

Aqueous Reactions of Organic Triplet Excited States with Atmospheric

Alkenes

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Abstract

Triplet excited states of organic matter are formed when colored organic matter (i.e., brown carbon) absorbs light. While these “triplets” can be important photooxidants in atmospheric drops and particles (e.g., they rapidly oxidize phenols), very little is known about their reactivity toward many classes of organic compounds in the atmosphere. Here we measure the bimolecular rate constants of the triplet excited state of benzophenone (³BP*), a model species, with 17 water-soluble C₃ – C₆ alkenes that have either been found in the atmosphere or are reasonable surrogates for identified species. Measured rate constants ($k_{\text{ALK}+3\text{BP}^*}$) vary by a factor of 30 and are in the range of $(0.24 - 7.5) \times 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$. Biogenic alkenes found in the atmosphere – e.g., cis-3-hexen-1-ol, cis-3-hexenyl acetate, and methyl jasmonate – react rapidly, with rate constants above $1 \times 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$. Rate constants depend on alkene characteristics such as the location of the double bond, stereochemistry, and alkyl substitution on the double bond. There is a reasonable correlation between $k_{\text{ALK}+3\text{BP}^*}$ and the calculated one-electron oxidation potential (OP) of the alkenes ($R^2 = 0.58$); in contrast, rate constants are not correlated with bond dissociation enthalpies, bond dissociation free energies, or computed energy barriers for hydrogen abstraction. Using the OP relationship, we estimate aqueous rate constants for a number of

unsaturated isoprene and limonene oxidation products with $^3\text{BP}^*$: values are in the range of $(0.080\text{--}1.7) \times 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$, with generally faster values for limonene products. Rate constants with less reactive triplets, which are probably more environmentally relevant, are likely roughly 25 times slower. Using our predicted rate constants, along with values for other reactions from the literature, we conclude that triplets are probably minor oxidants for isoprene and limonene-related compounds in cloudy or foggy atmospheres, except in cases where the triplets are very reactive.

1 Introduction

Photochemical processes in atmospheric aqueous phases (e.g., cloud and fog drops and aqueous particles) are important sources and sinks of secondary organic species (Blando and Turpin, 2000; Lim et al., 2010; Kroll and Seinfeld, 2008; Volkamer et al., 2009; Gelencsér and Varga, 2005), which represent a large fraction of aerosol mass (Zhang et al., 2007; Hallquist et al., 2009). Many of these reactions involve photooxidants, including hydroxyl radical ($^{\bullet}\text{OH}$), which is widely considered to be the dominant aqueous oxidant (Herrmann et al., 2010; Herrmann et al., 2015). But there are numerous other aqueous photooxidants, such as singlet molecular oxygen, hydroperoxyl radical/superoxide radical anion, hydrogen peroxide, and triplet excited states of organic matter ($^3\text{C}^*$ or triplets) (Lee et al., 2011; Anastasio and McGregor, 2001; Kaur and Anastasio, 2017; Anastasio et al., 1996; Anastasio et al., 1994; Zepp et al., 1977; Wilkinson et al., 1995; Kaur and Anastasio, 2018). Formed from the photoexcitation of colored organic matter (i.e., brown carbon), triplets are important oxidants in surface waters for several classes of organic compounds, including phenols, anilines, amines, phenylurea herbicides, and heterocyclic sulfur-containing compounds (Canonica et al., 1995; Canonica and Hoigné, 1995; Arnold, 2014; Canonica et al., 2006; Bahn Müller et al., 2014; Boreen et al., 2005); however, very little is known about atmospheric triplets.

Recent studies have shown that aqueous triplets can be the dominant oxidants for phenols emitted during biomass combustion (Smith et al., 2014), with phenol lifetimes on the order of a few hours in fog drops (Kaur and Anastasio, 2018) and aqueous particle extracts (Kaur et al., 2018). There is also evidence that triplets can oxidize some unsaturated aliphatic compounds. Richards-Henderson et al. (Richards-Henderson et al., 2014) measured rate constants for five unsaturated biogenic volatile organic compounds (BVOCs) with the model triplets 3,4-dimethoxybenzaldehyde and 3'-methoxyacetophenone, and found that rate constants ranged between 10^7 and $10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$. Other laboratory studies have shown that triplet states of photosensitizers such as imidazole-2-carboxaldehyde and 4-benzoylbenzoic acid can oxidize gaseous aliphatic BVOCs, e.g., isoprene and limonene, and model aliphatic compounds, e.g., 1-octanol, at the air-water interface to form low-volatility products that increase particle mass (Fu et al., 2015; Rossignol et al., 2014; Li et al., 2016; Laskin et al., 2015). However, the atmospheric importance of these types of processes are unclear (Tsui et al., 2017). Additionally, we recently reported that natural triplets in illuminated fog waters and particle extracts are significant oxidants for methyl jasmonate, an unsaturated aliphatic BVOC, accounting for 30–80 % of its aqueous loss during illumination (Kaur et al., 2018; Kaur and Anastasio, 2018).

Abundant BVOCs such as isoprene and limonene are rapidly oxidized in the gas phase to form unsaturated C_3 – C_6 oxygenated volatile organic compounds (OVOCs) that include isoprene hydroxyhydroperoxides, isoprene hydroxynitrates, and isoprene and limonene aldehydes (Surratt et al., 2006; Paulot et al., 2009b; Crounse et al., 2011; Ng et al., 2008; Walser et al., 2008; Paulot et al., 2009a). Several of these first-generation products have high Henry's law constants, above 10^4 M atm^{-1} (Marais et al., 2016) and partition significantly into cloud and fog drops and, to a smaller extent, into aerosol liquid water. There, they can undergo further oxidation by aqueous photooxidants, including $\bullet\text{OH}$ and ozone (Wolfe et al., 2012; St. Clair et al., 2015; Khamaganov and Hites, 2001; Schöne and Herrmann, 2014; Lee et al., 2014) and possibly triplets. Our past

measurements have shown that steady-state concentrations of $^3\text{C}^*$ are orders of magnitude higher than $^{\bullet}\text{OH}$ in fog waters and aqueous particles (Kaur et al., 2018; Kaur and Anastasio, 2018) and thus they might contribute significantly to the loss of OVOCs derived from isoprene and other precursors. However, testing this hypothesis requires rate constants for the reactions of triplets with alkenes, which are scarce.

To address this gap, we studied the reactions of 17 $\text{C}_3 - \text{C}_6$ unsaturated compounds with the triplet state of the model compound benzophenone (Fig. 1). While our 17 unsaturated compounds include alcohols, esters, and chlorinated compounds, for simplicity we refer to them all as “alkenes”. The tested alkenes include BVOCs emitted into the atmosphere as well as surrogates for some of the small unsaturated gas-phase products formed as secondary OVOCs. The goals of this study are to: 1) measure rate constants for reactions of the alkenes with the triplet excited state of benzophenone, 2) explore quantitative structure-activity relationships (QSARs) between the measured rate constants and calculated alkene properties (e.g., the one-electron oxidation potential) and 3) use a suitable QSAR to estimate rate constants for triplets with some unsaturated isoprene and limonene oxidation products to predict whether or not triplets are significant oxidants for these species in cloud and fog drops.

2 Methods

2.1 Chemicals

All chemicals were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich with purities of 95 % and above, and were used as received: the compound numbers, compound names, and abbreviated names are listed in Table 1. All chemical solutions were prepared using purified water (Milli-Q water) from a Milli-Q Plus system (Millipore; $\geq 18.2 \text{ M}\Omega \text{ cm}$) with an upstream Barnstead activated carbon

cartridge. To mimic fog drop acidity (Kaur and Anastasio, 2017), the pH of each reaction solution was adjusted to 5.5 (± 0.2) using a 1.0 mM phosphate buffer.

2.2 Kinetic Experiments

Bimolecular rate constants of the alkenes with the triplet state of benzophenone ($^3\text{BP}^*$) were measured using a relative rate technique, as described in the literature (Richards-Henderson et al., 2014; Finlayson-Pitts and Pitts Jr, 1999). The technique involves illuminating a solution containing the triplet precursor (BP), a reference compound with a known second-order rate constant with $^3\text{BP}^*$, and one test alkene for which the rate constant is unknown. The reference compound for each alkene was chosen so that the triplet-induced loss rates for test alkene and reference compound were similar. Buffered, air-saturated solutions containing 50 μM each of the reference and test compounds and 100 μM of BP were prepared and then 10 mL of this solution was illuminated in a stirred 2-cm, air-tight quartz cuvette (Spectrocell) at 25 $^\circ\text{C}$. Samples were illuminated with a 1000 W Xenon arc lamp filtered with an AM 1.0 air mass filter (AM1D-3L, Sciencetech) and 295 nm long-pass filter (20CGA-295, Thorlabs) to mimic tropospheric solar light (Fig. S1 of the Supplemental Information). At various intervals, aliquots of illuminated sample were removed and analyzed for the concentration of reference compound and test alkene using HPLC (Shimadzu LC-10AT pump, ThermoScientific BetaBasic-18 C_{18} column (250 $\times$ 33 mm, 5 μM bead), and Shimadzu-10AT UV-Vis detector). For each alkene, illumination experiments were performed in triplicate (Table S1), using total illumination times typically between 60 and 150 min. Parallel dark controls were employed with every experiment using an aluminum foil-wrapped cuvette containing the same solution and analyzed in the same manner as the illuminated solutions. The dark cuvette was placed in a corner of the sample chamber, out of the path of the light beam. As a direct photodegradation control, each alkene was also illuminated (separately) in solution without benzophenone; there was no loss for any of the compounds.

In every case, loss of test and reference compounds followed first-order kinetics. Plotting the change in concentration of the test alkene against that of the reference compound yields a linear plot that is represented by:

$$\ln \frac{[\text{Reference}]_0}{[\text{Reference}]_t} = \frac{k_{\text{Reference}+3\text{BP}^*}}{k_{\text{ALK}+3\text{BP}^*}} \ln \frac{[\text{ALK}]_0}{[\text{ALK}]_t} \quad (1)$$

where $[\text{Reference}]_0$, $[\text{Reference}]_t$, $[\text{ALK}]_0$, and $[\text{ALK}]_t$ are the concentrations of the reference and test alkenes at times zero and t , respectively, and $k_{\text{Reference}+3\text{BP}^*}$ and $k_{\text{ALK}+3\text{BP}^*}$ are the bimolecular rate constants for the reaction of the reference and test alkenes with $^3\text{BP}^*$, respectively. A plot of Eq. (1) (with the y-intercept fixed at the origin) gives a slope equal to the ratio of the bimolecular rate constants; dividing $k_{\text{Reference}+3\text{BP}^*}$ by the slope gives $k_{\text{ALK}+3\text{BP}^*}$. The measurement technique is illustrated in Fig. S2. While $^3\text{BP}^*$ makes singlet molecular oxygen ($^1\text{O}_2^*$), the latter is an insignificant oxidant of alkenes in our solutions: the concentrations of the two oxidants are similar (McNeill and Canonica, 2016), but our measured rate constants of alkenes with $^3\text{BP}^*$ are approximately 2500 times faster than the corresponding rate constants with $^1\text{O}_2^*$ (Richards-Henderson et al., 2014).

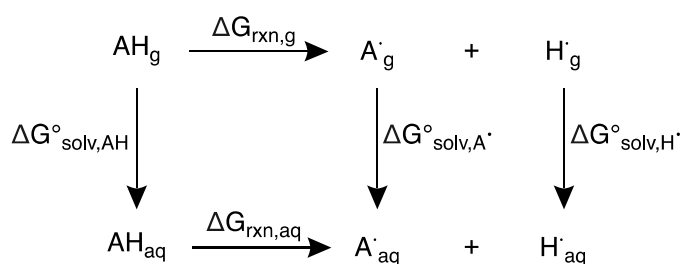
2.3 Calculation of Oxidation Predictor Variables

All calculations were completed using the Gaussian 09 software suite (Frisch et al., 2009). Structures of alkenes were optimized using uB3LYP/6-31+G(d,p) (Becke, 1992, 1993; Lee et al., 1988; Stephens et al., 1994; Tirado-Rives and Jorgensen, 2008) for reaction coordinate calculations and the CBS-QB3 (Montgomery Jr et al., 1999) method for predicting bond dissociation enthalpies (BDEs), bond dissociation free energies (BDFEs), and oxidation potentials (OPs). This method has a mean absolute deviation of approximately 1 kcal mol⁻¹ which corresponds to 0.04 V in E_{ox} (i.e., OP). Transition state structures (TSSs) were optimized in the triplet state using uB3LYP/6-31+G(d,p) (Becke, 1992, 1993; Lee et al., 1988; Stephens et al., 1994; Tirado-Rives and Jorgensen, 2008). TSSs were confirmed by the presence of an

imaginary frequency and minima (reactants and products) were confirmed by the absence of imaginary frequencies. Free energy (ΔG) and enthalpy (ΔH) differences were determined by comparing TSS energies relative to their reactant energies. For solvent phase calculations, the solvent model density (SMD) (Marenich et al., 2009) continuum model was used with water as the solvent. To calculate BDEs, the neutral (AH) and radical species ($A^\bullet$) (resulting from H atom abstraction) of each alkene and the H radical ($H^\bullet$) were optimized in the gas phase. Using the computed enthalpies (H) and Eq. (2), the predicted BDEs of each alkene were determined.

$$BDE = H_{A^\bullet} + H_{H^\bullet} - H_{AH} \quad (2)$$

To determine the predicted BDFEs, the neutral (AH_g , AH_{aq}) and radical species ($A^\bullet_g$, $A^\bullet_{aq}$) of each alkene and the H radical ($H^\bullet_g$, $H^\bullet_{aq}$) were optimized in the gas and solvent phases and their differences taken to give $\Delta G^\circ_{solv,AH}$, $\Delta G^\circ_{solv,A^\bullet}$, and $\Delta G^\circ_{solv,H^\bullet}$, respectively. Based on the thermodynamic cycle shown (Scheme 1), these values were used in Eqs. (3) and (4) to calculate the BDFEs of C–H and O–H bonds.



