## **RSC Advances**



## **PAPER**

View Article Online
View Journal | View Issue



Cite this: RSC Adv., 2020, 10, 8518

# Unimolecular decomposition rates of a methylsubstituted Criegee intermediate syn-CH₃CHOO†

Criegee intermediates play important roles in atmospheric chemistry. Methyl Criegee intermediate, CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO, has two conformers, syn- and anti-conformers. Syn-CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO would undergo fast unimolecular decomposition to form OH radical via 1,4 H-atom transfer. In this work, unimolecular decomposition of syn-CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO was probed in real time with UV absorption spectroscopy at 278–318 K and 100–700 torr. We used water vapor as the scavenger of anti-CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO to distinguish the absorption signals of the two conformers. After removing the contributions from reactions with radical byproducts, reaction with water vapor and wall loss, we obtained the unimolecular reaction rate coefficient of syn-CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO (at 300 torr), which increases from  $(67 \pm 15)$  s<sup>-1</sup> at 278 K,  $(146 \pm 31)$  s<sup>-1</sup> at 298 K, to  $(288 \pm 81)$  s<sup>-1</sup> at 318 K with an Arrhenius activation energy of ca. 6.4 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup> and a weak pressure dependence for 100–700 torr. Compared to previous studies, this work provides temperature dependent unimolecular rates of syn-CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO at higher pressures, which are more relevant to atmospheric conditions.

Received 9th January 2020 Accepted 18th February 2020

DOI: 10.1039/d0ra01406k

rsc.li/rsc-advances

### Introduction

Criegee intermediates are very reactive carbonyl oxides formed in the reactions of ozone with alkenes (ozonolysis) and play important roles in atmospheric chemistry, including oxidation of water, SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>x</sub>, *etc.* In particular, the decomposition of Criegee intermediates can be a significant source of OH radicals in the troposphere, especially during nighttime and winter.<sup>1</sup>

After the breakthrough of the efficient preparation of Criegee intermediates in 2012,² the physical and chemical properties of simple Criegee intermediates have been widely investigated.³,⁴ Nowadays, it has been established that the reactivity of Criegee intermediates is highly structure-dependent.⁴-6 For example, CH₂OO and *anti*-CH₃CHOO react with water vapor very quickly but *syn*-CH₃CHOO and (CH₃)₂COO react with water vapor much slower. On the other hand, *syn*-CH₃CHOO and (CH₃)₂COO may undergo intramolecular H-atom transfer from the methyl group to the terminal oxygen atom, resulting in OH production.<sup>7,8</sup>

However, there have been large discrepancies in the unimolecular (also bimolecular and termolecular) reaction rates of Criegee intermediates. If we focus on the unimolecular rate coefficients of syn-CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO reported after 2012, the reported experimental value<sup>9-12</sup> at 298 K ranges from 3 to 300 s<sup>-1</sup> whilst the reported theoretical value<sup>13-15</sup> is from 24 to 330 s<sup>-1</sup>. Unimolecular rates may control the steady-state concentrations

Lester and coworkers excited *syn*-CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO, *syn*-C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>5</sub>CHOO and (CH<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>COO to a high vibrational energy *via* infrared laser and monitored the OH production by laser-induced fluorescence. The OH formation rates have been measured at specific vibrational energies. Master equation modeling based on these microcanonical rates and high-level quantum chemistry calculations has been used to estimate the thermal decay rate coefficients at 298 K to be 166/122 s<sup>-1</sup> for *syn*-CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO, <sup>14,16</sup> 279, and 276 s<sup>-1</sup> for *syn*-C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>5</sub>CHOO<sup>17</sup> and (CH<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>COO, <sup>14</sup> respectively. <sup>18</sup> The fast rates indicate thermal decomposition is the main sink for these Criegee intermediates in the atmosphere.

Zhou *et al.* have monitored the OH products of syn-CH<sub>3</sub>-CHOO in a flow cell. The thermal decomposition rate at 298 K (25 to 100 torr) is reported to be  $182 \pm 66 \, \text{s}^{-1}$ . Their results also support that the thermal decomposition is the main atmospheric process for syn-CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO.

In this work, we used water vapor to scavenge *anti*-CH<sub>3</sub>-CHOO<sup>20</sup> and directly monitored the kinetics of *syn*-CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO *via* its strong UV absorption in real time.<sup>21</sup> The unimolecular rates were determined at atmospherically relevant temperatures and pressures. The results are compared with previous experimental and theoretical works.

