

Reactive Oxygen Species Production from Secondary Organic Aerosols: The Importance of Singlet Oxygen

Alessandro Manfrin,[†] Sergey A. Nizkorodov,[‡] Kurtis T. Malecha,[‡] Gordon J. Getzinger,[†] Kristopher McNeill,[†] and Nadine Borduas-Dedekind^{*,†,§}

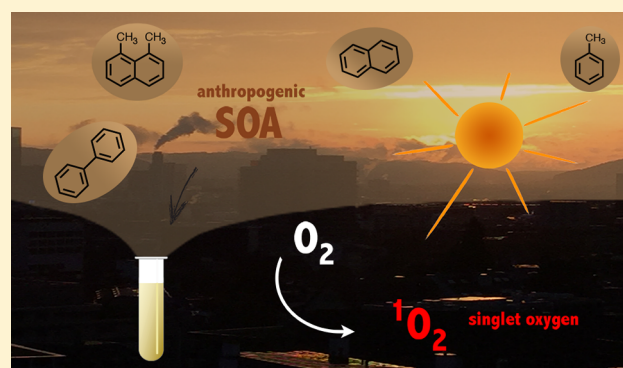
[†]Institute for Biogeochemistry and Pollutant Dynamics, ETH Zurich, 8092 Zurich, Switzerland

[‡]Department of Chemistry, University of California, Irvine, California 92697, United States

[§]Institute for Atmospheric and Climate Science, ETH Zurich, 8092 Zurich, Switzerland

Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: Organic aerosols are subjected to atmospheric processes driven by sunlight, including the production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) capable of transforming their physicochemical properties. In this study, secondary organic aerosols (SOA) generated from aromatic precursors were found to sensitize singlet oxygen ($^1\text{O}_2$), an arguably underappreciated atmospheric ROS. Specifically, we quantified $^1\text{O}_2$, OH radical, and H_2O_2 quantum yields within photoirradiated solutions of laboratory-generated SOA from toluene, biphenyl, naphthalene, and 1,8-dimethylnaphthalene. At $5 \text{ mg}_C \text{ L}^{-1}$ of SOA extracts, the average steady-state concentrations of $^1\text{O}_2$ and of OH radicals in irradiated solutions were $3 \pm 1 \times 10^{-14} \text{ M}$ and $3.6 \pm 0.9 \times 10^{-17} \text{ M}$, respectively. Furthermore, ROS quantum yields of irradiated ambient PM_{10} extracts were comparable to those from laboratory-generated SOA, suggesting a similarity in ROS production from both types of samples. Finally, by using our measured ROS concentrations, we predict that certain organic compounds found in aerosols, such as amino acids, organo-nitrogen compounds, and phenolic compounds have shortened lifetimes by more than a factor of 2 when $^1\text{O}_2$ is considered as an additional sink. Overall, our findings highlight the importance of SOA as a source of $^1\text{O}_2$ and its potential as a competitive ROS species in photooxidation processes.



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INTRODUCTION

Organic aerosols are ubiquitous in the atmosphere and represent up to 90% of the submicron particulate mass.¹ They can scatter solar radiation thereby impacting climate directly but also act as cloud condensation nuclei and impact climate indirectly. It is thus important to understand the chemical and physical properties of organic aerosols and how these properties are modified by atmospheric processing, such as solar irradiation,^{2,3} heterogeneous oxidation,^{4,5} hygroscopic growth,^{6,7} aqueous phase processing,^{8,9} etc. Chemical aging of organic aerosols can proceed by gas phase partitioning and reactive uptake of oxidants such as hydroxyl radical and ozone. Yet, there is now a recognition that chemical reactions initiated within the particle phase can dominate aging processes and consequently alter the physicochemical properties of the aerosol.^{10–12}

The aqueous phase photochemistry of organic aerosols is driven by solar UV radiation and is thus limited to photons with wavelengths upward of 290 nm. Direct photolysis of organic peroxides and of H_2O_2 can generate aqueous phase OH radicals, a highly reactive and unselective oxidant. Light absorption by chromophoric organic species can yield triplet

state organic matter capable of oxidizing organic material as well as producing singlet oxygen ($^1\text{O}_2$).^{13–15} Up to now, atmospheric $^1\text{O}_2$ has been quantified in cloudwater,¹⁶ fog-water,^{17,18} rainwater,¹⁹ and road dust²⁰ and very recently in particulate matter.¹² $^1\text{O}_2$ can also oxidize polyaromatic hydrocarbons within organic aerosols²¹ to form secondary organic aerosol (SOA) from aqueous reactions of biogenic organic compounds.²² Furthermore, $^1\text{O}_2$ is known to selectively undergo cycloaddition type reactions, which are well characterized in the context of biology.²³ This oxidant could affect the fate of aerosol tracers, pollutants within aerosols, and toxins.^{17,20,22} In addition, $^1\text{O}_2$ is an important oxidant when studying the fate of pollutants in aquatic environments such as surface waters as well as when understanding oxidative stress health complications within the human body.^{10,11,23–26}

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In aquatic environments, dissolved organic matter can sensitize $^1\text{O}_2$ with concentrations typically around 10^{-14} M. We hypothesized that $^1\text{O}_2$ could also be sensitized by chromophoric SOA. Indeed, we found that anthropogenic SOA produced from aromatic atmospheric precursors efficiently sensitized $^1\text{O}_2$ with quantum yields comparable to dissolved organic matter. Our goal was to quantify $^1\text{O}_2$ within irradiated SOA and particulate matter extracts and to evaluate whether $^1\text{O}_2$ -mediated processes are competitive with other processes leading to the degradation of key organic aerosol tracers in SOA particles.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

SOA Preparation and Collection. The SOA samples were prepared by the photooxidation of toluene, biphenyl, naphthalene, 1,8-dimethylnaphthalene, and α -pinene inside a smog chamber at UC Irvine, using a previously described procedure.²⁷ The aromatic compounds were chosen based on their hypothesized ability to form sensitizing molecules, such as aromatic quinones, as well as on their atmospheric relevance from anthropogenic sources. In addition, 1,8-dimethylnaphthalene was added to the list to investigate the role of 1,4-quinone type products on $^1\text{O}_2$ production. 1,8-Dimethylnaphthalene has two additional methyl groups preventing the formation of 1,4-quinone compared to naphthalene. Furthermore, α -pinene was chosen as a control nonaromatic precursor to generate SOA.

