

Significantly Accelerated Hydroxyl Radical Generation by Fe(III)–Oxalate Photochemistry in Aerosol Droplets

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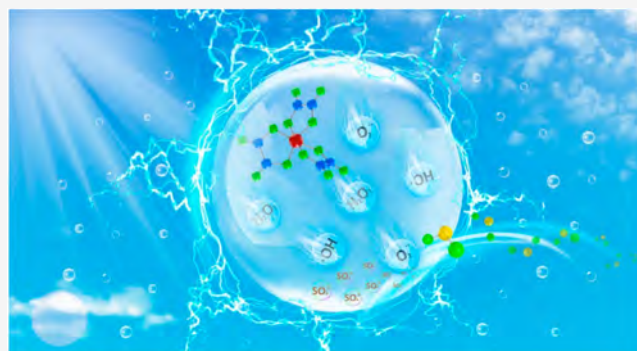


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ABSTRACT: Fe(III)–oxalate complexes are ubiquitous in atmospheric environments, which can release reactive oxygen species (ROS) such as H₂O₂, O^{•2-}, and OH[•] under light irradiation. Although Fe(III)–oxalate photochemistry has been investigated extensively, the understanding of its involvement in authentic atmospheric environments such as aerosol droplets is far from enough, since the current available knowledge has mainly been obtained in bulk-phase studies. Here, we find that the production of OH[•] by Fe(III)–oxalate in aerosol microdroplets is about 10-fold greater than that of its bulk-phase counterpart. In addition, in the presence of Fe(III)–oxalate complexes, the rate of photo-oxidation from SO₂ to sulfate in microdroplets was about 19-fold faster than that in the bulk phase. The availability of efficient reactants and mass transfer due to droplet effects made dominant contributions to the accelerated OH[•] and SO₄²⁻ formation. This work highlights the necessary consideration of droplet effects in atmospheric laboratory studies and model simulations.

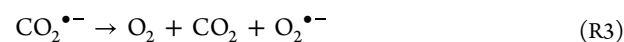
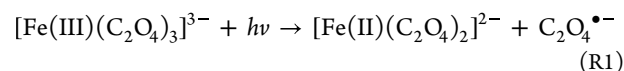


1. INTRODUCTION

Atmospheric aerosols play a crucial role in affecting global climate by absorbing sunlight and modifying cloud characteristics.^{1,2} Nevertheless, an evident gap between ground-based observations and numerical modeling still remains.^{3–5} For instance, the oxidation of volatile organic compounds (VOCs) is one of the major contributors to the amount of secondary organic aerosols (SOAs) in the atmosphere, but great prediction uncertainties for the two constituents are inevitable due to unknown atmospheric processes, e.g. a different aging process where VOCs are transformed to SOA in the presence of oxidants. This hinders a precise evaluation of the response of climate change to the aerosol constituents.^{6,7} As a consequence, further exploration of the missing reaction channel of great oxidation potential is essentially important to improve the accuracy of modeling predictions of climate change.

Iron is one of the most abundant transition metals in nature and can strongly combine with organic ligands to form complexes.⁸ Oxalic acid and the corresponding salts are the most common dicarboxylic acids in the troposphere.⁹ Over the past few decades, Fe(III)–oxalate complexes have been widely studied as representatives of Fe(III)–dicarboxylate complexes.^{10,11} The Fe(III)–oxalate chelates can undergo photo-

Fenton reactions in aquatic and atmospheric environments. As shown in chemical reactions R1–R6, the ligand-to-metal charge transfer and redox cycle of Fe(II)/Fe(III) can lead to the formation of reactive oxygen species (ROS) such as H₂O₂, O₂^{•-}, and OH[•],^{12–14} which are of great significance for various atmospheric chemistry processes in both the aqueous phase and aerosol particles.¹⁵ Therefore, the atmospheric photo-reactions of Fe(III)–oxalate complexes deserve a great deal of attention.¹⁶



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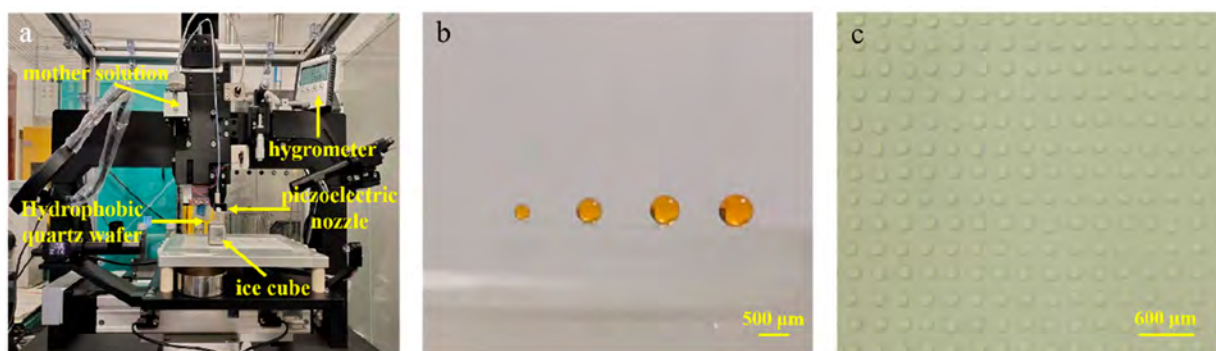
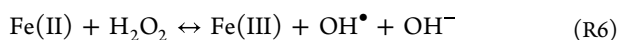


Figure 1. Setup for aerosol microdroplet generation. (a) Photo of the inkjet printer for microdroplet generation. (b) Profile photo of the printed microdroplets with different sizes. (c) Micrograph of the printed microdroplet array with a uniform diameter.



