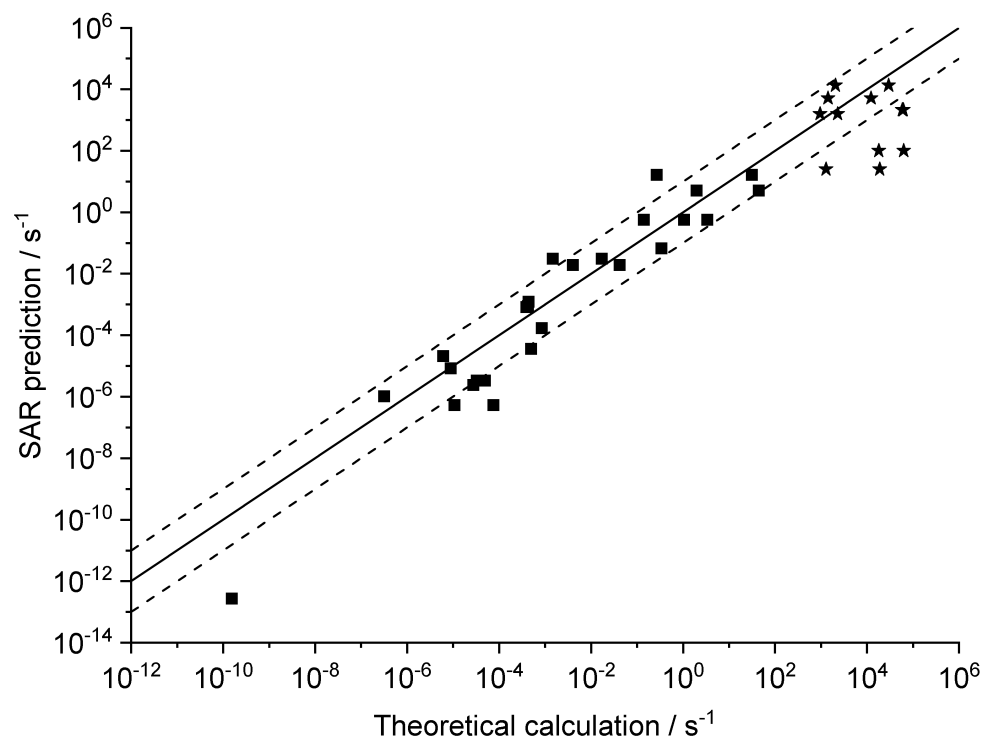


Figure 4: $k(298\text{ K})$ H-migration in multi-functionalized species with spectator substituents. The data shown are derived in this work or our earlier publications, using MC-TST incorporating all conformers compared against the SAR prediction. The stars indicate OOH/ OO^\bullet H-scrambling reactions. The solid line shows 1:1 correspondence, with the dotted lines delineating an order of magnitude uncertainty.

