



1 **Contrasting impacts of humidity on the ozonolysis of**
2 **monoterpenes: insights into the multi-generation**
3 **chemical mechanism**

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8

9 **Abstract.** Secondary organic aerosol (SOA) formed from the ozonolysis of biogenic monoterpenes is a
10 major source of atmospheric organic aerosol. It has been previously found that relative humidity (RH)
11 can influence the SOA formation from some monoterpenes, yet most studies only observed the increase
12 or decrease in SOA yield without further explanations of molecular-level mechanisms. In this study, we
13 chose two structurally different monoterpenes (limonene with an endocyclic double bond and an
14 exocyclic double bond, Δ^3 -carene with only an endocyclic double bond) to investigate the effect of RH
15 in a set of oxidation flow reactor experiments. We find contrasting impacts of RH on the SOA formation:
16 limonene SOA yield increases by ~100% as RH increases, while there is a slight decrease in Δ^3 -carene
17 SOA yield. By analyzing SOA chemical composition and reaction mechanisms, the enhancement in
18 limonene SOA yield can be attributed to the water-influenced reactions after ozone attack on the
19 exocyclic double bond of limonene, which leads to the increment of lower volatile organic compounds
20 under high RH condition. However, as Δ^3 -carene only has an endocyclic double bond, it cannot undergo
21 such reactions. This hypothesis is further proved by the SOA yield enhancement of β -caryophyllene, a
22 sesquiterpene that also has an exocyclic double bond. These results greatly improve our understanding
23 of how water vapor influences the ozonolysis of biogenic organic compounds and subsequent SOA
24 formation processes.

25 **1 Introduction**

26 Secondary organic aerosol (SOA), as an important type of ambient fine particulate matter (PM_{2.5}):
27 aerosols with aerodynamic diameter $\leq 2.5 \mu\text{m}$ (Guo et al., 2014; Huang et al., 2014), has caused a series
28 of negative impacts on human health (Pye et al., 2021), air quality (Zhang et al., 2016) and global climate
29 (Levy et al., 2013). SOA produced from the oxidation of biogenic volatile organic compounds (BVOCs)
30 is a major component of SOA in heavy forest regions during summer (Sindelarova et al., 2014; Ahmadov



31 et al., 2012), and contributes by a large fraction (~40%-80%) to global OA budget (Cholakian et al.,
32 2019).

33 Monoterpenes, mostly emitted from coniferous trees, account for ~11% in total BVOCs
34 (Sindelarova et al., 2014; Kanakidou et al., 2005). Limonene is one of the most abundant monoterpenes,
35 with the annual emission budget of 11.4 Tg yr⁻¹ (Guenther et al., 2012). Apart from the biogenic source,
36 limonene can also be released from the indoor emission, mainly from essential oils (Ravichandran et al.,
37 2018; De Matos et al., 2019; Mot et al., 2022). Limonene has an endocyclic double bond and an exocyclic
38 double bond, and is thus more reactive than other monoterpenes towards oxidants such as ozone (O₃),
39 hydroxyl radical (OH), and nitrate radical (NO₃) (Chen and Hopke, 2010; Atkinson and Arey, 2003). Δ³-
40 carene is another kind of monoterpene that dominates the monoterpene emission from Scots pine (Bäck
41 et al., 2012). Different from limonene, Δ³-carene contains only one endocyclic double bond, which is
42 similar to most other monoterpenes.

43 Ozonolysis is an important reaction pathway for limonene and Δ³-carene. Although reactions with
44 OH and NO₃ are faster than that with O₃ for both two monoterpenes (Atkinson, 1991; Khamaganov and
45 Hites, 2001; Chen et al., 2015; Shaw et al., 2018), the atmospheric concentration of the latter
46 monoterpene is much higher than that of the former (Sbai and Farida, 2019). The contributions of O₃-
47 reactions with limonene and Δ³-carene to tropospheric degradation are 47% and 24%, respectively, in
48 the daytime (Ziemann and Atkinson, 2012). In pristine areas where NO₃ concentration is very low,
49 ozonolysis is also the dominant fate for limonene and Δ³-carene in the nighttime. In addition, it has been
50 previously found that the ozonolysis of monoterpenes can produce more extremely low volatility
51 products than OH-initiated oxidation, which contributes by a large fraction to the SOA production
52 (Jokinen et al., 2015). For either limonene or Δ³-carene, the first step for ozonolysis is attacking on the
53 endocyclic double bond to form two types of stabilized Criegee intermediates (sCI) with low energy (Fig.
54 S1) (Drozd and Donahue, 2011; Chen et al., 2019). The sCI will then trigger a series of chemical reactions,
55 like isomerization, decomposition and addition reactions. Correspondingly, the major components in Δ³-
56 carene SOA are caric acid, OH-caronic acid, and caronic acid (Ma et al., 2009; Thomsen et al., 2021),
57 while the major components from limonene SOA are limonaldehyde, keto-limonon aldehyde, limononic
58 acid and keto-limononic acid (Pathak et al., 2012; Wang and Wang, 2021).

