



1 **Functionality-Based Formation of Secondary Organic Aerosol from *m*-Xylene**

2 **Photooxidation**

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8 **ABSTRACT.** Photooxidation of volatile organic compounds (VOCs) produces condensable
9 oxidized organics (COOs) to yield secondary organic aerosol (SOA), but the fundamental chemical
10 mechanism for gas-to-particle conversion remains uncertain. Here we elucidate the production of
11 COOs and their roles in SOA and brown carbon (BrC) formation from *m*-xylene oxidation by
12 simultaneous monitoring the evolutions of gas-phase products and aerosol properties in an
13 environmental chamber. Four COO types with the distinct functionalities of dicarbonyls,
14 carboxylic acids, polyhydroxy aromatics/quinones, and nitrophenols are identified from early-
15 generation oxidation, with the yields of 25%, 37%, 5%, and 3%, respectively. SOA formation
16 occurs via several heterogeneous processes, including interfacial interaction, ionic
17 dissociation/acid-base reaction, and oligomerization, with the yields of $(20 \pm 4)\%$ and $(32 \pm 7)\%$
18 at 10% and 70% relative humidity (RH), respectively. Chemical speciation shows the dominant
19 presence of oligomers, nitrogen-containing organics, and carboxylates at RH and carboxylates at
20 low RH. The identified BrC includes N-heterocycles/N-heterochains and nitrophenols, as evident
21 from reduced single scattering albedo. The measured uptake coefficient (γ) for COOs is dependent
22 on the functionality, ranging from 3.7×10^{-4} to 1.3×10^{-2} . A kinetic framework is developed to
23 predict SOA production from the concentrations and uptake coefficients for COOs. This
24 functionality-based approach well reproduces SOA formation from *m*-xylene oxidation and is
25 broadly applicable to VOC oxidation for other species. Our results reveal that photochemical
26 oxidation of *m*-xylene represents a major source for SOA and BrC formation under urban
27 environments, because of its large abundance, high reactivity with OH, and high yields for COOs.

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31 **1. Introduction**

32 Photooxidation of anthropogenic and biogenic volatile organic compounds (VOCs)
33 produces tropospheric ozone and secondary organic aerosol (SOA), with profound implications
34 for air quality, human health, and climate (Pope et al., 2002; Li et al., 2007; IPCC, 2013; NASEM,
35 2016; Zhu et al., 2017; Molina, 2021; Zhang et al., 2021). VOC oxidation is initiated by various
36 oxidants (e.g., OH, O₃, NO₃, etc.) and proceeds via multiple pathways and stages (Atkinson, 2000;
37 Suh et al., 2001; Zhang et al., 2002; Zhao et al., 2004; Wennberg et al., 2018), yielding condensable
38 oxidized organics (COOs) to form SOA and brown carbon (BrC) via gas-to-particle conversion
39 (Finlayson-Pitts and Pitts, 2000; Moise et al., 2015; Seinfeld and Pandis, 2016). The enormous
40 chemical complexity for VOC oxidation and gas-to-particle conversion represents one of the
41 greatest challenges in atmospheric chemistry research (Ravishankara, 1997; Zhang et al., 2015;
42 NASEM, 2016). Aromatic hydrocarbons (e.g., benzene, toluene, xylenes, and trimethylbenzene)
43 account for 20-30% of the total VOCs and are the major anthropogenic SOA precursors in the
44 urban atmosphere (Calvert et al., 2002; Ng et al., 2007; Song et al., 2007; Guo et al., 2014; Seinfeld and
45 Pandis, 2016). For example, *m*-xylene or C₆H₄(CH₃)₂ represents an important type of aromatic
46 hydrocarbons, which is emitted primarily from industrial and traffic sources. The concentration of
47 *m*-xylene ranges in a level from sub part per billion (ppb) up to several tens of ppb under urban
48 environments (Calvert et al., 2002; Fortner et al., 2009). Photooxidation of *m*-xylene is primarily
49 initiated by OH with a rate constant of $2.4 \times 10^{-11} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecule}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$, which is nearly four times
50 higher than that of toluene (Fan and Zhang, 2008; Ji et al., 2017). The OH-*m*-xylene reactions occur
51 via dominantly OH-addition to the aromatic ring to yield *m*-xylene-OH adducts and minorly H-
52 abstraction from the methyl group to form methylbenzyl radicals (about 4%) (Fan and Zhang, 2008).
53 The *m*-xylene-OH adducts then react with O₂ to form dimethylphenol via H-extraction or OH-*m*-



54 xylene-O₂ peroxy radicals (RO₂) via O₂ addition. A laboratory study identified *m*-tolualdehyde,
55 *m*-dimethylphenols, and dicarbonyls (i.e., glyoxal, methylglyoxal, unsaturated dicarbonyls, and
56 epoxy carbonyls) as the main gas-phase products from OH-initiated oxidation of *m*-xylene (Zhao
57 et al., 2005).

58 Several types of condensable oxidized organics (COOs) with distinct functionality and
59 volatility are produced from *m*-xylene photooxidation. SOA formation is conventionally
60 considered to be mainly resulted from equilibrium gas-particle partitioning of semi-, intermediate-,
61 or low-volatile products (Shrivastava et al., 2017). Aromatic oxidation by OH yields low-volatile
62 polyhydroxy aromatics/quinones (denoted as PAQ hereafter), which condense to the aerosol-phase
63 (Schwantes et al., 2017). Also, chain autoxidation reactions of RO₂ from aromatics photooxidation
64 likely yield highly oxygenated molecules (HOMs) with low volatility (Molteni et al., 2018;
65 Garmash et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2020), although the reported yield of HOMs from *m*-xylene
66 oxidation is small (1.0% to 1.7%) (Molteni et al., 2018). Several key oxidation products of
67 aromatic oxidation have been shown to readily engage in multiphase reactions and contribute to
68 SOA formation (Ji et al., 2020, Li et al., 2021a). A recent experimental study demonstrated that SOA
69 formation from toluene photooxidation is mainly contributed by volatile dicarbonyls and organic
70 acids (Li et al., 2021b). Moreover, the aqueous reactions between small α -dicarbonyls and base
71 species (e.g., ammonia and amines) produce light-absorbing brown carbon (BrC) (De Haan et al.,
72 2011, 2017; Marrero-Ortiz et al., 2019; Li et al., 2021a,b). Previous experimental studies identified the
73 presence of hydroxy (C-OH), carbonyl (C=O), and acetal (C-O-C) bonds as the main functional
74 groups in aromatic-derived SOA formed via aqueous reactions, implicating a role of oxygenated
75 organics in SOA formation (Jia and Xu, 2014; Jia and Xu, 2018; Zhang et al., 2019). Also, laboratory



76 experiments showed that coating of *m*-xylene SOA on black carbon particles significantly
77 enhances scattering, absorption, and single scattering albedo (SSA) (Guo et al., 2016).