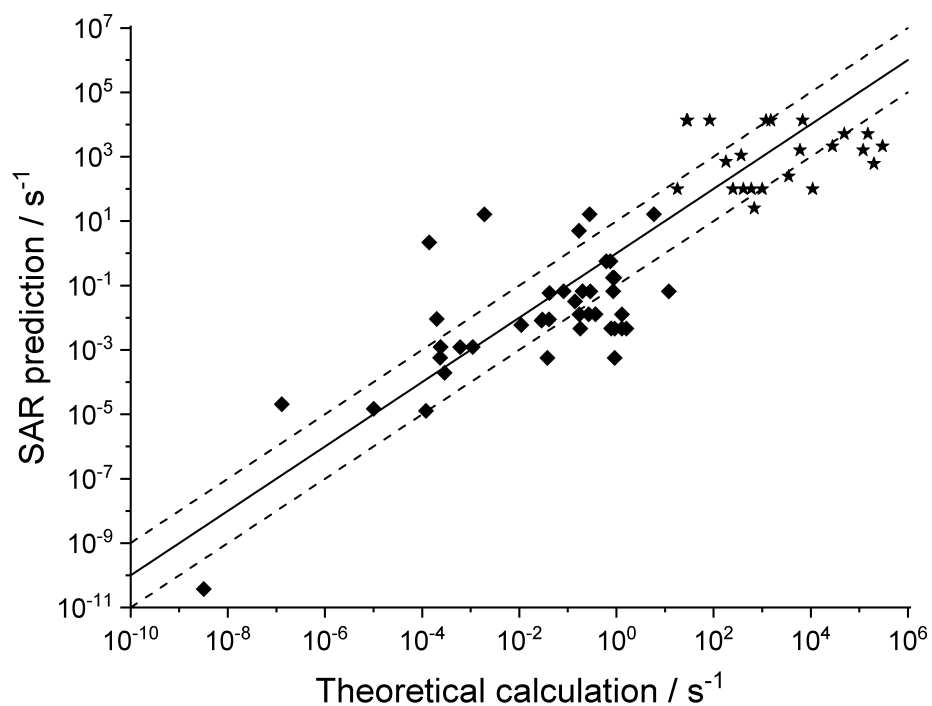


Figure 5: Literature theory-based $k(298\text{ K})$ rate coefficients compared against the SAR predictions (see text for references), in multi-functionalized species with spectator substituents. The stars are OOH/OO \cdot H-scrambling reactions. The solid line shows 1:1 correspondence, with the dotted lines delineating an order of magnitude uncertainty.

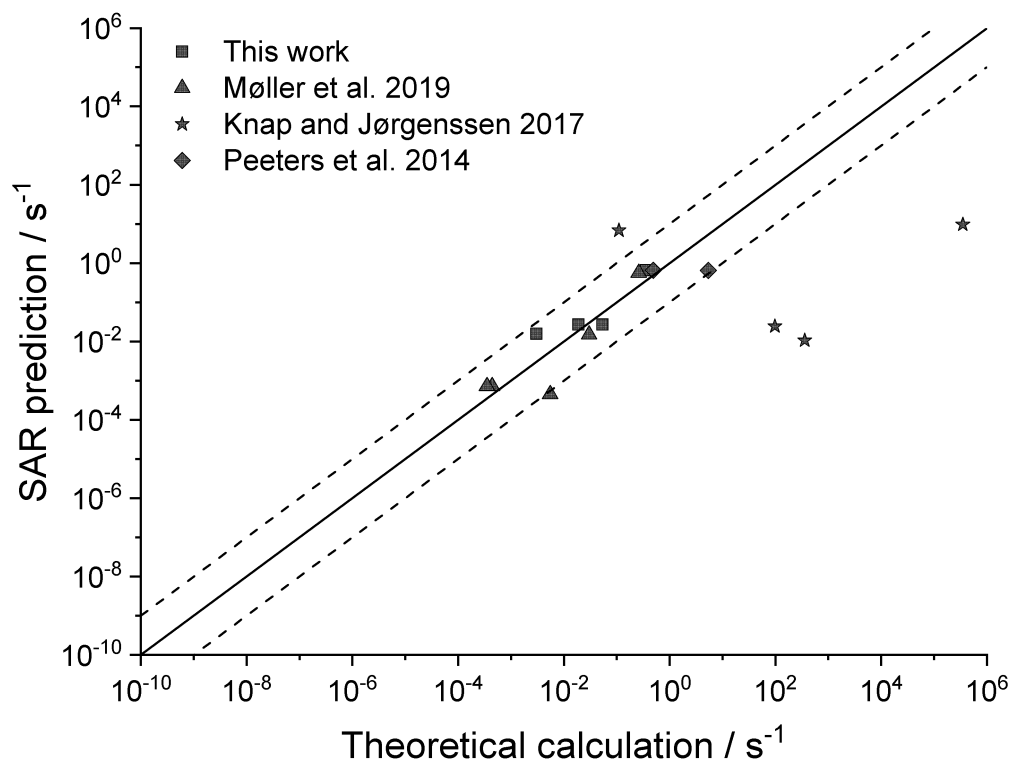


Figure 6: Theory-based $k(298\text{ K})$ rate coefficients for multi-functionalized RO_2 compared against the SAR predictions. The solid line shows 1:1 correspondence, with the dotted lines delineating an order of magnitude uncertainty.