59 Water is ubiquitous in the atmosphere and can affect the formation mechanism of SOA and its



60 relevant physical and chemical properties (Sun et al., 2013). A number of field measurements have shown
61 that the average molecular weight of the water/organic phase and activity coefficient of condensed
62 organics would be changed due to the change of relative humidity (RH) (Seinfeld et al., 2001; Li et al.,
63 2020). In addition, several laboratory studies have demonstrated that RH can influence the ozonolysis of
64 monoterpenes in different ways. Most of those studies have reported either an inhibitory effect or a
65 negligible effect of high RH on the particle formation (Bonn and Moortgat, 2002; Fick et al., 2002; Zhao
66 et al., 2021; Ye et al., 2018). Nevertheless, few other studies found that high RH can promote SOA
67 formation from the ozonolysis of limonene (Yu et al., 2011; Gong et al., 2018; Xu et al., 2021), but the
68 reason of this promotion effect remains unclear.

69 To fully examine the effects of water on SOA formation from the ozonolysis of monoterpenes,
70 especially the related chemical processes, we used an oxidation flow reactor (OFR) to investigate the
71 ozonolysis of limonene and Δ^3 -carene under different RH conditions in this study. An ultra-high
72 performance liquid chromatography with a quadrupole time-of-flight mass spectrometer (UPLC-Q-TOF-
73 MS) was deployed to analyze the molecular chemical composition of the SOA, which provided insights
74 into the physical and chemical processes influenced by the water content. With these state-of-the-art
75 techniques, we proposed mechanisms that may explain the inhibitory or enhancing RH effects on SOA
76 formation for different monoterpenes.

77 **2 Experimental methods**

78 **2.1 Oxidation flow reactor experiments**

79 A series of dark ozonolysis experiments of limonene and Δ^3 -carene were conducted in a custom-
80 made oxidation flow reactor (OFR). The OFR is a 602 cm long stainless cylinder with a volume of 2.5 L
81 (Fig. S2). A zero-air generator (XHZ2000B, Xianhe, China) was used to generate dry clean air as the
82 carrier gas for the OFR. As shown in Fig. S2, there are four gas paths upstream of the OFR: the first path
83 is the precursor gas channel through which monoterpenes are injected via a syringe pump (ISPLab 01,
84 Shenchen, China); the second path is for the flow of 300 sccm dry zero air passing through a mercury
85 lamp ($\lambda = 185$ nm) to generate O_3 ; the third path is connected to a water bubbler to generate wet air; the
86 fourth path is the extra dry zero air entering the OFR. The RH in the OFR was controlled by adjusting
87 the ratio of the wet and dry zero air flows. A water recycle system was equipped to keep the temperature



88 (T) around at 298 K. The total flow was 0.9 L min⁻¹, resulting in an average residence time of 167 s. The
 89 RH and T in the OFR were monitored by a T/RH Sensor (HM40, VAISALA, Finland). The concentration
 90 of ozone and the consumption of the precursor gas were measured with an ozone monitor (Model 106L,
 91 2B Technologies, USA) and a gas chromatography with flame ionization detector (GC-FID 7890B,
 92 Agilent Technologies, USA), respectively. The GC was equipped with a DB-624 column (30 m × 0.32
 93 mm, 1.8 μm film thickness) whose temperature was set to ramp from 100 °C to 180 °C at a rate of 20 °C
 94 min⁻¹, and then held at 180 °C for 2 min. Before each experiment, O₃ was introduced into the OFR to
 95 clean it until the background aerosol mass concentration reached < 1 μg m⁻³.

96 The experimental conditions are shown in Table 1. In these OFR experiments, the precursor
 97 (limonene or Δ³-carene) concentration was set to ~320-340 ppb. A high O₃ concentration of ~6 ppm was
 98 used to realize an equivalent aging time of 0.41 day in the real atmosphere, assuming an average ambient
 99 O₃ concentration of 28 ppb (Sbai and Farida, 2019) (see section S1 for the calculation). Under such
 100 conditions, most of the precursors were consumed, since the residence time was almost five and three
 101 times of the half-life for limonene and Δ³-carene, respectively. A series of RH conditions ranging from
 102 dry (1-2%) to 60% with a step of ~10% were used to investigate the effects of water content on SOA
 103 production and composition (see Table 1). All materials used in this experiment have been described in
 104 S2.

105 **Table 1.** Experimental conditions and results.

Exp.	[Precursor] (ppb)	[O] ₃ (ppm)	T (K)	RH (%)	N _{(13.8-723.4 nm)^a} (cm ⁻³)	M _{(13.8-723.4 nm)^b} (μg m ⁻³)	D _{(mean)^c} (nm)	SOA yield (%)
limonene								
1	321±39	5.7	298	1–2	6.9×10 ⁵	980.9	138.2	62.9
2	321±39	6.0	298	10±2	1.3×10 ⁶	1377.5	126.8	88.4
3	321±39	5.9	298	20±2	9.0×10 ⁵	1573.3	150.9	90.2
4	321±39	5.9	298	30±2	1.4×10 ⁶	1573.3	128.9	100.9
5	321±39	6.0	298	40±2	1.7×10 ⁶	2051.4	130.7	131.6
6	321±39	5.5	298	50±2	1.5×10 ⁶	1962.7	137.8	125.9
7	321±39	5.5	298	60±2	1.5×10 ⁶	2211.1	139.0	141.8



