

1 **Secondary Organic Aerosols from OH Oxidation of Cyclic Volatile Methyl Siloxanes as an Important**
2 **Si Source in the Atmosphere**

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12 **Short summary:** We presented yields and compositions of Si-containing SOA generated from the reaction
13 of cVMS (D3-D6) with OH radicals. NO_x played negative roles on cVMS SOA formation, while ammonium
14 sulfate seeds enhanced D3-D5 SOA yields at short photochemical ages under high-NO_x conditions. The
15 aerosol mass spectra confirmed that the components of cVMS SOA significantly relied on OH exposure. A
16 global cVMS-derived SOA source strength was estimated to understand SOA formation potentials of cVMS.

17

18 **Abstract**

19 Cyclic volatile methyl siloxanes (cVMS) are active ingredients in widely used consumer products, which
20 can volatilize into the atmosphere, thus attracting much attention due to their potential environmental risks.
21 While in the atmosphere the cVMS undergo oxidation yielding both gaseous and particulate products. The
22 aerosol yields and compositions from the OH oxidation of four cVMS (D3-D6) were determined under low

23 and high-NO_x conditions in an oxidation flow reactor. The aerosol yields progressively increased from D3
24 to D6, consistent with the volatilities and molecule weights of these cVMS. NO_x can restrict the formation
25 of SOA, leading to lower SOA yields under high-NO_x conditions than under low-NO_x conditions, with a
26 yield decrease between 0.05-0.30 depending on the cVMS. Ammonium sulfate seeds exhibited minor
27 impacts on SOA yields under low-NO_x conditions, but significantly increased the SOA yields in the oxidation
28 of D3-D5 at short photochemical ages under high-NO_x conditions. The mass spectra of the SOA showed a
29 dependence of its chemical compositions on OH exposure. At high exposures, equivalent to photochemical
30 ages of > 4 days in the atmosphere, D4-D6 SOA mainly consisted of C_xH_y and C_xH_yO_zSi_n under low-NO_x
31 conditions, whereas they primarily contained N_mO_z, C_xH_y, C_xH_yO₁, C_xH_yO_{>1} and C_xH_yO_zSi_n under high-NO_x
32 conditions. The potential contributions of cVMS to SOA formation in the atmosphere were evaluated using
33 the reported cVMS annual production and the yield data obtained in the present study. A global cVMS-
34 derived (D4-D6) SOA source strength is estimated to be 0.01 Tg yr⁻¹, distributed over major urban centers.

35

36 **1 Introduction**

37 Secondary organic aerosols (SOA), which contribute 50-85% to the mass of atmospheric organic aerosols
38 (OA) (Glasius and Goldstein, 2016), are mainly formed via the partitioning of low volatility products from
39 oxidation of volatile organic compounds (VOCs), semi- and intermediate volatile organic
40 compounds(S/IVOCs) (Riipinen et al., 2012). SOA has attracted significant attention due to their important
41 impacts on climate, ecosystems and human health (Berndt et al., 2016). Global budgets of SOA remain an
42 unresolved issue despite extensive research, largely due to uncertainties associated with aerosol yields and
43 the presence of unconsidered SOA precursors.

44 As one type of anthropogenic VOC and potential SOA precursors, cyclic volatile methyl siloxanes (cVMS)

45 are widely used in industrial applications and personal care products (Genualdi et al., 2011; Krogseth et al.,
46 2013a). cVMS have been classified as high-volume chemicals with an annual production of millions of tons
47 globally (Rücker and Kümmerer, 2015; Ahrens et al., 2014). Studies of cVMS in the environment have
48 focused on investigating health and environmental impacts particularly due to their potential persistence,
49 bioaccumulation and toxicity (Guo et al., 2019; Liu et al., 2018; Farasani and Darbre, 2017; Xu et al., 2019;
50 Kim et al., 2018; Coggon et al., 2018). As a result, the European Council has proposed a restriction on the
51 octamethylcyclotetrasiloxane (D4) and decamethylcyclopentasiloxane (D5) content in wash-off personal
52 care products to a limit of 0.1 mass% by 2020 (Eur-Lex, 2018). The legislative actions notwithstanding,
53 knowledge of environmental behavior of cVMS still needs to be further deepened as compared to their
54 applications and economic significance (Rücker and Kümmerer, 2015).

55 It has been estimated that approximately 90% of cVMS are emitted into the atmosphere due to their high
56 saturation vapor pressures (Allen et al., 1997). Gas-phase cVMS have been observed in both indoor and
57 outdoor air. Tang et al. (2015) reported that cVMS accounted for about one-third of total VOC mass
58 concentration in a classroom. Outdoor air concentrations of cVMS have also been measured at different sites
59 worldwide (Li et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2018; Rauert et al., 2018), increasing from rural to urban sites and
60 consistent with increasing population density (Rücker and Kümmerer, 2015). For example, at a rural site in
61 Sweden, the concentration of hexamethylcyclotrisiloxane (D3), D4, D5 and dodecamethylcyclohexasiloxane
62 (D6) were 0.94, 3.5, 13 and 1 ng/m³, respectively (Kierkegaard and Mclachlan, 2013), while they were 18,
63 55, 172 and 14 ng/m³ in urban areas of Toronto in Canada, respectively (Genualdi et al., 2011; Rauert et al.,
64 2018). cVMS have also been detected in the remote Arctic atmosphere, confirming their long-range transport
65 (Genualdi et al., 2011; Krogseth et al., 2013b). Atmospheric half-lives of cVMS are on the order of 30, 15,
66 10 and 6 days for D3-D6, respectively, which allow cVMS to exhibit a hemispherical distribution in the

67 atmosphere (Canada, 2008; Xiao et al., 2015). These lifetimes are driven mostly by reactions with the OH
68 radicals (Xiao et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2013), which generate silanols and dimeric products that can be
69 partitioned to condensed phases (Coggon et al., 2018; Sommerlade, 1993; Wu and Johnston, 2016). Different
70 OH concentrations can partly explain the seasonal variation of cVMS lifetimes that was characterized by
71 longer during winter than in summer (Rücker and Kümmerer, 2015). The loss of cVMS in the atmosphere is
72 negligible through O₃ and NO₃ due to their small reaction rates (Atkinson, 1991). The global loss by the
73 reaction with Cl atoms is less than 5% on account of low Cl concentrations, although it may be higher in
74 some regions where cVMS emissions and Cl sources overlap in both space and time (Alton and Browne,
75 2020). It has been demonstrated that elemental Si is a frequent constituent of nanoparticles in rural and urban
76 areas (Phares et al., 2003; Rhoads, 2003; Bein, 2005; Bzdek et al., 2014) and in remote regions (Li and
77 Winchester, 1990; Li and Winchester, 1993). These Si-containing nanoparticles have previously been
78 attributed to ore smelting processes, but recent studies have shown that Si-containing species are one of the
79 main components in cVMS SOA, suggesting that the oxidation of cVMS may be an important source of Si
80 in atmospheric aerosols (Wu and Johnston, 2016, 2017). In a modeling study, the oxidation products of
81 cVMS (D4, D5 and D6) were considered to quantify the maximum potential for aerosol formation through
82 reactions with the OH radicals (Janecek et al., 2017). Chandramouli and Kamens (2001) demonstrated the
83 gas-particle partitioning of silanols from D5 oxidation by the OH radicals. Wu and Johnston (2016, 2017)
84 analyzed the chemical composition of secondary aerosols from OH oxidation of D4 and D5, showing a large
85 number of monomeric and dimeric products. Janecek et al. (2017, 2019) reported physical properties of
86 SOA generated by OH oxidation of D5, including hygroscopicity, cloud seeding potential and volatility.
87 Charan et al. (2022) measured SOA yields of D5 using chambers and flow tube reactors, emphasizing the
88 importance of the relevant OH concentrations and exposures when extrapolating these laboratory results or

89 comparing with other studies. These studies mainly focused on D5 and occasionally D4 but rarely others. To
90 better understand the SOA-forming potentials of typical cVMS in the atmosphere, accurate yields and
91 molecular compositions of SOA from the oxidation of cVMS under various atmospheric conditions are
92 needed.