#### <sup>a</sup>Institute of Atomic and Molecular Sciences, Academia Sinica, Taipei 10617, Taiwan. E-mail: jimlin@gate.sinica.edu.tw

## Experimental method

Following previous studies, we used  $CH_3CHI_2$  (Aldrich,  $\geq$ 98%) as the precursor and generated  $CH_3CHI$  radicals by applying photolysis laser (Excimer laser, KrF 248 nm, Coherent

and thus the impact of such a Criegee intermediate in the atmosphere. It is important to have reliable experimental data at atmospherically relevant pressure and temperature.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>b</sup>Department of Chemistry, National Taiwan University, Taipei 10617, Taiwan

<sup>†</sup> Electronic supplementary information (ESI) available. See DOI: 10.1039/d0ra01406k

Paper

COMPexPro 205F). Under high [O<sub>2</sub>] (10 torr), the iodo-radicals would react with O<sub>2</sub> rapidly to form CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO.<sup>12</sup> The photolysis laser beam was coupled into the reactor by a long-pass filter (275 nm, Eksma Optics, customized). After passing through the reactor, the photolysis beam was reflected out by another longpass filter, and the laser pulse energy was monitored with an energy meter (Gentec QE25SP-H-MB-D0). Continuous UV probe beam originated from a broadband Xe lamp (Energetiq, EQ-99) went through the reactor six times. The probe beam overlapped collinearly with the photolysis beam, resulting in an effective

absorption path length of ca. 426 cm.

The probe wavelength was selected by a band-pass filter (340 nm, 10 nm bandwidth, OD4, Edmund #65129). The time-dependent absorption change was detected with a balanced photodiode detector (Thorlab PDB450A) and recorded in real time with a high-definition oscilloscope (LeCroy HDO4034, 4096 vertical resolution). All time traces were averaged for *ca.* 120 laser shots to increase S/N ratio. We found a small absorption change even without adding the precursor, which was caused by the photolysis laser and the long-pass filters. This background could be subtracted by recording background traces before and after each experimental set. All reported time traces have undergone background subtraction.

CH<sub>3</sub>CHI<sub>2</sub> vapor was carried by a stream of N<sub>2</sub>. All the gas flows were controlled by mass-flow controllers (Brooks, 5850E or 5800E). A small portion of CH<sub>3</sub>CHI<sub>2</sub> vapor was introduced into a residual gas analyzer (SRS RGA200) to monitor the impurity. Most of CH<sub>3</sub>CHI<sub>2</sub> vapor would mix with O<sub>2</sub> and then flowed into an absorption cell (90 cm in length) to measure the UV absorption spectrum with a deuterium lamp (Hamamatsu L10904) and a mini spectrometer (Ocean Optics USB-2000). The water vapor concentration was controlled by varying the ratio of dry and moisturized N<sub>2</sub> gases and monitored with a humidity sensor (Rotronic HC2-S, 0.8% RH accuracy at room temperature). The water vapor was pre-cooled or pre-heated by flowing through a copper tube (1/4" OD, ca. 75 cm long) which was immersed in a circulating water bath. Two streams of the gas mixtures (water vapor/N2 and precursor/O2) were mixed together right before entering the reactor. The laser repetition rate was set to ca. 1 Hz to fully refresh the gas between consecutive laser shots.

The temperature of the water-jacketed reactor was controlled  $(\pm 0.5 \text{ K})$  by using a circulating water bath (Yih Der BL-730), and detected by three resistance temperature detectors (RTD, Newport Omega F2020-1000-A). The pressures at the water reservoir, absorption cell and reactor were measured by diaphragm gauges (1000 torr, INFICON,  $\pm 0.2\%$  of reading).

### Results

We synthesized CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO (a mixture of *anti* and *syn* conformers) *via* a well-known method.<sup>7,12</sup>

$$CH_3CHI_2 + h\nu \rightarrow CH_3CHI + I$$
 (R1)

$$CH_3CHI + O_2 \rightarrow CH_3CHOO + I$$
 (R2)

$$CH_3CHI + O_2 + M \rightarrow CH_3CHIOO (adduct) + M$$
 (R3)

Similar to the case of preparing CH<sub>2</sub>OO, adduct formation (R3) is also expected and would reduce the yield of CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO at high pressures.<sup>22,23</sup>

#### Removing the contribution of anti-CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO

Fig. 1 shows typical time traces of  $CH_3CHOO$  absorption signals recorded at 340 nm under various  $[H_2O]$ . We can see that the fast component decays faster at higher  $[H_2O]$ , while the effect of  $[H_2O]$  on the slow component is rather weak. Because *anti-*CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO reacts with water vapor much faster than *syn-*CH<sub>3</sub>-CHOO does,<sup>20</sup> we may separate their signals by fitting the time traces with two exponential functions (eqn (1)).

$$\Delta Abs(t) = L\sigma_{anti}[anti-CH3CHOO] + L\sigma_{syn}[syn-CH3CHOO] + L\sigma_{prec}\Delta[CH3CHI2] = A_{anti} \exp(-t/\tau_{anti}) + A_{syn} \exp(-t/\tau_{syn}) + C_0$$
 (1)

where L is the absorption path length;  $\sigma_{anti}$ ,  $\sigma_{syn}$  and  $\sigma_{prec}$  are the absorption cross sections of anti-CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO, syn-CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO, and the CH<sub>3</sub>CHI<sub>2</sub> precursor, respectively;  $A_{anti}$  and  $A_{syn}$  are the signal amplitudes for anti-CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO and syn-CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO, respectively;  $\tau_{anti}$  and  $\tau_{syn}$  are the corresponding lifetimes;  $C_0$  accounts for the depletion of the precursor which has a weak absorption at 340 nm  $(1.07 \times 10^{-18} \text{ cm}^2)$ .  $^{24}$  In further analysis, we have  $k_{\text{obs}} = \tau_{syn}^{-1}$  and [syn-CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO] $_0 = A_{syn}/(L\sigma_{syn})$ .