Briefly, aromatic compound vapors and oxidant precursor H_2O_2 were mixed in a 5 m³ Teflon FEP. The chosen starting mixing ratios (Table S1) were relatively high to produce requisite amount of material (~3 mg) for the photochemical experiments. The precursors was irradiated with UVB lamps (centered at 310 nm; FS40T12/UVB, Solar Tec Systems, Inc.) for 2 to 3 h at room temperature. Once sufficient particle mass concentration was achieved, the particles were collected on 0.2 μm pore size PTFE filters (FGLP04700 from Millipore) at 15 L/min for 3 to 4 h (Table S1). The filters were vacuum sealed and kept frozen until extraction, and the extract solutions were stored at 4 °C (section 2 in SI).

Ambient PM Sampling. PM₁₀ samples were collected on quartz microfiber filters 150 mm (Whatman) with a High Volume Sampler Digitel DH 77 (Digitel Elektronik GmbH). PM₁₀ (24 h) samples were taken on November 29, 2017 and on March 4, 2018 in Roveredo in the canton of Graubünden in Switzerland. Sampling dates were chosen when no extraordinary events occurred, and thus, the two selected filters can be regarded as typical particulate matter samples for this site (section 3 in SI for further site details).

Extraction of SOA and PM₁₀ Filters. Both the SOA and PM₁₀ filters were extracted in glass Schott bottles with nanopure 18.2 ohm-cm milli-Q water and subsequently further diluted to exactly 5 mg_C L⁻¹. The submerged filters were then placed on a lab-shaker (Adolf Kühne AG) for about 3 h at 250 rotations per minute to obtain the water extractable components. The filters were then removed using sterilized tweezers, and the nonpurgeable organic carbon (NPOC) content in the extracts was measured using a total organic carbon (TOC) analyzer (Shimadzu, model TOC-L CSH). NPOC calibrations were done with a recrystallized solution of dipotassium phthalate, and NPOC detection limits of 1 σ were <0.01 mg_C L⁻¹. Extracts were refrigerated at 4 °C until use. We tested the effect of storage on the sensitizing ability of the solution and concluded that no change in the sensitizing ability

of the mixtures was observed after 1 month of storage (Table S3).

Irradiation Experiments. All extracts and reference compounds were irradiated with a SMART narrow-band hand-held lamp at 311 nm at a distance of 2 cm from a rotating sample holder. Experiments measuring $^1\text{O}_2$ steady-state concentrations were also performed with ten bulbs of 365 nm UVA broad band in a Rayonet photoreactor for comparison. The relative intensity spectra of both the 311 nm lamp and the 365 nm broadband bulbs as a function of wavelength were recorded (Figure S4). For the determination of quantum yields, we favor the use of a single wavelength lamp over a broadband source to simplify the rate of light absorption calculation, leading to fewer errors and thus more accurate quantum yield values. Furthermore, we argue that our quantum yield measurements represent upper limits due to the use of 311 nm wavelength. In fact, 311 nm is UVB irradiation, the highest energy range reaching the troposphere and the surface of the planet. Finally, the overlap between the SOA absorbance and the solar spectral flux is optimal between 310 and 340 nm (Figure S2), where the 311 nm lamp is indeed irradiating (section 4 in the SI).

Quantification of $^1\text{O}_2$ Steady-State Concentrations. Steady-state $^1\text{O}_2$ concentrations were determined for SOA extracts, solutions of SOA precursor compounds, solutions of two reference materials, specifically juglone and Suwannee River fulvic acid (SRFA), as well as extracts from two ambient PM₁₀ filters. Steady-state experiments were conducted at room temperature in individual borosilicate test tubes using furfuryl alcohol (FFA, 100 μM) as a probe for $^1\text{O}_2$ ²⁸ and extracted organic material at a NPOC concentration of 5 mg_C L⁻¹ as the $^1\text{O}_2$ sensitizer. The concentration of SOA samples was chosen (1) to be comparable to previously measured TOC for cloud waters,²⁹ (2) to give measurable $^1\text{O}_2$ production with consequent appreciable FFA degradation, and (3) to operate at the exact same NPOC concentration for all extracts. Solutions were irradiated at 311 nm, and 80 μL aliquots were sampled every 30 min and analyzed for FFA concentration using ultra high-pressure liquid chromatography (UPLC, Waters ACQUITY) coupled with a photodiode array detector (Figure S3).

To account for the reaction of FFA with OH radicals, the FFA pseudo-first-order rate constants were corrected by subtracting the contribution of OH radicals to the observed decay of FFA according to $k_{\text{obs}}^{\text{corr}} = k_{\text{obs}} - (k_{\text{rxn}}^{\text{FFA,OH}} \times [\text{OH}]_{\text{ss}})$, where $k_{\text{rxn}}^{\text{FFA,OH}} = 1.5 \times 10^{10} \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$,³⁰ and $[\text{OH}]_{\text{ss}}$ is the concentration determined as described in Quantification of OH Radical Steady-State Concentrations and Quantum Yields. Steady-state $^1\text{O}_2$ concentrations were calculated by dividing the corrected FFA pseudo-first-order rate constant ($k_{\text{obs}}^{\text{corr}}$) by its reaction rate constant with $^1\text{O}_2$ ($k_{\text{rxn}}^{\text{FFA}} = 1 \times 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$) as in eq 1.²⁸

$$[^1\text{O}_2]_{\text{ss}} = \frac{k_{\text{obs}}^{\text{corr}}}{k_{\text{rxn}}^{\text{FFA}}} \quad (1)$$

By UPLC, the detection limit of FFA was 4×10^{-7} M, calculated using 3σ of the smallest FFA calibration peak divided by the calibration slope, which corresponds to a minimum detectable $^1\text{O}_2$ steady-state concentration of 3×10^{-15} M. The kinetic solvent isotope effect was used to rule out FFA degradation by other oxidants, mainly triplet state organic matter.³⁰ According to Davis et al.,³¹ if FFA degradation is

solely due to $^1\text{O}_2$ oxidation, the FFA pseudo-first-order rate constant in a solvent mixture 1:1 $\text{D}_2\text{O}/\text{H}_2\text{O}$ (v/v) should be 1.9 times the rate observed in pure H_2O , due to the difference in $^1\text{O}_2$ lifetime in H_2O and D_2O . Therefore, we performed the FFA degradation experiments in 1:1 $\text{D}_2\text{O}/\text{H}_2\text{O}$ (v/v) (Table S4) and found that FFA degradation is due solely to $^1\text{O}_2$ for all SOA mixtures and PM_{10} filters when irradiating at 365 nm, while there is a contribution of OH radical at 311 nm (Table S2).

