

Figure 12. Experimental and calculated concentration-time profiles for selected species in the acetaldehyde - NO<sub>x</sub> runs carried out in the xenon arc chamber.

and on Figure 16 for those using the ethane surrogate. Incremental reactivity plots are given on Figure 17. Results of model simulations are also shown. Note that all of these are summer runs carried out under clear sky conditions.

Figures 15 and 16 shows that the model consistently underpredicts the ozone formation rates in the base case experiments. This underprediction may be due to the relatively high temperatures for these runs, and the fact that the mechanisms for most species have not been evaluated at these higher temperatures. The relatively good performance in the case of the acetaldehyde runs may be due to the fact that the temperature dependencies for its main temperature-dependent reaction — the decomposition of PAN — are now reasonably well characterized. One might have expected better performance in the case of

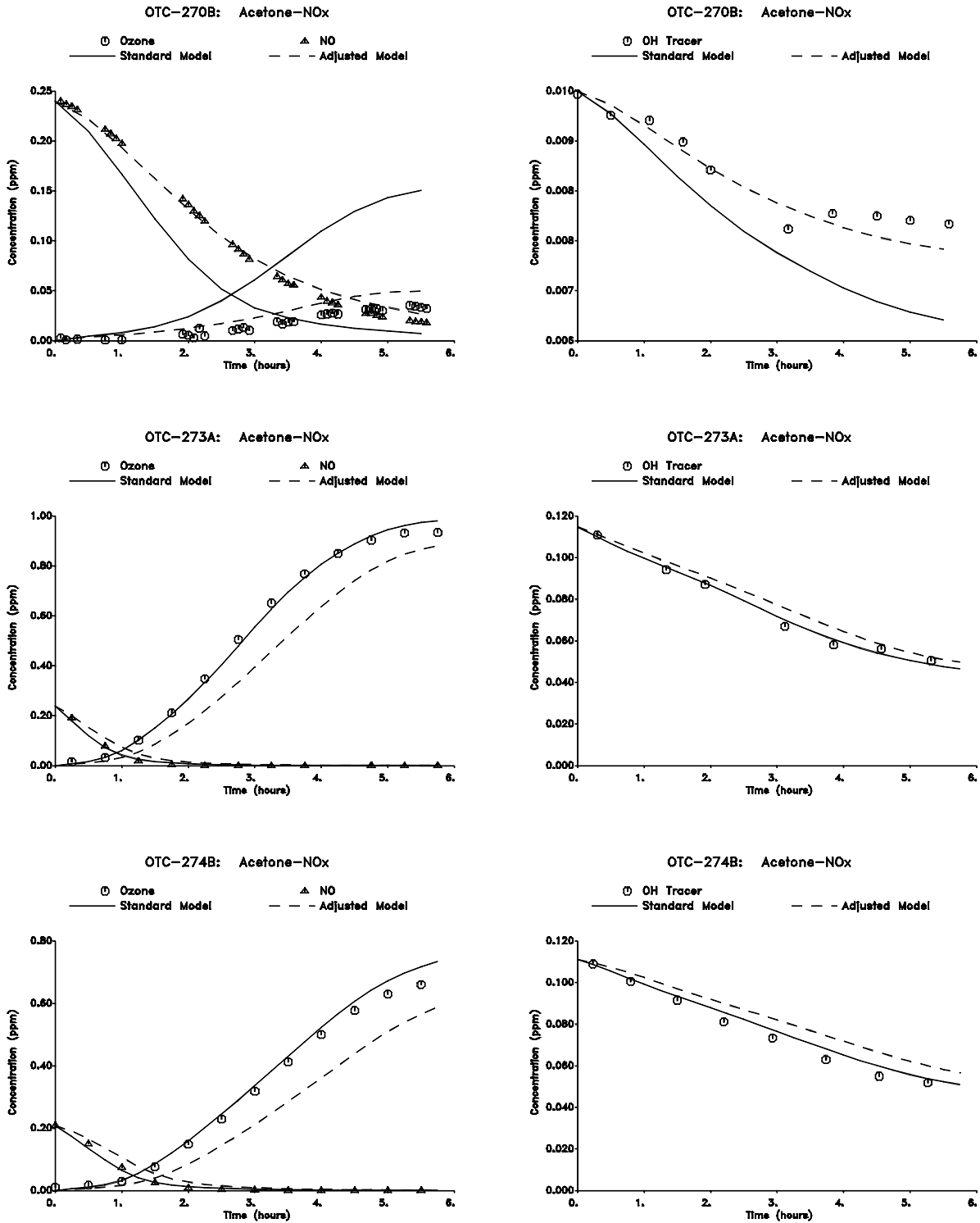


Figure 13. Experimental and calculated concentration-time profiles for selected species in the acetone - NO<sub>x</sub> runs carried out in the outdoor chamber.

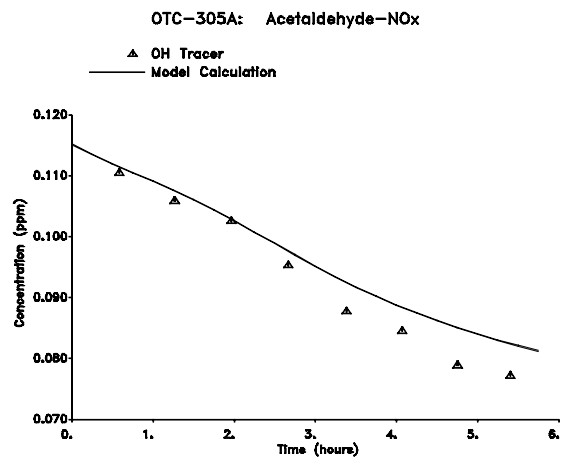
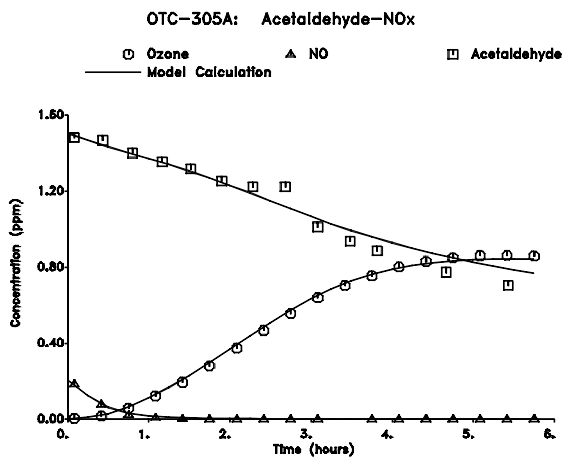
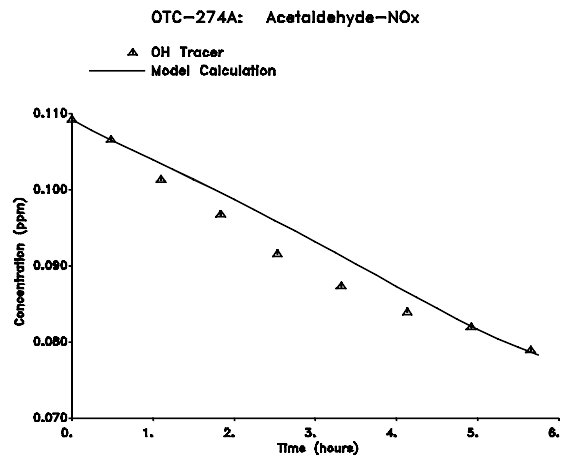
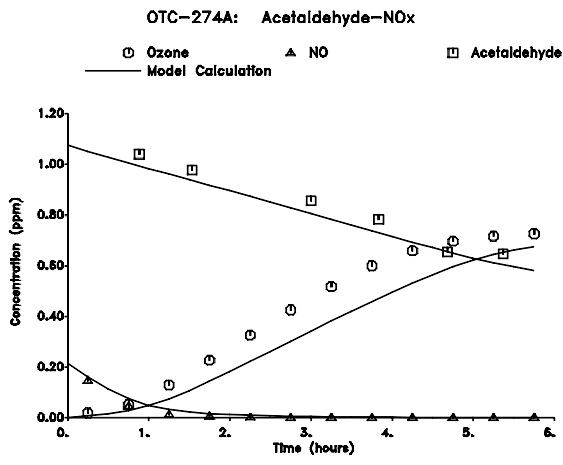
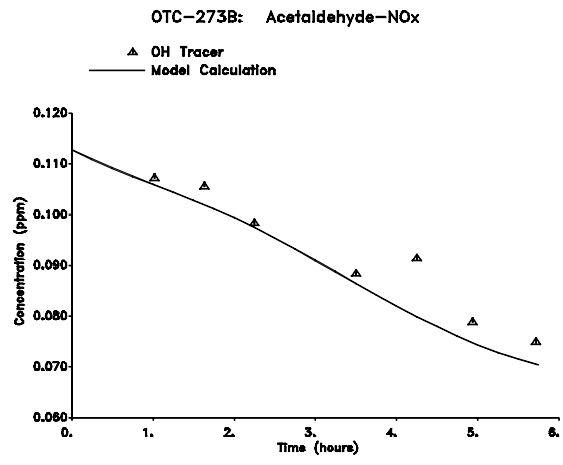
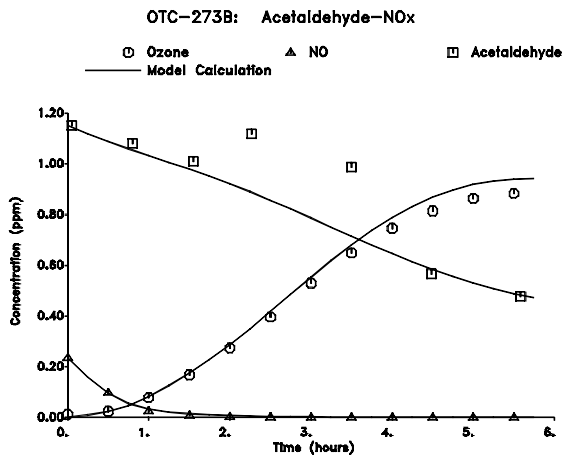


Figure 14. Experimental and calculated concentration-time profiles for selected species in the acetaldehyde - NO<sub>x</sub> runs carried out in the outdoor chamber.