Δ^3 -carene								
8	341±28	6.1	298	1–2	9.5×10^4	346.0	195.8	19.4
9	341±28	6.4	298	10±2	1.4×10^5	300.3	163.4	16.8
10	341±28	6.4	298	20±2	9.4×10^4	244.9	176.9	13.7
11	341±28	6.0	298	30±2	5.9×10^4	241.2	205.1	13.5
12	341±28	6.3	298	40±2	4.6×10^4	205.8	203.2	11.5
13	341±28	6.3	298	50±2	6.8×10^4	196.7	180.7	11.0
14	341±28	6.3	298	60±2	5.6×10^4	198.5	190.2	11.1

106 ^a $N_{(14.1-735 \text{ nm})}$ means the total particle number concentration from size 13.8 nm to 723.4 nm. ^b $M_{(13.8-723.4}$
 107 $\text{nm})$ means the total particle mass concentration from size 13.8 nm to 723.4 nm. ^c $D_{(\text{mean})}$ means the particle
 108 mean diameter.

109 2.2 SOA particle analysis

110 2.2.1 SOA yield

111 The SOA particle size distribution was measured with a scanning mobility particle sizer (SMPS),
 112 which consists of a differential mobility analyzer (DMA) (model 3082, TSI Inc., USA) and a
 113 condensation particle counter (CPC) (model 3776, TSI Inc., USA). The samples were measured by SMPS
 114 every 5 minutes with a sampling flow and a sheath flow of 0.3 L min^{-1} and 3 L min^{-1} , respectively. The
 115 SOA mass concentration was calculated from the volume concentration measured with SMPS and the
 116 aerosol density, which was estimated to be 1.25 cm^{-3} for limonene- and 1.09 g cm^{-3} for Δ^3 -carene-SOA
 117 (Thomsen et al., 2021; Watne et al., 2017).

118 The SOA yield (Y) for individual organic gas can be calculated as:

$$119 Y = \frac{\Delta M}{\Delta HC}$$

120 Where ΔM is the total mass concentration of SOA, ΔHC is the mass concentration of reacted precursor
 121 (Ng et al., 2007; Odum et al., 1996).

122 2.2.2 Ultra-high performance liquid chromatography quadrupole time-of-flight mass spectrometry 123 analysis

124 An ultra-high performance liquid chromatography (UPLC, UltiMate 3000, Thermo Scientific)
 125 coupled with a quadrupole time-of-flight mass spectrometry (Q-TOFMS, Bruker Impact HD) was used
 126 to analyze the molecular-level chemical composition of SOA. First, the SOA particles were collected on



127 the PTFE filters (47 mm diameter, 0.22 μm pore size, Jinteng, China). Next, these filters were dissolved
128 and extracted by 5 mL methanol for two times. Extracts were then filtered through PTFE syringe filters
129 (0.22 μm pore size), and were concentrated to near dryness by nitrogen-blowing. At last, the samples
130 were redissolved in a 200 μL solution with 0.1% (v/v) formic acid in 50:50 methanol/ultrapure water
131 mixture.

132 The parameters of LC-MS were set as follows: capillary voltage 4000 V, nebulizer pressure 0.4 bar,
133 dry heater temperature 200°C, end plate voltage -500 V, and flow of dry gas 4 L min^{-1} . A C_{18} column
134 (100 \AA , 3 mm particle size, 2.1 mm \times 50 mm, Waters, USA) was used with a column temperature of 35°C.
135 The mobile phase was 0.1 % formic acid in methanol (A) and 0.1 % formic acid in ultra-high purity
136 water (B) with a flow of 200 $\mu\text{L min}^{-1}$. The injection volume was 5 μL . The MS was operated in negative
137 ion mode, and the detection molecular weight range was from m/z 50 to 1500.

138 **3 Results and discussion**

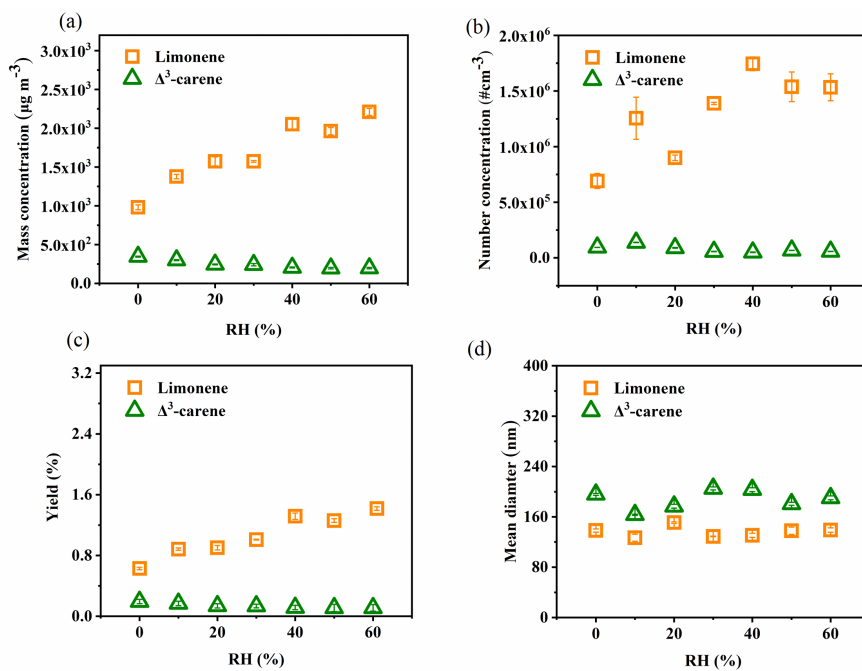
139 **3.1 SOA production under different RH conditions**

