

1 Photo-oxidation of aromatic hydrocarbons produces low-volatility organic compounds

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36

37 ABSTRACT

38 To better understand the role of aromatic hydrocarbons in new-particle formation, we measured
39 the particle-phase abundance and volatility of oxidation products following the reaction of
40 aromatic hydrocarbons with OH radicals. For this we used thermal desorption in an iodide-
41 adduct Time-of-Flight Chemical-Ionization Mass Spectrometer equipped with a Filter Inlet for
42 Gases and AEROSols (FIGAERO-ToF-CIMS). The particle-phase volatility measurements
43 confirm that oxidation products of toluene and naphthalene can contribute to the initial growth
44 of newly formed particles. Toluene-derived (C_7) oxidation products have a similar volatility
45 distribution to that of α -pinene-derived (C_{10}) oxidation products, while naphthalene-derived
46 (C_{10}) oxidation products are much less volatile than those from toluene or α -pinene; they are
47 thus stronger contributors to growth. Rapid progression through multiple generations of
48 oxidation is more pronounced in toluene and naphthalene than in α -pinene, resulting in more
49 oxidation but also favoring functional groups with much lower volatility per added oxygen
50 atom, such as hydroxyl and carboxylic groups instead of hydroperoxide groups. Under
51 conditions typical of polluted urban settings, naphthalene may well contribute to nucleation
52 and the growth of the smallest particles, whereas the more abundant alkyl benzenes may
53 overtake naphthalene once the particles have grown beyond the point where the Kelvin effect
54 strongly influences the condensation driving force.

55

56 INTRODUCTION

57 Organic condensation from the gas phase to the particle phase contributes to particle growth
58 and causes secondary organic aerosol (SOA) formation¹. SOA in turn may comprise well over
59 half of the total fine-particle mass in the lower atmosphere, contributing to and possibly
60 dominating health effects include more than 4 million premature deaths per year^{2,3}. However,
61 to what extent organic condensation affects the initial growth of nucleated particles remains in
62 doubt, and the mechanism forming "condensable" organic vapors is even less certain⁴. The
63 growth rate of freshly nucleated particles is crucial to their survival⁵, which in turn governs
64 the connection between particle nucleation and aerosol-cloud interactions, one of the most
65 uncertain elements of the climate system⁶.

66 Recent results from the "Cosmics Leaving OUtdoor Droplets" (CLOUD) experiment show

67 that organic vapors emitted by trees can produce abundant aerosol particles through nucleation
68 of ultra-low volatility organic compounds (ULVOCs) even when there is no sulfuric acid ⁷.
69 Tröstl *et al.* ¹, Lehtipalo *et al.* ⁸ and Stolzenburg *et al.* ⁹ have constrained the role of pure
70 biogenic organic vapors in the initial growth of nucleated particles via laboratory experiments
71 free from inorganic acids and bases or nitrogen oxides (NO_x). Combined experimental data and
72 model simulations show that biogenic organic vapors driving initial growth up to ~2 nm are
73 extremely low-volatility organic compounds (ELVOCs). As particles grow and the Kelvin
74 effect diminishes, subsequent growth is taken over by more abundant low-volatility organic
75 compounds (LVOCs) with slightly higher volatility ¹⁰.

76 Ozonolysis of terpenes, followed by peroxy-radical autoxidation via a succession of
77 internal H-atom transfer reactions, produces ULVOCs and ELVOCs within a few seconds after
78 the initial attack by ozone ¹¹. This drives new-particle formation in regions dominated by
79 biogenic emissions ¹². However, these processes can be suppressed substantially in polluted
80 airmasses, where nitrogen oxides (NO_x) can perturb peroxy-radical chemistry and suppress
81 ULVOC and ELVOC formation ¹³. Further, even under optimal conditions, those compounds
82 comprise only < 5% of the terpene oxidation products ¹⁴. Though first-generation auto-
83 oxidation plays a major role, the (large) balance of “traditional” product vapors cannot be
84 neglected; those vapors will undergo further oxidation, which has been shown to increase
85 yields of SOA ¹⁵ and also to form more ELVOCs via subsequent autoxidation ¹⁶.

86 Pollution contains much more than NO_x. In the urban atmosphere, aromatic hydrocarbons
87 can account for up to 60 % of the total VOCs ^{17,18}. Among them, small monocyclic aromatics
88 are mostly emitted from anthropogenic sources, such as fossil-fuel combustion and solvent
89 evaporation, with toluene being one of the most abundant species ^{17,18}. Polycyclic aromatic
90 hydrocarbons mainly come from incomplete combustion such as heavy-duty diesel vehicles,
91 biomass burning and meat cooking ¹⁹⁻²¹; formation of naphthalene is often favored among
92 PAHs during these combustion processes ²⁰. Aromatic hydrocarbons are believed to play a
93 critical role in the formation of both tropospheric ozone and secondary organic aerosols (SOA)
94 ²²⁻²⁵. Laboratory studies have also reported highly oxygenated product formation from OH-
95 triggered oxidation of aromatic hydrocarbons, highlighting their potential contribution to
96 nucleation and initial particle growth in the anthropogenic environment ^{26,27}.