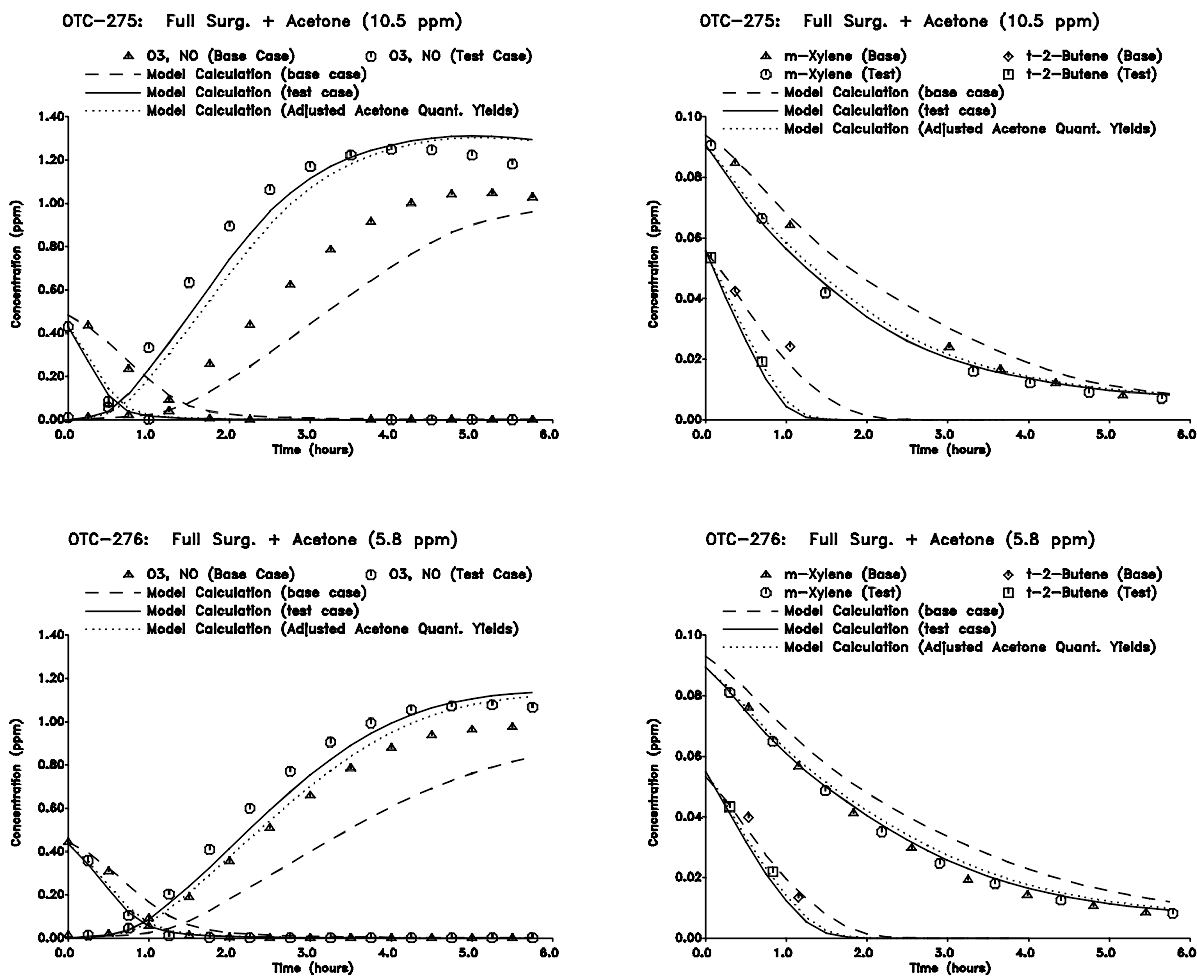


Figure 15. Experimental and calculated concentration-time profiles for selected species in a in the added acetone reactivity experiments using the full surrogate in the outdoor chamber.

the ethene runs, but the temperature dependence of the radical yields in the O<sub>3</sub> + ethene reaction have not been characterized, and adjustment of this radical yield can significantly improve the results of the model simulations of these runs. However, an investigation of the reasons for the discrepancies in the model simulations of the ethene and full surrogate runs is beyond the scope of this program.

Figure 17 shows that the model does not simulate the reactivity results very well, especially in the later periods of the runs. The biases of the model predictions later in the runs are also not consistent from run to run — in some cases the reactivities are overpredicted, and in some cases they are underpredicted. This can be attributed, at least in part, to the poor performance of the model in simulating the base case experiments. The model gives somewhat better predictions of the incremental

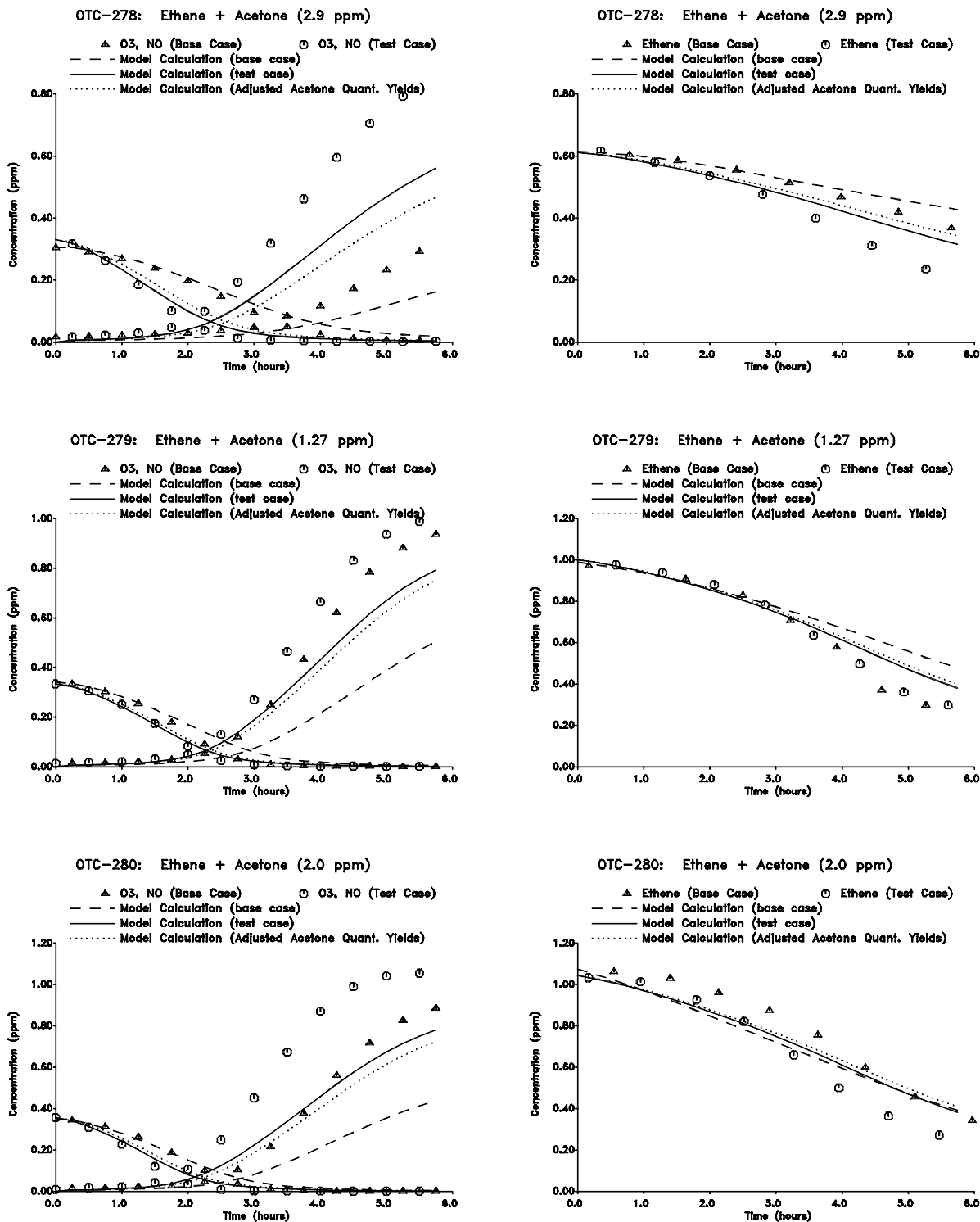


Figure 16. Experimental and calculated concentration-time profiles for selected species in a in the added acetone reactivity experiments using the ethene surrogate in the outdoor chamber.

