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Surfaces, Silica and Semivolatile Organics — Limonene Uptake and Desorption Indoors and Outdoors

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Environmental Significance

The partitioning of semivolatile organic compounds between the gas and condensed phases determines their distribution and chemistry in the environment. Thus, accurate descriptions of the interaction between environmentally-relevant organic gases and surfaces is crucial to modeling atmospheric chemistry both indoors and outdoors. In this study, we measure the uptake and desorption of limonene—a highly reactive compound emitted from both biogenic and anthropogenic sources—from silica surfaces which are ubiquitous in both the natural and built environment. These results show the importance of the properties of both the surface and the gas in partitioning of semivolatile species and provide key parameters for estimating the distribution of limonene across the broad range of temperatures encountered in the atmosphere.

Abstract

Adsorption of organics on surfaces is important in both outdoor and indoor environments. Surfaces can serve as sinks for gas-phase species, act as reservoirs by emitting previously partitioned organics back into the gas phase, and can facilitate heterogeneous chemistry. We report here studies of the uptake and desorption energetics of gas-phase limonene, a volatile and widely-distributed monoterpene, on solid silica nanoparticles using a unique apparatus that allows for temperature programmed desorption (TPD) measurements of surface binding energies as well as Knudsen cell gas uptake measurements. A multiphase kinetic model was applied to these data to provide additional molecular-level understanding of the processes involved. TPD experiments yielded an average desorption energy of $47.5 \pm 8.2 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ ($\pm 1\text{s}$, sample standard deviation), the first direct experimental measurement of this parameter over a broad temperature range (150–320 K). Initial net uptake coefficients ($\gamma_{0,\text{net}}$) range from $(1.7 \pm 0.3) \times 10^{-3}$ ($\pm 1\text{s}$) at 210 K to $(2.3 \pm 0.4) \times 10^{-4}$ ($\pm 1\text{s}$) at 250 K, reflecting increased rates of desorption with an increase in temperature combined with increased rates of diffusion and re-adsorption within the pores between adjacent silica nanoparticles. Effective Langmuir constants, which also reflect the effects of pore diffusion and re-adsorption, were determined from the uptake data and vary from $(1.8\text{--}0.3) \times 10^{-13} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecule}^{-1}$ over the same temperature range. These results are in excellent agreement with previous studies around room temperature and with theoretical calculations of the energetics of the limonene-silica interaction. The strong attraction between limonene and the polar silica surface shows the importance of including such interactions in models of the atmospheric fates of terpenes both indoors and outdoors.

Introduction:

Gas-surface interactions play a central role in many systems, especially those of atmospheric relevance.¹⁻⁴ For example, atmospheric gases interact with surfaces both indoors and outdoors,⁵⁻⁷ resulting in uptake to form adsorbed films⁸⁻¹¹ or chemical reactions that change the composition of the gas and condensed phases in ways that may be deleterious to human health.¹² This can be particularly important in indoor enclosed environments, where humans spend >93% of their time,¹³ because surface-to-volume ratios are large and concentrations of trace gases produced by indoor activities (eg human respiration, combustion, cooking) may be relatively high due to poor ventilation in these spaces.¹⁴

In the atmosphere, the interaction of gases with airborne particles leads to gas incorporation into the particle and subsequent particle growth. When Particles grow to ~100 nm in diameter they can efficiently scatter light¹⁵⁻¹⁷ and serve as cloud condensation nuclei, two processes that impact climate.¹⁸⁻²² This is also the size range that reaches the alveolar region of the lung and may cause deleterious health effects.²³⁻³² For example, airborne particles have well-known negative health impacts on the lung, heart and reproductive systems as well as on neurodegenerative diseases.³³⁻³⁶ As a result, understanding the processes that grow particles in air or form surface films at a molecular level is critical for ultimately predicting their impacts on climate and health. Gas-surface interactions play fundamental roles in such processes.

Uptake of organics on particle surfaces involves a number of individual steps,³⁷⁻³⁹ which together control the net uptake of the organic on the surface under consideration. An illustration of these steps is shown in Figure 1. For those gas-surface collisions that do not result in elastic scattering,

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2
3 the first step is adsorption of the gas onto the particle surface. This is followed by desorption
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5 back into the gas phase, or re-distribution within the condensed phase. The relative importance of
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7 these processes determines their contribution to particle growth. For example, for highly viscous
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9 particles or surface films, diffusion into the bulk is much slower than for liquid particles,⁴⁰ and as
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11 a result, rates of growth are determined by the relative rates of the uptake and desorption
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13 processes. Smaller rates of desorption and hence longer residence times of the adsorbed species
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15 on the surface will favor growth, either *via* diffusion into the bulk or via a burying mechanism.^{41,}
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24 Both adsorption and desorption are determined by the attractive forces between the functional
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26 groups of the gas-phase molecule and those on the surface. These forces include London
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28 dispersion forces between non-polar molecules, dipole-induced dipole (Debye) forces between
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30 polar and non-polar molecules, dipole-dipole attractions and hydrogen-bonding. Thus, the
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32 structures and properties of both the surface and the adsorbing gas must be taken into account.
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37 To explore the effects of these interactions in the atmosphere, we examine here the interaction of
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39 a common volatile organic compound, limonene, and a common surface material, namely silica.

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41 Limonene is found both outdoors, where it is generated by plants,⁴³ as well as indoors due to its
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43 use in cleaning supplies, building materials, cosmetics, fragrances and food.^{12, 44-46} Indeed,
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45 indoor concentrations can be an order of magnitude or more greater than those outdoors.⁴⁷
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49 Limonene is also a chiral molecule having two enantiomers, with the (+) enantiomer typically
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51 dominating anthropogenic emissions of limonene due to its preferential use in the manufacturing
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53 of volatile chemical products.⁴³ Once emitted, limonene is highly reactive in air, forming a
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3 complex mixture of oxidized products on surfaces⁴⁸ as well as secondary organic aerosol
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5 particles in air.⁴⁹⁻⁵¹ Silica is also found both outdoors and indoors, is a significant component of
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7 soils and airborne dust particles⁴ and is widely used in the built environment in the form of
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9 glass.⁵² Thus, the interaction of gaseous limonene and silica surfaces is of interest for both indoor
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11 and outdoor chemistry.
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17 There have been previous experimental and theoretical studies of the limonene-silica interaction
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19 around room temperature,^{7, 48, 53-58} giving a surface accommodation coefficient of 0.96⁵⁵ and
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21 calculated desorption energies in the range of 42–57 kJ mol⁻¹.^{7, 55, 56} These studies established
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23 that both dispersion forces and hydrogen bonding between the surface Si-OH groups and the π
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25 electrons of the C-C double bonds in limonene contribute to significant uptake, even at room
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27 temperature.
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33 Here we report results on the limonene-silica system using a newly developed apparatus⁵⁹ that
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35 allows both uptake and desorption to be experimentally determined over a wide temperature
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37 range (150–320 K). To the best of our knowledge, this represents the first direct experimental
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39 measurement of the desorption energy and temperature-dependent net uptake coefficients for
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41 limonene from a silica surface well below room temperature. In addition, multiphase kinetic
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43 modeling is used to provide molecular-level insight into the limonene-silica interactions. These
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45 data are compared to previous measurements of the benzene-silica system^{7, 56, 59-61} to provide
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47 molecular-level understanding of the gas-surface interactions that can be used in a predictive
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49 sense that applies more broadly to other systems.
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Experimental:

The experiments were carried out using a unique apparatus combining Knudsen cell and temperature programmed desorption (TPD) capabilities which has been described in detail elsewhere.⁵⁹ A schematic diagram of the experiment is reproduced in the SI (Figure S1). Briefly, the apparatus consists of a large, 6-port chamber vacuum-connected to a sample stage that is temperature controlled. Surface samples were prepared by depositing 1 mL of a suspension of fumed silica powder (Cabosil® Grade 5, Cabot Corp.) (average particle size between 200–300 nm) in benzene (EMD Millipore, HPLC Grade) at a concentration of 1 mg/mL on the bottom of a sample cup having either a plasma-cleaned silicon wafer (Si) or copper (Cu) surface. The solvent was evaporated under a stream of N₂ and then the sample was placed in the reaction chamber where it was heated (to 350 K) overnight under vacuum. A fresh surface sample was prepared for each run. Given the high surface area of the silica particles (~ 2000 cm²) compared to the area of the temperature-controlled surface of the sample cup (13.6 cm²), the sample cup is not expected to take up significant amounts of limonene and no significant difference is expected between runs on Cu and Si substrates. The limonene ((R)-(+)-Limonene, Aldrich, 97%) was stored over alumina (Al₂O₃, Alpha Aesar, 99.99%) to remove oxidized impurities. Prior to experiments, it was transferred to a 50 mL bulb and subjected to at least three freeze-pump-thaw cycles to remove dissolved air.

TPD Experiments: For TPD experiments, the silica powder was first cooled to 150 K using a combination of liquid nitrogen cooling and controlled heating (EFit power supply and 3216

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3 temperature controller, Eurotherm) of the copper stage in contact with the bottom of the sample
4 cup. Gas-phase limonene was admitted through a doser for up to 10 minutes onto the cooled
5 surface. The surface temperature is below the freezing point of limonene, resulting in multilayers
6 of adsorbed limonene molecules. After gas dosing was completed, the adsorbed limonene layer
7 was then annealed by heating to selected temperatures before being cooled back to 150 K. TPD
8 curves were then recorded using mass spectrometry as the sample was heated from 150–320 K
9 using a linear temperature ramp with a heating rate of 0.25 K s^{-1} . The desorbing limonene
10 molecules were detected as mass spectral signal with $m/z = 68$, which is the most abundant peak
11 in the electron impact ionization mass spectrum of limonene.⁶²

12
13 Annealing temperatures were varied from 195 K to 240 K to achieve small multilayer or sub-
14 monolayer coverages of limonene prior to TPD. Samples were first annealed at the lowest
15 annealing temperature, which resulted in two peaks appearing during the temperature ramp
16 (multilayer curve, Figure 2), one peak due to desorption from a multilayer and one peak at a
17 higher temperature due to a silica-adsorbed limonene monolayer. The multilayer TPD curve was
18 deconvoluted into two Gaussian curves: one representing the multilayer and a separate Gaussian
19 for the monolayer (dashed line, Figure 2). The integrated area of the second Gaussian curve was
20 taken to represent the total number of limonene molecules adsorbed into the monolayer. During
21 subsequent runs, higher annealing temperatures were chosen such that the multilayer peak
22 disappeared completely during the annealing step, and only TPD curves with sub-monolayer
23 coverages were observed. The area under each sub-monolayer peak was ratioed to that of the
24 monolayer to obtain the fractional coverage (θ) that was initially present (θ_0) at the start of each
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3 *Uptake Experiments:* For measurements of net uptake coefficients, which represent the fraction
4 of gas collisions that lead to adsorption, the doser was replaced by a movable lid which seals off
5 the sample cup from the chamber. With the lid closed, small pressures of limonene were
6 admitted to the cell to obtain I_0 , the steady state mass spectral signal at $m/z = 68$ in the absence of
7 uptake on the silica. Over the timescale of these experiments, I_0 was nearly constant. On opening
8 the lid to expose the silica surface, the signal dropped to a minimum value, I_{min} , after which the
9 signal gradually began to recover due to desorption from the surface. The magnitude of the initial
10 drop, combined with the area of the orifice into the mass spectrometer and the area of the silica
11 surface, was used to obtain initial net uptake coefficients, $\gamma_{0,net}$,⁴

$$\gamma_{0,net} = \left(\frac{I_0}{I_{min}} - 1 \right) \left(\frac{A_0}{A_s} \right) \quad (1)$$

12 where A_0 is the effective area of the orifice leading from the sample chamber to the mass
13 spectrometer and A_s is the surface area of the silica sample. Unlike the case of reactive uptake,
14 where the gas is irreversibly lost to the surface, limonene simultaneously adsorbed to and
15 desorbed from the surface after initial uptake, and hence the signal gradually increased again
16 until it reached a new apparent steady-state value.

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42 *Kinetic Multi-Layer Modeling:* Time profiles of the uptake data were simulated using a kinetic
43 multi-layer model, similar to that used to model uptake in a previous system.^{38, 59} Briefly, the
44 model used a flux-based approach to describe vertical diffusion through the pores between silica
45 particles and reversible adsorption of limonene to the silica particle surfaces in each layer. The
46 resulting concentrations of limonene in the gas phase, in the pores between silica particles, and
47 on the particle surfaces were calculated as a function of depth and time. A detailed description of
48 the model and a list of model parameters are given in the SI (Table S1).^{38, 63} The diffusion
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3 coefficient through the pores was then varied until the model closely replicated the experimental
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5 measurements. The surface accommodation coefficient ($\alpha_{s,0}$) on an adsorbate free silica surface
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7 was set to 1 based on molecular dynamic simulations of small organic molecules interacting with
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9 silica and other surfaces at room temperature.^{54, 55, 64, 65} A sensitivity test was conducted where
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11 $\alpha_{s,0}$ was reduced by up to a factor of 10, and it was found that within this range very similar
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13 fittings to the measurements could be obtained by also decreasing the desorption rate constant
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15 (k_d) by the same factor.
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22 **Results & Discussion:**

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24 *TPD Experiments:* Figure 2 shows typical TPD data for limonene for different annealing
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26 temperatures. The shapes of each curve reflects competition between increasing rates of
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28 desorption as the temperature rises and decreasing amounts of adsorbed gas as surface coverage
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30 decreases with increasing temperature. To interpret and analyze these data, the binding
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32 mechanism must be first understood. There are different models of non-reactive gas adsorption
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34 depending on the strength of binding of the adsorbate to the surface.⁶⁶ For weak binding, the
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36 adsorbate can move in the x - y plane because the thermal energy is sufficient to overcome the
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38 barriers to translation on the surface. This is known as the ideal 2D gas model. For strong
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40 binding where the barriers are high relative to the thermal energy, known as the ideal 2D lattice
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42 gas model, the adsorbate remains fixed at one location. The intermediate case is that of a
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44 hindered translator.
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52 With a relatively high binding energy, limonene is best described by the ideal 2D gas lattice
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54 model. As discussed in detail by Campbell and coworkers,⁶⁶ the rate of desorption should vary as
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3 $[\theta/(1-\theta)] \exp(-E_d/RT)$ where θ is the fractional surface coverage and E_d is the desorption energy.