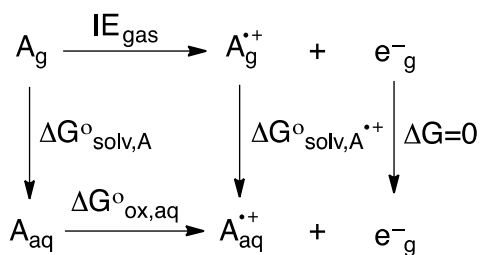
Scheme 1. Thermodynamic cycle used to calculate bond dissociation free energies.

$$\Delta \Delta G_{solv} = \Delta G^\circ_{solv,A^\bullet} + \Delta G^\circ_{solv,H^\bullet} - \Delta G^\circ_{solv,AH} \quad (3)$$

$$\Delta G^\circ_{ox} = \Delta G_g + \Delta \Delta G_{solv} \quad (4)$$

To predict OPs, the neutral (A_g , A_{aq}) and radical cation ($A^{\bullet+}_g$, $A^{\bullet+}_{aq}$) forms of each alkene were optimized in the gas and solvent phase, their difference giving $\Delta G^\circ_{solv,A}$ and $\Delta G^\circ_{solv,A^\bullet}$.

Based on the thermodynamic cycle shown below (Scheme 2), these values were used in Eqs. (5–7) to calculate the OP (i.e., E_{ox}) of each alkene.



Scheme 2. Thermodynamic cycle used to calculate oxidation potentials.

$$\Delta\Delta G_{solv} = \Delta G^{\circ}_{solv,A^{*+}} - \Delta G^{\circ}_{solv,A} \quad (5)$$

$$\Delta G^{\circ}_{ox} = IE_{gas} + \Delta\Delta G_{solv} \quad (6)$$

$$E_{ox} = -\left(\frac{-\Delta G^{\circ}_{ox}}{nF} + SHE\right) \quad (7)$$

where n is the number of electrons, F is Faraday's constant (96485.3365 C/mol), and SHE is the potential of the standard hydrogen electrode (4.28 V) (Tripkovic et al., 2011).

Subsequent MP2/CBSB3 (Petersson et al., 1988; Petersson and Al-Laham, 1991; Petersson et al., 1991; Mayer et al., 1998) single point calculations were used to compute the highest occupied molecular orbitals (HOMOs) and singly occupied molecular orbitals (SOMOs). Structural drawings were produced using CYLView (Legault, 2009).

3 Results and discussion

3.1 Alkene-triplet bimolecular rate constants ($k_{ALK+3BP^*}$)

Fig. 1 shows the chemical structures for all 17 alkenes and the triplet precursor, benzophenone. The alkenes have molecular weights ranging between 58 and 220 g mol⁻¹ and include 13 alcohols, three esters and one chlorinated compound. The model triplet precursor benzophenone (BP) has been previously employed in surface water studies, and its triplet state

rapidly reacts with aromatics such as substituted phenols and phenyl urea herbicides with rate constants faster than $10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (Canonica et al., 2000; Canonica et al., 2006).

The bimolecular rate constants for the alkenes with the excited triplet state of BP ($k_{\text{ALK}+^3\text{BP}^*}$) vary by a factor of 30, spanning the range of $(0.24\text{--}7.5) \times 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$. Values are shown in Tables 1 and S1, and in Fig. S3, where the alkenes are numbered in ascending order of their reactivity towards $^3\text{BP}^*$. Based on their rate constants, the alkenes appear to be broadly split into two groups – the slower alkenes (**1–9**), whose rate constants lie below $1 \times 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ and span a range of only a factor of 2.5, and the faster alkenes (**10–17**) which vary by a factor of 5. Notably, three of the four BVOCs identified in emissions to the atmosphere – 3MBO (**12**), cHxO (**15**), cHxAc (**16**) and MeJA (**17**) – react rapidly with $^3\text{BP}^*$, with rate constants greater than $1 \times 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$.

Three alkene characteristics appear to increase reactivity: internal (rather than terminal) double bonds; methyl substitution on the double bond; and alkene stereochemistry. To more specifically examine the impact of these variables, we compare the rate constants for three sets of alkenes (Fig. 2). The lowest free energy and enthalpy barriers for the abstraction of a hydrogen atom are also shown in Fig. 2 (and in Table 1); while overall these computed barriers are not well-correlated with rate constants (discussed below), lower barriers generally correspond to higher rate constants for the sets of alkenes in Fig. 2. The first two sets of compounds in Fig. 2 indicate that internal alkenes react faster with $^3\text{BP}^*$ than do terminal isomers: cHxAc (**16**), an internal hexenyl acetate, has a reaction rate constant 11 times faster than its terminal isomer 5HxAc (**9**). The corresponding alcohols also exhibit the same trend: the internal alkenes cHxO (**15**) and tHxO (**10**) react 27 and 5.8 times faster, respectively, than the terminal isomer 5HxO (**1**). This dependence of reactivity on double bond location has implications for isoprene hydroxyhydroperoxides (ISOPOOH) and hydroxynitrates (ISONO₂), which have both terminal (β -) and non-terminal (δ -) isomers formed from gas-phase oxidation (Marais et al., 2016; Paulot

et al., 2009b; Paulot et al., 2009a). Based on our results we expect that the δ -isomers react more quickly with organic triplets than the β -isomers.

Alkene stereochemistry also affects the triplet-alkene reaction rate constant. The data in the middle of Fig. 2 shows that cis-HxO (**15**) reacts nearly five times more quickly with $^3\text{BP}^*$ than does trans-HxO (**10**), consistent with the lower predicted energy barrier for hydrogen atom abstraction from the cis isomer. Finally, addition of electron-donating substituents (methyl groups) on an unsaturated carbon atom also increases the rate constant. This is evident from comparing 2B1O (**8**) and its methyl-substituted analog 3MBO (**12**): $k_{\text{ALK}+^3\text{BP}^*}$ is 3.7 times faster with the methyl group (Fig. 2). Mechanistically, triplet-induced oxidation can proceed via either hydrogen atom transfer or a proton-coupled-electron transfer (Canonica et al., 1995; Warren et al., 2010; Erickson et al., 2015) and the presence of an electron-donating substituent on the double bond likely selectively stabilizes the intermediates (e.g., radical or radical cation) formed from these two processes, as well as the transition state structures for their formation.

3.2 Relationship between k and one-electron oxidation potential

Our next goal was to develop a quantitative structure-activity relationship (QSAR) so that we can predict rate constants for alkene-triplet reactions. To use as predictor variables in the QSARs we computed several properties of the alkenes: bond dissociation enthalpy and free energy for various hydrogen atoms (Fig. S4), free energy and enthalpy barriers for hydrogen atom abstraction (Table 1), and one-electron oxidation potentials (Table 1). Apart from the oxidation potential, none of the other properties correlate well with the measured rate constants (Figs. S5 and S6). While there is no correlation between the rate constants and predicted energy barriers, alkenes with lower predicted free energy barriers ($\Delta G^\ddagger$) are predicted to be fast-reacting, with rate constants above $5 \times 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (Fig. S6). As shown in Fig. S6, computed barriers predict a much larger variation in rate than observed experimentally, suggesting that the breaking of the C–H or O–H bond does not occur in the rate-determining step for all alkenes.

Of all the properties examined, the one-electron oxidation potential (OP) of the alkenes best correlates with the (log of) measured rate constants, with rate constants generally increasing as the alkenes are more easily oxidized, i.e., at lower OP values ($R^2 = 0.58$) (Fig. 3). Measured rate constants for 13 of the 16 alkenes lie within (or very near to) the 95 % confidence interval (blue lines) of the regression fit, but there are three notable outliers: hexen-1,3-diol (**3**, HDO), cis-3-hexen-1-ol (**15**, cHxO) and cis-3-hexenylacetate (**16**, cHxAc). The measured HDO rate constant is 3.3 times lower than that predicted by the regression line, while measured rate constants for cHxO and cHxAc are 3.9 and 4.9 times higher, respectively, than predicted.

To try to assess why these compounds differ from the others, we calculated the highest occupied molecular orbital (HOMO) of the alkene and the singly occupied molecular orbital (SOMO) of the alkene radical cation (i.e., after oxidation) (Fig. 4). Depending on the system, oxidation is predicted to occur by removing an electron either from the π system of the C–C double bond or from a lone pair on the O atom. This is illustrated in Fig. 4, which shows the HOMO and SOMO structures for HDO (**3**), where the electron is removed from the C-C double bond, and 3B1O (**5**), where the electron is removed from the oxygen atom. However, the three outliers in the correlation do not all fall into just one of these categories: for cHxAc (**16**) the electron is most likely abstracted from the oxygen, while for HDO (**3**) and cHxO (**15**) the electron is likely removed from the π system (Tables S2 and S3). This suggests that the location of electron removal does not control the rate constants. We also examined if the rate of loss of cHxO might be enhanced due to oligomerization, where an initially formed cHxO radical leads to additional cHxO loss. Since the pseudo-first-order rate constant of oligomerization should increase with initial cHxO concentration, we measured the rate constant for cHxO loss over a range of initial concentrations (2–50 μ M). However, as shown in Fig. S8, the rate constant for cHxO loss does not depend on its concentration, suggesting that oligomerization is an unimportant loss process for cHxO in our experiments. Thus, it is not clear why these three compounds do not fall closer to the regression line of Fig. 3. However, except for **16**, all of the

alkenes fall within a factor of four of the correlation line (grey lines). Finally, even though there is a good correlation between rate constant and OP in Fig. 3, it does not indicate whether these reactions proceed via pure electron transfer, proton-coupled electron transfer, or hydrogen transfer. As discussed earlier, since the predicted energy barriers for hydrogen abstraction do not correlate with measured rate constants (Fig. S6) and appear to split into two groups, there remains uncertainty about the mechanism of triplet-induced oxidation of the alkenes.

3.3 Predicted triplet-OVOC bimolecular rate constants

We next use the relationship in Fig. 3, along with calculated oxidation potentials, to predict second-order rate constants for $^3\text{BP}^*$ with a set of unsaturated oxygenated VOCs formed by the oxidation of isoprene and limonene. As shown in Fig. 5, we predict that limonene products generally react faster with $^3\text{BP}^*$ than do isoprene products. For the five isoprene-derived OVOCs that we considered, rate constants vary by a factor of 17, and range between $(0.080\text{--}1.4) \times 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (Table 1, Fig. 5). The δ -isomers of ISOPOOH and ISONO₂, which contain internal double bonds, have lower computed one-electron oxidation potentials and thus higher predicted rate constants compared to the terminal β -isomers. This is similar to the trend observed with the other alkenes (Fig. 2). In case of isoprene hydroperoxyaldehydes, we were able to determine the oxidation potential for only HPALD2 (**22**), and its predicted reaction rate constant (± 1 SE) of $4.0 (\pm 0.9) \times 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ is among the lowest of the isoprene-derived alkenes (Fig. 5).

We calculated OP values and triplet rate constants for three limonene-derived OVOCs: limonene aldehyde (LMNALD) and two dihydroxy-limonene aldehydes (2,5OH-LMNALD and 4,7OH-LMNALD). Compared to the isoprene-derived alkenes, the rate constants for all three limonene products are high, and range between $(0.89\text{--}1.7) \times 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$. All of the limonene aldehydes (as well as the isoprene products) can have several isomers whose calculated oxidation potentials can vary, which affects the predicted rate constant. For example, for 4,7OH-LMNALD

(**25**) the computed oxidation potential for five of its isomers vary between 2.17 and 2.48 V (Table S4), which leads to a relative standard deviation of 40 % in the predicted rate constants for the various isomers. For each OVOC, the predicted rate constants in Table 1 are for the lowest energy isomers whose structures are shown in Fig. S9.

3.4 Role of triplets in the fate of isoprene- and limonene-derived OVOCs

Next, we use our estimated rate constants, along with previously published estimated values for rates of other loss processes (Table S5), to understand the importance of triplets as sinks for isoprene- and limonene-derived OVOCs in a foggy/cloudy atmosphere. For our simple calculations we use a liquid water content of 1×10^{-6} L-aq/L-g, a temperature of 25 °C, and calculated Henry's law constants from EPISuite (US EPA. Estimation Programs Interface Suite™ for Microsoft® Windows v 4.1, 2016) (Table S6). From these inputs, we estimate that between 10 and 97 % of the OVOCs will be partitioned into the aqueous phase under our conditions (Table S6). The OVOC sinks we consider are photolysis and reactions with hydroxyl radical ($\bullet\text{OH}$) and ozone (O_3) in the gas phase as well as hydrolysis and reactions with $\bullet\text{OH}$, O_3 , and triplets in the aqueous phase (Table S5). Based on typical oxidant concentrations in both phases and available rate constants with sinks, the overall pseudo-first-order rate constants for initial OVOC losses are estimated to be in the range of $(0.27\text{--}3.0) \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$, corresponding to overall lifetimes of 0.93 to 10 h (Table S7). The only exception is δ -ISONO2, which is expected to undergo rapid hydrolysis to form its corresponding diol (Jacobs et al., 2014) with a lifetime of just 0.078 h (280 s).

Fig. 6 shows the overall loss rate constants, and the contribution from each pathway, for four of these OVOCs: δ 4-ISOPOOH (**19**), β -ISONO2 (**20**), HPALD2 (**22**) AND 4,7-OH LMNALD (**25**). Overall, aqueous-phase processes dominate the fate of these OVOCs, accounting for the bulk of their loss; but the contribution of aqueous triplets to OVOC loss depends strongly on the triplet reactivity. Panel (a) of Fig. 6 shows OVOC loss when we assume

that the aqueous triplets are highly reactive, i.e., using rate constants estimated for $^3\text{BP}^*$ (Fig. 5). Since our recent measurements (Kaur et al., 2018; Kaur and Anastasio, 2018) indicate that, on average, ambient triplets are not this reactive, this scenario likely represents an upper bound for the triplet contribution. In this case highly reactive triplets are the dominant sinks for δ 4-ISOPOOH and 4,7-OH LMNALD, accounting for 74 % and 47 % of their total losses, respectively (Fig. 6a). For β -ISONO₂ and HPALD₂, triplets are not dominant but still significant, accounting for 19 % and 24 % of loss, respectively, while other sinks dominate. For the OVOCs where we calculated rate constants with $^3\text{BP}^*$ (Fig. 5) but that are not shown in Fig. 6, the triplet contribution varies widely, from less than 1 % for δ -ISONO₂ (**21**), where hydrolysis dominates, to 59 % for 2,5-OH LMNALD (**24**) (Table S7).