78 Current atmospheric models mainly parameterize SOA formation based on equilibrium
79 partitioning for semi- to low-volatile COOs (Shrivastava et al., 2017). However, gas-to-particle
80 conversion corresponds to decreasing entropy (i.e., $\Delta S \ll 0$), represents non-equilibrium chemical
81 processes (Peng et al., 2021). Moreover, the occurrence of particle-phase reactions significantly
82 alters the physiochemical properties (including volatility, hygroscopicity, and optical properties)
83 for COOs (Tan et al., 2012; Faust et al., 2017; Ji et al., 2020; Li et al., 2021a,b; Liu et al., 2021).
84 Notably, the volatility-based approach consistently under-predicts SOA formation (Heald et al.,
85 2005; Zhang et al., 2015; Hodzic et al., 2016), particularly during haze formation under polluted
86 conditions (Guo et al., 2014; Peng et al., 2021). Here we investigate the production of COOs with
87 different functionalities and assess their roles in SOA formation from *m*-xylene oxidation. A
88 primary objective of this work is to establish a functionality-based framework to predict SOA
89 formation from VOC photooxidation.

90 **2. Experimental Methodology**

91 The production of COOs and their roles in SOA formation from *m*-xylene oxidation were
92 investigated using an environmental chamber (See Method and Figure S1 in the Supplementary
93 Information or SI), similar to our previous studies (Li et al., 2021a,b). Briefly, monodispersed sub-
94 micrometer seed particles were exposed to *m*-xylene-OH oxidation products, and the evolutions
95 of the gaseous products and aerosol properties were simultaneously measured. The time-dependent
96 gaseous concentrations of *m*-xylene and its oxidation products were detected using an ion drift -
97 chemical ionization mass spectrometry (Fotner et al., 2014). The temporally resolved particle size,
98 number concentration, SSA, and density were measured using an integrated aerosol system



99 consisting of a differential mobility analyzer, a condensation particle counter, an integrating
100 nephelometer, a cavity ring-down spectrometer, and an aerosol particle mass analyzer (Zhang et
101 al., 2020; Li et al., 2021b). The size evolution was quantified by a growth factor (GF), which is
102 defined by D_p/D_0 , where D_p is the diameter after the exposure to *m*-xylene oxidation and $D_0 = 100$
103 nm is the initial diameter. In addition, chemical composition was analyzed after seed particles were
104 exposed to *m*-xylene oxidation for 20 mins and collected for 2 additional hours by a thermal
105 desorption - ion drift - chemical ionization mass spectrometer (TD-ID-CIMS) (Zhang et al., 2009).
106 All measured particle properties were relevant to dry conditions (i.e., less than 5% RH) (Li et al.,
107 2021b).

108 Three types of seed particles were produced to represent various chemical compositions,
109 i.e., NH_4HSO_4 - ammonium bisulfate (ABS), $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ - ammonium sulfate (AS) in the presence
110 and absence of NH_3 , and NaCl - sodium chloride. Measurements of SOA/BrC formation were also
111 conducted by varying RH, NH_3 , and NO_x (= NO and NO_2). An uptake coefficient (γ) for COOs
112 was derived from the measured size growth of particles and the corresponding gas-phase
113 concentrations. In addition, we simulated the time-dependent production of the gaseous products
114 by employing a tri-exponential kinetic model to account for the gas-phase oxidation, chamber wall
115 loss, and aerosol uptake. The major advantages of our analytical methodologies lied in
116 simultaneous monitoring of the evolutions of gaseous oxidation products and aerosol properties
117 when seed particles were exposed to the oxidation products. Specifically, our experimental
118 approach remedied the deficiency of wall loss of reactive gaseous and particles, which represents
119 a main obstacle in experimental investigation using environmental chambers (Zhang et al., 2014;
120 Huang et al., 2018). In addition, our analytical approach provided detailed chemical speciation
121 without inducing fragmentation and allowed for differentiation of the contributions of multi-



122 generation products to SOA formation (Li et al., 2021b). By categorizing COOs in accordance with
123 the functional groups, we establish a framework to predict SOA formation from the measured
124 production and reactivity.

125 **3. Results and Discussions**

126 **3.1 Evolution of oxidation products**

127 To elucidate the production of COOs, we measured time-dependent gaseous concentrations
128 of *m*-xylene oxidation products. While the *m*-xylene mixing ratio exhibits an exponential decay
129 throughout the experiments (Figure 1a), the formation of the gas-phase oxidation products follows
130 the rate-determining steps involving successive OH-oxidation with three major generations
131 (Figure 1b-e). The first-generation products (P_1) include dimethylphenol ($m/z = 123$) and
132 methylbenzaldehyde ($m/z = 121$), corresponding to OH addition to the aromatic ring (~96%) and
133 hydrogen extraction (~4%) from the methyl group, respectively (Fan and Zhang, 2008; Li et al.,
134 2021b). The second-generation products (P_2) mainly consist of methylglyoxal ($m/z = 73$),
135 methylbutenedial ($m/z = 99$), toluic acid ($m/z = 137$), and dimethylresorcinol (Figure 1f and Figure
136 S2), which are produced from the P_1 reactions with OH/ HO_2 . For example, methylglyoxal and
137 methylbutenedial are formed from OH oxidation of dimethylphenol and subsequent ring-
138 opening or from the primary peroxy radical. The latter undergoes cyclization to form the bicyclic
139 radical, which then reacts with O_2 to form the secondary peroxy radical, followed by reactions
140 with HO_2 and subsequent ring-cleavage (Fan and Zhang, 2008). The third-generation products (P_3)
141 contain mainly multi-functional organic acids, including pyruvic acid ($m/z = 89$), 4-oxo-2-
142 pentenoic acid ($m/z = 115$), and 3-methyl-4-oxo-2-pentenoic acid ($m/z = 129$) produced from the
143 subsequent reactions of dicarbonyls with OH.