At present, the reaction mechanisms and atmospheric environmental implications of Fe(III)–oxalate photochemistry have been investigated extensively; however, most of the studies were performed in bulk solution.^{17–19} Noticeably, the authentic atmospheric reactions generally occurred in micrometer-sized compartments (e.g., aerosols, cloud and fog droplets), with sizes ranging from nanometers to hundreds of micrometers.²⁰ Inspired by nature, microdroplet chemistry has attracted substantial attention in recent years. Microdroplets have a remarkably different reaction environment and exhibit distinct physicochemical characteristics in comparison with their traditional bulk-phase counterpart.^{21,22} It has been demonstrated that the chemical reactions in microdroplets could be dramatically accelerated compared to the same reactions in bulk solution.²³ Moreover, some thermodynamically unfavorable reactions can spontaneously occur in microdroplets without any external additives, such as H₂O₂ production,^{24,25} the reduction of organics,²⁶ and ribonucleoside synthesis.^{27,28}

Nevertheless, the photochemical reactions of Fe(III)–oxalate complexes in aerosol microdroplets have rarely been studied. In our previous work, we found that the photochemical oxidation of organic dyes was accelerated in an Fe(III)–oxalate microdroplet.²⁹ However, the production of OH[•] and potential impacts on trace gas conversion in atmospheric aerosol droplets are not well-known. Wang et al. found that the photolysis rate of Fe(III)–oxalate in a droplet was almost two orders of magnitude faster than that in the bulk, which was ascribed to the intensified Fe(III)–oxalate photochemistry at the water–air interface of the droplet.³⁰ In addition, Thomas and co-workers investigated the Fe(III)–oxalate-mediated oxidation of glycolaldehyde in microliter droplets utilizing field-induced droplet ionization mass spectrometry (FIDI-MS) and found that the photodissociation of Fe(III)–oxalate can lead to the formation of volatile oxidation products in tropospheric aqueous aerosols.³¹ Even though the photoreaction of Fe(III)–oxalate in atmospheric aerosols is not fully understood, its contribution to oxidation potential in the atmosphere might be underestimated.

Herein, the production of OH[•] by Fe(III)–oxalate photochemistry in aerosol droplets under typical atmospheric environments was investigated and compared with that in the conventional bulk-phase reaction. The hydroxyl radical (OH[•]), with its strong oxidation capability, could significantly

influence atmospheric chemistry processes such as the oxidation of organics, the transformation of trace gases, and even global climate change. The effects of the light irradiation intensity, the solution pH, the reactant concentration, and the aerosol droplet size are discussed in detail. Different from previous reports, an inkjet printer is employed to generate aerosol droplets with the desired size, which enables us to better study the size effects of aerosol microdroplets on atmospheric chemistry. Furthermore, SO₂ oxidation to ambient sulfate formation in the presence of Fe(III)–oxalate complexes in microdroplets was also studied. The experimental results show that OH[•] generation and S(IV) oxidation in aerosol microdroplets were accelerated by dozens of times as compared to their bulk-solution counterparts. Potential reasons behind photoreaction acceleration in aerosol droplets were related to O₂ availability and the droplet effect. This work will provide a deep understanding and highlight the significance of aerosol microdroplets on atmospheric photochemistry.

2. EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

2.1. Microdroplet Generation and Photochemical Reactions. A typical Fe(III)–oxalate solution containing 500 μM FeCl₃ and 3.5 mM Na₂C₂O₄ was prepared for photochemical experiments. The ionic strength of this Fe(III)–oxalate solution was $8.25 \times 10^{-3} \text{ mol kg}^{-1}$, which was calculated using eq 1, where c_i is the molality of ion i (mol kg⁻¹) and Z_i is the charge of the ion.

$$I = \frac{1}{2}(c_1Z_1^2 + c_2Z_2^2 + c_3Z_3^2 + \dots) = \frac{1}{2}\sum c_iZ_i^2 \quad (1)$$

To quantitatively determine the OH[•] concentration, 10 mM benzoic acid (BA) was added as a quencher of OH[•].^{32,33} Here, 1, 2 and 3 mM NaCl was first added into the Fe(III)–oxalate solution to eliminate the influence of Cl⁻ on OH[•] production, as shown in Figure S1. There was almost no obvious variation of OH[•] production in the presence of different NaCl concentrations, which suggested that the competition for OH[•] between Cl⁻ and BA might be insignificant and that Cl⁻ did not cause interference in the OH[•] determination. The initial solution pH was adjusted to 3.5 using 0.1 M HCl and 0.1 M NaOH. Both bulk-phase and microdroplet experiments were conducted to investigate the production of OH[•] by Fe(III)–oxalate photochemistry. For the microdroplet photo-reaction, a custom-designed reactor (as shown in Figure S2) was used to provide an enclosed high-humidity environment. Hundreds of microdroplets (around 200–300) with diameters