97 Despite the significance of aromatic systems to the urban atmosphere, the volatility profile
98 of oxidation products from aromatic precursors has yet to be established. The contribution of
99 aromatic-derived oxidation products to urban new-particle formation has so far remained
100 ambiguous. Here, we extend previous CLOUD experiments on biogenic organic vapors to add
101 toluene and naphthalene as examples of anthropogenic organic vapors, comparing the
102 formation pathways of oxidized organics as well as their behaviors on contributing to the
103 growth of newly formed particles in the urban environment.

104

105 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

106 We conducted experiments involving aromatic precursors under typical urban conditions in the
107 “Cosmics Leaving OUTdoor Droplets” (CLOUD) chamber. The CLOUD facility was
108 constructed to measure nucleation and growth rates of inorganic and organic vapors under
109 highly controlled, ultra-clean conditions. The 26.1 m³ stainless steel chamber is kept
110 scrupulously clean, with background contaminants (H₂SO₄, organics, amines) < 10⁵ cm⁻³. It
111 can be exposed to ultraviolet (UV) light via a fiber-optic system to generate OH radicals
112 uniformly via ozone photolysis, initiating subsequent photochemical reactions. In addition, the
113 Xe arc lights with UVA at 385 nm from a set of 400 W LED lights are augmented to photolyze
114 NO₂ to NO. The chamber temperature can be controlled from 183 to 373 K²⁸, and relative
115 humidity (RH) from < 0.5% to 101%, enabling experiments over a wide range of tropospheric
116 conditions.

117 **Experiment conditions.** Results presented here are from the CLOUD-11 campaign in Fall
118 2016. To simulate urban environments, we fixed the temperature at 20 °C, relative humidity at
119 60%, ozone concentration at ~ 40 ppbv, NH₃ concentration at ~ 500 pptv, SO₂ concentration
120 at ~ 2 ppbv, and NO₂ concentration at ~ 1–2 ppbv. We conducted experiments with different
121 aromatic precursor concentrations spanning urban conditions – 8 ppbv and 40 ppbv for toluene
122 and 2 ppbv and 15 ppbv for naphthalene. We formed OH radicals via ozone photolysis and the
123 subsequent reaction of O(¹D) with water vapor.

124 **Chemical ionization mass spectrometer.** We measured the gas-phase and particle-phase
125 composition as well as particle-phase volatility of oxidation products via thermal desorption
126 using an iodide-adduct Time-of-Flight Chemical Ionization Mass Spectrometer equipped with

127 a Filter Inlet for Gases and AEROSols (FIGAERO-ToF-CIMS). Iodide-adduct chemical
128 ionization is well suited for measuring a suite of oxygenated organics with minimal
129 fragmentation ²⁹. The FIGAERO is a manifold inlet for the CIMS with two operating modes
130 ³⁰. In the first mode, gases are directly sampled into a turbulent flow ion-molecule reactor while
131 particles are concurrently collected on a PTFE filter via a separate dedicated port. In the second
132 mode, the filter is automatically moved into a pure N₂ gas stream flowing into the ion-molecule
133 reactor while the N₂ is heated to evaporate the particles via temperature programmed desorption.
134 Analytes are then chemically ionized and extracted into a long ToF-MS, achieving sensitivities
135 below 10⁶ cm⁻³ on a 1-minute average with very high mass resolution (up to 14,000) ³¹. This
136 technique enhances our ability to explore the partitioning between the gas and particle phases
137 driving the aerosol behavior. In addition, during CLOUD-11, H₂SO₄ and oxidized organic
138 vapor concentrations were routinely measured with a nitrate-ion based Chemical Ionization
139 Atmospheric Pressure interface Time-of-Flight mass spectrometer (nitrate-CI-APi-ToF) ⁷.
140 Calibration and corrections of sulfuric acid are similar to our previous work ³².

141 **Particle size distribution.** Particle size distributions were measured by several sizing
142 instruments optimized for different size ranges. Particles in the size range between 1.8–8 nm
143 were measured by the so-called DMA-train ⁹, and the corresponding growth-rate calculations
144 were performed with the appearance time method, which is effective in chamber experiments
145 where a clear front of a growing particle population can be identified during most nucleation
146 and growth events. Larger particles between 5–65 nm were measured with a scanning mobility
147 particle sizer (TSI nano-SMPS, model 3982).

148 **Volatility measurements.** Organic compounds with different vapor pressures have
149 distinct and reproducible thermograms during thermal desorption, and the maximum
150 desorption temperature (T_{\max}) correlates with the vaporization enthalpy and thus is a function
151 of the vapor pressure. We calibrated the thermal-desorption volatility measurements using a
152 suite of standards with known vapor pressures ^{30,33}. Briefly, we dissolved a set of organic acids
153 in isopropanol at low concentrations and manually deposited them on the FIGAERO filter with
154 a microliter syringe. We then held the mixture of acids at room temperature for 1 minute to
155 allow the solvent to evaporate before following the same thermal-desorption protocol used for
156 chamber experiments. We then established a thermal-desorption volatility calibration curve by

157 correlating $1/T_{\max}$ (1/K) with the sub-cooled liquid vapor pressure of each calibrant (Figure
158 S1). One potential source of uncertainty is that dimers may decompose to monomers when
159 heated, appearing as doublet-peaks in the thermogram³⁴. However, in this study, as dimer
160 formation is suppressed by NO_x , thermal decomposition of dimers did not affect the T_{\max} of
161 monomers.