While $^3\text{BP}^*$ likely represents an upper bound of triplet reactivity in atmospheric waters, our recent measurements indicate that the triplets in fog waters and particles have an average reactivity that is typically similar to 3'-methoxyacetophenone (3MAP) and 3,4-dimethoxybenzaldehyde (DMB) (Kaur et al., 2018; Kaur and Anastasio, 2018). A comparison of our $^3\text{BP}^*$ rate constants (Table 1) with the average values for the 3MAP and DMB triplets for a subset of the alkenes (Richards-Henderson et al., 2014) indicates that the average 3MAP/DMB triplet rate constants are 1–18 % of the corresponding $^3\text{BP}^*$ values. Thus to scale alkene-triplet rate constants from $^3\text{BP}^*$ to the 3MAP and DMB triplets we take the median value of 4 %, which is derived from the MeJA rate constants (Table S8). Fig. 6b shows the calculated fates of the OVOCs in the case where we consider “typical reactivity” triplets, i.e., where we multiply the $^3\text{BP}^*$ + OVOC rate constants (Fig. 5) by a factor of 0.04. Under these conditions, triplets are minor oxidants (Fig. 6b), accounting for 9 % and 3 % of the loss of δ 4-ISOPOOH and 4,7-LMNALD, respectively, and approximately 1 % for the other two OVOCs. This suggests that aqueous triplets are generally minor sinks for OVOCs derived from isoprene and limonene, in contrast to the case for phenols, where triplets appear to be the major sink (Smith et al., 2014; Yu

et al., 2014; Kaur and Anastasio, 2018). However, there are several important uncertainties in our determination that triplets are likely minor sinks for oxygenated alkenes. First, the factor we used to adjust from $^3\text{BP}^*$ rate constants to triplet 3MAP/DMB rate constants (i.e., a factor of 0.04) is quite uncertain: values for the three BVOCs examined range from 0.01 to 0.18 (Table S8). Additionally, there are very few measurements of triplets in atmospheric drops or particles (Kaur et al., 2018; Kaur and Anastasio, 2018), and only from two sites, so it is possible that we are underestimating the average reactivity and/or concentrations of triplets in atmospheric drops and particles.

4 Conclusions

To explore whether triplet excited states of organic matter might be important sinks for unsaturated organic compounds in atmospheric drops, we measured rate constants for 17 $\text{C}_3\text{--C}_6$ alkenes with the triplet excited state of benzophenone ($^3\text{BP}^*$). The resulting bimolecular rate constants span the range of $(0.24\text{--}7.5) \times 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$. Notably, the rate constants are high (above $10^9 \text{ M}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$) for some important green leaf volatiles emitted from plants – 3MBO, cHxO, cHxAc, and MeJA. Rate constants appear to be enhanced by alkene characteristics such as an internal double bond, cis-stereochemistry, and alkyl substitution on the double bond.

To be able to predict rate constants for other alkenes, we examined QSARs between our measured rate constants and a variety of calculated properties for the alkenes and $^3\text{BP}^*$ -alkene transition states. Rate constants are not correlated with bond dissociation enthalpies, free energies or predicted energy barriers for removal of various hydrogen atoms, but are reasonably correlated with the one-electron oxidation potential of the alkenes ($R^2 = 0.58$). Based on the relationship between rate constants and oxidation potential, we predict that highly reactive triplets will react with first generation isoprene- and limonene- oxidation products with rate constants on the order of $10^8\text{--}10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$, with higher values for the δ -isomers compared to terminal β -isomer products. Using these rate constants in a simple model of OVOC chemistry in

a foggy/cloudy atmosphere suggests that highly reactive aqueous triplets could be significant oxidants for some isoprene hydroxyhydroperoxides and limonene aldehydes. However, for our current best estimate of typical reactivities, triplets are a minor sink for isoprene- and limonene-derived OVOCs.

To more specifically quantify the contributions of triplet excited states towards the loss of alkenes in particles and drops requires more insight into both the reactivities and concentrations of atmospheric triplet species. In addition, assessing whether triplets might be important sinks for other organic species requires more measurements of reaction rate constants with atmospherically relevant organics.

Competing Interests

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

Author Contribution

CA and RK conceptualized the research goals and designed the experiments. RK and JD performed the laboratory work, while BH and DT planned and performed the computational calculations. RK analyzed the experimental data and prepared the manuscript with contributions from all co-authors, particularly BH, who wrote the sections on computational calculations and prepared the corresponding figures. CA reviewed and edited the manuscript. CA and DT provided oversight during the entire process.

Data Availability

Data are available upon request.

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391 Gobind Singh Fellowship, and the Agricultural and Environmental Chemistry Graduate Group at
392 UC Davis.

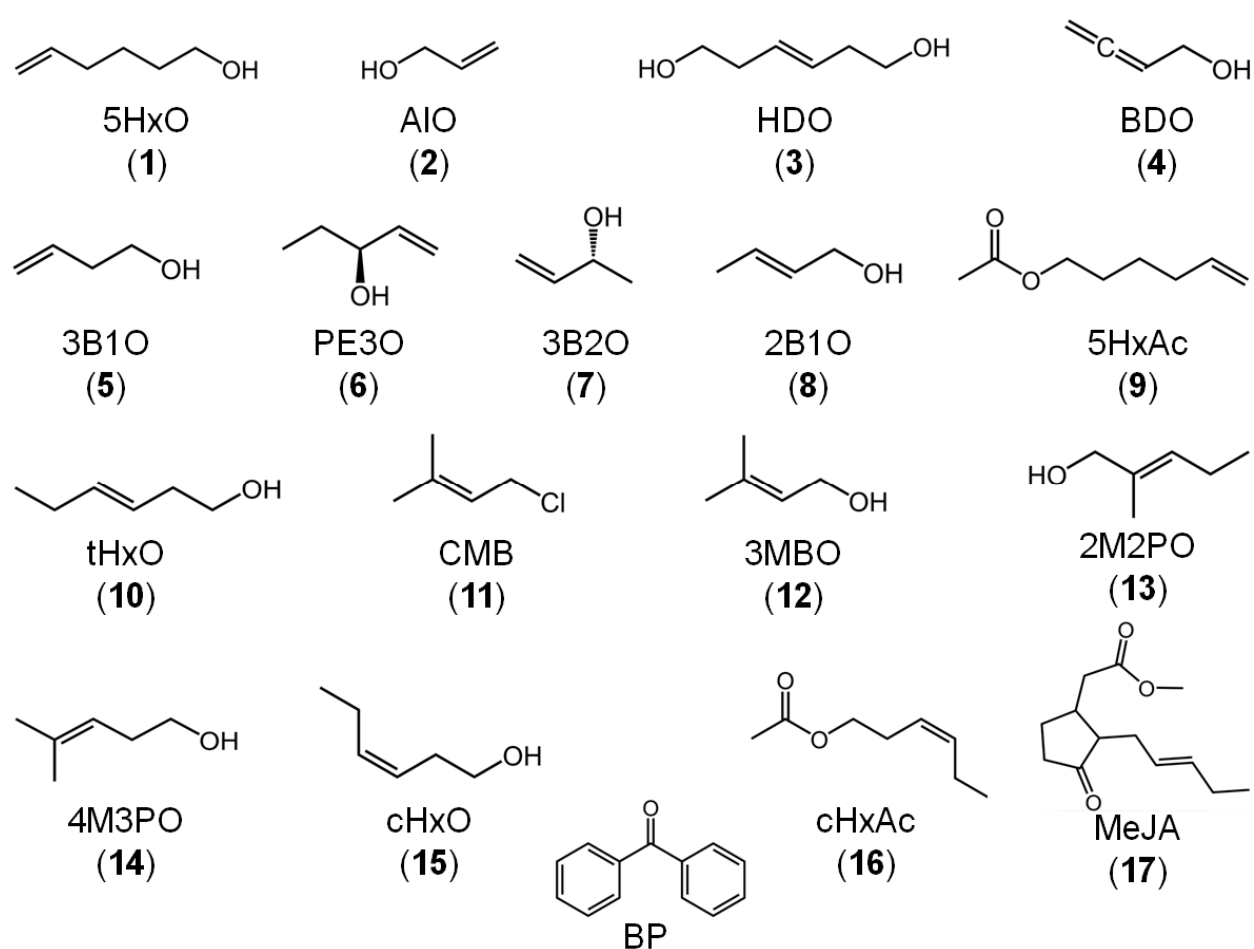


Fig. 1 Chemical structures of the reactant species used in this study: 17 alkenes and one model triplet, benzophenone. Compound numbers are in parentheses.

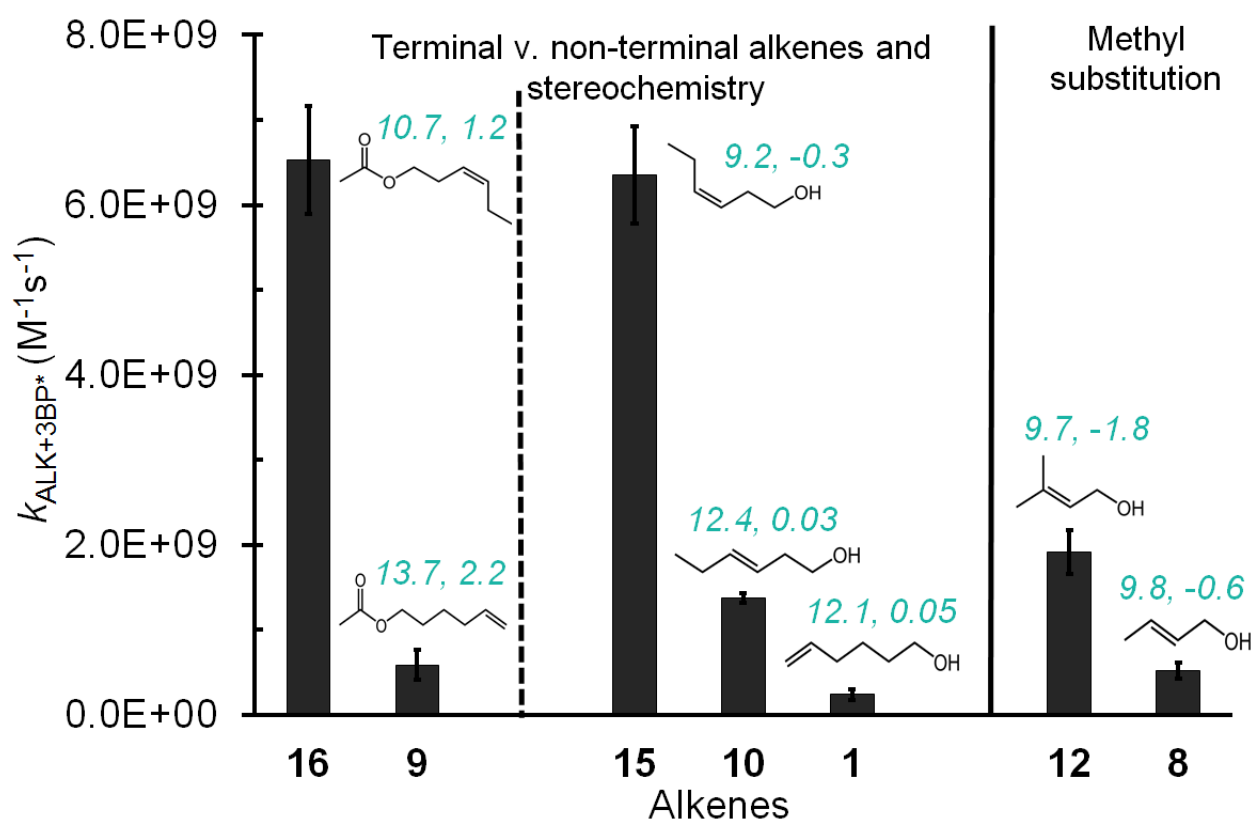


Fig. 2 Comparison of three sets of alkenes to illustrate how rate constants with the benzophenone triplet state vary with double bond location, stereochemistry, and methyl substitution. The teal numbers on each alkene represent the lowest free energy ($\Delta G^\ddagger$) and enthalpy ($\Delta H^\ddagger$) transition state barriers in kcal mol⁻¹ for H-abstraction by triplet benzophenone; these were calculated at the uB3LYP/6-31+G(d,p) level of theory. Though computed barriers (Table 1) are not correlated with the overall rates measured, they broadly match the rate trends within a given set of alkenes in this figure.

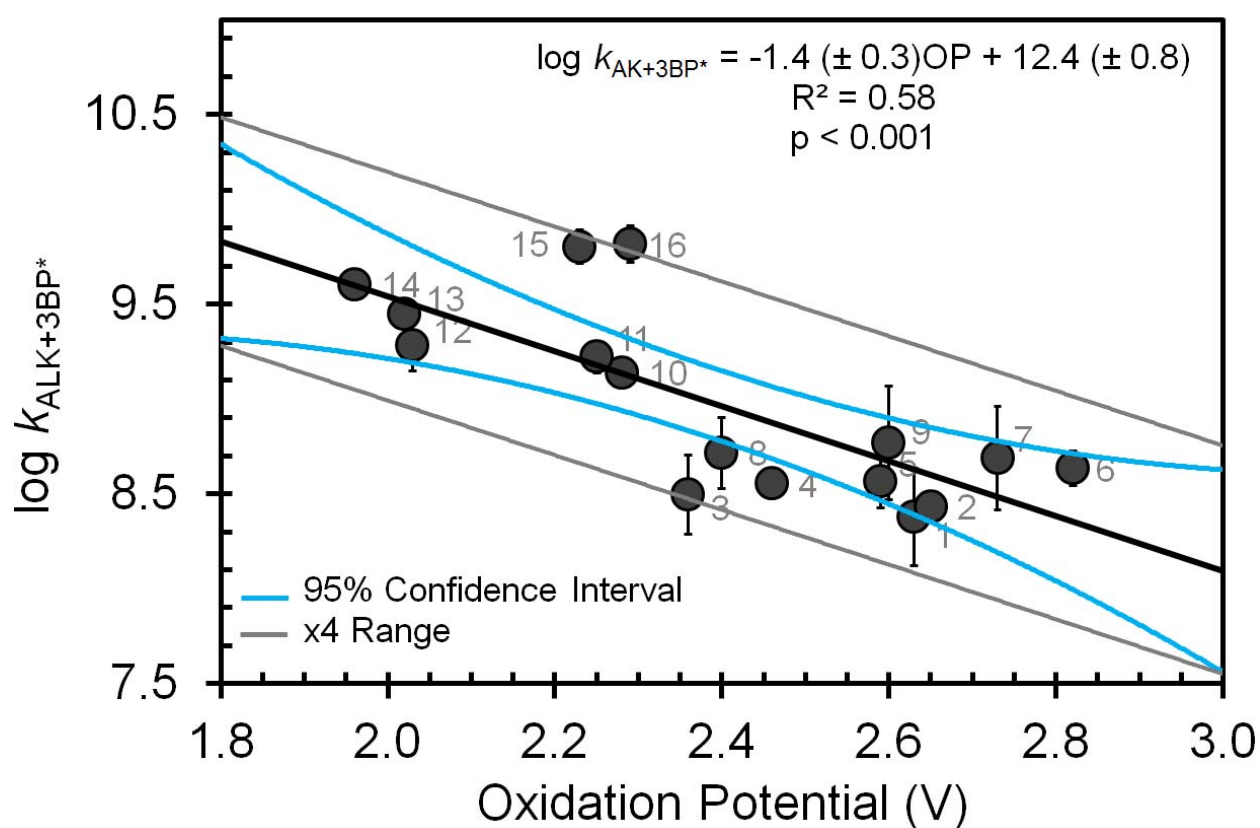
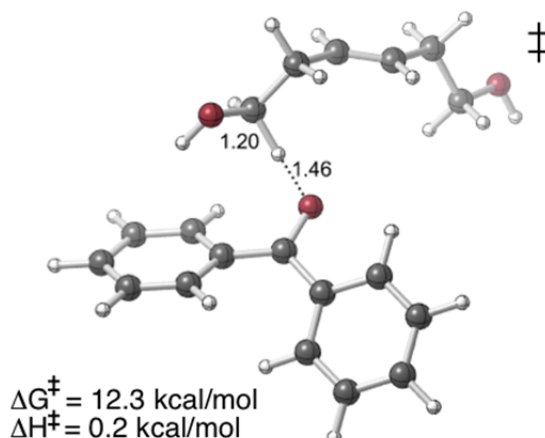
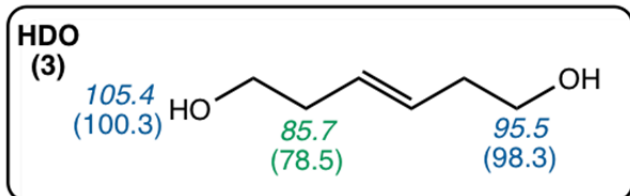
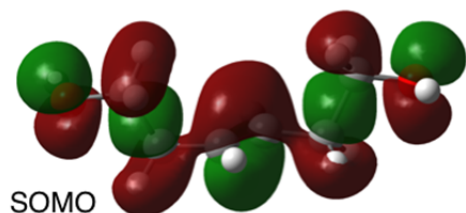
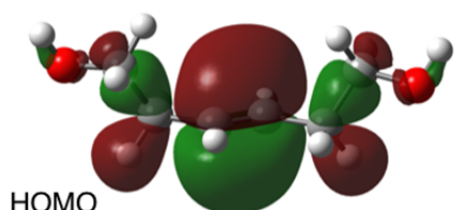


