Single-particle Raman Spectroscopy for studying physical and chemical processes of atmospheric particles

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Abstract. Atmospheric particles experience various physical and chemical processes and change their properties during their lifetime. Most studies on atmospheric particles, both in laboratory and field measurements, rely on analyzing an ensemble of particles. Because of different mixing states of individual particles, only average properties can be obtained from studies using emsembles of particles. To better understand the fate and environmental impacts of atmospheric particles, investigations on their properties and processes at a single-particle level are valuable. Among a wealth of analytic techniques, single-particle Raman spectroscopy provides an unambiguous characterization of individual particles under atmospheric pressure in a non-destructive and in-situ manner. This paper comprehensively reviews the application of such a technique in the studies of atmospheric particles, including particle hygroscopicity, phase transition and separation, and solute-water interactions, particle pH, and multiphase reactions. Investigations on enhanced Raman spectroscopy and bioaerosols on a single-particle basis are also reviewed. For each application, we describe the principle and representative examples of studies. Finally, we present our views on future directions on both technique development and further applications of single-particle Raman spectroscopy in studying atmospheric particles.

1 Background

Atmospheric particles or aerosols have considerable effects on climate and human health (Seinfeld and Pandis, 2016). In general, atmospheric particles can originate from a wide variety of anthropogenic and natural sources. Primary particles are emitted directly as a liquid or solid (e.g., soot particles, mineral dust), and they can also undergo atmospheric multiphase reactions. Secondary particles can also be generated by gas-to-particle conversions, such as new particle formation via nucleation and condensation (Pöschl, 2005). During their atmospheric lifetime, both primary and secondary particles are subject to physical and chemical processes, such as partitioning and multiphase reactions. For liquid particles, gas-particle partitioning takes place to achieve thermodynamic equilibrium. For example, an increase or decrease in relative humidity (RH) would result in the uptake of the water vapor into deliquescent particles or the evaporation of particulate water to the gas phase, respectively. Multiphase reactions can be described as gas-particle partitioning accompanied by chemical reactions. Furthermore, photochemistry is an important group of multiphase reactions during the daytime. Both partitioning and chemical reactions can change the composition of the particles, altering their properties such as hygroscopicity, cloud condensation nuclei (CCN) activities, phase state, morphology, reactivity, toxicity, and finally, environmental impacts.

Physical and chemical processes of atmospheric particles have been examined by numerous experimental approaches: a flowing stream of aerosol particles in an open system (flow tube) (Li et al., 2015;Duporté et al., 2017;Heine et al., 2018;Liu and Abbatt, 2020;Liu et al., 2020a;Peng and Jimenez, 2020), a chamber of suspending particles (smog chamber) (Akimoto et al., 1979;Behnke et al., 1988;Liu et al., 2016;Ye et al., 2018;Charan et al., 2019;Liu and Abbatt, 2021;Qin et al., 2021), a collection of deposited particles (Bao et al., 2018;Zhang et al., 2020b), and single particles (Lee and Chan, 2007a;Krieger et al., 2012;Davies and Wilson, 2016;Gen et al., 2019b;Gong et al., 2019;Sullivan et al., 2020). An aerosol flow tube is one of the most common approaches employing a flowing stream of aerosol particles. It enables real-time characterization of reaction products and particulate size under controlled conditions (e.g., RH, temperature), with instruments connected to the exit or different outlets along the flow tube reactor. Oxidation flow reactors (OFR) are analogous to the general aerosol flow tube, but photooxidants (e.g., OH radical) are introduced to examine secondary organic matter formation (Kang et al., 2007;Smith et al., 2009;George and Abbatt, 2010;Keller and Burtscher, 2012). Typically, higher concentrations of

reactive precursor gases than ambient concentrations are used in these flow systems to compensate for the relatively short residential time (e.g., seconds) of the reactants. However, such equivalency of exposure may not necessarily hold (Lee and Chan, 2007b;Chu et al., 2019). Smog chambers enable simulations of various environmental conditions, including gas concentrations, for studying the formation and chemical transformation of particles. The residence time of particles can be extended to a few hours, but other limitations exist, such as long response time to control/change conditions, high cost, and wall loss of particles (Kang et al., 2007). Deposited particles can be studied using a sample-loaded substrate/filter placed in a flowing-gas reactor or a flow tube with its internal wall coated with particles. Environmental conditions can be easily varied, and the reaction time can be very long. An in-situ analyzer for spectroscopic analysis can be equipped (e.g., Raman, Fourier Transform Infrared Spectrometry (FT-IR)) since the particles are immobilized on a substrate/filter. However, using a large number of particles or large particles is usually required to achieve sensitive detection. The influence of particle loading on the reactions and chemical characterization is a challenging question. In general, these approaches produce statistical results of a collection of particles. They may not truly reflect the interaction between gas and particle since the composition of the individual particles may not be identical (Ault and Axson, 2017).

Single-particle characterization has the advantage that the physical and chemical processes undertaken by the particle can be unambiguously monitored. While there is a wealth of instruments for comprehensively characterizing single particles, some are destructive (e.g., mass spectroscopy) or operate under vacuum conditions (e.g., electron microscopy), making them unsuitable for monitoring the gas-particle interaction on the same particles. Single-particle spectroscopic methods (e.g., Raman) can be good alternatives, but the particles are usually supermicron and up to tens of microns. The findings from particles much larger than ambient ones need to be interpreted carefully for drawing implications in submicron atmospheric particles.

Despite its requirements of relatively large particles for spectroscopic signals, single-particle Raman spectroscopy offers several advantages for studying the atmospheric processing of aerosol particles. First of all, a single particle can be unambiguously characterized *in situ* without destruction. From the Raman spectra, chemical compositions of typical aerosol particles (e.g., soot, sulfate, organics, etc.) can be

92 identified by their characteristic peaks. Interactions between molecules can be inferred by peak shifts

93 and changes in peak width. Particulate properties such as the phase state and size can also be

94 characterized by coupling levitation (or isolation) technique and optical microscopy. We will elaborate

95 on the applications of these functions later.

96

97 Furthermore, Raman analysis is operated under atmospheric pressure and enables the use of atmospheric

98 relevant concentrations for a long exposure time to examine atmospheric gas-particle interactions (Lee

99 and Chan, 2007a). Micro-Raman systems provide the spatial information of chemical species at 2-D or

100 even 3-D levels (Batonneau et al., 2006;Sobanska et al., 2006;Tripathi et al., 2009;Scolaro et al.,

101 2009;Sobanska et al., 2014;Offroy et al., 2015;Sobanska et al., 2015;Falgayrac et al., 2018;Ao et al.,

102 2020). Recent advances in stimulated Raman scattering by micro-Raman further improves the spatial

103 resolution from 1 μm to 350 nm and significantly shortens the scanning time from 2.5 h to 2 s (Ao et al.,

104 2020). The disadvantage of Raman spectroscopy is that it can only detect Raman-active functional groups

105 but cannot provide information on the exact molecular structures. Light-absorbing chemicals such as

106 humic-like substances (HULIS) or some brown carbon species may generate fluorescence, interfering

107 with the peak identification in the spectra (Ivleva et al., 2007a). Therefore, single-particle Raman

108 spectroscopy is more suited for laboratory-generated particles than ambient particles. FTIR does not

109 suffer from fluorescence since it uses a longer wavelength (up to tens of μm), but the long wavelength

110 also lowers the spectral resolution (Ault and Axson, 2017;Liu et al., 2020b). Also, Raman has advantages

111 over FTIR for water-containing samples because the strong water peaks in the latter can mask the peaks

112 from other components or even make them undetectable (Nishikida et al., 2018).

113

114 This paper will introduce the general setup of the single-particle Raman spectrometer, how single

115 particles can be characterized unambiguously, and examples of physical and chemical processes reported

116 in the literature. We focus on applications of atmospheric relevance and refer readers to other literature

117 on the principles of Raman spectroscopy and related techniques (e.g., stimulated Raman or coherent

118 Anti-stokes Raman spectroscopy) and applications of less direct atmospheric relevance (Tolles et al.,

119 1977;Efremov et al., 2008;Jones et al., 2019). Finally, we will provide suggestions on future directions

120 of Raman spectroscopy for atmospheric particle studies.

121

2 General set up of single-particle Raman spectroscopy

2.1 Particle isolation

In general, single-particle Raman spectroscopy consists of two key components: particle isolation and Raman spectroscopy, including micro-Raman and confocal Raman configurations. One of the most popular approaches for single-particle isolation is particle levitation, which has been discussed in a few reviews (Reid and Mitchem, 2006;Mitchem and Reid, 2008;Krieger et al., 2012). In this paper, we will briefly introduce their principles and configurations and focus on atmospheric applications. Techniques for levitation of particles can be mainly divided into electrical, optical, and acoustic trapping. Another approach for particle isolation is particle deposition onto substrates with Raman analyses of single particles on an individual basis.

2.1.1 Electrodynamic balance

The Electrodynamic balance (EDB) has been used for studying single particles with a diameter of 1-100μm since the 1980s (Davis and Ray, 1980). A particle is levitated and trapped at the null point under the alternating current (AC) and direct current (DC) electric fields in the EDB. In the absence of other forces, the gravitational force of the particle trapped in the EDB is equal to the balancing electrostatic force, as shown in Eq. (1)

$$mg = nqC\frac{V_{DC}}{z} \tag{1}$$

where m is the mass of the particle, g is the gravitational constant, n is the number of elementary charges present on the particle, q is the elementary charge, z is the distance between two electrodes for the DC voltage, C is a constant dependent on the geometrical configuration of the EDB, and V_{DC} is the balancing DC voltage required to levitate the particle stationary. According to Eq. (1), the mass of the particle is proportional to the DC voltage needed to balance its gravitational force, assuming that the charge present on the trapped particle remains constant. Hence, the relative mass change in the particle undergoing any physical or chemical processing can be quantified by measuring the balancing DC voltage. With a particle levitated stationary, Raman spectroscopy of the stably trapped particles can provide chemical information. Coupled with mass change measurements and optical microscopy, physical and chemical characterization of single particles can be in-situ monitored. In addition to the traditional single-particle EDB (Davis and Ray, 1980;Chan et al., 1992), other EDB set-ups, for

 example, quadrupole (Q)-EDB and comparative kinetic (CK)-EDB, have been developed. Q-EDB

152 allows the trapping of multiple droplets simultaneously. During chemical reactions, individual

153 particles are released one at a time for mass spectroscopy analysis while the rest of the particles are

154 kept levitated for in-situ spectroscopic characterization (Singh et al., 2017;Jacobs et al., 2017;Singh

155 et al., 2018;Kohli and Davies, 2021). CK-EDB employs a reference droplet with known composition

156 and hygroscopic property, which serves as an accurate probe for the environmental conditions in

157 which the tested droplet is examined. It affords hygroscopicity measurements and mass-transfer

158 kinetic measurements on the droplets at high RH (>99%) (Davies et al., 2013;Rovelli et al.,

159 2016;Marsh et al., 2019).

