Chapter 7

Mass Spectrometric Detection of Ozonation Products and Intermediates of Aqueous Aerosol Iodide and/or Sulfite: Implications for Interfacial Kinetics and Iodide-Mediated Sulfite Oxidation

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Abstract

The oxidations of sulfite and iodide in the interfacial layers of aqueous droplets exposed for ~ 1 to 10 ms to $O_3(g)$ are investigated by online mass spectrometry of electrostatically ejected anions. S(IV) oxidation losses in Na₂SO₃ microdroplets are proportional to [S(IV)] [O₃(g)] up to ~ 90% conversion. In contrast, although Γ is more abundant than HSO₃⁻ in the interfacial layers of equimolar (Na₂SO₃ + NaI) microdroplets and ~ 3 times more reactive than HSO₃⁻ toward O₃(aq) in bulk solution, it is converted with minimal loss to I₃⁻ and IO₃⁻, plus a persistent ISO₃⁻ intermediate. These observations reveal unanticipated interfacial gradients, reactivity patterns, and transport phenomena that had not been taken into account in previous treatments of fast gas-liquid reactions and may be of importance for gas-aerosol reactions in the Marine Boundary Layer.

Introduction

The number density, size, and optical and chemical properties of atmospheric aerosols significantly impact the Earth's climate¹. Aerosols absorb/scatter solar radiation², but also support key chemical processes ^{3,4,5}. For example, SO₂(g) is a pervasive anthropogenic contaminant, which largely partitions into aqueous aerosol droplets^{6,7}, where it is assumed to be rapidly oxidized by the sparingly water-soluble O₃(g)⁸ in a process that mediates tropospheric sulfur chemistry^{9,10,11}. The oxidation of SO₂ by O₃ has been thoroughly investigated in bulk water^{12,13} and aqueous sulfuric acid^{14,15,16}. Since SO₃²⁻ is far more reactive than HSO₃⁻ [pK_a(HSO₃⁻) = 6.30]¹⁷, overall reaction rates markedly increase above pH ~ 6.

Gas-liquid reactions have been previously investigated by monitoring the uptake of reactive gases by stationary trains of ~ 10–100 μ m droplets at relatively low pressures (~ 10–50 Torr)¹⁸ or on coated-wall Knudsen flow reactors¹⁹, and the results interpreted on the basis of continuous models parametrized with kinetic and transport data in bulk fluids²⁰. However, there is now firm evidence that air/liquid interfaces are unique reaction media. Enhanced reactivity^{18, 21}, selective anion enrichment²², and higher acidity²³, have been predicted for these interfaces. These predictions remain to be thoroughly evaluated²⁴. Recently we reported experiments in which the composition of the interfaces of aqueous halide microdroplets undergoing chemical reaction with O₃(g) was monitored by mass spectrometry with millisecond time resolution^{25,26}. Here we report a kinetic and mechanistic study of interfacial S(IV)/I⁻ + O₃(g) aerosol chemistry that further illustrates the peculiarities of these systems.

Experimental

Experiments were performed in the spraying chamber of a commercial electrospray mass spectrometer (HP-1100). Sodium iodide and/or bisulfite solutions (10-100 µM) were directly infused (50 μ L min⁻¹) into the chamber through a grounded stainless steel needle injector (100 µm internal diameter, 150 µm external diameter) surrounded by a coaxial sheath (250 μ m internal diameter) issuing 0.5 L min⁻¹ of nebulizer N₂ gas. The difference between the exit velocities of the liquid jet (10.6 cm s⁻¹) and nebulizer gas $(2.65 \times 10^4 \text{ cm s}^{-1})$ is so large that the drag imposed on the liquid breaks it apart into microdroplets. The terminal velocities reached by these microdroplets are between 10^2 and 10^3 cm s^{-1 27}. The transit times of microdroplets across the ~ 0.5 cm intersection with the ozone plume are 1 ms $< \tau < 10$ ms. It should be emphasized that the pneumatically generated spray from the grounded nozzle injector is comprised of a normal distribution of weakly charged droplets centered at zero charge, as expected from statistical charge separation in the fragmentation of a neutral liquid $jet^{25,26}$. This mechanism naturally discriminates against the production of highly charged droplets. Charged droplets of either sign can be electrostatically extracted into the mass spectrometer by applying a suitable bias (+/-3-4 kV) at its inlet port.