93 In this work, the formation of SOA from the oxidation of four cVMS (D3-D6) by OH radicals was
94 investigated in an oxidation flow reactor (OFR). Under various combinations of NO_x and ammonium sulfate
95 seed concentrations, the yields and compositions of SOA formed from the oxidation were measured using a
96 suite of instruments including a scanning mobility particle sizer (SMPS), a proton transfer reaction time of
97 flight mass spectrometer (PTR-ToF-MS) and an aerosol mass spectrometer (AMS). Based on these SOA
98 yields, the contribution of cVMS to SOA in the global atmosphere was estimated using reported cVMS
99 concentrations. The results obtained here can largely improve our understanding of the contribution and
100 composition of SOA from cVMS.

101 **2 Experiments and methods**

102 **2.1 Photo-oxidation experiments**

103 The reactions of cVMS with OH radicals were controlled at a constant temperature ($21\pm 1^\circ\text{C}$) and relative
104 humidity ($35\%\pm 2\%$) in a custom-made oxidation flow reactor (the Environment and Climate Change Canada
105 oxidation flow reactor, ECCC-OFR), which is shown in Fig. S1 of the Supplement and has been described
106 in detail previously (Li et al., 2019a). Briefly, the ECCC-OFR is a fused quartz cylinder (length: 50.8 cm,
107 inner diameter: 20.3 cm) equipped with a conical inlet and 7 outlets. Wall losses of particles and gases in the
108 ECCC-OFR have been shown to be lower than in other OFRs (Huang et al., 2017; Lambe et al., 2011;
109 Simonen et al., 2017; Li et al., 2019a). The length and full angle of cone inlet are 35.6 cm and 30° ,
110 respectively, designed to minimize the formation of jetting and recirculation in the OFR. The outlet at the

111 reactor center is a stainless-steel sampling port (inner diameter: 0.18 in) extending 12.7 cm long into the
112 ECCC-OFR. This sampling inlet reduces the impact of potential turbulent eddies caused by the back end of
113 the reactor. The remaining 6 outlets around the perimeter are designed to allow side flows to pass through
114 the OFR as a sheath flow, indirectly reducing wall losses of gases and particles inside the OFR upon sampling.
115 Ozone-free mercury UV lamps for generating OH radicals are housed in small quartz tubes around and in
116 parallel to the quartz reaction cylinder, and a large flow of air through each of these smaller quartz tubes is
117 used to remove the heat produced by the lamps. The relative humidity was adjusted by controlling the ratio
118 of dry air to wet air into the reactor, and was measured using a humidity sensor (Vaisala) at one of the sheath
119 flow outlets (side flows) of the reactor. The volume of the entire ECCC-OFR is about 16 L and the total flow
120 rate is 8 L min⁻¹, leading to a residence time of 2 min in the OFR.

121 OH radicals were produced through the reaction of water vapor with O(¹D) formed from O₃ photolysis at
122 254 nm. The OH concentration in the ECCC-OFR was regulated by controlling the input voltage and the
123 number of UV lamps. Methanol vapor, introduced into the ECCC-OFR through a bubbler containing
124 methanol solution, was used to determine the OH exposure (i.e., photochemical age, from the multiplication
125 of OH concentration and reaction time) by tracking its decay in the reactor from the reaction with the OH.
126 The decay, or fractional loss, of gas-phase methanol, [MeOH]/[MeOH]₀ was measured with the PTR-ToF-
127 MS, and was used to calculate the OH concentration via Equation 1,

$$128 \quad [\text{OH}] = -\frac{1}{k_{\text{MeOH}}} \ln \frac{[\text{MeOH}]}{[\text{MeOH}]_0} \quad (1)$$

129 where k_{MeOH} is the second-order rate constant of methanol reaction with OH at 298 K ($9.4 \times 10^{-13} \text{ cm}^3$
130 $\text{molecule}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$). The OH exposure measurement was offline, because methanol can affect the OH reactivity
131 with cVMS. Under low and high-NO_x conditions described below, the OH exposure varied in the range of
132 5.5×10^{10} - 1.8×10^{12} and 8.2×10^{10} - 1.1×10^{12} molecules cm⁻³ s, respectively. They correspond to 0.4-14.2

133 and 0.6-8.5 equivalent days (photochemical age), respectively, assuming that an average OH concentration
134 in air is 1.5×10^6 molecules cm^{-3} (Mao et al., 2009).

135 Pure D3-D6 cVMS compounds (solid D3 and liquid D4, D5 and D6) were placed in a glass U-type tube
136 and maintained at room temperature. Vapors from these compounds (Table S1 of the Supplement) were
137 separately introduced into the ECCC-OFR by a small flow of zero air ($1-18 \text{ mL min}^{-1}$) passing over the
138 headspace of the U-tube containing the pure compounds. The concentrations of D3-D6 in the ECCC-OFR
139 ranged from 20 to 43 ppb (Table S2), depending on their volatilities. Table S2 summarizes the concentrations
140 of cVMS at the reactor inlet and outlet, when the OH exposure was 1.85×10^{12} and 1.10×10^{12} molecules cm^{-3}
141 s in low and high- NO_x experiments, respectively, indicating the reaction depth of cVMS. To study the
142 influence of existing particles on the SOA formation, ammonium sulfate (AS) seed particles were produced
143 using an atomizer, dried by a diffusion dryer and neutralized by a neutralizer and injected into the reactor
144 without size selection. The mass concentration of AS seed particles was approximately $30 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ for all
145 experiments.

