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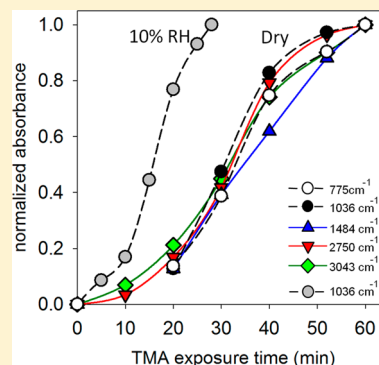
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# Infrared Studies of the Reaction of Methanesulfonic Acid with Trimethylamine on Surfaces

Noriko Nishino, Kristine D. Arquero, Matthew L. Dawson, and Barbara J. Finlayson-Pitts\*

Department of Chemistry, University of California, Irvine, California, 92697-2025, United States

**ABSTRACT:** Organosulfur compounds generated from a variety of biological as well as anthropogenic sources are oxidized in air to form sulfuric acid and methanesulfonic acid (MSA). Both of these acids formed initially in the gas phase react with ammonia and amines in air to form and grow new particles, which is important for visibility, human health and climate. A competing sink is deposition on surfaces in the boundary layer. However, relatively little is known about reactions after they deposit on surfaces. We report here diffuse reflectance infrared Fourier transform spectrometry (DRIFTS) studies of the reaction of MSA with trimethylamine (TMA) on a silicon powder at atmospheric pressure in synthetic air and at room temperature, either in the absence or in the presence of water vapor. In both cases, DRIFTS spectra of the product surface species are essentially the same as the transmission spectrum obtained for trimethylaminium methanesulfonate, indicating the formation of the salt on the surface with a lower limit to the reaction probability of  $\gamma > 10^{-6}$ . To the best of our knowledge, this is the first infrared study to demonstrate this chemistry from the heterogeneous reaction of MSA with an amine on a surface. This heterogeneous chemistry appears to be sufficiently fast that it could impact measurements of gas-phase amines through reactions with surface-adsorbed acids on sampling lines and inlets. It could also represent an additional sink for amines in the boundary layer, especially at night when the gas-phase reactions of amines with OH radical and ozone are minimized.



## INTRODUCTION

Gaseous organic sulfur compounds such as dimethyl sulfide, dimethyl disulfide, dimethyl trisulfide, and methanethiol are generated by biological activity.<sup>1–3</sup> Although not as well documented, organosulfur compounds have also been measured from a variety of nonoceanic sources, including biomass burning; agricultural, industrial, and domestic activities; and diesel exhaust.<sup>4–11</sup> They are oxidized in air, mainly by OH radicals during the day and nitrate radicals at night, to form a variety of sulfur oxides, including sulfuric acid and methanesulfonic acid (MSA,  $\text{CH}_3\text{S}(\text{O})_2\text{OH}$ ).<sup>12</sup> Both of these acids have been measured in the gas phase, with sulfuric acid at concentrations<sup>11,13–18</sup> that are typically  $10^5$ – $10^7$  molecules  $\text{cm}^{-3}$ , and MSA concentrations<sup>11,13,14,16–18</sup> that are about 10–100% of those of sulfuric acid.

There is increasing evidence that reactions of ammonia ( $\text{NH}_3$ ) and amines with sulfuric acid in air significantly enhance the formation and growth of new particles compared to systems containing only sulfuric acid and water.<sup>19–27,39</sup> A similar observation has been reported for MSA reacting with amines.<sup>28</sup> This is important because particles have significant impacts on visibility<sup>12,29</sup> and human health,<sup>30–32</sup> as well as on climate.<sup>33</sup>

Amines have many biogenic and anthropogenic sources including marine organisms, biomass burning, animal husbandry, food industry, sewage, and vehicle exhaust, with the total estimated global emission of methyl, dimethyl, and trimethylamines (MA, DMA and TMA, respectively) being  $\sim 300$  Gg  $\text{N a}^{-1}$ .<sup>34,35</sup> While global emissions of these alkylamines are minor compared to  $\text{NH}_3$  ( $5 \times 10^4$  Gg  $\text{N a}^{-1}$ ), laboratory<sup>22,25,36–39</sup> and computational<sup>39–41</sup> studies suggest that these amines have a

greater impact on new particle formation and growth than  $\text{NH}_3$ . These amines have been widely observed in ambient particles over a broad size range from a few nanometers<sup>21</sup> to approximately micrometer size particles in urban, suburban, rural, and coastal regions as well as over the ocean.<sup>35</sup>

Sinks for MSA/sulfuric acid and amines in air include not only their gas-phase reaction to form new particles, and uptake onto/into existing particles, but also deposition of the gases at the Earth's surface. In the boundary layer, there are many surfaces available in the form of built structures such as buildings and roads, as well as natural vegetation that can serve as substrates for deposition.<sup>42–44</sup> However, little is known about the interactions of acids and amines on such surfaces. We report here infrared spectroscopy studies of the uptake and reaction of gaseous TMA with MSA on silicon powders both in the absence and presence of water vapor. On the basis of these studies, this heterogeneous chemistry could explain the difficulty in efficiently and accurately sampling and analyzing amines in air, and conversely MSA, and also have a potential impact on amine concentrations in the boundary layer.

## EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

Diffuse reflectance infrared Fourier transform spectrometry (DRIFTS) experiments were conducted at  $296 \pm 1$  K in a flow

Received: August 29, 2013

Revised: December 2, 2013

Accepted: December 4, 2013

Published: December 4, 2013

system using a Harrick Scientific vacuum reaction cell (model HVC-DR2) equipped with a diffuse reflectance attachment (model DRA-2CS) situated in a sampling compartment of a Fourier transform infrared spectrometer (Mattson, RS 10000, now Thermo Electron Corp., Madison, WI). The interior walls of the cell and ZnSe windows were coated with halocarbon wax (Halocarbon Products Corporation, River Edge, NJ) to prevent corrosion by MSA. A detailed description of the DRIFTS apparatus can be found elsewhere.<sup>45,46</sup> Briefly, the reaction cell had an internal sample cup (1.1 cm in diameter and 0.3 cm in depth) into which 0.3 g of silicon (Si) powder (60 mesh, 99.999% trace metal basis, Sigma-Aldrich, used as received) was tightly pressed. The Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) surface area of silicon powder was measured using nitrogen adsorption with an Autosorb-1 Surface Area Analyzer (Quantachrome Instruments, Boynton Beach, FL) to be  $7.0 \pm 0.6 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$  ( $1\sigma$ ). Gases entered the cell from an inlet port at the side of the cell and were pumped at  $\sim 450 \text{ mL min}^{-1}$  through the sample, exiting through an outlet port at the side of the sample cup, with the residence time in the reaction cell of  $\sim 1.5 \text{ s}$ . Prior to experiments, the reaction cell with the silicon powder in the sampling cup was purged overnight with dry synthetic air (Ultra Zero grade air,  $\text{H}_2\text{O} < 2 \text{ ppm}$ ,  $\text{CO} < 0.05 \text{ ppm}$ ,  $\text{THC} < 0.05 \text{ ppm}$ ,  $\text{NO}_x < 0.02 \text{ ppm}$ , PRAXAIR Inc., Danbury, CT) to remove water, although small amounts of adsorbed water are still expected to remain on the surface. ZnSe windows allow transmission of the IR beam to the solid sample where diffuse reflectance occurs. However, strong absorptions by the halocarbon wax on ZnSe windows were observed in the  $900\text{--}1000 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  wavenumber region, and thus this region was not used for analyses. The single beam DRIFTS spectra before, during, and after the reaction were collected by averaging 512 scans at  $2 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  resolution.

Gas-phase MSA was generated by passing dry air over pure liquid MSA (99.0%; Sigma-Aldrich). The concentration of MSA in the gas stream was not measured but based on other studies in this laboratory, it is approximately 200 ppb. Gas-phase TMA obtained as a 1 ppm mixture in  $\text{N}_2$  (Airgas, Radnor, PA) was used as received. The silicon powder was conditioned with gaseous MSA for 1–1.5 days. This lengthy conditioning process was required because MSA was readily taken up on other surfaces (e.g., tubing and the reaction cell walls) prior to contacting the silicon and its concentration in the gas phase only slowly approaches a steady state. Subsequently, the TMA exposure was conducted for 30 min or 1 h at  $450 \text{ mL min}^{-1}$  in all experiments. Gas-phase TMA concentrations were measured at the inlet of an MSA-conditioned DRIFTS cell and at the outlet in the absence of silicon powder by collecting the gas flow on a cartridge packed with a weak cation exchange resin and then extracting the resin and analyzing the extract by ion chromatography.<sup>47</sup> Humidified air was generated by passing air through a bubbler containing purified water (Milli-Q Plus,  $18.2 \text{ M}\Omega \text{ cm}$ ) and diluted with dry air to achieve 10% relative humidity (RH).

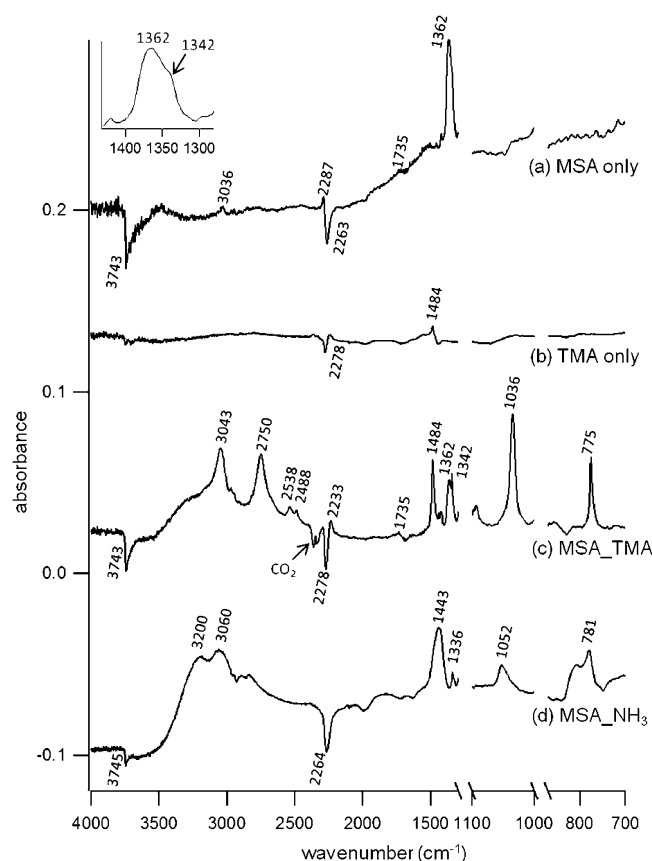
For comparison to the TMA reaction, the MSA-coated silicon powder was exposed to gaseous  $\text{NH}_3$  in separate experiments. Ammonia was generated by passing dry air over ammonium hydroxide (ammonia in water, 28.71 wt %, certified ACS Plus, Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc.) that would give  $\sim 550 \text{ Torr}$  partial pressure of  $\text{NH}_3$  at  $296 \pm 1 \text{ K}$ .<sup>48</sup> Gas-phase ammonia was measured using the same technique as for TMA described above.