144 The P_1 concentrations rise immediately upon initiating photooxidation and reach the peak
145 mixing ratios of about 20 ppb for dimethylphenol and 9 ppb for methylbenzaldehyde. There is a
146 slight decline in P_1 concentrations after 70 to 100 mins, reflecting their consumption from further
147 OH oxidation (Figure 1c). The P_2 concentrations follow those of P_1 (Figure 1d and Figure S3a)
148 and reach the peak mixing ratios ranging from 0.4 to 2.4 ppb, dependent on their subsequent
149 oxidation by OH as well as loss to the chamber wall and aerosols. Note that the concentration of
150 toluic acid rises later than those of the dicarbonyls, attributable to the slower rates for H-abstraction
151 by OH from the methyl group than OH-addition to the aromatic ring (Fan and Zhang, 2008). The P_3
152 concentrations increase monotonically after a delay of 10-20 mins and reach a mixing ratio from
153 sub-ppb to 2.5 ppb at 120 min (Figure 1e and Figure S3b). The initial concentration of *m*-xylene
154 (e.g., 1940 ppb) in our experiment is higher than that in the atmosphere, potentially inducing self-
155 and cross-reactions of RO_2 to form alkoxy radicals (RO) or dialkyl peroxides ($ROOR'$) leading to
156 HOMs. However, negligible products relevant to HOMs were detected in our experiments,
157 indicating a minor importance for the self- and cross-reactions of RO_2 compared to the competing
158 reactions between RO_2 and $HO_2/NO/RO_2$ to form ring-opening products.

159 We simulated the time-dependent evolution of the gaseous products by employing a tri-
160 exponential kinetic model (Figure 1b and Table S1). Multi-generation oxidation of *m*-xylene
161 occurs via consecutive reaction steps to produce a multi-generation product, P_n (where n denotes
162 the sequence of OH oxidation), which subsequently engages in additional OH oxidation, wall loss,
163 and aerosol loss. Figure 1b-d indicates that the simulated concentrations well reproduce those
164 measured for P_1 to P_3 by adopting our measured γ (to be discussed below) and estimated wall loss
165 rates (see Methods and Table S1 in SI).

166 3.2 Particle size growth, SSA, and chemical speciation



167 To evaluate SOA and BrC formation from COOs, we measured the time-dependent GF,
168 SSA, and density, after $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ seed particles are exposed to the *m*-xylene oxidation products
169 in the presence of 19 ppb NH_3 and at 70% RH (Figure 2a-c). The GF increases monotonically and
170 reaches a value of (2.41 ± 0.03) at 120 min (Figure 2a), while the SSA declines steadily throughout
171 the exposure and reaches the value of (0.91 ± 0.01) at 120 min (Figure 2b). The latter is indicative
172 of the production of light-absorbing BrC. The measured SSA for *m*-xylene is lower than that
173 previously reported for toluene under comparable experimental conditions (Li et al., 2021b). The
174 difference in SSA/BrC formation between toluene and *m*-xylene is explained by a higher yield of
175 methylglyoxal from *m*-xylene than from toluene (Jenkin et al., 2003; Nishino et al., 2010), since
176 methylglyoxal produces BrC more efficiently via aqueous reaction than glyoxal (Li et al., 2021a).
177 Analysis of particle chemical composition using thermal desorption - ion drift - chemical
178 ionization mass spectrometer (TD-ID-CIMS) reveals high abundances of oligomers, nitrogen-
179 containing organics (NCO) consisting of N-heterocycles/N-heterochains, carboxylates, along with
180 a small amount of dimethylresorcinol/benzoquinone (Figure 2c). The identified mass peaks are
181 summarized in Tables S2 to S4. Assuming similar sensitivity to proton-transfer reactions for the
182 aerosol-phase organics, i.e., with the proton transfer reaction rate constants of $(2 \text{ to } 4) \times 10^{-9} \text{ cm}^3$
183 $\text{molecule}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (Zhao and Zhang, 2004), the contributions of oligomers, NCO, carboxylates, and
184 dimethylresorcinol/benzoquinone to the total SOA formation are estimated to be 22%, 23%, 47%,
185 and 8%, respectively, at 70% RH (Table S5). Note that the TD-ID-CIMS method preserves the
186 identify for all organic species without fragmentation, providing unambiguous chemical speciation
187 for the aerosol-phase products.

188 3.3 Effects of seed particles, RH, and NH_3 , and NO_x



189 We assessed the dependence of SOA/BrC formation from *m*-xylene-OH oxidation on
190 different seed particles, concentrations of NH₃/NO_x, and RH. Figure 3a shows that (NH₄)₂SO₄ in
191 the presence of 19 ppb NH₃ exhibits the largest GF and lowest SSA at 120 min, which are
192 explained by the chemical mechanisms leading to the formation of the observed aerosol-phase
193 products. While dicarbonyls undergo aqueous phase reactions to form oligomers (Figure S4) (Ji et
194 al., 2020; Li et al., 2021a), organic acids engage in ionic dissociation and acid-base reaction to yield
195 carboxylates (Figure 3b). In addition, the reaction of dicarbonyls with NH₃ produce N-
196 heterocycles/N-heterochains (Figure S5), which are light-absorbing (Marrero-Ortiz et al., 2019; Li et
197 al., 2021a). Oligomerization of dicarbonyls involves protonation, hydration, and deprotonation,
198 which are mediated by carbenium ions via nucleophilic addition (Ji et al., 2020; Li et al., 2021a).
199 While protonation of dicarbonyls to yield carbenium ions is promoted by hydrogen ion activity,
200 high acidity hinders hydration and deprotonation, explaining the largest GF and the smallest SSA
201 on weakly acidic (NH₄)₂SO₄ particles in the presence NH₃ (Figure 3a). In addition, uptake of
202 dicarbonyls, organic acids, and PAQ is likely facilitated on aqueous (NH₄)₂SO₄ particles, because
203 of surface propensity of charge-separation at the interface (Hua et al., 2011; Shi et al., 2020).
204 Specifically, surface-abundant NH₄⁺ cations arising from interfacial charge separation of
205 (NH₄)₂SO₄ likely exert electrostatic attraction to gaseous oxygenated species (with a negative
206 charge character) to enhance uptake for dicarbonyls, organic acids, and PAQ (Li et al., 2021a,b).
207 The most efficient formation of SOA and BrC on (NH₄)₂SO₄ particles in the presence of NH₃ are
208 also consistent with the measured highest intensities for oligomers and NCO (Figure 3b). On the
209 other hand, ionic dissociation and acid-base reaction to yield carboxylates occur efficiently in the
210 presence of NH₃/NaCl, as evident from the increasing carboxylate intensity from NH₄HSO₄ to
211 NaCl (Figure 3b). The GF and SSA increase and decrease, respectively, with NH₃ from 0 to 27



212 ppb for all three types of seed particles (Figure 4a,b), relevant to the reactions of NH_3 with
213 dicarbonyls to form NCO and with organic acids to form ammonium carboxylates. The analysis
214 of the particle composition confirms that the intensities of oligomers, NCO, and carboxylates
215 increase with the NH_3 concentration (Figure 4c-e).