146 N_2O was used as a source of NO to achieve high- NO_x conditions (Lambe et al., 2017). NO_x conditions
147 were defined by the fate of peroxy radicals (RO_2), which was described by the reaction rate ratio (R_{NO}) of
148 $\text{RO}_2 + \text{NO}$ and $\text{RO}_2 + \text{HO}_2$ (Peng et al., 2018). The R_{NO} ratio increases with increasing OH exposures at a
149 constant concentration of N_2O (Li et al., 2019b). To achieve a constant branching ratio during the high- NO_x
150 experiments, the initial N_2O concentration in the OFR was varied (1.6%-8.0%) to maintain an R_{NO} value of
151 20 (Li et al., 2019b), as calculated using a model (OFR Exposures Estimator v3.1) (Peng et al., 2018). A
152 ratio of $R_{\text{NO}}=20$ indicates that 95% of RO_2 reacts with NO, ensuring the dominance of $\text{RO}_2 + \text{NO}$, which
153 represents conditions that are relevant for urban atmosphere (Peng et al., 2019). The role of $\text{RO}_2 + \text{RO}_2$ here
154 should be minor or negligible due to the low concentration of SOA precursors (cVMS, 18-46 ppb) (Lambe

155 et al., 2017; Peng et al., 2019; Li et al., 2019b). Peng et al. (2019) have reported that in the experiments
156 utilizing the injection of N₂O to achieve high-NO_x conditions, the relative importance of RO₂ + OH was
157 generally negatively correlated with N₂O due to the suppressing effect of NO_x on OH radicals and the
158 increasing role of RO₂ + NO. Under low-NO_x conditions, N₂O was not introduced into the OFR, where the
159 reaction ratio of RO₂ with HO₂ was estimated to be larger than 99% according to the model mentioned above
160 (Peng et al., 2018), representing atmospheric scenarios with few NO_x sources.

161 **2.2 Characterization and analysis**

162 The concentrations of cVMS in the OFR were measured online with PTR-ToF-MS (Ionicon Analytik
163 GmbH) (Liggio et al., 2016). The number and mass size distribution of aerosols was monitored using a
164 scanning mobility particle sizer (SMPS, TSI). The mass spectra and elemental composition of aerosols was
165 determined with a high-resolution time-of-flight aerosol mass spectrometer (HR-ToF-AMS, Aerodyne) and
166 analyzed with the AMS analysis software Squirrel (version 1.62G) and Pika (version 1.22G).

167 SOA mass yields (Y) were calculated via Equation 2,

$$168 \quad Y = \frac{\Delta C_{\text{SOA}}}{\Delta C_{\text{cVMS}}} \quad (2)$$

169 where ΔC_{SOA} and ΔC_{cVMS} are the mass concentrations of SOA formed and cVMS lost, respectively. The mass
170 concentration of SOA was determined by multiplying the effective aerosol density by the integrated SOA
171 volume concentration from the SMPS, subtracting the AS seed volume for experiments with AS seeds. The
172 effective aerosol density (ρ) was calculated for unseeded experiments through the following Equation 3
173 (Lambe et al., 2015),

$$174 \quad \rho = \frac{D_{va}}{D_m} \quad (3)$$

175 where D_{va} is the vacuum aerodynamic diameter obtained from the HR-ToF-AMS, and D_m is the electric
176 mobility diameter measured by the SMPS. The ρ varied in the range of 1.6-1.8 depending on the cVMS. The

177 same ρ value was also used in the seeded experiments. It should be pointed out that the background values
178 in Table S3 have been subtracted when calculating the cVMS SOA yields. The average data of SMPS and
179 AMS in the last ~10 minutes for each OH exposure was used to calculate the SOA yields (inset of Fig S2),
180 which can reduce the deviation caused by unstable SOA loadings at high OH exposures.

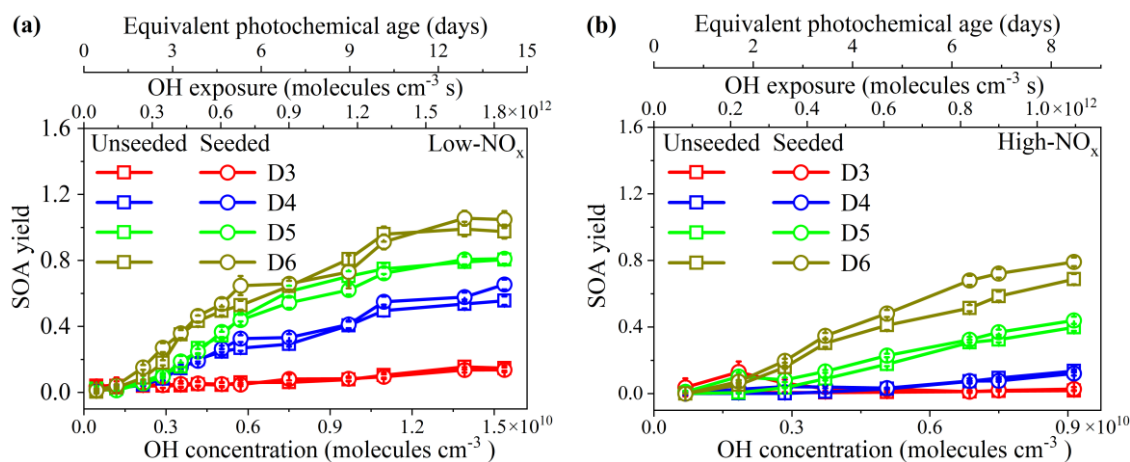
181 **3 Results and discussion**

182 **3.1 SOA yields**

183 Taking the D5 SOA under unseeded conditions as an example, the number and mass size distributions of
184 aerosols were shown in Fig. S3 at three photochemical ages (PA), i.e., time-integrated OH exposure. It can
185 be seen that small particles dominated the total particle number counts, while large ones dominated the mass.
186 The mass mode diameter of SOA for mass size distributions increased with PA under low and high-NO_x
187 conditions. The mass concentrations and time series of SOA obtained from SMPS and AMS were shown in
188 Table S4 and Fig. S2, respectively, which reflected a step-by-step pattern with increasing OH exposures.
189 Unstable SOA loadings at high OH exposures may be attributed to the fragmentation reactions, leading to
190 the difficulty in the deposition of products on SOA.

191 Figure 1 shows the SOA yields from the photooxidation of the D3-D6 cVMS under low and high-NO_x
192 conditions as a function of PA, with and without AS seed particles. SOA yields have been widely used to
193 estimate the potential of precursors to produce aerosol mass (McFiggans et al., 2019; Li et al., 2019a; Bruns
194 et al., 2015; Lambe et al., 2015). As shown in Fig. 1, the cVMS SOA yields exhibited an overall increasing
195 trend with PA, expressed in equivalent photochemical days, which agreed with the trend of D5 SOA yields
196 reported by Janecek et al. (2019). Under low-NO_x conditions (Fig. 1a), SOA yields exhibited a slow growth,
197 reaching a plateau after 10 equivalent days. This may be due to increased gas-phase fragmentation of cVMS
198 to generate some higher volatility products, leading to a small increasing amplitude of partition ratio of

199 species into SOA at longer photochemical ages.



200
201 Figure 1. SOA yields from unseeded and seeded ($30 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) photooxidation of cVMS by OH radicals. (a)

202 low- NO_x experiments; (b) high- NO_x experiments.