After leaving the reaction zone, microdroplets rapidly evaporate, leading to sudden volume reduction and concomitant surface charge repulsion. Such droplets become mechanically unstable when Coulombic repulsive forces overtake liquid cohesive forces, casuing the droplets to 'explode' by shedding their interfacial films to produce smaller droplets. This phenomenon repeats itself until nanometer droplets are formed. Ions will be field-ejected from the outer layers of these last-generation nanodroplets²⁸. This

analytical technique therefore reports the composition of the nanodroplets produced from the outer interfacial layers of microdroplets that had reacted with $O_3(g)$. Typical instrumental parameters were as follows: drying gas temperature, 340 °C; nebulizer pressure, 30 PSI; collector capillary voltage, +3.5 kV; fragmentor voltage, 19 V. Further experimental details and results were reported elsewhere^{25,29}.

Ozone was generated by flowing $O_2(g)$ (0.1 L/min, Air Liquid America Co.) through a commercial ozonizer (Ozone Solutions), diluted tenfold with ultrapure $N_2(g)$ (0.9 L/min), and quantified by UV absorption spectrophotometry (HP 8452) [using absorption cross-sections $\sigma(250 \text{ nm}) = 1.1 \text{ x } 10^{-17} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ molecule}^{-1}$, and $\sigma(300 \text{ nm}) = 3.9 \text{ x } 10^{-19} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ molecule}^{-1}$ at 298 K]³⁰ prior to being injected into the chamber. Actual [O₃(g)] in the reaction chamber is about 10 times smaller than the values determined in this manner, due to further dilution by the hot (250° C) N₂ drying gas (10 L/min). Gas flows were regulated by mass flow controllers (MKS). Solutions were prepared with MilliQ water that had been previously purged with ultrapure N₂(g) for at least 30 min to prevent reactant autooxidation. NaI (> 99 %) and Na₂SO₃ (> 98 %) were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich. Solution pH was measured with a calibrated pH meter (VWR, SB21). Molecular formula assignments of S-containing species could be confirmed from the (M+2)/M ratios associated with natural abundance sulfur isotopes: ³⁴S/³²S = 0.044.

Results and Discussion

The typical data obtained from these experiments is shown in Figure 7.1, which displays the mass spectra of aqueous Na₂SO₃ microdroplets in the absence and presence of ozone. Signals at m/z = 61, 81, and 97, which are ascribed to HCO_3^- (from atmospheric CO_2), HSO_3^- , and HSO_4^- (a pervasive byproduct of S(IV) autooxidation), respectively, are observed in the absence of $O_3(g)$ (Figure 7.1, lower panel)³¹. Upon addition of $O_3(g)$,

HSO₄⁻ is significantly enhanced, and new signals appear at m/z = 119 (NaSO₄⁻) and m/z = 261 [Na₃(SO₄)₂⁻] (Figure 7.1, upper panel), indicating extensive S(IV) \rightarrow S(VI) processing. The dependences of HSO₃⁻ and HSO₄⁻ interfacial concentrations on [O₃(g)] in microdroplets that had been exposed to O₃(g) for ~ 1 to 10 ms are shown in Figure 7.2a.