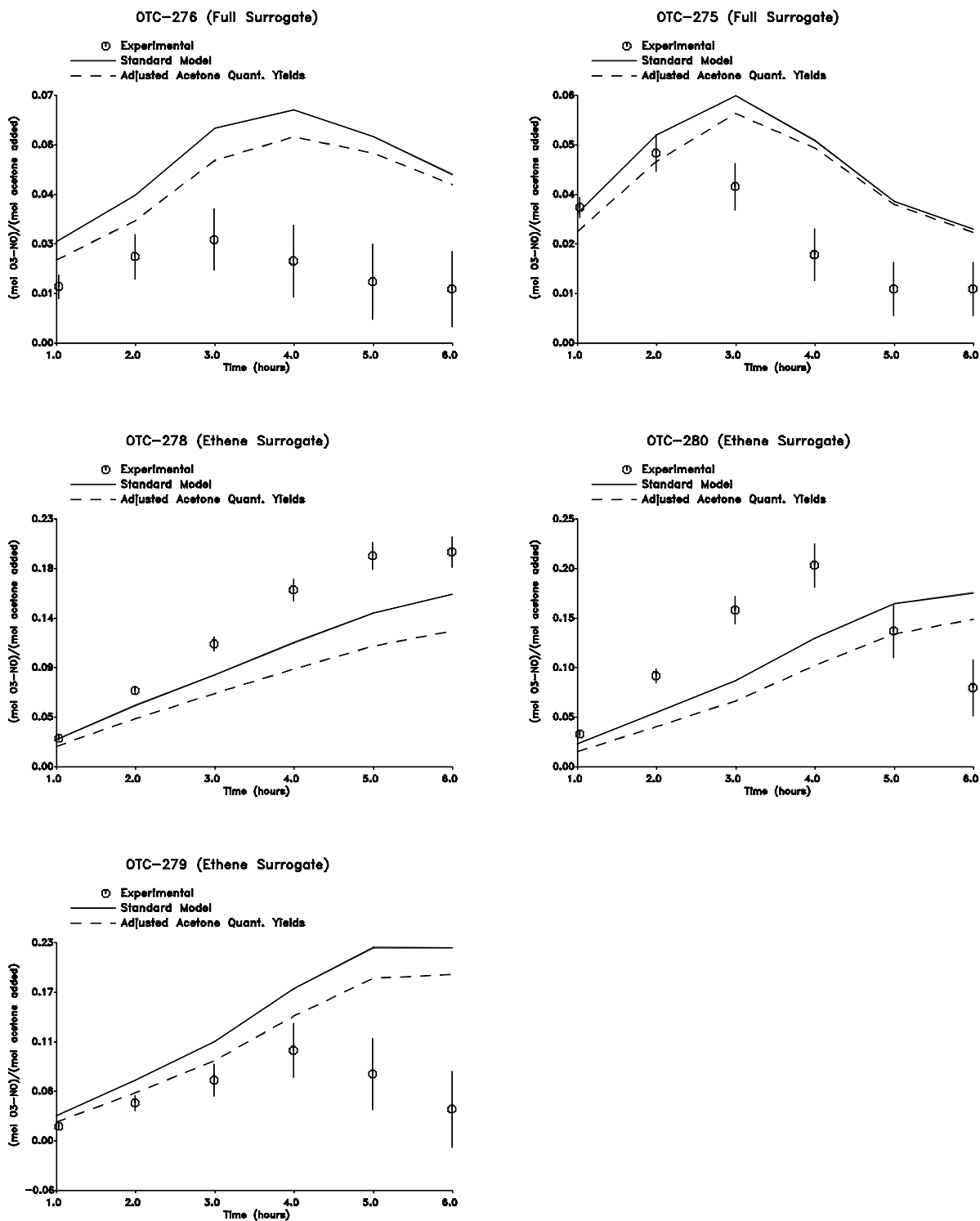


Figure 17. Experimental and calculated incremental reactivities, as a function of reaction time, in the added acetone reactivity experiments carried out in the outdoor chamber.

reactivities at earlier periods in the runs, before the predictions of the model for the base case experiment began to deviate significantly from the data. However, until the problems which caused the poor performance of the model in simulating the base case runs are addressed, we consider the outdoor chamber acetone reactivity experiments to be inconclusive and not useful for mechanism evaluation.

### **Ethane vs Acetone Comparison Experiments**

Two outdoor chamber experiments were conducted on the outdoor chamber where the effects of adding approximately equal masses of acetone or ethane to a full surrogate - NO<sub>x</sub> mixture were determined. In the first experiment (run OTC-312), the acetone was added to Side A (on the eastern side) while ethane was added to side B, while in the second experiment (OTC-313) the sides were reversed. For control purposes, a side equivalency test, where equal amounts of the surrogate - NO<sub>x</sub> mixture were irradiated on both sides without any other additions, was also carried out. The same amount of surrogate and NO<sub>x</sub> was used in all three runs. The conditions and selected results of these experiments are shown on Table 2, and selected results are shown on Figure 18. Note that the temperature was much higher in run OTC-312 than in the other two runs, and as a result much more ozone was formed than in run OTC-313, despite the fact that essentially the same reactant concentrations were employed.

The results of both acetone vs ethane experiments suggest that acetone has a slightly greater ozone reactivity than ethane under the conditions of these experiments. However, the differences are not the same in the two runs. In the higher temperature run (OTC-312), the NO oxidation and ozone formation rates were somewhat faster on the acetone side compared to the ethane side, though the final ozone yields were essentially the same. On the other hand, in the lower temperature run (OTC-313), the ozone formation and NO oxidation rates were essentially equal on both sides until the last hour, when slightly more ozone was formed on the side with acetone. The side equivalency test showed that the NO oxidation and ozone formation rate is slightly faster on the eastern side (Side A), presumably due to the fact the sun is to the east in the mornings. However, the effect of the side differences is small compared to the differences observed in run OTC-312. Since acetone is on the less reactive side in run OTC-313, where the acetone and ethane sides had equal NO and ozone results for most of the run, this suggests that the NO oxidation and ozone formation rates might have been slightly higher on the acetone side had this inequivalency not existed. On the other hand, the apparent greater reactivity of acetone relative to ethane would have been reduced in run OTC-312, where acetone is on the more reactive side.

The results of model simulations of these experiments are also shown on Figure 18. As with the other OTC runs employing the full surrogate, the model consistently underpredicts the rate of ozone formation and NO oxidation. It also significantly overpredicts the differences in reactivity between acetone and ethane in the lower temperature run, and the differences in final ozone yields in the higher temperature run.

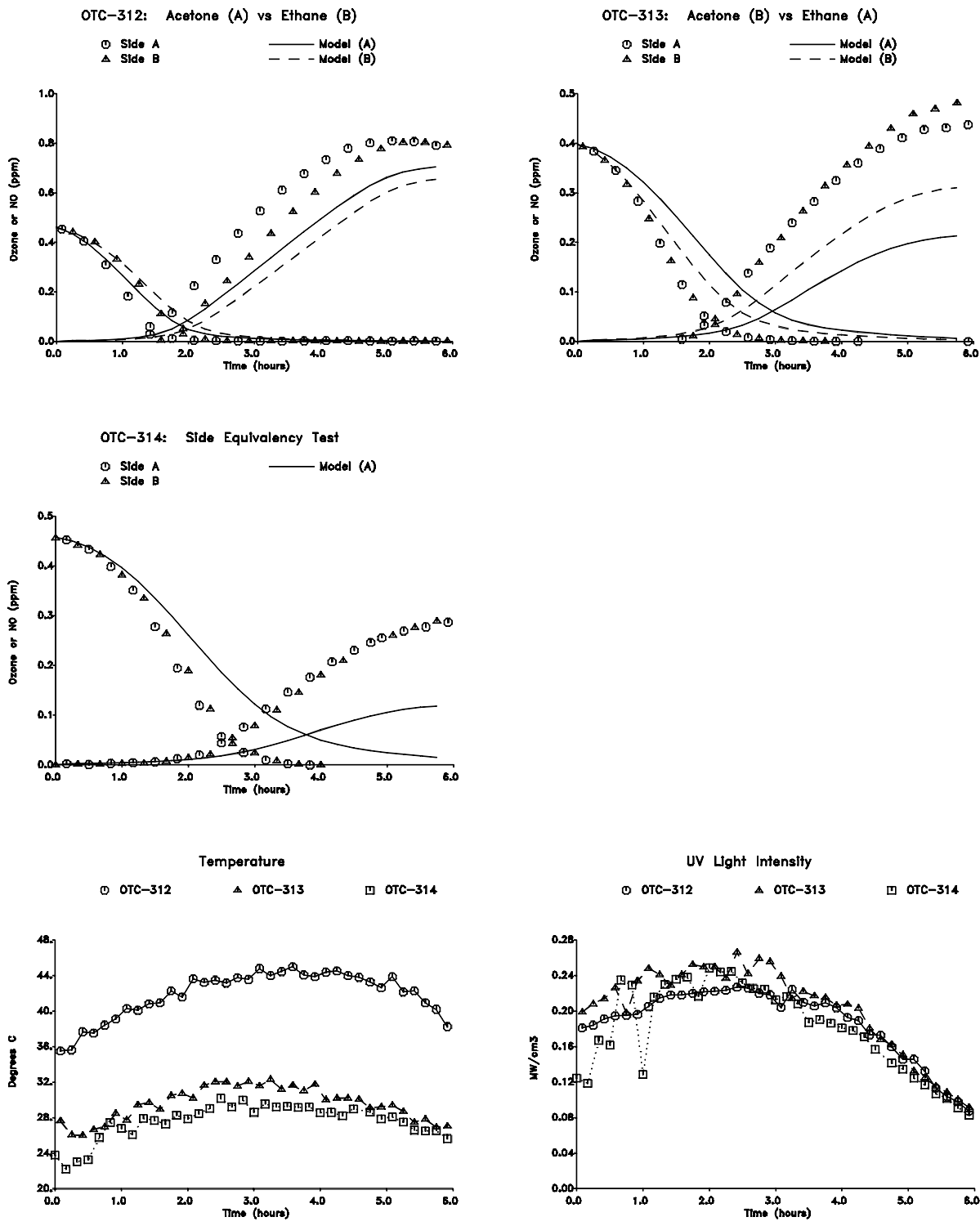


Figure 18. Experimental and calculated concentration-time profiles for ozone and NO, and experimental temperature and UV light intensity data, in the acetone vs ethane comparison experiments and the associated side equivalency test.



These results can be compared with the results of a very similar experiment reported by Jeffries (1993), where equal amounts of ethane and acetone (on a per carbon basis) were added to an ROG surrogate -  $\text{NO}_x$  mix on the two sides of the University of North Carolina (UNC) outdoor chamber, and simultaneously irradiated. As with our OTC experiments, an equal amount of ethane was added on a per carbon basis as the ROG surrogate, but unlike our experiments the amount of acetone added had the same number of carbons, rather than the same mass, as the added ethane. This meant that the amount of acetone added was 28% higher, compared to added ethane, in the UNC experiment compared to our runs. Despite the relatively higher amount of added acetone, in the UNC experiment there was no measurable difference in the amount of ozone formed in the added acetone side compared to the added ethane side. Thus, either the reactivity difference was too small to be measured under the conditions of the UNC experiment, or acetone is slightly less reactive than ethane under the conditions of that run. This is in contrast with our results, where acetone was found to be very slightly more reactive in both experiments.

Although the runs (both ours and UNC's) need to be reproduced before definitive conclusions can be reached, the two OTC experiments suggest that the differences in reactivity of acetone and ethane may be temperature dependent, with the reactivities being nearly equal at the lower temperature (which is more representative of most ambient conditions), but with acetone becoming relatively more reactive as the temperature increases to above  $40^\circ\text{C}$  ( $104^\circ\text{F}$ ). A temperature effect in the differences of reactivity might be attributed to the relative importance of PAN formation in the photooxidation of acetone, since the decomposition of PAN to form radicals is highly temperature dependent. However, the average temperature in the UNC experiment was approximately  $305^\circ\text{K}$ , which is closer to (but slightly higher than) the lower temperature run in this study. Thus, a temperature effect cannot be the reason for the lower apparent reactivity of acetone relative to ethane in the UNC experiment compared to these runs. More research concerning effects of temperature on the base case system is needed before any conclusions can be made concerning the ability of the model to predict temperature effects on relative reactivities.