203

204 For the unseeded and low- NO_x experiments in Fig. 1a, SOA yields of four cVMS exhibited significant
205 differences in values over the same number of equivalent days. The SOA yields successively increased from
206 D3 to D6, consistent with the volatilities and molecular masses of the cVMS as well as their reaction rate
207 constants with the OH radical (Alton and Browne, 2020; Kim and Xu, 2017; Safron et al., 2015). The
208 maximum SOA yields of D3-D6 were (0.16 ± 0.02) , (0.56 ± 0.03) , (0.80 ± 0.03) and (0.99 ± 0.04) , respectively,
209 occurring after a PA of 12 equivalent days. It has been reported that D5 SOA yields varied in the range of 0-
210 1.1 (Janecek et al., 2019; Wu and Johnston, 2017; Charan et al., 2022). Under a low OH exposure ($\sim 10^{10}$ -
211 10^{11} molecules cm^{-3} s), the D5 SOA yield (0.01-0.11) obtained here was similar to that (chamber, 0-0.057;
212 flow tube, 0.018-0.06) measured by Charan et al. (2022). However, under a high OH exposure of $\sim 10^{11}$ - 10^{12}
213 molecules cm^{-3} s, the D5 SOA yield of 0.46-0.70 was higher than 0.22 and 0.14-0.35 (flow tube) reported
214 by Janecek et al. (2019) and Charan et al. (2022), respectively, which may be attributed to differences in
215 experimental conditions, such as differences in reactors, wall losses, SOA measurement methods,
216 determination of OH concentrations, and initial D5 concentrations (Table S5) (Janecek et al., 2019; Charan

217 et al., 2022). Although the amount of cVMS lost was variable, cVMS SOA yields positively depended on
218 SOA mass concentrations (Fig. S4), and this trend was observed in previous D5 SOA experiments with OH
219 oxidation (Wu and Johnston, 2017).

220 As shown in Fig. 1b, the order of SOA yields from the four cVMS under high-NO_x conditions was the
221 same as that under low-NO_x conditions. However, the SOA yields under high-NO_x conditions were generally
222 smaller than the corresponding yields at similar OH exposures under low-NO_x conditions, with a decrease
223 of 0.05-0.30 depending on the cVMS. Such a reduction suggests that NO_x can restrict the formation of cVMS
224 SOA. NO_x has been shown to reduce SOA yields for some anthropogenic alkanes (Li et al., 2019b), aromatics
225 (Ng et al., 2007a; Chan et al., 2009; Zhou et al., 2019), monoterpenes (Zhao et al., 2018) and other terpenes
226 (Ng et al., 2007b), attributable to the formation of higher volatility products (e.g., organic nitrates) generated
227 by RO₂ + NO compared to RO₂ + HO₂ (Presto et al., 2005; Li et al., 2019b), which is also likely the case
228 here. The higher volatility products favor partitioning in the gas phase, thus reducing the potential for
229 forming SOA (Zhou et al., 2019). Moreover, high NO_x levels can suppress the formation of products for
230 nucleation, thereby reducing aerosol surface as a condensational sink and increasing the wall loss of
231 condensable species in an OFR under high-NO_x conditions (Zhao et al., 2018; Sarrafzadeh et al., 2016; Wildt
232 et al., 2014). Figure S5 indicates that the difference between SOA yields with and without NO_x decreased
233 with increasing silicon atoms within individual cVMS, indicating a less restricting effect of NO_x on the SOA
234 formation for larger cVMS. This means that high NO_x levels play a lesser role in the SOA yields of lower
235 volatility precursors.

236 SOA yields in the AS-seeded experiments under low and high-NO_x conditions are also shown in Figs. 1
237 and S5, indicating minimal impacts of the AS seed particles on SOA yields. A yield enhancement ratio
238 ($R_E = Y_{\text{seeded}}/Y_{\text{unseeded}}$, Fig. S6) was used to show the seed impacts more clearly. Under low-NO_x conditions,

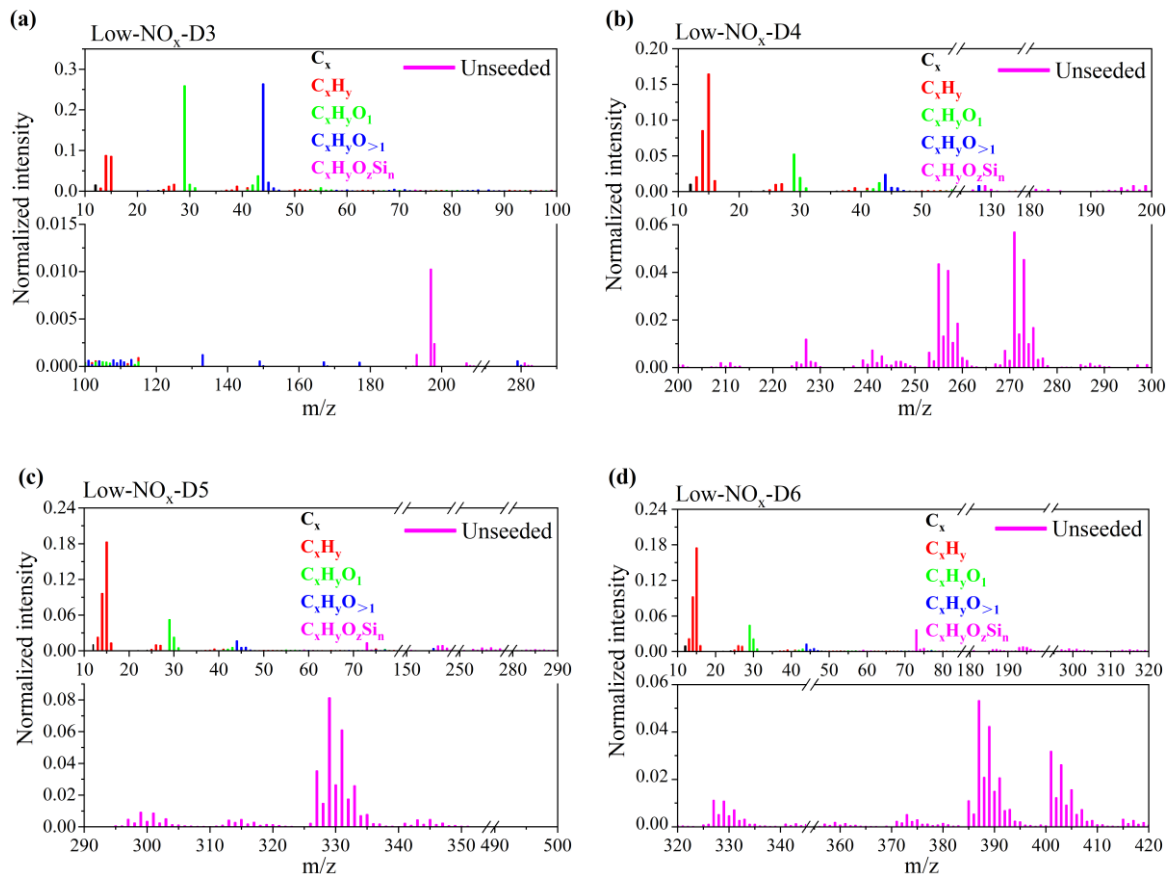
239 the R_E values for all cVMS were close to 1.0 (Fig. S6a), suggesting a negligible impact of AS seed particles
240 on SOA yields; however, under high- NO_x conditions, R_E was much larger (17.81, 13.18 and 15.51 for D3-
241 D5, respectively) at short PA but gradually decreased to 1.0 with increasing PA for D3-D5, while it was
242 always close to 1.0 for D6 regardless of PA (Fig. S6b). R_E values greater than 1.0 suggest that AS seed
243 particles played an enhancement role in the cVMS SOA formation, as similarly reported in SOA formation
244 from hydrocarbons (Sarrafzadeh et al., 2016; Lamkaddam et al., 2017; Li et al., 2019b). Under low- NO_x
245 conditions, the general lack of impact on cVMS SOA yields by the AS seed particles suggests that
246 condensation was not the main process driving SOA formation in cVMS oxidation. For the few cases of high
247 NO_x level at low PA, where R_E was >1 for D3-D5, it is possible that their early generations of oxidation
248 products were more volatile than successive generations of products and hence more prone to condensation
249 enhanced by AS seeds. As PA increased, further reactions of these early generation oxidation products with
250 OH radicals resulted in further generation products that were likely less volatile, thereby weakening the
251 enhancing role of AS seeds at high OH exposure. Such effect was less pronounced for D6, likely because its
252 oxidation products at different PA had similar volatilities. Figure S6b shows that the effect of AS seed
253 particles on SOA yields negatively correlated with the number of silicon atoms in the cVMS. Lower volatility
254 precursors (D5 and D6) may form lower volatile products, resulting in SOA yields less sensitive to the pre-
255 existing seeds.