162

163 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

164 **Direct measurement of particle-phase volatility.** In the experiments described above
165 we directly measured the volatility of particle-phase products formed from photo-oxidation of
166 representative aromatic precursors (toluene and naphthalene) via their thermal-desorption
167 profile using an I-FIGAERO-CIMS (see MATERIALS AND METHODS). In Figure 1, we
168 display the results in the two-dimensional volatility basis set (2D-VBS)³⁵, with volatility
169 (saturation concentration, C^* , in $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) on the x -axis and the oxygenation (oxygen to carbon
170 ratio, O:C) on the y -axis. We choose C^* and O:C as two complementary coordinates because
171 they explicitly track properties that we can observe in experiments and in the atmosphere, and
172 that we need to know to accurately model organic aerosol behavior.

173 In Figure 1A, we show monomers (crosses) and dimers (dots) derived from photo-
174 oxidation of toluene (blue symbols) and naphthalene (gray symbols) with NO_x present. Almost
175 all of the naphthalene-derived dimers appear in the ULVOC range³⁶, but the toluene-derived
176 dimers span the LVOC and ELVOC ranges. The measured monomers mostly appear in the
177 LVOC range, with a minority of the naphthalene-derived monomers being ELVOCs. Red
178 dashed lines are carbon numbers isopleths (C_6 , C_{11} and C_{19}); these are derived from the original
179 2D-VBS volatility parameterization, developed before the role of autoxidation in atmospheric
180 chemistry was appreciated³⁷, which assumed that a 50-50 mixture of $-\text{OH}$ and $=\text{O}$
181 functionalities dominated the oxidized organics³⁵. These contours coincide well with our
182 measured volatilities from aromatic precursors. Toluene-derived monomers and naphthalene-
183 derived dimers fall along the C_6 and C_{19} isopleths, respectively, and toluene-derived dimers
184 and naphthalene-derived monomers overlap along the C_{11} isopleths. Measured monomers are
185 slightly more spread than dimers, potentially due to thermal decomposition or dehydration.

186 Similar to our aromatic oxidation experiments, in Figure 1B, we present monomers (green

187 crosses) and dimers (green dots) from α -pinene ozonolysis in the presence of NO_x . The carbon
188 number isopleths (C_{10} and C_{19} , black dashed lines) are calculated using a revised VBS
189 parameterization to reflect the contribution of autoxidation and subsequent $-\text{OOH}$ functionality
190 formation to initial particle growth⁹. The measured dimers align with the C_{19} isopleth with
191 great fidelity, though monomers are systematically but only slightly less volatile than the C_{10}
192 isopleth. In this case, NO terminates the nascent peroxy radicals, suppresses autoxidation, and
193 thus reduces the product oxygen numbers. As a result, the overall product volatility distribution
194 is shifted towards the volatile end of the distribution compared to NO_x -free products (the
195 oxygens on the $-\text{NO}_2$ moiety are not counted in O:C). Nevertheless, the products remain well
196 described by the modified C^* vs O:C isopleths, with much higher volatility than the
197 "traditional" VBS.

198 Compared with the α -pinene-derived oxidation products (C_{10}), toluene-derived products
199 reach a similar volatility and O:C range with a C_7 backbone. More interestingly, naphthalene-
200 derived oxidation products are much less volatile than α -pinene-derived products, though both
201 start with a C_{10} backbone. The general volatility difference between dimers from these two
202 precursors is ~ 5 orders of magnitude, as illustrated in Figure 1C and Figure S2. Aromatic
203 oxidation appears to use oxygen atoms much more efficiently to form low-volatility products,
204 consistent with the observation that bulk aromatic aerosols have a larger volume fraction
205 remaining (VFR) after heating than biogenic aerosols³⁸.

206 In Figure S3, we show the measured volatilities of aromatic- and α -pinene-derived
207 oxidation products versus corresponding volatilities estimated using the VBS parameterizations
208 in Donahue *et al.*³⁵ and Stolzenburg *et al.*⁹, respectively. Here, we choose organic compounds
209 with six or more oxygen atoms to minimize the uncertainty of thermal decomposition in the
210 FIGAERO. A good correlation (r^2 of 0.77) verifies the consistency between direct FIGAERO
211 volatility measurements and VBS parameterizations.

212 **Correlation between volatility and growth rate.** Because the volatility of photo-
213 oxidation products can vary by more than 10 orders of magnitude, it is convenient to simplify
214 consideration of gas-particle partitioning by grouping compounds together within the VBS. In
215 Figure 2A and B we show the binned volatility distribution of all organic particle-phase
216 compounds observed with our FIGAERO-CIMS for the two representative aromatic

217 hydrocarbons. The volatility of toluene-derived oxidation products (Figure 2A) ranges from
218 10^{-9} to 10^{-2} $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ with one mode at 10^{-4} and the other at 10^{-8} $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. Naphthalene oxidation
219 products are even less volatile (Figure 2B), with saturation concentrations ranging from 10^{-12}
220 to 10^{-2} $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. We divide the measured oxidation products into four groups: organonitrate
221 monomers (light blue), pure organic monomers (light green), organonitrate dimers (navy blue)
222 and pure organic dimers (dark green). For both of the monomers and dimers, organonitrates
223 tend to be more volatile than non-nitrate products. This is again consistent with the NO_x effect
224 on monoterpene oxidation and can also be explained either by the termination of nascent
225 peroxy radicals or by reduced product reactivity with OH radicals and thus less secondary
226 oxidation.