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6 The rate of desorption, $R_{des} = d\theta/dt$, was calculated as a function of temperature (T) over a TPD
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8 experiment such as that shown in Figure 2, and used to obtain the desorption energy based on eq.

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10 (II):⁶⁶⁻⁶⁸

$$11 \quad R_{des} = -\frac{1}{\beta} \frac{d(\theta)}{dT} = -\frac{d(\theta)}{dt} = \nu(\theta, T) \frac{\theta}{(1-\theta)} \exp\left(-\frac{E_d(\theta)}{RT}\right) \quad (II)$$

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18 In eq. (II), β is the temperature ramp rate (0.25 K s^{-1}), $\nu(\theta, T)$ is the preexponential factor, $E_d(\theta)$ is
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20 the desorption energy, which is a function of surface coverage due to lateral interactions, R is the
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22 gas constant, and T is the absolute temperature. The surface coverage, θ , at each point during the
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24 TPD experiment can be found by numerical integration of the desorption rate curve.

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30 From the relationship established in eq. (II), the desorption energy can be extracted from the
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32 experimental data using two complementary approaches. The first approach exploits the
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34 Arrhenius form of eq. (II), which allows it to be linearized in order to derive an estimate of E_d .

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37 Figure 3 shows typical plots of $\ln\left(\frac{R_{des}}{\theta/(1-\theta)}\right)$ as a function of $1/T$, the slope of which yields the
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40 average coverage-independent desorption energy (E_d). Table 1 summarizes the values obtained
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42 using this approach across a number of experiments. The uncertainty-weighted average value of
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44 E_d from the Arrhenius analysis is $47.0 \pm 8.2 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ ($\pm 1s$), where s is the sample standard

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47 deviation of the average defined as $s = \sqrt{\frac{\sum (x_i - x_{sm})^2}{N-1}}$.

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53 A second approach is to determine $E_d(\theta)$ using an inversion technique,⁶⁹ by rearranging eq. (II)
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$$E_d(\theta) = -RT \ln \left(\frac{-d\theta/dt}{\nu \cdot \left(\frac{\theta}{(1-\theta)} \right)} \right) \quad (\text{III})$$

From eq. (III), $E_d(\theta)$ can be calculated from the measured values of $d\theta/dt$ for the highest initial coverage at an assumed value of ν . This value of $E_d(\theta)$ is then used to integrate eq. (II) and simulate the expected desorption curves at smaller surface coverages. Figure 4 shows the results of applying the inversion technique to the experimental data shown in Figure 2. The experimentally measured desorption rates at each coverage are compared to the simulated desorption rates (Fig. 4a) for each assumed value of ν , and the sum of the squared residuals between the two is calculated (Fig. 4b). The residuals are minimized by varying ν to obtain the best fit to the experimental data (Fig. 4a). The optimum value of ν is then used to determine $E_d(\theta)$ (Fig. 4c), the desorption energy as a function of surface coverage. Finally, the linear region of each $E_d(\theta)$ curve is extrapolated to zero coverage. Since the silica sample is not a single crystal, the surface structure is likely to be heterogeneous, leading to a distribution of binding site energies. The value of E_d obtained from linear extrapolation thus represents the desorption energy of an isolated molecule bound to the predominant type of surface site and not subject to lateral interactions. In addition, Table 1 summarizes the zero-coverage values obtained for E_d from inversion analysis of all the data sets reported in this work, with an uncertainty-weighted average value of $48.0 \pm 3.4 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ ($\pm 1\text{s}$).

Also shown in Table 1 are the best fit pre-exponential factors. It should be noted that these values of ν include the effects of desorption and readsorption of the limonene as it travels up through the silica particle multi-layers before desorbing into the vacuum, and are thus not true pre-exponential factors for the desorption of limonene from an unobstructed silica surface.^{59, 70-75}