216 We carried out additional experiments by varying RH from 10% to 70% in the presence of
217 19 ppb NH_3 (Figure 5). The GF decreases with increasing RH from (3.10 ± 0.06) at RH = 10% to
218 (2.41 ± 0.03) at RH = 70% (Figure 5a). The measured SSA at 120 min is close to unity at 10% and
219 30% RH and decreases with increasing RH (Figure 5a), indicating negligible NCO formation at
220 low RH but significant NCO formation at RH above 50%. Carboxylates represent the dominant
221 constituent throughout the RH range (i.e., 85% at 10% RH to 47% at 70% RH), while the
222 contributions of oligomers and NCO are small at low RH (2-5% at RH < 40%) and become
223 increasingly significant at high RH (15-23% at RH > 50%) (Figure 5b). The fraction for PAQ (8%)
224 is nearly invariant with RH. For $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ particles, the deliquescent and efflorescent points are
225 at 80% and 36% RH, respectively (Li et al., 2021b). At low RH (10% and 30%), aqueous reactions
226 to yield oligomers/NCO are minimal because of small water activity and significantly suppressed
227 protonation and oligomerization. On the other hand, carboxylic acids readily undergo ionic
228 dissociation or acid-base reaction, since organic acids efficiently retain water even at low RH (Xue,
229 2009). The equilibrium vapor pressures for PAQ are much lower than those for organic acids (Table
230 S6), facilitating more efficient condensation. Additionally, wall-loss of COOs is more pronounced
231 at high RH (Li et al., 2021b), explaining the decreased GF with increasing RH. Measurement of
232 gaseous concentrations for COOs shows that wall-loss is 1.5 to 4.6 times more efficient at 70%
233 RH than at 10% RH, while wall loss of *m*-xylene is negligible at both RH levels (Table S7).



234 We determined the total density and the density of the SOA fraction for $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ seed
235 particles exposed to *m*-xylene oxidation (Figure 5 c,d). The measured densities are distinct between
236 10 and 70% RH. At 10% RH, the total density decreases monotonically, while the SOA density
237 increases slightly with reaction time, i.e., from 1.27 to 1.39 g cm^{-3} (Figure 5c), indicating minor
238 oligomers and dominant carboxylic acids at low RH. At 70% RH, the total particle density initially
239 decreases from 1.77 g cm^{-3} to 1.41 g cm^{-3} (at a GF of 1.24) and subsequently increases steadily to
240 1.56 g cm^{-3} at 120 min. The SOA density on $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ particles increases from 1.26 g cm^{-3} at 10
241 min to 1.55 g cm^{-3} at 120 min (Figure 5d). The evolution in the densities reflects the variation in
242 the chemical composition. The initial particle growth is dominated by small oligomers, imidazoles
243 from methylglyoxal/methylbutenedial, and early-generation organic acids (e.g., toluic acid), with
244 the densities from 0.98 to 1.27 g cm^{-3} (Table S8). Subsequent particle growth from
245 methylglyoxal/methylbutenedial yields large oligomers, with the densities of 1.71-1.90 g cm^{-3}
246 (Table S8).

247 To evaluate the NO_x effects, we performed experiments on $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ seed particles by
248 varying the initial NO_x concentration from 0 to 500 ppb (Figure 6). Three major nitrophenols are
249 identified from NO_2 addition to the OH-*m*-xylene adduct, i.e., 4-methyl-2-nitrophenol ($m/z = 154$),
250 dimethyl nitrophenol ($m/z = 168$), and dimethyl-4-nitrocatechol ($m/z = 184$) (Figure 6a). The
251 production of nitrophenols is much smaller than those for dicarbonyls and organic acids, consistent
252 with a smaller yield (less than 7%) for nitrophenols (Fan and Zhang, 2008). The GF on $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$
253 seed particles with NH_3 decreases from 2.41 ± 0.03 to 2.18 ± 0.03 with 0 to 500 ppb NO_x (Figure
254 6b). The SSA decreases significantly from 0.911 ± 0.006 to 0.839 ± 0.003 with increasing NO_x
255 (Figure 6b), because of the formation of light-absorbing nitrophenols (Hems and Abbatt, 2018; Li et
256 al., 2021b). Analysis of particle composition reveals that the decreasing GF with increasing NO_x



257 correlates with simultaneous decreases of carboxylates, oligomers, and NCOs and with increasing
258 nitrophenols in the aerosol-phase (Figure 6c). Overall, nitrophenols contribute 2% to 4% to the
259 SOA formation. Addition of NO_x does not only produce nitrophenols and but also alters the cycling
260 between RO₂ and alkoxy (RO) radicals, leading to re-distributions of COOs. The presence of NO_x
261 decreases dicarbonyls and organic acids, as evident from decreased intensities for oligomers, NCO,
262 and carboxylates in the aerosol-phase with increasing NO_x (Figure 2h).

263 3.4 COO and SOA Yields

264 From the measured GF and COO concentrations, we derived the γ , which is widely
265 employed to represent aerosol formation in atmospheric models (Zhang et al., 2015). The measured
266 γ varies with the functionality of COOs and RH on (NH₄)₂SO₄ seed particles (Figure 7a). Results
267 of the γ values for COOs are also summarized in Table S9. The γ for dicarbonyls is the highest
268 (from 3×10^{-3} to 1.3×10^{-2}) at 70% RH but is significantly reduced (from 3.7×10^{-4} to 1.0×10^{-3})
269 at 10% RH, while the γ 's for organic acids, PAQ, and nitrophenols are slightly higher at 70% RH.
270 Among the organic acids, the γ correlates with the acid dissociation constant and solubility, which
271 are the highest for pyruvic acid and the lowest for toluic acid. The standard variation in γ (within
272 one σ) among each COO type is within 50%, 40%, 30%, and 15% for dicarbonyls, organic acids,
273 PAQ, and nitrophenols, respectively. From the measured concentrations of COOs and *m*-xylene,
274 we determined the COO yields (Y_{COO}),

$$275 \quad Y_{\text{COO}} = [\text{COO}_i] / \Delta[\text{C}_6\text{H}_4(\text{CH}_3)_2] \quad (1)$$