160

161 **2.1.2 Optical trapping**

162 Optically traps can be basically categories into radiation pressure trap, photophorectic trap and universal

163 optical trap. Radiation pressure trap, which is the most general in studying aerosol particles, utilizes the

164 radiation pressure from a light source to balance the weight of the levitated particle (Ashkin, 1970).

165 During optical trapping, the particle interacts with a highly focused laser beam and experiences scattering

166 and gradient forces (Ashkin and Dziedzic, 1981;Mitchem and Reid, 2008). The scattering force is

167 proportional to the square of the induced dipoles and the intensity of the incident laser beam, acting as a

168 force along the direction of the beam propagation. In contrast, the gradient force derives from the

169 focusing of the laser beam and draws the particle towards the region with the highest light intensity

170 (Krieger et al., 2012).

171

172 Radiation pressure-based optical levitation and optical tweezer are two typical optical-trapping

173 techniques utilizing these two forces. While optical levitation relies on the exact balance between

174 downward gravitational force and upward scattering force, optical tweezers effectively create a strong

175 intensity gradient in three dimensions by tightening the focus of the laser beam to generate amplified

176 gradient forces. Optical tweezers provide a more robust trap with the gradient force typically many orders

177 of magnitude larger than the scattering and gravitational forces, leading to 3-dimensional confinement in

178 position with a single laser beam. However, particle size changes must be accompanied by dynamic

179 changes in the light intensity for retaining the trapped particle. In principle, transparent non-absorbing

180 particles of 1–100 μm in diameter can be trapped with dynamic light intensity adjustment for droplet size

changes. By configuring a Bessel laser beam, instead of the typical Gaussian beam, in either vertically or horizontally trapping arrangements, optical levitation and tweezer can be applied for trapping submicron particles (Meresman et al., 2009;Cotterell et al., 2014;Lu et al., 2014). However, Raman spectroscopy would require larger particles for sufficient signal-to-noise ratios. A recent study reported a photochemical study of aerosol particles using an optical trap for the first time by employing a custom-built photochemical levitation chamber (Gómez Castaño et al., 2019). A sidewall of the chamber is equipped with quartz windows for a UV lamp.

In addition to radiation pressure traps, photophoretic traps and universal optical traps are two emerging alternatives (Redding et al., 2015a;Redding and Pan, 2015). The former is specifically for light-absorbing particles. The latter employs a hollow beam to trap either transparent and light-absorbing particles using radiation pressure force and photophoretic force, respectively (Gong et al., 2018a). Using these techniques, Raman characterizations have been made on light-absorbing particles in recent years, including bioaerosols (Wang et al., 2015a;Redding et al., 2015a;Redding et al., 2015b;Gong et al., 2018b, 2019), aromatic compounds (Kalume et al., 2017b;Kalume et al., 2017a;Gong et al., 2018b), carbon nano-tubes (Pan et al., 2012;Gong et al., 2018b) and soot (Uraoka et al., 2017).

2.1.3 Acoustic levitation

Compared to the EDB and optical trap, acoustic levitation is less utilized in atmospheric research due to the complicated acoustic streaming and the requirement for large particles (20 μm- 2 mm.) (Cohen et al., 2020;Jones et al., 2021). In an acoustic levitator, high-frequency sound waves generated by a piezo-electric radiator reflect from a concave-shaped reflector to generate a standing wave. The latter produces acoustic radiation pressure on the particle, levitating and trapping it against the gravitational force. It has been reported that a single particle can be firmly trapped by acoustic levitation under 15 h continuous irradiation (Tobon et al., 2017;Seng et al., 2018).

2.1.4 Deposited particles

In addition to single-particle levitation, deposited particles on a surface provide a convenient platform for single-particle Raman spectroscopy. While levitation can trap few particles for investigation, surface-based isolation affords a relatively large number of single particles, which can support further off-line

characterizations. However, the direct contact between particle and substrate may induce solute

nucleation or phase separation that causes unexpected modification in particulate morphology. Hence,

hydrophobic substrates are often used to study supersaturated aqueous droplets by reducing the particle

and substrate contact area. Investigations on photochemistry can be easily performed by coupling a

transparent substrate and an additional light source beneath the quartz window at a flow cell's bottom

(Gen et al., 2019b;Gen et al., 2020). A single particle can be retained for an infinite time deposited,

facilitating studies of slow processes in the atmosphere. However, Raman scattering from the substrate

could also show interference.

2.2 Raman spectroscopy

A single particle Raman spectroscopy set-up generally involves a laser for excitation, followed by

collection optics to detect the Raman signals analyzed by a spectrometer with a monochromator and a

CCD detector. The Raman peak location and intensity/area provide information on the speciation and

abundance of specific particulate components. Appendix A summarizes the Raman peak assignment of

representative atmospheric species. Raman peak can also shift its location (in wavenumber) and change

in the full width at half-maxima (FWHM) as a response to variations of local bonding environments,

such as molecular interaction and phase transition. Furthermore, Raman emissions from spherical

particles (e.g., levitated droplets) can be complicated by resonance modes at discrete wavelengths

triggered by cavity-enhanced Raman scattering (CERS) (Miles et al., 2012), or so-called size parameters

in the spectra. These resonant modes are often called morphology-dependent resonance (MDRs) or

whispering gallery modes (WGMs) (Chan et al., 1991;Krieger et al., 2012). They can accurately

determine size with a resolution down to ~5 nm, refractive index, and even shell-core morphology of the

mixed organic-inorganic particles based on the Mie theory (Gorkowski et al., 2017;Rafferty and Preston,

2018;Sullivan et al., 2020;Gorkowski et al., 2020). The optical effects complicate the Raman

measurements for chemical analysis, although they provide additional information for the sizing and

refractive index of the particles based on Mie theory. We refer readers to the references for the

interactions between Mie scattering and Raman spectroscopy (Chan et al., 1991;Krieger et al.,

2012;Nadler et al., 2019). Micro-Raman is a combined system that uses an optical microscope for guiding

the laser to analyte particles and collect Raman scattering from the same microscope connected to a

spectrometer. The Raman scattering signal-to-noise ratio can be enhanced since the incident laser energy

241   is focused on a small volume through a high magnification (and short working distance) objective.

242   Furthermore, 2D Raman imaging is possible in studying particles in the order of tens of microns (Eom

243   et al., 2016;Zhao et al., 2018). Confocal Raman micro-spectroscopy eliminates the Raman scattering

244   from volumes other than the focal volume by configuring additional slits in the spectrometer. Confocal

245   Raman provides depth profiles of constituent information of the particle (Scolaro et al., 2009).

246

247   This paper focuses on the use of single-particle Raman spectroscopy to examine the physical and

248   chemical processes of atmospheric particles. We describe techniques of particle maneuvering that allow

249   single-particle Raman spectroscopy such as EDB, deposited particles, and optical trapping. However, it

250   is not our intention to conduct a detailed examination of the application of these techniques beyond

251   single-particle Raman spectroscopy. Hence, in this review, we put less emphasis on literature related to

252   other applications of these trapping techniques. We focus on investigating these physical and chemical

253   processes of particles by Raman instead of the particle properties or detailed descriptions of these

254   processes investigated by other techniques. The overall aim of the paper is to introduce single-particle

255   Raman spectroscopy as a useful tool to examine a host of processes of atmospheric relevance.

256

257   **3 Characterization of single particles**

258   **3.1 Hygroscopicity and phase transition**

259   Depending on the environmental RH, type of solutes, and size of the particles (Kelvin effect),

260   atmospheric particles can absorb/release an appropriate amount of water to reach equilibrium with the

261   gas phase, i.e., the partial water vapor pressure above the particle surface equals to that of the gas phase.

262   Hygroscopic properties include water uptake/evaporation and phase transition as a response to changes

263   in ambient RH. Upon water uptake/evaporation, the particle size change alters the particulate capacity in

264   scattering light, and particles can also be activated to cloud condensation nuclei (Tang et al., 2019). In

265   this paper, we focus on subsaturated (RH <100%) environments. The phase states determine the water

266   uptake behaviors of the atmospheric particles (Pajunoja et al., 2016;Rosati et al., 2020). They can be

267   generally divided into liquid (i.e., aqueous), crystalline, and amorphous (e.g., ultra-viscous, gel, rubber,

268   glasses). Both crystalline and amorphous particles are solids, but only the latter can absorb water

269   reversibly, while the former shows hysteresis in water uptake. At increasing RH, water uptake increases

270   the aerosol liquid water (ALW) content of deliquescent/amorphous particles and their size and ability to

scatter light. A recent study showed that the poor visibility during haze in the North China Plain is positively correlated to the ALW(Wu et al., 2018b). When crystalline particles are exposed to increasing RH, they will initially adsorb a small amount of water on its surface, the so-called surface adsorbed water (SAW), and then uptake a significant amount of water vapor abruptly to become aqueous droplets at the deliquescence RH (DRH). The DRH is the RH at which a droplet attains the saturated salt concentration, ignoring the influence of the Kelvin effect, which is often the case for single-particle Raman analysis (particle size > 10 μm). At decreasing RH, a droplet loses water to become supersaturated and finally may effloresce to form crystalline particles at the efflorescence RH (ERH). Typical inorganic atmospheric components of $(NH_4)_2SO_4$, NH_4NO_3 and NaCl deliquesce at ~80%, ~62% and ~75% RH but effloresce at 34-48%, 0-30% and 39-54%, respectively. Many studies show that nitrates and some organics do not effloresce even at low RH (e.g., below 5%) (Mikhailov et al., 2009;Yeung and Chan, 2010). In general, organics with high solubility (e.g., malonic acid) tend to remain a supersaturated liquid state or amorphous state at low RH (Krieger et al., 2012). Unlike DRH, which is thermodynamically well defined, ERH is a stochastic property that relates to the kinetics of nucleation and presence of impurities. It has been reported that sucrose crystals deliquesce at 85.6%RH upon humidification, but the aqueous droplets turn into a glassy amorphous state upon drying instead of forming crystallized solids (Zobrist et al., 2011). Using EDB and optical trap experiments, hygroscopic changes and phase transition RH values that involve rapid changes in mass or size can be measured by the balancing voltage and light scattering, respectively. The growth factor (GF) in terms of mass or size ratios as a function of water activity or RH, DRH, and ERH can be easily determined by changes in mass/size and the light scattering pattern (Chan et al., 2005;Mitchem et al., 2006;Marsh et al., 2017).