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3 Nevertheless, the desorption energies derived using the inversion technique should not be
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5 affected by these processes.⁷³⁻⁷⁵
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10 The coverage-independent values of E_d derived from both the Arrhenius analysis and the
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12 inversion method can be evaluated in light of previous results. In a series of papers^{7, 53-56, 58}
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14 Grassian, Tobias and coworkers carried out experimental measurements of the adsorption and
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16 desorption kinetics of limonene from silica from 298–308 K using FTIR spectroscopy.
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18 Complementary molecular dynamics calculations and multiphase kinetic modeling⁵⁵ were used
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20 to calculate desorption energies in the range of 53–57 kJ mol⁻¹ (uncertainties of ~ 8-9 kJ mol⁻¹),
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22 depending on the orientation of the limonene molecule on the SiO₂ surface. Additional
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24 calculations⁵⁶ based on the M06-2X density functional applied to the gas-phase and adsorbed
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26 limonene systems yielded desorption energies ranging from 41.6–46.3 kJ mol⁻¹, again depending
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28 on the surface orientation of the adsorbed limonene. Since the experimental technique in this
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30 work does not resolve differences in desorption energy due to molecular orientation, the mean E_d
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32 of 47.5 ± 8.2 kJ mol⁻¹ presented here thus reflects an average value for the two orientations on
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34 the surface. While these results are, to the best of our knowledge, the first experimental
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36 measurements of the limonene-silica desorption energy over a broad temperature range, they are
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38 in good agreement with values calculated previously at higher temperatures.
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47 Previous work has also attempted to better understanding the driving force behind the adsorption
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49 of the non-polar limonene molecule to the polar silica surface.⁵⁶ Silica surfaces have surface Si-
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51 OH and Si-O-Si bonds that can interact with incoming gases.⁶¹ This presents the possibility of
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53 hydrogen bonding as well as London dispersion and dipole-induced dipole forces. *Ab initio*
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3 molecular dynamics calculations^{7, 53-56, 58} and sum-frequency generation spectroscopy
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5 measurements⁵⁷ have shown that hydrogen bonding between the π -electrons in limonene and the
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7 surface Si-OH groups is a significant attractive force, along with dispersion forces. Interestingly,
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9 the double bond in the propenyl side group of limonene plays a major role in this hydrogen
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11 bonding, accounting for the orientational effect described previously: the most stable orientation
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13 for adsorbed limonene is that where the propenyl group is in closer contact with the surface.
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19 Comparing these results with the desorption of benzene from silica further emphasizes the role
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21 which molecular structure plays in determining the desorption energetics of organic molecules.
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24 In previous TPD experiments,⁵⁹ the desorption energy for benzene on silica was measured as
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26 $(34.5 \pm 5.0) \text{ kJ mol}^{-1} (\pm 1\sigma)$, in excellent agreement with a value of $(31.0 \pm 2.3) \text{ kJ mol}^{-1} (\pm 1\sigma)$
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28 reported earlier by Morris and coworkers⁶⁰ and in reasonable agreement with a calculated value
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30 of 28.3 kJ mol^{-1} .⁵⁶ This smaller surface binding energy of benzene is due in part to the weaker
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32 interaction between the aromatic π electrons and the silica Si-OH groups when compared with
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34 the π -hydrogen bonding interaction implicated in limonene adsorption. It should also be noted
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36 that values of E_d for limonene and benzene derived from these experiments and explicit
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38 calculations are smaller than those predicted by some parameterizations based on the molecular
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40 weight or polarizability of the adsorbate alone⁷⁶ Interestingly, that parameterization
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42 overestimates the magnitude of E_d , yielding 65 kJ mol^{-1} for limonene, and 47 kJ mol^{-1} for
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44 benzene, illustrating the importance of taking into account the molecular structures of both the
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46 gas and the surface to predict desorption energies.
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3 *Uptake Experiments:* From the initial drop in signal on exposing the gas to the silica particles,
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5 the initial net uptake coefficient ($\gamma_{0,\text{net}}$) can be obtained (eq. I). Initial net uptake coefficients were
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7 measured for limonene on silica at temperatures in 10 K intervals from 210–250 K, with typical
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9 uptake data at each temperature shown in Figure 5. There is initial rapid uptake until the signal
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11 reaches I_{min} , followed by a slower rate of uptake, corresponding to increased desorption as
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13 surface sites are filled. A constant signal (I_{ss}) is then reached. At this point, the signal has not
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15 returned to its initial value ($I_{\text{ss}} \neq I_0$), indicating steady-state conditions between uptake and
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17 desorption.
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24 Figure 6 and Table 2 show values of $\gamma_{0,\text{net}}$, which fall from $(1.7 \pm 0.3) \times 10^{-3}$ ($\pm 1\text{s}$) to (2.3 ± 0.4)
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26 $\times 10^{-4}$ ($\pm 1\text{s}$) as temperature increases. By comparison, the value of the surface accommodation
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28 coefficient ($\alpha_{\text{s},0}$) assumed in the kinetic model is 1, roughly three orders of magnitude larger. The
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30 output of the model suggests that the discrepancy between these values is primarily due to the
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32 desorption rate of limonene, which increases with temperature and is sufficiently fast to decrease
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34 the measured net uptake over this temperature range. An expression for absolute desorption rate
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36 constant employed in the model is given in Table S1.
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42 The Langmuir model of adsorption predicts that surface coverage will depend on the gas
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44 pressure/concentration according to eq. (IV),
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$$\frac{k_{\text{ads}}}{k_{\text{des}}} [G] = \frac{\theta}{(1-\theta)} \quad (\text{IV})$$

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48 where $[G]$ is the gas-phase concentration of the adsorbing molecule. Thus the ratio $k_{\text{ads}}/k_{\text{des}}$ can
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50 be obtained from a plot of $\theta/(1-\theta)$ against the gas-phase concentration at different temperatures,
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52 as described in the SI and shown in Figure S2a. A derivation of eq. (IV), as well as a description
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3 of how coverages were calculated for each uptake experiment, is given in the SI (Fig. S3). The
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5 resulting values of $k_{\text{ads}}/k_{\text{des}}$ are summarized in Table 2. Since adsorption is not expected to have
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7 an energy barrier, the temperature dependence of this ratio should primarily be controlled by the
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9 binding energy for the desorption step. Thus, an Arrhenius plot of $k_{\text{ads}}/k_{\text{des}}$ as a function of
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11 temperature would be expected to yield an activation energy of $-E_d$, after accounting for the
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13 expected square-root temperature dependence of k_{ads} due to the temperature dependence of the
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15 gas collision frequency.
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21 However, as seen in Figure S2b, the slope of the plot yields an activation energy of $-23.7 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$,
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23 ¹, roughly half the magnitude of E_d determined from TPD experiments. Consistent with the
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25 kinetic modeling results discussed below, this is attributed to diffusion into the multilayers of
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27 silica particles, along with re-adsorption and desorption in the pores. As a result, the ratios
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29 $k_{\text{ads}}/k_{\text{des}}$ derived from Figure S2 are effective ratios, including desorption and re-adsorption
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31 effects, and not simply adsorption/desorption as for a true Langmuir equilibrium. Interestingly,
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33 despite the influence of diffusive limitations, extrapolation of these results to 298 K gives a value
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35 of the effective equilibrium constant that is in reasonable agreement with the value inferred by
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37 Fang et al.⁵⁵ for limonene adsorption on packed silica, as detailed in the SI (Fig. S4).
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44 To provide further insight into the molecular processes which govern the net uptake, a kinetic
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46 multi-layer model was applied to the uptake profiles, as described previously.⁵⁹ Dashed red lines
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48 in Figure 5 show the fits to representative data using these parameters. Additional experimental
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50 runs and model fits across the 210–250 K temperature range can be found in the SI (Fig. S5–
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52 S17). It should again be noted that the surface accommodation coefficient (α_s) on an adsorbate
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3 free surface employed in the model is 1, reflecting efficient initial binding of the limonene to the
4 surface. Figure 7 shows the model predicted concentrations of limonene adsorbed to the particle
5 surface. Figure 7 shows the model predicted concentrations of limonene adsorbed to the particle
6 surfaces as well as the gas-phase concentrations in the pores at 210 K (Fig. 7a,b) and 250 K (Fig.
7 7c,d) as a function of time and distance from the top of the silica powder. Additional data for 230
8 and 240 K can be found in the SI (Fig. S18–S19). At 210 K, most of the adsorbed limonene is
9 found in the top ~ 200 nm over the first minute of exposure (Fig. 7a) while at 250 K, it has
10 penetrated throughout the silica (Fig. 7c) due to higher diffusion and desorption coefficients. The
11 gas-phase concentrations in the pores mirror this behavior, with the highest concentrations near
12 the surface at 210 K but rapidly distributing throughout the layers at 250 K (Fig. 7b,d). The
13 effect of temperature on the distribution of limonene within the particle bed supports the idea
14 that the derived values of $k_{\text{ads}}/k_{\text{des}}$ (Table 2, Fig. S2) do not solely reflect single adsorption and
15 desorption processes from one surface site, but will rather be sensitive to the depth of the particle
16 bed sampled by the uptake experiment.
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38 **Conclusions:**