140 SOA formation of a representative experiment is shown in Fig. S3. It is found that the formed SOA
141 are mainly in the size range of 60-200 nm, and the number concentration and mass concentration are
142 relatively stable during the course of the OFR experiment. SOA formation from limonene and Δ^3 -carene
143 in terms of particle number concentration, particle mass concentration, and SOA yield as a function of
144 RH are illustrated in Fig. 1a-c. We find that all the above-mentioned 3 parameters of limonene-SOA
145 increase with the increasing RH. The increment of particle mass concentration and SOA yield from the
146 ozonolysis of limonene is $\sim 100\%$ higher at wet (60% RH) than at dry conditions. In contrast, SOA
147 formation from Δ^3 -carene is suppressed by $\sim 40\%$ under high RH. The distinct effects of RH on SOA
148 formation from the ozonolysis of limonene and Δ^3 -carene found in this study agree with most previous
149 studies (Yu et al., 2011; Jonsson et al., 2006b; Bonn et al., 2002; Gong and Chen, 2021; Li et al., 2019b).
150 As shown in Table 2, Yu et al. (2011) reported a positive correlation between SOA production and RH
151 for the ozonolysis of limonene in the chamber experiments without OH scavenger. Their experimental
152 condition is similar to that in our study regarding the absence of OH scavenger and, thus, similar results
153 were observed. However, in the presence of OH scavenger, results are quite different. Jonsson et al. (2006)
154 observed a similar enhancement effect of high RH on SOA production with 2-butanol as the OH



155 scavenger, while Bonn et al. (2002) found a negligible or suppressive effect with cyclohexane as the OH
156 scavenger. It should be noted that the OH scavenger not only has the ability to scavenge OH but also
157 produces additional products which may influence the reactions of target precursors. According to
158 previous studies, the influence of different OH scavengers can vary (Jonsson et al., 2008). This may
159 explain the different findings with and without OH scavenger for limonene-SOA. With regard to Δ^3 -
160 carene, similar results are found in the absence of OH scavenger, namely, high RH has negligible or
161 slightly suppressive effect on SOA production (Bonn et al., 2002; Fick et al., 2002). Same as limonene,
162 the presence of OH scavenger and its different chemical nature can explain the different results found
163 previously (Jonsson et al., 2006a; Bonn et al., 2002).

164 The enhancement in limonene-SOA production under high RH can be due to several reasons from
165 either physical or chemical processes. First, the hygroscopic growth of the particles (i.e., absorption of
166 water content) can lead to higher mass concentration under higher RH, but the enhancement should be
167 at most ~30% as the growth factor (GF, the ratio of wet and dry diameter: $D_{\text{wet}}/D_{\text{dry}}$) of limonene-SOA is
168 ≤ 1.1 (Varutbangkul et al., 2006). However, we do not observe an obvious change in the mean diameter
169 when comparing dry and wet conditions (Fig. 1d). In addition, hygroscopic growth should also occur for
170 Δ^3 -carene SOA, but no obvious enhancement in particle mass is observed (Fig. 1a). Therefore, it is
171 suggested that physical processes regarding hygroscopic growth play a minor role in the enhancement in
172 limonene-SOA under high RH. As a consequence, we believe that chemical processes are likely the
173 reason of the enhancement in limonene-SOA under high RH. Water can influence chemical processes in
174 the gas phase or in the particle phase. Particle-phase reactions can promote the growth of small particles
175 and, thus, mainly lead to larger particle sizes. As the observed SOA enhancement is mainly from high
176 number concentration particles rather than the large size particles (Fig. 1b and 1d), it is likely that the
177 water-participated gas-phase reactions are the most possible reasons for the limonene-SOA enhancement.
178 The reaction mechanism is analyzed below based on the mass spectra information on the SOA.



179

180 **Figure 1.** The effect of RH on the SOA formation: (a) number concentration, (b) mass concentration, (c)

181 SOA yield, (d) mean diameter.

182

183

Table 2. Comparison with previous studies on the effect of RH.