Trimethylaminium methanesulfonate salt was prepared by mixing equal moles of MSA and TMA (45 wt % in  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ , Sigma-Aldrich) in aqueous solution. A small amount of solution was placed onto a 2.5 cm ZnSe window using a Q-tip soaked with the solution and then dried in an air-purged IR compartment. The single beam spectra of a clean window and the window with adsorbed salts were collected in transmission mode by averaging 32 scans at a resolution of  $2 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ .

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Silicon powder was used in these studies for a number of reasons. First, it has an oxide layer on its surface, so that it is a reasonable model for some boundary-layer building materials where silicon oxides are common components.<sup>42</sup> Second, silicon powder is infrared transparent over most of the spectral regions of interest (with the exception of the  $900\text{--}1000$  and  $1100\text{--}1300 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  regions). The third important property is that the surface itself is expected to be less reactive than many other DRIFTS substrates to strong acids such as MSA because it is coated with a thin layer of  $\text{SiO}_x$  formed by air oxidation.<sup>49,50</sup> This oxide layer has been shown to increase in thickness as the silicon powder is heated in air, but focused ion beam-scanning electron microscope (FIB-SEM) images show that even for thick  $\text{SiO}_x$  layers, the coating is quite irregular with obvious pores and defects.<sup>50</sup> Thus, although most of the surface is coated with  $\text{SiO}_x$ , some of the underlying silicon remains accessible to gases.

Figure 1a,b shows representative changes in the DRIFTS spectra of silicon powder upon exposure to either gaseous (a) MSA or (b) TMA, respectively. Spectra ( $A = \log S_0/S_1$ ) are obtained by taking the ratio of the spectrum scanned during the MSA or TMA exposure ( $S_1$ ) to the spectrum before the exposure ( $S_0$ ). Thus, the changes shown are due to the uptake and/or reaction of MSA or TMA, with positive peaks representing new or increased absorptions and negative peaks representing losses compared to the silicon powder alone. In the case of exposure to MSA (Figure 1a), the most prominent change is a new peak at  $1362 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  attributable to the asymmetric stretch of  $\text{S}(\text{O})(\text{O})$ .<sup>51–53</sup> A small peak at  $3036 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  results from the stretch of OH of MSA,  $\nu(\text{OH})$ .<sup>51,53</sup> The negative peak at  $3743 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  is due to a decrease in the free O–H on the surface,<sup>54–56</sup> which can occur due either to hydrogen bonding with a species such as MSA, or to reaction. When the silicon surface was purged with dry air after the MSA exposure, the peak at  $1362 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  decreases, while the negative peak at  $3743 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  remains. This suggests that the species associated with the  $1362 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  peak desorbs relatively easily from the surface, and is independent of the species causing the change in the surface O–H. We assign this peak at  $1362 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  to surface-adsorbed molecular MSA. The peak at  $3743 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  due to surface O–H on silicon powder is also negative when the surface is exposed to water vapor alone, due to hydrogen bonding of the surface free O–H to water. However, this is reversible, with the  $3743 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  peak recovering upon removal of the water in a stream of dry gas. This comparison suggests that during the MSA exposure, the surface free O–H reacts/interacts with a species that is strongly bound and is not readily removed from the surface. We assign this species to the  $\text{CH}_3\text{SO}_3^-$  anion from MSA dissociation. There is a small shoulder at  $1342 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  (shown in the inset of Figure 1a) which based on spectra of the salt (see below) is assigned to the asymmetric stretch of  $\text{S}(\text{O})(\text{O})$  in the anion. The broad



**Figure 1.** Changes in the absorption spectra ( $A = \log S_0/S_1$ ) of Si powder due to (a) MSA exposure in air and (b) TMA exposure in  $N_2$ , where  $S_0$  is the single beam spectrum taken before the MSA or TMA exposure and  $S_1$  is that during the MSA or TMA exposure; (c) MSA and then TMA exposure and (d) MSA and then  $NH_3$  exposure, where  $S_0$  is the single beam spectrum taken before MSA and TMA or  $NH_3$  exposure and  $S_1$  is that taken when the Si surface is exposed to MSA first and then to TMA or  $NH_3$ . Spectra are offset from their normal baselines for clarity. The inset on the top left shows the enlarged spectrum of (a) over the region  $1300\text{--}1450\text{ cm}^{-1}$ .