276 where i represents the type of COO species (i.e., dicarbonyls for $i = 1$, carboxylic acids for $i = 2$,
277 PAQ for $i = 3$, and nitrophenols for $i = 4$), $[\text{COO}_i]$ denotes the concentration of COO species i with
278 correction for wall-loss (see SI Methods), and $\Delta[\text{C}_6\text{H}_4(\text{CH}_3)_2]$ is the concentration of *m*-xylene
279 consumed due to OH oxidation. The Y_{COO} values for dicarbonyls, organic acids, PAQ, and



280 nitrophenols are 25%, 37%, 5%, and 3%, respectively (Figure 7b), indicating significant
281 production of COOs from *m*-xylene oxidation.

282 Hence, our results show that gas-to-particle conversion from *m*-xylene oxidation involves
283 several distinct heterogeneous processes, including interfacial attraction, ionic dissociation/acid-
284 base reaction, and nucleophilic oligomerization, which cannot be described by equilibrium
285 partitioning. We established a functionality-based SOA formation to predict the aerosol mass
286 concentration (M_{SOA}) from the measured gaseous concentrations and γ 's for COOs,

$$287 \quad M_{\text{SOA}} = \sum_i \frac{1}{4} \gamma_i C_i S [\text{COO}_i] MW_i \quad (2)$$

288 where C_i is the thermal velocity for species i , S is the available particle surface area per unit volume,
289 and MW_i is the molar weight for species i . The M_{SOA} is calculated using the averaged γ (Figure 3c
290 and Table S10) and the measured time-averaged concentrations for each COO type (Table S7).
291 While the production of COOs is dependent on the VOC types and photooxidation, the aerosol-
292 phase reactivity of COOs, as represented by γ , is only dependent on the functionality for a given
293 aerosol type. Thus, SOA formation from various VOC types can be predicted from the production
294 and reactivity for COOs based on the experimental measurements, by categorizing COOs in
295 accordance with their functional groups.

296 To assess the consistency of this approach, we compared the predicted and measured SOA
297 mass yields (Y_{SOA}),

$$298 \quad Y_{\text{SOA}} = M_{\text{SOA}} / (\Delta[\text{C}_6\text{H}_4(\text{CH}_3)_2] \times MW_m) \quad (3)$$

299 where MW_m is the molar weight of *m*-xylene. The predicted Y_{SOA} is $(11 \pm 3)\%$ and $(6 \pm 1)\%$,
300 respectively, at 10% and 70 % RH, comparable to the measured values of $(14 \pm 0.4)\%$ and $(6.3 \pm$
301 $0.2)\%$ on $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ seed particles (Figure 7c). The slight differences between the predicted and
302 measured Y_{SOA} 's are explainable by the uncertainties related to lumping each COO type (i.e.,



303 averaging the γ values) as well as unaccounted low-abundant COO species. To account for the
304 RH-dependent wall loss for COOs, we corrected Y_{SOA} from the measured gaseous concentrations
305 at varying RH (see Methods and Table S7). Such correction results in an increase of about one to
306 four times for Y_{SOA} at 10% and 70% RH, yielding the values of $(20 \pm 4)\%$ and $(32 \pm 7)\%$,
307 respectively (Figure 7c). Under atmospheric conditions, SOA/BrC formation from *m*-xylene is
308 expected to be enhanced at high RH, because of significantly enhanced aqueous reaction, larger
309 aerosol surface-area, and higher water activity. Field measurements showed significantly enhanced
310 SOA formation with increasing RH during severe haze evolution (Guo et al., 2014; Peng et al., 2021).

311 **4. Conclusions**

312 In this work we have elucidated the production of COOs and assess their roles in SOA
313 formation from *m*-xylene oxidation. OH-initiated oxidation of *m*-xylene produces four distinct
314 COO types consisting of dicarbonyls, carboxylic acids, polyhydroxy aromatics/quinones, and
315 nitrophenols from early-generation (P_2 and P_3), with the yields of 25%, 37%, 5%, and 3%,
316 respectively. SOA formation occurs via several heterogeneous processes, including interfacial
317 interaction, ionic dissociation/acid-base reaction, and oligomerization, with the yields of $(20 \pm 4)\%$
318 at 10% RH and $(32 \pm 7)\%$ at 70% RH. The identified aerosol-phase products include dominant
319 oligomers, N-heterocycles/N-heterochains, and carboxylates at high RH and dominant
320 carboxylates at low RH, along with small amounts of PAQ and nitrophenols (in the presence of
321 NO_x). The nitrogen-containing organics consisting of N-heterocycles, N-heterochains, and
322 nitrophenols are light-absorbing, characterized by low SSA. The measured γ for COOs is
323 dependent on the functionality, ranging from 3.7×10^{-4} to 1.3×10^{-2} . A kinetic framework is
324 developed to predict SOA formation from the concentration and γ for COOs. Our results illustrate
325 that SOA formation from *m*-xylene oxidation is accurately quantified from the abundance and



326 reactivity for COOs (i.e., eq. 2). Notably, this kinetic framework accounts for the interfacial
327 process (i.e., mass accommodation) as well as aqueous reactions (i.e., oligomerization and acid-
328 base reactions) without the assumption of gas-particle equilibrium. We envisage that this
329 functionality-based approach is broadly applicable to predict SOA formation from VOC
330 photooxidation using experiment/field measured or model-simulated COOs, aerosol surface area,
331 and reactivity. We conclude that photochemical oxidation of *m*-xylene represents a major source
332 for SOA and BrC formation under urban conditions, because of its large abundance, high reactivity
333 with OH, and high yields for COOs.