Precursor	Concentration (ppb)	Reactor	OH scavenger	T (K)	RH (%)	M ^a	N ^b	Reference
limonene	1000	flow reactor	cyclohexane	295±2	0.02 and 32.5	no effect	- ^e	Bonn et al. (2002)
	320	chamber	N.M. ^c	296±2	18±2, 50±3 and 82±2	+ ^d (7 times)	+ ^d (8 times)	Yu et al. (2011)
	15 and 30	flow reactor	2-butanol	298±0.4	<2-85	+ ^d	+ ^d	Jonsson et al. (2006)
exoicyclic (15.2) and endocyclic (24.6)	1085	flow reactor	none	298	3-62	+ ^d	- ^e	Li et al. (2019)
	321±39	flow reactor	none	298	0-60	+ ^d (2 times)	+ ^d (3 times)	this study
	1000	flow reactor	cyclohexane	295±2	0.02 and 32.5	no effect	- ^e	Bonn et al. (2002)
Δ ³ -carene	14.2 and 29.4	flow reactor	2-butanol	298±0.4	<2-85	+ ^d	+ ^d	Jonsson et al. (2006)
	1111	flow reactor	none	298	3-62	- ^e	- ^e	Li et al. (2019)
	341±28	flow reactor	none	298	0-60	- ^e	no effect	this study

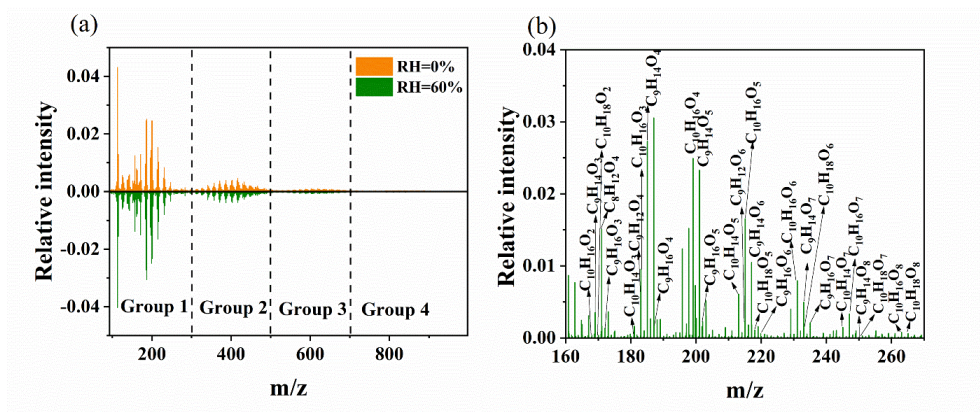
184 ^a M means total particle mass concentration, ^b N means total particle number concentration, ^c N.M. means not mentioned, ^d Positive sign (+) means the mass or number
 185 concentration increases with RH, ^e Negative sign (-) means the mass or number concentration decreases with RH.





186 3.2 Molecular analysis of SOA particles

187 The UPLC/ESI-Q-TOF-MS was used to examine the SOA molecular composition under high and
 188 low RH conditions. As shown in Fig. 2a, the mass spectra of limonene-SOA are divided into four groups:
 189 monomeric group ($m/z < 300$), dimeric group ($m/z 300-500$), trimeric group ($m/z 500-700$), and
 190 tetrameric group ($m/z 700-1000$), corresponding to products containing one, two, three, and four
 191 oxygenated limonene units, respectively (Bateman et al., 2009). Most of the SOA molecules are
 192 monomers ($>60\%$) (Fig. 2b) and dimers ($\sim 25\%$), while trimers and tetramers contribute to very small
 193 fractions ($<10\%$ and $\sim 3\%$) (Table S1). Although the SOA mass concentration increases by $\sim 100\%$ under
 194 high RH condition, the relative intensities of MS peaks do not significantly change with varying RH
 195 conditions. In other words, we did not observe an obvious change in the overall MS patterns, and the
 196 fractions of the four groups only slightly differed under different RH conditions, e.g., the fraction of
 197 monomers was 62% under dry condition and 66% under wet conditions. However, if we take a closer
 198 look, the intensities and contributions of specific peaks are quite different with varying RH. For example,
 199 the relative intensity of $C_{10}H_{16}O_2$, a possible first-generation product (Gong et al., 2018), decreases by
 200 $\sim 20\%$ with increasing RH from dry to 60% (Table S2). This is likely due to the multi-generation reactions
 201 influenced by water vapor concentration, as discussed below with the proposed reaction mechanism of
 202 limonene ozonolysis.]



203
 204 **Figure 2.** UPLC/ESI-Q-TOF-MS mass spectra of SOA from limonene ozonolysis. (a) MS under
 205 high and low RH conditions; (b) the identification of monomers under high RH condition.