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40 Quantifying the uptake and desorption of gases from surfaces has many important applications
41 ranging from indoor and outdoor air pollution to the impact of such processes on materials and
42 public health. This study reports fundamental data on the desorption energy and uptake of
43 gaseous limonene on silica which are important compounds found in both indoor and outdoor
44 environments. A relatively large binding energy of 47.5 kJ mol⁻¹ reflects hydrogen bonding
45 between the Si-OH surface groups and the double bonds of limonene, as postulated by others,<sup>7,
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54⁵⁴⁻⁵⁷ and highlights the importance of the structure of both the gas and the surface in determining
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3 the energetics of desorption. The uptake kinetics are shown to be consistent with a surface
4 accommodation coefficient of one, with rapid desorption playing an important role in lowering
5 the measured initial uptake coefficient by several orders of magnitude. The fundamental
6 interactions between limonene and silica involve hydrogen bonding between the Si-OH groups
7 and the double bonds in limonene, so the values measured here should hold regardless of
8 differences in the morphology of the silica surface.
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19 In addition to reporting on fundamental physical parameters of adsorbed organic molecules, the
20 combined experimental/modeling approach demonstrated here can provide much-needed insight
21 into how gases interact with porous surfaces. Building materials such as concrete, drywall, paint
22 etc. are porous⁷⁷⁻⁸⁰ and take up gases from various activities including cooking and cleaning
23 indoors⁸¹⁻⁸³ and exposure to both anthropogenic and biogenic species outdoors.¹¹ In addition,
24 wildfire emissions have been shown to impact both the exteriors and interiors of buildings,⁸⁴
25 causing the issue of gas uptake on and subsequent degassing from building materials to take on
26 new public health implications. Measurements of desorption kinetics from porous materials are
27 crucial in developing our understanding of these important everyday processes.
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Supplementary Information: Experimental schematic, Figure S1; Kinetic Model Description and Table of Parameters, Table S1; Figure S2, Effective Langmuir coefficients; Derivation of eqn. (IV) from main text; Derivation of fractional coverage (θ) from uptake profiles, Figure S3; Comparison of Effective Langmuir Coefficients ($k_{\text{ads}}/k_{\text{des}}$) from uptake experiments, Figure S4; Additional uptake experiments and model output, Figures S5–S17, Uptake experiments and model outputs 210 – 250 K; Figure S18–S19, Adsorbed limonene and porous gas-phase limonene concentration profiles from the model at 210, 230, 240, and 250 K.

Table 1. Summary of desorption energies for limonene on silica particles using two different analytical approaches.

Substrate (# curves) ^a	Average E_d ($\pm 1s$) ^d (kJ mol ⁻¹) ^b	E_d as $\theta \rightarrow 0$ ($\pm 2s$) (kJ mol ⁻¹) ^c	ν (s ⁻¹)
Silicon wafer (4)	50.1 \pm 2.6	47.7 \pm 0.1	7.5
Silicon wafer (2)	45.8 \pm 0.9	49.0 \pm 0.1	7.0
Silicon wafer (3)	48.7 \pm 1.0	48.7 \pm 0.2	7.5
Copper (2)	45.5 \pm 2.1	44.6 \pm 0.2	7.0
Copper (4)	37.8 \pm 5.9	47.6 \pm 0.3	7.5
AVERAGE^e $\pm 1s$	47.0 \pm 8.2	48.0 \pm 3.4	7.3 \pm 0.3

^aNumber of TPD sub-monolayer curves in experiment.

^bFrom the slope of plots of $\ln(R_{\text{des}}/(\theta/(1-\theta)))$ vs. T^{-1} .

^cFrom inversion analysis extrapolated to zero surface coverage.

^dDefined as $s = \sqrt{\frac{\sum (x_i - x_{sm})^2}{N-1}}$ where x_i are the sample values, x_{sm} is the sample mean and N is the number of data points. Uncertainties do not explicitly account for uncertainty in the estimation of the area of a monolayer coverage.

^eAverage of experimental values weighted by uncertainty ($1/s^2$).

Table 2. Summary of initial uptake coefficients and the effective ratios $k_{\text{ads}}/k_{\text{des}}$ for limonene on silica particles.

T (K)	γ_0 ($\pm 1s$)	$(k_{\text{ads}}/k_{\text{des}})^{\text{eff}}$ (cm ³ molecule ⁻¹) ^a
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210	$(1.7 \pm 0.3) \times 10^{-3}$	1.8×10^{-13}
220	$(9.5 \pm 5.7) \times 10^{-4}$	1.1×10^{-13}
230	$(6.2 \pm 0.5) \times 10^{-4}$	6.1×10^{-14}
240	$(2.9 \pm 0.6) \times 10^{-4}$	2.5×10^{-14}
250	$(2.3 \pm 0.4) \times 10^{-4}$	2.8×10^{-14}

^aSee text for description of why these are effective ratios.

Figure Captions

Figure 1. Schematic of processes involved in gas uptake and desorption of limonene onto the agglomerated chain-like structures of fumed silica.

Figure 2. Typical TPD data for desorption of limonene from silica particles at different extents of surface coverage (θ). The blue trace illustrates a bimodal distribution due to desorption from both a multilayer and monolayer. The dashed gold trace is obtained by deconvolution of the blue trace and is taken as the monolayer, $\theta_0 = 1$. The remaining traces, resulting from higher annealing temperatures, illustrate successively smaller initial coverages.

Figure 3. Typical plot of $\ln [R_{\text{des}} / (\theta/(1-\theta))]$ as a function of T^{-1} for the experiment shown in Figure 2. The solid line represents a fit to the linear region of the curve corresponding to the largest initial sub-monolayer coverage; the dashed line represents a fit to the smallest initial coverage. (Units of R_{des} are ml. s^{-1} , or monolayers per second.)

Figure 4. Inversion analysis of TPD data shown in Fig. 2. (a) predicted TPD curves (lines) compared to the data in Fig. 2; (b) residuals for the inversion analysis; (c) desorption energy as a function of $\theta/(1-\theta)$.

Figure 5. Typical uptake profiles for limonene on silica particles at representative temperatures from 210–250 K. Kinetic multilayer model results are shown by the dashed red lines.

Figure 6. Temperature dependence of the initial net uptake coefficient. Error bars represent $\pm 1s$.

Figure 7. Kinetic multilayer model predictions of concentrations of limonene in the gas phase and on the silica particle surfaces, as a function of time and depth into the particle bed. (a, c) adsorbed limonene (molecule cm^{-2}) at 210 and 250 K; (b, d) gas-phase limonene in pores at 210 and 250 K respectively. Pressures indicate limonene gas pressure prior to opening sample lid. (Note the difference in vertical axis scale between top and bottom rows.)