227 The measured volatility distributions are consistent with the 3–8 nm growth-rate
228 measurements, where in Figure 2C we compare observed growth rates with gas-phase
229 oxidation products measured with a nitrate-CI-APi-TOF¹³. With most of the products in the
230 LVOC range, toluene-derived oxidation products are somewhat less efficient than H_2SO_4 at
231 driving growth. Naphthalene oxidation, on the other hand, produces a large amount of
232 ULVOCs and ELVOCs, which are relatively more efficient at driving growth. The consistency
233 between volatility and growth-rate measurements makes sense since all the species that can be
234 measured in the particle phase must contribute to the particle growth, thus their volatilities can
235 be taken as the criteria of growing particles and be used by VBS microphysical growth models.

236 The relative contribution of different precursors to new-particle formation depends on the
237 volatility distribution of the products as well as the relative concentrations of the precursors. In
238 polluted urban atmospheres, the concentration of aromatic hydrocarbons will exceed that of
239 monoterpenes to be the dominant VOC precursors. Further, NO_x will substantially suppress the
240 formation of monoterpene-derived ELVOCs, making the role of aromatic-derived oxidation
241 products even more important. It is thus essential to add the volatility distribution of aromatic-
242 derived oxidation products into particle-growth models and to assess the growth rates observed
243 in urban areas.

244 **Influence of functionality on volatility.** Volatility is affected by both the molar weight
245 and polarity of a molecule. Therefore, molecular structure and functionality matter. As a
246 hydrocarbon chain gets larger, the increase in number of electrons increases the temporary

247 dipoles causing stronger van der Waals' forces and thus reducing the volatility. According to
248 the SIMPOL model ³⁹, each carbon atom lowers $\log C^*$ by 0.44. However, toluene has fewer
249 carbon atoms than α -pinene, yet forms oxidation products with a comparable volatility
250 distribution (see Figure 1). This is not due directly to aromaticity; each aromatic ring only
251 lowers $\log C^*$ by 0.68. Even more notably, the 4 to 5 decades general difference between
252 naphthalene-derived and α -pinene-derived oxidation products cannot be explained by different
253 structures of their carbon backbones. This leaves functionality as the driving factor; the identity
254 of the added functional groups plays a major role in volatility. Addition of one oxygen-
255 containing functional group, in general, has a greater effect on volatility than a one-carbon
256 increase in the size of the carbon skeleton, but the exact nature of the functional group is very
257 important. Polar functional groups promote dipole-dipole interactions and thus will result in a
258 larger decrease in volatility (e.g. each aldehyde group reduces $\log C^*$ by 1.35, and ketone group
259 by 0.94). Functional groups that enable hydrogen bonding between molecules result in an even
260 larger decrease in volatility (e.g. each hydroxyl group reduces $\log C^*$ by 2.23, hydroperoxide
261 group by 2.48 (1.24 per oxygen), and carboxylic acid group by 3.58 (1.79 per oxygen)) ³⁹.

262 We investigate the influence of oxygen-containing functional groups on volatility of
263 aromatic- and α -pinene-derived oxidation products by performing a parameterization using
264 FIGAERO volatility data. This parameterization is based on a simple, three-parameter group-
265 contribution expression:

$$266 \quad \log_{10} C_{300}^* = (n_C^0 - n_C) b_C - n_O b_O \quad (1)$$

267 where C_{300}^* (at 300 K) is calculated from SIMPOL or directly measured by FIGAERO; n_C^0
268 = 25 is the carbon number n_C with $C^0 = 1 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ for pure hydrocarbons; $b_C = 0.48$ is
269 the average effect of each added carbon on $\log_{10} C^*$; b_O indicates the average effect of each
270 added oxygen on $\log_{10} C^*$ ³⁵. Note that a nitrate group ($-\text{ONO}_2$) typically reduces vapor
271 pressure by about 2.5 orders of magnitude, so we replace any $-\text{ONO}_2$ group by $-\text{OH}$ for
272 simplicity.

273 Here, instead of using this parameterization to calculate volatility, we fit the parameter b_O
274 using volatility measured with FIGAERO thermal desorption. We performed the
275 parameterization for products from α -pinene ozonolysis, toluene photo-oxidation and

276 naphthalene photo-oxidation, all with NO_x (green, blue and gray symbols in Figure 1,
277 respectively).

278 The fitted b_O value for α -pinene-derived oxidation products with NO_x present is 0.91. This
279 is consistent with hydroperoxide, ketone and aldehyde functionalities (roughly 1 decade per
280 oxygen) proposed in Tröstl *et al.*¹. To the extent that these simple group-contribution values
281 can be extrapolated to multifunctional compounds, this appears to be general within the
282 confines of this dataset; it certainly applies at the low-O:C limit, and it is reasonable for bi-
283 functional compounds (e.g. diacids⁴⁰). Many of the low-volatility particle-phase products from
284 monoterpene oxidation may thus be first-generation autoxidation products containing multiple
285 $-\text{OOH}$ functional groups.

286 The fitted b_O values for toluene-derived and naphthalene-derived oxidation products, on
287 the other hand, are 1.55 and 1.72, respectively, suggesting more hydroxyl or carboxylic acid
288 functionality in aromatic-derived products. Oxygen-containing groups are very likely the key
289 to the systematic volatility difference between aromatic and monoterpene oxidation systems,
290 so we investigate the chemical mechanism in the next section in order to further understand the
291 formation of these functional groups in aromatic oxidation systems.