## **Model Simulations Using the Adjusted Acetone Mechanism**

The model simulations of the acetone experiments in the chambers with the blacklight and xenon arc light sources, taken together, indicate that there is a problem with how the mechanism predicts the acetone photolysis rate is affected by the spectrum of the light source. Although the possibility of compensating errors can never be ruled out in model simulations of environmental chamber experiments (Jeffries et al., 1992), the fact that the model gives reasonably good fits to the results of the acetaldehyde experiments using the various light sources suggests that the discrepancies observed for acetone in these chambers are not likely to be due to errors in our characterization of experimental conditions. If the absorption cross sections are assumed to be correct (they are fairly straightforward to measure and there is no significant inconsistency in the literature concerning them) this discrepancy can only be explained by the model having an incorrect dependence of the quantum yields on wavelength. As discussed above, there are inconsistencies in the literature concerning the acetone quantum yields, and the accepted values

are based on analyses of chemical systems which are almost as complex as these chamber experiments.

The data in the literature do not provide any guidance for reducing the discrepancy, since the quantum yields we use in the model already are lower than any of the published values (see above). If we had not corrected the quantum yields of Meyrahn et al. (1986), or used the higher quantum yields of Gardner et al. (1984), the discrepancy between the model and our data from the blacklight chambers would be even worse. Therefore, the only option we have is to make arbitrary adjustments to the quantum yields to see if it is possible to make the model simulations more consistent with our experimental data.

We found that a factor of two downward adjustment of the photolysis rates resulted in a model which gave excellent predictions to the experimental incremental reactivities in the blacklight chamber, and somewhat better predictions of the results of the acetone - NO<sub>x</sub> runs using that light source. This is shown on Figures 3-8, where the "adjusted acetone quantum yields" model uses acetone photolysis rates which are 54% of the value used in the standard model. However, if this adjustment is made by reducing the quantum yields by the same factor at all wavelengths, the result would be that the photolysis rate is also reduced by a factor of ~2 in the XTC runs, which would cause a significant underprediction of ozone formation in the acetone - NO<sub>x</sub> runs in that chamber. This is shown in Figure 11, where the dotted lines show the model prediction where the acetone photolysis rate is reduced by approximately the same factor that gives the best fits to the blacklight chamber runs. Since the XTC light source has a spectrum which more closely resembles sunlight than do blacklights, this would clearly not be an acceptable adjustment for a model to be used in ambient simulations.

To fit both the blacklight and xenon arc chamber data, it is necessary to adjust the quantum yields such that the photolysis rates for the blacklight light source is reduced by ~2, while the rates with the xenon arc are relatively unchanged. A possible approach for doing this is suggested by examining the spectra of the light sources in the wavelength regions which affect acetone photolysis. Figure 1 shows the spectra of these light sources over the full wavelength region affecting most photolysis reactions, but shows that only a relatively narrow wavelength region, from ~290 - 320 nm, affects the photolysis of acetone. Figure 19 shows more clearly the spectra of the light sources, and the action spectrum for acetone, in the 300 - 320 nm wavelength region. It can be seen that the blacklights have a much lower intensity in this wavelength region than do the xenon lights or sunlight, which means that it would have a lower photolysis rate relative to that for NO<sub>2</sub>. This should already be taken into account in the model simulations, since the spectra shown are used to calculate the photolysis rates. However, it is also significant to note that the ratios of intensities of the xenon light to the blacklights increase significantly with increasing wavelength in this region. Therefore, the wavelength region affecting the acetone photolysis rates for blacklights is higher than that affecting the photolysis rate for the xenon arc light

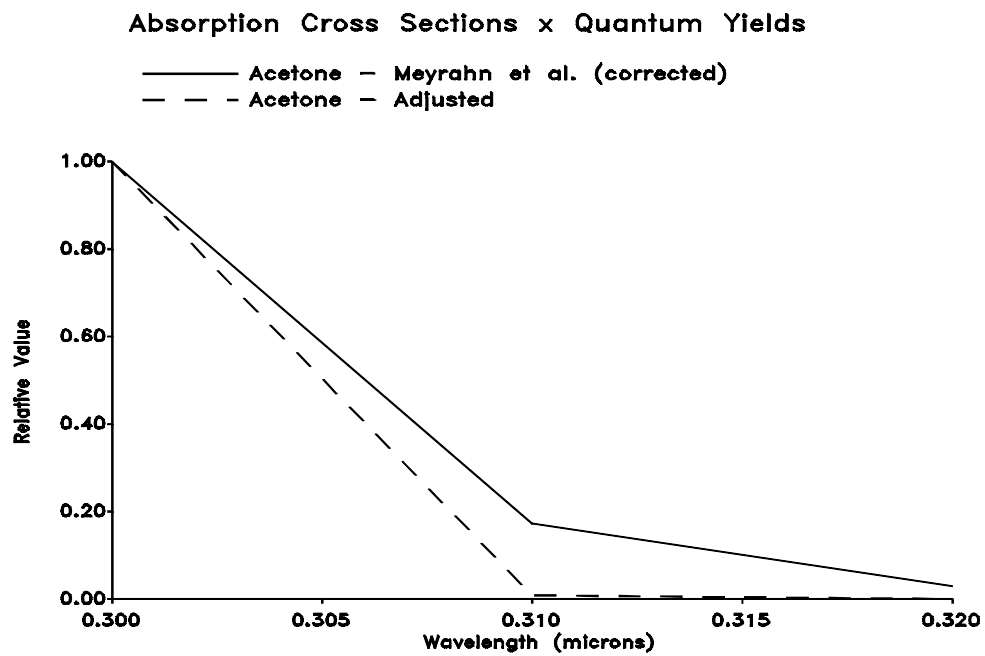
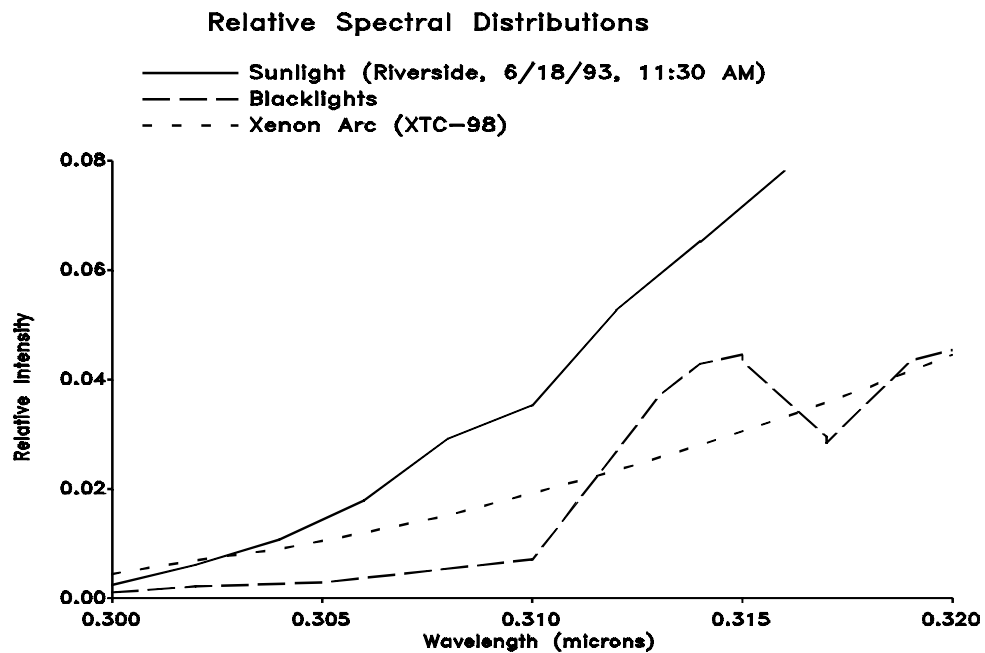


Figure 19. Top Plot shows comparison of spectra of light sources used in the environmental chamber studies, for the wavelength range 300 - 320 nm. Bottom plot shows spectra of absorption cross sections x quantum yields for the standard and the adjusted acetone mechanisms.

source. This means that decreasing the quantum yields at the higher wavelengths which are more important in affecting the rate in the blacklight chamber while increasing them at the lower wavelengths which are more important for the rate in the XTC might yield the desired photolysis rates under both conditions.

An adjusted acetone action spectrum which causes the desired reduction in the acetone photolysis rate with blacklights without significantly changing the photolysis rate in the XTC is shown on Figure 19. This spectrum results assuming that the quantum yield is essentially constant at ~0.6 at wavelengths below 290 nm, decreases to 0.005 at 310 nm, and to essentially 0 at 320 nm, in contrast with the corrected quantum yields of Meyrahn et al. (1986), where the quantum yields decrease more gradually with wavelength from ~0.6 at 290 nm to 0.01 at 320 nm and 0 at 330 nm. Thus the adjusted quantum yields are essentially the same as to those of Meyrahn et al (1986) at wavelengths  $\leq 280$  nm, are respectively ~2 and ~1.5 times higher at 290 and 300 nm, and are significantly lower at wavelengths  $\geq 310$  nm. (The specific quantum yields are given with the mechanism listing in Appendix A.) The model using this set of quantum yields is referred to as the "adjusted acetone" model. Although the set of quantum yields used in this adjusted model is not theoretically unreasonable, we have no justification for it other than its use results in significantly better fits to our chamber data.

The model simulations of our chamber experiments using the adjusted acetone model are shown on Figures 3-8 for blacklight chamber runs, on Figure 11 for the XTC runs, and on Figures 13 and 15-17 for the outdoor chamber runs. As discussed above, the improvement for the blacklight chamber runs is significant, though the adjusted model somewhat underpredicts the NO oxidation and ozone formation rates in run ETC-445 (Figure 3). On the other hand, the adjustment does not degrade the simulation of the acetone runs in the XTC (Figure 11); instead it slightly improves it. The adjusted model also gives a significantly better simulation of the wintertime outdoor acetone - NO<sub>x</sub> run (OTC-270B), though the simulation of the summertime runs (OTC-273A and OTC-274B) are not quite as good as the unadjusted model (Figure 13). The changes in the predictions of the incremental reactivities in the outdoor runs (Figure 17) caused by the adjustment are relatively small compared to the discrepancy between the model calculation and the experimental data. Thus, the simulations of the outdoor runs are not sufficiently consistent to make any conclusions concerning which mechanism performs better. However, simulations of the better characterized indoor runs provide a much less ambiguous test of the mechanism, and the results indicate that the adjusted model performs significantly better in simulating acetone's reactivity and in predicting the effects of changing the spectrum of the light source.