256 **3.2 Aerosol compositions**

257 **3.2.1 Compositions of SOA under low- NO_x conditions.**

258 Figures 2 and S7 show the normalized HR-ToF-AMS mass spectra of cVMS SOA from unseeded
259 experiments under low- NO_x conditions at OH exposures of 9.0×10^{11} molecules cm^{-3} s (i.e., OH
260 concentration of 7.5×10^9 molecules cm^{-3}). The mass spectral signals can be identified as fragments with a

261 formula of $C_xH_yO_zSi_n$. For D3 SOA, the most prominent peaks were at m/z 44 and 29, dominated by CO_2^+
262 and CHO^+ , which were tracers for organic acids (Ng et al., 2010), alcohols and aldehydes (Lee et al., 2012),
263 respectively. They may result from the oxidation of the methyl groups in D3 by OH radicals. For the mass
264 spectra of D4-D6 SOA, the two highest peaks at m/z 14 and 15 were CH_2^+ and CH_3^+ , respectively. In addition,
265 there were several dominant $C_xH_yO_zSi_n$ peaks, which were fragments of silicon-containing products. For the
266 $C_xH_yO_zSi_n$ group in D4 SOA, there were four typical peaks at m/z 255, 257, 271 and 273, with formulae of
267 $C_4H_{11}O_7Si_3^+$, $C_3H_9O_8Si_3^+$, $C_3H_7O_9Si_3^+$ and $C_3H_9O_9Si_3^+$, respectively. The $C_xH_yO_zSi_n$ fragment group
268 containing Si of D5 SOA had three dominant peaks at m/z 327, 329 and 331, corresponding to $C_{12}H_{11}O_2Si_5^+$,
269 $C_9H_9O_8Si_3^+$ and $C_5H_{15}O_9Si_4^+$, respectively. For the $C_xH_yO_zSi_n$ group containing Si in D6 SOA, there were
270 five main peaks at m/z 73 (C_3H_9Si), 387 ($C_8H_{23}O_8Si_5^+$), 389 ($C_8H_9O_9Si_5^+$), 401 ($C_9H_{21}O_{10}Si_4^+$) and 403
271 ($C_7H_{15}O_{12}Si_4^+$).



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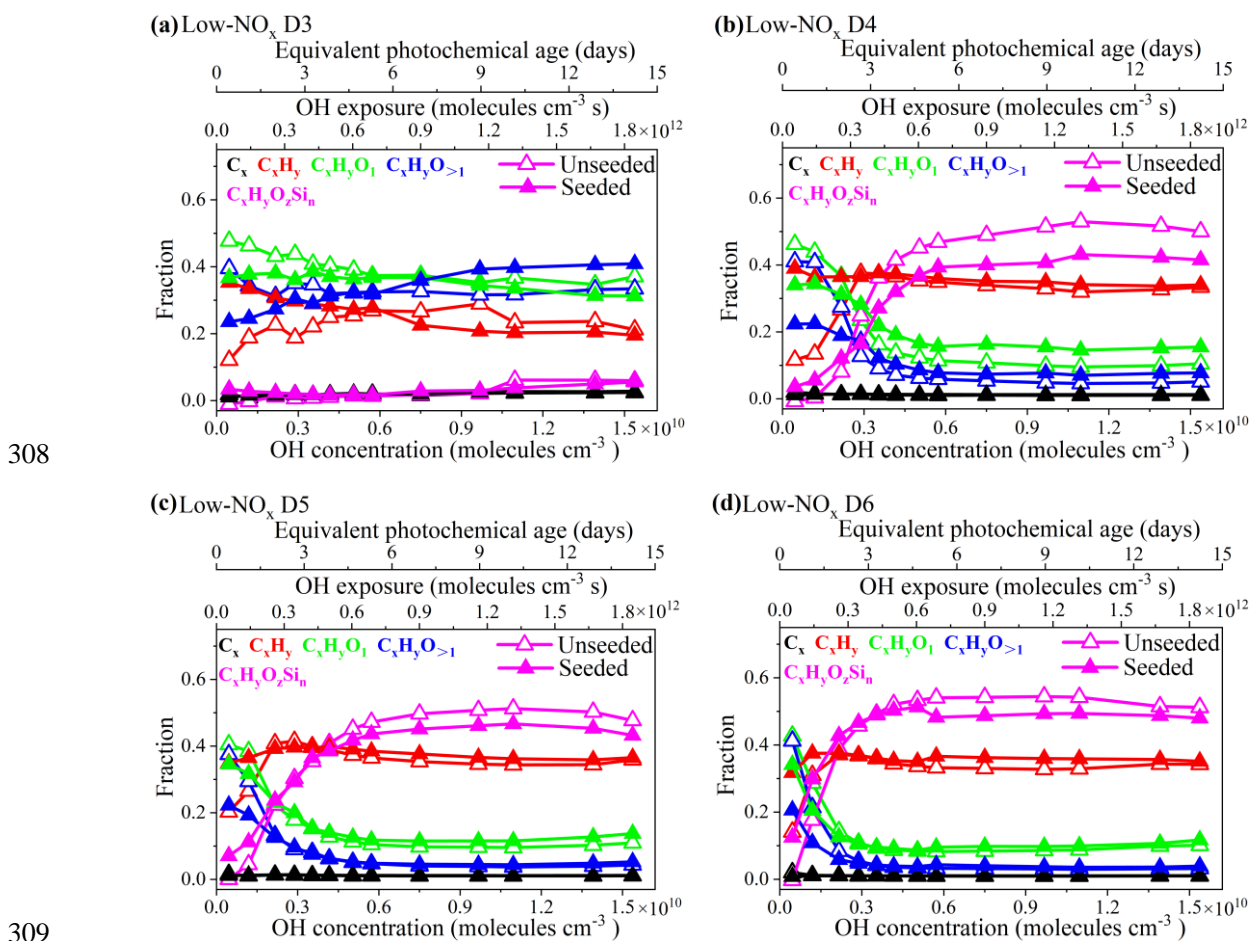
274 Figure 2. HR-ToF-AMS mass spectra of cVMS SOA at OH exposure of 9.0×10^{11} molecules cm^{-3} s (i.e.,
 275 OH concentration of 7.5×10^9 molecules cm^{-3}) under low- NO_x conditions in unseeded experiments. a-d
 276 represent the mass spectra of D3-D6 SOA, respectively.