292 **Formation of oxidation products of aromatic hydrocarbons.** In this section, we use
293 toluene as the example to consider the chemical mechanism of aromatic oxidation. With this
294 proposed mechanism, we are able to address the volatility distributions arising from aromatics
295 and evaluate the contribution of aromatic-derived oxidation products to new-particle formation.

296 The detailed chemical mechanism of toluene oxidation in the atmosphere remains
297 uncertain. Wu *et al.*⁴¹ suggested that over 75% bicyclic peroxy radicals (BPRs) are formed
298 after the first OH oxidation of toluene based on a modified MCM mechanism. Wang *et al.*⁴²,
299 combining quantum calculations and flow-tube experiments, proposed that unimolecular H-
300 migration followed by O_2 -addition, a so-called autoxidation step, can take place in BPRs,
301 which are important intermediates of the OH-initiated oxidation of alkyl benzenes⁴³. On the
302 other hand, Ji *et al.*⁴⁴ reported that cresols are much more stable than their corresponding
303 peroxy radicals⁴⁵, and, for the most favorable OH (ortho) addition, the pathway of H
304 abstraction by O_2 to form the cresol is dominant and O_2 addition to form the peroxy radical is
305 negligible. Other comprehensive studies^{46,47} identified ring-retaining products from cresol

306 oxidation and quantified both the yields of dihydroxy toluene and trihydroxy toluene being ~
307 0.7, which supported the results from Ji *et al.* ⁴⁴.

308 These seemingly disparate findings may not be contradictory, since product formation
309 pathways and their yields depend strongly on experimental conditions. In the case of toluene
310 oxidation, the concentrations of OH radicals and O₂ control the relative importance of OH
311 oxidation and autoxidation, respectively. Wang *et al.* ⁴² worked with [OH] of (2.4–53) × 10⁴
312 cm⁻³ in their experiments, which is one to two orders of magnitude lower than in ambient
313 conditions. The predominance of BPRs observed in their experiments could be due to
314 suppressed OH oxidation. However, in Ji's experiments ⁴⁴, the concentration of O₂ was 10¹⁵
315 cm⁻³, roughly 5000 times lower than in the atmospheric boundary layer ([O₂] = 5 × 10¹⁸ cm⁻³),
316 which could substantially suppress the formation of peroxy radicals.

317 In the CLOUD experiments, we set the experimental conditions as close as possible to
318 ambient conditions in order to acquire insights into the mechanisms that are atmospherically
319 relevant. We used [OH] of ~ 10⁶ cm⁻³ and the [NO_x] of ~ 15 ppbv for the experiments in this
320 study. Also, the iodide reagent ion in our FIGAERO is sensitive to a wide range of species,
321 enabling us to observe oxygenated organics with oxygen numbers down to one or two with
322 good fidelity ⁴⁸. Under these conditions, we observed products from both categories. In Figure
323 3 we show a mass defect plot of monomers from toluene oxidation measured in the gas phase.
324 The x-axis is the exact mass of the products and the y-axis is the mass defect. Each straight line
325 represents a homologous sequence of compounds with the same number of carbon, hydrogen,
326 and nitrogen atoms, but a different number of oxygen atoms. Notably, there are two main
327 categories of products: C₇H₈O₂₋₆, which likely preserves the aromaticity, and C₇H₁₀O₄₋₈, which
328 breaks the aromatic ring. These aromatic ring-retaining and aromatic ring-opening products are
329 associated with organonitrates, C₇H₇NO₃₋₇ and C₇H₉NO₅₋₁₀, respectively, via the termination
330 of the corresponding peroxy radicals by NO.

331 The detailed toluene oxidation mechanism is instructive (see Figure 4). Briefly, the rate of
332 OH addition to an aromatic ring is proportional to the electrophilic nature of the substituents
333 around the ring. Being electrophilic, the added OH groups in turn facilitate further addition
334 reactions by increasing the electron density on the ring through a resonance donating effect and
335 thus activating the aromatic ring. Following the ring-retaining pathway for toluene, OH radical

336 addition to the aromatic ring can occur multiple times to form cresol, dihydroxy-, trihydroxy-
337 and even multi-OH substituted-toluene (i.e. $C_7H_8O_{2-6}$). The fact that we did not observe a
338 significant amount of cresol could be due to its relatively slow production and fast consumption,
339 which yields a low steady-state vapor concentration. This is consistent with the large signal we
340 observed for $C_7H_7NO_3$, most likely hydroxy nitrotoluene, formed from the reaction of methyl
341 phenoxy radicals with NO_2 or the reaction of cresol with NO_3 radicals ⁴⁷.

342 Along the ring-opening pathway, peroxy radical production is followed by formation of
343 bicyclic peroxides (i.e. $C_7H_{10}O_{4-8}$), which generates oxidation products with oxygen numbers
344 of 8 or more. A succession of unimolecular H-migration reactions followed by O_2 addition (so-
345 called autoxidation) can take place rapidly in bicyclic peroxy radicals (BPRs), which are
346 important intermediates of the OH-initiated oxidation of aromatic compounds, possibly leading
347 to the formation of highly oxygenated organic molecules (HOMs). However, with NO_x present
348 in the chamber, peroxy-radical autoxidation is substantially suppressed, and we observed low
349 HOM concentrations. Further, we also observed various decomposition products (C_5 and C_6)
350 attributable to the bicyclic intermediate pathway. Although we distinguish the OH oxidation
351 pathway from the autoxidation pathway, product formation in reality does not follow only one
352 pathway. OH oxidation and autoxidation both can occur; it is their branching ratio under
353 different conditions that matters.