While GF, DRH, and ERH measurements are readily made for mixed particles using EDB and optical traps, the formation of mixed-phase particles before full deliquescence is more complicated. For example, unlike the corresponding single inorganic salts, NaCl-malonic acid and $(NH_4)_2SO_4$-malonic acid mixed particles absorb a significant amount of water before their DRH since malonic acid absorbs water reversibly without crystallization (Lee et al., 2008a). However, this stepwise water uptake and phase transition behaviors could not be explained by EDB/optical levitation due to the lack of chemical characterization. Raman spectroscopy offers complementary information on the water uptake behaviors and phase states of Raman active species (Yeung and Chan, 2010;Li et al., 2017). For example, the water-

to- solute ratio (WSR) as a function of ambient RH can be easily determined from the integrated peak area ratio of the water $v(O–H)$ to that of the solute (e.g., sulfate, nitrate) after proper calibration. Also, the full width at half maxima (FWHM) of the characteristic peaks is sensitive to the phase state of the solute. In general, a species in the liquid phase has a larger FWHM than in the solid phase because the less compact molecular arrangement allows minor variations in vibration. In Fig. 1a,b, as the RH decreased to 39.5% for ammonium sulfate (AS) and 19% for ammonium nitrate (AN), crystallization can be inferred by the red-shift and decrease in FWHM of sulfate and nitrate peaks, and the disappearance of water peak. On this basis, the mixed-phase particle prior to full deliquescence can be characterized by FWHM of different Raman-active components. For instance, Ling and Chan found an increased FWHM of nitrate peak ($\sim$730 cm^{-1}) at $\sim$67% RH, followed by an increased FWHM of sulfate peak ($\sim$450 cm^{-1}) at $\sim$76 RH% for mixed-phase AS-AN particles when RH increased (Fig. 1c,d). These changes indicate that AN deliquesced before AS did upon humidification, and the mixed-phase AS-AN particle was composed mainly of aqueous AN and crystalline AS. The accuracy of single-particle Raman spectroscopy in determining hygroscopicity has been verified by thermodynamic models such as E-AIM and UNIFAC (Peng et al., 2001;Yeung and Chan, 2010). There are numerous hygroscopicity applications on various specific systems, including model inorganics, organics, and their mixtures (Chu et al., 2015;Laskina et al., 2015;Wang et al., 2021b;Tobon et al., 2021;Zhang et al., 2021a;Ashraf et al., 2021) mineral dust (Liu et al., 2008), secondary organic aerosols (Wu et al., 2020), atmospheric-relevant biological macromolecules (Mael et al., 2021) using single particle Raman spectroscopy. It should be noted that evaporation of some components and precipitation of some salts could occur during the RH cycling in hygroscopicity measurements (Li et al., 2017;Cai and Zhao, 2018;Ma et al., 2019a;Ma et al., 2019b;Wu et al., 2020;Li et al., 2021). Single-particle Raman spectroscopy can probe such processes in-situ by the disappearance of some characteristic peaks (evaporation) or changes of their FWHH (precipitation) (Braban et al., 2003;Wang et al., 2017).

3.2 Solid-phase transition

In addition to liquid-solid phase changes, transitions can occur between solid phases, from a metastable one to a stable one at a specific temperature. Many organics are known to form polymorphs, defined as solids with the same chemical composition but distinctive properties such as thermal stability and solubility due to different structures (Krieger et al., 2012). Different polymorphs of the same compound

can exhibit different Raman characteristics, which can identify different solid states and their transition. For example, crystalline glutaric acid (GA) particles could exist as the metastable α-form and the thermodynamically stable β-form at room temperature, and α-form GA tends to transfer into β-form. Using EDB-Raman, Chan et al. (2006) coated GA on AS particles by coagulation of small GA particles formed by nucleation. Raman spectra showed the existence of α-form GA in the freshly coated particles, but then β-form was detected after a deliquescence - crystallization cycle (Chan et al., 2006). Ling and Chan (2008) reported the formation of the α-form GA solid in a freshly crystallized GA-AS particle. The α-form GA solid gradually transformed to the β-form at 60% RH in 3 h at room temperature (Ling and Chan, 2008). Furthermore, Yeung et al. (2010) examined the effects of polymorphism on the hygroscopic properties of GA particles using Micro-Raman (Yeung et al., 2010). By evaporation at room temperature, α-form and β-form solid particles were formed ($\alpha:\beta \approx 5:1$). It was observed that the α-form deliquesced at 85-86% RH, whereas the β-form deliquesced at 90% RH. Furthermore, the α-form is transformed to the β-form at 86% RH instead of achieving full deliquescence (Fig. 2). This solid phase transition behavior was used to explain the discrepancies of DRH values of glutaric acid particles reported based on different literature measurements (Cruz and Pandis, 2000;Peng et al., 2001;Choi and Chan, 2002;Parsons et al., 2004;Zardini et al., 2008;Treuel et al., 2009). Polymorphism also exists in atmospheric relevant inorganics. For example, AN can exist in five stable polymorphic forms with distinct Raman spectra, depending on the temperature. In atmospheric research, very little attention has been paid to the solid phase transitions of AN because phase IV AN particle is stable over a wide range of tropospheric temperatures ($-17°C\sim32°C$) (Wu et al., 2007). Nevertheless, Wu and Chan (2008) reported that the KNO_3/AN mixed particles undergo the IV-III transition under ambient temperatures at a relatively high mass percentage of KNO_3(≥7.4 wt%), or even crystallize directly in phase III from droplets with a further increase in the mass percentage of KNO_3 (Wu and Chan, 2008).

Another typical solid phase transition is between stable/metastable double salts. Like metastable/stable polymorphs, metastable double salts show Raman characteristics different from stable ones, likely due to specific molecular interactions. Ling et al. (2007) observed the double-salt 3AN·AS, not predicted from thermodynamics, in the freshly crystallized mixed single particles of AN and AS using single-particle Raman spectroscopy (Ling and Chan, 2007). The existence of double salts indicates that AN and AS likely crystalized simultaneously. The degree of metastability could depend upon the crystallization

361 processes of the particles. Besides, it takes several hours to more than a day, depending on RH, for a

362 freshly crystallized metastable AS-AN double salt particle to reach its stable form, suggesting a high

363 possibility that metastable solids persist in the atmosphere when the ambient RH is sufficiently low. The

364 AN-AS double salts were recently reported in ambient particles in Beijing (Sun et al., 2019b;Wang et al.,

365 2021a).

366

3.3 Molecular interactions between particulate water and solutes

368 In general, characterizations on phase transitions relies on the sensitivity of Raman spectroscopy in

369 probing the bonding environment of components in the particles. Raman can also characterize the

370 interactions between the solutes and particulate water, such as hydrogen/ionic bonding. For example, the

371 Raman shift of strongly hydrogen-bonded water (~3500 cm^{-1}) is generally higher than that of water

372 monomers (~3300 cm^{-1}) (Zhang and Chan, 2003). At low RH, the elevated concentration of electrolytes

373 leads to more significant disruption of the hydrogen bonding environment of the water molecules,

374 resulting in a shift of OH stretching peak at 3480cm^{-1} to higher frequencies. In contrast, the low-

375 frequency shoulder at 3290 cm^{-1} diminishes. Thus, the shape of water peaks in Raman spectra can reflect

376 the ionic strength of the particle, which is an essential parameter for aerosol chemistry (Mitchem et al.,

377 2006;Mekic et al., 2020). The sensitive shift of water peak has also been used in studying ice nucleation

378 properties such as depositional freezing (Wise et al., 2010;Wise et al., 2012) and immersing freezing

379 (Knopf et al., 2002;Knopf et al., 2003). Specifically, while liquid water peaks are usually located at

380 ~3400cm^{-1} with a shoulder at a lower wavenumber, a sharp peak at ~3150 cm^{-1} with shoulder peaks at

381 ~3200cm^{-1} appears as water is frozen (Schill et al., 2014;Mael et al., 2019). Besides, ionic bonding of

382 inorganic salts (e.g., SO_4^{2-}, NO_3^-) can also be reflected by their Raman characteristics; and many of them

383 have been further supported by theoretical calculations (Yu et al., 2012;Wang et al., 2015b;Zhu et al.,

384 2018). For example, Zhang et al. observed a blue shift of sulfate and nitrate Raman peaks and an increase

385 in FWHM when the molar water to the solute ratio (WSR) in $MgSO_4$ and $Mg(NO_3)_2$ particles decreases

386 to less than six, the number of hydration of Mg^{2+} ions (Zhang and Chan, 2000;Zhang et al., 2004). These

387 observations were attributed to direct contacting ion pairs formed between Mg^{2+} and anions, without

388 water molecules between the ions. Besides, single-particle Raman spectroscopic analysis can reveal the

389 structural heterogeneity of droplets. Raman imaging suggested that the NO_3^- to Mg^{2+} ratio of the contact

390 ion pairs increases but the H_2O to Mg^{2+} ratio decreases as the surface of a highly supersaturated droplet

391 is approached (Zhang et al., 2004). Yeung and Chan (2010) reported that though no crystallization was

392 shown by glyoxylic acid particle even at 0% RH, a new C=O peak at ~1820cm^{-1} appeared together with

393 the aqueous C=O peak at 1735 cm^{-1}, possibly indicating the presence of anhydrate (Yeung and Chan,

394 2010).

395

396 **3.4 Liquid-liquid phase separation**

397 As mentioned above, partial crystallization can lead to a separation of solid and liquid mixed phases.

398 Separation of two or even more liquid phases, namely liquid-liquid phase separation (LLPS), is also

399 possible (Song et al., 2012a;Song et al., 2018;Huang et al., 2021;Ma et al., 2021). LLPS can be triggered

400 by the interactions between inorganic, organic solutes and particulate water in mixed particles (You

401 et al., 2012;Renbaum-Wolff et al., 2016). This phenomenon is mainly attributed to the low solubility

402 of some non-polar or weakly polar organics, especially in the presence of inorganic salts, which

403 may further decrease the solubilities of organics as the salting-out effects (Setschenow, 1889).

404

405 Optical microscopy (as a part of a single particle Raman microscope) can directly indicate LLPS by the

406 contrasting colors on appearance, based on the different refractive indices of materials in different phases

407 (You et al., 2012). Single-particle (micro-) Raman spectroscopy can examine LLPS via spatial scanning

408 (micro-Raman), optical imaging (micro-Raman), Raman imaging, and whisper gallery modes (WGMs)

409 with additional chemical information of the different phases (Bertram et al., 2011;Song et al., 2012b).

410 Spatial scanning records distinct micro-Raman spectra at different locations of the particle and

411 reveals LLPS (Bertram et al., 2011;Wu et al., 2018a) such as core-shell structures (e.g., an aqueous

412 core surrounded by a BC-containing organic shell) (Brunamonti et al., 2015). However, Raman

413 spatial scanning requires accurate focusing of the laser onto different targeted phases, which can be

414 difficult when phases are separated into multiple small inclusions (Buajarern et al., 2007b).

415

416 Using spatial scanning and optical imaging, Ma et al. (2021) reported an organic shell-aqueous core

417 LLPS in deposited 1, 2, 6-hexanetriol/ammonium sulfate mixed particles. However, different

418 substrates for deposited particles could affect their LLPS behavior (Ma et al., 2021). Though LLPS

419 of an organic/AS mixed particle has been observed on both hydrophobic (i.e., PTFE) and

420 hydrophilic (i.e., glass) substrates, the former shows an organic shell with an AS inner core while

421   the latter shows an opposite configuration (Zhou et al., 2014b). To eliminate interaction with

422   substrates, Ishizaka et al. (2021) used levitated droplets and found both core-shell and partially

423   engulfed LLPS. The observed configurations of two phases are well consistent with thermodynamic

424   predictions based on interfacial tensions and relative volume ratios of two immiscible phases

425   (Ishizaka et al., 2021).