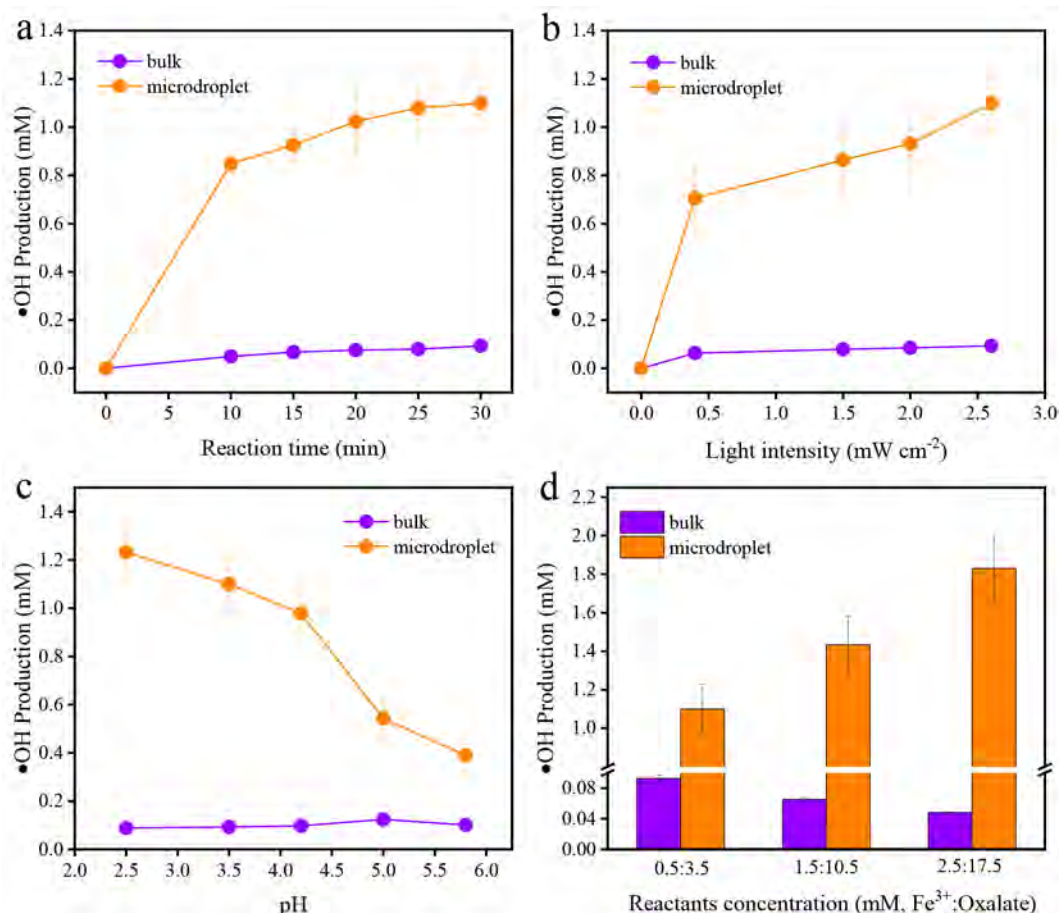


Figure 2. Hydroxyl radical generation by Fe(III)–oxalate complex photolysis in aerosol microdroplets and the bulk phase. (a) Influence of the light irradiation time. (b) Impact of the light irradiation intensity. (c) Effect of the solution pH. (d) Influence of the Fe(III)–oxalate concentration. Experimental conditions are as follows: [Fe(III)] = 500 μM , [oxalate] = 3.5 mM, pH 3.5, and reaction time of 30 min.

(Φ) mainly ranging from 100 to 500 μm (average diameter of 260 μm) were generated using a nebulizer and collected on a superhydrophobic quartz wafer (water contact angle of $144 \pm 2^\circ$, see Figure S3). The water evaporation of the microdroplets is negligible during the reaction period, as shown in Figure S4, benefiting from our maintenance of high relative humidity (RH $\sim 93\%$) and room temperature in the reaction chamber. The bulk-phase reaction was performed in a miniature beaker with 10 mL of a Fe(III)–oxalate solution (thickness, ~ 60 mm). The temperature during the photoreaction was kept at $25 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$ by an electric fan. After light irradiation (365 nm UV lamp, ~ 2.6 mW cm^{-2}), the microdroplets were collected with a coverslip.³⁴ Then, a specific amount of the collected solution was taken by a pipet, diluted quantitatively using 0.1 M HCl, and filtered through a 0.22 μm PTFE membrane filter for further analyses. All the chemicals used are listed in section S1.

To study the effects of microdroplet size on the production of OH•, an array of microdroplets with a specific size was generated by an inkjet printing device (supplied by jetlab II, MicroFab) consisting of four modules: a piezoelectric nozzle with diameter of 40 μm , a high-speed drop-watch camera system, a three-axis movement platform, and a pressure control system connected to the air compression pump (as shown in Figure 1a). A succession of two sine pulses (consecutively positive/negative) was chosen as the bipolar control waveform for microdroplet printing with a voltage of 28 V, a period time of 96 μs , and a printing frequency of 300 Hz. The distance

between the nozzle and the hydrophobic substrate was ~ 1.5 mm. Noticeably, a stainless-steel ice cube was placed under the hydrophobic substrate to inhibit the volatilization of microdroplets during printing. Figure 1b shows the microdroplets with different sizes generated by the inkjet printing device on a superhydrophobic quartz wafer. It is worth noting that hardly any OH• was generated in the freshly printed microdroplets from the solution containing Fe(III)–oxalate or without light irradiation, which might be because that the microdroplet size was comparatively large in comparison with the previous study.³⁵ The results indicate that the detected OH• in the study was produced from Fe(III)–oxalate photolysis.

2.2. Oxidation of SO₂ by Fe(III)–Oxalate Photochemistry. Furthermore, SO₂ oxidation by Fe(III)–oxalate complexes in microdroplets was conducted to show the effects of aerosol microdroplet on atmospheric chemistry following the procedures for OH• production investigation, and the bulk-phase experiment was performed in a quartz reactor with gas inlet and outlet. The gas flow rate and SO₂ concentration (100 and 1 ppm, respectively) were controlled by employing mass flow controllers. The high-humidity air was obtained by passing fresh air through a bottle filled with ultrapure water. For the bulk-phase reaction carried out under magnetic stirring, the mixed gases were first bubbled into the solution for 15 min prior to light irradiation and then continuously purged during the photoreactions. For the microdroplet system, the mixed gases with a high RH that contained SO₂

and air were purged into the headspace of a custom-designed reactor for 15 min, then purging was stopped and the reactor was sealed before light irradiation. The experimental setups for sulfate formation in microdroplets and the bulk solution are shown in Figure S5. In addition, the control experiments were conducted under dark conditions. The samples were withdrawn at given time interval, and 1.5 mL of 5 vol % isopropanol (IPA) was used to prevent further oxidation of S(IV). Then, the sample was filtered through a 0.22 μm PTFE membrane filter for ion chromatographic identification.

2.3. Stimulated Raman Spectroscopy Measurements. SRS measurements were conducted in a homemade environmental chamber consisting of two coverslips (thickness of 0.14–0.17 mm) and a slide with a central perforation (thickness of \sim 0.5 mm, hole diameter of 15 mm). The microdroplets generated from the Fe(III)–oxalate solution (concentrations of 0.1 M FeCl₃ and 0.5 M Na₂C₂O₄) were sprayed on a superhydrophobic quartz wafer using a nebulizer, then the microdroplets were sealed in the homemade chamber. We performed SRS spectroscopic characterization for microdroplets after 10 min of stabilization. The detailed steps of SRS measurements are shown in section S2.