Fig. 3 Correlation between measured bimolecular rate constants for alkenes with the triplet excited state of benzophenone ($k_{\text{ALK}+3\text{BP}^*}$) and the computed one-electron oxidation potentials of the alkenes. Numbers on each point represent the alkene numbers in Table 1. Blue lines represent 95 % confidence intervals of the regression prediction. The gray lines bound the region that is within a factor of four of the regression prediction; all but one of the alkene values fall within this. Methyl jasmonate (**17**) is not included in this figure due to computational challenges in calculating its OP (see Table 1).

a) Electron removed from the π system



b) Electron removed from the oxygen

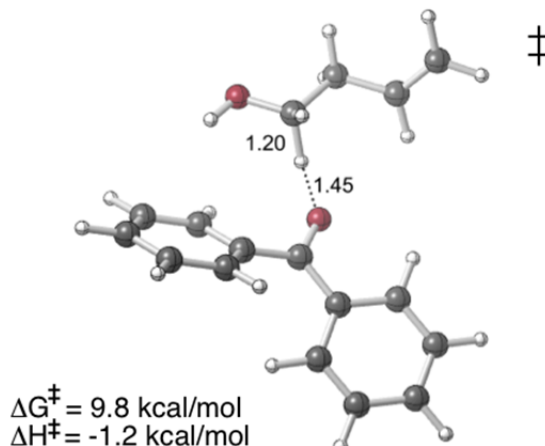
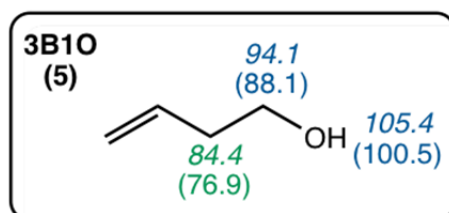
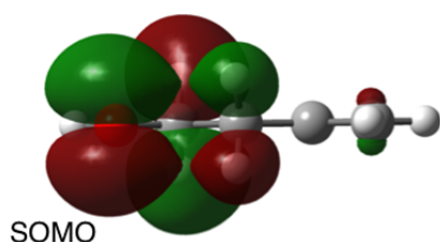
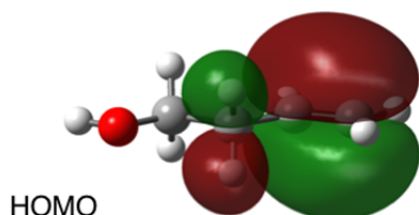


Fig. 4 Diagrams of the highest occupied molecular orbitals (HOMOs) of the alkenes before oxidation, and the singly occupied molecular orbitals (SOMOs) after removal of one electron from the alkenes, and lowest energy transition state structures (‡) of alkenes **3** and **5**. Bond dissociation enthalpy (italicized) and free energy (in parentheses) for various hydrogen atoms (in kcal mol⁻¹) for each alkene are shown in the boxes. Numbers in green are the lowest values, and thus represent the most labile hydrogen in each alkene. *a*) The electron removed during H-abstraction of HDO is predicted to come from the π system, but this results in delocalization due to hyperconjugation. *b*) The electron removed from 3B1O during H-abstraction is predicted to come from the oxygen. See SI Tables S2 and S3 for HOMO/SOMO structures and Fig. S4 for the bond dissociation enthalpies and free energies for other alkenes.

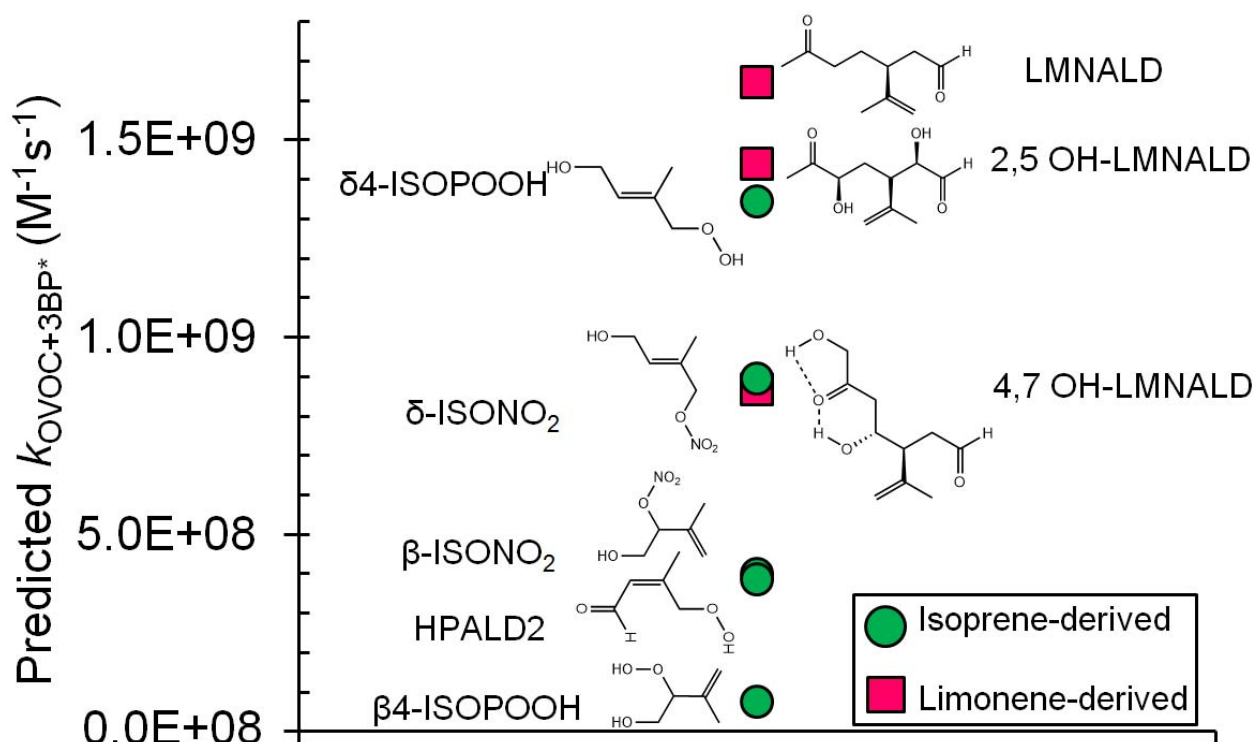


Fig. 5 Predicted bimolecular rate constants for a range of limonene and isoprene oxidation products (OVOCs) with the triplet state of BP. Rate constants are estimated from the QSAR with one-electron oxidation potentials (OPs) (Fig. 3). Oxidation potentials used to predict the rate constants here (and in Table 1) are for the lowest energy isomers of the OVOCs, which are the structures shown here. The structures of some of the other, higher energy, isomers are shown in Table S4.

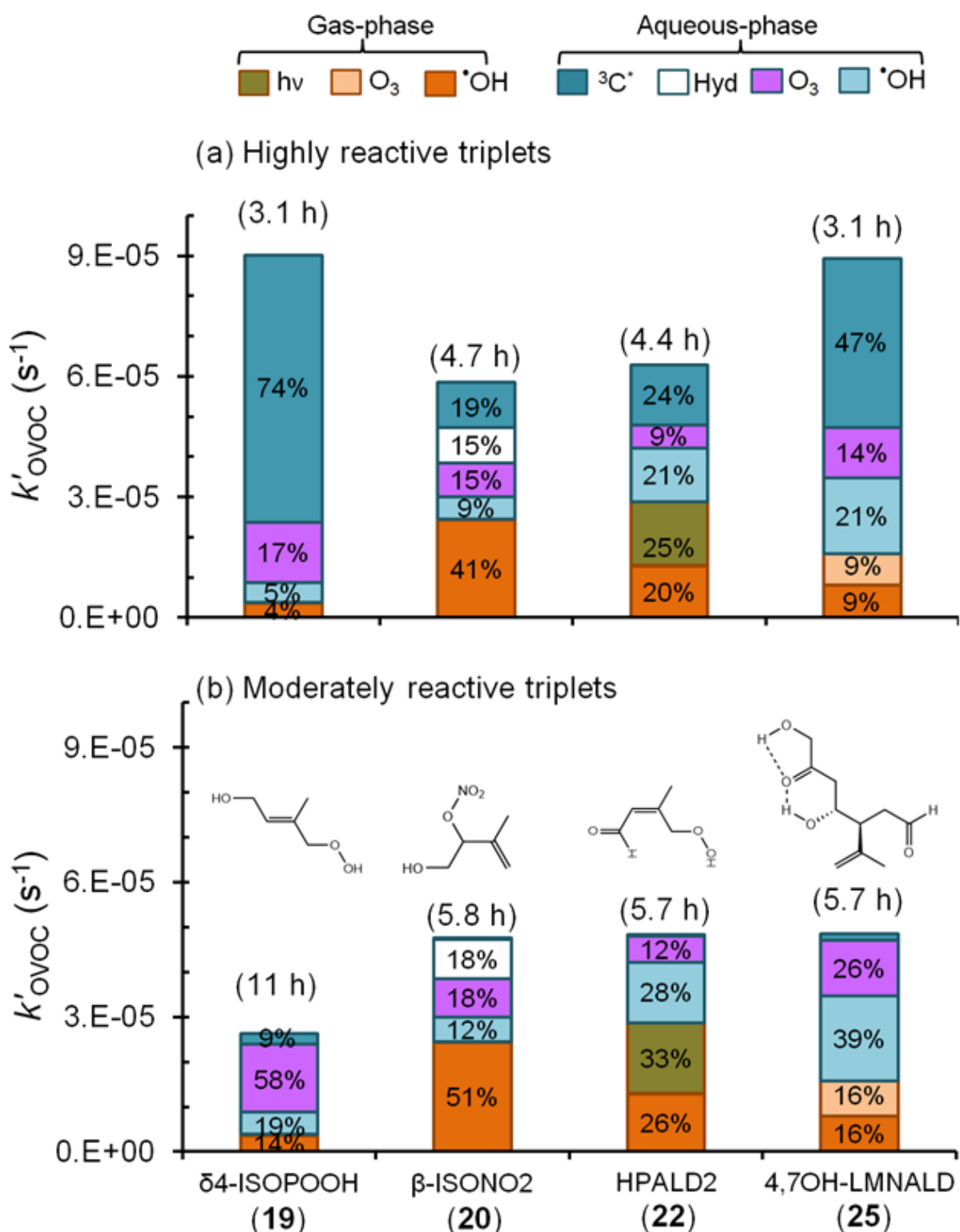


Fig. 6 Estimated pseudo-first-order loss rate constants and corresponding lifetimes (in parentheses) for representative isoprene- and limonene-derived oxidation products in a foggy atmosphere (Tables S5–S7). Colors and data labels indicate the percentage of OVOC lost via each gas and aqueous pathway, including direct photoreaction (hv) and hydrolysis (Hyd); pathways contributing less than 4 % are not labeled. Panel (a) is a likely upper bound for the triplet contributions to OVOC loss where we assume that all fog triplets are highly reactive, like benzophenone. Panel (b) shows the more likely contribution from triplets, assuming moderately reactive triplets that are more representative of the average measured in fog waters and aqueous particle extracts (Kaur et al., 2018; Kaur and Anastasio, 2018) (Tables S5–S7).

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635

Table 1. Measured alkene-benzophenone triplet reaction rate constants, predicted OVOC-benzophenone triplet reaction rate constants, and computed parameters for the alkenes.