## ATMOSPHERIC REACTIVITY CALCULATIONS

Since incremental reactivities of VOCs have been shown to be highly dependent on environmental conditions, incremental reactivities measured in environmental chamber experiments cannot necessarily be assumed to be applicable to atmospheric conditions (Carter and Atkinson, 1989). The only method available to obtain quantitative estimates of incremental reactivities of VOCs in ambient air pollution episodes is to conduct airshed model simulations of the episodes. Since these simulations cannot be any more reliable than the chemical mechanisms used, a major objective of this program was to assess the reliability of the acetone mechanism for use in such simulations. This was discussed in the previous sections. In this section, we discuss the results of model simulations of acetone's incremental reactivity in a variety of model scenarios representing ozone exceedence episodes in various areas in the United States (Bauges, 1990), and compare the results to incremental reactivities calculated for ethane and for the base ROG, i.e., the mixture representing total ROG emissions from all sources. Both the adjusted and the unadjusted acetone mechanism are used.

### Scenarios Used for Reactivity Assessment

The set of airshed scenarios employed to assess acetone's reactivity for this study is the same as those used for calculating the MIR and other reactivity scales, as discussed previously (Carter, 1993a). The objective is to use a set of scenarios which represents, as much as possible, a comprehensive distribution of the environmental conditions where unacceptable levels of ozone is formed. Although a set of scenarios has not been developed for the specific purpose of VOC reactivity assessment, the EPA developed an extensive set of scenarios for conducting analyses of effects of ROG and NO<sub>x</sub> controls on ozone formation using the EKMA modeling approach (Gipson et al., 1981; Gipson and Freas, 1983; EPA, 1984; Gery et al., 1987; Bauges, 1990). The EKMA approach involves use of single-cell box models to simulate how ozone formation in one day episodes is affected by changes in ROG and NO<sub>x</sub> inputs. Although single-cell models cannot represent realistic pollution episodes in great detail, they can represent dynamic injection of pollutants, time-varying changes of inversion heights with entrainment of pollutants from aloft as the inversion height increases throughout the day, and time-varying photolysis rates, temperatures, and humidities (Gipson and Freas, 1981; EPA, 1984; Gipson, 1984; Hogo et al., 1988). Thus, they can be used to simulate a wide range of the chemical conditions which affect ozone formation from ROG and NO<sub>x</sub>. These are the same as those affecting VOC reactivity. Therefore, at least to the extent they are suitable for their intended purpose, an appropriate set of EKMA scenarios should also be suitable for assessing methods to develop reactivity scales encompassing a wide range of conditions.

### Base Case Scenarios

The set of EKMA scenarios used in this study were developed by the United States EPA for assessing how various ROG and NO<sub>x</sub> control strategies would affect ozone nonattainment in various areas of the country (Bauges, 1990). The characteristics of these scenarios and the methods used to derive their input data are described in more detail elsewhere (Bauges, 1990; Carter, 1993a). Briefly, 39 urban areas in the United States were selected based on geographical representativeness of ozone nonattainment areas and data availability, and a representative high ozone episode was selected for each. The initial NMOC and NO<sub>x</sub> concentrations, the aloft O<sub>3</sub> concentrations, and the mixing height inputs were based on measurement data for the various areas, the hourly emissions in the scenarios were obtained from the National Acid Precipitation Assessment Program emissions inventory (Bauges, 1990), and biogenic emissions were also included. Table 3 gives a summary of the urban areas represented and other selected characteristics of the scenarios.

Several changes to the scenario inputs were made based on discussions with the California ARB staff and others (Carter, 1993a). Two percent of the initial NO<sub>x</sub> and 0.1% of the emitted NO<sub>x</sub> in all the scenarios was assumed to be in the form of HONO. The photolysis rates were calculated using solar light intensities and spectra calculated by Jeffries (1991b) for 640 meters, the approximate mid-point of the mixed layer during daylight hours. The composition of the NMOCs entrained from aloft was based on the analysis of Jeffries et al (1989a). The composition of the initial and emitted reactive organics was derived as discussed below. Complete listings of the input data for the scenarios are given elsewhere (Carter, 1993a).

This set of 39 EKMA scenarios are referred to as "base case" to distinguish them from the scenarios derived from them by adjusting NO<sub>x</sub> inputs to yield standard conditions of NO<sub>x</sub> availability as discussed below. No claim is made as to the accuracy of these scenarios in representing any real episode, but they are a result of an effort to represent, as accurately as possible given the available data and the limitations of the formulation of the EKMA model, the range of conditions occurring in urban areas throughout the United States. When developing general reactivity scales it is more important that the scenarios employed represent a realistic distribution of chemical conditions than any accurately representing the details of any one particular episode.

The Base ROG mixture is the mixture of reactive organic gases used to represent the chemical composition of the initial and emitted anthropogenic reactive organic gases from all sources in the scenarios. Consistent with the approach used in the original EPA scenarios, the same mixture was used for all scenarios. The speciation for this mixture was derived by Croes (1991) based on an analysis of the EPA database (Jeffries et al. 1989a) for the hydrocarbons and the 1987 Southern California Air Quality Study (SCAQS) database for the oxygenates (Croes et al., 1993; Lurmann et al., 1992). This mixture consists of 52% (by carbon) alkanes, 15% alkenes, 27% aromatics, 1% formaldehyde, 2% higher

Table 3. Summary of conditions of base case scenarios used for atmospheric reactivity assessment.

City, State	Calc. Max O <sub>3</sub> (ppb)	ROG /NO <sub>x</sub>	NO <sub>x</sub> /NO <sub>x</sub> <sup>MOR</sup>	Final Height (km)	Init.+Emit Base ROG (mmol m <sup>-2</sup> )	Aloft O <sub>3</sub> (ppb)
Atlanta, GA	174	7.3	0.7	2.1	12	63
Austin, TX	171	9.3	0.5	2.1	11	85
Baltimore, MD	304	5.2	1.1	1.2	17	84
Baton Rouge, LA	235	6.8	1.0	1.0	11	62
Birmingham, AL	233	6.9	0.6	1.8	13	81
Boston, MA	191	6.5	0.6	2.6	14	105
Charlotte, NC	142	7.8	0.3	3.0	7	92
Chicago, IL	273	11.6	0.5	1.4	25	40
Cincinnati, OH	192	6.4	0.8	2.8	17	70
Cleveland, OH	239	6.6	1.0	1.7	16	89
Dallas, TX	192	4.7	1.3	2.3	18	75
Denver, CO	195	6.3	1.2	3.4	29	57
Detroit, MI	229	6.8	0.8	1.8	17	68
El Paso, TX	177	6.6	1.1	2.0	12	65
Hartford, CT	166	8.4	0.5	2.3	11	78
Houston, TX	291	6.1	1.0	1.7	25	65
Indianapolis, IN	201	6.6	0.9	1.7	12	52
Jacksonville, FL	152	7.6	0.7	1.5	8	40
Kansas City, MO	151	7.1	0.6	2.2	9	65
Lake Charles, LA	282	7.4	0.7	0.5	7	40
Los Angeles, CA	546	7.6	1.0	0.5	23	100
Louisville, KY	203	5.5	0.9	2.5	14	75
Memphis, TN	218	6.8	0.7	1.8	15	58
Miami, FL	131	9.6	0.4	2.7	9	57
Nashville, TN	163	8.1	0.5	1.6	7	50
New York, NY	350	8.1	0.8	1.5	39	103
Philadelphia, PA	230	6.2	1.0	1.8	19	53
Phoenix, AZ	258	7.6	1.0	3.3	40	60
Portland, OR	161	6.5	0.7	1.6	6	66
Richmond, VA	225	6.2	0.8	1.9	16	64
Sacramento, CA	194	6.6	0.9	1.1	7	60
St Louis, MO	301	6.1	1.1	1.6	26	82
Salt Lake City, UT	179	8.5	0.6	2.2	11	85
San Antonio, TX	126	3.9	1.1	2.3	6	60
San Diego, CA	186	7.1	1.0	0.9	8	90
San Francisco, CA	222	4.8	1.8	0.7	25	70
Tampa, FL	217	4.4	1.1	1.0	8	68
Tulsa, OK	216	5.3	0.9	1.8	15	70
Washington, DC	268	5.3	0.9	1.4	13	99

aldehydes, 1% ketones, and 2% acetylene. The detailed composition of this mixture is given elsewhere (Carter, 1993a).

### **Maximum Incremental Reactivity (MIR) and Maximum Ozone Reactivity (MOR) Scenarios**

Incremental reactivities in the base case scenarios would be expected to vary widely, since incremental reactivities depend on the ROG/NO<sub>x</sub> ratio, and that ratio varies widely among the base case scenarios. To obtain reactivity scales for specified NO<sub>x</sub> conditions, a separate set of scenarios, designated MIR (for maximum incremental reactivity) and MOR (for maximum ozone reactivity) were developed (Carter, 1991, 1993a,b). In the MIR scenarios, the NO<sub>x</sub> inputs were adjusted so the base ROG mixture (and most other VOCs) have their highest incremental reactivity. In the MOR scenarios, the NO<sub>x</sub> inputs were adjusted to yield the highest ozone concentration. The changes in the base case ROG/NO<sub>x</sub> ratios which yielded the MOR scenarios are given in Table 3. As discussed by Carter (1993a,b) the MIR ROG/NO<sub>x</sub> ratios are ~1.4 times higher than MOR ratios in all cases.