2.4. Analytical Methods. The oxidation of benzoic acid (BA) to *p*-hydroxybenzoic acid (*p*-HBA) was used as a probe reaction to quantify OH \cdot production. The *p*-HBA concentration was measured by high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC, LC-10AD) on a system equipped with an SPD-15C UV–vis detector and a WondaCract ODS-2 chromatographic column (250 mm \times 4.6 mm \times 5 μm). The mobile phase was a mixture of acetonitrile and 0.1 vol % H₃PO₄ (40:60 v/v) at a flow rate of 1 mL min⁻¹, and the detection wavelength was 256 nm. The calculation equation for the cumulative OH \cdot concentration ([OH \cdot]) is shown in eq 2,³² where [*p*-HBA] is the concentration of the detected *p*-HBA. The conversion factor (5.87) was obtained by intercalibration with the methanol probe using a pure OH \cdot source (H₂O₂) and is in excellent agreement with *G* value data (\sim 6) for products formed from the reaction of benzoic acid with OH \cdot .³⁶ The calibration curve was established using standard samples with gradient concentrations (Figure S6).

$$[\text{OH}\cdot] = [p\text{-HBA}] \times 5.87 \quad (2)$$

The concentration of sulfate ions generated from SO₂ oxidation was detected using a Metrohm 883 Basic ion chromatograph. A weak-base eluent (3.2 mM Na₂CO₃ and 1.0 mM NaHCO₃) was used for analysis at a flow rate of 0.70 mL min⁻¹.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1. Hydroxyl Radical Production by Fe(III)–Oxalate Photochemistry in Aerosol Microdroplets and the Bulk Phase. OH \cdot plays a significant role in atmospheric oxidation processes and has direct and indirect effects on atmospheric chemistry and the global climate; therefore, OH \cdot generation from photo-Fenton processes in atmospheric water droplets is of great significance. With this consideration in mind, we used the ubiquitous Fe(III)–oxalate chelates with noteworthy photoactivities in the atmospheric aqueous phase to investigate OH \cdot production. Figure 2a shows the variation trend in the concentration of OH \cdot produced by Fe(III)–oxalate complexes photolysis as a function of the irradiation time. Figure S7 shows the enlarged versions of OH \cdot production in the bulk phase to give a clearer description. It is clear that the OH \cdot

production in both microdroplets and the bulk phase increased with time. Meanwhile, the yield of OH \cdot in the microdroplets was about dozens of times higher than that in the bulk phase, indicating that the aerosol droplet environment can significantly accelerate OH \cdot production from the photolysis of Fe(III)–oxalate complexes. Notably, the concentration of OH \cdot in the microdroplets sharply reached 0.82 mM within first 10 min of irradiation and then slowly increased to 1.01 mM within another 20 min of reaction. The lower OH \cdot production rates might be because the fast photo-Fenton reactions of Fe(III)–oxalate complexes in microdroplets resulted in the rapid consumption of H⁺ and an increase in the pH, which would hinder the further photoreaction (discussed in detail below). In contrast, OH \cdot production in the bulk phase gradually increased to only 0.09 mM at the end of the reaction with an almost constant rate, which might be because the reaction rate in the bulk phase was sluggish and the H⁺ concentration was sufficient during the entire reaction process. The results further suggest that the photochemistry of Fe(III)–oxalate chelates can be promoted in aerosol droplets compared to their conventional bulk-phase counterpart.

The solar radiation intensity is affected by season, time of day, weather conditions, and geographic position, which would inevitably influence the efficiency of atmospheric photochemistry processes.³⁷ Therefore, the effects of the light illumination intensity on OH \cdot generation were further investigated. As shown in Figure 2b, the concentration of OH \cdot in the microdroplets reached 0.71 mM at a light intensity of 0.4 mW cm⁻² and then continuously increased to 1.01 mM as the power density increased to 2.6 mW cm⁻². In sharp contrast, in the bulk-phase reaction, the concentration of OH \cdot first increased to 0.09 mM (0.4 mW cm⁻²) and then almost leveled off as the light intensity increased, which might be because of the low O₂ accessibility and competition reactions in the bulk-phase system.^{38,39} Under the same illumination intensity, the production of OH \cdot in microdroplets was one order of magnitude higher than that in the bulk phase, which showed that the Fe(III)–oxalate complexes in microdroplets could generate OH \cdot more efficiently.

Aerosols, fogs, and cloud droplets throughout the atmosphere have been observed to exhibit pH values in the range of 2–6,⁴⁰ which would influence the atmospheric chemistry processes. Therefore, in this work, we adjusted the solution pH to investigate the related effects on OH \cdot production by Fe(III)–oxalate photochemistry in both the bulk phase and microdroplets. As shown in Figure 2c, the OH \cdot production in microdroplets decreased as the pH value increased but which was obviously higher than that in the bulk phase. Thus, the photo-oxidation ability of Fe(III)–oxalate complexes in atmospheric droplets was underestimated in most of the previous studies. The variation trend of OH \cdot production in the bulk phase was first upward and then downward as the pH changed from 2.8 to 5.8. The disproportionation of HO₂ \cdot and O₂ \cdot^- for OH \cdot production is strongly pH-dependent.⁴¹ At low pH, HO₂ \cdot is the dominant species and can react with Fe(II) to form H₂O₂ for OH \cdot production, which is two orders of magnitude faster than the reaction with Fe(III) to produce O₂ (reactions R7 and R8). Under alkaline conditions, the concentration of O₂ \cdot^- increases and the production of H₂O₂ through the O₂ \cdot^- + Fe(II) reaction is much slower than the reaction of O₂ \cdot^- with Fe(III) to yield O₂ (reactions R9 and R10). Therefore, the higher pH is unfavorable for OH \cdot generation. In addition, the fraction of Fe(III)–oxalate

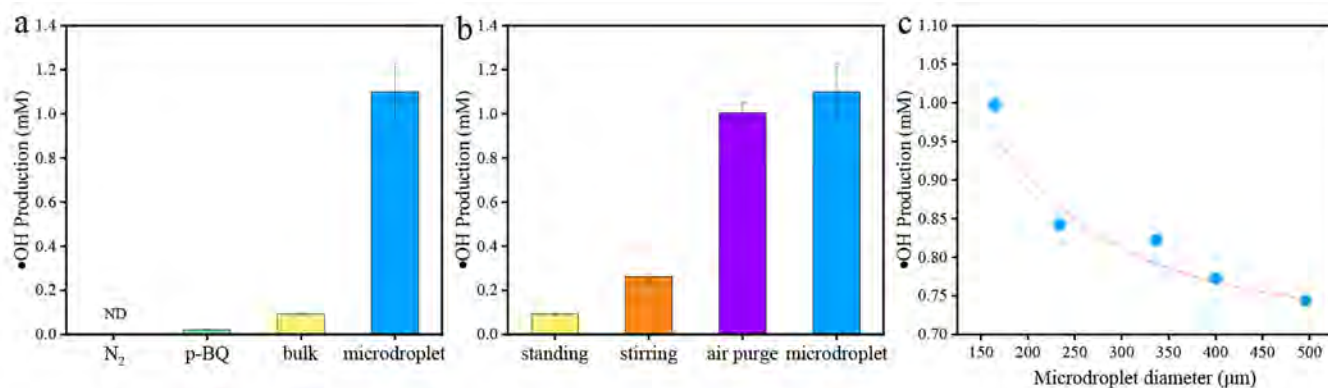
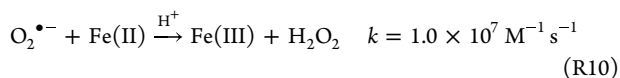
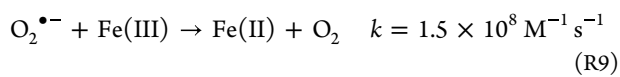
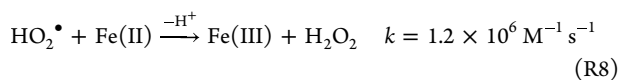
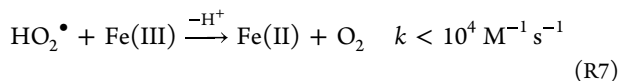