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3 **Data Availability Statement:**
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5 All data are shown in the paper or the SI.
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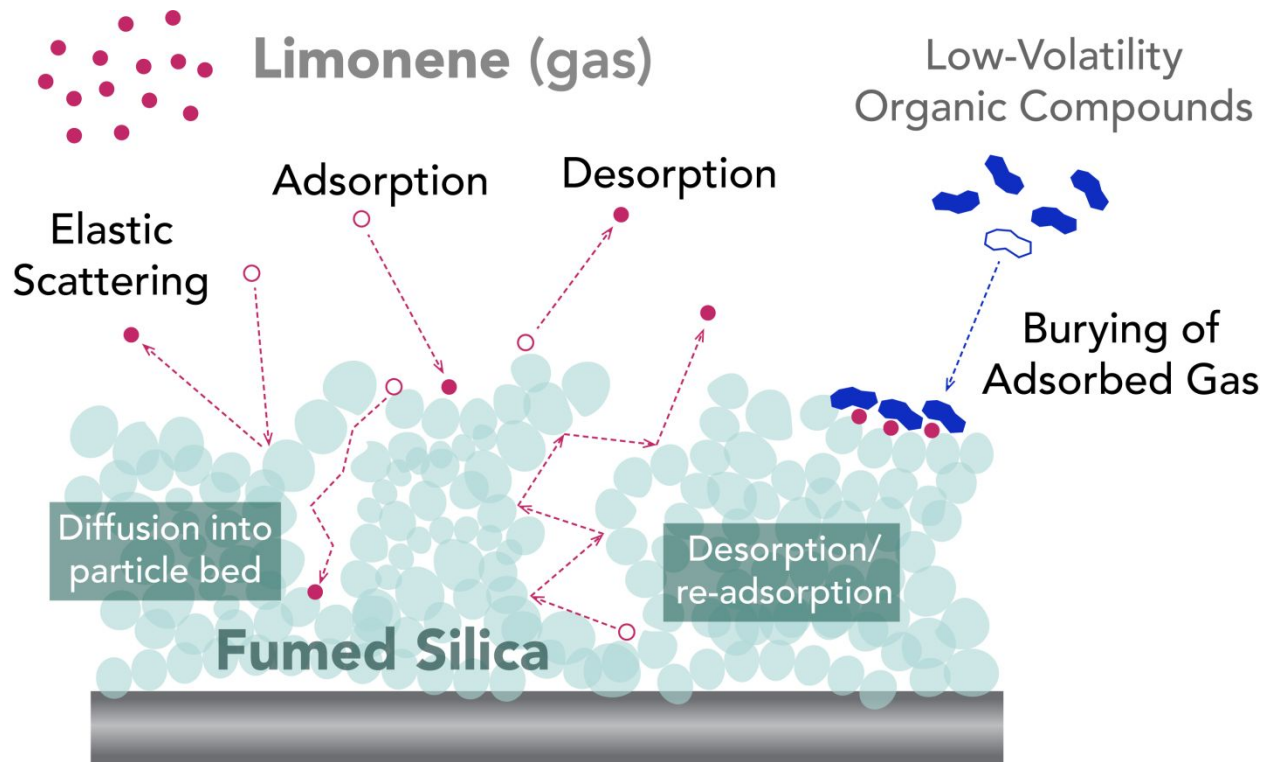


Figure 1. Schematic of processes involved in gas uptake and desorption of limonene onto the agglomerated chain-like structures of fumed silica.

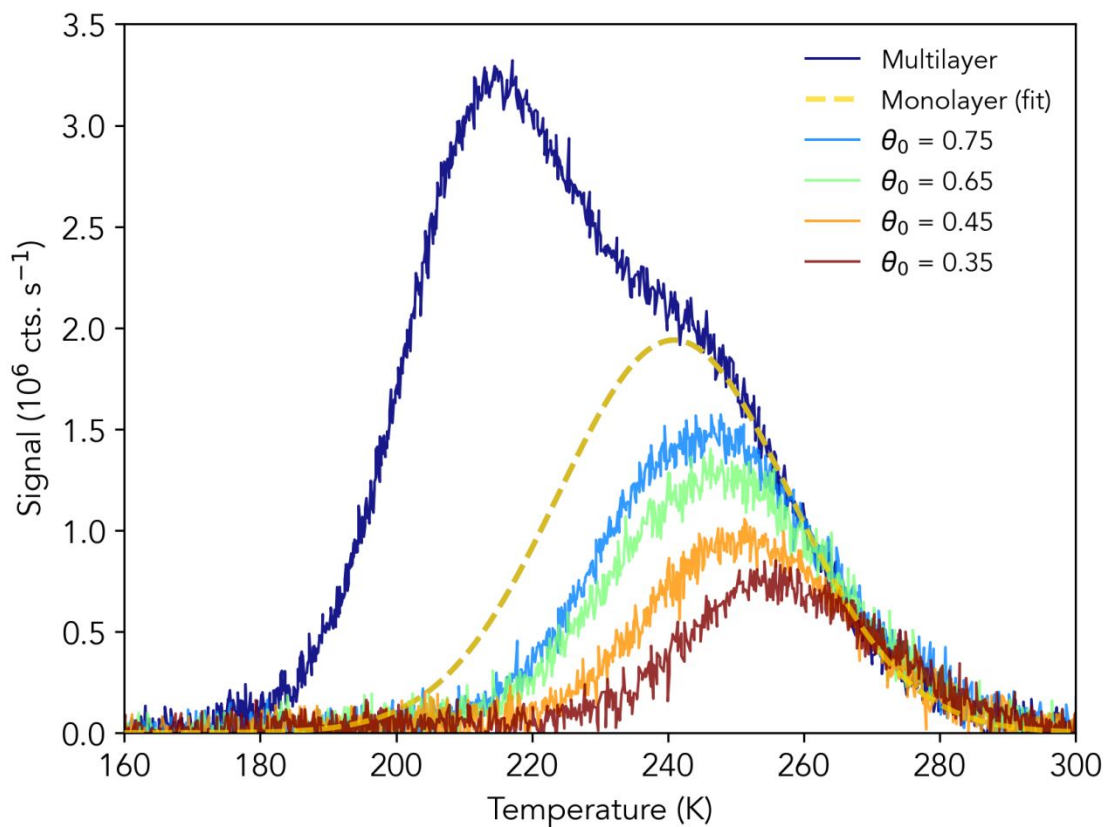


Figure 2. Typical TPD data for desorption of limonene from silica particles at different extents of surface coverage (θ). The blue trace illustrates a bimodal distribution due to desorption from both a multilayer and monolayer. The dashed gold trace is obtained by deconvolution of the blue trace and is taken as the monolayer, $\theta_0 = 1$. The remaining traces, resulting from higher annealing temperatures, illustrate successively smaller initial coverages.