#	Name	Abbreviation	OP ^a (V)	$\Delta G^\ddagger$ ^b (kcal mol ⁻¹)	$\Delta H^\ddagger$ ^c (kcal mol ⁻¹)	Measured $k_{\text{ALK}+\text{3BP}^*}$ ^d (10 ⁸ M ⁻¹ s ⁻¹)
Alkenes						
1	5-Hexen-1-ol	5HxO	2.63	12.1	0.05	2.4 (0.6)
2	2-Propen-1-ol (Allyl alcohol)	AlO	2.65	10.8	-0.04	2.7 (0.2)
3	3-Hexene-1,6-diol	HDO	2.36	12.3	0.2	3.1 (0.7)
4	2,3-Butadien-1-ol	BDO	2.46	10.5	-1.5	3.6 (0.3)
5	3-Buten-1-ol	3B1O	2.59	9.8	-1.2	3.7 (0.5)
6	1-Penten-3-ol	PE3O	2.82	11.3	-1.0	4.3 (0.4)
7	3-Buten-2-ol	3B2O	2.73	10.6	-1.0	4.9 (1.3)
8	2-Buten-1-ol	2B1O	2.40	9.8	-0.6	5.2 (1.0)
9	5-Hexenyl acetate	5HxAc	2.60	13.7	2.2	5.9 (1.8)
10	trans-3-hexen-1-ol	tHxO	2.28	12.4	0.03	14 (1)
11	1-Chloro-3-methyl-2-butene	CMB	2.25	14.1	2.7	17 (1) ^e
12	3-Methyl-2-buten-1-ol (Prenol)	3MBO	2.03	9.7	-1.8	19 (3)
13	2-Methyl-2-penten-1-ol	2M2PO	2.02	11.6	-1.4	28 (1)
14	4-Methyl-3-penten-1-ol	4M3PO	1.96	11.5	-0.4	40 (2)
15	cis-3-Hexen-1-ol	cHxO	2.23	9.2	-0.3	64 (6)
16	cis-3-Hexenyl acetate	cHxAc	2.29	10.7	1.2	65 (6)
17	Methyl jasmonate	MeJA	- ^f	- ^f	- ^f	75 (5)
Predictions for isoprene- and limonene-derived OVOCs						Predicted $k_{\text{OVOC}+\text{3BP}^*}$ ^g (10 ⁸ M ⁻¹ s ⁻¹)
18	β 4-Isoprene hydroxyhydroperoxide	β 4- ISOPOOH	3.13	13.2	0.3	0.80 (0.18)
19	δ 4-Isoprene hydroxyhydroperoxide	δ 4- ISOPOOH	2.28	10.5	-2.0	14 (3)
20	β -Isoprene hydroxynitrate	β -ISONO2	2.64	13.2	1.4	4.1 (0.9)
21	δ -Isoprene hydroxynitrate	δ -ISONO2	2.40	10.0	-1.9	9.2 (2.1)
22	Isoprene hydroperoxyaldehyde 2	HPALD2	2.65	10.4	-2.6	4.0 (0.9)
23	Limononaldehydye	LMNALD	2.22	9.9	-1.4	17 (4)
24	2,5-Dihydroxy limononaldehydye	2,5OH- LMNALD	2.26	10.1	-2.2	15 (3)
25	4,7-Dihydroxy limononaldehydye	4,7-OH- LMNALD	2.41	10.6	-0.8	8.9 (2.0)

^a One-electron oxidation potential, calculated using the CBS-QB3 compound method.
^{b,c} Lowest transition state energy barrier for H-abstraction by triplet benzophenone, calculated using uB3LYP/6-31+G(d,p).
^d Measured bimolecular rate constant for alkene reacting with ³BP* with uncertainties of ± 1 standard deviation, determined from triplicate measurements (Table S1 of the supplement).

643 ^e Listed uncertainty is ± 1 standard error, $n=1$.

644 ^f The oxidation potential and energy barriers could not be computed for MeJA (**17**). Because the CB3-
645 QB3 method scales at N^7 (where N is the number of atoms), the larger compound required more
646 computational power than available.

647 ^g Predicted bimolecular rate constant for select isoprene- and limonene-derived OVOCs reacting with
648 ³BP*, determined from the correlation between OP and $k_{\text{ALK}+3\text{BP}^*}$. Listed uncertainties are ± 1 standard
649 error propagated from the error of the slope of the quantitative structure-activity relationship between
650 oxidation potential and $k_{\text{ALK}+3\text{BP}^*}$ (Fig. 3).

Supporting Information for:

Aqueous Reactions of Organic Triplet Excited States with Atmospheric Alkenes

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This supporting information contains: 19 Pages, 8 Tables, and 9 Figures

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Table S1. Reference probes and triplicate measurements of rate constants for alkenes in a solution at pH 5.5. Errors (in parentheses) for each replicate measurement represent ± 1 standard error, determined by propagating errors in the slope of the relative rate plot and in the reference compound rate constant. Errors on the average values represent $\pm 1 \sigma$ determined from the average of the replicate values.

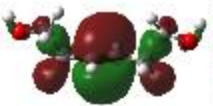
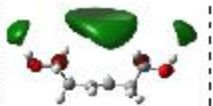
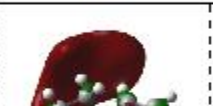
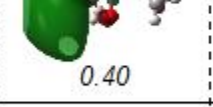
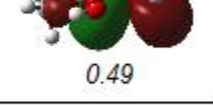
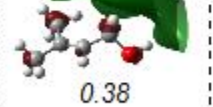
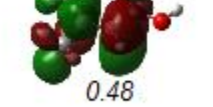
#	Alkene Name (ALK)	Abbreviation	Reference Probe	$k_{\text{ALK}+3\text{BP}^*} (10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1})$			
				Replicate 1	Replicate 2	Replicate 3	Average (SD)
1	5-Hexen-1-ol	5HxO	3MBO	3.1 (0.4)	1.9 (0.3)	2.2 (0.3)	2.4 (0.6)
2	Allyl alcohol	AlO	BDO	2.8 (0.3)	2.5 (0.2)	2.8 (0.3)	2.7 (0.2)
3	3-Hexene-1,6-diol	HDO	3MBO	2.5 (0.4)	3.7 (0.5)	3.2 (0.4)	3.1 (0.7)
4	2,3-Butadien-1-ol	BDO	3MBO	3.3 (0.5)	3.8 (0.5)	3.6 (0.5)	3.6 (0.3)
5	3-Buten-1-ol	3B1O	cHxO	4.2 (0.4)	3.2 (0.3)	3.6 (0.4)	3.7 (0.5)
6	1-Penten-3-ol	PE3O	3B2O	3.9 (1.1)	4.2 (1.2)	4.7 (1.3)	4.3 (0.4)
7	3-Buten-2-ol	3B2O	cHxO	5.7 (0.5)	5.6 (0.5)	3.3 (0.5)	4.9 (1.3)
8	2-Buten-1-ol	2B1O	4M3PO	5.6 (0.2)	4.1 (0.3)	5.9 (0.5)	5.2 (1.0)
9	5-Hexenyl acetate	5HxAc	3MBO	4.7 (0.7)	5.0 (0.7)	7.9 (1.1)	5.9 (1.8)
10	trans-3-hexen-1-ol	tHxO	3MBO	13 (2)	14 (2)	14 (2)	14 (1)
11	1-Chloro-3-methyl-2-butene	CMB	BDO ^a	17 (1)	-	-	17 (1) ^b
12	3-Methyl-2-buten-1-ol	3MBO	cHxO	21 (2)	20 (2)	16 (1)	19 (3)
13	2-Methyl-2-penten-1-ol	2M2PO	3MBO	29 (4)	28 (4)	28 (4)	28 (1)
14	4-Methyl-3-penten-1-ol	4M3PO	3MBO	42 (6)	39 (5)	40 (5)	40 (2)
15	cis-3-hexen-1-ol	cHxO	PhOH	62 (11) ^c	70 (13)	59 (11)	64 (6)
16	cis-3-hexenyl acetate	cHxAc	cHxO	66 (7)	71 (6)	59 (5)	65 (6)
17	Methyl jasmonate	MeJA	cHxO	80 (7)	69 (6)	75 (7)	75 (5)

^a Measurement of the rate constant for CMB was done in a solution containing a minimal amount of acetonitrile to dissolve the compound.

^b Error represents ± 1 SE, based on the SE of the relative rate slope and reference rate constant $k_{\text{BDO}+3\text{BP}^*}$ given in the table.

^c Phenol (PhOH) was used as the reference probe using the reference rate constant of $3.9 (\pm 0.7) \times 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$, measured in this study, using 2,4,6-trimethylphenol (TMP) as a reference compound ($k_{\text{TMP}+3\text{BP}^*} = 5.1 (\pm 0.9) \times 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$; Canonica et al. (2000)).

Table S2. Highest- and singly-occupied molecular orbitals (HOMOs, SOMOs) of representative alkenes showing removing of an electron from the π system.[†]

ALK Abbreviation (#)	HOMO	SOMO	HOMO+1 (eV)	SOMO+1 (eV)
HDO (3)			 0.39	 0.45
BDO (4)			 0.41	 0.45
PE3O (6)			 0.41	 0.49
3B2O (7)			 0.40	 0.49
3MBO (12)			 0.38	 0.48
cHxO (15)			 0.39	 0.46

[†] HOMOs and SOMOs were computed from single point calculations at MP2/CBSB3 (Frisch et al., 2016). HOMO+1 and SOMO+1 values in eV are shown relative to HOMO and SOMO, respectively.

34 **Table S3.** HOMOs and SOMOs of alkenes showing removing of an electron from the oxygen.[†]

ALK Abbreviation (#)	HOMO	SOMO	HOMO+1 (eV)	SOMO+1 (eV)
3B1O (5)			 0.40	 0.45
HxAc (16)			 0.39	 0.44
MeJA (17)			 0.37	 0.19

[†]HOMOs and SOMOs were computed from single point calculations at MP2/CBSB3 (B3LYP/CBSB7 was used for ALKs 16 and 17). HOMO+1 and SOMO+1 values in eV are shown relative to HOMO and SOMO, respectively.

36 **Table S4.** Oxidation potentials (in units of V) of various isomers of isoprene- and limonene-derived
 37 OVOCs, calculated using the CBS-QB3 compound method. The lowest energy isomer for each OVOC
 38 is highlighted using a blue box. Compounds not shown here (18, 20 and 22) have no relevant isomers.

84 ISOPOOH (19)	8ISONO2 (21)	LMNALD (23)	2,5OH-LMNALD (24)		4,7OH-LMNALD (25)
 2.25	 2.40	 2.22	 2.06	 2.24	 2.17
 2.28	 2.45	 2.28	 2.12	 2.26	 2.17
			 2.23	 2.39	 2.21
			 2.24	 2.39	 2.41
					 2.48

40 **Table S5.** Measured or estimated rate constants for reactions of OVOCs with oxidants, photolysis, and hydrolysis.

OVOC		Gas-phase rate constants ($\text{cm}^3 \text{mole}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$)					
#	Name	$k_{\text{OVOC}+\text{OH}}$	Reference	$k_{\text{OVOC}+\text{O}_3}$	Reference	$j_{\text{Photolysis}} (\text{s}^{-1})$	Reference
18	β 4-ISOPROOH	1.2E-10	St. Clair et al. (2015)	1.3E-17	Khamaganov and Hites (2001)		
19	δ 4-ISOPROOH	1.2E-10	St. Clair et al. (2015)	1.3E-17	Khamaganov and Hites (2001)		
20	β -ISONO ₂	5.4E-11	Lee et al. (2014)	5.0E-19	Lee et al. (2014)		
21	δ -ISONO ₂	1.1E-10	Lee et al. (2014)	2.8E-17	Lee et al. (2014)		
22	HPALD ₂	5.1E-11	Wolfe et al. (2012)	1.2E-18	Wolfe et al. (2012)	6.3E-05	Wolfe et al. (2012)
23	LMNALD	1.6E-10	Gill and Hites (2002)	2.1E-16	Khamaganov and Hites (2001)		
24	2,5OH-LMNALD	1.6E-10	Gill and Hites (2002)	2.1E-16	Khamaganov and Hites (2001)		
25	4,7OH-LMNALD	1.6E-10	Gill and Hites (2002)	2.1E-16	Khamaganov and Hites (2001)		
26	HPALD ₁	5.1E-11	Wolfe et al. (2012)	1.2E-18	Wolfe et al. (2012)	6.3E-05	Wolfe et al. (2012)
OVOC		Aqueous-phase rate constants ($\text{L mol}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$)					
#	Name	$k_{\text{OVOC}+\text{OH}}$	Reference	$k_{\text{OVOC}+\text{O}_3}$	Reference	$k'_{\text{Hydrolysis}} (\text{s}^{-1})$	Reference
18	β 4-ISOPROOH	2.5E+09	Rivera-Rios et al. (2018)	4.7E+04	Schöne and Herrmann (2014) ^a		
19	δ 4-ISOPROOH	2.5E+09	Rivera-Rios et al. (2018)	4.7E+04	Schöne and Herrmann (2014) ^a		
20	β -ISONO ₂	5.0E+09	Herrmann et al. (2015) ^b	4.7E+04	Schöne and Herrmann (2014) ^a	1.6E-05	Jacobs et al. (2014)
21	δ -ISONO ₂	5.0E+09	Herrmann et al. (2015) ^b	4.7E+04	Schöne and Herrmann (2014) ^a	6.8E-03	Jacobs et al. (2014)
22	HPALD ₂	9.0E+09	Schöne et al. (2014) ^c	2.3E+04	Schöne and Herrmann (2014) ^c		
23	LMNALD	1.0E+10	Witkowski et al. (2018) ^d	4.0E+04	Witkowski et al. (2018) ^d		
24	2,5OH-LMNALD	1.0E+10	Witkowski et al. (2018)	4.0E+04	Witkowski et al. (2018) ^d		
25	4,7OH-LMNALD	1.0E+10	Witkowski et al. (2018) ^d	4.0E+04	Witkowski et al. (2018) ^d		
26	HPALD ₁	9.0E+09	Schöne et al. (2014) ^c	2.3E+04	Schöne and Herrmann (2014) ^c		

41 ^a Average of rate constants for methacrolein and methyl vinyl ketone used as a proxy.

42 ^b Estimate based on the rate constants for similar unsaturated compounds with $\cdot\text{OH}$ in the indicated reference.

43 ^c Rate constant for methacrolein used as a proxy.

44 ^d Rate constants for neutral dicarbonyl derivatives of limonic and limononic acids, used a proxies.

45 **Table S6.** Loss rate constants for OVOCs due to different pathways.