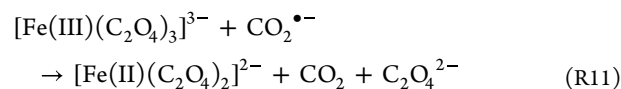
Figure 3. The role of O₂ availability in accelerated hydroxyl radical production. (a) OH• production by Fe(III)–oxalate photochemistry in aerosol microdroplets and the bulk phase with the addition of an O₂•⁻ scavenger and under a N₂ atmosphere. (b) OH• production by Fe(III)–oxalate complexes in the bulk phase under different reaction conditions. (c) Concentrations of OH• in aerosol microdroplets with different sizes. Experimental conditions are as follows: [Fe(III)] = 500 μM, [oxalate] = 3.5 mM, pH 3.5, reaction time of 30 min, [p-BQ] = 10 mM, and agitator speed of 350 rpm min⁻¹.

complexes decreases remarkably as the pH increases, which would also inhibit the generation of OH•.⁴¹ On another hand, as discussed above, the faster photoreactions in microdroplets could result in the rapid consumption of H⁺ and increase the pH (reaction R4). In consequence, the OH• production showed an apparent declining trend in the microdroplets with the increase in the pH and the reaction time. However, the H⁺ consumption and pH change in the bulk solution were sluggish as the photoreaction proceeded, leading to the observation of a volcanic plot. Thus, the Fe(III)–oxalate photochemistry for OH• production would be gradually inhibited by an increase in the pH in an atmospheric environment.



Furthermore, the influence of the concentration of Fe(III)–oxalate reactants with the same ratio on OH• production was explored. As shown in Figure 2d, when the concentration of Fe(III)–oxalate chelates increased fivefold, the yield of OH• in the microdroplet increased from 1.01 to 1.95 mM. However, in the bulk phase, the yield showed an opposite variation trend, namely, the OH• production decreased from 0.09 to 0.05 mM. The diametrically different variation trend may be due to the fact that in bulk phase CO₂•⁻ mainly interacted with dissolved O₂ at low concentrations of Fe(III)–oxalate complexes, leading to the formation of OH•, whereas at high concentrations of Fe(III)–oxalate CO₂•⁻ would mainly react with Fe(III)–oxalate complexes to form Fe(II) and CO₂ (reaction R11) due to the absence of abundant O₂.⁴² However, in microdroplets, the photolysis rate of the Fe(III)–oxalate chelates is fast and the O₂ availability is highly efficient, so the competitive reaction between Fe(III)–oxalate and dissolved O₂ for CO₂•⁻ may not occur even if the concentration of Fe(III)–oxalate chelates is high, which promotes the

generation of OH• as the concentration of the reactions increases. The experimental results show that the generation of OH• in aerosol microdroplets is not limited by the concentration of Fe(III)–oxalate, showing the distinctiveness of the atmospheric microdroplet environment. Overall, the difference in OH• production in the microdroplet and the bulk phase further highlights the importance of research in aerosol droplets to fill our knowledge gap in atmospheric photochemistry.



3.2. Mechanistic Study for Accelerated OH• Production. The mechanisms of OH• production by Fe(III)–oxalate complex photochemistry were studied through radical quenching experiments. To the reaction mixture was added 10 mM *p*-benzoquinone (*p*-BQ) as an O₂•⁻ quencher. As shown in Figure 3a, almost no OH• was generated in either the microdroplets or the bulk-phase systems, indicating that O₂•⁻ is distinctly important to the production of OH• (reactions R4–R6). Furthermore, the photoreaction of Fe(III)–oxalate complexes in microdroplets and the bulk phase was carried out under a N₂ atmosphere. Due to the absence of the O₂ supply, no OH• was detected in microdroplets or the bulk phase (Figure 3a). Thus, it is undoubtable that oxygen is essential to OH• formation from the Fe(III)–oxalate photo-Fenton processes.

Herein, we speculated that the accelerated OH• production in microdroplets compared to that in the traditional bulk solution is mainly due to the fact that the microdroplets have large specific surface areas, which are favorable for O₂ accessibility and would provide abundant air–water interfaces with special physicochemical properties. However, for the photoreactions in the bulk solution, the surface area to volume ratio is limited and oxygen mainly exists on the air–water interface. Because of the sluggish diffusivity, it is difficult for O₂ to transfer into the solution, resulting in the incompatibility of the reaction between CO₂•⁻ and O₂ and insufficient OH• production.⁴³ To further verify the superiority of microdroplets for O₂ transfer and availability, OH• production in the bulk phase under magnetic stirring and air purge was conducted for comparison. As shown in Figure 3b, the OH• concentration