The fast kinetics of *anti*-CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO reaction with water vapor has been investigated in depth by a few groups.  $^{12,20,25}$  Therefore we do not repeat it here. Water vapor efficiently scavenges *anti*-CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO; Fig. 1 shows that at [H<sub>2</sub>O] > 1.9 ×  $10^{17}$  cm<sup>-3</sup>, only *syn*-CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO signal remains for t > 1 ms. The reaction of *syn*-CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO with H<sub>2</sub>O has been reported to be much slower than

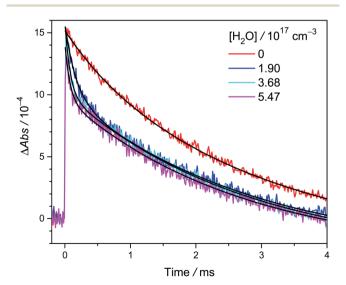


Fig. 1 Typical time traces of CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO absorption probed at 340  $\pm$  5 nm under various [H<sub>2</sub>O] (308 K and 305 torr, Exp. W2-3: [CH<sub>3</sub>CHI<sub>2</sub>] =  $1.4\times10^{14}$  cm $^{-3}$ , laser fluence = 1.7 mJ cm $^{-2}$ , see Table S1† for details). The photolysis laser pulse sets the time zero. The black lines are two-exponential fit to the data (see text). The fast decay signal is assigned to anti-CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO, the slow one to syn-CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO.

**RSC Advances** 

that of anti-CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO. 12,13,20,25 More kinetic investigation on the reaction of syn-CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO with H<sub>2</sub>O will be discussed later in this paper.

### Effect of bimolecular reactions of syn-CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO with radical **byproducts**

Fig. 2 shows the time traces of CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO absorption signals recorded under various precursor concentrations [CH3CHI2]0 and a fixed photolysis laser fluence. In this experiment, we added water ( $[H_2O] = 1.9 \times 10^{17} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ ) to scavenge anti-CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO and the absorption signal of the remaining syn-CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO predominates in the time traces for t > 1 ms. We can see that the lifetime of syn-CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO becomes shorter at higher [CH<sub>3</sub>CHI<sub>2</sub>]<sub>0</sub>. This is mainly due to the reactions of syn-CH3CHOO with radical byproducts like iodine atoms, similar to previous results for CH<sub>2</sub>OO,<sup>23</sup> syn-CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO<sup>19,26</sup> and (CH<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>COO.<sup>27</sup> The inset of Fig. 2 shows the observed decay rate coefficient  $k_{\rm obs}$  of syn-CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO plotted against its fitted peak height [syn-CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO]<sub>0</sub>, which was estimated by using the Beer-Lambert law with a reported cross section  $\sigma_{syn} = 1.19 \times 10^{-17} \text{ cm}^2$  at 340 nm (ref. 21) (which is consistent with the results by Sheps et al.25) and effective length L = 426 cm.

Under our experimental conditions, the concentrations of the radical byproducts (I, CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO, CH<sub>3</sub>CHIOO, etc.) are proportional to [syn-CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO]<sub>0</sub>. The related chemical reactions include (R1)-(3). Thus, we can use [X], [X]  $\propto$  [syn-

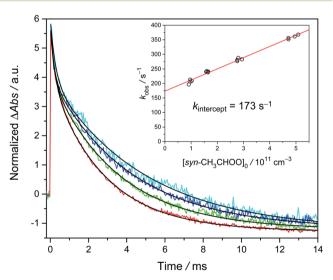


Fig. 2 Typical time traces of CH $_3$ CHOO probed at 340  $\pm$  5 nm at  $[H_2O]=1.9\times 10^{17}~\text{cm}^{-3}$ ; different colors denote various precursor concentrations [CH<sub>3</sub>CHl<sub>2</sub>]<sub>0</sub> (4.8  $\times$  10<sup>13</sup> cm<sup>-3</sup> (cyan), 7.7  $\times$  10<sup>13</sup> cm<sup>-3</sup> (blue), 1.3  $\times$  10<sup>14</sup> cm<sup>-3</sup> (green), and 2.5  $\times$  10<sup>14</sup> cm<sup>-3</sup> (red)). These traces were acquired at 299 K and 301 torr with a laser fluence of 1.7 mJ cm<sup>-2</sup> (Exp. 2-1, see Table S2†). For each trace, the black line is the two-exponential fit (eqn (1)) to the signal of CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO. The fast decay signal is assigned to anti-CH3CHOO; the slow one is assigned to syn-CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO. The slightly negative baseline is due to the depletion of the precursor CH<sub>3</sub>CHI<sub>2</sub>, which is a constant in the detection time window and does not affect the kinetics. We scaled the peak absorbance of syn-CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO to the same value for easier visualization. Inset: the plot of  $k_{\text{obs}}$  versus [syn-CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO]<sub>0</sub>. The red line is the linear fit.

CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO]<sub>0</sub>, to represent the effective concentration of the total radical species. We used the following kinetic model to analyze the experimental data.

$$k_{\text{obs}} = k_{\text{uni}} + k_{\text{X}}[X] + k_{\text{w}}[H_2O] + k_{\text{wall}}$$
 (2)

where  $k_{\rm uni}$  is the unimolecular decomposition rate coefficient; kx is the effective rate coefficient for the reaction of syn-CH3-CHOO with total radicals X;  $k_w$  and  $k_{wall}$  represent the rate coefficients for the reaction of syn-CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO with H<sub>2</sub>O and the wall loss, respectively. The linear behavior of  $k_{obs}$  against [syn- $CH_3CHOO]_0$  is consistent with the above model.

Similar experiments have also been performed at temperatures from 278 K to 318 K. The results are shown in Fig. 3. Again, the positive slope indicates the observed decay rate coefficient becomes larger at higher radical concentrations. Remarkably, the intercept rate is substantially larger at higher temperature, suggesting that the unimolecular rate is faster at higher temperature.

#### Effect of water vapor

We observed that the decay rate of syn-CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO becomes slightly faster at higher [H2O], especially at higher temperatures (see Fig. 4). However, the slopes are not very significant, especially considering the large scatters of the data. The obtained slopes  $(k_w)$  at 298 K and 300 torr are on the order of 1  $\times$  $10^{-16} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$  (Exp. W3-1 and W4-1, see Table S1†), much larger than the theoretical results ranging from  $1.9 \times 10^{-19}$  to  $2.4 \times 10^{-18} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$ . The source of this discrepancy is not fully clear. It is likely that minor impurity in the water vapor had some effect (different sets of gas tubing were used in Experiments W3 and W4†). It is difficult to determine the small rate coefficient of syn-CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO reaction with water; as evidenced by previous investigations by Sheps et al.25 and Taatjes et al. 12 which only reported upper limits of  $2 \times 10^{-16}$ 

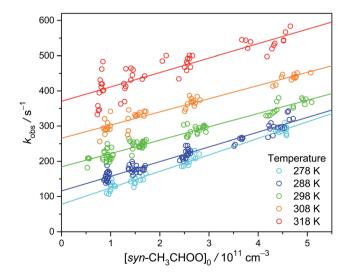


Fig. 3 Plot of  $k_{obs}$  as a function of  $[syn-CH_3CHOO]_0$  at different temperatures. The experiments were conducted at 300 torr and detailed experimental conditions are shown in Table S2.†

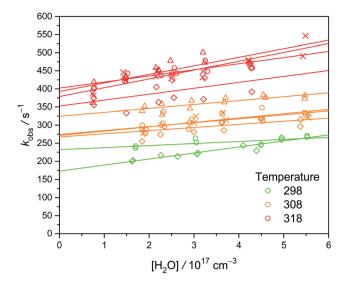


Fig. 4 Plot of  $k_{\rm obs}$  as a function of [H<sub>2</sub>O] at three temperatures (color-coded) under 300 torr. Different symbols represent different sets of experiments at various [CH<sub>3</sub>CHl<sub>2</sub>]<sub>0</sub>, while each set of experiment was conducted at a constant laser power (see Table S1†). The lines are linear fit to the data. Larger values of the intercept rates are due to higher temperature or higher [CH<sub>3</sub>CHl<sub>2</sub>]<sub>0</sub>.

and  $4 \times 10^{-15}$  cm<sup>3</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>, respectively, for the rate coefficient. A similar difficulty has also been reported for the case of  $({\rm CH_3})_2{\rm COO}$  reaction with water  $(k_{\rm w} < 1.5 \times 10^{-16} {\rm ~cm^3 ~s^{-1}})^{.29}$  Fig. S3† shows the Arrhenius plot of  $k_{\rm w}$ . Because we cannot measure  $k_{\rm w}$  at temperatures lower than 298 K, the values of  $k_{\rm w}$  from the Arrhenius fit are used. Considering the difficulties in the experiments, here we report a conservative upper limit of 1  $\times$  10<sup>-16</sup> cm<sup>3</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> for  $k_{\rm w}$  at 298 K.