277

278 Figure 3 shows the evolution of different groups of ions in the HR-ToF-AMS spectra of the cVMS SOA
 279 as a function of PA in equivalent days. For D3-D6 under unseeded conditions, $\text{C}_x\text{H}_y\text{O}_1$ and $\text{C}_x\text{H}_y\text{O}_{>1}$ ions
 280 significantly decreased within 0-4 equivalent days of PA, but remained essentially unchanged when PA
 281 increased to 7-15 equivalent days. The C_xH_y ion increased to its peak value at about 9 equivalent days of PA
 282 for D3 and 2-3 equivalent days of PA for D4-D6, and then gradually decreased with further PA increases.
 283 The $\text{C}_x\text{H}_y\text{O}_z\text{Si}_n$ group of ions maintained an increasing trend until 9-10 days of PA, thereafter it decreased
 284 slightly for D4-D6 SOA.

285 The weighted values of the Si/C (n/x) and Si/O (n/z) atomic ratios for the $C_xH_yO_zSi_n$ groups in D5 and D6
286 SOA at different PA are plotted in Fig. S8 (Detailed calculations in Text S1 of the Supplement), which can
287 be used to indicate the changes in the Si element of SOA. The Si/C ratio increased slightly with increasing
288 PA, whereas the Si/O ratio had an overall decrease trend. While it is difficult to separate the effect of
289 fragmentation due to the AMS ionization process, the relative changes of group intensities and the evolution
290 of Si/C and Si/O in $C_xH_yO_zSi_n$ over different PA may be attributed to the evolution of cVMS when oxidized
291 by the OH radicals. The initial step of OH radical oxidation is H abstraction from the methyl groups on the
292 -Si-O- ring of the cVMS to form Si-containing radicals, which may generate OH and CH₂OH substitution
293 products, such as silanol and silyl methanol (Wu and Johnston, 2016; Alton and Browne, 2020). Such Si-
294 containing products may partition into SOA and result in an appearance of $C_xH_yO_zSi_n$ ions in the AMS mass
295 spectra. Notably, it was reported that one of oxidation products of D5, 1-
296 hydroxynonamethylcyclopentasiloxane (D₄TOH), has been detected in ambient particulate matter (Milani et
297 al., 2021). At low PA, some oxygen-containing functional groups (-CH₂OH/-COOH/-OH), which were
298 formed by the reaction of methyl groups in cVMS with OH, resulted in a decrease of Si/O ratio. The Si-O
299 bond breaking may mainly happen at high OH exposures, and it may occur after the cleavage of Si-C bonds
300 (Rücker and Kümmerer, 2015). According to the previous study of Wu and Johnston (2017), some ring-
301 opened products were generated from the reaction of D5 with OH radicals, necessarily requiring the cleavage
302 of Si-O bonds. The Si-O bond cleavage from the OH radical attack may reduce the number of Si atoms,
303 leading to a continuous decrease of Si/O at high PA. The continued breaking of Si-O bonds would lead to
304 fragmentation and more volatile products, which caused lower SOA yield and $C_xH_yO_zSi_n$ fraction at longer
305 PA (Figs. 1 and 3). The field measurements observed that Si acts as a frequent component of atmospheric
306 nanoparticles (Bzdek et al., 2014). This work further determines that cVMS SOA could become an important

307 contributor to Si in aerosols.



310 Figure 3. Fraction of C_x , C_xH_y , $C_xH_yO_1$, $C_xH_yO_{>1}$ and $C_xH_yO_zSi_n$ ion groups for SOA derived from the
311 oxidation of cVMS (a-d) by OH radicals at different photochemical ages under low- NO_x conditions.

312 Empty and solid triangles represent experimental data under unseeded and seeded conditions, respectively.

313

314 As shown in Fig. 3, the presence of seeds led to some changes in the evolution trends of ion groups in the
315 AMS spectra. For instance, the initial fraction of C_xH_y in seeded experiments was larger than that in unseeded
316 experiments, which may be related to the volatility of species containing C_xH_y that may be more easily
317 deposited in the presence of seeds, whereas $C_xH_yO_1$ and $C_xH_yO_{>1}$ exhibited opposite changes. The presence
318 of seeds led to larger initial and smaller steady-state $C_xH_yO_zSi_n$ fractions than those in unseeded experiments.

319 Regardless of the presence of seeds, C_xH_y , $C_xH_yO_1$ and $C_xH_yO_{>1}$ mainly contributed to the composition of

320 all cVMS SOA at initial OH radicals oxidation, but D4-D6 SOA primarily consisted of C_xH_y and $C_xH_yO_zSi_n$
321 after 4 equivalent days.

322 **3.2.2 Compositions of SOA under high-NO_x conditions.**

323 Figure S9 shows the HR-ToF-AMS mass spectra of cVMS SOA from unseeded experiments under high-
324 NO_x conditions at OH exposures of 9.0×10^{11} molecules cm^{-3} s (~ 6.9 d). Compared to that under low-NO_x
325 conditions (Figs. 2 and S7), there was one additional N-containing group (N_mO_z) in the SOA mass spectra
326 under high-NO_x conditions, which accounted for 16%-31%. For the mass spectra of D3-D6 SOA originating
327 from unseeded experiments under high-NO_x conditions in Fig. S9, the dominating peaks of the N_mO_z family
328 were m/z 30 (NO^+) and m/z 46 (NO_2^+). The common main peaks were located at m/z 30 (NO^+) for cVMS
329 SOA, m/z 44 (CO_2^+) for D3-D4 SOA, and m/z 46 (NO_2^+) for D4-D6 SOA. In addition, there were other
330 primary peaks at m/z 29 (CHO^+) for D4 SOA, while m/z 15 (CH_3^+) and m/z 28 (CO^+) for D5-D6 SOA. The
331 m/z 28 (CO^+), similar to m/z 44 (CO_2^+), is considered as a tracer for organic acids (Ng et al., 2010). In the
332 mass spectra for D3-D6 SOA under high-NO_x conditions, the presence of NO^+ (m/z 30) and NO_2^+ (m/z 46)
333 illustrated the formation of organic or inorganic nitrates in SOA (Ng et al., 2007b; Zhao et al., 2018).