6. Determination of $^1\text{O}_2$ Quantum Yield. $^1\text{O}_2$ quantum yields were determined for solutions containing SOA material, SOA precursor compounds, two reference materials, specifically juglone and Suwannee River fulvic acid, and two ambient PM_{10} filters (Table S2). Perinaphthenone (PN) was used as a reference $^1\text{O}_2$ sensitizer with a wavelength-independent quantum yield of 0.98 ± 0.08 .³² The sensitized photolysis experiments were performed in individual borosilicate test tubes using the same irradiation conditions for PN and the test mixtures. $^1\text{O}_2$ quantum yields were calculated according to eq 2

$$\phi_{^1\text{O}_2} = \frac{k_{\text{obs,corr}}^{\text{SOA}}}{k_{\text{obs}}^{\text{PN}}} \times \frac{R_{\text{abs}}^{\text{PN}}}{R_{\text{abs}}^{\text{SOA}}} \times \phi_{\text{PN}} \quad (2)$$

where $k_{\text{obs,corr}}^{\text{SOA}}$ and $k_{\text{obs}}^{\text{PN}}$ are the corrected observed degradation rate constants for FFA in the presence of SOA material and PN, and $R_{\text{abs}}^{\text{SOA}}$ and $R_{\text{abs}}^{\text{PN}}$ are the rates of light absorption for SOA and PN (section 4.1 in SI).

7. Quantification of OH Radical Steady-State Concentrations and Quantum Yields. OH radicals were quantified using the 311 nm light source. According to the method described by Page et al.,³³ potassium terephthalate (TPA) was added to the solution and used as an OH radical probe. The reaction of OH radicals with TPA produces hydroxyterephthalate (hTPA), which was monitored over time by UPLC-PDA (Waters ACQUITY). The rate of hTPA production (R_{hTPA}) was measured for seven TPA concentrations, ranging from 20 to 400 μM (Figure S6). The OH radical production rate (R_{OH}) was determined using the asymptote of the curve generated from R_{hTPA} plotted against TPA concentration (Figure S6b). The slopes of the curves in Figure S7 were multiplied by R_{OH} and by the reaction rate constant of TPA with OH radicals to obtain the OH radical scavenging rate constant of the SOA extracts, k'_{OH} . $[\text{OH}]_{\text{ss}}$ under conditions of no probe were obtained by dividing R_{OH} by k'_{OH} . The hydroxyl radical steady-state concentrations, $[\text{OH}]_{\text{ss}}$, was also determined under conditions of no probe, following the approach described by Zhou and Mopper (section 4.2.1. in SI).³⁴ Under our experimental conditions, the limit of detection of hTPA is 1×10^{-8} M, which corresponds to a minimum detectable OH radical steady-state concentration of 3×10^{-18} M.

The OH radical generation quantum yields were determined for all the extracts according to eq 3

$$\phi_{\text{OH}} = R_{\text{OH}}/R_{\text{abs}} \quad (3)$$

where R_{OH} is the rate of OH radical production and R_{abs} is the rate of light absorption of the solution (section 4.2 in SI).

8. Quantification of Hydrogen Peroxide Production and Quantum Yield. Hydrogen peroxide production was quantified using the horseradish peroxidase (HRP)-Amplex Red method.^{35,36} A horseradish peroxidase solution was prepared by combining 10 μL of a 10 mM Amplex Red

solution in DMSO, 20 μL of 10 U/mL horseradish peroxidase solution in 50 mM phosphate buffer pH 7.4, and 1 mL of 50 mM phosphate buffer at pH 7.4. Each sample was irradiated at 311 nm, and 50 μL aliquots were taken every 30 min. Then, 50 μL of the horseradish peroxidase mixture was added to the aliquot. In the presence of the horseradish peroxidase enzyme, Amplex Red reacts with H_2O_2 to produce fluorescent resorufin with a yield of $\sim 100\%$.³⁶ After incubation in darkness for at least 30 min to produce resorufin, the samples were analyzed for resorufin using ultra high-pressure liquid chromatography (UPLC, Waters ACQUITY) coupled with a photodiode array detector (Figure S8). The detection limit of H_2O_2 was 2×10^{-7} M under our experimental conditions.

Hydrogen peroxide quantum yields were obtained as the ratio of the hydrogen peroxide production rate, measured with the HRP-Amplex Red method, and the rate of light absorption using eq 4 (Table S6 and section 4.3 in SI).

$$\phi_{\text{H}_2\text{O}_2} = R_{\text{H}_2\text{O}_2}/R_{\text{abs}} \quad (4)$$

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

$^1\text{O}_2$ Production from SOA Extracts. The filter extracts from toluene, biphenyl, naphthalene, and 1,8-dimethylnaphthalene SOA efficiently sensitized $^1\text{O}_2$ and produced OH radicals as well as peroxides upon irradiation with single wavelength UVB light at 311 nm. The $^1\text{O}_2$ steady-state concentrations, measured in these conditions for 5 mg_C L^{-1} solutions of SOA extracts, ranged between 1.1×10^{-14} and 4.5×10^{-14} M with an average of $(3 \pm 1) \times 10^{-14}$ M (Figure 1).