#### Effect of wall loss

To estimate the wall loss in our system, we measured the decay rates of CH<sub>2</sub>OO under similar experimental conditions. The thermal decomposition of CH2OO has been calculated to be quite slow.6 In addition, Berndt et al. have performed timeresolved experiments of C2H4 ozonolysis, which yielded a rate coefficient of (0.19  $\pm$  0.07) s<sup>-1</sup> for the unimolecular reaction of CH<sub>2</sub>OO at 298 K and 1 bar.<sup>30</sup> Furthermore, Stone et al. directly measured the unimolecular reaction of CH2OO at higher temperatures (450-650 K) and obtained a rate coefficient of  $(1.1^{+1.5}_{-1.1} \times 10^{-3})$  s<sup>-1</sup> at 298 K and 760 torr using a masterequation method.<sup>31</sup> Thus, the observed CH<sub>2</sub>OO decay ( $k_{obs}$ , see Fig. 5) in our system should mainly come from the wall loss (intercept) and bimolecular reactions (slope). As shown in Fig. S6,† the results at different temperatures and pressures are quite similar, with an average value of about 9 s<sup>-1</sup> for  $k_{\text{wall}}$ . At our pressure range, diffusion is too slow to explain the observed wall loss rate; gas turbulence, which is expected to be more severe at higher pressures, should be the main cause of the observed wall loss (see ESI† for details). As gas turbulence would not be affected by the highly diluted precursor molecules and Criegee intermediates, we assume the wall loss rate of syn-CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO is the same as that of CH<sub>2</sub>OO.

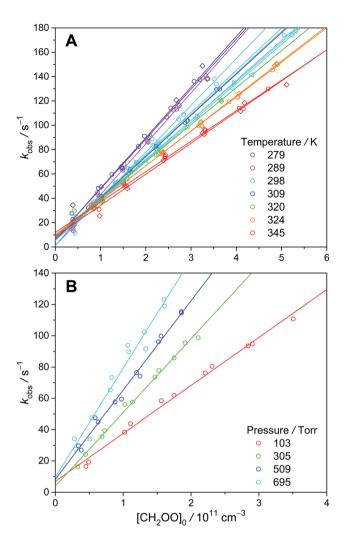


Fig. 5  $k_{\rm obs}$  as a function of [CH<sub>2</sub>OO] $_{\rm 0}$  at various temperatures (A) and pressures (B) (color-coded). Different symbols represent different experimental sets.

#### $k_{\rm uni}$ and its temperature dependence

Here we give one example of determining the unimolecular rate at 298 K.

$$k_{\text{uni}} = k_{\text{obs}} - k_{\text{X}}[X] - k_{\text{w}}[H_2O] - k_{\text{wall}}$$
  
=  $k_{\text{intercept}} - k_{\text{w}}[H_2O] - k_{\text{wall}}$  (2')

In Fig. 2 inset, we can see that the  $k_{\rm X}[{\rm X}]$  term has a significant contribution to  $k_{\rm obs}$ . This contribution can be removed by extrapolating  $k_{\rm obs}$  to zero radical concentration (*i.e.*, using  $k_{\rm intercept}$ ). For Exp. 2-1 (299 K, 301 torr, see Table S2†),  $k_{\rm intercept} = 173~{\rm s}^{-1}$ ,  $k_{\rm w}[{\rm H_2O}] = 17~{\rm s}^{-1}$ ,  $k_{\rm wall} = 9~{\rm s}^{-1}$  and we have  $k_{\rm uni} = 173~-17~-9 = 147~{\rm s}^{-1}$ . See ESI† for details.

Fig. 6 shows the Arrhenius plot of  $k_{\rm uni}$  measured at 300 torr, as well as a few theoretical results. Our data are consistent with the theoretical results, especially those by Fang *et al.*<sup>14</sup> and Yin *et al.*<sup>15</sup> However, the theoretical slopes (activation energy) are all a bit higher than the experimental value. The reason for this difference is unclear. As mentioned above, the water reaction

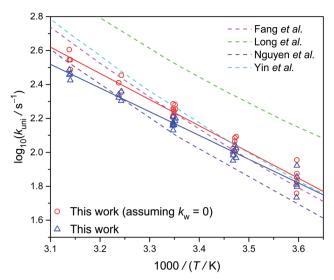


Fig. 6 Arrhenius plot of the thermal decomposition rate coefficient of syn-CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO at 300 torr (Table S2†). The dashed lines are theoretical data reported by various groups at the high pressure limit.<sup>13–15,32</sup> The experimental data shown as triangles and circles represent the data with and without subtracting the water contribution, respectively.

rates  $k_w[H_2O]$  are difficult to quantify. If we assume  $k_w = 0$ , the resulted activation energy would be a bit closer to the theoretical values (see Table 1).

#### Pressure dependence of $k_{\rm uni}$

Fig. 7 shows the pressure dependence of  $k_{\rm uni}$  at 298 K. Because we used water to scavenge anti-CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO, we cannot measure  $k_{\rm uni}$  at pressure lower than 100 torr. Our data from 100 to 700 torr suggest slightly higher unimolecular rate at higher pressure, albeit some scattering of the data points. The low-pressure results of Zhou et~al. are also plotted in Fig. 7. As will be discussed below, Zhou et~al. may have underestimated their diffusion loss and thus overestimated their  $k_{\rm uni}$  values, especially for data at lower pressures. Overall, the observed pressure dependences are roughly consistent with the theoretical trend.