334 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

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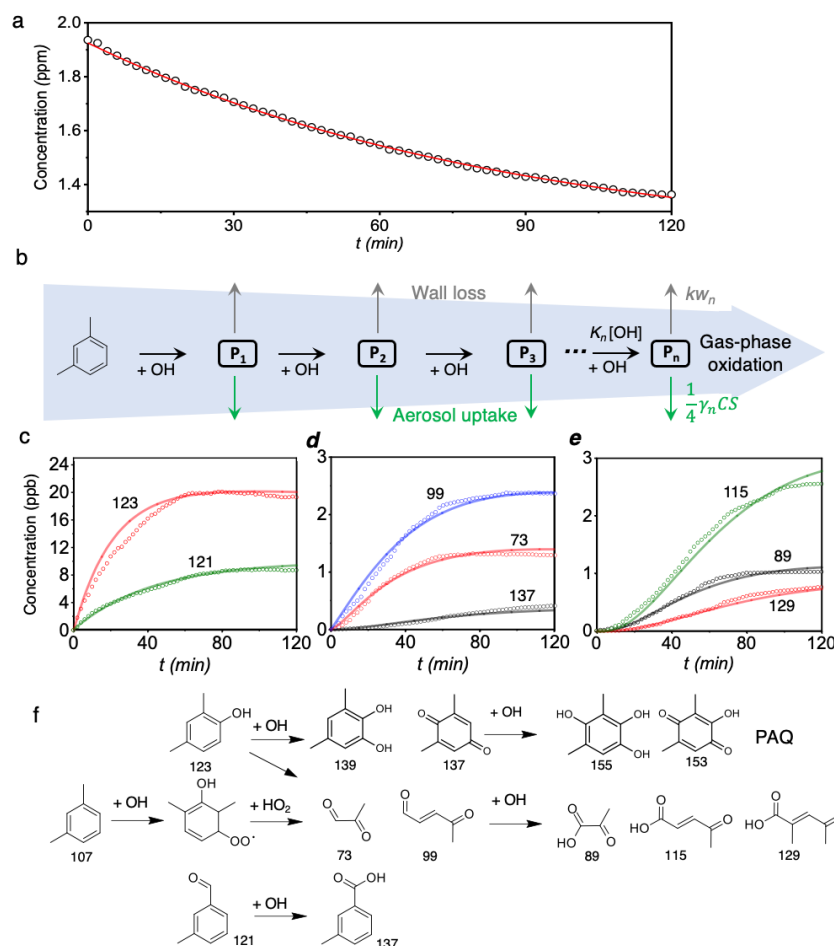
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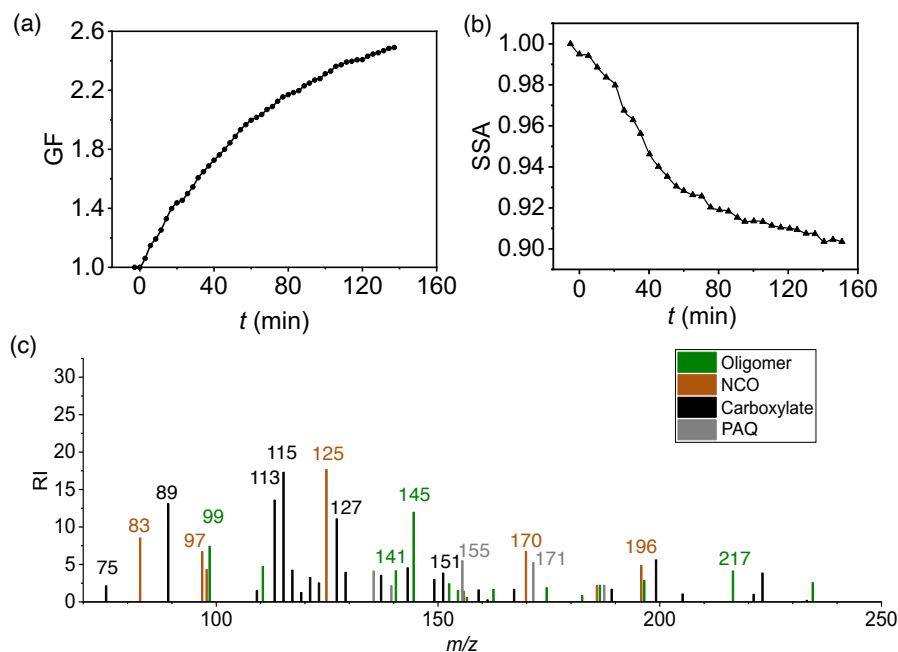
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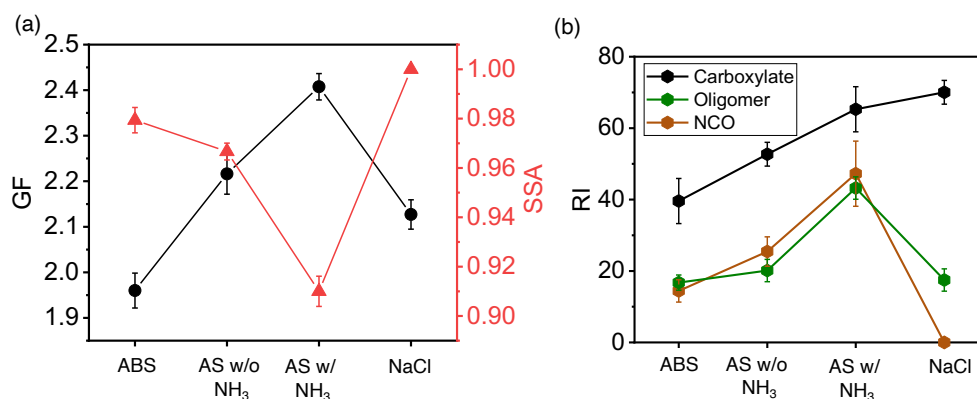
520
 521 **Figure 1.** OH-initiated photooxidation of *m*-xylene. (a) Time-dependent concentration of *m*-
 522 xylene. The symbols are from the measurements, and the red solid line corresponds to exponential
 523 fitting of the *m*-xylene concentration. The initial concentration for *m*-xylene and the estimated
 524 steady-state concentration for OH are 1940 ppb and 2.1×10^6 molecules cm^{-3} , respectively, with a
 525 bimolecular rate constant of 2.4×10^{-11} cm^3 molecule $^{-1}$ s $^{-1}$. (b) Schematic representation leading to
 526 the multi-generation product, P_n , where n denotes the sequence of OH-initiated oxidation. The
 527 black, gray, and green arrows denote the gas-phase oxidation, chamber wall loss, and aerosol
 528 uptake, respectively. K_n and kW_n are the rate coefficients for the gas-phase oxidation and wall loss,
 529 respectively, γ_n represents the aerosol uptake coefficient, C is the thermal velocity, and S is the
 530 aerosol surface area. (c-e) Time-dependent gas-phase concentrations of P_1 (c), P_2 (d), and P_3 (e)
 531 products. The symbols are from measurements, and the solid curves are simulated according to the
 532 tri-exponential kinetics. (f) The gaseous oxidation pathways leading to the detected products. The
 533 top row corresponds to the pathways leading to polyhydroxy aromatics/quinones (PAQ). The
 534 numbers in (c) to (f) represents the mass to charge ratio (m/z). All experiments are carried out for
 535 $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ seed particles with 19 ppb NH_3 at 298 K and RH = 70%. Initiation of photooxidation
 536 by ultraviolet light occurs at $t = 0$.