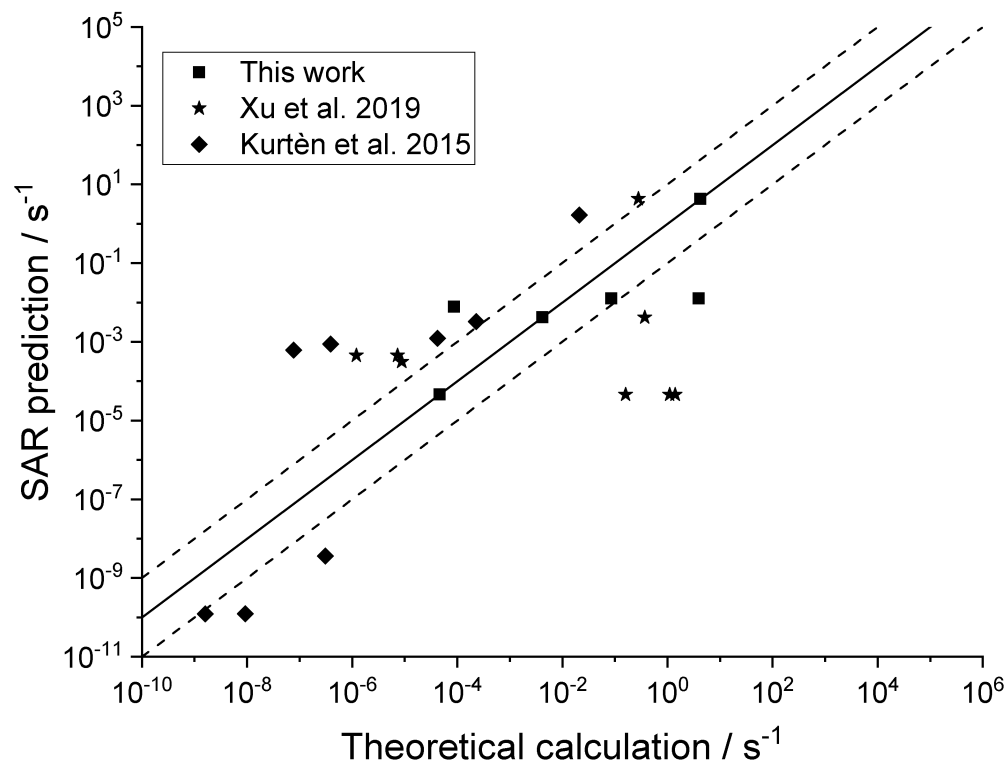


Figure 7: Theory-based $k(298\text{ K})$ rate coefficients for cyclic RO₂ compared against the SAR predictions. The solid line shows 1:1 correspondence, with the dotted lines delineating an order of magnitude uncertainty.