The reactant conversion vs. $[O_3(g)]$ data of Figure 7.2a cannot be analyzed using integrated kinetic equations for constant volume batch reactors, such as those employed in conventional studies, in which concentrations are expressed as explicit functions of time.³² The chemical events probed in present experiments actually occur in a few-nm-thick open films that exchange ionic solutes with the droplets interior and $O_3(g)$ with the gas-phase, in ~ 1 to 10 ms time frames. The analysis of gas-liquid reactions has been conventionally carried out via coupled partial differential equations associated with diffusional transport in homogeneous media separated by sharp boundaries³³. Such methodology may not be appropriate to our films, because diffusional transport applies to large molecular assemblies spread over lengths much longer than mean free paths, and the medium in which transport takes place is no longer homogeneous or isotropic close to the interface, where compositional gradients arise even in the absence of chemical reaction.²⁹ Therefore, the issue of whether our findings correspond to surface or bulk reactive transformations should be decided by an in-depth evaluation of the data rather than by strict compliance with previously established models 33 .

By assuming that the interfacial liquid films are in solubility or collisional equilibrium with $O_3(g)$ (i.e., $[O_3(int)] \propto [O_3(g)]$), we can tentatively treat them as unidimensional flow reactors where reactive losses are offset by reactant inflow from the underlying layers.

$$d[S(IV)]/dt = \{[S(IV)] - [S(IV)]_0\} \tau^{-1} = -k_R [S(IV)]^n [O_3(g)] + \{[S(IV)]_0 - [S(IV)]\}\tau_t^{-1}$$
(7.1)

In eq. 7.1, τ is the average contact time between microdroplets and O₃(g), τ_t is the average time for bulk S(IV) to replenish a partially depleted film, k_R is an effective reaction rate constant, and n is a phenomenological kinetic order that reflects the influence of mass transport over a particular range of experimental conditions^{24,34} Figure 7.2b shows that $\gamma = [HSO_3^-]/[HSO_3^-]_0$ closely follows a single exponential decay to a nonzero limiting value: $\gamma = \gamma_{\infty} + \gamma_0 \exp\{(-\beta [O_3(g)]\}\}$, which is consistent with an interfacial chemical reaction largely unperturbed by S(IV) transport from the droplets core below \sim 500 ppm O_3(g). However, the fact that $\gamma_{\infty}\sim$ 0.1 at \sim 1200 ppm O_3(g) indicates that conversion is ultimately limited by mass transfer. Accordingly, a $[S(IV)]_0$ – $[S(IV)]/[S(IV)]^n$ vs. $k_R[\tau/(1 + \tau \tau_t^{-1})][O_3(g)]$ plot (from eq. 7.1]) is linearized with n = 1.0 ± 0.1 (r² = 0.998) independent of [S(IV)]₀ (Figure 7.2c). A kinetic order n significantly smaller than 1 would have indicated that the interfacial film is competitively replenished by intradroplet transport. The oxidation of I⁻ under similar conditions yields, for example: $n = 0.67 \pm 0.03$ ²⁵ These results are quite reproducible under various experimental conditions, although we have no direct control of the droplet size distribution.

Figure 7.3 shows the mass spectra of NaI/Na₂SO₃ microdroplets in the absence (Figure 7.3, lower panel) and presence (Figure 7.3, upper panel) of O₃(g). The m/z = 175 and 381 product signals correspond to IO_3^- and I_3^- , whereas the dominant m/z = 207 signal is assigned to the ISO_3^- intermediate. HSO_4^- , IO_3^- , and ISO_3^- signal intensities monotonically increase at higher [O₃(g)] (Figure 7.4). In contrast, I_3^- displays a broad

maximum at ~80 ppm $O_3(g)$. These processes likely proceed via the set of reactions shown in Table 7.1. The fact that I_3^- signals peak and then decline with $[O_3(g)]$, while $IO_3^$ signals keep increasing, follows from Γ and O_3 competition for the HOI precursor, eqs. 7.1, 7.10, and 7.11 in Table 7.1 (Scheme 7.1). We found that Γ signals are larger than those of HSO₃⁻ in an equimolar NaI/Na₂SO₃ solution, and also larger than in a NaI solution of the same concentration. In other words, Γ competes favorably with HSO₃⁻ for the air/water interface, even at sub-millimolar bulk concentrations and in the absence of $O_3(g)$. Thus, Γ is enriched near the air-water interface proper, while HSO₃⁻ lies behind in the deeper layers under stationary conditions. The differential affinity of the various anions for the interfacial region is a phenomenon that has not been taken into account in previous work on gas-liquid reactions.