426

427   Another approach for identifying LLPS is Raman imaging of the whole particle in one single

428   measurement. Typical Raman measurements bin the vertical pixels of a CCD to enhance the signal to

429   noise ratio while the horizontal pixels represent the wave number after chromatic dispersion by a grating.

430   Zhang et al. (2004) used collection optics to obtain an image of a particle in an EDB on the slit of a

431   monochromator. Instead of using vertical binning, the vertical pixels registered the vertical profile of the

432   Raman scattering (e.g., edge to center to edge) of the particle (Zhang et al., 2004). Chu and Chan (2017)

433   reported that the core-shell phase separation in a mixed sucrose-ammonium sulfate particle with a sucrose

434   molar fraction of 50% at <5% RH, but not at 70%RH. As shown in Fig. 3a, b (<5% RH), the accumulated

435   C-H signal on the two sides indicates the presence of an organic-rich coating and an organic-deficient

436   core. In contrast, the even distribution of the C-H signal in Fig. 3c (70% RH) suggests that the particle

437   is likely homogeneous (Chu and Chan, 2017a). Kalume et al. (2018) observed temporally resolved LLPS

438   in a diethyl phthalate and glycerol mixed droplet. Upon evaporation, diethyl phthalate migrated to the

439   surface and formed an outer layer and glycerol was more concentrated in the interior of the droplet

440   (Kalume et al., 2018).

441

442   Additionally, WGMs have also been utilized to infer the occurrence of LLPS and the specific

443   particle morphologies. For example, different resonance structures appear in the Raman spectra

444   when core-shell or engulfed phase separation occur (Buajarern et al., 2007a, b;Kwamena et al.,

445   2010;Song et al., 2013;Marcolli and Krieger, 2020). Sharps peaks generated by WGMs in spectra can

446   be found if the spatial distribution of particulate species is symmetric, such as those in core-shell

447   separated and homogeneously mixed particles though the number, location, and intensity of WGMs

448   peaks are different. In contrast, the engulfed phase-separated particles do not show any WGMs

449   peaks (Sullivan et al., 2020). Utilizing WGMs, Steward et al. (2015) reported the transition between

450   partially-engulfed and core-shell structure at different RH values (Stewart et al., 2015). However,

451 these analyses focus on WGMs but not Raman as a chemical probing technique.

452

453 **3.5 Determination of pH**

454 The pH, defined as the activity of proton in aerosol particles, can also be inferred from Raman spectra

455 based on the intensity of the conjugate acid/base ion pairs. Sulfate/bisulfate has been used most frequently.

456 The pH can be determined by substituting the conjugate ion pair concentrations and its dissociation

457 coefficient into Henderson-Hasselbalch (H-H) (Radić and Prkić, 2012), Debye-Hückel theory, and

458 specific ion interaction theory equations, respectively (Ciavatta, 1980;Rindelaub et al., 2016;Craig et al.,

459 2017;Craig et al., 2018;Coddens et al., 2019;Chang et al., 2020a). The latter two are more suitable to

460 supersaturated particles since non-ideality has been considered. Rindelaub et al. (2016) reported direct

461 measurements of pH in individual deposited particles according to sulfate/bisulfate peaks in Raman

462 spectra, and its variation with RH (Rindelaub et al., 2016). Craig et al. (2017) extended this approach to

463 a range of atmospherically relevant inorganic and organic acid-base equilibria systems covering a wide

464 range of pH (-1~10) (Craig et al., 2017). To eliminate the artifact of contacts between the particle and

465 the substrate, Coddens et al. (2019) determined the pH of trapped particles via titration by coalescence

466 of droplets containing strong acids (Coddens et al., 2019). Boyer et al. (2020) further utilized the WGMs

467 for determining the solute concentration in real-time and achieve uncertainties in pH measurements of

468 picoliter droplets ranging from ±0.03 to 0.06 pH units (Boyer et al., 2020). Very recently, Cui et al. (2021)

469 reported that water can be used to probe pH in individual model aerosol particles (e.g., $(NH_4)_2SO_4$, NaCl),

470 since the water bands are affected by other components (e.g., ions), as discussed in Sec.3.3. Specifically,

471 the broad water peak at 2600-3800 cm^{-1} could comprise many overlapping peaks, representing O-H

472 vibration of water molecules in different local environments. The addition of solutes affects the local

473 environment of water molecules, and changes the relative intensities of the overlapped peaks. Hence, the

474 activity of specific solutes can be obtained by analyzing the overlapped water peaks after rigorous

475 calibration; and the pH of the aerosol particle can be calculated (Cui et al., 2021).

476

477 **4 Multiphase reactions**

478 In Section 3, applications of characterizing single particles have been reviewed. This section mainly

479 focuses on the "processes" occurring on single particles. Taking water-solute interactions as an example,

480 hygroscopicity describes the ability of solutes to absorb water upon equilibrium at fixed RH. Water

uptake is a dynamic process, although it is generally too quick to be a limiting step in most atmospheric applications. However, in some viscous matrixes, the water uptake rate could be reduced by orders of magnitude due to the limited diffusion (Chang et al., 2020b). Taking advantage of the different Raman characteristics of D_2O and H_2O, Davies and Wilson (2016) measured the diffusion coefficients of water molecules in trapped viscous particles by monitoring the isotopic exchange rate using Raman spectroscopy (Davies and Wilson, 2016). Determination of kinetic parameters of non-reactive processes such as partitioning coefficient, diffusion coefficient, and mass accommodation coefficient has been reviewed in another paper (Krieger et al., 2012). Hence, applications on probing multiphase reactions using single-particle Raman spectroscopy will be the focus below.

4.1 Multiphase formation of secondary inorganic aerosols (SIA)

Particulate sulfate and nitrate are two major secondary inorganic aerosols (SIA). They have dominant Raman peaks at ~980 cm^{-1} and ~1046 cm^{-1}, respectively. Probing multiphase formation of sulfate by single-particle Raman spectroscopy was first employed by Davis and co-workers for absorption of SO_2 by alkali-metal hydroxides particles (Aardahl and Davis, 1996). In atmospheric applications, particulate sulfate formation has been a debating topic since the currently proposed pathways, including O_3, OH radical, NO_2, H_2O_2, and transition metal ions (TMI) in cloud water, cannot entirely account for the high concentration of sulfate observed in haze events such as those in the North China Plain (NCP) (Cheng et al., 2016). Using single-particle micro-Raman spectroscopy, Chan and his group reported that oxidants including NO_2, N(III), OH radicals, etc., generated from particulate nitrate photolysis could effectively oxidize SO_2 to sulfate (Gen et al., 2019b;Gen et al., 2019c;Zhang et al., 2020a;Zheng et al., 2020b). Clear increase of the sulfate peak signal was identified in Raman spectra of UV irradiated nitrate particle (Fig. 4). Later, they also reported sulfate formation by multiphase oxidation of SO_2 during $FeCl_3$ photolysis (Gen et al., 2020). Angle et al. (2021) reported an enhanced sulfate formation in TMI-containing droplets compared to that in TMI bulk solutions. This enhancement is greater than that can be explained by the higher TMI/bisulfite concentrations in aerosol than in bulk. It suggests that surface effects and potentially aerosol pH gradients play important roles in the S(IV) oxidation process in aqueous aerosols (Angle et al., 2021).

The formation of nitrate has also been investigated. Zangmeister and Pemberton (2001) performed

kinetic analysis on the reactions between deposited NaCl particles and gaseous HNO$_3$ based on the increase of the nitrate peak (Zangmeister and Pemberton, 2001). Tang et al. (2014) coupled optical levitation with Raman spectroscopy to investigate N$_2$O$_5$ uptake on SiO$_2$ particle as a function of RH and found that particulate nitrate formation increased as RH increased. They conclude that the water content affects the partitioning of HNO$_3$ between the gas phase and condensed phases (i.e., adsorbed phase and aqueous phase). More surface adsorbed water layers block the reactive sites for N$_2$O$_5$ uptake but promote HNO$_3$ dissolution (Tang et al., 2014). Scolaro et al. (2009) studied the three-dimensional evolution of the NaCl(100) surface during its reaction with NO$_2$ as a function of RH, using confocal Raman imaging combined with non-contact atomic force microscopy (AFM) (Scolaro et al., 2009). At 0% RH, a NaNO$_3$ monolayer capping the NaCl(100) surface formed. NaNO$_3$ tetrahedral crystals (<0.5 μm) formed at 45% RH, and supermicron NaNO$_3$ rhombohedral plates were obtained under the H$_2$O multilayer regime (45%<RH<75%). At RH>80%, both crystalline and aqueous NO$_3^-$ were found. Reactions were accelerated in the presence of water vapor due to the formation of reactive HNO$_3$ by NO$_2$ hydrolysis. Ault et al. (2014) reported that individual nascent sea spray aerosol particles showed different reactivity toward HNO$_3$ and N$_2$O$_5$, likely due to compositional heterogeneity. After the same exposure of gaseous reactants, some particles showed intense ν(NO$_3^-$) peak, whereas ν(C-H) is still the dominant mode in some other particles (Ault et al., 2014).

There are also investigations on the simultaneous formation of particulate sulfate and nitrate. Zhao et al. (2018) reported a multi-step reaction mechanism of oxidation of SO$_2$ by NO$_2$ on deposited CaCO$_3$ particles(Zhao et al., 2018). Further, Yu and Zhao et al. (2018) reported that the uptake coefficient of SO$_2$ on CaCO$_3$ particles in the presence of O$_2$/NO$_2$ mixture was much higher than that without O$_2$ (Yu et al., 2018). The synergy of NO$_2$ and O$_2$, which involved mechanisms such as chain reactions, resulted in much faster sulfate formation than the sum of the reaction rates with NO$_2$ and with O$_2$ alone. These reports show the usefulness of single-particle Raman spectroscopy in studying the multiphase formation of particulate sulfate and nitrate. It is worth mentioning that degradation of organo-sulfate has been proposed to produce particulate inorganic sulfate recently (Xu et al., 2020b) and organo-sulfate functional groups are also Raman-active (Bondy et al., 2018). Raman spectroscopy may find applications in the study of organo-sulfates.