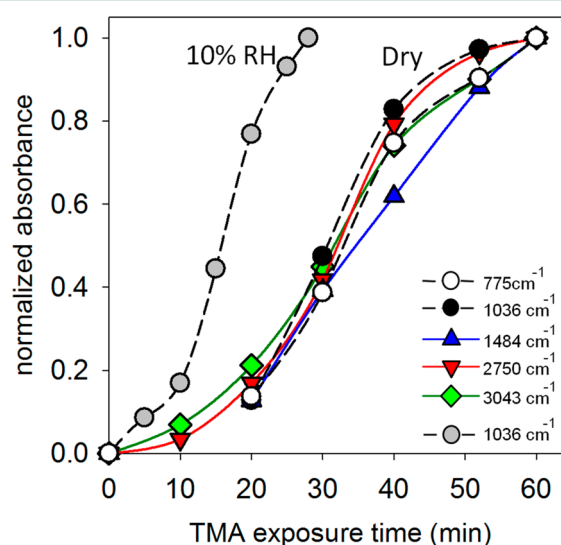
shoulder around  $1735\text{ cm}^{-1}$  may be due to  $H_3O^+$ ,<sup>57–59</sup> which has also been seen with nitric acid on surfaces.<sup>60</sup>

Changes in the peaks in the  $2200\text{--}2300\text{ cm}^{-1}$  region are attributed to changes in absorptions of the silicon substrate. While the specific functional groups responsible for these changes are not clear, the Si–H bond has stretching vibrations in this region, with their exact position dependent on the environment around the Si as well as the nature of a solid surface (e.g., amorphous or crystalline).<sup>61–63</sup> For example, the peak shifts to higher frequencies when Si is surrounded by atoms with a higher electronegativity than Si such as an oxygen atom.<sup>61,63</sup> Thus, the stretch of  $O_3Si\text{--}H$  on  $SiO_2$  is found in the range from  $2260$  to  $2280\text{ cm}^{-1}$ , while  $Si_3Si\text{--}H$  can be detected at  $1995\text{ cm}^{-1}$  (see below and Figure 4a). Small changes in this region indicate that some of the underlying silicon substrate is accessible to the MSA.

The exposure of the silicon surface to TMA alone (Figure 1b) results in a small peak at  $1484\text{ cm}^{-1}$ , assigned to the asymmetric bend of the  $-\text{CH}_3$  group.<sup>64</sup> However, when a surface that was first exposed to MSA is subsequently exposed to TMA, large changes occur in the spectrum (Figure 1c). First, the peak observed from MSA at  $1362\text{ cm}^{-1}$  decreases upon TMA exposure, and the peak from TMA at  $1484\text{ cm}^{-1}$

increases significantly compared to the case for exposure of the silicon powder to TMA alone for the same amount of time. New positive peaks are also observed at  $775$ ,  $1036$ ,  $2750$ , and  $3043\text{ cm}^{-1}$ , with smaller peaks at  $2488$  and  $2538\text{ cm}^{-1}$ . The peak at  $1342\text{ cm}^{-1}$  previously assigned to the  $\text{CH}_3\text{SO}_3^-$  anion is much stronger now.

Figure 2 shows relative intensities of the major product peaks, normalized to the final point of each peak, as a function

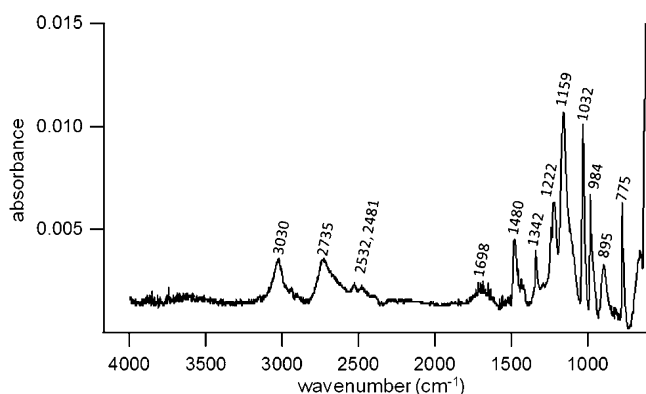


**Figure 2.** Relative intensities of major peaks formed in the reaction of MSA with gaseous TMA on Si powder as a function of TMA exposure time. Peaks at each time were normalized to the final point for that peak at 60 min for dry and at 28 min for humid conditions. The initial induction period is due to conditioning of the sampling lines and reaction cell after the flow of TMA is initiated.

of the TMA exposure time (the peak at  $1342\text{ cm}^{-1}$  is not included because the strong overlap with the  $1362\text{ cm}^{-1}$  peak precludes separating its contribution). Note that there is  $\sim 10\text{--}15$  min induction time where growth of new peaks is slow. This is attributed to the “stickiness” of TMA that is easily lost on surfaces in the system (e.g., tubing, surfaces of the reaction cell) before it reaches the MSA-coated silicon powder. The time dependence of the growth of each of these new peaks (under dry conditions) is similar, suggesting that either they are attributable to the same species or they are different species but formed simultaneously. Using literature data for mixtures of MSA and diethylamine in the liquid-phase,<sup>53</sup> of alkanesulfonic acids, esters and salts,<sup>65</sup> and of methyl methanesulfonate in the liquid and solid states,<sup>66</sup> these peaks were tentatively assigned as follows:  $775\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ,  $\nu(\text{C--S})$  or  $\nu(\text{S--O})$ ;<sup>67</sup>  $1036\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ,  $\nu_s((\text{S}(\text{O})(\text{O})))$ ;  $2750$  and  $3043\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ,  $\nu(\text{CH})$ .