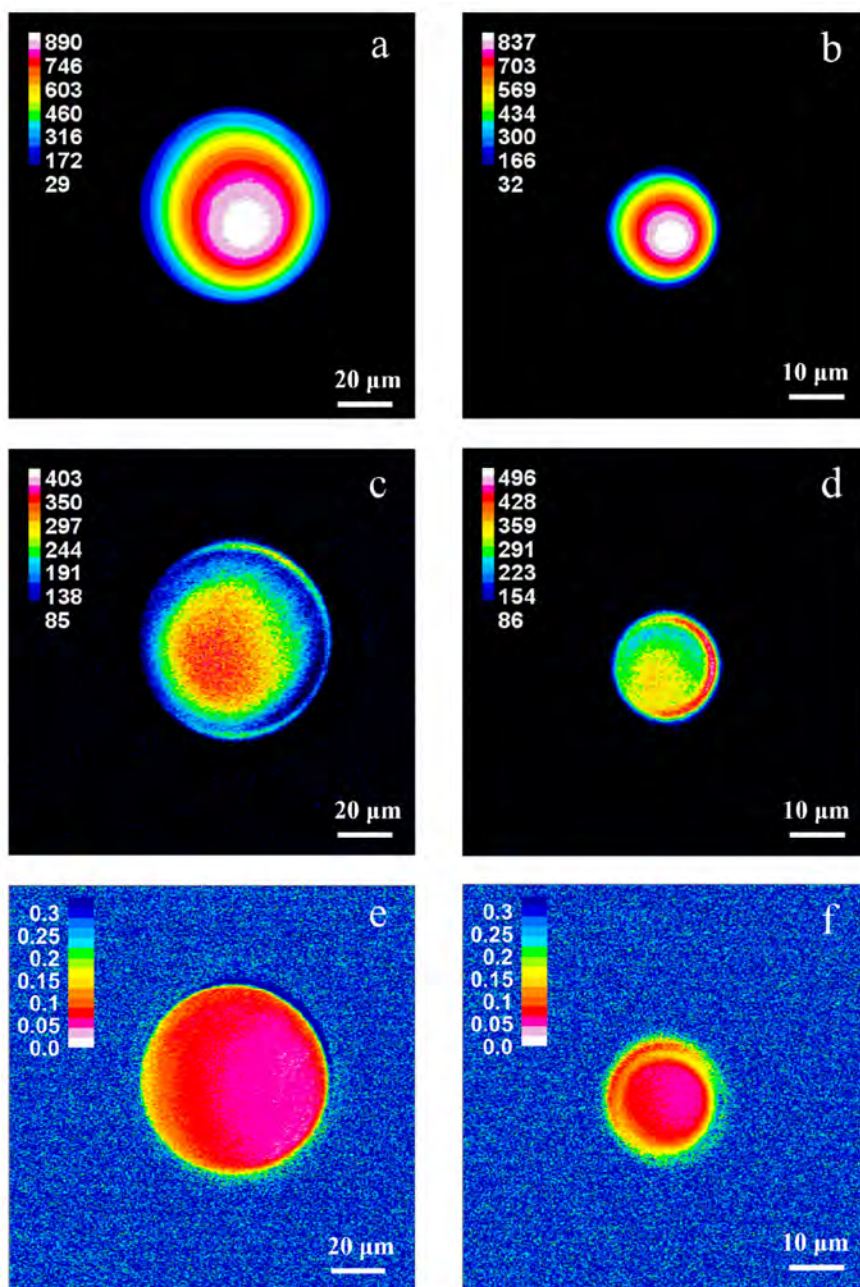


Figure 4. The role of the air–water interface in accelerated hydroxyl radical production. (a and b) Distribution of SRS spectra of $\nu(\text{O–H})$ in microdroplets with diameters of 70 and 20 μm , respectively. (c and d) Distribution of SRS spectra of $\nu(\text{C–C})$ in microdroplets with diameters of 70 and 20 μm , respectively. (e and f) SRS intensity ratios of $\nu(\text{C–C})$ to $\nu(\text{O–H})$ in microdroplets with diameters of 70 and 20 μm , respectively. Experimental conditions are as follows: $[\text{Fe}(\text{III})] = 0.1 \text{ M}$ and $[\text{oxalate}] = 0.5 \text{ M}$.

improved to about 0.25 and 0.97 mM after 30 min of photoreaction under magnetic stirring and air purge, respectively. Even though the OH^\bullet production was increased to some extent by stirring and the air purge, the values were still lower than those of microdroplets, demonstrating the considerable ability of aerosol microdroplets to influence gas-involved atmospheric chemistry processes.

Furthermore, OH^\bullet production in microdroplets with varying sizes was investigated to explore the influence of aerosol sizes on the atmospheric photochemistry. Microdroplet arrays with a uniform diameter were generated on a superhydrophobic quartz wafer, as shown in Figure 1c. The number of microdroplets with a uniform diameter generated by an inkjet

printing device was 625, which corresponded to a 25×25 microdroplet array. As displayed in Figure 3c, as the microdroplet diameter decreased from around 495 to 165 μm , it could be found that the OH^\bullet production improved significantly, especially for the smaller diameter. The size of actual atmospheric water droplets is in the range of 0.01–100 μm ,^{20,44} but here we mainly study the photoreactions in microdroplets with diameters larger than 100 μm due to the limitations of the droplet printing device and the operational difficulties of small microdroplets, such as fast volatilization. In spite of this, it is reasonable to extrapolate that the OH^\bullet production in authentic atmospheric cloud and fog droplets

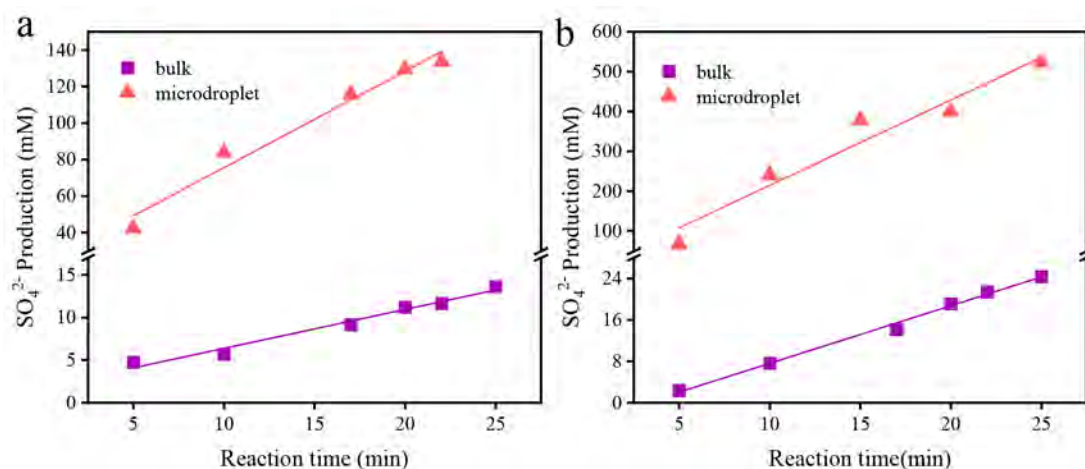


Figure 5. Implication of Fe(III)–oxalate complexes for ambient sulfate formation. (a) Sulfate formation in aerosol microdroplets and the bulk phase under dark conditions. (b) Sulfate formation in microdroplets and the bulk solution under light conditions. Experimental conditions are as follows: $[\text{Fe(III)}] = 500 \mu\text{M}$, $[\text{oxalate}] = 3.5 \text{ mM}$, pH 3.5, and microdroplet size of $400 \mu\text{m}$.