#	OVOC Name	K_H^a (M atm ⁻¹)	χ_{aq}^b	Pseudo-first-order rate constant for loss due to oxidants in the gas- phase (s ⁻¹)			Pseudo-first-order rate constant for loss due to oxidants in the aqueous-phase (s ⁻¹)				
				$k'_{OH,g}^c$	$k'_{O_3,g}^d$	j_{hv}^e	$k'_{OH,aq}^f$	$k'_{O_3,aq}^g$	$k'_{3BP*,aq}^h$ (High Triplet Reactivity)	$k'_{3C*,aq}^i$ (Typical Triplet Reactivity)	k'_{Hyd}^j
18	β4-ISOPOOH	1.5E+06	0.97	1.2E-04	9.6E-06		5.0E-06	1.6E-05	4.0E-06	1.4E-07	
19	δ4-ISOPOOH	1.2E+06	0.97	1.2E-04	9.6E-06		5.0E-06	1.6E-05	6.8E-05	2.4E-06	
20	β-ISONO2	5.1E+04	0.55	5.4E-05	3.7E-07		1.0E-05	1.6E-05	2.1E-05	7.3E-07	1.6E-05
21	δ-ISONO2	4.3E+04	0.51	1.1E-04	2.1E-05		1.0E-05	1.6E-05	4.6E-05	1.6E-06	6.8E-03
22	HPALD2	1.2E+05	0.75	5.1E-05	8.9E-07	6.3E-05	1.8E-05	7.6E-06	2.0E-05	7.0E-07	
23	LMNALD	4.5E+03	0.10	1.6E-04	1.6E-04		2.0E-05	1.3E-05	8.3E-05	2.9E-06	
24	2,5OH-LMNALD	8.0E+05	0.95	1.6E-04	1.6E-04		2.0E-05	1.3E-05	7.3E-05	2.6E-06	
25	4,7OH-LMNALD	8.0E+05	0.95	1.6E-04	1.6E-04		2.0E-05	1.3E-05	4.4E-05	1.6E-06	
26	HPALD1	1.2E+05	0.75	5.1E-05	8.9E-07	6.3E-05	1.8E-05	7.6E-06	- ^k	- ^k	

46 ^a Henry's law constants calculated using EPISuite version 4.1 (US EPA. Estimation Programs Interface Suite™ for Microsoft® Windows v 4.1,
47 2016).

48 ^b Fraction of OVOC in the aqueous phase, calculated as $\chi_{aq} = 1/(1+1/(K_H \times L \times R \times T))$, where K_H is the Henry's law constant of the OVOC, L is the
49 assumed liquid water content (1×10^{-6} L-aq/L-g), R is the universal gas constant (0.082 L atm K⁻¹ mol⁻¹), and $T = 298$ K.

50 ^{c,d,f,g,h,i} Pseudo-first-order rate constant for loss of OVOC due to oxidation by the given oxidant in the gas or aqueous phase, calculated by
51 multiplying the bimolecular reaction rate constant (Table S6) with the corresponding steady-state concentration of the oxidant: [[•]OH(g)] = 1×10^6
52 molecules cm⁻³, [O₃(g)] = 30 ppbv = 7.4×10^{11} molecules cm⁻³, [[•]OH(aq)] = 2×10^{-15} M (estimate in typical fog drops, includes gas-to-aqueous
53 partitioning, Kaur and Anastasio (2017)).
54 [O₃(aq)] = 3.3×10^{-10} M (based on 30 ppbv O₃(g) and $K_H = 1.1 \times 10^{-2}$ M atm⁻¹; Seinfeld and Pandis (2012), and [³C*(aq)] = 5×10^{-14} M (average
55 concentration measured in Davis fog, Kaur and Anastasio (2017)).

56 ^h Pseudo-first-order rate constant for loss of OVOC due to oxidation by highly reactive triplets such as ³BP*. This was calculated using the
57 predicted second-order rate constants $k_{OVOC+3BP*}$ (Table 1, main text) and [³C*(aq)] given in the footnote above.

58 ⁱ Pseudo-first-order rate constant for loss of OVOC due to oxidation by triplets of typical reactivity as measured in fog and particles in Davis, CA
59 (Kaur and Anastasio, 2017; Kaur and Anastasio, 2018). To estimate these rate constants we multiplied the predicted second-order rate constants
60 with ³BP* ($k_{OVOC+3BP*}$) by a factor of 0.04, which is the ratio of the average of the rate constants of reaction of MeJA with ³MAP* and ³DMB*
61 (2.7×10^8 M⁻¹ s⁻¹, Table S8) divided by the rate constant for MeJA with ³BP* (7.5×10^9 M⁻¹ s⁻¹, Tables S1 and S8).

62 ^{e,j} First-order rate constants for gas-phase photolysis and aqueous hydrolysis of the OVOC, respectively (also given in Table S5).

63 ^k The value of $k_{ALK+3BP*}$ for HPALD1 could not be determined due to challenges with calculating its oxidation potential. Because the CB3-QB3
64 method scales at N^7 (where N is the number of atoms), the larger compound required more computational power than available.

65 **Table S7.** OVOC lifetimes and fractions lost due to various pathways.

High Triplet Reactivity Scenario		Total		Fraction of OVOC lost due to each pathway ^c						
#	OVOC Name	k'_{OVOC} (s ⁻¹) ^a	τ (h) ^b	•OH(g)	O ₃ (g)	hν(g)	•OH(aq)	O ₃ (aq)	³ BP*(aq)	Hyd(aq)
18	β4-ISOPPOOH	2.7E-05	10	13%	1.0%	0%	18%	54%	14%	0%
19	δ4-ISOPPOOH	9.0E-05	3.1	3.9%	0.32%	0%	5.4%	17%	74%	0%
20	β-ISONO2	5.9E-05	4.7	41%	0.28%	0%	9.4%	15%	19%	15%
21	δ-ISONO2	3.6E-03	0.078	1.5%	0.29%	0%	0.14%	0.22%	0.66%	97%
22	HPALD2	6.3E-05	4.4	20%	0.35%	25%	21%	9.1%	24%	0%
23	LMNALD	3.0E-04	0.93	49%	47%	0%	0.67%	0.44%	2.8%	0%
24	2,5OH-LMNALD	1.2E-04	2.4	6.9%	6.7%	0%	16%	11%	59%	0%
25	4,7OH-LMNALD	8.9E-05	3.1	9.0%	8.8%	0%	21%	14%	47%	0%
26	HPALD1	4.8E-05	5.8	27%	0.46%	33%	28%	12%	- ^d	0%
Typical Triplet Reactivity Scenario		Total		Fraction of OVOC lost due to each pathway ^c						
#	OVOC Name	k'_{OVOC} (s ⁻¹)	τ (h)	•OH(g)	O ₃ (g)	hν(g)	•OH(aq)	O ₃ (aq)	³ C*(aq)	Hyd(aq)
18	β4-ISOPPOOH	2.4E-05	12	15%	1.2%	0%	20%	63%	0.58%	0%
19	δ4-ISOPPOOH	2.6E-05	11	14%	1.1%	0%	19%	58%	9.0%	0%
20	β-ISONO2	4.8E-05	5.8	51%	0.43%	0%	12%	18%	0.84%	18%
21	δ-ISONO2	3.5E-03	0.079	1.5%	0.29%	0%	0.14%	0.22%	0.02%	98%
22	HPALD2	4.8E-05	5.7	26%	0.46%	33%	28%	12%	1.1%	0%
23	LMNALD	2.9E-04	1.0	50%	49%	0%	0.69%	0.45%	0.10%	0%
24	2,5OH-LMNALD	5.0E-05	5.6	16%	16%	0%	38%	25%	4.9%	0%
25	4,7OH-LMNALD	4.9E-05	5.7	16%	16%	0%	39%	26%	3.0%	0%
26	HPALD1	4.8E-05	5.8	27%	0.46%	33%	28%	12%	- ^d	0%

66 ^a Total pseudo-first order rate constant for loss of OVOC, calculated as $k'_{\text{OVOC}} = \Sigma(\chi_{\text{aq}} \times k'_{\text{Ox, aq}} + (1 - \chi_{\text{aq}}) \times k'_{\text{Ox, gas}})$. All pseudo-first-order rate
67 constants ($k'_{\text{Ox, aq}}$, $k'_{\text{Ox, gas}}$, j_{hv} , k'_{Hyd}) are given in Table S6.

68 ^b Total lifetime of OVOC, calculated as $1/k'_{\text{OVOC}}$.

69 ^c Fraction of OVOC lost due to each pathway, calculated as $(\chi_{\text{aq}} \times k'_{\text{Ox, aq}})/k'_{\text{OVOC}}$ for aqueous pathways and $((1 - \chi_{\text{aq}}) \times k'_{\text{Ox, gas}})/k'_{\text{OVOC}}$ for gas-phase
70 processes.

71 ^d We were unable to compute the oxidation potential for HAPLD1 (see footnote *k* in Table S6), and thus could not estimate its rate constant with
72 triplets.

73 **Table S8.** Second-order rate constants for reaction of some alkenes with model triplet excited states.

ALK	$k_{\text{ALK}+3\text{C}^*}$ $10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$			Average ($k_{\text{MeJA}+3\text{MAP}^*}, k_{\text{MeJA}+3\text{DMB}^*}) /$ $k_{\text{MeJA}+3\text{BP}^*}^{\text{c}}$
	$^3\text{3MAP}^*$	$^3\text{DMB}^*$	$^3\text{BP}^*$	
cHxO (15)	1.1 (± 0.2) ^a	0.24 (± 0.10) ^a	64 (± 6) ^b	0.010
cHxAc (16)	7.9 (± 2.0) ^a	15 (± 4) ^a	65 (± 6) ^b	0.18
MeJA (17)	1.2 (± 0.3) ^a	4.1 (± 1.6) ^a	75 (± 5) ^b	0.035 ^d

74 ^a Rate constants from Richards-Henderson et al. (2014). Listed uncertainties are ± 1 standard errors.

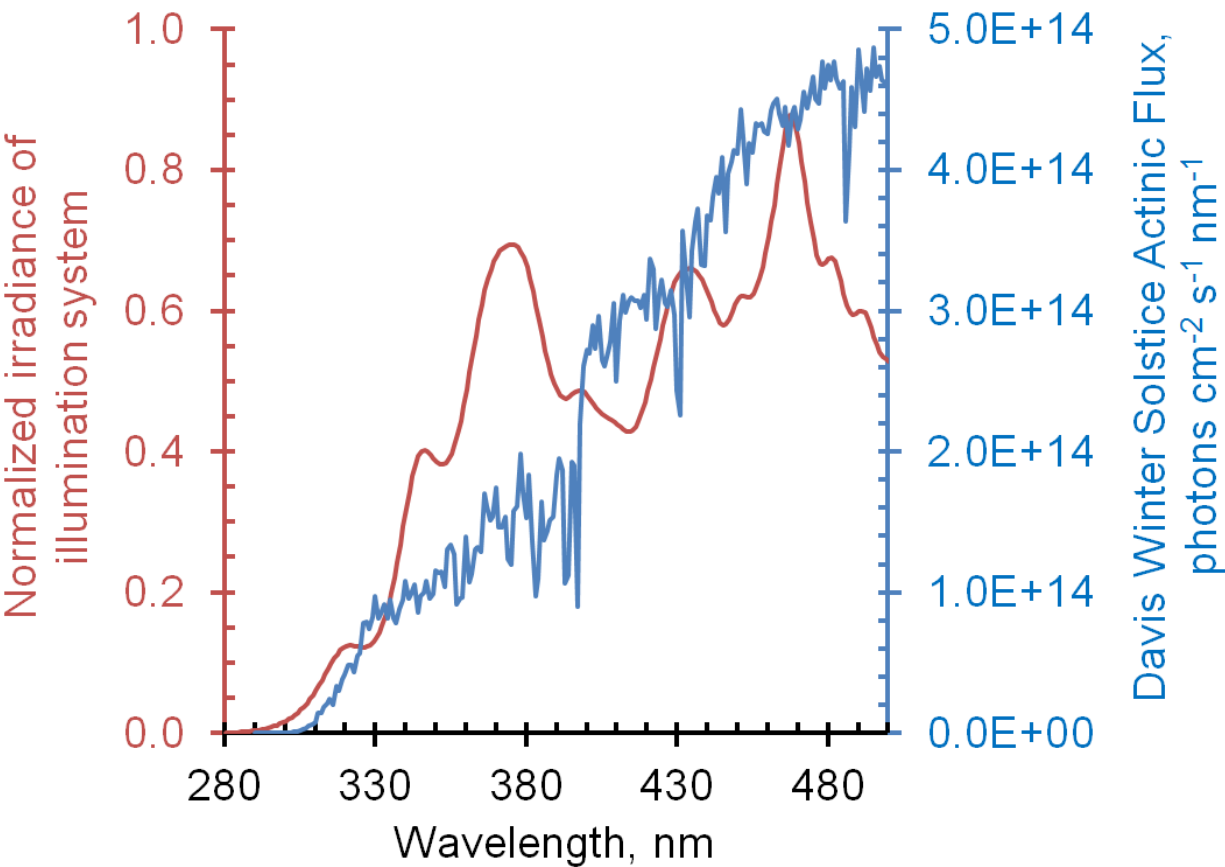
75 ^b Rate constants measured in this work (also shown in Table S1). Listed uncertainties here are ± 1 standard
76 deviation, $n = 3$.

77 ^c The ratio of the average bimolecular rate constants for reaction of MeJA with model triplets $^3\text{3MAP}^*$ and
78 $^3\text{DMB}^*$ to the rate constant for MeJA with $^3\text{BP}^*$.

79 ^d This is the rate constant ratio for MeJA as well as the median value of the rate constant ratio (see footnote a)
80 for the three alkenes.

81

82



83

84 **Figure S1.** Comparison of the normalized irradiance from our illumination system (red line) and
85 Davis, midday, winter solstice sunlight from the TUV model (blue line; Madronich et al. (2002)).
86 Our illumination system irradiance was measured using a TIDAS spectrophotometer (absolute
87 units: counts cm⁻² nm⁻¹ s⁻¹) and normalized so that the area under its curve is equal to the area
88 under the TUV actinic flux curve. Input parameters for the TUV model were: solar zenith angle:
89 62°, measurement altitude: 0 km, surface albedo: 0.1, aerosol optical depth: 0.235, cloud optical
90 depth: 0.00.