### **NO<sub>x</sub> Conditions in the Base Case Scenarios**

As indicated above, the variability of ROG/NO<sub>x</sub> ratios in the base case scenarios suggest a variability of reactivity characteristics in the base case scenarios. However, as discussed previously (Carter, 1993a,b), the ROG/NO<sub>x</sub> ratio is also variable in the MIR or MOR scenarios, despite the fact that the NO<sub>x</sub> inputs in these scenarios are adjusted to yield a specified reactivity characteristic. Thus, the ROG/NO<sub>x</sub> ratio, by itself, is not necessarily a good predictor of reactivity characteristics of a particular scenario. The NO<sub>x</sub>/NO<sub>x</sub><sup>MOR</sup> ratio is a much better predictor of this, with values greater than 1 indicating relatively high NO<sub>x</sub> conditions where ozone formation is more sensitive to VOCs, and values less than 1 indicating NO<sub>x</sub>-limited conditions. NO<sub>x</sub>/NO<sub>x</sub><sup>MOR</sup> ratios less than 0.7 represent conditions where NO<sub>x</sub> control is a more effective ozone control strategy than ROG control (Carter, 1993a,b). Note that more than half of the base case scenarios represent NO<sub>x</sub>-limited conditions, and ~25% of them represent conditions where NO<sub>x</sub> control is more beneficial than VOC control. A relatively small number of scenarios represent MIR or near MIR conditions. However, as discussed elsewhere (Carter, 1993a,b), this set of scenarios is based on near-worst-case conditions for ozone formation in each of the airsheds. Had scenarios representing less-than-worst-case conditions been included, one might expect a larger number of MIR or near MIR scenarios. This is because NO<sub>x</sub> is consumed more slowly on days with lower light intensity or temperature, and thus the scenario is less likely to become NO<sub>x</sub>-limited.

### **Incremental and Relative Reactivities**

The incremental reactivity of a VOC in an airshed scenario is the change in ozone caused by adding the VOC to the emissions, divided by the amount of VOC added, calculated for sufficiently small amounts of added VOC that the incremental reactivity is independent of the amount added. The procedure used to calculate incremental reactivities in a scenario was as discussed in detail elsewhere (Carter, 1993a). The incremental reactivities depend on how the amount of VOC added are quantified. In this work, the



added VOC was quantified on a mass basis, since this is how VOCs are regulated. In addition, the incremental reactivities also depend on how ozone impacts are quantified (Carter, 1993a,b). In this work, two different ozone quantifications were used, resulting in two different incremental reactivities being calculated for a VOC in a scenario. These are discussed below.

The "Ozone Yield" incremental reactivities measure the effect of the VOC on the total amount of ozone formed in the scenario at the time of its maximum concentration. In this work, this is quantified as grams O<sub>3</sub> formed per gram VOC added. This gives the same ratios of incremental reactivities as reactivities calculated from peak ozone concentrations, but is preferred because it permits magnitudes of reactivities in scenarios with differing dilutions to be compared on the same basis. Most previous recent studies of incremental reactivity (Dodge, 1984; Carter and Atkinson, 1987, 1989, Chang and Rudy, 1990; Jeffries and Crouse, 1991) have all been based on ozone yield or peak ozone concentration reactivities.

The ozone yield incremental reactivities do not necessarily measure the effect of the VOC on exposure of unacceptable levels of ozone because it does not measure how long high levels of ozone is present. A quantification which reflects this is integrated ozone over the standard, which is defined as the sum of the hourly ozone concentrations for the hours when ozone exceeds the standard in the base case scenarios (Carter 1993a,b). In the previous work (Carter, 1993a,b), we used the California ozone standard of 90 ppb, but in this work we will use the national standard of 0.12 ppm. Reactivities relative to this quantification of ozone are referred to by the abbreviation "IntO<sub>3</sub>>0.12" reactivities.

Relative reactivities are ratios of incremental reactivities to incremental reactivities of some standard VOC or mixture. Since these are the quantities which usually are the most relevant to control strategy applications, the results in this work will be given in terms of relative reactivities. In our previous work (Carter 1991, 1993a,b), we used the incremental reactivity of the base ROG mixture, i.e., the mixture representing ROG pollutants from all sources, as the standard to define relative reactivities. To be consistent with the terminology in the previous work, if the term "relative reactivity" is used without qualifier it refers to incremental reactivities relative to the base ROG mixture. However, because of the tendency within the EPA to consider ethane as the standard to define exempt vs controlled VOCs, we will also give reactivity ratios where ethane is used as the standard.

## **Reactivity Scales**

A reactivity scale is a set of incremental or relative reactivities for a particular scenario or group of scenarios. Two types of reactivity scales will be discussed here, "base case" scales and adjusted NO<sub>x</sub> scales. Base case scales are simply the set of incremental or relative reactivities in the 39 base case scenarios. Two sets of base case scales are derived — those based ozone yield reactivities and those based on IntO<sub>3</sub>>0.12 reactivities. In the previous work (Carter, 1991, 1993a,b) we derived various multi-scenario scales from the individual base case scales by averaging or other procedures, to evaluate alternative

approaches for developing single reactivity scales for applications requiring single scales. However, the decision of whether to exempt a VOC should not be made based on relative reactivities of a single scale, but on a knowledge of the range of relative reactivities for a variety of conditions. Thus in this work we present the distribution of base case relative reactivities for the 39 individual scenarios rather than developing aggregated or optimum scales which represent the distribution by single numbers.

The adjusted  $\text{NO}_x$  incremental reactivity scales refer to the MIR (maximum incremental reactivity) or the MOIR (maximum ozone incremental reactivity) scales. These consist of averages of incremental reactivities MIR or MOIR scenarios, respectively. Relative reactivities in these scales are ratios of incremental reactivities in these scales. Reactivities in the MIR scale are of interest because the California Air Resources Board utilized an MIR scale to calculate reactivity adjustment factors in its clean fuels/low emissions vehicle regulations (CARB, 1991). The justification for using this scale in applications requiring a single scale (such as the CARB vehicle regulations) is that it reflects conditions where ozone is most sensitive to changes in VOC emissions, and complements  $\text{NO}_x$  control, which is most effective for reducing ozone under conditions where the MIR scale is least applicable (Carter, 1993a,b). The MOIR scale is preferred by many as an alternative for such applications because it reflects conditions which are most favorable for ozone, and is more representative of the distribution of conditions in the base case scenarios (Carter 1993a,b). Most other alternative reactivity scales which might be appropriate for assessing VOC control strategies (i.e., excluding scales representing highly  $\text{NO}_x$ -limited conditions where ozone is more sensitive to  $\text{NO}_x$  than VOCs) tend to fall in the range defined by the MIR and MOIR scales.

Note that the MIR, MOIR and base case scales derived in this work are somewhat different from those calculated previously (Carter, 1993a,b) because an updated chemical mechanism was used. Table 4 gives the MIR and MOIR incremental reactivities using the mechanism employed in this work and compares them with those calculated previously (Carter, 1993a,b), which were derived using the SAPRC-90 mechanism. The updates to the mechanism result in higher incremental reactivities for all species except for formaldehyde, acetone, and benzaldehyde, higher relative reactivities for internal alkenes, alkanes other than methane and benzene, lower relative reactivities for formaldehyde, acetone, and benzaldehyde, and slightly lower relative reactivities for most other species. The decrease in relative reactivity for formaldehyde and acetone, and increase for internal alkenes, are directly attributable to changes in their mechanisms as discussed above.

### **Calculated Relative Reactivities of Acetone and Ethane**

Table 5 gives a tabulation of the relative reactivities of acetone and ethane in the various base case and MIR and MOIR reactivity scales calculated using the updated mechanism. Distribution plots of the relative reactivities of acetone and ethane in the base case scenarios are shown on Figure 20, Figure 21 gives distribution plots of the acetone/ethane incremental reactivity ratio for the base case scenarios, and

Table 4. Comparison of incremental and relative reactivities in the MIR and MOIR scales calculated using the updated and the SAPRC-90 mechanisms.

Compound	MIR Scale [a]				MOIR Scale [a]			
	SAPRC-90 IR	Updated IR	Change (%)		SAPRC-90 IR	Updated IR	Change (%)	
			IR	RR			IR	RR
CO	0.054	0.061	13%	-3%	0.038	0.040	4%	-10%
Methane	0.0150	0.016	10%	-6%	0.0093	0.0099	6%	-8%
Ethane	0.25	0.30	21%	4%	0.17	0.20	24%	6%
n-Butane	1.02	1.26	23%	5%	0.66	0.83	26%	9%
n-Octane	0.60	0.83	37%	17%	0.41	0.57	38%	19%
iso-Octane	0.93	1.16	25%	7%	0.54	0.72	33%	15%
n-Decane	0.46	0.68	46%	25%	0.31	0.47	51%	30%
Ethene	7.4	8.3	12%	-4%	3.2	3.4	6%	-9%
Propene	9.4	11.2	18%	1%	3.8	4.3	13%	-3%
trans-2-Butene	10.0	13.5	35%	16%	3.8	4.7	25%	7%
Isobutene	5.3	6.0	13%	-3%	1.9	2.0	4%	-10%
1-Hexene	4.4	5.7	30%	11%	1.7	2.3	31%	13%
Benzene	0.42	0.60	42%	22%	0.138	0.20	48%	27%
Toluene	2.7	3.2	16%	-1%	0.63	0.69	10%	-5%
m-Xylene	8.2	8.8	8%	-8%	2.5	2.5	2%	-12%
135-TM-Benzene	10.1	11.3	11%	-5%	3.1	3.2	4%	-11%
Methanol	0.56	0.63	11%	-5%	0.28	0.29	4%	-11%
Ethanol	1.34	1.6	21%	4%	0.72	0.90	24%	7%
Formaldehyde	7.2	7.0	-2%	-16%	2.1	1.9	-11%	-23%
Acetaldehyde	5.5	6.3	15%	-2%	2.2	2.4	12%	-3%
Acetone [b]	0.56	0.49	-13%	-25%	0.20	0.19	-7%	-20%
Benzaldehyde	-0.57	-0.24	58%	64%	-1.24	-1.41	-14%	2%
Cresols	2.3	2.6	13%	-3%	-0.58	-0.59	3%	-12%
Base ROG Mix	3.1	3.7	17%	0%	1.17	1.36	16%	0%

[a] IR = incremental reactivities in units of grams O<sub>3</sub> per gram VOC; RR = reactivity relative to base ROG mixture.

[b] Standard acetone mechanism.

Table 5. Relative ozone yield and  $\text{IntO}_3 > 0.12$  reactivities and reactivity ratios for acetone and ethane in the base case scenarios and the MIR and MOIR scales.