334 For the $C_xH_yO_zSi_n$ group in the D4 SOA mass spectrum under high-NO_x conditions, the dominating peaks
335 and their formulas were the same as those under low-NO_x conditions. For the $C_xH_yO_zSi_n$ group in D5 SOA,
336 in addition to two typical peaks at m/z 327 and 329 in the low-NO_x experiments, there was another prominent
337 peak at m/z 328, with a formula $C_8H_{12}O_5Si_5$. The $C_xH_yO_zSi_n$ group in D6 SOA had three typical peaks at m/z
338 73 (C_3H_9Si), m/z 387 ($C_8H_{23}O_8Si_5^+$) and m/z 401 ($C_9H_{21}O_{10}Si_4^+$). For the $C_xH_yO_zSi_n$ groups in cVMS SOA,
339 there was little difference in the x, y, z and n value assignment of $C_xH_yO_zSi_n$ peaks in SOA generated under
340 low-NO_x and high-NO_x conditions, suggesting the formation of similar Si-containing oxidation products.

341 For cVMS SOA under high-NO_x conditions, the evolution of family groups as a function of OH exposure

342 was summarized in Fig. S10. The dominant composition at the initial stage was $C_xH_yO_{>1}$ groups for D3-D6
 343 SOA. At equivalent days larger than 4, D3 SOA primarily consisted of $C_xH_yO_{>1}$, N_mO_z and $C_xH_yO_1$ groups,
 344 while D4-D6 SOA was mainly composed of $C_xH_yO_zSi_n$, N_mO_z , $C_xH_yO_1$, C_xH_y and $C_xH_yO_{>1}$ groups. Figure
 345 S10 also shows influences of seeds on the evolution of family groups under high- NO_x conditions. It was
 346 observed that all groups in D3-D6 SOA displayed similar change trends regardless of the existence of seeds.
 347 As shown in Fig. S11, the trend of the Si/O ratio in the $C_xH_yO_zSi_n$ groups at different photochemical ages
 348 under high- NO_x conditions was similar to that in low- NO_x experiments. However, the Si/C ratios remained
 349 almost unchanged, and were close to the initial value (0.5) in cVMS. This may be attributed to the possible
 350 suppression of cleavage of methyl groups from the -Si-O- ring of the cVMS under high- NO_x conditions.

351 **4 Conclusions and implications**

352 The yields and compositions of SOA generated from the photooxidation of four cVMS (D3-D6) with OH
 353 radicals were investigated using an oxidation flow reactor. cVMS SOA yields exhibited an overall increasing
 354 trend with PA, and their values gradually increased with cVMS from D3 to D6. SOA formations depended
 355 on NO_x , as shown by smaller SOA yields under high- NO_x conditions. Ammonium sulfate seeds significantly
 356 enhanced SOA yields of D3-D5 at short PA under high- NO_x conditions. The SOA mass spectra showed that
 357 Si-containing species were one of main chemical compositions at PA > 4 days.

358 To evaluate the potential contributions of cVMS to SOA formation in the atmosphere, global SOA
 359 concentrations produced from cVMS were estimated according to the cVMS SOA yields measured in this
 360 work and using the cVMS concentrations reported from multiple studies, which were listed in Table S6.
 361 Figure 4 shows the global concentration distribution of SOA from four cVMS (D3-D6) at 36 sites worldwide
 362 estimated by the Equation 4,

$$363 \quad C_{cVMS-SOA} = C_{cVMS} \times \frac{\Delta C_{cVMS}}{C_{in-cVMS}} \times Y \quad (4)$$

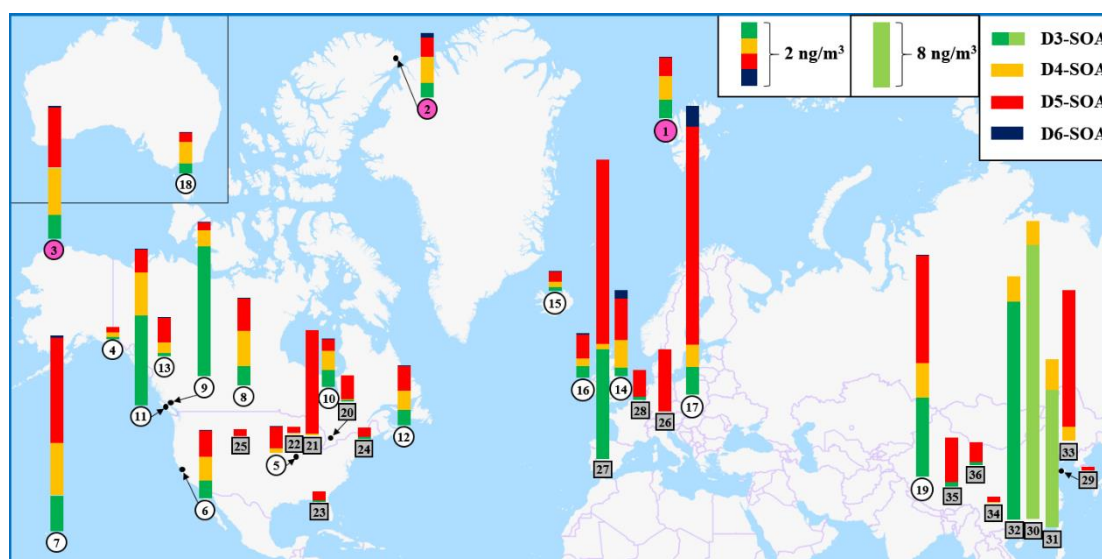
364 where C_{cVMS} and $C_{\text{cVMS-SOA}}$ are the mass concentration of cVMS reported from literatures and cVMS SOA
365 estimated in global sites, respectively; $C_{\text{in-cVMS}}$ and ΔC_{cVMS} are the mass concentration of initial and lost
366 cVMS at the selected equivalent days during the experiments of this work, respectively (Table S7); Y is the
367 cVMS SOA mass yields selected here. The estimations from the Equation 4 were based on assumptions that
368 the lost cVMS ratio is not affected by the cVMS concentration and the background $C_{\text{cVMS-SOA}}$ is zero. The
369 dilution of cVMS would occur during the transportation in the atmosphere, leading to an uncertainty of
370 cVMS concentrations (C_{cVMS}) in the Equation 4. To simplify the estimation process, the effect of dilution on
371 C_{cVMS} would not be taken into account, and the reported C_{cVMS} values were directly used. It was noted that
372 the time-integrated consumption over the lifetime of a precursor compound in the atmosphere should be
373 suitable for evaluating the SOA formation. Accordingly, when considering atmospheric half-lives (6-30 days)
374 of cVMS, the $\Delta C_{\text{cVMS}}/C_{\text{in-cVMS}}$ values in low- NO_x and unseeded experiments at 14.2 equivalent days (Table
375 S7) are used to calculate cVMS SOA at background and polar sites. Due to a short residence time of air mass
376 over urban areas, the $\Delta C_{\text{cVMS}}/C_{\text{in-cVMS}}$ values in high- NO_x and seeded experiments at 0.63 equivalent days
377 (Table S7) are employed to estimate cVMS SOA at urban sites.