4.2 Multiphase formation of SOA

Most of the organic compounds are Raman-active though some of them may not have strong signals. Some generate fluorescence in general orders of magnitude stronger than Raman emissions, masking useful Raman features of particles. The characteristic peaks of a single organic compound are generally more than that of an inorganic one due to its complex molecular vibration modes, and the reaction products may further complicate spectra analysis. Therefore, investigation on the multiphase formation of SOA by Raman spectroscopy is limited. However, though identifying the molecular nature of the products is difficult, single-particle Raman spectroscopy can provide useful information during secondary organic aerosol (SOA) formation. For example, Lee et al. (2008) observed a gradually elevating baseline in Raman spectra during acid-catalyzed octanol uptake by levitated sulfuric acid particles at 10% RH but not at 50% RH (Lee et al., 2008b). Though the speciation of products could not be resolved, the increasing fluorescence is evident, attributable to the formed SOA in the particles. Using an EDB, Chan and Chan (2011) examined the dependence of nonanal on the presence of hydrophilic and hydrophobic organics in acidic mixed organic-sulfuric acid particles. The presence of hydrophobic organic materials (oleic acid and its reaction products with sulfuric acid) enhanced SOA formation by reactive uptake of nonanal, likely through an enhanced dissolution of nonanal in the particles (Chan and Chan, 2011). In contrast, levoglucosan, a hydrophilic organic, did not increase the uptake coefficient of nonanal. It is suggested that acid-catalyzed reactive uptake should be examined with the explicit consideration of the role of particle-phase organics that are either initially present or accumulated as a reaction product. Using micro-Raman, Olson et al. (2019) investigated the uptake of isoprene epoxydiol (IEPOX) by α-pinene SOA/toluene SOA-coated AS particles (Olson et al., 2019). Before the uptake, both coated AS particles show core-shell morphology. $v(\text{N-H})$ and $v(\text{SO}_4^{2-})$ were found at $\sim$3200cm^{-1} and $\sim$976cm^{-1} in the particle core, while strong $v(\text{C-H})$ at 2800-3000cm^{-1} and other moderate/weak stretches of C-H were found in the shell region. After the uptake, $v(\text{C-H})$ and $v(\text{RO}-\text{SO}_3)$ were found in the particle core, indicating SOA formation, such as organo-sulfate. No organo-sulfate was detected in shell regions of both types of particles, although decreases of $v(\text{C-H})$ peak were apparent. Generally, Raman analysis is useful for kinetic analysis of reactions (e.g., measuring uptake coefficients), but it is challenging to reveal complicated mechanisms due to the limited molecular identification. For better examining the reaction mechanism, deposited particles can be extracted for off-line analysis using mass spectrometry (MS) (Li et al., 2008;Chan et al., 2013).

571

4.3 Multiphase oxidation of aerosol particles

In addition to reactive uptake of SOA precursors, single-particle Raman spectroscopy has also been used to explore the uptake of oxidants by organic aerosol particles. So far, the reported studies are limited to ozonolysis. Raman spectroscopy is well suited in ozonolysis studies because the C=C bonds and the peroxide groups are Raman-active, and ozonolysis does not generate strongly fluorescent products. Using single-particle Raman spectroscopy, Lee and Chan (2007) performed in-situ observations of the particle mass, hygroscopicity, morphology of the oleic acid (Lee and Chan, 2007a), linolenic acid, and linoleic acid particles (Lee and Chan, 2007b) during ozonolysis. They found that low ozone concentration (∼200−250 ppb) with a longer exposure period (20 h) favors autoxidation to form C=C−C=C groups; but an extremely high ozone concentration (∼10 ppm) at shorter exposure time (2 h) tends to form carboxylic acids (C=O), secondary ozonide (O-O), hydroxyalkyl hydroperoxide (O-H), etc (Enami and Colussi, 2017;Qiu et al., 2020). Chu et al. (2019) further examined the interchangeability between ozone concentration and exposure time by studying ozonolysis of linoleic acid particles in a broader range of experimental conditions. They found the interchangeability holds at ozone exposure ≤ 500 ppb h and [O_3] ≤ 100 ppb for the formation of autoxidation products containing conjugated diene structures but does not hold for the decay of parent linoleic acid or at higher [O_3] (Chu et al., 2019). These results indicate that extrapolating experimental results of the ozonolysis under high [O_3] conditions to ambient levels should be carried out with caution. Single-particle Raman spectroscopy also enables us to infer the volatilization of some ozonolysis products. For example, Lee and Chan (2007) found that the mass of oleic acid particles was observed to decrease with time while that of linoleic acid and linolenic acid increased on the contrary, which could be potentially explained by the different volatility of the ozonolysis products (Lee and Chan, 2007b). King et al. (2004) reported an optical tweezers study of ozonolysis of oleic acid and synthetic seawater droplets. They found clear Raman signatures indicating nonanoic acid and nonanal production, followed by their gradual disappearance, which is also likely due to the volatilization (King et al., 2004). Furthermore, Dennis-Smither et al. (2012) used optical tweezers to study the oxidation of oleic acid droplets containing an inorganic seed with a time-resolution of 1 s to resolve the reactive loss of ozone and the evaporative loss of products. The oleic acid ozonolysis was completed in ∼3000 s, but the decrease of droplet volume still lasts for an additional ∼5000 s due to the slow volatilization of the products (Dennis-Smither et al., 2012).

Chan and Chan (2012) studied the roles of the phase state and water content in the ozonolysis of maleic

acid (MA) and AS mixed particles. Aqueous MA was found to be more reactive toward ozone than

crystalline MA. Interestingly, they also found that higher water content favors more efficient ozonolysis,

although the concentration of MA is accordingly lower (Chan and Chan, 2012). Furthermore, ozonolysis

of optically trapped bioaerosol particles has also been reported. In general, lipids and proteins show

distinct v(C-H) peaks at 2855 cm^{-1} and 2928 cm^{-1}, respectively (Kline and Treado, 1997;Rygula et al.,

2013;Czamara et al., 2015). The ratio of these peaks can be thus used for inferring the different

susceptibilities of lipids and proteins during ozonolysis oxidation (Gong et al., 2019). The products

derived from oxidations such as carbonyls (C=O; ~1700 cm^{-1}) (Lee and Chan, 2007b) and oligomer of

cysteine (C-S; ~662cm^{-1}) (Movasaghi et al., 2007;Kampf et al., 2015) are also detected.

There are also studies exploring other organic surrogates of atmospheric aerosol with more complicated

structures. For example, King et al. (2008) measured the uptake coefficients of ozone on fumarate and

benzoate droplets (as a proxy of HULIS-containing aerosol) and α-pinene droplets (a proxy of biogenic

organic aerosol) (King et al., 2008). Different reaction products such as carbonate were identified in

Raman spectra, though the chemical characterization is not comprehensive due to their volatility and the

detection limits. The reaction of α-pinene in the droplet phase was more than one order faster than in

bulk aqueous solutions, likely due to more effective diffusion of ozone in the gas phase and more efficient

mass accommodation at the air-droplet interface (King et al., 2008). Milsom et al. (2021) reported the

ozonolysis of fatty acid-soap mixed particles, using oleic acid and sodium oleate as models. In these

particles, the strong interactions between the soap carboxylate and the carboxylic acid form crystalline

structures (Milsom et al., 2021). Upon ozonolysis, the decay of C=C (~1600cm^{-1}) was faster in liquid

oleic acid droplets than crystalline oleic acid-soap particles, although the crystalline structure was

eventually broken by ozonolysis. Uraoka et al. (2017) studied the multiphase reactions of optically-

trapped soot particles with ozone and OH radicals. C=O vibrations were observed under both ozone and

OH exposure. The graphitic domain was suggested to undergo OH oxidation based on the increase in the

ratio of the disorder (D) to the graphite (G) domain from Raman spectra (Uraoka et al., 2017).

4.4 Amine/Ammonia reactions

631 Ammonia and amines are the most abundant alkaline gases in the atmosphere. They play a significant

632 role in new particle formation and buffering aerosol pH by neutralization of acidic particles (Kirkby et

633 al., 2011;Almeida et al., 2013;Zhang et al., 2015;Kerminen et al., 2018;Zheng et al., 2020a). There are

634 three types of reactions involving ammonia and amines: (1) Neutralization reaction between acidic

635 particles and ammonia/amines; (2) Displacement of ammonia by amines from ammonium salt particles

636 and vice versa from aminium salt particles; (3) Reactions between ammonia/amines and dissolved di-

637 carbonyls or between gaseous di-carbonyls and ammonium/aminium salt particles, both would result in

638 the formation of colored compounds (i.e., Brown carbon; BrC).

639

640 Based on the strong vibration signal of the C-H bond (~2900cm^{-1}, sharp peak) from amine/aminium salts

641 and the N-H bond (~2800-3300 cm^{-1}, broad peak), the uptake of amine and ammonia can be easily studied

642 using single-particle Raman spectroscopy. Sauerwein and Chan (2017) explored the role of phase state

643 in simultaneous uptake of ammonia and dimethylamine (DMA) by acidic particles (e.g., sulfuric acid

644 and oxalic acid) (Sauerwein and Chan, 2017). Anhydrous acidic particles were inert and took up DMA

645 and ammonia presumably by adsorption only. The uptake rates of DMA and ammonia by aqueous acidic

646 droplets were found comparable initially, but once the droplets were neutralized, the stronger base DMA

647 displaced some of the particulate ammonium. On the other hand, if crystallization took place during the

648 uptake, DMA uptake was inhibited, but continuous ammonia uptake gradually displaced the particle

649 DMA ions.

650

651 Chan and Chan (2013) reported that the exchange reactions of ammonia/amine vapors in aqueous

652 particles were reversible, and the exchange rates of aqueous particles were, in general, higher than those

653 of their corresponding solid counterparts. Compared with crystalline solids (e.g., methylammonium

654 sulfate), amorphous solid (e.g., diethylammonium sulfate) was found with a higher exchange rate, likely

655 due to the less compact molecular structure (Chan and Chan, 2013). Chu and Chan (2017) further

656 examined the effect of a hydrophilic viscous organic surrogate and a hydrophobic organic coating on

657 DMA uptake by AS. Both the viscous materials and the fresh and aged organic coating retarded DMA

658 uptake by mass transfer limitation (Chu and Chan, 2017b, a). The uptake of DMA by crystalized AS

659 particles at 10-30% RH resulted in the deliquescence of the particles, likely due to the presence of surface

660 adsorbed water (SAW) that promoted the dissolution of DMA. Once dimethylaminium sulfate is formed,

661   it absorbs more water since it is more hygroscopic than AS and further promoted DMA uptake (Chu and

662   Chan, 2017a). As crystalline solids are generally considered inert towards reactions, this finding indicates

663   that SAW on crystals can serve as a medium to facilitate gas uptake.

664

665   BrC has attracted increasing attention due to its atmospheric abundance and capacity in regulating

666   radiative balance (Laskin et al., 2015). The reactions between dicarbonyls and ammonium/aminium-

667   containing salt particles can form BrC. Gen et al. (2018) investigated the multiphase uptake of glyoxal

668   by ammonium salt-containing particles using Micro-Raman spectroscopy. They found a gradual

669   elevation of the baseline, which was attributed to the formation of a fluorescent BrC (i.e., 2,2′-

670   biimidazole, BI), based on off-line analysis by UV-VIS spectroscopy and fluorescence spectroscopy

671   (Gen et al., 2018a). The reduction in ALW at low RH increases the glyoxal uptake rate via the enhanced

672   "salting-in" effect and the BI formation rate by facilitating dehydration reactions. Mabato et al. (2019)

673   examined glyoxal uptake by methylaminium salt-containing particle. Although the "salting-in" effect

674   was also found in methylaminium salt-containing particles, enhanced BI formation was not observed,

675   likely due to the higher hygroscopicity of methylaminium salt (i.e., higher ALW content) than ammonium

676   salt (Mabato et al., 2019).