For comparison, an absorption spectrum of synthesized trimethylaminium methanesulfonate salt  $[\text{CH}_3\text{SO}_3^- \cdot (\text{CH}_3)_3\text{NH}^+]$  deposited on a ZnSe window is shown in Figure 3. It is clear that the peaks due to the salt are essentially the same as those in the DRIFTS spectra of the silicon surface exposed to gaseous MSA and then to gaseous TMA (see Figure 1c), establishing that the MSA–amine reaction on the surface forms the trimethylaminium methanesulfonate salt. In the transmission spectrum of the salt, there are also a number of strong peaks in the  $900\text{--}1300\text{ cm}^{-1}$  region which are similar to those reported in a liquid mixture of MSA with diethylamine<sup>53</sup> but which are not accessible in the DRIFTS studies because of

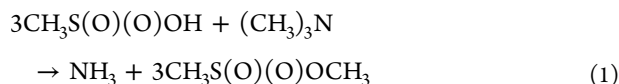




**Figure 3.** Absorption spectrum ( $A = \log S_0/S_1$ ) of trimethylammonium methanesulfonate salt on a ZnSe window, where  $S_0$  is the single beam spectrum of the clean ZnSe window and  $S_1$  is that with the salt on the ZnSe.

the strong absorptions by the silicon substrate and halocarbon wax on the ZnSe windows. The presence of the peak at  $1362\text{ cm}^{-1}$  in the MSA spectrum (Figure 1a) but not in the salt spectrum (Figure 3) supports the previous assignment of the  $1362\text{ cm}^{-1}$  peak to undissociated molecular MSA and the  $1342\text{ cm}^{-1}$  peak to the  $\text{CH}_3\text{SO}_3^-$  anion.

There is a possibility of other surface reactions occurring during the experiments. Reactions that occur slowly in the gas phase often occur much more readily on surfaces.<sup>68</sup> One potential reaction of MSA with TMA is the conversion of TMA to ammonia and MSA to its methyl ester:

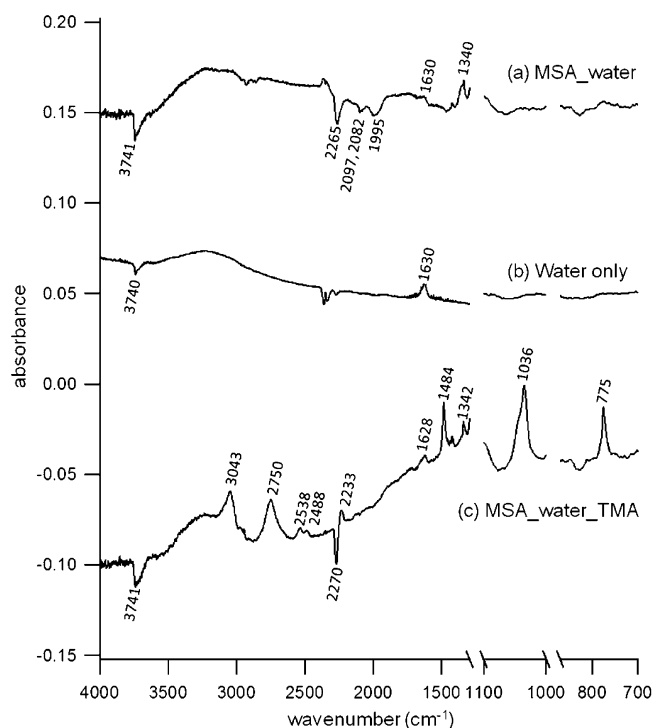


Generation of gas-phase  $\text{NH}_3$  has been reported when ammonium salts were exposed to gas-phase amines as a result of a displacement reaction of ammonium ions by aminium ions.<sup>36,37,69</sup> If reaction 1 occurred, the methyl ester should be observed in DRIFTS spectra. However, spectra of the ester (liquid and solid)<sup>66</sup> are similar to that of reactant MSA, and they are not readily distinguished from each other. If  $\text{NH}_3$  were formed it could react with MSA on the surface. Figure 1d shows changes in the absorption spectrum when the silicon surface that was first exposed to MSA is subsequently exposed to  $\text{NH}_3$ . As for Figure 1c, the spectrum ( $S_1$ ) in Figure 1d is ratioed to the spectrum taken before the MSA exposure ( $S_0$ ), so the absorption spectrum ( $A = \log S_0/S_1$ ) represents net changes from the bare silicon substrate. Similar to observations in the MSA plus TMA exposure, the  $-\text{S}(\text{O})(\text{O})-$  peak at  $1362\text{ cm}^{-1}$  assigned to molecular MSA decreases upon exposure to ammonia, while other new peaks appear. Peaks at  $3060$  and  $3200\text{ cm}^{-1}$  are assigned to the deformation and asymmetric stretch of  $\text{NH}_4^+$ , and the peak at  $1443\text{ cm}^{-1}$  is assigned to asymmetric deformation of  $\text{NH}_4^+$ .<sup>70,71</sup> Peaks at  $781$  and  $1336\text{ cm}^{-1}$  are similar to the peaks observed in the MSA–TMA experiments at  $775$  and  $1342\text{ cm}^{-1}$ , assigned to  $\nu(\text{C}-\text{S})$  or  $\nu(\text{S}-\text{O})$ <sup>67</sup> and the asymmetric stretch of  $\text{S}(\text{O})(\text{O})$  in the  $\text{CH}_3\text{SO}_3^-$  anion, respectively (see Figure 1c). The loss of the MSA peak at  $1362\text{ cm}^{-1}$  and the formation of peaks due to  $\text{NH}_4^+$  shows that the MSA reacts with  $\text{NH}_3$ , forming ammonium methanesulfonate salt on the surface. The lack of formation of the characteristic ammonium salt peaks in the MSA–TMA spectrum (Figure 1c) suggests that the conversion

of TMA to  $\text{NH}_3$  and its subsequent reaction with MSA on the surface is not important.

However, if reaction 1 occurred and the  $\text{NH}_3$  was pumped out before reacting with MSA on the surface, the ammonium salt would not be observed and instead, gas-phase  $\text{NH}_3$  would have been formed. Therefore, a search was also made for  $\text{NH}_3$  in the gas phase. Gas-phase ammonia was measured at the outlet of the DRIFTS cell after the MSA conditioned silicon powder was exposed to TMA. Additional non-DRIFTS experiments were conducted using high surface area materials to increase the potential amount of ammonia formed. Either silica gel or glass wool in a quartz tube was conditioned with MSA, and then TMA was introduced as in the DRIFTS experiments. The formation of gas-phase ammonia was negligible within experimental error, supporting the conclusion from the DRIFTS experiments that reaction 1 does not occur on surfaces.

Experiments with TMA and MSA were also conducted in the presence of water vapor. After the MSA exposure, the silicon powder was exposed to water vapor at 10% RH for 1 h and then to gaseous TMA, with the RH maintained at 10% during the TMA exposure. Figure 4a,c shows changes in the absorption spectra when the silicon surface initially conditioned



**Figure 4.** Changes in the absorption spectra ( $A = \log S_0/S_1$ ) of Si powder due to (a) MSA and then water (10% RH) exposures, where  $S_0$  is the single beam spectrum taken before MSA exposure and  $S_1$  is that taken when the Si surface is exposed to MSA first and then to water vapor; (b) water vapor (10% RH) exposure, where  $S_0$  is the single beam spectrum taken before water vapor exposure and  $S_1$  is that taken when the surface is exposed to water vapor; (c) MSA, water vapor (10% RH), and then TMA exposure, where  $S_0$  is the single beam spectrum taken before MSA exposure and  $S_1$  is that when the Si surface is exposed to MSA first, water vapor second, and then TMA. In addition to surface adsorbed water, peaks due to gaseous water vapor inside the DRIFTS reaction cell were also seen and were subtracted from all spectra. Spectra are offset from their normal baselines for clarity.

by MSA is exposed to (a) water vapor and then to (c) gaseous TMA. The spectra ( $S_1$ ) are ratioed to the spectrum taken before the MSA exposure ( $S_0$ ), so these spectra ( $A = \log S_0/S_1$ ) represent net changes from the bare silicon substrate. Absorption due to gas-phase water vapor inside the reaction cell was subtracted from the absorption spectra so the change due to MSA and TMA could be more readily seen. Figure 4a shows that when the MSA-conditioned silicon surface is exposed to water vapor, the peak at  $1362\text{ cm}^{-1}$  assigned to molecular MSA (Figure 1a) is not evident but the peak at  $\sim 1340\text{ cm}^{-1}$  assigned to the  $\text{CH}_3\text{SO}_3^-$  anion is clearly seen.

Peaks due to the stretching and bending mode of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  as seen for the silicon surface exposed to water vapor alone (Figure 4b) are observed at  $3000\text{--}3400\text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $1630\text{ cm}^{-1}$ , respectively.<sup>72–74</sup> Peaks in the  $1900\text{--}2300\text{ cm}^{-1}$  region due to substrate Si–H decrease as in the absence of water vapor (Figure 1a), with that at  $1995\text{ cm}^{-1}$  assigned to  $\text{Si}_3\text{Si-H}$  decreasing relatively more when both MSA and water are present (Figure 4a). When the surface is exposed to water vapor alone, these peaks decrease but to such a small extent that they are not readily seen in Figure 4b. Therefore, the decrease seen in Figure 4a is due to the exposure to both MSA and water vapor. The oxidation of silicon powder by  $\text{O}_2$  is known to be accelerated in the presence of water<sup>49,50</sup> and one possibility is that this is accelerated even more in the presence of MSA. This would permanently change the IR spectrum. However, when TMA is added, this negative peak at  $1995\text{ cm}^{-1}$  is no longer seen (Figure 4c), suggesting that the change seen with MSA and water is reversible. It may be that the proton liberated by dissociation of MSA in the presence of water is responsible for the change in the Si–H stretch but is transferred to the basic amine when TMA is added. Other than this, the absorption spectrum when gaseous TMA is added to the system in the presence of water vapor (Figure 4c) is similar to the spectrum in its absence (Figure 1c), i.e., the trimethylaminium methanesulfonate salt is formed from the MSA + TMA reaction on the surface both in the presence and absence of water. Note that, as shown in Figure 2, the salt formation is faster under humid conditions. The absorption peaks due to the salt are not changed when the silicon surface is dried for  $\sim 3\text{ h}$ , suggesting that the salt product is nonvolatile.