Table 1 Thermal decomposition rate coefficient and Arrhenius activation energy of  $syn\text{-}CH_3CHOO$ 

	$k_{ m uni}/{ m s}^{-1}$	E <sub>a</sub> /kcal mol <sup>−1</sup>
This work	$146\pm31^a$	$6.4\pm0.2^b$
This work (assuming $k_{\rm w} = 0$ )	$173 \pm 31^{a}$	$7.1 \pm 0.3^{b}$
Fang et al. 14	166 <sup>c</sup>	$8.5\pm0.1^b$
Long et al. 13	$328^c$	$7.7 \pm 0.2^{b}$
Nguyen et al. <sup>32</sup>	$124^c$	$8.2\pm0.4^b$
Yin et al. <sup>15</sup>	$182^{c}$	$8.6\pm0.2^b$

 $<sup>^</sup>a$  At 298 K and 300 torr. The error bar is one standard deviation (see ESI).  $^b$  The activation energy (including theoretical ones) is obtained from the slope of the linear fitting of  $\log(k)$  against 1/T within 278–318 K; the error bar is one standard deviation of the fitting.  $^c$  Theoretical result at 298 K at the high pressure limit.

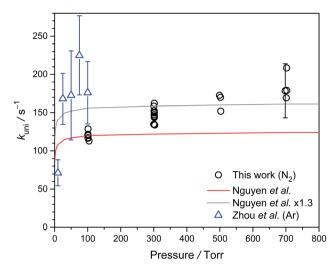


Fig. 7 Plot of  $k_{\rm uni}$  of syn-CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO against pressure from 100 to 700 torr at 298 K (Table S3†). The experimental data reported by Zhou et~al. are shown as blue triangles, <sup>19</sup> and the theoretical data reported by Nguyen et~al. is shown as a red line. <sup>32</sup> In order to compare with the experimental data, we also scaled the data of Nguyen et~al. by a factor of 1.3 (gray line).

### Discussion

#### Effect of second-order reactions

In previous works on the thermal decomposition reactions of  $(CH_3)_2COO$  by Smith  $et~al.^{27}$  and of  $syn\text{-}CH_3CHOO$  by Zhou  $et~al.,^{19}$  the authors have considered the contributions of second-order reactions (including the reaction with iodine atoms and self-reaction of Criegee intermediates<sup>26</sup>). Following the notation of Smith et~al., the corresponding kinetic equation can be expressed as below.<sup>27</sup>

$$-\frac{d[CI]}{dt} = k_1[CI] + k_2[CI]^2$$
 (3)

where [CI] stands for the concentration of the Criegee intermediate of interest. However, Smith *et al.* have also demonstrated that after extrapolation to zero concentration, a simplified model of pseudo-first-order reaction would give essentially the same results for the intercept rates.<sup>27</sup> That is, we may use eqn (4), if  $[CI]_0$  is low.

$$-\frac{\mathrm{d}[\mathrm{CI}]}{\mathrm{d}t} \cong \left(k_1 + \frac{1}{2}k_2[\mathrm{CI}]_0\right)[\mathrm{CI}] = k_{\mathrm{obs}}[\mathrm{CI}] \tag{4}$$

As mentioned by Smith *et al.*, the difference between the two models only shows up at high concentration data.<sup>27</sup> As shown in Fig. S5,† the simulated time traces of the solutions of eqn (3) and (4) are quite similar for  $[CI]_0 = 3 \times 10^{11} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ ,  $k_1 = 150 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ,  $k_2 = 1.6 \times 10^{-10} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$ . Therefore, we chose to use eqn (4) for more efficient data analysis.

#### Tunneling and potential energy surface

Lester, Klippenstein and coworkers have shown that H-atom tunneling is the main mechanism of the unimolecular decay

Table 2 Comparison of the effective first-order rate coefficients for syn-CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO at 298 K

Process	Assumed coreactant concentration/cm <sup>-3</sup>	Bimolecular rate coefficient/cm $^3$ s $^{-1}$	Effective first-order rate coefficient/s <sup>-1</sup>
Thermal decomposition			$146\pm31^a$
syn-CH <sub>3</sub> CHOO + H <sub>2</sub> O	$3.8 \times 10^{17} (50\% \text{ RH})$	$<1 \times 10^{-16,b}$	<38
syn-CH <sub>3</sub> CHOO + SO <sub>2</sub>	$9 \times 10^{11} (35 \text{ ppbv})$	$(2.4 – 2.9) \times 10^{-11,c}$	22-26

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> This work. Note that the value of  $k_{\rm uni}$  is quite sensitive to temperature. <sup>b</sup> Upper limit, this work. <sup>c</sup> The values are reported by Taatjes *et al.*<sup>12</sup> and Sheps *et al.*<sup>25</sup>

of *syn*-CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO.<sup>14,16,33</sup> Green *et al.* of the same group further investigated the tunneling dynamics by using *syn*-CD<sub>3</sub>CHOO sample.<sup>34</sup> Their theoretical calculation describes the energy-specific unimolecular rates quite well. Based on these successes, they can further estimate the unimolecular rates under thermalized conditions. The result is plotted in Fig. 6 (Fang *et al.*), which agrees with our experimental data. The subtle difference in the slopes of the Arrhenius plots may be due to minor differences in (i) potential energy surface, (ii) tunneling model, and (iii) experimental uncertainties.