677

678   **4.5 Photochemistry of aerosol particles**

679   A particular type of aerosol particle reaction that deserves special attention is photochemical reactions,

680   which can be initiated by irradiation of the particles. Nitrate can be photolyzed under atmospheric

681   irradiation ($\lambda > 290$nm). Nitrate photolysis proceeds via three channels: one produces NO_2 and OH

682   radicals, another produces NO_2^- and $O(^3P)$ and the last generates $ONOO^-$. The third channel's quantum

683   yield is considered negligible compared with the former two since ONOO is unstable. It has been

684   reported that NO_2^- and ONOO- peaks increased, but NO_3^- peaks decreased in the Raman spectra of

685   acoustically levitated nitrate particles irradiated by UV (Tobon et al., 2017). NO_2 does not have a large

686   absorption cross-section, but it may be hydrolyzed into NO_2^- (Tobon et al., 2017;Seng et al., 2018;Gómez

687   Castaño et al., 2019). Most nitrate photolysis products are oxidants, so their ability to initiate oxidation

688   reactions has also been explored (Gen et al., 2019b;Gen et al., 2019c;Zhang et al., 2020a). The production

689   of sulfate via nitrate photolysis was discussed earlier. Recently, Zhang et al. (2021) reported a prominent

690   formate production by glyoxal oxidation during particulate nitrate photolysis, instead of the more

commonly found oxalic acids oligomers in the oxidation of glyoxal in bulk solutions (Zhang et al., 2021b). Furthermore, Liang et al. (2021) reported nitrate photolysis in particles containing sucrose, which was used as a surrogate for atmospheric viscous organics. They found that the viscosity of the particle did not reduce the nitrate photolysis rate, but it limited the diffusion of gaseous products (e.g., NO_x, NO_y) from nitrate photolysis. At a high sucrose fraction and 30%RH, the production of these gaseous products and the particles' viscosity transformed the droplets into "hollow and enlarged" semi-solid particles (Liang et al., 2021).

Size dependence of nitrate photochemistry has been recently reported, based on single-particle Raman spectroscopy. Tobon et al. studied photolysis acoustically levitated nitrate particles (40~80μm) at 254nm UV radiation. No change in Raman spectra for 2 h. In contrast, smaller particles (5~8μm) trapped optically yielded various Raman peaks of nitrate photolysis products (Tobon et al., 2017;Gómez Castaño et al., 2019). The slow photolysis in the larger nitrate particles was attributed to the self-inhibited surface process. Additionally, an uneven distribution of NO_2^- inside the smaller particle was also observed through Raman mapping (Gómez Castaño et al., 2019). Organics in the aerosol particle may also decompose under light. For example, Parmentier et al. reported photodegradation of optically trapped oleic acid droplets under 532 nm and 660 nm irradiation, likely initiated by photosensitization. However, they cautioned that degradation loss of optically trapped particles might be artifacts (Parmentier et al., 2021). The photo-decay of light-absorbing particulate matters is also of great interest in understanding their fate in the atmosphere. However, there are very limited studies of atmospheric photochemical reactions using Raman spectroscopy, partly because of the need for complementary chemical speciation for detailed mechanistic studies.

5 Enhanced Raman spectroscopy

Though Raman has been used to study physical and chemical processes of atmospheric particles, most of the studies used large particles (dozens of microns) and focused on lab-generated particles with a few representative components. That is primarily because of the intrinsic diffraction limitation of Raman measurements that the laser beam cannot be effectively focused to a spot smaller than its wavelength and thus limits the detection of particles to larger than 1 micron or so. Fluorescence can also be a complication in some chemical systems.

722   Various methods have been developed to improve the Raman signal-to-noise ratios and the spatial

723   resolution in other research fields such as material science and biology. Surface-enhanced Raman

724   spectroscopy (SERS) and Tip-enhanced Raman spectroscopy (TERS) have been recently employed in

725   atmospheric research. SERS and TERS enhance Raman emissions by the localized surface plasmon

726   resonances using noble metal nanoparticles (NPs) to provide "hot spots" near the contacting sites between

727   the analyte and NPs (Ault and Axson, 2017). According to the SERS electromagnetic (EM) enhancement

728   theory, the relationship between the SERS intensity (I) and the local EM strength (E) follows $I \propto |E|^4$.

729   The relationship between E and the distance between NPs and analytes (D) is described as $E \propto (1/D)$

730   (Zhou et al., 2015). Hence, maximizing E and minimizing D without inducing significant perturbation

731   to the sample is the primary goal. In addition to this physical enhancement based on the electromagnetic

732   field, Raman signals can also be enhanced chemically. Specifically, molecular/ionic species can attach

733   to the surface of NPs, distorting the molecular structure and increasing the absorption cross-section.

734   Consequently, the Raman signal of an adsorbed species can be enhanced, potentially accompanied by a

735   peak shift (Craig et al., 2015;Gen and Chan, 2017).

736

737   SERS enables the measurements of single particles smaller than 1 micron. Craig et al. (2015) found that

738   the signals from individual submicron (down to 0.6 μm) particles could be effectively detected with

739   intensity enhancement (Craig et al., 2015). Furthermore, Tirella et al. (2018) extended the SERS

740   detection to the accumulation mode (800~150 nm) particles (Tirella et al., 2018). Sun et al. (2019)

741   reported a size-resolved (covering both coarse mode and accumulation mode) SERS characterization

742   study of atmospheric particles sampled during haze events (Sun et al., 2019a;Sun et al., 2019b). More

743   recently, Kunihisa et al. (2020) reported sensitive SERS measurement of Aiken mode particles (<100nm)

744   by combining a condensational growth tube sampler (CGT) and a SERS substrate for directly sampling

745   (Kunihisa et al., 2020). The wide analytical range of particle size enables SERS to be a potentially

746   powerful tool in studying ambient particulate matters (Steer et al., 2016;Vejpongsa et al., 2017;Chen et

747   al., 2021).

748

749   Some species including components of microorganisms (Tahir et al., 2020), microplastics (Xu et al.,

750   2020a), crystalline silica (Zheng et al., 2018), the fine structure of organics (Craig et al., 2015;Fu et al.,

2017;Gen et al., 2018b), and even some Raman-active inorganic salts at very low concentration (Saniel et al., 2019) are invisible in normal Raman due to their weak Raman-activities. However, they could be detected with a SERS substrate. The sensitive detection by SERS can provide valuable insight into particle transformations and emission sources (Vejpongsa et al., 2017;Ghosal and Wall, 2019;Lee et al., 2019). However, the enhancement factor of SERS is not constant. It strongly depends on the distribution and quantity of noble metal NPs and the hotspots over the substrate, making quantitative analysis difficult. Many attempts have been made to explore preferable and tunable substrate for generalizable atmospheric particle detection (Xu et al., 2020a;Cheng et al., 2021), but still more progresses are needed in the future.

The most common SERS application uses particles deposited on SERS substrates, relying on the "hot spot" locating beneath the analyte particles. Recently, some studies create innovative interactions between particulate analytes and SERS NPs to enhance SERS detections. Wei et al. (2018) used 4-mercaptobenzoic acid-functionalized AuNPs as pH nanoprobes and internal SERS substrate and found the existence of a stable pH gradient inside aqueous particles (Wei et al., 2018). Hence, the assumption of homogeneous mixing might not always be correct, and pH predictions by thermodynamic model might underestimate the acidity of interfacial layers of particles, which is crucial for multiphase uptake or surface reactions. As a further investigation of the SERS pH nanoprobe, Huang et al. (2020) reported that the pH distribution inside aerosol particles is affected by the internal distribution of ions, which may depend on the ionic speciation. While sodium tends to reside in the bulk of the particle, leading to a high centroid pH, ammonium distributes more evenly due to its increased surface propensity (Huang et al., 2020).

Gen et al. developed an electrospray system (ES-SERS) to deposit SERS NPs onto the surface of the analyte particle and found that this technique can selectively enhance the peak intensity of the species located at surface layers such as surface adsorbed water (Gen and Chan, 2017) and organic coatings (Gen et al., 2019a). In a typical micro-Raman set-up, the objective is above the analyte particle. When the analyte particle is deposited on the SERS substrate, the SERS hot spots are located beneath the particle. In other words, upon laser irradiation from the top, the photons generated by excitation need to pass through the particle with a refractive index greater than air, which would scatter or absorb light and thus reduces the signals received by the Raman microscope. In contrast, ES-SERS hot spots are created on

781 the surface of the particle using electrospray. This configuration reduces the loss of photons and affords

782 greater enhancement in the Raman intensity. (Fig. 5) Besides, as the SERS effect is much more prominent

783 near the hot spots (i.e., small D), the location of the hot spots determines where will be probed in SERS

784 spectra. Therefore, while typical SERS substrate collects enhanced Raman signals from the substrate-

785 particle interface, the ES-SERS can provide information from the gas-particle interface, where many

786 atmospheric multiphase processes occur. Sivaprakasam et al. reported real-time SERS measurements of

787 electrostatically trapped particles containing analyte molecules and NPs as internally mixed liquid

788 particles or coating on solid particles (Sivaprakasam et al., 2017;Sivaprakasam and Hart, 2021). The

789 interaction between NPs and analyte increased due to more contact areas than that between an aerosol

790 particle and a substrate.

791

792 Similarly, TERS can produce enhanced Raman signals even from particles in the nucleation mode. TERS

793 is a combination of atomic force microscope (AFM) and Raman spectrometer. In general, AFM

794 determines the topography of a single deposited particle by detecting the interaction force between the

795 AFM tip and the surface of the analytes. In a typical TERS set-up, the AFM tip is coated with noble

796 metal particles. An enhanced Raman signal is generated when the tip is interacting with analytes under

797 laser excitation (Rodriguez et al., 2015). The lack of chemical information of AFM is complemented by

798 SERS. Thus, TERS enables simultaneous characterization of particulate topography and surface species

799 of submicron particles at a high spatial resolution (Ofner et al., 2016). TERS also has the potential for

800 quantitative analysis since the quantity and configuration of hotspots on the tip are constant.