might be more significant because of the smaller size and strengthened droplet physicochemical properties.^{24,45}

It has been found that the rates of a variety of redox reactions that occur in microdroplets are significantly accelerated compared to that in the bulk phase reaction because of the enrichment of the reactant concentration near and at the air–water interface.⁴⁶ Here, the concentration of Fe(III)–oxalate chelates at the microdroplet air–water interface was explored via stimulated Raman scattering (SRS) microscopy. Figure 4a–d present the distribution of the SRS peak intensity of $\nu(\text{O–H})$ and $\nu(\text{C–C})$ in microdroplets ($\Phi = 70$ and $20 \mu\text{m}$). As shown in Figure 4a and b, the SRS peak intensity of $\nu(\text{O–H})$, which is attributed to the O–H bond of a water molecule, weakened from the center to the edge in microdroplet with diameters of 70 and $20 \mu\text{m}$ because the number of detected molecules decreased at the droplet interfacial region.⁴⁷ The same variation trend for $\nu(\text{C–C})$ of oxalate molecules was also observed in a microdroplet with a diameter of $70 \mu\text{m}$ (Figure 4c). However, the surface region in a microdroplet with a diameter of $20 \mu\text{m}$ showed a comparatively high SRS peak intensity of $\nu(\text{C–C})$, probably due to the species concentration increasing at the interface (Figure 4d). Because the spherical shape of the microdroplet could result in the observation of a higher SRS peak intensity at the interface, the internal standard method was adopted to minimize this inference and to qualitatively investigate the species concentration.^{48,49} Additionally, the peak intensity ratio of $\nu(\text{C–C})$ to $\nu(\text{O–H})$ can be regarded as an indicator of the oxalate concentration according to the internal standard method.⁵⁰ Figure 4e and f show that the ratio value of $\nu(\text{C–C})$ to $\nu(\text{O–H})$ in microdroplets was higher near the interfacial region, indicating that the concentration of the oxalate may be enriched at the surface. Previously, Zare et al. reported that concentration enrichment of a molecule generally occurs at the microdroplet surface, as investigated by two-photon fluorescence microscopy, and Allen et al. found significant Fe(III) interfacial enrichment in an aqueous solution using polarized vibrational sum frequency generation (SFG) spectroscopy.^{51,52}

Figure S8 shows the effects of the oxalate/Fe(III) molar ratio on OH^\bullet production. The results indicated that OH^\bullet generation increased with the molar ratio of oxalate/Fe(III), but the enhancement factors between the microdroplet and the bulk

phase were not significantly influenced by the oxalate/Fe(III) molar ratio. Because the interface concentration enrichment probably resulted from the intrinsic species surface propensity and a special microdroplet interfacial physicochemical property, the concentration enrichment observed by SRS measurements with the oxalate/Fe(III) molar ratio of 5 was also similar to that in the presence of an oxalate/Fe(III) molar ratio of 7. More importantly, it has been demonstrated that OH^\bullet production improved in microdroplets as the concentrations of Fe(III)–oxalate chelates increased, indicating that the interfacial concentration enrichment could make contributions to the OH^\bullet production acceleration. Besides, at the microdroplet air–water interface, the accessibility to O_2 is more efficient, and there might be some other special interfacial physicochemical properties such as surface partial solvation and pH alteration, which would also be favorable for the interfacial photochemical reaction and increase OH^\bullet production.^{46,47} Overall, the Fe(III)–oxalate photochemistry in microdroplets shows a significant OH^\bullet production capacity and a strong oxidation potential, which needs much more attention in the research field of atmospheric chemistry.

3.3. SO_2 Oxidation by Fe(III)–oxalate in a Microdroplet. The anthropogenically emitted SO_2 from fossil fuel combustion and industrial facilities is one of the major atmospheric pollutants.⁵³ SO_2 oxidation in aerosol particles and fog and cloud droplets plays an important role in atmospheric sulfate formation and has a vital impact on acid rain precipitation, haze pollution, human health, and global climate change. SO_2 can be oxidized to sulfate by strong oxidants such as OH^\bullet , $\text{O}_2^{\bullet-}$, dissolved H_2O_2 , O_3 , and transition-metal ions (TMIs).^{54,55} However, most air-quality models currently underestimate the sulfate concentration compared to field observations, which may be because the simulations parameters were obtained from bulk-phase experiments rather than the atmospheric microdroplets.^{56,57} Therefore, an understanding of SO_2 conversion in aerosol microdroplets probably can improve the accuracy of model simulations. Oxalate is abundant in atmospheric water droplets and may influence SO_2 oxidation by complexing dissolved iron species.⁵⁸ Herein, the effects of Fe(III)–oxalate photochemistry on sulfate formation were studied in microdroplets and compared with the bulk-phase reaction under both light

irradiation and dark conditions to verify the necessity considering atmospheric water droplets in atmospheric chemistry process.

As shown in Figure 5, the SO₂ oxidation in microdroplets presented the significantly faster sulfate formation rates than the bulk phase in the presence or absence of light irradiation. Meanwhile, light irradiation promoted SO₂ oxidation. Under dark conditions, the sulfate formation rate in the microdroplet is 11.6× faster than that in the bulk-phase reaction (5.29 mM min⁻¹ vs 0.46 mM min⁻¹), while under light irradiation the rate of the microdroplet reaction was 19.1-fold greater than that of the bulk solution (21.41 mM min⁻¹ vs 1.11 mM min⁻¹). Furthermore, to better simulate the actual atmospheric environment, the oxidation of a low concentration of 1 ppm SO₂ by Fe(III)–oxalate photochemistry was also studied. As presented in Figure S9, the sulfate production in microdroplets is remarkably higher than that in the bulk phase (120.09 mM vs 2.48 mM), confirming that the SO₂ photooxidation acceleration in aerosol droplets also occurs at low concentrations of SO₂. The dominant sulfate formation mechanisms as presented below (Figure 6).