91

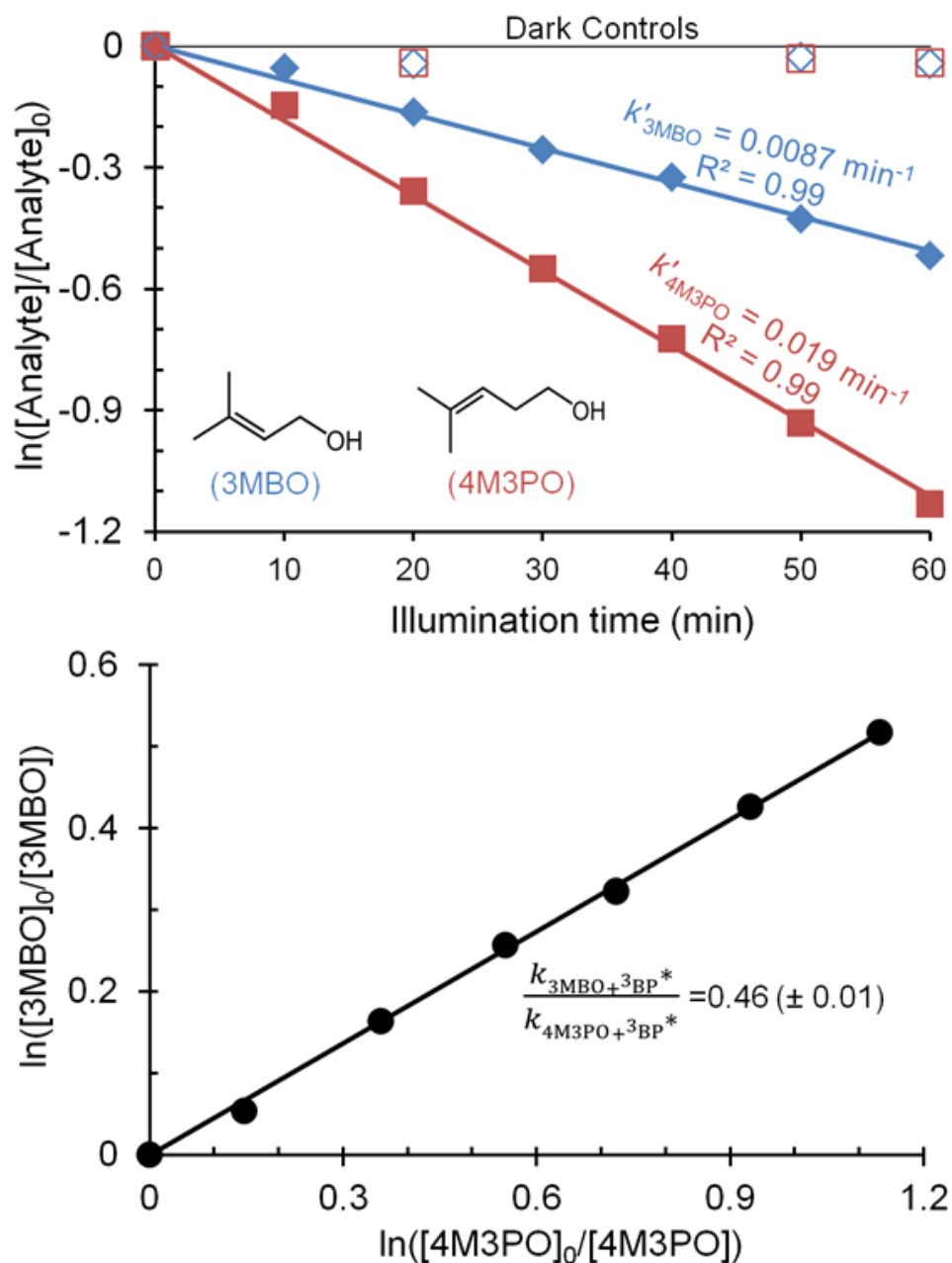
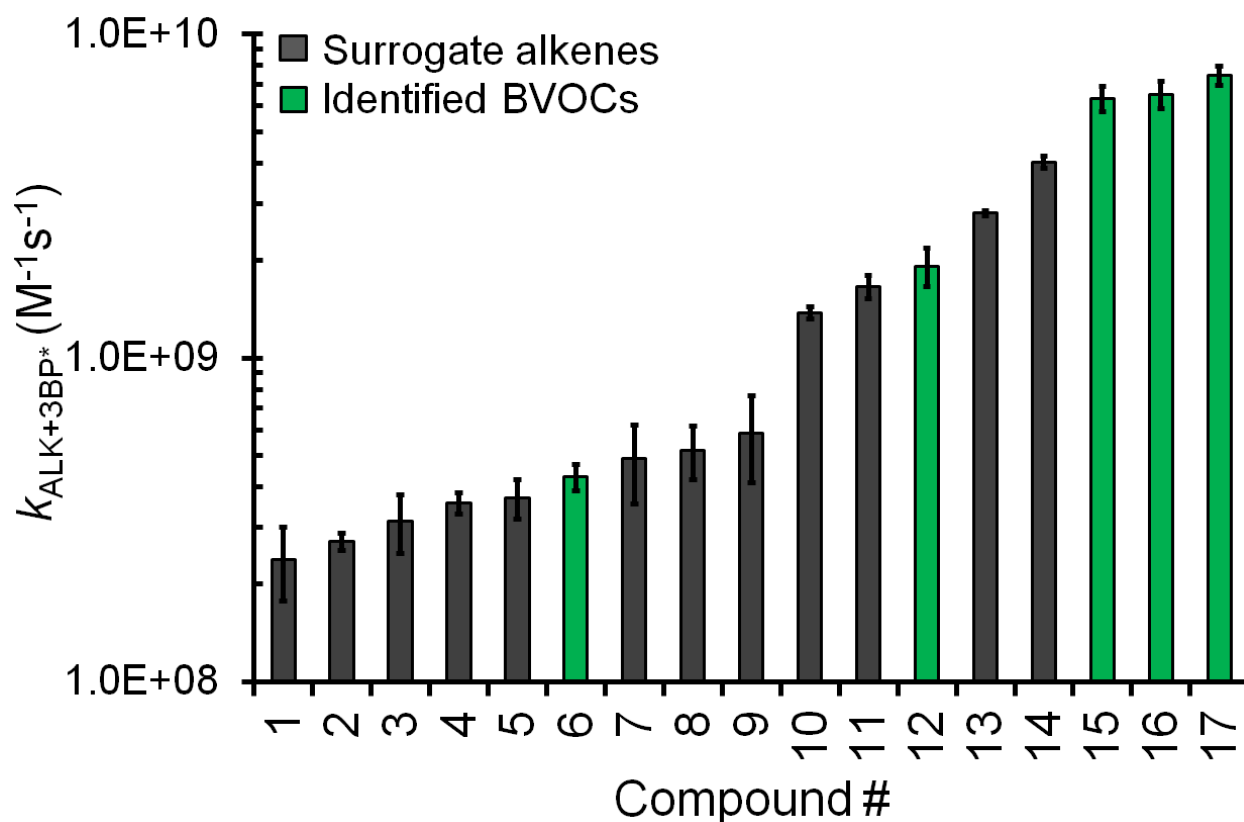


Figure S2. Illustration of the relative rate technique used for measuring rate constants (Finlayson-Pitts and Pitts Jr, 1999; Richards-Henderson et al., 2014). Top panel: Aqueous loss of the alkene (4M3PO) and reference compound (3MBO) in the presence of the BP triplet under solar simulated light (298 K, pH 5.5 (± 0.2)). Bottom panel: Plot of change in concentration of reference compound against alkene. The slope represents the ratio (± 1 SE) of the bimolecular rate constants with the BP triplet.

100



101

102 **Figure S3.** Measured bimolecular rate constants of 17 alkenes with triplet benzophenone. Green
 103 bars represent biogenic volatile organic compounds known to be emitted from plants; grey bars
 104 represent other C_3 – C_6 alkenes. Error bars represent ± 1 standard deviation (n = 3) except for
 105 compound 11, where n = 1 and the error is ± 1 SE (see Table S1 for details). Experimental
 106 conditions: 298 K, pH 5.5 ± 0.2 , 1.0 mM phosphate buffer).

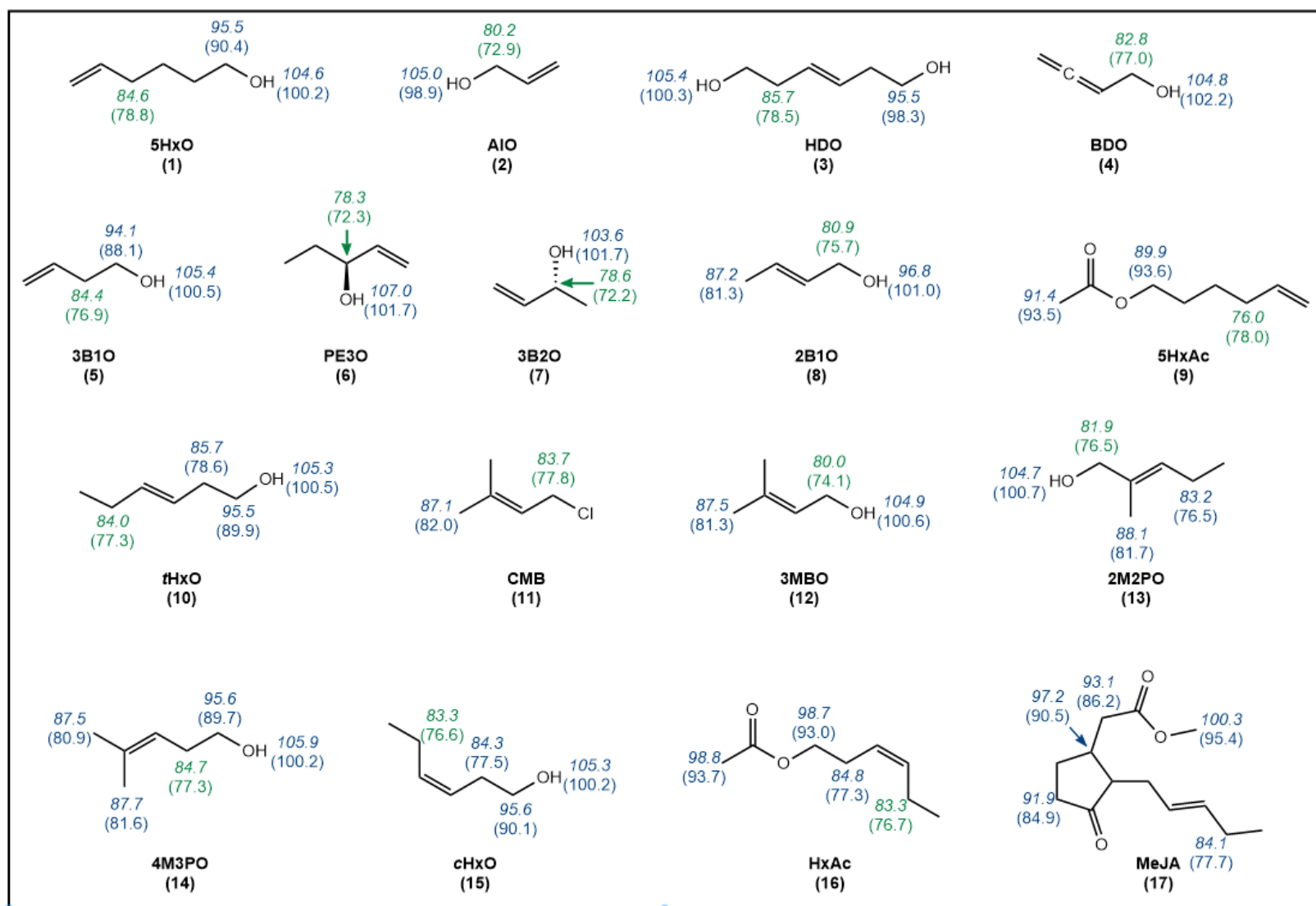


Figure S4. Bond dissociation enthalpies (in italics) and bond dissociation free energies (in parentheses) in kcal mol⁻¹ for various hydrogens in each alkene. For each compound the hydrogen most likely to be abstracted, i.e., with the lowest bond dissociation energy, is shown in green.

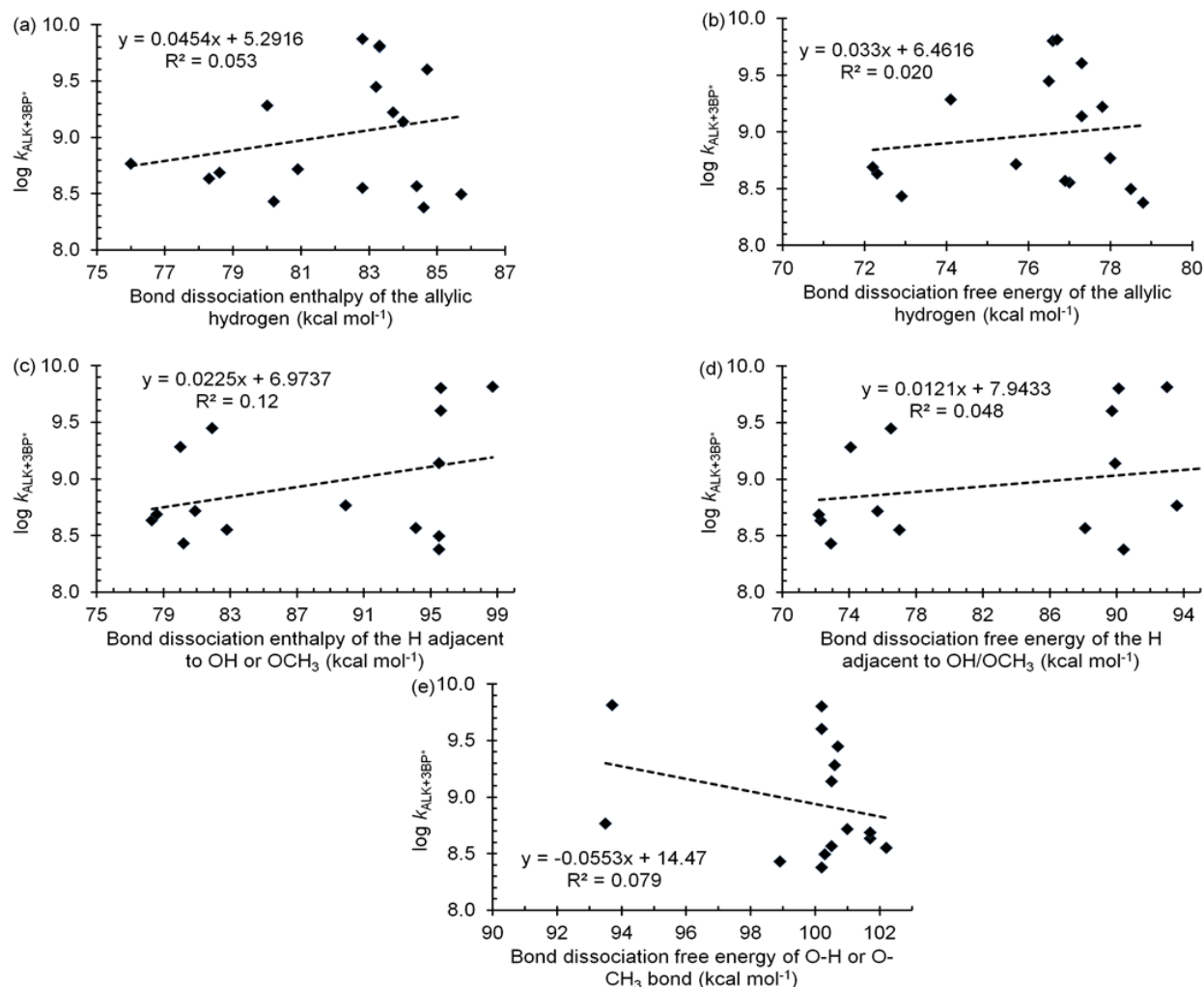


Figure S5. Correlation plots for measured rate constants and various computed bond dissociation energies. (a) $\log k_{\text{ALK}+3\text{BP}^*}$ versus the lowest bond dissociation enthalpy of the allylic hydrogen in each alkene (i.e., the green values in Fig. S4). (b) $\log k_{\text{ALK}+3\text{BP}^*}$ versus the lowest bond dissociation free energy of the allylic hydrogen. (c) $\log k_{\text{ALK}+3\text{BP}^*}$ versus the bond dissociation enthalpy of the hydrogen attached to the carbon adjacent to the $-\text{OH}$ or $-\text{OCH}_3$ group. (d) $\log k_{\text{ALK}+3\text{BP}^*}$ versus the bond dissociation free energy of the hydrogen attached to the carbon adjacent to the $-\text{OH}$ or $-\text{OCH}_3$ group. (e): $\log k_{\text{ALK}+3\text{BP}^*}$ versus bond dissociation free energy of the O-H or $\text{OH}_2\text{C-H}$ bond. Bond dissociation energies are shown in Fig. S4.