Scenario or Scale	Base ROG IR [a]	Reactivities Relative to Base ROG					
		— Ozone Yield Ethane	Acetone (Standard)	Acetone (Adjusted)	— $\text{IntO}_3 > 0.12$ Reactivities Ethane	Acetone (Standard)	Acetone (Adjusted)
<b>Base Case Scenarios</b>							
ATL GA	0.93	0.17	0.144	0.128	0.130	0.123	0.107
AUS TX	0.74	0.20	0.147	0.133	0.149	0.117	0.103
BAL MD	1.7	0.132	0.142	0.123	0.086	0.126	0.104
BAT LA	1.00	0.142	0.136	0.117	0.103	0.117	0.098
BIR AL	0.80	0.24	0.17	0.16	0.129	0.120	0.103
BOS MA	0.79	0.21	0.147	0.136	0.143	0.120	0.106
CHA NC	0.60	0.22	0.16	0.145	0.18	0.138	0.125
CHI IL	0.38	0.24	0.18	0.16	0.135	0.115	0.096
CIN OH	1.14	0.19	0.141	0.129	0.120	0.112	0.096
CLE OH	1.25	0.139	0.135	0.118	0.092	0.115	0.096
DAL TX	2.5	0.103	0.125	0.104	0.085	0.114	0.094
DEN CO	1.7	0.097	0.132	0.111	0.074	0.122	0.100
DET MI	1.02	0.20	0.144	0.130	0.121	0.114	0.098
ELP TX	1.5	0.104	0.130	0.107	0.081	0.118	0.095
HAR CT	0.86	0.21	0.15	0.140	0.16	0.130	0.116
HOU TX	1.21	0.17	0.140	0.125	0.104	0.111	0.094
IND IN	1.37	0.15	0.131	0.115	0.110	0.116	0.098
JAC FL	0.82	0.16	0.137	0.120	0.143	0.126	0.109
KAN MO	1.10	0.20	0.143	0.131	0.16	0.124	0.111
LAK LA	0.60	0.21	0.15	0.138	0.135	0.118	0.099
LOS CA	0.77	0.121	0.128	0.110	0.075	0.106	0.084
LOU KY	1.36	0.18	0.144	0.129	0.128	0.119	0.103
MEM TN	0.89	0.20	0.15	0.138	0.126	0.119	0.102
MIA FL	0.61	0.19	0.148	0.133	0.18	0.141	0.127
NAS TN	0.81	0.24	0.17	0.16	0.19	0.149	0.135
NEW NY	0.45	0.16	0.130	0.114	0.084	0.100	0.080
PHI PA	1.20	0.16	0.135	0.121	0.105	0.116	0.099
PHO AZ	1.41	0.144	0.139	0.121	0.093	0.115	0.095
POR OR	1.08	0.18	0.139	0.125	0.142	0.124	0.108
RIC VA	1.11	0.18	0.144	0.132	0.110	0.120	0.103
SAC CA	1.29	0.16	0.15	0.132	0.125	0.133	0.115
SAI MO	1.42	0.124	0.137	0.119	0.081	0.120	0.101
SAL UT	0.94	0.19	0.16	0.140	0.128	0.125	0.108
SAN TX	1.8	0.124	0.126	0.107	0.120	0.124	0.105
SDO CA	0.98	0.110	0.109	0.090	0.085	0.099	0.078
SFO CA	1.9	0.053	0.146	0.116	0.050	0.142	0.114
TAM FL	1.8	0.123	0.132	0.113	0.094	0.119	0.099
TUL OK	1.27	0.17	0.137	0.124	0.120	0.118	0.103
WAS DC	1.07	0.19	0.146	0.132	0.110	0.112	0.096
Average	1.13	0.166	0.142	0.126	0.118	0.120	0.103
<b>Adjusted <math>\text{NO}_x</math> Scales</b>							
MIR Scale	3.7	0.082	0.133	0.110			
MOIR Scale	1.36	0.150	0.139	0.121			

[a] Incremental reactivity in units of  $\text{gm O}_3/\text{gm VOC}$ .

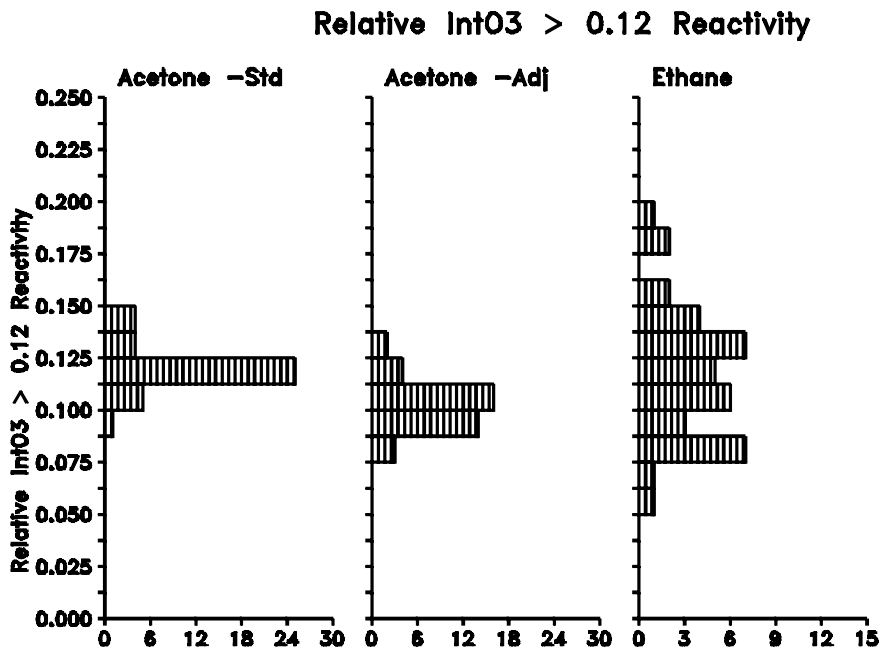
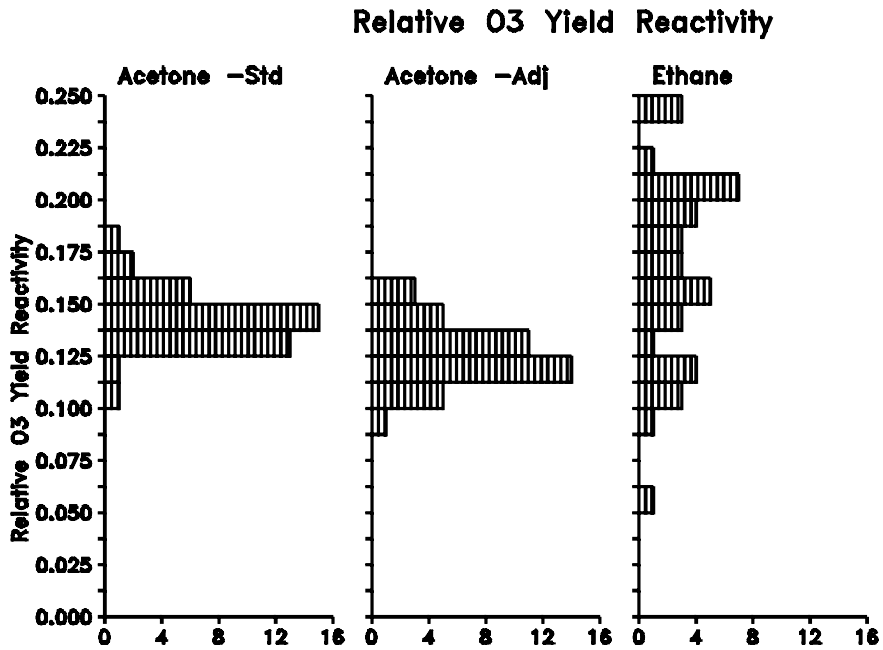


Figure 20. Distribution plots of ozone yield and IntO<sub>3</sub>>0.12 reactivities, relative to the base ROG mixture, for acetone and ethane in the base case scenarios.

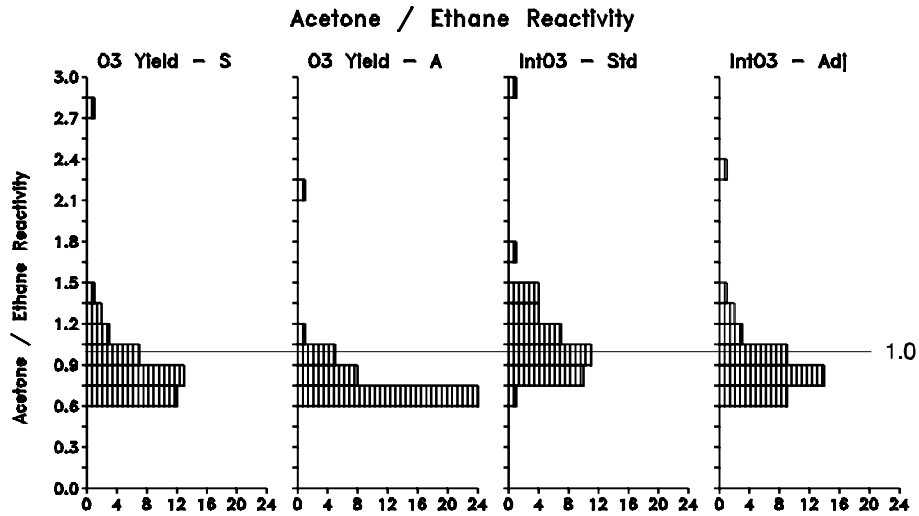


Figure 21. Distribution plots of ratios of ozone yield and  $\text{IntO}_3 > 0.12$  reactivities of acetone relative to ethane for the base case scenarios.