378 It should be noted that OH concentrations and exposures have different effects on the reaction systems,
379 leading to different SOA yields. Under an ideal condition, a low OH concentration for a long exposure time
380 and a high OH concentration for a short exposure time can achieve the same degree of degradation of the
381 precursor compound. However, this is not applicable for the formation of SOA. Charan et al. (2022) have
382 claimed that D5 SOA yields are dependent on the OH concentrations rather than OH exposures. When
383 extrapolating the laboratory data to the real atmosphere, it is necessary to consider atmospherically relevant
384 OH concentrations and exposures. Charan et al. (2022) also stated that the D5 SOA yield varied in a small
385 range (0-6%) at the OH concentration $\leq 5 \times 10^8$ molecules cm^{-3} . It was assumed that the SOA yields at

386 environmentally relevant OH concentrations ($\sim 10^6$ molecules cm^{-3}) were similar to those at the lowest OH
387 concentrations ($\sim 10^8$ molecules cm^{-3}) used here. Thus, the high- NO_x SOA yields (D3: 0.038; D4: 0.001; D5:
388 0.011; D6: 0.000) under the seeded conditions at the OH concentration of 6.83×10^8 molecules cm^{-3} (0.63
389 equivalent days) were employed in the calculation of cVMS SOA concentrations at urban sites, while the
390 low- NO_x SOA yields (D3: 0.041; D4: 0.013; D5: 0.023; D6: 0.004) under the unseeded conditions at the OH
391 concentration of 4.57×10^8 molecules cm^{-3} (0.42 equivalent days) were used to estimate cVMS SOA at
392 background and polar sites. Although there may be some uncertainties in extrapolating our results to the real
393 atmosphere, these extrapolations may still provide an estimation for understanding the SOA potential of
394 cVMS.

395 Table S6 summarizes the details regarding sites and concentrations of cVMS SOA. The derived
396 concentrations of cVMS SOA vary significantly among urban, background and polar sites. The total cVMS
397 SOA concentrations in urban areas are the highest, up to 33.52 ng/m^3 , which was comparable with the
398 maximum cVMS SOA formation (21 ng/m^3) reported by Pennington et al. (2021) using the CMAQ model
399 for Los Angeles. They are 0.57-8.86 and 0.37-1.97 ng/m^3 for background and Arctic sites, respectively.
400 cVMS SOA concentrations in urban regions of Asia (sites 29-36) and Europe (sites 26-28) are generally
401 larger than that of North America (sites 20-25). In China, the total cVMS SOA concentrations in urban sites
402 range from 0.11 to 33.52 ng/m^3 . The main precursors of cVMS SOA are different among Chinese cities. For
403 three cities along the southeast coast of China (Guangzhou, Macau and Foshan), the dominant precursors of
404 cVMS SOA are D3 and D4, which are related to industrial emissions of these two siloxanes in this region
405 (Wang et al., 2001). For Dalian in China, D5 mainly contributes to cVMS SOA, and this can be attributed to
406 the industrial production and the use of personal care products in Dalian (Li et al., 2020). In the other Chinese
407 urban areas with reported cVMS concentrations (Lhasa, Golmud, Kunming and Yantai), the total cVMS

408 SOA concentrations are considerably smaller than those in the urban areas above, with D5 acting as the main
 409 precursor, which may be ascribed to the relatively low population densities in these cities (Wang et al., 2018).



410
 411 Figure 4. Global concentrations of cVMS SOA (ng/m^3) on the basis of the cVMS concentrations
 412 reported from multiple studies and the cVMS SOA yields measured in this work. The numbers of polar,
 413 background and urban sites are enclosed in pink, white circles and gray boxes, respectively. The details
 414 about cVMS and SOA concentrations at different sites were summarized in Table S6 of the Supplement.

415
 416 At urban sites in Europe and North America, cVMS SOA concentrations are reported in the range of 0.91-
 417 $9.16 \text{ ng}/\text{m}^3$ and $0.19\text{-}3.23 \text{ ng}/\text{m}^3$, respectively. Among these cVMS, D5 is the main contributor to cVMS
 418 SOA at these locations, averaging 89.1% of total cVMS SOA. For instance, D5 SOA is calculated to be 5.63
 419 ng/m^3 in Catalan, Spain, $3.19 \text{ ng}/\text{m}^3$ in Chicago, USA, $1.89 \text{ ng}/\text{m}^3$ in Zurich, Switzerland and $0.81 \text{ ng}/\text{m}^3$ in
 420 Paris, France, where there are high levels of economic activities and high population densities. These results
 421 suggest that personal care products as a main source of D5 may be the most important anthropogenic origins
 422 of Si-containing SOA in Europe and North America. The D5 SOA concentration ($0.11\text{-}5.63 \text{ ng}/\text{m}^3$) estimated
 423 here is larger than that ($0.016\text{-}0.206 \text{ ng}/\text{m}^3$) reported by Milani et al. (2021), who obtained their data using

424 semi-quantified concentrations of D₄TOH (first-generation D₅ SOA product) extracted from PM_{2.5} samples
425 in Atlanta and Houston. The difference may be mainly attributed to the missing analysis of multi-generation
426 SOA products or dimers (Wu and Johnston, 2016, 2017).

427 At background and Arctic sites, cVMS SOA are primarily derived from D₃, D₄ and D₅. The background
428 sites are located in mountains, rural areas, forested areas, lakes and at high altitudes. The three highest cVMS
429 SOA concentrations at background sites are located at Kosetice in the Czech Republic (8.86 ng/m³), Tibetan
430 Plateau in China (6.78 ng/m³) and Hilo of Hawaii in the USA (5.97 ng/m³), where the contribution
431 percentages of SOA from D₃-D₅ are 92.8%, 99.9% and 99.0%, respectively. The cVMS SOA concentrations
432 at the Alert site in Nunavut, Canada is the highest (1.97 ng/m³) among the three locations in the Arctic, 92.4%
433 of which is accounted for by D₃-D₅ SOA. The dominance of D₃-D₅ SOA in both background and the Arctic
434 regions highlights their persistence in the atmosphere and the potential for long-range atmospheric transport.

435 The global annual production of D₄, D₅ and D₆ is about 1, 0.1 and 0.01 Tg·yr⁻¹, respectively, and 90% of
436 these cVMS is eventually released into the atmosphere (Li et al., 2020; Genualdi et al., 2011; Wang et al.,
437 2013; Sakurai et al., 2019). Based on the results shown in Fig. 4, the annual production of cVMS (D₄-D₆)
438 SOA was estimated to be 0.01 Tg·yr⁻¹, which was about 0.34% of SOA (2.9 Tg·yr⁻¹) produced from mobile
439 source emissions in the USA and 33%-50% of SOA generated by Athabasca oil sands (0.02-0.03 Tg·yr⁻¹,
440 one of the largest sources of anthropogenic secondary organic aerosols in North America) (Tkacik et al.,
441 2014; Liggio et al., 2016). Moreover, it was 0.05% and 0.14% of isoprene-SOA (20 Tg·yr⁻¹) and
442 monoterpenes-SOA (7 Tg·yr⁻¹) (typical biogenic SOA), respectively, indicating the potential importance of
443 cVMS SOA (Jokinen et al., 2015). While these cVMS SOA sources may seem small, they can make
444 substantially higher contributions to ambient air SOAs in population centers where cVMS compounds are
445 primarily used.

446

447 **Author contributions**

448 CH designed and conducted all experiments; CH and HY analyzed the data and prepared the paper with
449 contributions from KL, PL, JL, AL and SML. SML supervised the project.

450

451 **Competing interests**

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

453

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458

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