537

538 **Figure 2.** SOA and BrC formation from *m*-xylene photooxidation. Time-dependent growth factor
539 ($GF = D_p/D_0$, a) and single scattering albedo (SSA, b) of seed particles exposed to *m*-xylene
540 oxidation products. (c) Chemical speciation of aerosol-phase products by TD-ID-CIMS. Initiation
541 of photooxidation by ultraviolet light occurred at $t = 0$. All experiments are carried out for
542 $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ seed particles with 19 ppb NH_3 at 298 K and $\text{RH} = 70\%$.

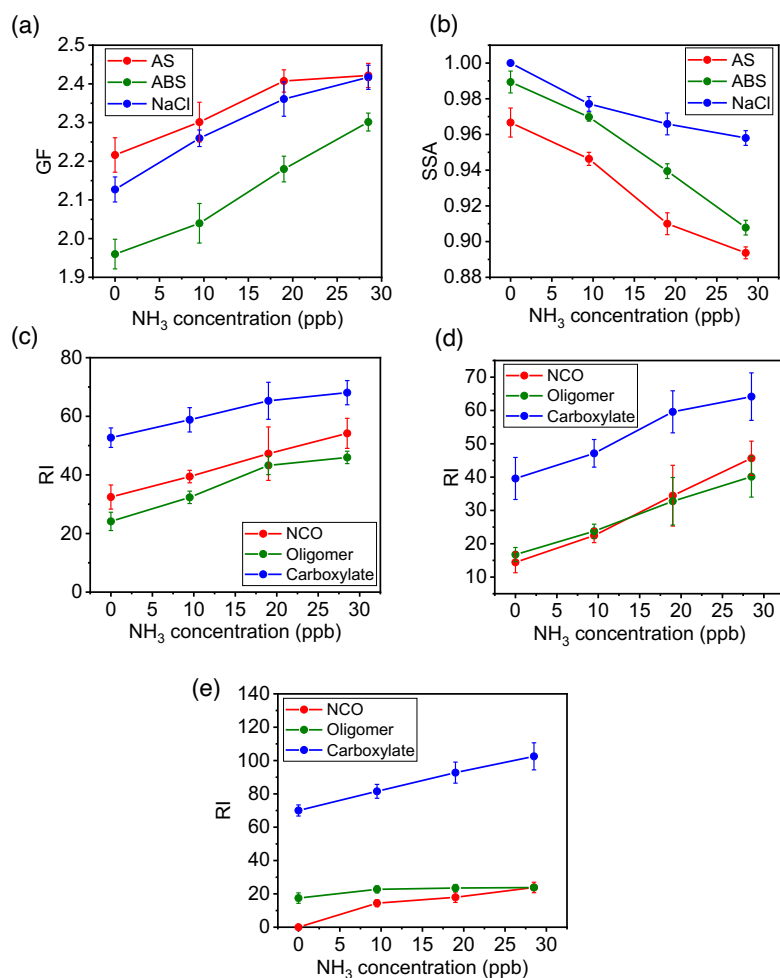
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545 **Figure 3.** Dependence of SOA/BrC formation on seed particles. (a) GF (black) and SSA (red) at
546 120 mins of exposure for (NH₄)₂SO₄ particles in the presence (AS w/ NH₃) and absence (AS w/o
547 NH₃) of 19 ppb NH₃ and for NH₄HSO₄ (ABS) and NaCl particles in the absence of NH₃. (b)
548 Aerosol-phase relative intensity (RI) for carboxylates (black), oligomers (green), and NCO (brown)
549 on different seed particles. The error bar denotes 1σ of 3 replicated measurements. All particle
550 properties were measured relevant to dry conditions (less than 5% RH) and were dominantly
551 contributed by non-volatile aerosol-phase products.

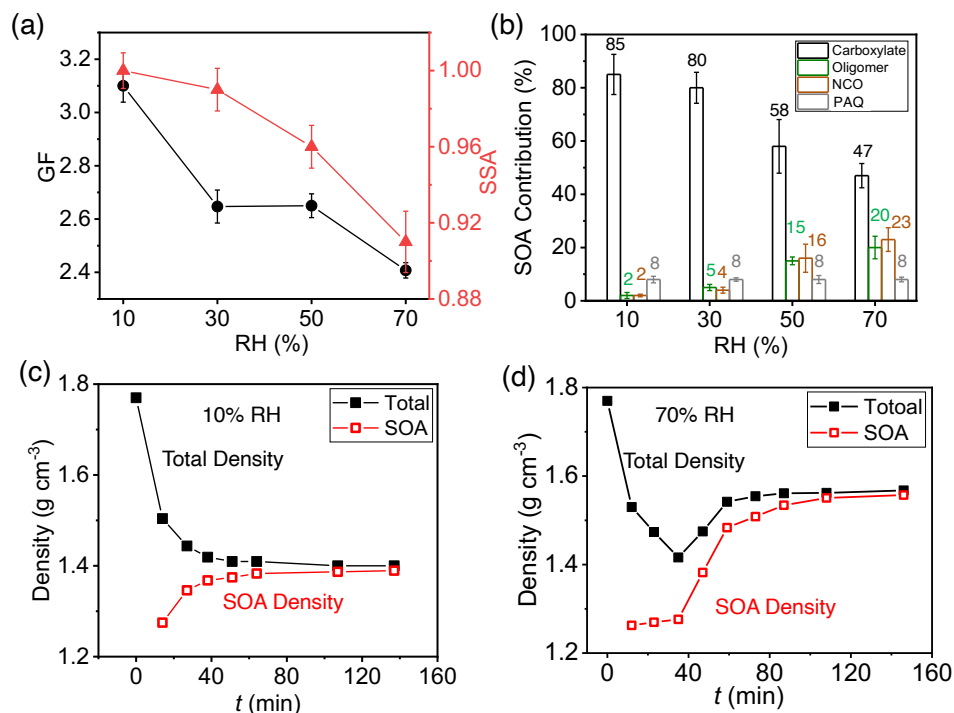
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554 **Figure 4.** Variation of SOA formation with seed particles and NH_3 concentration. (a,b) growth
555 factor (a) and SSA (b) at $t = 120$ min with varying NH_3 concentration between 0 and 27 ppb for
556 ammonium sulfate (AS, red), ammonium bisulfate (ABS, green), and sodium chloride (NaCl,
557 blue) seed particles. (c-e) Aerosol-phase mass relative intensity (RI) for NCO (red), oligomers
558 (green), and carboxylates (blue) on AS (c), ABS (d), and NaCl (e) seed particles. The error bar
559 denotes 1σ of 3 replicated measurements.