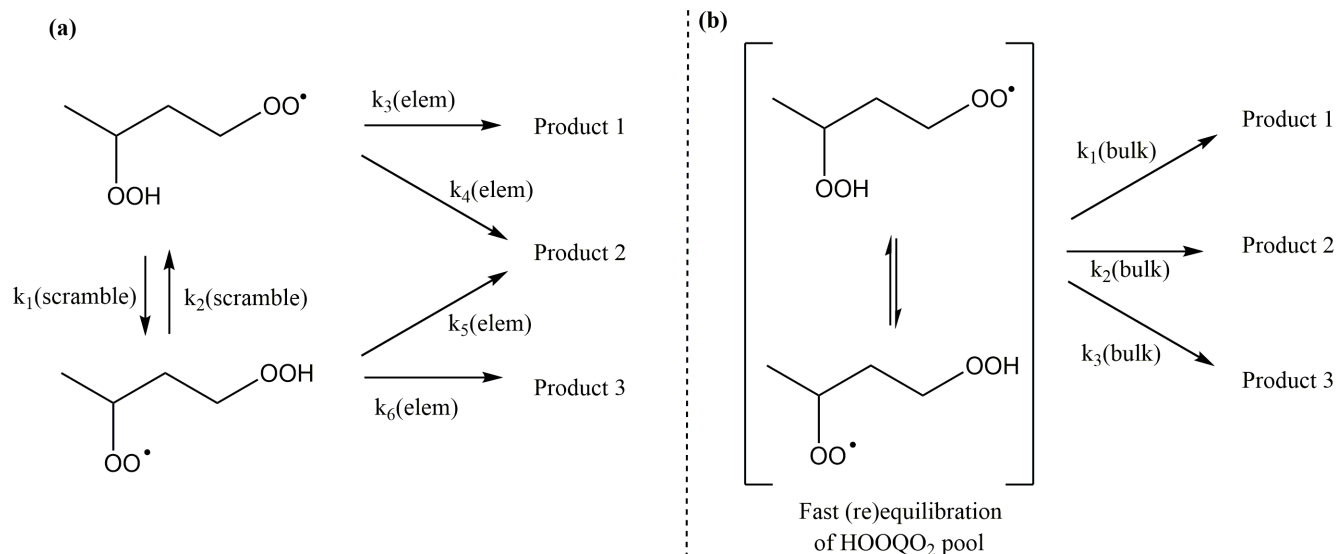


Figure 8: Illustration of fast scrambling and the use of bulk rate coefficients to reduce the complexity of the kinetic model, with (a) the explicit model, and (b) the model using a single lumped pool (in square brackets). In the example above, $k_2(\text{bulk})$ is the sum of the bulk rate coefficients for each of the two channels. The scheme is trivially extended to more isomers and reaction channels.

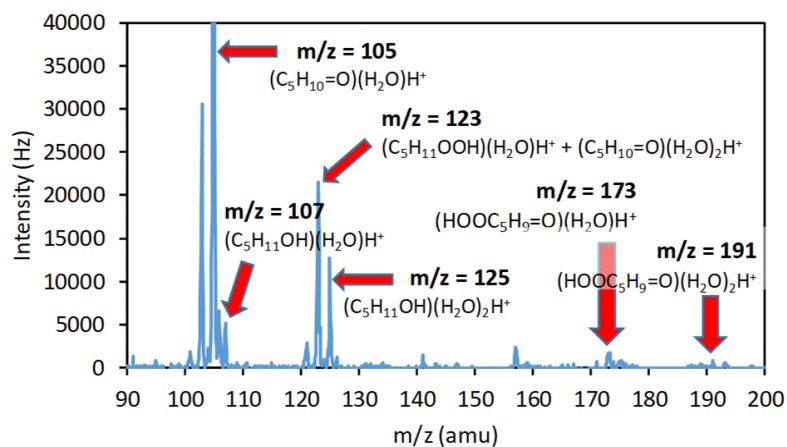


Figure 9: Main product peaks in the 1-pentylperoxy system (experiments of 08/11/18). See Figure 10 for Lewis structures of the molecules (without complexed H_2O) : m/z 105 is $C_5H_{10}=O$; m/z 107 is $C_5H_{11}OH$; m/z 123 is mostly $C_5H_{11}OOH$ with some contribution of $C_5H_{10}=O$; m/z 125 is $C_5H_{11}OH$; m/z 173 and m/z 191 are $HOOC_5H_9=O$.

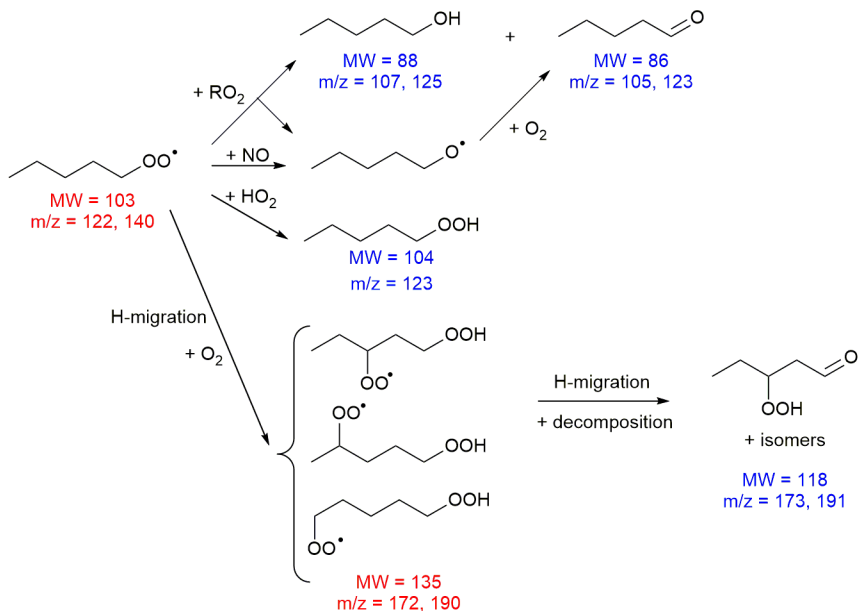


Figure 10: Reaction mechanisms for the 1-pentylperoxy system showing the radicals (MW and m/z in red) and stable products (MW and m/z in blue) observed experimentally (see Figure 9).