In short, we have established that surface-bound MSA reacts with gaseous TMA both in the presence and absence of water vapor. In the presence of water, the MSA is dissociated prior to the addition of TMA, while under dry conditions some remains in the undissociated molecular form. However, in either case, the reaction leads to the formation of trimethylaminium methanesulfonate salt on the surface. While the present study began with MSA on the surface and then gas-phase TMA being added, similar chemistry would be expected if the amine was on the surface and then gas-phase MSA was added, which would represent an additional loss process for gas-phase MSA. One would expect similar chemistry to occur between sulfuric acid deposited on a surface and amines. Although there are no directly related studies with which to compare the present results, the heterogeneous uptake of gaseous alkylamines on a sulfuric acid aqueous solution has been shown to be an irreversible reaction, supporting the formation of nonvolatile salts.<sup>75</sup>

In the troposphere, MSA is formed by the oxidation of organosulfur compounds.<sup>12</sup> Its major fate is uptake into existing particles, reaction with amines to form new particles,<sup>28</sup> and deposition. In the boundary layer where surfaces are plentiful,

deposition is likely to be significant. Both MSA and amines reversibly adsorb on surfaces, and after uptake, can desorb either through a reduction in their gas-phase concentration or by a competitive displacement mechanism. The current studies show that uptake of one of these species onto a surface holding the second reactant leads to the formation of a nonvolatile salt, that is, to irreversible uptake of the gas. Although our studies focused on MSA, a similar process is likely to apply to sulfuric acid which is typically a copollutant with MSA.

An estimate of the lower limit to the uptake coefficient for TMA on the MSA-coated silicon powder was obtained from the increase in the  $1036\text{ cm}^{-1}$  peak with time. For quantification of product formation, a known concentration of MSA–TMA salt aqueous solution was mixed with a known mass of silicon powder, and the water evaporated. The known concentration of MSA–TMA salt mixed with this powder was used along with its DRIFTS spectrum to relate peak intensity to the effective salt surface concentration (molecules  $\text{cm}^{-2}$ ). Using the linear portion of the time dependence for salt formation from 20 to 30 min (Figure 2), the initial growth of the salt is  $1.9 \times 10^{10}$  salt molecules  $\text{cm}^{-2}\text{ s}^{-1}$ . This represents the rate of product formation which is given by  $\gamma [\text{TMA}](RT/(2\pi M))^{0.5}$ , where  $\gamma$  is the reaction probability,  $[\text{TMA}]$  is the gas phase concentration of the amine,  $R$  is the gas constant,  $T$  is the temperature, and  $M$  the molecular mass of TMA. Although the concentration of TMA used in these experiments was nominally 1 ppm, the concentration reaching the MSA-coated silicon powder that is being spectroscopically interrogated is expected to be significantly smaller because of the uptake of TMA on the inlet lines and the walls of the reaction chamber. This loss was determined to be 80% of the initial concentration by measuring the average TMA over the exposure time from 20 to 60 min (Figure 2) at the inlet and outlet of the MSA-conditioned DRIFTS cell in the absence of the silicon powder. The effective average TMA concentration to which the MSA on the silicon powder was exposed over 20–60 min exposure time was thus only 0.2 ppm. Using this concentration, the value of  $\gamma$  is  $5 \times 10^{-7}$  under dry conditions. However, water vapor is always present in the troposphere, and as seen in Figure 2, the rate of salt formation is about a factor of 2 faster with water even at the relatively low concentration corresponding to 10% RH. Thus, the atmospherically relevant *lower limit* value derived for  $\gamma$  from these experiments is  $\sim 10^{-6}$ .

This approach will underestimate the reaction probability for a number of reasons. First, this calculation assumes that the signals from the salt-silicon mixture are representative of salts formed *in situ* from the MSA–TMA reaction. In reality, uneven pumping of TMA through the salt sample likely results in the area that is interrogated spectroscopically during the reaction being less than sampled for the calibration salt–silicon powder mixture. In addition, the distribution of the salt in the silicon powder will be relatively homogeneous for the calibration mixture compared to that from the MSA + TMA reaction, where salt formation at the very top layers where TMA first impacts the sample will dominate. Second, the effective TMA concentration is assumed to be constant at 0.2 ppm. However, this is the average concentration, while the actual concentration likely increases with time as the surface is conditioned with TMA. As a result, the actual TMA over the 20–30 min linear part of the curve in Figure 2 used to obtain  $\gamma$  is likely smaller than 0.2 ppm, which would increase the derived value of  $\gamma$ . Adsorbed MSA on the silicon powder surface available for the reaction was also assumed to be constant, while it will be

decreasing with increasing TMA exposure time. For example, if the data at 60 min reaction time in Figure 2 are taken to represent full reaction of the available MSA, then the MSA remaining in the linear region used to derive a value for  $\gamma$  is  $\sim 50\%$  of the initial MSA, which would increase the estimated reaction probability by a factor of 2.