#### Compare to the recent results of Zhou et al.

Recently Zhou *et al.* measured the unimolecular rates of *syn*-CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO by probing the OH products with laser-induced fluorescence.<sup>19</sup> Because the barrier of OH production of *anti*-CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO is much higher than that for *syn*-CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO, <sup>13,15</sup> Zhou *et al.* do not need to scavenge *anti*-CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO.

Their measurements were under 10 to 100 torr, <sup>19</sup> limited by the lower sensitivity of the OH laser-induced fluorescence at higher pressure. Our work provides data at higher pressures up to 700 torr, much more relevant to the atmospheric conditions. In addition, perhaps due to sensitivity issue, Zhou *et al.* used higher concentrations of the Criegee intermediate in their experiments (judged by the faster observed decay rates), resulting in larger error bars for the unimolecular rates. Furthermore Zhou *et al.* did not investigate the temperature dependence. <sup>19</sup>

Diffusion would have a more significant effect at low pressures as the diffusion coefficient is inversely proportional to the pressure. However, Zhou *et al.* only argued that their experiments should be in the laminar flow condition (*i.e.*, no turbulence), without estimating the effect of diffusion.<sup>19</sup> A simple but useful estimation of the diffusion effect can be found in textbooks<sup>35</sup> as

$$z_{\rm rms} = (2Dt)^{0.5}$$

where  $z_{\rm rms}$  is the root-mean-square value of the one-dimensional displacement of the molecule; D is the diffusion coefficient and t is the elapsed time. For  ${\rm CO_2-O_2}$  diffusion,  $D=0.14~{\rm cm^2~s^{-1}}$  at 760 torr,  $^{35}$  10.6 cm $^2$  s $^{-1}$  at 10 torr (12.7 cm $^2$  s $^{-1}$  for a more realistic estimation for their Criegee experiment at 10 torr,  $^{19}$  see ESI†). If t=10 ms, we would have  $z_{\rm rms}=0.46$  cm, which is already larger than the pump beam radius (0.3 cm) and the probe beam radius (0.1 cm) in the experiments of Zhou  $et~al.^{19}$  This rough estimation indicates that at a low pressure of

ca. 10 torr, the diffusion length of the molecule is quite significant even for a short period of 10 ms.

Fig. S8† shows more-realistic simulation results for cases similar to the experimental conditions of Zhou *et al.* (with orthogonal pump and probe laser beams). <sup>19</sup> Again, the diffusion loss has a significant effect of about 50 s<sup>-1</sup> (10 torr) to  $\approx$ < 10 s<sup>-1</sup> (100 torr) (see ESI†), indicating that the low-pressure results by Zhou *et al.* should be corrected by considering the diffusion loss.

#### Fate of syn-CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO in troposphere

Previous investigations6 have pointed out that unimolecular decay is one of the main processes of Criegee intermediates in the atmosphere. For syn conformers, the unimolecular decay would be the predominant process. 4 For syn-CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO, we list the effective pseudo-first-order rates of some important processes in Table 2. It is clear that the unimolecular decomposition is the predominate decay pathway of syn-CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO in the troposphere. This fast unimolecular decay would control the steady-state concentration of syn-CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO. As a result, the probability for syn-CH<sub>3</sub>CHOO to oxidize SO<sub>2</sub> would be low due to its low concentration. For other Criegee intermediates of similar structures (alkyl substitution at the syn position), the situation is expected to be similar. As mentioned above, the thermal decomposition rate is quite sensitive to temperature. This work gives temperature dependent value of kuni, which allows modelers to better estimate the unimolecular decay rates of syn-CH3CHOO at atmospherically relevant temperatures.

#### Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts to declare.

## Acknowledgements

This work is supported by Academia Sinica and Ministry of Science and Technology, Taiwan (MOST 106-2113-M-001-026-MY3). We thank Ms Yen-Hsiu Lin for help in the measurements of the wall loss rates.

#### References

1 M. A. H. Khan, C. J. Percival, R. L. Caravan, C. A. Taatjes and D. E. Shalleross, *Environ. Sci.: Processes Impacts*, 2018, **20**, 437–453.