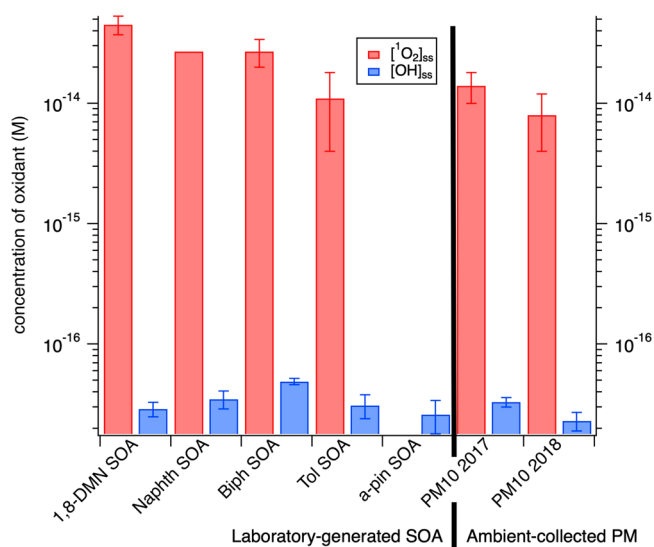


Figure 1. Steady-state concentrations of $^1\text{O}_2$ and OH radicals quantified for irradiation at 311 nm within laboratory-generated SOA and ambient-collected PM_{10} filters. No quantifiable FFA degradation was observed with α -pinene SOA.

All SOA extracts from aromatic precursors showed $^1\text{O}_2$ quantum yields ranging between 1.2×10^{-2} and 3.2×10^{-2} (Table 1, Figure 2). These results show that laboratory-generated anthropogenic SOA material can generate a significant amount of $^1\text{O}_2$ when irradiated with UV light, an observation currently underappreciated in aerosol ROS chemistry.

Table 1. Summary of Measured ROS Steady-State Concentrations and Quantum Yields for SOA samples and PM₁₀ Filters^a

Entry	TOC (mg _C /L)	[¹ O ₂] _{ss} (10 ⁻¹⁴ M)	Φ ¹ O ₂ (10 ⁻²)	[OH•] _{ss} (10 ⁻¹⁷ M)	Φ OH• (10 ⁻⁵)	Φ H ₂ O ₂ (10 ⁻⁴)
1,8-DMN SOA	5	4.5 ± 0.8	3 ± 1	2.9 ± 0.4	4.6 ± 0.9	4.5 ± 0.4
1,8-DMN	5	2.2 ± 0.6	0.3 ± 0.2	<0.3	nd	1.5 ± 0.6
Naphthalene SOA	5	2.7	2.3	3.5 ± 0.6	6.3 ± 1.0	3.5 ± 0.3
Biphenyl SOA	5	2.7 ± 0.7	2.3 ± 0.7	4.9 ± 0.3	5.1 ± 1.0	2.5 ± 0.2
Toluene SOA	5	1.1 ± 0.7	1.2 ± 0.3	3.1 ± 0.7	6.8 ± 1.3	2.6 ± 0.3
α-Pinene SOA	5	<0.3	nd	2.6 ± 0.8	nd	4.3 ± 0.4
PM ₁₀ filter Nov 2017	5	1.4 ± 0.4	4.5 ± 0.4	3.3 ± 0.3	11 ± 4	3.9 ± 0.6
PM ₁₀ filter Mar 2018	5	0.8 ± 0.4	4.0 ± 0.3	2.3 ± 0.4	24 ± 5	6.5 ± 0.7

^aThe error reported for [¹O₂]_{ss} represents the standard deviation of 3 measurements, while the errors reported for quantum yields are propagated errors. No uncertainty is associated with naphthalene SOA because not enough material was collected to repeat at least three measurements; nd = not determined.

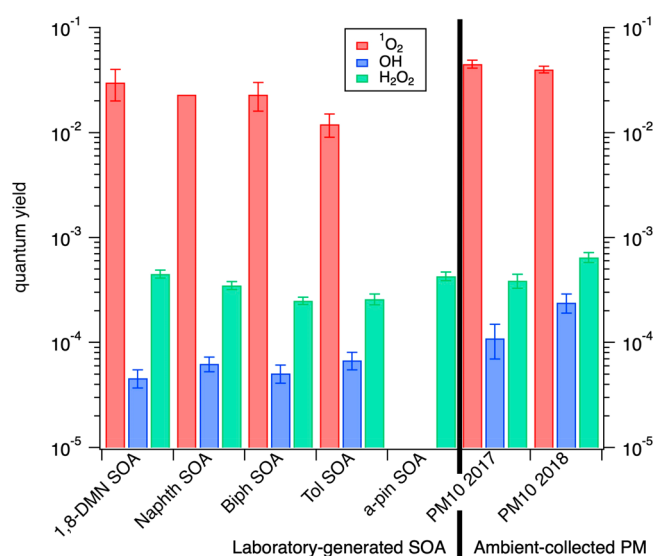


Figure 2. Quantum yields of each oxidant measured at 311 nm for laboratory-generated SOA and ambient-collected PM₁₀.

For comparison, the ¹O₂ quantum yield of Suwannee River fulvic acid (SRFA), a commercially available and well-studied dissolved organic matter within the field of aquatic photochemistry, was 3.4×10^{-2} under identical experimental conditions (Table S2), consistent with the literature range of 1.0×10^{-2} to 4.0×10^{-2} .^{37–41} We can conclude that the ¹O₂ quantum yield measured for SOA generated from aromatic precursors compares well with ¹O₂ quantum yields known for chromophoric dissolved organic matter.

In addition, α-pinene SOA was used as a control nonaromatic precursor-generated SOA (Table 1, Table S2). We did not expect α-pinene SOA to sensitize ¹O₂, since compounds found in this SOA do not contain conjugated double bonds or aromatic systems and indeed have limited ability to absorb light, as shown by its UV–vis spectra (Figures S1 and S2) and the specific ultraviolet absorbance at 254 nm (SUVA₂₅₄) (Table S8). As expected, no quantifiable ¹O₂ production could be observed when α-pinene SOA was used as a ¹O₂ sensitizer.