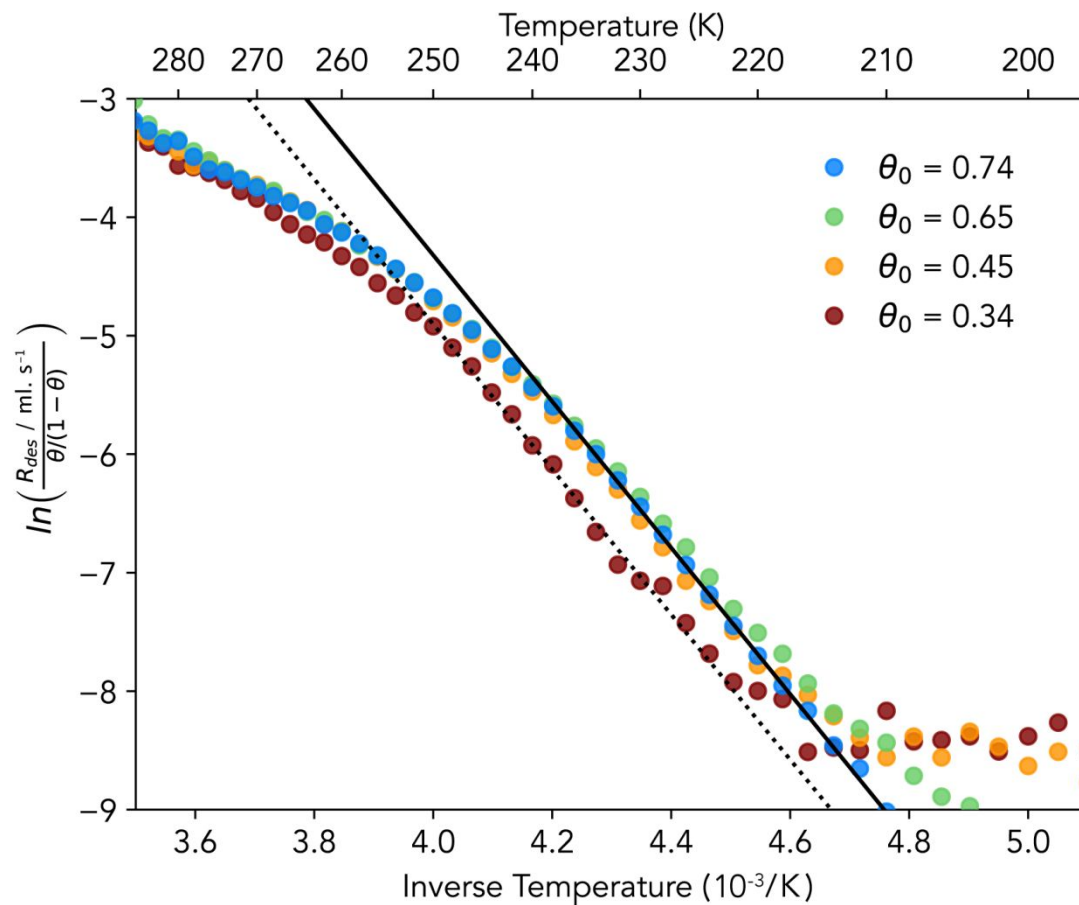


Figure 3. Typical plot of $\ln [R_{des} / (\theta/(1-\theta))]$ as a function of T^{-1} for the experiment shown in Figure 2. The solid line represents a fit to the linear region of the curve corresponding to the largest initial sub-monolayer coverage; the dashed line represents a fit to the smallest initial coverage. (Units of R_{des} are ml. s^{-1} , or monolayers per second.)

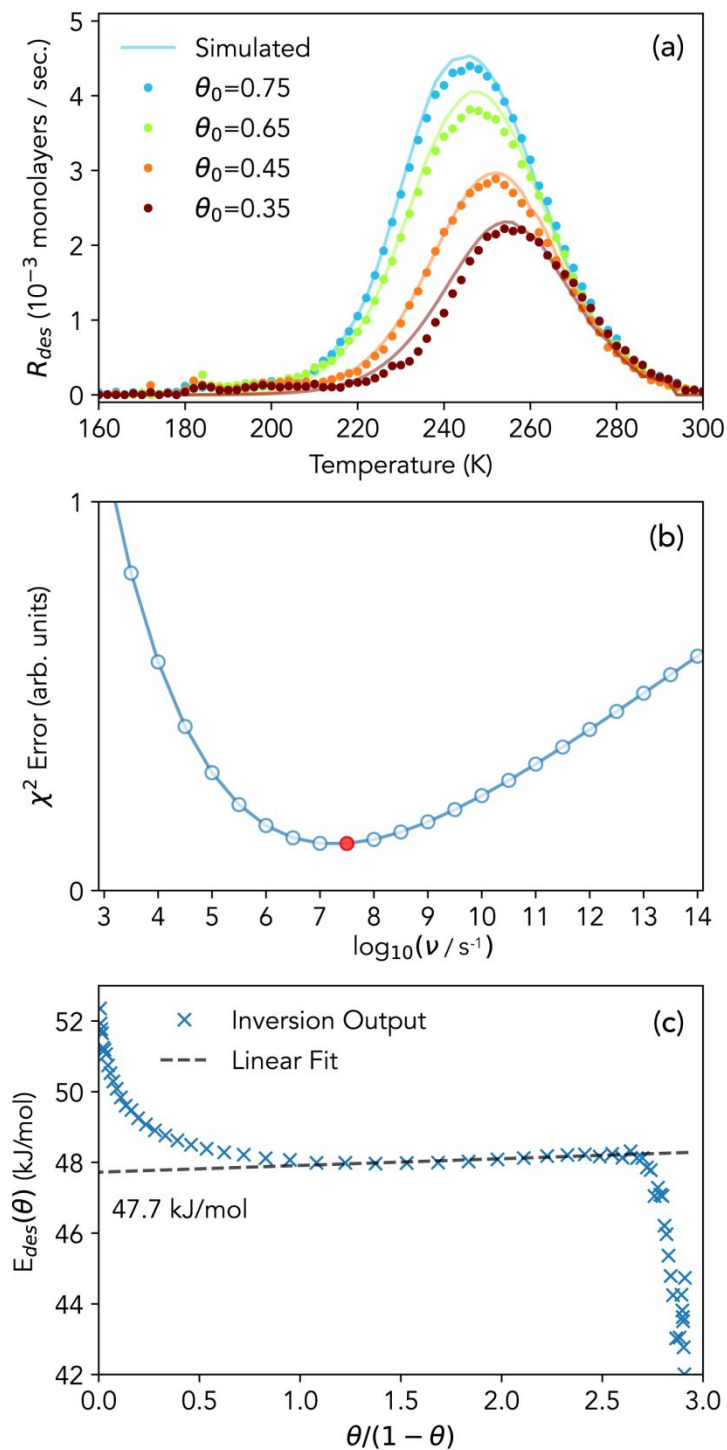


Figure 4. Inversion analysis of TPD data shown in Figure 2. (a) predicted TPD curves (lines) compared to the data in Figure 1; (b) residuals for the inversion analysis; (c) desorption energy as a function of $\theta/(1-\theta)$.

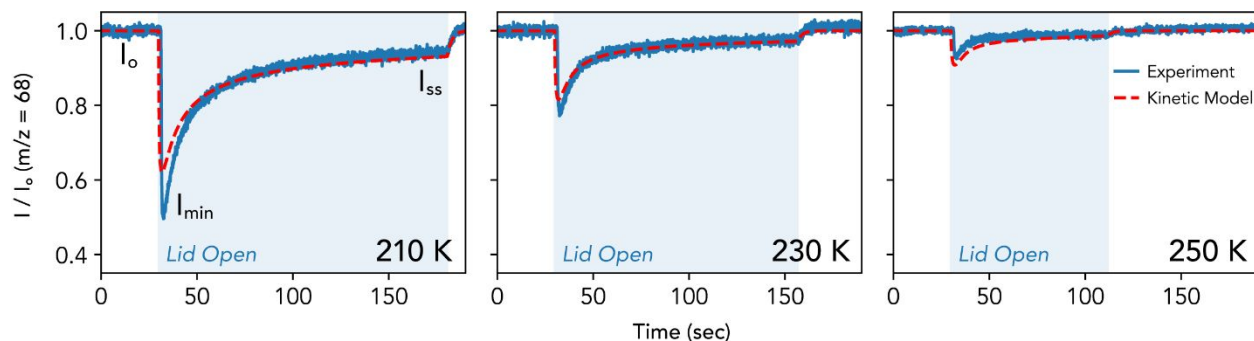


Figure 5. Typical uptake profiles for limonene on silica particles at representative temperatures from 210–250 K. Kinetic multilayer model results are shown by the dashed red lines.