801

802 **6 Bioaerosols**

803 Bioaerosols have attracted increasing attention worldwide dramatically due to the COVID-19 epidemic.

804 Studies using normal Raman/SERS for off-line detection of biological samples (Félix-Rivera and

805 Hernández-Rivera, 2012;Mosier-Boss, 2017), real-time sensing of bioaerosol (Huffman et al., 2020)

806 have been reviewed in detail elsewhere. Bioaerosols have various Raman active components such as

807 phosphate lipid (δ (=C-H), ~1268cm^{-1}; v(C-H), ~2855cm^{-1}), protein (amides bands, ~1260cm^{-1},

808 ~1600cm^{-1}, ~1660cm^{-1}; C-C backbone stretching in β-sheet proteins, ~983cm^{-1}; v(C-H), ~2928cm^{-1}) and

809 nucleic acids (e.g., adenine, ~735cm^{-1}), etc (Socrates, 2004;Rygula et al., 2013;Talari et al., 2015).

810 However, Raman signals from bioaerosol particles are generally weak. To amplify the signals, bioaerosol

811   particles are trapped or deposited onto a substrate for longer integration time (Laucks et al.,

812   2000;Sengupta et al., 2005;Tripathi et al., 2009;Wang et al., 2015a;Redding et al., 2015b;Ai et al., 2020).

813   Using a higher energy laser can also enhance Raman intensity, but it may cause damage to bioaerosol

814   (e.g., fragmentation) (Gong et al., 2017). On this basis, SERS is more suitable than normal Raman

815   spectroscopy. SERS can also quench the fluorescence generated by biomolecules such as tryptophan and

816   tyrosine (Gong et al., 2017).

817

818   In general, there are two strategies of single-particle SERS of bioaerosols: (1) directly sampling

819   bioaerosols on a SERS substrate; (2) moving mixed colloids of SERS NPs and bioaerosols onto a glass

820   substrate, followed by drying. While the former is more convenient without complex pretreatments

821   (Tahir et al., 2020), the latter enables flexible modification of NPs properties. For example,

822   functionalized surface of NPs with tag molecules (e.g., antibody), so-called label-based SERS (Liu et al.,

823   2010), were used for detecting specific biomaterials with high reproducibility. Label-free SERS refers to

824   that without tag molecules, such as Au@Ag. In general, by simply mixing, NPs distribute on biomaterials

825   without specific interactions, and the SERS reproducibility is limited. However, by coating AgNPs on

826   the cell wall of bacteria (Zhou et al., 2014a;Zhou et al., 2015), SERS enhancement was ~30-folds

827   reproducibly higher than simply mixed colloid−bacterial suspension. Furthermore, the discrimination of

828   live and dead bacteria was possible. NPs can be directly formed inside some specific bacteria via bio-

829   reduction for probing the intercellular structure (Jarvis et al., 2008). Overall, SERS can be an innovative

830   tool in bioaerosol characterization, but the antibacterial effect of NPs and heat effect due to excitation

831   laser should be considered (Mosier-Boss, 2017). More examples of bioaerosol detection can be found in

832   a recent review (Liu et al., 2017).

833

834   **7 Future directions**

835   This review paper has shown examples of single-particle Raman spectroscopy in studying atmospheric

836   processes. Overall, the water content, phase state, morphology, and chemical composition of single

837   particles during physical and chemical processes at controlled RH can be monitored in situ.

838   Hygroscopicity and phase behaviors covering a wide range of RH after these processes can also be

839   comprehensively assessed by performing evaporation-humidification cycle measurements (Chan et al.,

840   2006;Chan and Chan, 2007;Liu et al., 2008;Chen et al., 2020). Although fluorescence may exist in some

841   particles, it could be potentially reduced or even eliminated by (1) using longer excitation wavelengths

842   (e.g., 785 and 1064 nm); (2) employing SERS/TERS; (3) photo-bleaching of fluorescent substances

843   under UV-VIS illumination.(Gong et al., 2017) There are many other innovative studies built on trapping,

844   manipulating, and observing multi-particles via Raman (Mitchem and Reid, 2008;Davies, 2019), such as

845   measuring viscosity and diffusion coefficient (Power et al., 2013;Nakajima et al., 2021), probing reaction

846   (Aardahl, 1998;Rkiouak et al., 2014) and phase transition (Richards et al., 2020). Based on these

847   functions and research progresses, we would like to provide the following suggestions on future

848   directions:

849

850   ● **Hyphenated single-particle Raman spectroscopy.** Raman spectroscopy is non-destructive, so

851   incorporating other spectroscopic techniques for characterizing the same particle is possible.

852   Vibrational sum frequency generation spectroscopy (SFG), Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy

853   (FT-IR), and fluorescence spectroscopy, which are also non-destructive, could be complementary

854   to Raman in probing chemical composition of single particle. Recently, novel combination of EDB

855   and mass spectrometry was reported, which can directly introduce the trapped particle for mass

856   spectrometry analysis (Jacobs et al., 2017;Birdsall et al., 2018;Willis et al., 2020). Adaption of this

857   technique with Raman to form an EDB – Raman system with subsequent MS analysis is relatively

858   straight forward. For optical properties, UV/Vis spectroscopy could be a promising choice (Jones

859   et al., 2021). While general laser-based MDR can easily bleach light-absorbing molecules, a recent

860   study reported that MDR modes under broad band excitation can measure refractive index (RI) of

861   light-sensitive samples (Price et al., 2020). Such MDR measuremens can complement in-situ

862   Raman spectroscopy for chemical characterization. Additionally, SERS/TERS are emerging useful

863   approaches, but current SERS/TERS methods for atmospheric research mainly use bare NPs. The

864   direct contact of NPs to analyte molecules can potentially induce chemical enhancement, which

865   could complicate the identification of the phase transition and functional groups (Craig et al.,

866   2015;Gen and Chan, 2017). To remove the chemical enhancement, future studies on chemically

867   inert NPs such as shell-isolated nanoparticle-enhanced Raman spectroscopy (SHINERS) are

868   suggested (Li et al., 2010;Anema et al., 2011).

869

870   ● **Multiphase reaction studies based on single-particle Raman spectroscopy.** Single-particle

Raman spectroscopy enables investigations of various atmospheric reactions, including those in surface adsorbed water for solids, mixed-phase particles (solid, aqueous, organic), supersaturated droplets, atmospheric aging of bioaerosols and ultrafast reactions. For solid particles (e.g., crystalline, mineral dust), multiphase reactions can be "mediated" by surface adsorbed water layers and may result in phase transition, turning the particle into liquid for further reactions (Kuwata and Martin, 2012;Chu and Chan, 2017a;Zhao et al., 2018;Yu et al., 2018;Gen et al., 2019a). Probing heterogenous reactions on the particle surface is possible via ES-SERS, TERS, and normal Raman imaging. As particle constituents can be unevenly distributed (e.g., in LLPS) within a single particle, chemistry may not be the same between the bulk and the surface layers (Wei et al., 2018;Olson et al., 2019;Qiu et al., 2019;Huang et al., 2020;Lam et al., 2021). The studies of the atmospheric processing of pre-existing particles to form secondary aerosols can be further extended to the aging of bioaerosols (Gong et al., 2019). Using pulse laser for excitation, time-resolved resonance Raman spectroscopy (TR3) can be a promising tool in probing short-lived reactive intermediates (e.g., triplet state molecules). In particular, it helps deepen our understanding in ultrafast reactions or initiation steps of typical reactions (Sahoo et al., 2011;Collins et al., 2018).

- **Particle size and temperature effects.** Many publications report single-particle Raman spectroscopy studies under different environmental conditions, including RH and gas concentration, etc. However, how experimental conditions such as temperature and particle size affect kinetics and products in multiphase reactions remains ambiguous. For example, various pathways and kinetic parameters have been proposed to explain particulate sulfate formation in winter haze events in northern China (Chan and Yao, 2008;Su et al., 2020;Liu et al., 2021). However, most studies are based on experimental results at room temperature or 298K. Further exploration with respect to the effect of low temperature on the properties of the particles and multiphase sulfate chemistry is still warranted. Employing a temperature-controlled cold plate flow cell - Raman system for deposited single particles (Wheeler et al., 2015;Mael et al., 2019;Roy et al., 2020), investigations of temperature-dependent reaction kinetics can be easily achieved. Temperature control in a small levitation chamber is also more convenient than in a flow tube or smog chamber. To date, almost all single-particle Raman studies involve supermicron particles. While equilibrium measurements are not sensitive to size (assuming the Kelvin effect is considered), kinetic analysis is often size-

901 dependent. Hence, uptake coefficients for multiphase reactions are usually reported and are

902 restricted to experimental conditions that gas and liquid phase transport are not the rate-limiting

903 step. The size detection limit of single-particle Raman spectroscopy can be extended to sub-10

904 micrometer with high sensitiveity using high-energy excitation laser and tighter optical focusing.

905 The effect of temperature and particle size on multiphase chemistry should be further investigated

906 using long integration time, novel optical configuration (e.g., confocal micro-Raman), and

907 SERS/TERS, etc. Although it is challenging to study single submicron particles by Raman

908 spectroscopy regularly, Raman characterization of a collection of single submicron particles is

909 feasible.

910

911 **Acknowledgment:**

912 We gratefully acknowledge the supports from the National Natural Science Foundation of China (No.

913 41905122, 42075100, and 41875142), the Hong Kong Research Grants Council (No.11302318), the

914 Japan Science and Technology Agency (JST) for Fusion Oriented Research for disruptive Science and

915 Technology program (20352853), the Japan Society for the Promotion of Science (JSPS) Grants-in-Aid

916 for Early-Career Scientists (21K17876).

917

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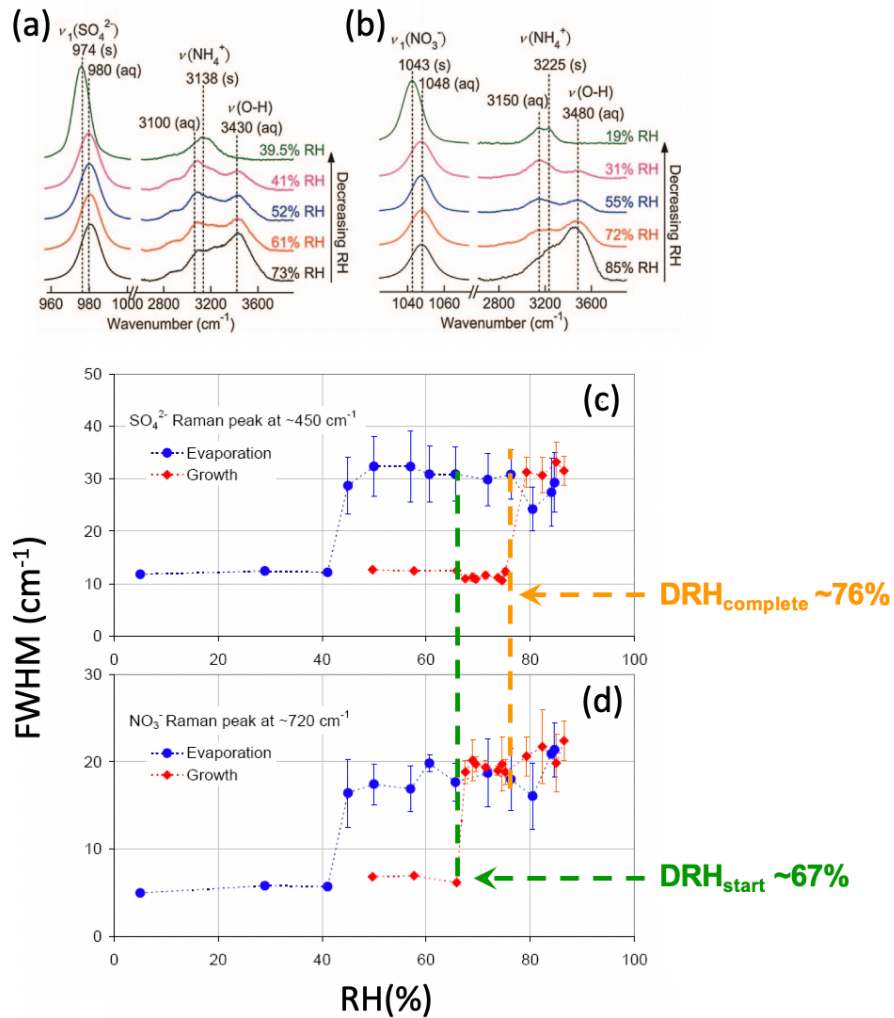
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Figure 1. Raman spectra of a single (a) AS and (b) AN particle upon evaporation (Yeung and Chan,

2010). FWHM of (c) SO_4^{2-} peak and (d) NO_3^- peak during the evaporation-growth cycle of a mixed AS-

AN particle.