Furthermore, we conducted ¹O₂ experiments with the pure precursor compounds of the SOA filters (toluene, biphenyl, naphthalene, and 1,8-dimethylnaphthalene) in aqueous solutions at a concentration of 5 mg_C L⁻¹. These compounds did not show any ¹O₂ production, except for 1,8-dimethylnaphthalene which displayed ¹O₂ sensitizing ability, although much lower than its corresponding SOA material. Specifically, a

solution of 1,8-dimethylnaphthalene showed a ¹O₂ quantum yield of 0.3×10^{-2} , 1 order of magnitude smaller than the SOA material prepared by oxidation of 1,8-dimethylnaphthalene (3.2×10^{-2}). This result suggests that photosensitizing moieties are produced during the photooxidation of the SOA precursor compounds inside the smog chamber, which is known for toluene oxidation products.^{42,43}

OH Radicals and H₂O₂ Production from SOA Extracts.

In the context of evaluating the relevance of ¹O₂ within ROS produced in irradiated SOA and PM₁₀ extracts, we also quantified the production of OH radicals and H₂O₂. All irradiated SOA samples at 311 nm produced steady-state concentrations of hydroxyl radicals between 2.6×10^{-17} to 4.9×10^{-17} M (Figure 1). Note that these concentrations are 3 orders of magnitude lower than the steady-state concentrations of ¹O₂, quantified for the same aqueous SOA samples. OH radical quantum yields were also calculated and ranged between 4.6×10^{-5} and 6.8×10^{-5} , 3 orders of magnitude smaller than ¹O₂ (Figure 2).

In addition, biphenyl and 1,8-dimethylnaphthalene SOA extracts were found to have slightly lower quantum yields for producing OH radicals (5.1×10^{-5} and 4.6×10^{-5} , respectively), compared to naphthalene and toluene SOA (6.3×10^{-5} and 6.8×10^{-5} , respectively) (Table 1 and Figure 2). Irradiation of solutions of pure organic compounds that served as SOA precursors (toluene, biphenyl, naphthalene, and 1,8-dimethylnaphthalene) did not show any OH radical production under the same experimental conditions. This result further supports the fact that the ability of producing ROS is derived from functional groups formed in the aerosol production process.

The competition kinetic approach used to determine [OH]_{ss} and OH radical production rates allowed us to estimate the OH radical scavenging rate constant of SOA mixtures (k'_{OH}). Values obtained ranged between 3.5 and 8.9×10^5 s⁻¹ (Table S5), similar to dissolved organic matter samples and fog waters by Arakaki et al.⁴⁴ We further calculated the ratio between k'_{OH} and the NPOC, finding values between 3.0 and 7.5×10^8 L M_C⁻¹ s⁻¹ (Table S5), in agreement with previously reported values for dissolved organic matter,⁴⁴ fog waters,⁴⁴ and particle extracts.¹²

Furthermore, all anthropogenic and biogenic SOA samples were able to generate H₂O₂, although to different extents. Since H₂O₂ concentrations increased with irradiation time, no steady-state concentrations can be determined (Figure S8). Naphthalene, 1,8-dimethylnaphthalene, and α-pinene SOA had similar H₂O₂ quantum yields, while biphenyl and toluene SOA showed a lower activity (Table 1 and Figure 2). As expected,

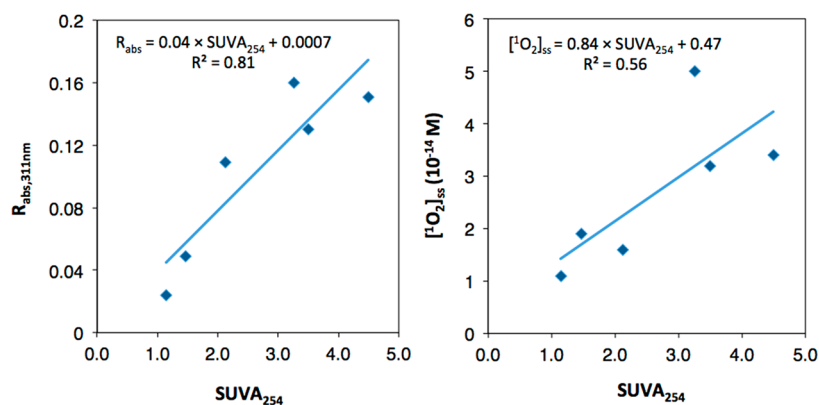


Figure 3. Left: Correlation plot of the rate of light absorbance at 311 nm of SOA and PM₁₀ extracts (total of six extracts) as a function of SUVA at 254 nm. Right: Correlation plot of ¹O₂ steady-state concentrations of the same six extracts as a function of SUVA₂₅₄.

the pure compounds did not produce H₂O₂, except for 1,8-dimethylnaphthalene with a quantum yield of 1.5×10^{-4} . The H₂O₂ quantum yields are 1 order of magnitude larger than the OH radical quantum yields and ranged between 2.5×10^{-4} and 4.5×10^{-4} .

When comparing OH and ¹O₂ quantum yields and steady-state concentrations, we observed that the OH radical quantum yields and resulting concentrations were 3 orders of magnitude smaller (Table 1, Figure 2). The higher concentration of ¹O₂ is counter balanced by its higher substrate selectivity and lower reactivity,⁴⁵ which make OH radicals and ¹O₂ competitive oxidants for processing air pollutants and tracers.

In addition, a fraction of the OH radicals are likely generated by H₂O₂ photolysis. If this photolysis is the rate limiting step, which is a reasonable assumption based on H₂O₂ concentrations increasing with time, then one could expect higher quantum yields for H₂O₂ compared to OH radicals.