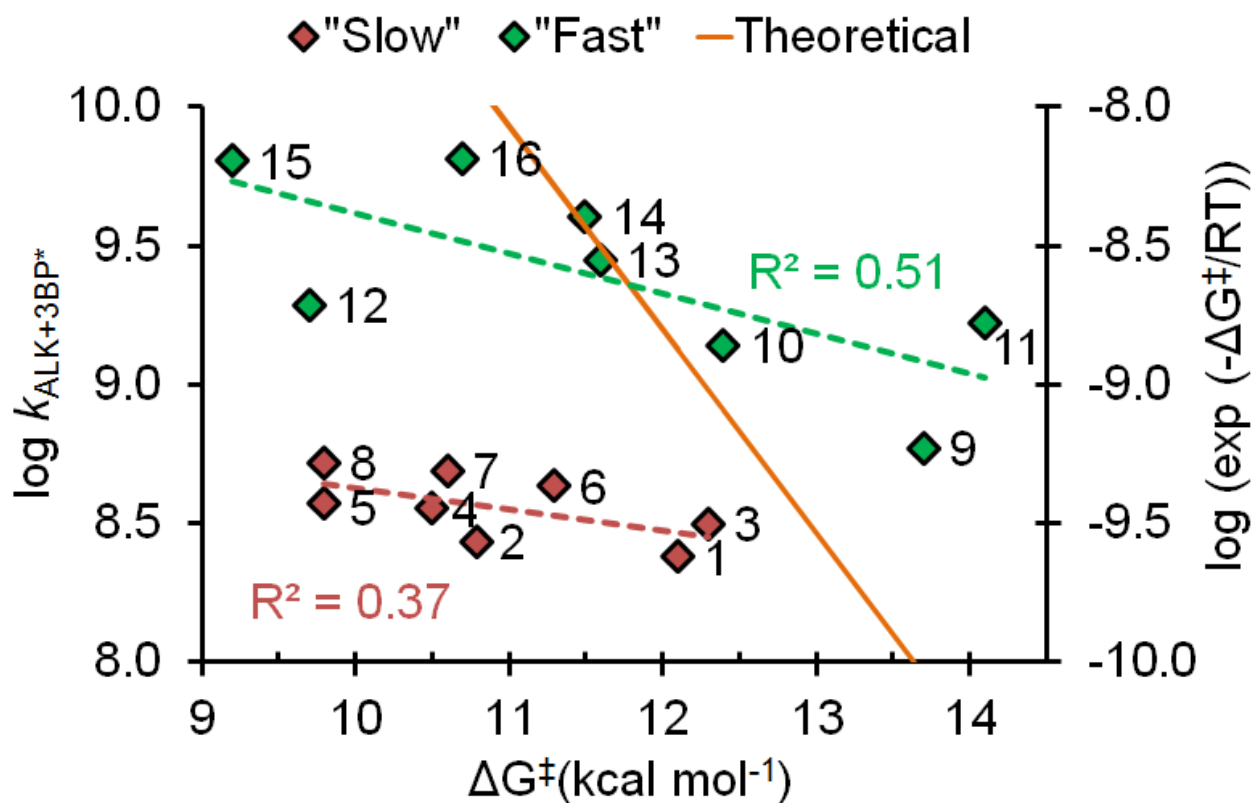
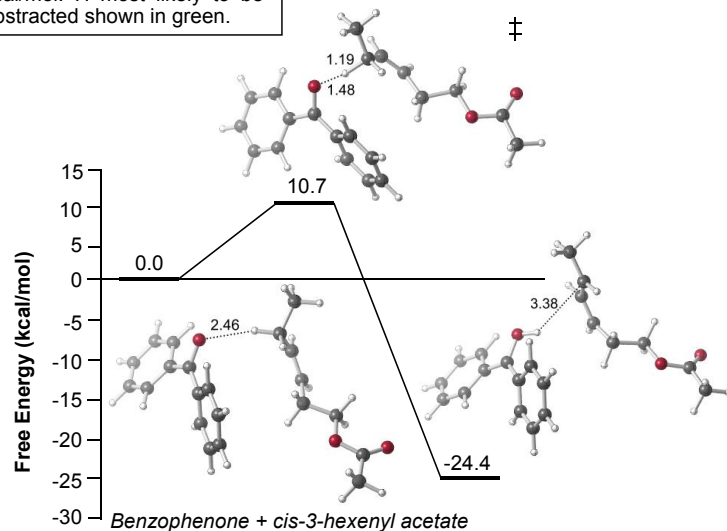
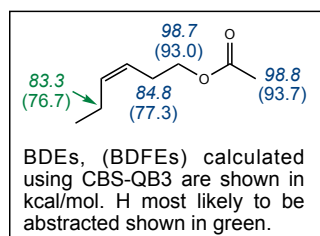
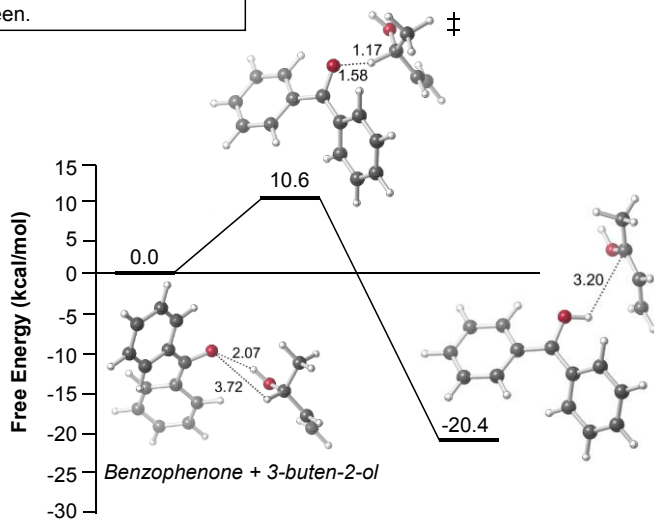
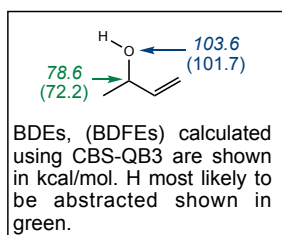
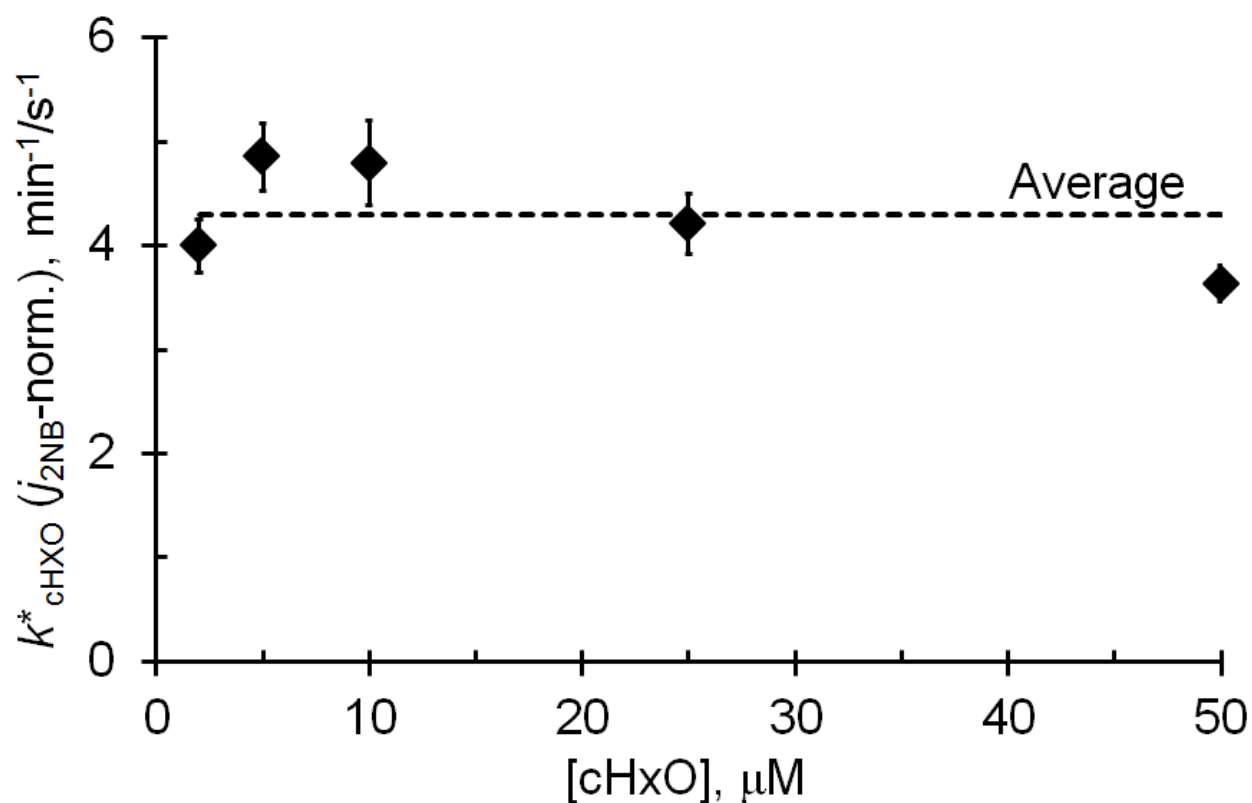


Figure S6. Log $k_{\text{ALK}+3\text{BP}^*}$ versus lowest transition state free energy barrier. The alkenes are broken down into two groups: $k_{\text{ALK}+3\text{BP}^*} < 5 \times 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (slow, red) and $k_{\text{ALK}+3\text{BP}^*} \geq 5 \times 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (fast, green). The slopes (± 1 SE) of these lines are $-0.077 (\pm 0.041)$ and $-0.15 (\pm 0.06) \text{ mol kcal}^{-1}$, respectively. Transition state energy barrier values are given in Table 1 of the main text. The orange line (plotted on the secondary y-axis) shows the trend in k values expected from transition state theory ($k_{\text{ALK}+3\text{BP}^*} = A \times \exp (-\Delta G^\ddagger/RT)$).



128
 129 **Figure S7.** Lowest transition state energy barriers for two alkenes: **7**, 3B2O, in the top panel and
 130 **16**, cHxAc, in the bottom panel. Both show the hydrogen most likely to be abstracted during
 131 oxidation; in both cases this is an allylic H.

132



133

134 **Figure S8.** Pseudo-first-order loss rate constant of cHxO (k^*_{cHxO}) as a function of the
 135 concentration of cHxO. Since these experiments were performed on different days, the values are
 136 normalized to the photon flux of the illumination system on the day of the experiment by
 137 dividing by $j_{2\text{NB}}$ (details in Kaur and Anastasio (2017)). The average ($\pm 1 \sigma$) value is 4.3 ± 0.5
 138 $\text{min}^{-1}/\text{s}^{-1}$, giving a relative standard deviation of 12 %.

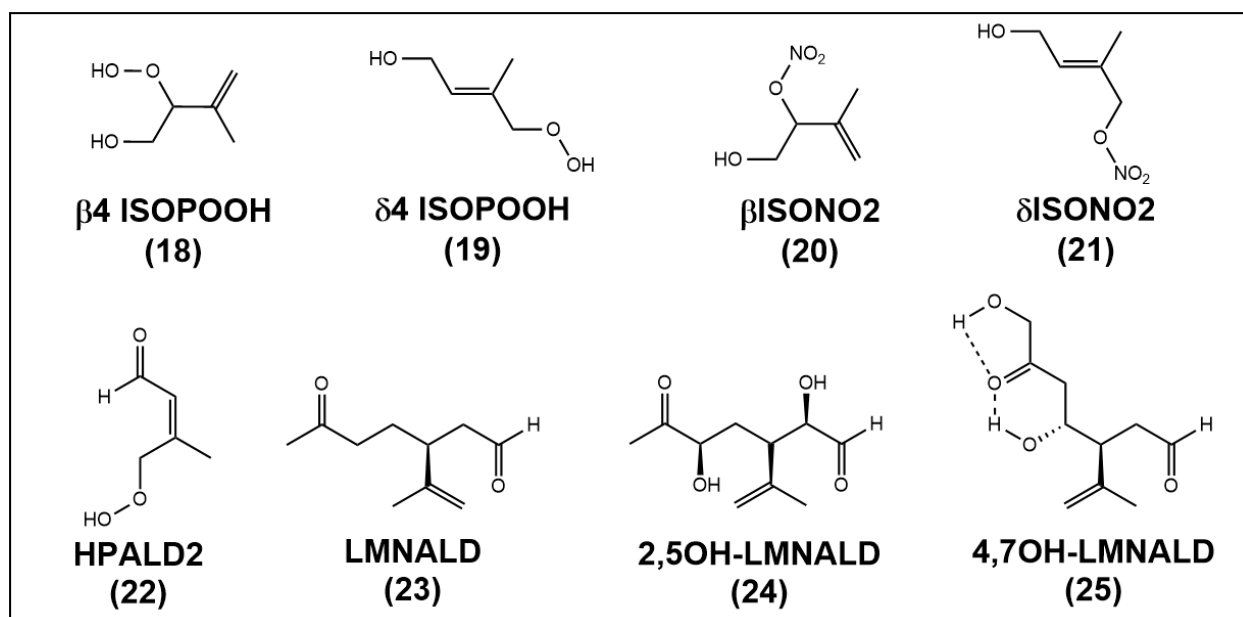


Figure S9. Lowest energy isomers of isoprene- and limonene-derived OVOCs, determined with gas-phase calculations using the CBS-QB3 compound method.

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