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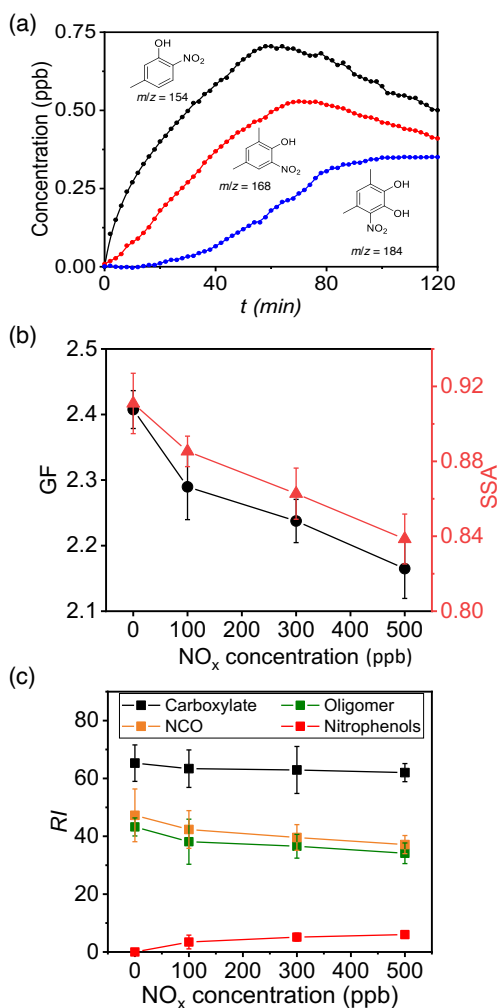


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562 **Figure 5.** Dependence of SOA/BrC formation on RH. (a) GF (black) and SSA (red) at 120 min
 563 with varying RH from 10% to 70%. (b) Contribution of COOs to SOA formation with varying RH
 564 from 10% to 70%: carboxylate (black), oligomers (green), NCO (brown), and PAQ (gray) to SOA
 565 formation. The number denotes the percentage contribution (%) of each type of aerosol-phase
 566 products. (c,d) Time-dependent particle (black) and SOA (red) densities of seed particles exposed
 567 to *m*-xylene oxidation products at RH = 10% (c) and 70% (d), respectively. The error bar denotes
 568 1σ of 3 replicated measurements.

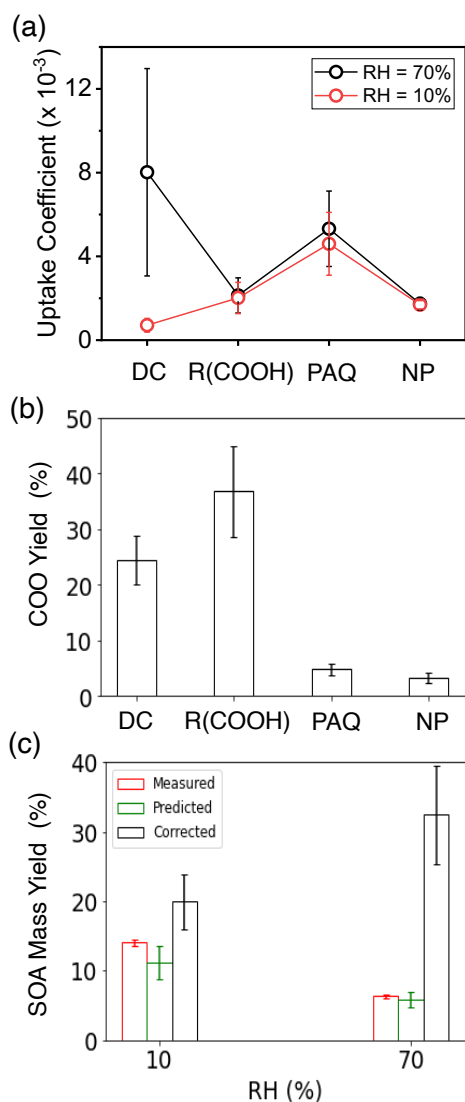
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571

572 **Figure 6.** The effects of NO_x. (a) Time-dependent gas-phase concentrations of 5-methyl-2-
573 nitrophenol (black, $m/z = 154$), dimethyl nitrophenol (red, $m/z = 168$), and dihydroxy nitrotoluene
574 (blue, $m/z = 184$). The numbers denote the mass to charge ratio (m/z). Initiation of photooxidation
575 by ultraviolet light occurred at $t = 0$. (b) GF (black) and SSA (red) at 120 min with varying NO_x
576 concentration from 0 to 500 ppb. (h) Dependence of aerosol-phase relative mass intensities (RI)
577 for carboxylates (black), oligomers (green), NCO (brown), and nitrophenols (red) on NO_x
578 concentration for (NH₄)₂SO₄ seed particles with 19 ppb NH₃ at RH = 70%. The error bar denotes
579 1σ of 3 replicated measurements.



580

581 **Figure 7.** Uptake coefficient, COO yield, and SOA mass yield. (a) Average uptake coefficients (γ)
582 for different types of COOs at 10% (red) and 70% (black) RH for $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ seed particles with
583 19 ppb NH_3 at 298 K. (b) COO yields: dicarbonyls, organic acids, polyhydroxy aromatics/quinones,
584 and nitrophenols are represented by DC, R(COOH)_n, PAQ, and NP, respectively. (c) SOA mass
585 yields at 10% (left columns) and 70% RH (right). The red, green, and black columns represent the
586 measured, predicted, and corrected (for wall loss) SOA mass yields according to eq. 1. All
587 experiments are carried out for $14 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ seed particles with 19 ppb NH_3 at 298 K. The
588 error bars denote the 1σ of 3 replicated measurements or by accounting for error propagation of
589 the measured parameters.