¹O₂, OH Radical, and H₂O₂ Comparison between SOA and PM₁₀ Extracts. Our results suggest the importance of ¹O₂ as an oxidant in anthropogenic SOA. Because these aerosols were generated within a smog chamber at high concentrations and may not accurately represent the real atmosphere, we extended our study to two 24 h-integrated PM₁₀ filters, collected in Graubünden, Switzerland. Irradiated PM₁₀ filter extracts at 311 nm produced ROS (Table 1, Figure 2). We found that steady-state concentrations of ¹O₂ were comparable to those for SOA prepared from toluene but lower than for SOA prepared from larger aromatic compounds (Figure 1). The PM₁₀ extracts showed systematically higher ¹O₂ quantum yields than SOA mixtures (Figure 2). Their average ¹O₂ steady-state concentration and production quantum yield were 1.1×10^{-14} M and 0.043, respectively. The sensitizing ability of PM₁₀ extracts further supports the importance of ¹O₂ in atmospheric processing of organic aerosols.

The PM₁₀ samples were also tested for the production of OH radicals and H₂O₂. OH radical quantum yields were on the same order of magnitude than those for the SOA mixtures, albeit two to three times higher (Table 1, Figure 2). PM₁₀ samples also produced H₂O₂, with quantum yields in the range of 3.9 to 6.5×10^{-4} . These findings indicate that ROS quantum yields measured from the laboratory-generated SOAs are comparable to quantum yields from actual field-collected atmospheric particulate matter.

Origin of SOA and PM₁₀ Extracts' Sensitizing Ability.

In order to understand the origin of the sensitizing ability of SOA, we evaluated the aromaticity of SOA samples, since it is known that aromatic structures are important light-absorbing moieties and promote the photosensitizing ability of organic compounds.⁴⁶ The photooxidation of aromatic hydrocarbons can produce compounds with a retained aromatic moiety and compounds with ring-opened and oxidized functionalities. For example, products of oxidation of naphthalene include substituted naphthalene compounds, such as naphthols, as well as substituted benzene compounds, such as hydroxy benzoic acids.⁴⁷ The gas phase mechanism of toluene oxidation also can similarly lead to phenolic type compounds.⁴⁸ In this section, we discuss the specific ultraviolet absorbance at 254 nm (SUVA_{254}), the aromaticity equivalent (X_c), and the sensitizing ability of juglone to assess the origin of ¹O₂ within chromophoric SOA and PM₁₀ extracts.⁴⁹

SUVA₂₅₄. The effective aromaticity of toluene, biphenyl, naphthalene, 1,8-dimethylnaphthalene, and α -pinene SOA samples, as well as PM₁₀ filters, was estimated by calculating SUVA_{254} , previously used as a proxy for organic matter aromaticity.⁵⁰ The SUVA_{254} was calculated by normalizing the absorbance at 254 nm with the total organic carbon of the mixture, and ranged between 1.0 and $4.5 \text{ L mgC}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-1}$, showing appreciable aromatic content in aromatic SOA extracts and PM₁₀ filters (Table S8). The highest SUVA_{254} value was found for biphenyl SOA, likely due to the presence of two independent aromatic structures capable of preserving aromaticity during photooxidation.⁵¹ α -Pinene SOA had a low SUVA_{254} value of 0.3, consistent with the absence of aromatic structures in the mixture (Table S8).

PM₁₀ filters had reduced SUVA_{254} values compare to SOA materials, agreeing with their lower ¹O₂ steady-state concentrations and thus with their higher quantum yields. The same effect was previously noted in fractionated dissolved organic matter, where less aromatic fractions showed higher quantum yields due to their limited rate of light absorption.^{41,52} In addition, we found a correlation between the rate of light absorption at 311 nm and the ¹O₂ steady-state concentrations with SUVA_{254} values, suggesting that an increase in aromatic content produces higher rates of light absorption and therefore higher ¹O₂ steady-state concentrations (Figure 3). SUVA_{254} values were also calculated after 4 h of irradiation at 311 and 365 nm, showing no significant change in the absorption of the mixtures (Figure S9, Table S8).

Table 2. Summary of Singlet Oxygen and Hydroxyl Radical Steady-State Concentrations and Quantum Yields for Atmospherically Relevant Aqueous Solutions^g

Material	[¹ O ₂] _{ss} (10 ⁻¹⁴ M)	ϕ ¹ O ₂ (10 ⁻²)	[OH·] _{ss} (10 ⁻¹⁷ M)	ϕ OH· (10 ⁻⁵)	Reference
Cloud water	2.7–110 ^a	4.8–20			Faust et al., <i>J. Geophys. Res.</i> 1992
Fog water	11–61 ^b		17–77 ^b	1–64	Anastasio and McGregor, <i>Atmos. Environ.</i> 2001
Rain water	≤0.27 ^c		87–150 ^c		Albinet and Vione, <i>Sci. Total Environ.</i> 2010
Fog water	1.1–30 ^b	1.1–12	26–110 ^b	15–87	Kaur et al., <i>Atmos. Environ.</i> 2017
Road dust extracts	0.83–10 ^d				Cote et al., <i>Environ. Sci. Technol. Lett.</i> 2018
PM ₁₀ extracts	6.4–220 ^e	2.2–5.7	17–79 ^e	6.2–35	Kaur et al., <i>Atmos. Chem. Phys.</i> 2019
SOA extracts	1.1–4.5 ^f	1.2–3	2.6–4.9 ^f	4.6–6.8	This work
PM ₁₀ extracts	0.8–1.4 ^f	4.0–4.5	2.2–3.3 ^f	11–24	This work

^aMidday, equinox-normalized steady-state concentration. ^bWinter solstice-normalized steady-state concentration. ^cValues obtained with UV-A lamps at 365 nm with a photon flux of $1.6 \times 10^{-5} \text{ E L}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$. ^dSteady-state concentration obtained by irradiation with a solar simulator. ^eSteady-state concentration measured in D₂O irradiating with a xenon arc lamp. ^fSteady-state concentration obtained by irradiation at 311 nm. ^gThe values are reported as ranges; note that steady-state concentrations are dependent on the TOC of the sample and the illumination method.