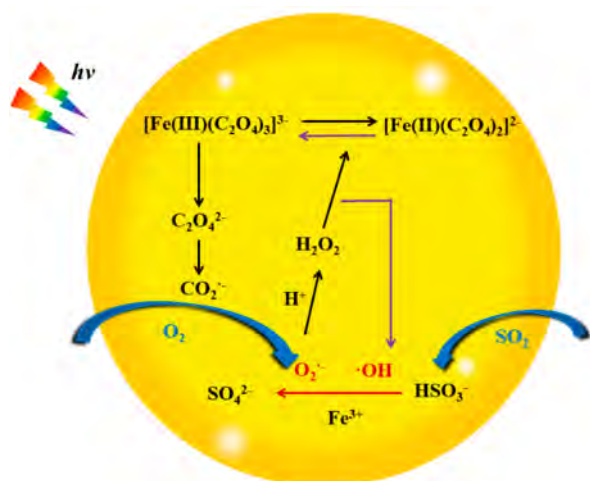
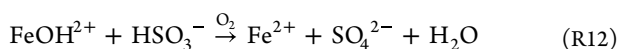
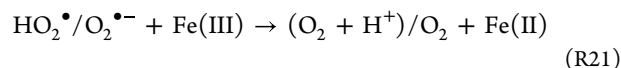
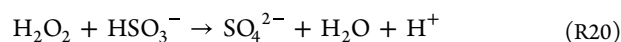
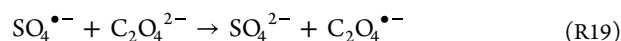
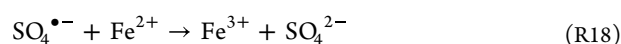
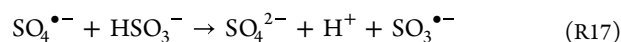
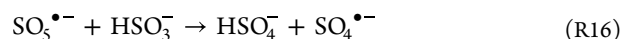
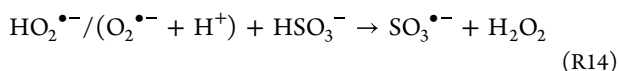
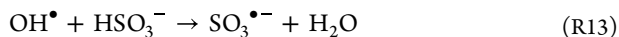


Figure 6. Reaction mechanism of sulfate formation by the photolysis of Fe(III)–oxalate complexes in aerosol microdroplets.

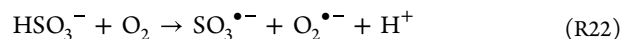
Dissolved Fe(III) in aqueous acidic solutions may appear in the form of Fe(III)–oxalate complexes and Fe(III)–hydroxo complexes. Under dark conditions, FeOH²⁺ could participate in S(IV) oxidation (reaction R12).⁵⁹



Under light irradiation, Fe(III)–oxalate could generate and release reactive oxygen species (ROS) such as H₂O₂, O₂^{•-}, and OH[•] (reactions R1–R6), leading to enhanced oxidation of dissolved SO₂ compared to that in the dark reactions (reactions R13–R20). Moreover, the photo-oxidation of S(IV) by Fe(III)–oxalate is often accompanied by the redox cycle of Fe(II)/Fe(III) (reaction R21), which might be beneficial to ROS formation and S(IV) oxidation.⁵⁸



Regarding the acceleration of SO₂ oxidation in microdroplets, one of the potential reasons might be the rapid transfer of gaseous molecules (O₂ and SO₂) in microdroplets due to the large specific surface area and limited reaction space. Besides, the air–water interface might also contribute to the acceleration. Hung et al. found that the enhanced uptake of SO₂ on the surfaces of acidic microdroplets was due to interfacial reactions.⁶⁰ SO₂ interacts with the hydrated water molecular at the air–water interface via the bonding of sulfur and oxygen. The hydrated SO₂ adducts dissociate into HSO₃⁻ at the interface and undergo a direct electron transfer with O₂ to yield SO₃^{•-} (reaction R22) because of the lower energy barriers of nanometer-scale length of the interfacial air–water layer. The SO₃^{•-} carrying a negative charge is repelled by the air–water interface and may partly diffuse to the microdroplet core, then initiates a rapid free chain reaction to form sulfate (vide supra).^{56,61}



Thus, the acceleration of sulfate formation in microdroplets suggests that other atmospheric trace gas conversation processes might also be underestimated, and further studies are needed to estimate and modify the simulation parameters.

4. ATMOSPHERIC IMPLICATIONS

In atmospheric environments, aerosol, cloud, and fog droplets are ubiquitous, and the related chemical reactions might be complex and different from those in bulk solution. Recently, some studies have investigated the atmospheric chemistry processes in micrometer-sized aerosols and droplets, which suggested the particularity of atmospheric chemical reactions in microdroplets.^{62,63} Nevertheless, understanding of the complex atmospheric chemistry in authentic water droplets is still very limited. The photochemistry of Fe(III)–oxalate complexes has been shown to be critical in various atmospheric photooxidation processes as a dominant source of OH[•], such as the oxidative transformations of atmospheric organic and inorganic compounds.^{41,64,65} However, little consideration of the special characteristics of atmospheric droplets has been taken into the laboratory experiments and model studies, probably leading to the evident gap between model simulations and field observations. In this work, OH[•] production by photoreactions of Fe(III)–oxalate complexes in microdroplets and bulk solution were investigated. The OH[•] production in microdroplets is one order of magnitude higher than in the bulk phase. In addition, we found that the rate of SO₂ oxidation to sulfate was also higher in microdroplets containing Fe(III)–oxalate chelates under both the dark and light irradiation conditions. At present, the acceleration of the

photoreactions is mainly attributed to the improved mass transfer and the droplet effect. Our experimental results indicate that, in authentic atmospheric environments, the (photo)chemistry process in cloud and fog droplets and aerosols should receive tremendous research attention and evaluation using microcompartment reactors.

■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

SI Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acs.jpca.2c05919>.

Details of materials and reagents, simulated Raman spectroscopy measurements, effects of Cl^- and the oxalate/Fe(III) molar ratio on OH^\bullet generation, schematic illustration of reaction chamber, water contact angle of superhydrophobic substrate; microdroplet sizes before and after the photoreaction, experimental setup for sulfate formation, calibration curve for *p*-HBA concentration quantitation, enlarged version of OH^\bullet generation in the bulk phase, and sulfate generation in microdroplets and the bulk solution under light conditions (PDF)

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The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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