354 Our purpose here is not to comprehensively define the detailed mechanism, but rather to
355 demonstrate that aromatics are qualitatively different from monoterpenes in terms of the
356 chemical mechanisms of photo-oxidation leading to new-particle formation and particle growth.
357 From the proposed mechanism and from our FIGAERO observations, we conclude that rapid
358 progression through multiple generations of OH oxidation is more pronounced in toluene and
359 naphthalene than that in α -pinene, resulting in not only more oxidation but crucially also
360 functional groups with much lower volatility per added oxygen atom, such as hydroxyl and
361 carboxylic acids. For example, our proposed $C_7H_xO_{5-7}$ products from toluene contain up to 4
362 hydroxyl groups, while $C_{10}H_xO_{5-7}$, from α -pinene proposed in Tröstl *et al.* ¹, only contain at
363 most 1 hydroxyl group. Since hydroxyl groups have a much stronger effect per oxygen on
364 volatility (stronger by about 1 decade per oxygen than $-OOH$), the larger number of hydroxyl
365 groups accounts for the 4 to 5 decades difference in volatility between aromatic- and α -pinene-

366 derived oxidation products we observe in Figure 1.

367 These findings are consistent with findings for bulk SOA formation from monoterpenes
368 and aromatics⁴⁹. Specifically, with monoterpenes (especially for ozonolysis), SOA mass yields
369 can be reasonably described by first-generation products and a relatively stable product
370 distribution following the initial ozonolysis. For toluene photo-oxidation, on the other hand,
371 models of SOA formation in chambers must consider multiple generations of OH reaction
372 because the products become progressively more reactive with OH as the generation number
373 increases. To account for these differences, two different 2D-VBS representations of SOA
374 formation and aging have been developed for chemical transport models⁵⁰. Our findings
375 confirm this. The volatility parameter $b_0 \sim 1.6$ we derive for aromatic oxidation is consistent
376 with the original 2D-VBS parameterization representing aging and oxygenation of organic
377 products principally with an equal mixture of =O and –OH functional groups (and –C(O)OH).
378 This is a “traditional aging” scenario. On the other hand, the volatility parameter $b_0 \sim 0.9$ we
379 derive for α -pinene oxidation is consistent with the modified parameterizations more recently
380 employed to represent prompt formation of multiple –OOH functional groups. This is an
381 “autoxidation” scenario.

382 It is important to note that these scenarios are not mutually exclusive. As we discussed,
383 autoxidation does occur in the aromatic systems, and most of the first-generation monoterpene
384 products are not HOMs that have undergone autoxidation. All of these (mostly gas-phase)
385 products will almost certainly undergo further oxidation in the atmosphere, often on short
386 timescales⁵¹, and some of these second and later generation products will also undergo
387 autoxidation, as previous CLOUD experiments have shown for the first-generation
388 monoterpene product pinanediol^{16,52}.

389 Photo-oxidation of aromatic compounds (toluene and naphthalene) efficiently produces
390 low-volatility products that participate in new-particle formation and growth under conditions
391 typical of polluted urban settings. Here we have measured the composition of newly formed
392 particles with a FIGAERO-CIMS and directly constrained the volatility distribution of the
393 oxidation products that drive new-particle formation and growth. We find that oxidation of
394 toluene and naphthalene by OH radicals makes efficient use of added oxygen to form low-
395 volatility products, with much larger reductions in volatility per added oxygen atom than

396 corresponding α -pinene systems. This is consistent with known differences in the oxidation
397 mechanisms of aromatics and monoterpenes. Particle formation and growth in urban airmasses
398 may thus be strongly influenced by aromatic precursors.

399

400 **ASSOCIATED CONTENT**

401 **Supporting Information**

402 The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the ACS Publications website. This
403 file includes correlation of inverse maximum desorption temperature ($1/T_{\max}$) and the saturation
404 concentration ($\log C^*$) (Figure S1); example of thermograms (Figure S2); measured and
405 predicted volatility (Figure S3).

406

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410 **Author Contributions**

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412 research; M. W., D. C., M. X., Q. Y., D. S., V. H., P. Y., A. L. V., R. L. M., A. A., A. B., B.
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414 M., T. P., V. P., L. L. J. Q., M. R., M. S., C. T., A. T., A. C. W., L. W., J. K., J. Dommen, and
415 I. E.-H. performed research; M. W., M. X., D. S., and N. M. D. contributed new
416 reagents/analytic tools; M. W., M. X., D. S., P. Y., and M. S. analyzed data; and M. W., D. C.,
417 M. X., A. L. V., U. M., J. K., U. B., J. Dommen, I. E.-H., and N. M. D. wrote the paper.