We note that the uptake coefficients for TMA on ammonium salts (where exchange reactions that displace ammonia occur) such as  $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$  under dry conditions<sup>69</sup> and on  $\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3$  at 20% RH<sup>36</sup> have been measured to be  $2 \times 10^{-4}$  and  $2 \times 10^{-3}$ , respectively. It is reasonable to expect that the acid–base reaction would be at least as fast as the exchange reaction, suggesting that the true value of the reaction probability for TMA with surface-bound MSA is likely at least two to three orders of magnitude greater than our lower limit.

These studies have implications for the sampling of MSA and amines. Both are notoriously difficult to measure due to uptake on sampling surfaces and inlets. With the relatively recent recognition of the importance of amines in new particle formation,<sup>21,22,25,27,35,39</sup> there has been more effort placed on measuring their gas-phase concentrations.<sup>76–80</sup> This has proven challenging not due to the lack of analytical approaches, but rather to uptake of the amines on sampling lines and inlets. In studies in this laboratory even in the absence of acids, competitive adsorption of TMA onto sampling lines made of Teflon, glass, and stainless steel has been observed; once lines have been used for TMA and then flushed with synthetic air, the addition of a different amine displaces TMA back into the gas phase. A similar competitive adsorption has been observed for PEEK tubing. Thus the reported concentrations of amines in air may in many cases represent a lower limit.

In the atmosphere where sampling lines are exposed to many different species including sulfuric acid and MSA, irreversible uptake of the amine seems likely based on the present studies. The first order rate constant for loss of TMA to the surface ( $k$ ) is given by  $k = \gamma(S/V)(RT/(2\pi M))^{0.5}$ , where  $S/V$  is the surface-to-volume ratio,  $R$  is the gas constant,  $T$  is the temperature, and  $M$  is the molecular mass. The lifetime ( $\tau$ ) with respect to reaction at the surface is given by  $\tau = 1/k$ . As an example, the lifetime of TMA in a typical 3 m long 2" i.d. sampling line<sup>81</sup> that is conditioned with MSA is estimated to be 150 s using  $\gamma = 10^{-6}$ . However, given that this is a lower limit and the actual value may well be at least two to three orders of magnitude faster, the lifetime of TMA in the sampling line is likely of the order of seconds or less. At a sampling rate through the line of  $63 \text{ L min}^{-1}$ ,<sup>81</sup> the residence time of TMA is  $\sim 6$  s, suggesting there is sufficient time for significant loss of the amine in the sampling line. If the uptake of amines follows the same trend<sup>69</sup> as reported for uptake and reaction with  $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ , the loss of methylamine and dimethylamine could be even more significant.

The surface reaction described here could also impact amine concentrations in air. For example, the UCI-CIT airshed model<sup>82,83</sup> has five layers in the vertical direction, with the height of the first one representing the boundary layer being 38 m. The lifetime of TMA by deposition onto acid-conditioned surfaces is estimated to be  $\sim 130$  h for  $\gamma = 10^{-6}$ , but only  $\sim 1.3$  h at  $\gamma = 10^{-4}$  and  $\sim 8$  min at  $\gamma = 10^{-3}$ . This can be compared to other loss processes for gas-phase amines. TMA reacts with OH radicals<sup>84</sup> and ozone,<sup>85</sup> with rate constants of  $6.1 \times 10^{-11}$  and  $7.8 \times 10^{-18} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecules}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ , respectively. Assuming that concentrations of OH radicals and ozone are  $10^6$  and  $2.5 \times 10^{12} \text{ molecules cm}^{-3}$ , respectively, then the lifetime of TMA is 4.6 h

for the OH radical reaction and 14 h for the ozone reaction. Amines also react with sulfuric acid or MSA to form clusters during the new particle formation process. Assuming the concentration of acid to be  $10^6 \text{ molecules cm}^{-3}$  and the cluster formation rate constant to be  $10^{-10} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecule}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ , then the lifetime of TMA is 2.8 h. Thus, the surface loss in the boundary layer may be significant compared to other loss processes, particularly at night when concentrations of OH radical and ozone are low.

## AUTHOR INFORMATION

### Corresponding Author

\*Phone: 949-824-7670; fax: 949-824-2420; e-mail: bjfinlay@uci.edu.

### Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We are grateful for funding from the National Science Foundation (Grant No. 0909227) and the Department of Energy (Grant No. ER65208). We would like to thank Professor Kenneth J. Shea and Professor Zhibin Guan for access to the Autosorb-1 Surface Area Analyzer. We are also grateful to Professor James N. Pitts Jr. for helpful discussions and comments on the manuscript.

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