206 The proposed reaction mechanism of limonene ozonolysis is shown in Fig. 3 and Fig. 4. The initial



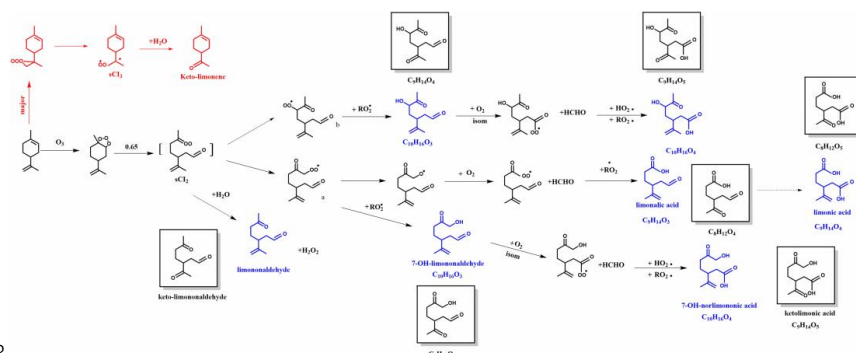
207 step in the reaction of O_3 with limonene is the attack of the endocyclic double bond to form sCI_1 and sCI_2
208 (with branching ratios of 0.35 and 0.65, respectively). There are four reaction pathways for sCI_1 in the
209 next steps (Fig. 3). The first pathway is the reaction with H_2O , alcohol or carboxylic acid to form a
210 carboxylic acid species with hydroxyl, which would subsequently lose a molecule of water to form
211 limononaldehyde or lose a molecule of hydrogen peroxide to form limononic acid (Grosjean et al., 1992;
212 Li et al., 2019b). The second and third pathways are reactions with carboxylic acids and carbonyls,
213 respectively, generating anhydrides and secondary ozonides. The fourth way is the loss of a hydroxyl
214 radical ($\cdot OH$) to generate an alkyl radical ($R\cdot$), $C_{10}H_{15}O_2\cdot$. Meanwhile, the produced $\cdot OH$ can attack
215 limonene to form another alkyl radical $C_{10}H_{17}O\cdot$. These alkyl radicals react with O_2 and form peroxy
216 radicals ($RO_2\cdot$). The atmospheric fate of produced $RO_2\cdot$ in the absence of NO_x includes the reaction with
217 $RO_2\cdot$ or $HO_2\cdot$ (Atkinson and Arey, 2003) and the unimolecular H shift. The $RO_2\cdot + HO_2\cdot$ route mainly
218 form hydroperoxide (ROOH), and the minor fraction is to form alcohols and carbonyls (Atkinson and
219 Arey, 2003). The products of bimolecular reactions between $RO_2\cdot$ and $RO_2\cdot$ are alcohols, carbonyls,
220 alkoxy radicals, peroxides and ROOR dimers (Hammes et al., 2019; Peng et al., 2019). The H shift of
221 $RO_2\cdot$ can form second-generation $R\cdot$ and trigger a main generation channel of highly oxidized molecules
222 (HOMs), i.e., $R\cdot$ would go through a process of repeated oxygen addition and hydrogen-atom shift to
223 form HOMs with high O/C ratios of $> 0.7-0.8$ (Molteni et al., 2018; Bianchi et al., 2019).

224 In addition to the sCI_1 route, many products can be formed from the sCI_2 route (Fig. 4). First, sCI_2
225 reacts with H_2O and decomposes to limononaldehyde and H_2O_2 . Additionally, sCI_2 could experience an
226 O_2 addition, $\cdot OH$ loss and isomerization to produce two types of $RO_2\cdot$, which can undergo the similar
227 reactions as the $RO_2\cdot$ formed from the sCI_1 route, and the major products are also shown in Fig. 4.

228 Since limonene and Δ^3 -carene both have an endocyclic double bond, the similar reactions as
229 mentioned above can occur for the ozonolysis of Δ^3 -carene (Fig. S4), and most corresponding formula
230 in Fig. S4 could be identified in Table S3. However, the reactivity of limonene towards O_3 is expected to
231 be higher owing to its exocyclic double bond. As shown in Fig. 4, the attack of O_3 to the exocyclic double
232 bond mainly leads to sCI_3 (highlighted in red) with the unpaired electrons outside the ring (Leungsakul
233 et al., 2005). sCI_3 can react with H_2O to form a carbonyl called keto-limonene. It should be noted that
234 this reaction can occur not only for limonene, but also for all the products that retain the exocyclic double
235 bond. As a result, the compounds that are colored in blue in Fig. 3 and Fig. 4 can undergo further reactions



236 to generate products with an additional carbonyl (see the boxes in Fig. 3 and Fig. 4). Furthermore, their
237 molecular formula shown in Table S4 have been identified using the Q-TOF-MS. This mechanism can
238 well explain the decrease in the relative intensity of $C_{10}H_{16}O_2$ and the increase in the relative intensity of
239 $C_9H_{14}O_3$ (Table S2)



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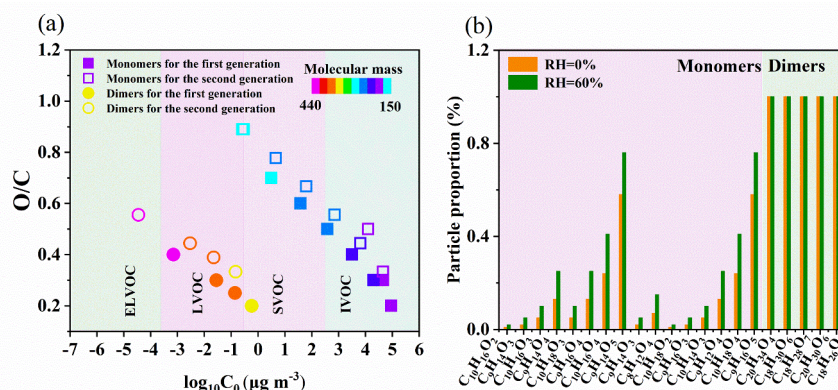
244 **Figure 4.** Proposed formation mechanisms for SOA formation from sCl₂ and sCl₃ oxidation under high
 245 RH. The compounds in blue and in boxes are identified using UPLC/ (-) ESI-Q-TOF-MS.