418 **Notes**

419 The authors declare no competing financial interest.

420

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FIGURE LEGENDS

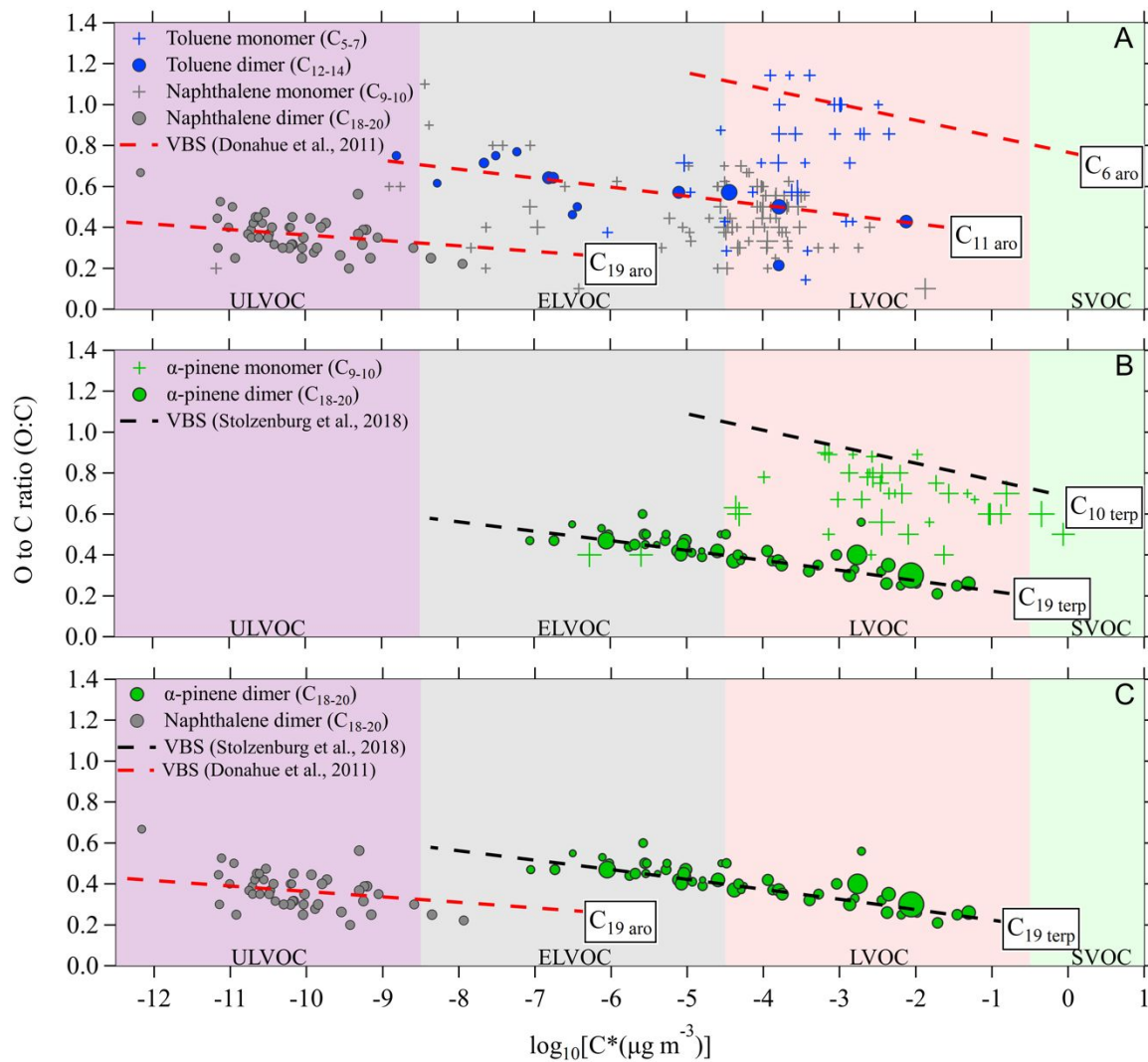
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Figure 1. Directly measured particle-phase oxidation products plotted on a two-dimensional VBS. The background colors indicate the saturation concentration (C^*) range of ultra-low volatility (ULVOCs, purple), extremely low volatility (ELVOCs, gray), low volatility (LVOCs, pink) and semi-volatile (SVOCs, green) organic compounds. (A) Monomers (crosses) and dimers (dots) from toluene (blue symbols) and naphthalene (gray symbols) photo-oxidation with NO_x present. The volatility distribution can be represented by carbon numbers isopleths (red dashed lines) derived from the original volatility basis set (VBS) parameterization³⁵. (B) Monomers (green crosses) and dimers (green dots) from α -pinene ozonolysis with NO_x present observed in CLOUD 11 experiments as well as carbon numbers isopleths (black dashed lines) calculated using a revised VBS parameterization to reflect the $-\text{OOH}$ functionality formed via autoxidation⁹. (C) Direct comparison of aromatic-derived dimers and α -pinene-derived dimers. Both are C_{20} but the aromatics are much less volatile than α -pinene-derived dimers. Symbol sizes are proportional to the particle-phase signals.

Figure 2. Directly measured volatility distributions of particle-phase products formed during toluene (A) and naphthalene (B) photo-oxidation with NO_x present. Products are binned with the measured relative mass concentration in percent. The measured oxidation products are divided into organonitrate monomers (light blue), pure organic monomers (light green), organonitrate dimers (navy blue) and pure organic dimers (dark green). (C) Growth rates measured with DMA train vs the sum of sulfuric acid and HOM concentrations. Sulfuric acid kinetic limit is taken from Nieminen *et al.*⁵³.