Considering that S(IV) mixtures at pH 6.6 (which consist of 0.7 HSO₃⁻⁺ 0.3 SO₃²⁻) react with a composite second-order rate constant: $k^{II}[S(IV) + O_3] \sim 4 \times 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$, that is ~ 3 times smaller than $k^{II}(\Gamma + O_3) = 1.2 \times 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ in bulk solution, the fact that Γ is oxidized to IO₃⁻, I₃⁻, and ISO₃⁻ without apparent loss of interfacial Γ is an unexpected result (Figure 7.4b). The IO₃⁻ and I₃⁻ yields: Y(X) = [S(X⁻) f_x⁻¹]/[S(\Gamma)_0 - S(\Gamma)], measured in NaI/Na₂SO₃ solutions at [O₃(g)] = 210 ppm, [NaI] = 10 µM, are also anomalous because they increase with [Na₂SO₃], eventually exceeding unity (Figure 7.5). S(X)s are ESMS signal intensities, and f_x s the relative response factors ($f_{IO_3^-} = S(IO_3^-)/S(\Gamma) = 0.80$, and $f_{I_3^-} = S(I_3^-)/S(\Gamma) = 0.76$) determined under present experimental conditions.

It is apparent that the interfacial layers are efficiently replenished with I^{-} from the droplet's core during reaction with $O_3(g)$, and that this process is enhanced in the presence of S(IV). This phenomenon arises from interfacial anion fractionation. As O_3

penetrates the droplets, it largely reacts with Γ first, but increasingly so with HSO₃⁻ further inside, thereby minimizing Γ depletion from the underlying region that eventually resupplies the outermost layers. [S(IV)] × [Γ] also peaks in this region, maximizing ISO₃⁻ production, whose hydrolysis, eq. 7.6, regenerates Γ and contributes to buffering interfacial Γ concentrations (Scheme 7.1). The ISO₃⁻ intermediate may derive from I₂/I₃⁻ via reactions R2-R5^{35,36,37,38}, but more likely from HOI via eq. 7.12. The fact that ISO₃⁻ signals are ~ 20 times more intense than those of IO₃⁻ and I₃⁻ under most conditions supports the efficient scavenging of HOI, the initial precursor of IO₃⁻ and I₃⁻ by S(IV), reactions R10–R12.

In summary, we have shown that it is possible to monitor fast reactions in the interfacial layers of aqueous microdroplets during exposure to a reactive gas by mass spectrometry. The larger propensity of Γ vs. HSO₃⁻ for the air-water interface influences their reactions with O₃(g) via a combination of physical and chemical processes. Mutually inert solutes can compete for reactive gases in ways that are beginning to be understood.

Figures

Figure 7.1. ESI-MS of aqueous Na₂SO₃ droplets and gaseous O₃ reaction products. 0.1 mM Na₂SO₃(aq) solutions at pH 6.8 in the presence of 670 ppm O₃(g) (–), and in the absence of O₃(g) (–)



Figure 7.2. HSO_3^- and HSO_4^- absolute and relative ESI-MS signals vs. $[O_{3(g)}]$. A) Mass spectral signal intensities: $HSO_3^-(\bullet)$, $HSO_4^-(\circ)$ versus $[O_3(g)]$ in microdroplets produced by spraying 0.1 mM Na₂SO₃ aqueous solutions at pH 6.8. B) Single exponential plot of HSO_3^- losses. C) Linearized kinetic plot of HSO_3^- losses