246

247 **3.3 Processes leading to the increase or decrease in SOA formation**

248 Based on the results and mechanisms shown above, we present evidence that high humidity
 249 enhances limonene-SOA formation. First, the presence of water vapor enhances the formation of
 250 carbonyls from the reaction of exocyclic double bond. The oligomerization of these carbonyls generates
 251 more dimers. As shown in Table S1, 25 more dimers (187 dimers vs 162 dimers) were found under high
 252 RH condition compared to those under low RH condition. These dimers can be classified as low-volatile
 253 organic compounds (LVOC; $3 \times 10^{-4} < C_0 < 0.3 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) and extremely low-volatile organic compounds
 254 (ELVOCs; $C_0 < 3 \times 10^{-4} \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) (Fig. 5a), and thus promote the nucleation and new particle formation in
 255 different ways. This finding is similar to that from a previous study showing that high RH can promote
 256 dimer formation from the ozonolysis of α -pinene (Kristensen et al., 2014). Second, we find that high RH
 257 can also promote the formation of HOMs, although the mechanism remains unclear. As shown in Table
 258 S2, many HOMs are detected under high RH condition but not detected under low RH condition,
 259 including both monomers and dimers. HOMs have low volatilities and, thus, can also promote new
 260 particle formation. Overall, the promoted dimer and HOM formation greatly enhance the new particle
 261 number concentration under high RH condition (Fig. 6).

262

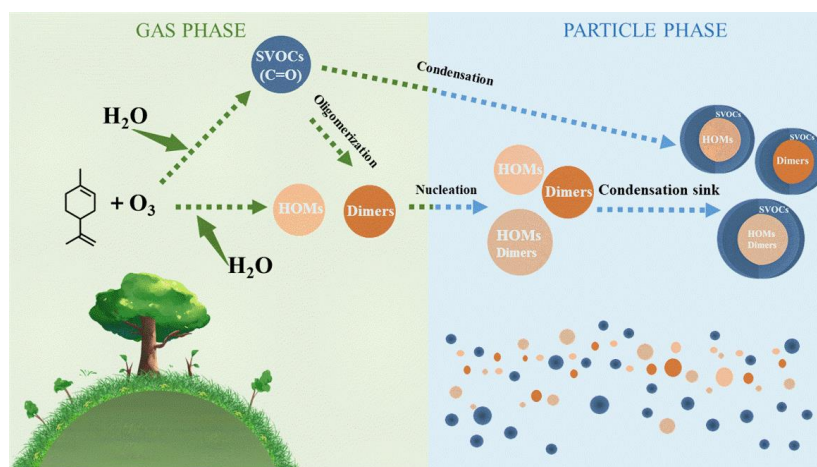


263

264 **Figure 5.** (a) Distribution of the limonene-SOA in the two-dimensional volatility basis set (2D-VBS)

265 space. (b) Partitioning coefficients of limonene monomers and dimers under low and high RH conditions.

266



267

268 **Figure 6.** Schematic diagram of the possible mechanisms for the enhancement of limonene-SOA.

269

270 High particle number concentration generally provides more surface areas for semi-volatile organic

271 compounds (SVOCs; $0.3 < C_0 < 300 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) to condense on, which results in higher condensation sink

272 (CS). In the OFR, the fates of SVOCs include condensing on aerosol, getting lost on the wall, and reacting

273 with OH radicals to form functionalization and/or fragmentation products (Palm et al., 2016; Li et al.,

274 2019a). The promoted condensation by higher CS leads to a higher fraction of SVOCs getting into the

275 particle phase rather than getting lost on the wall or becoming smaller fragments staying in the gas phase,