- 2 O. Welz, J. D. Savee, D. L. Osborn, S. S. Vasu, C. J. Percival, D. E. Shallcross and C. A. Taatjes, *Science*, 2012, 335, 204– 207.
- 3 C. A. Taatjes, Annu. Rev. Phys. Chem., 2017, 68, 183-207.
- 4 J. J. M. Lin and W. Chao, *Chem. Soc. Rev.*, 2017, **46**, 7483–7497.
- 5 L. Vereecken, D. R. Glowacki and M. J. Pilling, *Chem. Rev.*, 2015, 115, 4063–4114.
- 6 L. Vereecken, A. Novelli and D. Taraborrelli, *Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys.*, 2017, **19**, 31599–31612.
- 7 F. Liu, J. M. Beames, A. S. Petit, A. B. McCoy and M. I. Lester, Science, 2014, 345, 1596–1598.
- 8 F. Liu, J. M. Beames and M. I. Lester, *J. Chem. Phys.*, 2014, 141, 234312.
- 9 T. Berndt, T. Jokinen, R. L. Mauldin, T. Petäjä, H. Herrmann, H. Junninen, P. Paasonen, D. R. Worsnop and M. Sipilä, *J. Phys. Chem. Lett.*, 2012, 3, 2892–2896.
- 10 A. Novelli, L. Vereecken, J. Lelieveld and H. Harder, *Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys.*, 2014, **16**, 19941–19951.
- 11 M. J. Newland, A. R. Rickard, L. Vereecken, A. Muñoz, M. Ródenas and W. J. Bloss, *Atmos. Chem. Phys.*, 2015, 15, 9521–9536.
- 12 C. A. Taatjes, O. Welz, A. J. Eskola, J. D. Savee, A. M. Scheer, D. E. Shallcross, B. Rotavera, E. P. F. Lee, J. M. Dyke, D. K. W. Mok, D. L. Osborn and C. J. Percival, *Science*, 2013, 340, 177–180.
- 13 B. Long, J. L. Bao and D. G. Truhlar, J. Am. Chem. Soc., 2016, 138, 14409–14422.
- 14 Y. Fang, F. Liu, V. P. Barber, S. J. Klippenstein, A. B. McCoy and M. I. Lester, *J. Chem. Phys.*, 2016, **144**, 061102.
- 15 C. Yin and K. Takahashi, Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys., 2017, 19, 12075–12084.
- 16 Y. Fang, F. Liu, V. P. Barber, S. J. Klippenstein, A. B. McCoy and M. I. Lester, *J. Chem. Phys.*, 2016, 145, 234308.
- 17 Y. Fang, F. Liu, S. J. Klippenstein and M. I. Lester, *J. Chem. Phys.*, 2016, **145**, 044312.
- 18 T. A. Stephenson and M. I. Lester, *Int. Rev. Phys. Chem.*, 2020, **39**, 1–33.
- 19 X. H. Zhou, Y. Q. Liu, W. R. Dong and X. M. Yang, *J. Phys. Chem. Lett.*, 2019, **10**, 4817–4821.

- 20 L. C. Lin, W. Chao, C. H. Chang, K. Takahashi and J. J. M. Lin, *Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys.*, 2016, **18**, 28189–28197.
- 21 M. C. Smith, W. L. Ting, C. H. Chang, K. Takahashi, K. A. Boering and J. J. M. Lin, *J. Chem. Phys.*, 2014, 141, 074302.
- 22 Y.-H. Huang, L.-W. Chen and Y.-P. Lee, *J. Phys. Chem. Lett.*, 2015, **6**, 4610–4615.
- 23 W. L. Ting, C. H. Chang, Y. F. Lee, H. Matsui, Y. P. Lee and J. J. M. Lin, *J. Chem. Phys.*, 2014, 141, 104308.
- 24 S. P. Sander, J. R. Barker, D. M. Golden, M. J. Kurylo, P. H. Wine, J. P. D. Abbatt, J. B. Burkholder, C. E. Kolb, G. K. Moortgat, R. E. Huie and V. L. Orkin, *Chemical Kinetics and Photochemical Data for Use in Atmospheric Studies Evaluation Number 17*, JPL Publication, 2011, pp. 10–6.
- 25 L. Sheps, A. M. Scully and K. Au, *Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys.*, 2014, **16**, 26701–26706.
- 26 P.-L. Luo, Y. Endo and Y.-P. Lee, *J. Phys. Chem. Lett.*, 2018, **9**, 4391–4395.
- 27 M. C. Smith, W. Chao, K. Takahashi, K. A. Boering and J. J. M. Lin, *J. Phys. Chem. A*, 2016, **120**, 4789–4798.
- 28 J. Anglada, J. Gonzalez and M. Torrent-Sucarrat, *Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys.*, 2011, **13**, 13034–13045.
- 29 H.-L. Huang, W. Chao and J. J.-M. Lin, *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.*, 2015, **112**, 10857–10862.
- 30 T. Berndt, R. Kaethner, J. Voigtländer, F. Stratmann, M. Pfeifle, P. Reichle, M. Sipilä, M. Kulmala and M. Olzmann, *Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys.*, 2015, 17, 19862– 19873.
- 31 D. Stone, K. Au, S. Sime, D. J. Medeiros, M. Blitz, P. W. Seakins, Z. Decker and L. Sheps, *Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys.*, 2018, 20, 24940–24954.
- 32 T. L. Nguyen, L. McCaslin, M. C. McCarthy and J. F. Stanton, *J. Chem. Phys.*, 2016, **145**, 131102.
- 33 V. P. Barber, S. Pandit, V. J. Esposito, A. B. McCoy and M. I. Lester, J. Phys. Chem. A, 2019, 123, 2559–2569.
- 34 A. M. Green, V. P. Barber, Y. Fang, S. J. Klippenstein and M. I. Lester, *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.*, 2017, **114**, 12372– 12377.
- 35 P. L. Houston, *Chemical Kinetics and Reaction Dynamics*, Dover Publications, Mineola, New York, 2006.