A

B

С

Figure 7.3. ESI-MS of aqueous Na₂SO₃-NaI droplets and gaseous O₃ reaction products. (0.1 mM Na₂SO₃ + 0.1 mM NaI) aqueous solutions at pH 6.6 in the presence of 50 ppm $O_3(g)$ (–), and in the absence of $O_3(g)$ (–). See also Figure 7.1 for further spectral assignments



Figure 7.4. A) Mass spectral intensities of $HSO_3^-(\circ)$, $HSO_4^-(\bullet)$. B) $\Gamma^-(\Box)$, $IO_3^-(\times 10, \Delta)$, $I_3^-(\times 10, \mathbf{\nabla})$. C) $ISO_3^-(\bullet)$ signals vs. $[O_3(g)]$ in microdroplets produced by spraying (0.1 mM Na₂SO₃ + 0.01 mM NaI) aqueous solutions at pH 6.6



A

B

С

203

Figure 7.5. IO_3^- and I_3^- iodide-normalized yields vs. $[Na_2SO_3]$. IO_3^- (Δ) and I_3^- (∇) yields based on interfacial I⁻ losses (see text for definition of yield) vs. $[Na_2SO_3]$ in microdroplets produced by spraying ($Na_2SO_3 + 0.01$ mM NaI) aqueous solutions at pH 6.6 in 210 ppm O₃(g)



Schemes

Scheme 7.1. Catalytic cycle for iodide-mediated ozone oxidation of sulfite



Tables

eq#	Reaction	Rate, equilibrium constants in M, s units	Ref.
7.1	$I_2 + I^- \stackrel{\longrightarrow}{\leftarrow} I_3^-$	721 M ⁻¹	39
7.2	$I_2 + SO_3^2 \rightarrow ISO_3^2 + I^2$	$3.1 \times 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$	35
7.3	$I_3^- + SO_3^{2-} \rightarrow ISO_3^- + 2I^-$	$2.9 \times 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$	35
7.4	$I_2 + HSO_3^- \rightarrow I^- + ISO_3^- + H^+$	$1.7 \times 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$	35
7.5	$I_3^- + HSO_3^- \rightarrow 2I^- + ISO_3^- + H^+$	$1.5 \times 10^7 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$	35
7.6	$\mathrm{ISO_3}^-\!\!+\mathrm{H_2O} \longrightarrow \mathrm{I}^-\!+\mathrm{SO_4}^{2-}\!+\mathrm{2H^+}$	298 s ⁻¹	35
7.7	$\mathrm{SO_3}^{2-} + \mathrm{O_3} \rightarrow \mathrm{SO_4}^{2-} + \mathrm{O_2}$	$1.5 \times 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$	9
7.8	$\mathrm{HSO}_3^- + \mathrm{O}_3 \rightarrow \mathrm{HSO}_4^- + \mathrm{O}_2$	$3.7 \times 10^5 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$	9
7.9	$\Gamma + O_3 + H^+ \longrightarrow HOI + O_2$	$1.2 \times 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$	40
7.10	$HOI + 2O_3 \rightarrow IO_3^- + 2O_2 + H^+$	$3.6 \times 10^4 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$	41
7.11	$\mathrm{HOI} + \mathrm{I}^{-} + \mathrm{H}^{+} \rightarrow \mathrm{I}_{2} + \mathrm{H}_{2}\mathrm{O}$	$4.4 \times 10^{12} \text{ M}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$	42
7.12	$\mathrm{HOI} + \mathrm{SO_3}^{2\text{-}} + \mathrm{H}^+ \rightarrow \mathrm{ISO_3}^{\text{-}} + \mathrm{H_2O}$	N/A	N/A

Table 7.1. Kinetic data for $Na_2SO_3\text{-}NaI_{(aq)}$ and $O_{3(g)}$ reactions at 298 K

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