276 and thus promoting SOA formation (Li et al., 2019a). Furthermore, the transformation from C-C double
277 bond to carbonyl shown in Fig. 3 and Fig. 4 decreases the volatility of molecules, which can largely
278 influence the gas-particle partitioning of the monomeric compounds (Fig. 5b). For example, the C_0 values
279 of $C_{10}H_{16}O_2$ and $C_{10}H_{16}O_3$ are 90701 and 19968 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, corresponding to partitioning coefficients of
280 0.01 and 0.05, respectively (Fig. 5b and Table S2), with an SOA mass concentration of $\sim 1000 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$
281 under dry condition. When they are converted to carbonyls $C_9H_{14}O_3$ and $C_9H_{14}O_4$, the values of C_0
282 become 45556 and 6479 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, corresponding to partitioning coefficients of 0.02 and 0.13, respectively
283 (Fig. 5b and Table S2), with the same SOA loading. This enhancement in partitioning coefficient can
284 largely promote the condensation of SVOCs and, thus, enhance the SOA mass concentration. In addition,
285 the enhanced SOA formation can further influence the equilibrium, e.g., the partitioning coefficient of
286 $C_{10}H_{16}O_3$ increases from 0.05 to 0.10 when SOA mass concentration increases from $\sim 1000 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ under
287 dry condition to $\sim 2000 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ under wet condition (Fig. 5b and Table S2). The distribution of saturation
288 vapor pressure for monomers and dimers identified by MS has also been shown in Fig. 5a. As can be
289 seen from this figure, around 50% monomers are categorized as SVOCs, thus having the large fraction
290 in the particle phase when converting from dry to wet conditions. Overall, the different fate and
291 partitioning of SVOCs largely enhance the amount of SVOCs in the particle phase (Fig. 6).

292 Concluding the analysis above, high humidity promotes the SOA formation from the ozonolysis of
293 limonene in two steps: nucleation of new particles and condensation of SVOCs on them (Fig. 6). These
294 two steps are closely related to the multi-generation reactions of the exocyclic C=C bond, which are
295 unlikely to happen for the ozonolysis of Δ^3 -carene. In a recent study by Gong and Chen (Gong and Chen,
296 2021), it was found that high RH can inhibit the SOA formation from the first-generation oxidation of
297 limonene ozonolysis, but enhance the SOA formation from the second-generation oxidation. Their results
298 agree well with the results and analysis shown here.

299 Regarding Δ^3 -carene, the mechanisms and processes are almost opposite to those of limonene. First,
300 water vapor reacts with $s\text{Cl}_1$ or $s\text{Cl}_2$ to promote the formation of α -hydroxyalkyl-hydroperoxides (Fig.
301 S4). Their subsequent products without second ozonolysis of exocyclic double bond have higher
302 volatility, and may most likely prevail in the gas phase. In addition, it has been found that α -hydroxyalkyl
303 hydroperoxides preferentially decompose into aldehydes and H_2O_2 (Kumar et al., 2014; Chen et al., 2016),
304 i.e., 3-caronaldehyde for Δ^3 -carene, which has higher volatility than the products from other reaction



305 pathways. Correspondingly, the number and relative intensity of HOMs and dimers detected under high
306 RH conditions are both lower than those under low RH conditions (Table S5). As a result, high RH shows
307 an inhibitory effect on the SOA formation from Δ^3 -carene ozonolysis.

308 To further confirm the assumption that water-influenced multi-generation reactions of the exocyclic
309 double bond enhance the SOA formation, we also conducted the β -caryophyllene ozonolysis experiments
310 under similar experimental conditions as limonene and Δ^3 -carene (Table S6). Similar to limonene, β -
311 caryophyllene has an exocyclic C-C double bond that can undergo further reactions (Fig. S5). As
312 expected, we observe a large enhancement in SOA formation under high RH condition (Table S6 and
313 Fig. S6). This implies that monoterpenes, sesquiterpenes, and other BVOCs with two unsaturation double
314 bonds may follow similar reaction mechanisms during ozonolysis, and thus have a RH dependency in
315 SOA production.



316 **4 Conclusions**

317 In this study, the effect of humidity on SOA production from the ozonolysis of two monoterpenes
318 (limonene and Δ^3 -carene) was investigated with an OFR. Contrasting impacts of RH on the SOA
319 formation were observed: limonene-SOA yield increases by ~100% when RH changes from ~1% to
320 ~60%, while Δ^3 -carene-SOA yield slightly decreases. By analyzing the chemical composition of SOA
321 with ESI-Q-TOF-MS, we find that the multi-generation reactions of the exocyclic C-C double bond are
322 likely the driving force of the enhancement in limonene-SOA. The presence of water promotes the
323 formation of carbonyls from the reaction of exocyclic double bond, and further favors the formation of
324 dimers and HOMs. This leads to promoted new particle formation and subsequent condensation of
325 SVOCs. These reactions also lower the volatilities of the SVOCs, and further promote the gas-particle
326 partitioning. Moreover, this hypothesis is proved by a similar behavior of the ozonolysis of β -
327 caryophyllene (sesquiterpene with an exocyclic double bond) in SOA enhancement under high RH
328 condition. The results in this study suggest that multi-generation reactions play an important role in SOA
329 formation from the ozonolysis of BVOCs, which are significantly influenced by humidity. This impact
330 is largely dependent on the molecular structure of the SOA precursors (e.g., with or without the exocyclic
331 double bond), thus highlighting the importance to consider the molecular structure of monoterpenes in
332 modeling and field studies of biogenic SOA.

333

334 **Data availability.** Experimental data are available upon request to the corresponding authors.

335 **Supplement.** The supplement related to this article is available online.

336 **Author contributions.** LD and SZ designed the experiments and SZ carried them out. SZ performed
337 data analysis with assistance from KL, LD, ZY, and JL. SZ and KL wrote the paper with contributions
338 from all co-authors.

339 **Declaration.** The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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