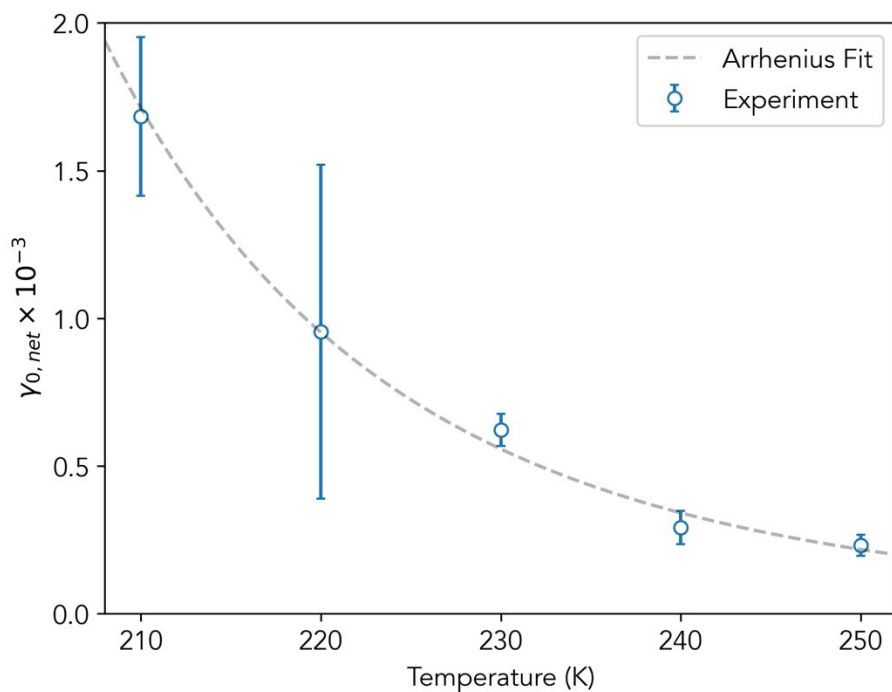


Figure 6. Temperature dependence of the initial net uptake coefficient. Error bars represent $\pm 1s$.

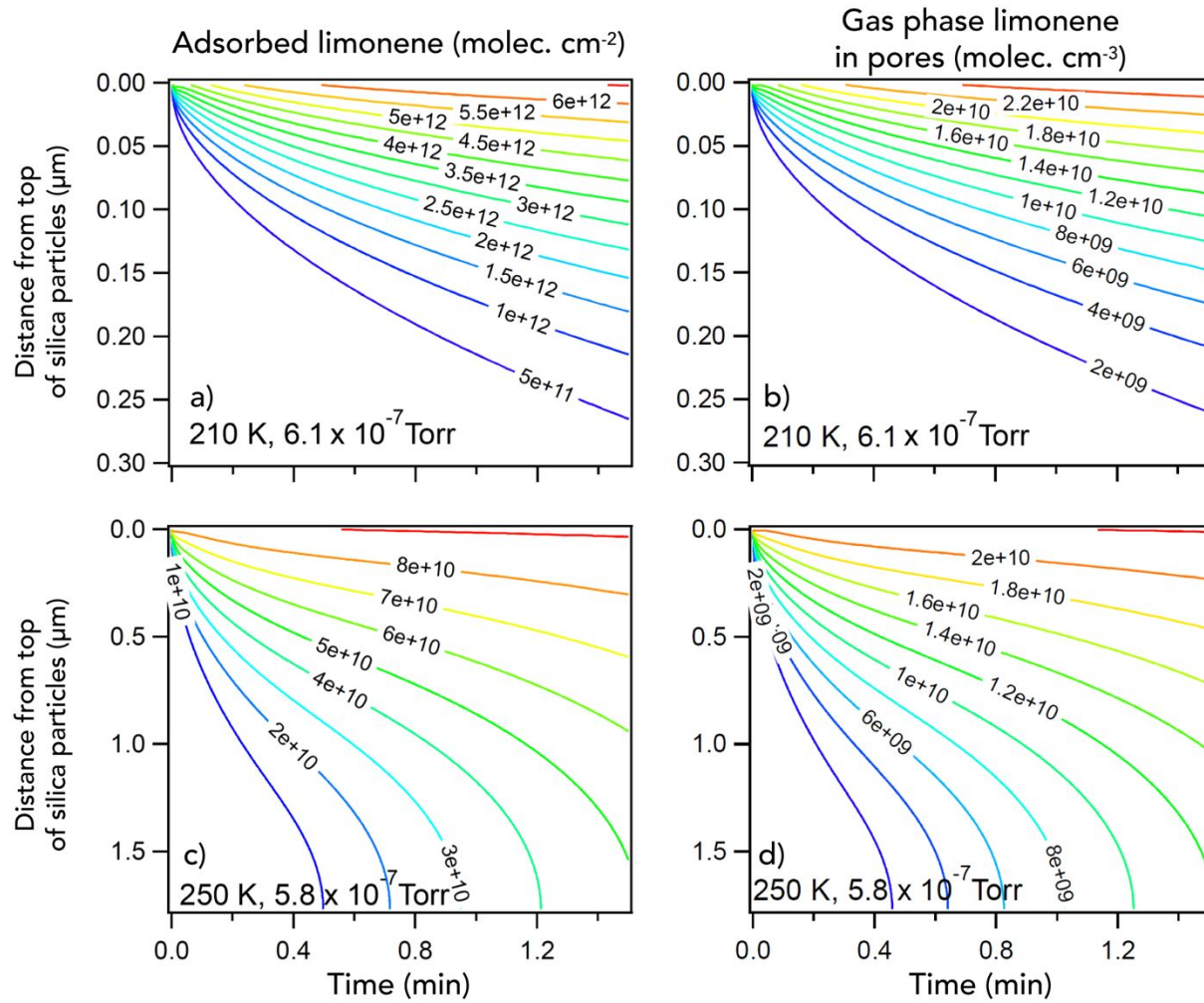


Figure 7. Kinetic multilayer model predictions of concentrations of limonene in the gas phase and on the silica particle surfaces, as a function of time and depth into the particle bed. (a, c) adsorbed limonene (molecule cm^{-2}) at 210 and 250 K; (b, d) gas-phase limonene in pores at 210 and 250 K respectively. Pressures indicate limonene gas pressure prior to opening sample lid. (Note the difference in vertical axis scale between top and bottom rows.)