Aromaticity Equivalent. High resolution mass spectrometry (HRMS) analysis (section 6 of SI) of the SOA samples was performed and yielded mass spectra of a complex mixture of oxidized organic compounds, with masses up to 300 Da (Figure S10). We calculated the aromaticity equivalent values (X_c) from assigned molecular formulas (Figure S11).⁴⁹ For aromatic SOA materials, X_c values were ≥ 2.5 , representative of the threshold for the presence of aromatics and condensed aromatics in the mixture.⁴⁹ The X_c values were calculated at 0 and at 4 h of irradiation for toluene, biphenyl, naphthalene, and 1,8-dimethylnaphthalene SOA extracts. As for the SUVA₂₅₄ values, we observed no significant changes in X_c values after 4 h of irradiation (Figure S11), indicating no depletion in the aromatic content of the mixtures. This evidence is in good agreement with the constant rate of FFA degradation over time, implying a steady-state concentration of ¹O₂ when SOA samples are irradiated over the time scale of 4 h. Since the ¹O₂ sensitizing ability of SOA is not measurably depleted during irradiation, the ROS produced did not modify the sensitizing properties within our experimental time scales. We also plotted for the four SOA extracts the H/C vs O/C ratios (Figure S12), the nominal carbon oxidation state vs carbon number (Figure S13), and aromaticity index vs carbon number (Figure S14), all with the same conclusion.

Juglone as a Sensitizer. We identified a peak at m/z of 174.0321 in naphthalene SOA, which we tentatively assigned to juglone, a hydroxy-benzoquinone known as a naphthalene oxidation intermediate.⁵³ We tested the ability of juglone to produce ¹O₂ and measured a ¹O₂ steady-state concentration of $7.3 \pm 0.9 \times 10^{-14} \text{ M}$ and a quantum yield of $11 \pm 2 \times 10^{-2}$ (Table S2). The ¹O₂ steady-state concentration of juglone fell in the range of the measured SOA extracts. The quantum yield of juglone was higher than the quantum yield of the SOA extracts since as a pure compound, it did not absorb as much light as organic matter without sensitizing ¹O₂. This observation is consistent with our hypothesis that the presence of aromatics is important for sensitizing ¹O₂. Yet, if 1,4-quinone moieties were the major sensitizing moiety, a difference between the ¹O₂ concentrations of naphthalene and 1,8-dimethylnaphthalene would have been observed, since 1,8-dimethylnaphthalene cannot form 1,4 quinones. Since this difference was not observed, we can only state that aromatic quinones, such as juglone, are likely one of many classes of ¹O₂ sensitizers in SOA derived from aromatic precursors.

Comparison of ¹O₂ and OH Radical Quantum Yields with the Literature. To place our findings in the context of

different aerosol types and understand the importance of SOA-produced ROS in the oxidation of air pollutants and particulate matter, we compare our ROS steady-state concentrations and quantum yields with previously published measurements of fog, rain, and cloud waters as well as road dust (Table 2). Faust and Allen reported the first measurement of ¹O₂ steady-state concentration in cloudwater,¹⁶ with values comparable to this work for SOA and PM₁₀ extracts. However, the reported quantum yields span a wider range, likely due to the variability of the sampling locations. Anastasio and McGregor measured ¹O₂ and OH radical steady-state concentrations in fog waters,¹⁸ using the same FFA method employed in this study, and reported 4 to 20 times higher concentrations but comparable OH radical quantum yields. Albinet and Vione measured ¹O₂ and OH radical steady-state concentrations in rainwater and detected no ¹O₂ but a high concentration of OH radicals.¹⁹ Kaur and Anastasio measured the same oxidants in fogwater samples collected in Davis, California,¹⁷ finding an average ¹O₂ quantum yield of 4.2×10^{-2} , which compares well with our SOA and PM₁₀ extracts. In addition, the OH radical quantum yields reported for fog waters were six times larger than those for our SOA extracts. This difference could potentially be ascribed to the presence of fewer OH radical sources in SOA than in fogwater. Kaur and Anastasio indeed reported that 70% of the OH radical production was due to NO₂⁻ and NO₃⁻ in fog waters, while these anions are not present in our SOA extracts. Furthermore, Cote et al. reported the ¹O₂ production from aqueous road dust and showed that irradiated extracts generated ¹O₂ with steady-state concentrations of $1 \times 10^{-13} \text{ M}$;²⁰ however, ¹O₂ quantum yields were not reported and therefore experimental conditions cannot be directly compared at this time. Most recently, Kaur et al. quantified ¹O₂, OH radicals and triplet state organic matter within fog and particulate matter in Davis, California.¹² They obtained higher ¹O₂ steady-state concentrations, in agreement with their use of 50% D₂O as a solvent, which extends ¹O₂ lifetime by a factor of 2, and their use of a xenon lamp.

Atmospheric Implications. In this work, we tested and verified the hypothesis that SOA generated from aromatic compounds are capable of photosensitizing ¹O₂. The measured concentrations of ¹O₂ were 3 orders of magnitude higher than those of OH radical, indicating that ¹O₂ could play a role in oxidizing air pollutants and tracers. To compare the relevance of these two oxidants for the fate of environmentally relevant pollutants and air tracers, we performed a kinetic box model for organic compounds with known ¹O₂ and OH radical

reaction rate constants (Figure 4, Table S9). The goal is to highlight the potential of $^1\text{O}_2$ as a relatively important oxidant