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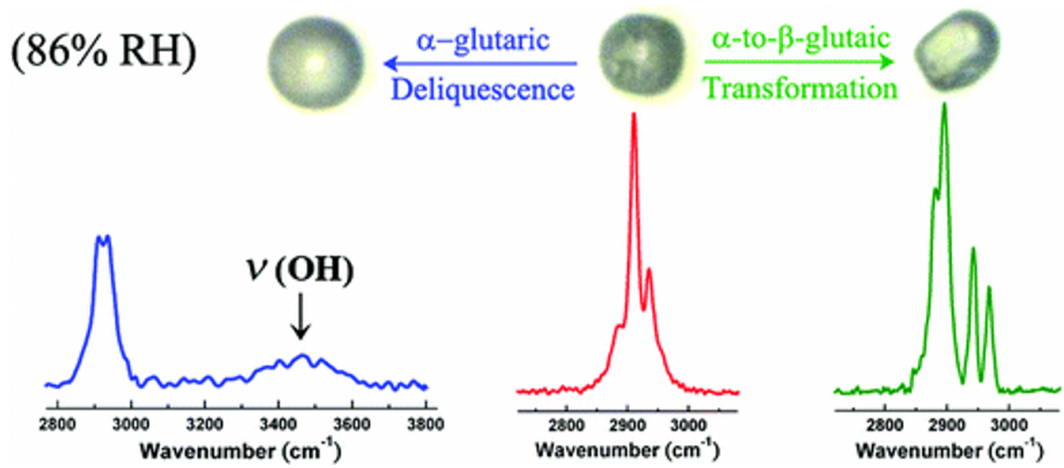
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1782 **Figure 2.** Raman spectra of deliquescent α-glutaric acid, crystalline α-glutaric acid and β-glutaric acid

1783 (Ling and Chan, 2007).

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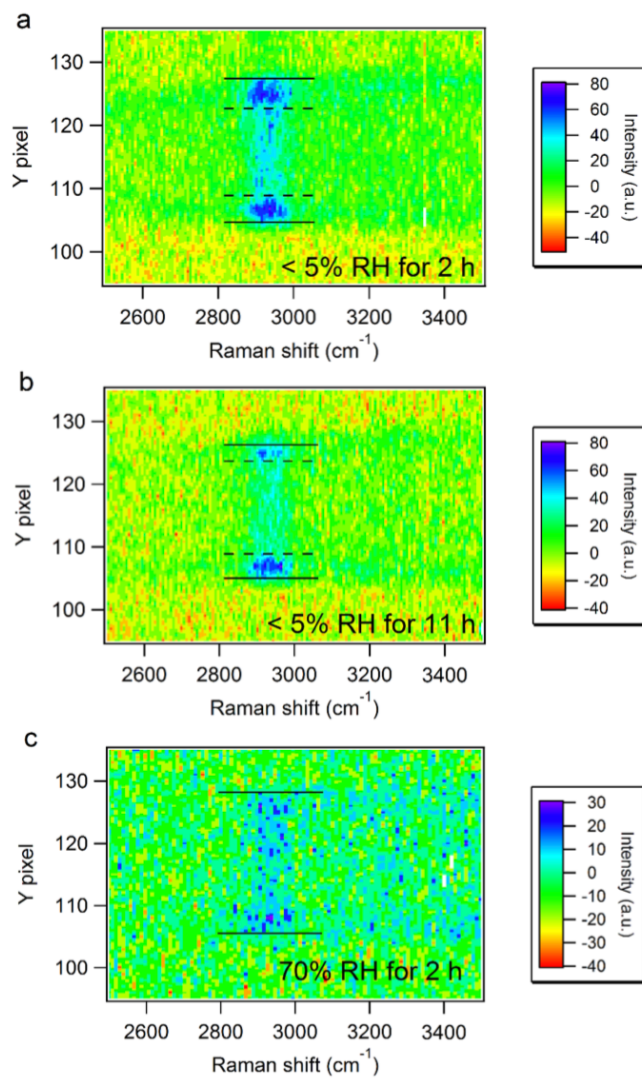
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1786 **Figure 3.** Spatially resolved Raman intensities of AS – sucrose (molar fraction of sucrose in total solute

1787 (F_{SU}) = 0.5)) particles equilibrated (a) at < 5% RH for 2 hours and (b) for 11 h and (c) at 70% RH for 2

1788 hours. C-H peaks at ~2900 cm^{-1} represent sucrose. Solid lines indicate the particle's upper and lower

1789 edges. The outer regions between the dashed and solid lines are sucrose-rich in (a)-(b) (Chu and Chan,

1790 2017a).

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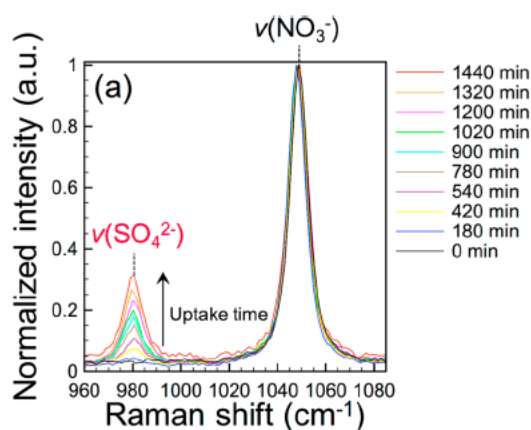
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1793 **Figure 4.** Sulfate formation during the photolysis of AN particles in the presence of SO$_2$ at 80% RH (Gen

1794 et al., 2019b).

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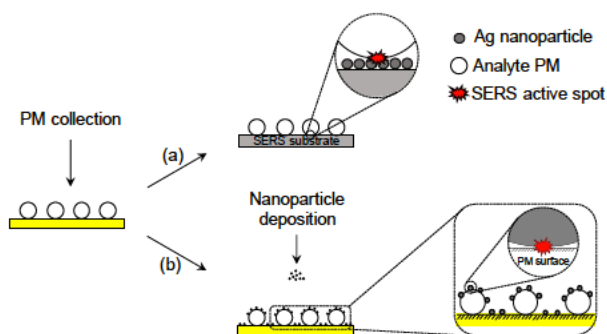
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1797 **Figure 5.** Schematic illustration of (a) a conventional SERS substrate approach and (b) the ES-SERS

1798 approach (Gen and Chan, 2017).

1799

1800 Appendix A. Major Raman peaks of atmospheric relevant species

Species		Raman shift (cm^{-1})	Ref.
Water	O-H	~3300 (monomers) ~3600 (hydrogen-bonded)	(Carey and Korenowski, 1998)

Inorganic	NH_4^+	~1413; ~1660; ~3100	(Chu and Chan, 2017a;Sauerwein and Chan, 2017)
	SO_4^{2-}	~450; ~618; ~980	(Ling and Chan, 2007;Chu and Chan, 2017a)
	HSO_4^-	~1053	(Rindelaub et al., 2016;Craig et al., 2017;Craig et al., 2018)
	NO_3^-	~717; ~1046; ~1413	(Tobon et al., 2017;Gen et al., 2019b)
	HNO_3	~1306	(Rindelaub et al., 2016)
	NO_2^-	~815; ~1278; ~ 1330	(Tobon et al., 2017)
	$ONOO^-$	~980	(Tsai et al., 1994;Tobon et al., 2017)
	CO_3^{2-}	~1067	(Rindelaub et al., 2016)
	HCO_3^-	~1019	(Rindelaub et al., 2016)
Soot	D	~1367	(Ivleva et al., 2007b;Gen and Chan, 2017)
	G	~1585	(Ivleva et al., 2007b;Gen and

Mineral dust	SiO₂	Si-O-Si	~390; ~490; ~795; ~972; ~1460		(Laskina et al., 2013;Rkiouak et al., 2014)
		O-Si-O	~356		
		Si-O	~465		
	α-Al₂O₃	Al-O-Al	~420; ~585; ~796;		(Rkiouak et al., 2014)
		Al-OH	~976		
	Kaolinite	Si-O	~397		(Laskina et al., 2013)
		Si-O-Al	~516		
		O-H	~914; 3624; 3656; 3668; 3698		
	TiO₂	Ti-O	~484; ~680;	Amorphous	(Rkiouak et al., 2014;Tang et al., 2014)
			~153; ~639;	Anatase	
		O-O	~250; ~317;	Amorphous	
	CaCO₃	CO₃²⁻	~713; ~1087		(Laskina et al., 2013;Yu et al., 2018;Zhao et al., 2018)
Organic	C-H		~1400; 2700-3000		(Chu and Chan, 2017a;Gen et al., 2018b)
	C-O		~1470		(Laskina et al., 2013)
	C=O		~1700		(Yeung and Chan, 2010;Yeung et al., 2010;Bondy et al., 2018)
	O-H		~1700; 3200-3400		(Yeung and Chan, 2010;Zhou et al., 2014b)

Note: The partial top row above "Mineral dust" reads: "(Chan, 2017)" in the reference column.

	C-N-C	~890	(Chu and Chan, 2017a)
	O-C-O (ring)	~770	(Gen et al., 2018b)
	ring	~950	(Gen et al., 2018b)
	O-O	~850	(Lee and Chan, 2007b, a)
	C=C	~1600	(Lee and Chan, 2007b;Chu et al., 2019)
	C=C-C=C	~1640&1655 (double peaks)	(Lee and Chan, 2007b;Chu et al., 2019)
	C=C-C=O	~1690	(Lee and Chan, 2007b;Chu et al., 2019)
	RO-SO_3	~846	(Bondy et al., 2018)
	S-O (-SO_3 group)	1065	(Bondy et al., 2018)

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