Figure 3. The mass defect plot showing products from toluene oxidation measured in the gas phase. The x -axis is the exact mass of oxidation products and y -axis is the mass defect. The color of circles denotes the type of products, and their size is proportional to the logarithm of the count rate. Each straight line represents a group of compounds with the same number of carbon, hydrogen, and nitrogen atoms, but a different number of oxygen atoms.

735 **Figure 4.** Gas-phase chemical mechanism for toluene photo-oxidation with NO_x present. The
736 reaction starts with OH addition to the aromatic ring, resulting in oxidized radicals. Closed-
737 shell products will be formed after radicals undergo various termination pathways. Products
738 outlined are detected by the iodide-adduct CIMS. Non-nitrate products and organonitrate
739 products are marked with green and blue, respectively. (Adapted from Schwantes *et al.* ⁴⁷.)
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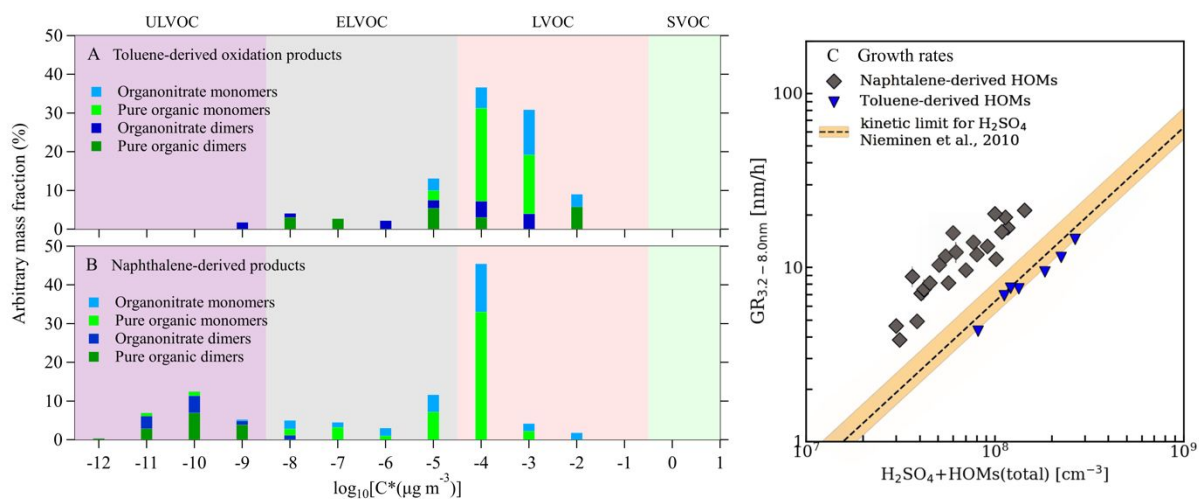
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Figure 1.



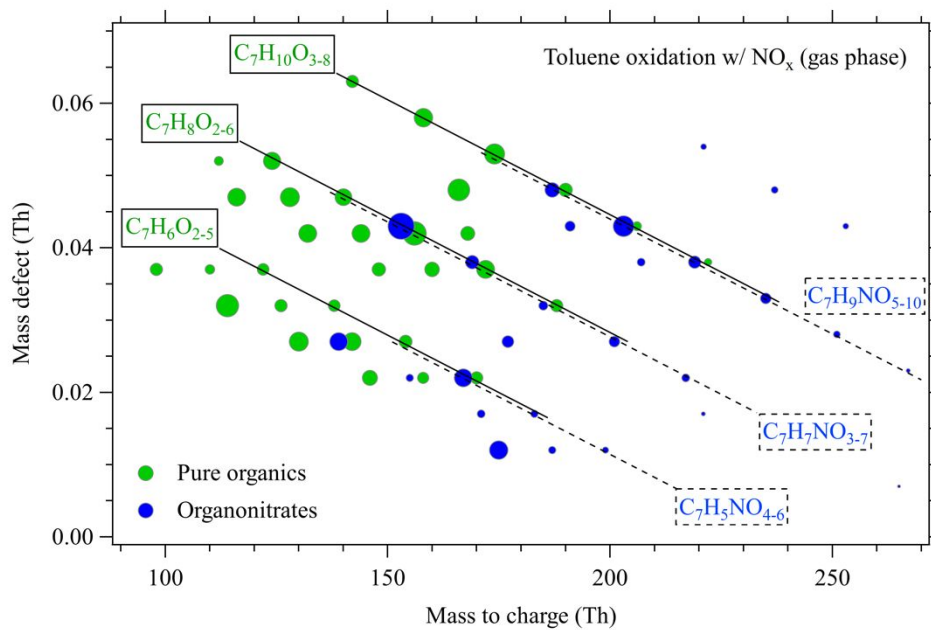
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Figure 2.



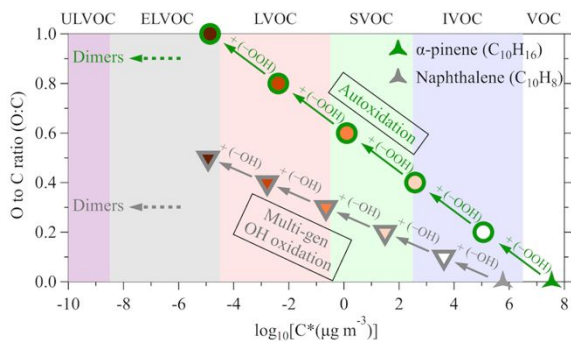
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Figure 3.



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