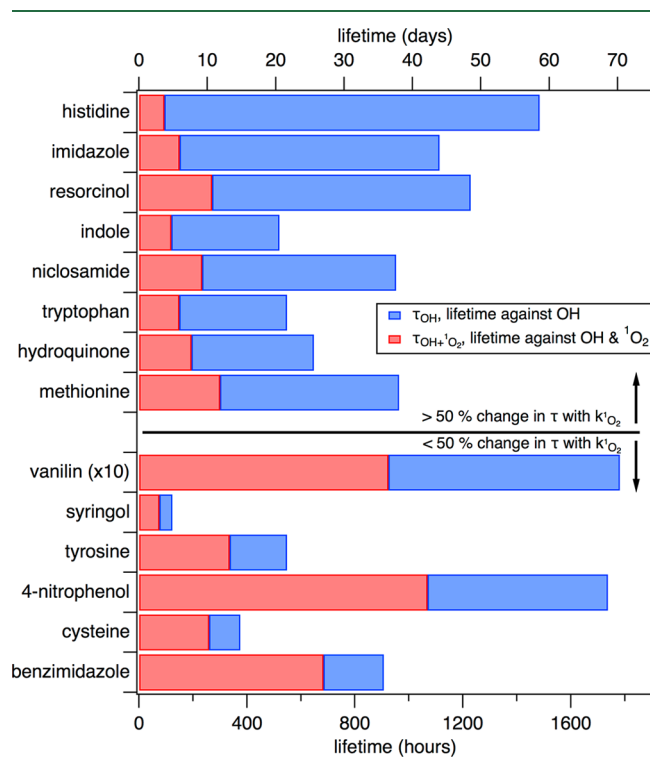


Figure 4. Results of a kinetic box model for $^1\text{O}_2$ and OH radical contribution to the environmental lifetimes of selected tracers. The 14 compounds were selected because they have known OH radical and $^1\text{O}_2$ reaction rate constants in water. In addition, the compounds were categorized into two categories depending on whether their overall lifetime was affected by more or by less than 50% with the consideration of $^1\text{O}_2$ as sink.

in organic aerosol processing. For $^1\text{O}_2$ and OH radical steady-state concentrations, we used the average values from our SOA measurements of 3×10^{-14} M and 4×10^{-17} M, respectively, and we used literature reaction rate constants for the following organic compounds: benzimidazole, 4-nitrophenol, vanillin, imidazole, indole, syringol, histidine, resorcinol, niclosamide, tryptophan, hydroquinone, methionine, tyrosine, and cysteine.^{54–70} Some of these compounds are potentially found in atmospheric aerosols, such as benzimidazole, cysteine,⁷¹ nitrophenols,^{72,73} tyrosine,⁷¹ syringol, and vanillin.^{74,75} We opted not to consider H_2O_2 as part of this box model because of its low concentrations and low reactivity with organics compared to the other two ROS.

The 14 compounds studied here could be classified into two categories: overall lifetimes against ROS reduced by (1) more than 50% and by (2) less than 50%, when including $^1\text{O}_2$ as a sink (Figure 4). In general, the lifetimes of compounds which contain electron-rich aromatic rings such as histidine, imidazole, resorcinol, indole, tryptophan, and hydroquinone are strongly affected by the presence of $^1\text{O}_2$ (Figure 4). Of note, histidine's lifetime against OH is 59 days, whereas its lifetime against OH radicals and $^1\text{O}_2$ is 4 days, indicating that $^1\text{O}_2$ is the major sink for histidine in proteinaceous aqueous aerosols. Furthermore, other amino acids (e.g., tryptophan, methionine), organo-nitrogen compounds (imidazole, indole, niclosamide), and phenolic compounds (hydroquinone,

resorcinol) have shortened lifetimes by more than a factor of 2 when $^1\text{O}_2$ reactivity is considered in their overall fate (Figure 4). The second category of compounds with lifetimes affected to a lesser extent by $^1\text{O}_2$ reactivity also include amino acids and phenolic compounds, and thus the prediction of the effect of an additional sink against $^1\text{O}_2$ on a single compound basis remains difficult.

To further corroborate the importance of $^1\text{O}_2$ as a potential atmospheric oxidant for organic aerosol processing, Kaur et al. recently came to the same conclusion when looking at the contributions of OH radicals, $^1\text{O}_2$, and triplet state organic carbon to PM and fogwater processing.¹² Therefore, the omission of $^1\text{O}_2$ reactivity in SOA processing models could lead to the overestimation of the lifetimes of aromatic pollutants and atmospheric aerosol tracers. We also recommend that $^1\text{O}_2$ rate coefficients with key atmospheric pollutants be the focus of further organic aerosol kinetics research. It is also likely that $^1\text{O}_2$ is participating in atmospheric aging of organic aerosols.⁷⁶

From the results reported in this work, it is clear that irradiated aromatic SOA can produce ROS, including $^1\text{O}_2$, in the atmosphere. In the literature, photochemical processing of organic aerosols has been primarily attributed to OH radicals from organic peroxide decomposition and Fenton chemistry,⁷⁷ but it is likely that $^1\text{O}_2$ is also participating in the same photochemical processing and playing an important role in the oxidation of certain air pollutants. $^1\text{O}_2$ is a selective oxidant and typically shows reaction rate constants with organic molecules 2 to 3 orders of magnitude smaller than those of the OH radical; however, the measured $^1\text{O}_2$ steady-state concentrations here and in other recent publications are about 3 orders of magnitude larger than those of the OH radical (see Table 2). Consequently, we expect $^1\text{O}_2$ to be a competitive oxidant to OH radicals.

■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

📄 Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the ACS Publications website at DOI: 10.1021/acs.est.9b01609.

UV–vis spectra of SOA samples, quantum yields calculations for SOA, SRFA, juglone, PM_{10} filters and precursor compounds, rate constants used in the model box calculation, SUVA_{254} , MS data (PDF)

■ AUTHOR INFORMATION

Corresponding Author

*E-mail: nadine.borduas@usys.ethz.ch. Phone: +41 44 632 7315. Twitter: [@nadineborduas](https://twitter.com/nadineborduas).

ORCID

Alessandro Manfrin: 0000-0003-1084-4787
Sergey A. Nizkorodov: 0000-0003-0891-0052
Gordon J. Getzinger: 0000-0002-5628-1425
Kristopher McNeill: 0000-0002-2981-2227
Nadine Borduas-Dedekind: 0000-0001-9302-368X

Author Contributions

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Notes

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ABBREVIATIONS

FFA	furfuryl alcohol
SOA	secondary organic aerosol
TOC	total organic carbon
NPOC	nonpurgeable organic carbon
ROS	reactive oxygen species
SRFA	Suwannee River fulvic acid
PM ₁₀	particulate matter smaller than 10 micrometers in diameter
TPA	potassium terephthalate
hTPA	hydroxyterephthalate
SUVA ₂₅₄	specific ultraviolet absorbance at 254 nm
UPLC	ultra high-pressure liquid chromatography
PDA	photodiode array

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