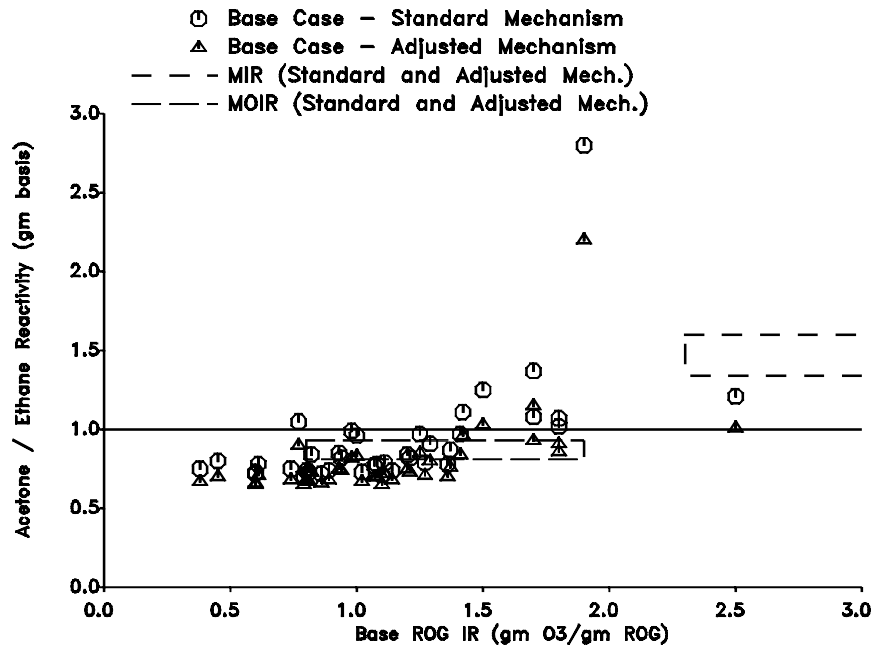


Figure 22. Plots of ratios of ozone yield reactivities of acetone relative to ethane against the incremental reactivity of the base ROG for the base case scenarios. Reactivity ratios and ranges of base ROG reactivities for the MIR and MOIR scales are also shown.

figure 22 plots the acetone/ethane reactivity ratios against the incremental reactivity of the base ROG. Reactivities of acetone were calculated both using the standard updated mechanism and using the mechanism with the acetone quantum yields adjusted to fit the blacklight and xenon arc chamber data as discussed above.

It can be seen that the adjustment to the acetone mechanism to fit the chamber data causes a slight (~13%) reduction in the incremental and relative reactivity of acetone. This is a fairly small difference compared to the variability of its relative reactivity or reactivity relative to ethane. The differences between these two calculations can be thought of as an indication of the lower limit to the chemical uncertainty in calculations of acetone's reactivity.

Figures 21 and 22 show that acetone is less reactive than ethane in a majority of the base case scenarios, though there are a few scenarios where acetone is slightly more reactive, and one where the unusually low relative reactivity of ethane results in an unusually high acetone/ethane reactivity ratio. The reactivity ratio in this case does not appear to be significantly affected by how O<sub>3</sub> is quantified — though it should be noted that this is not the case for all VOCs (Carter 1993a,b). Figure 22 shows that the reactivity ratio tends to increase as the reactivity ratio increases above the range which is characteristic of maximum ozone conditions. Thus, although acetone is of equal or lesser reactivity to ethane in most scenarios, its reactivity relative to ethane tends to increase as the scenario becomes more sensitive to VOC emissions. Because of this, incremental reactivity of acetone in the MIR scale is calculated to be 1.3 or 1.6 times higher than that of ethane, depending on whether the quantum yields are adjusted to fit the chamber data. However, all but one of the base case scenarios have lower reactivity ratios than in the MIR scale. The distribution of reactivity ratios in the base case scenarios is better represented by the reactivity ratio in the MOIR scale, where acetone is calculated to be slightly less reactive than ethane.

An alternative — and we believe more relevant — standard for assessing whether to regulate emissions of a compound is its reactivity relative to the mix of all other emitted VOCs, or the base ROG mixture. Figure 20 shows that the relative reactivities of acetone varies over a much narrower range than those for ethane, though the variation is somewhat less when ozone is quantified by integrated O<sub>3</sub> over the standard. The range of ozone yield relative reactivities are 0.05 - 0.24 for ethane and 0.11 - 0.18 for acetone with the more reactive standard mechanism. Thus acetone with the standard mechanism is between 5.6 - 9 times less reactive in terms of ozone yields than the base ROG, while ethane is between 4 - 20 times less reactive. For ozone yield reactivities, the ranges of relative reactivities are 0.074 - 0.19 for ethane and 0.10 - 0.15 for the standard acetone mechanism. Thus acetone with the standard mechanism is between 7 - 10 times less reactive in terms of integrated ozone over the standard than the base ROG, while ethane is 5 - 13 times less reactive. The MIR and MOIR relative reactivities are within these ranges.

It is interesting to note that the scenarios where acetone looks the most reactive compared to ethane are not necessarily the same as those where acetone has the highest reactivity relative to the base ROG mixture. From Figure 21 it can be seen that there is one scenario where the acetone/ethane reactivity ratio is unusually high, being 3 for the unadjusted mechanism. However, Table 5 shows that the corresponding ozone yield relative reactivity for the unadjusted acetone mechanism in that scenario is only 0.146, which is very close to the average for all scenarios. Thus the high acetone/ethane reactivity ratio in that case is due entirely to an unusually low relative reactivity for ethane. Furthermore, the scenario with the highest relative reactivity for acetone has an acetone/ethane reactivity ratio of ~0.75 for the standard mechanism, which is lower than average. In general, because the relative reactivity of ethane is so much more variable than that of acetone (as shown on Figure 20), it is the reactivity of ethane which is the primary factor which determines the reactivity of acetone relative to ethane.



## CONCLUSIONS

The decision whether it is appropriate to regulate a compound as an ozone precursor requires a qualitative assessment of its reactivity relative to ozone formation under a variety of environmental conditions. This requires developing and experimentally validating a chemical mechanism for the compounds relevant atmospheric reactions, which can then be used in airshed models to predict its atmospheric reactivity. Although mechanisms for the atmospheric reactions of acetone have been available for some time, until this study there have been no reliable data available to evaluate their accuracy when used in such models. The major objective of this study was to provide the data needed for this purpose.

The data base which was developed to evaluate the mechanism of acetone is now more extensive than that for a vast majority of the other VOCs emitted into the atmosphere, including many which are far more important in contributing to the ozone problem. Acetone has been studied in NO<sub>x</sub>-air environmental chamber irradiations by itself and in the presence of other reactive VOCs, and experiments utilizing a variety of light sources, including natural sunlight and artificial lights closely resembling natural sunlight. Although the incremental reactivity experiments in the outdoor chamber are inconclusive because of the inability of the model to simulate the base case conditions, the outdoor chamber experiments with acetone in the absence of other added VOCs, and the wide variety of indoor chamber experiments, provide a useful data base for evaluating acetone's mechanism. The indoor runs using the blacklights provide information concerning the effects of acetone on ozone formation under a wide variety of conditions, and the runs using the xenon arc light source provide information concerning acetone which more closely resembles sunlight. The difference in spectral distribution of the blacklight and xenon arc light sources provide a valuable means to test the model for how the photolysis of acetone depends on light spectrum. This is important because the spectrum of ambient sunlight is not constant, it varies significantly depending on the time of day, day of year, and the extent of atmospheric haze and the tropospheric ozone column.

An examination of the recent literature and reviews concerning the atmospheric reactions of acetone indicate that the mechanism we have previously used for acetone (Carter, 1990) needed to be updated in some respects. The greatest uncertainty in the acetone photooxidation mechanism is the quantum yields for its photolysis, concerning which the data in the literature are not in agreement. The evaluations (e.g., Atkinson et al., 1992) recommend the models use the data of Meyrahn et al. (1986), but our model simulations of their experiments indicate that the quantum yields in longest wavelengths (where sunlight and blacklights are more intense) are unreliable and need correction. The acetone mechanism used in our model was updated to be consistent with the latest evaluations in the literature, and to incorporate the estimated correction to the quantum yield data of Meyrahn et al (1986). These corrections

had a tendency to make acetone somewhat less reactive than was previously predicted, but still of comparable reactivity to ethane.

The updated mechanism was found to simulate reasonably well the results of the experiments using the indoor chamber light source most closely resembling sunlight and the outdoor chamber runs which were conducted during the summer. However, this mechanism consistently overpredicted the rate of ozone formation in the blacklight chamber experiments and also overpredicted the ozone formation in the wintertime acetone - NO<sub>x</sub> run in the outdoor chamber. It is considered unlikely that this is due to incorrect characterization of the blacklight intensity or spectra, because the model could give good simulations of the photochemical reactivity of acetaldehyde, a VOC which photolyzes in a similar wavelength region as acetone. Thus it appears likely that the problem is that the model incorrectly represents how the acetone photolysis quantum yields depend on wavelength.

An adjusted version of the updated acetone mechanism was developed which was considerably more successful in simulating the data base developed in this study. The adjustment involves assuming that the quantum yields fall off with increasing wavelength much more rapidly than indicated by the data of Meyrahn et al. (1986), but that the fall off begins at a slightly longer wavelength. Although this adjustment is not theoretically unreasonable, there is no basis for it other than fitting these environmental chamber data, which are highly complex chemical systems with a number of other potential sources of error. The possibility that the problem may be due to an incorrect characterization of the effect of the mercury lines in the blacklight light source cannot be entirely ruled out. Therefore, in the assessment of the reactivities of acetone in the atmosphere, both the unadjusted (or standard) mechanism and the adjusted acetone mechanism were used in the model calculations. A comparison of the predictions of the two mechanisms give an indication of the approximate minimum magnitude of the effects of chemical mechanistic uncertainties associated with calculations of acetone's atmospheric reactivity.

It was found that the adjustment to the acetone quantum yields to fit our chamber data caused an approximately 13% reduction in the calculated incremental reactivity of acetone under atmospheric conditions. This is a relatively small effect compared to the extent to which the relative reactivity of acetone varied with atmospheric conditions. Thus it is concluded that although there are uncertainties in acetone's quantum yields, the effect of this uncertainty is not large enough to substantively affect conclusions concerning the range of acetone's effect on ozone production under conditions represented by the model scenarios we employed. However, the effect may be larger in model simulations of wintertime conditions, since the adjustment has the greatest effect under lighting conditions which have relatively low intensity in the UV. Since all the scenarios used in this study were based on worst case or near-worst case conditions, conditions of low UV intensity are not well represented.

The model simulations indicate that acetone is slightly less reactive than ethane in a majority of the scenarios representing worst-case or near-worst-case conditions. However, there was one scenario where the ethane was calculated to have an unusually low relative reactivity, resulting in acetone being calculated to be more reactive than ethane by factors of 2-3, depending on whether or not the adjusted quantum yields are used. In general, acetone becomes increasingly more reactive relative to ethane as NO<sub>x</sub> conditions approach those yielding the highest incremental reactivities, with the result being that acetone has a slightly higher (by a factor of 1.3 to 1.6, depending on the quantum yields) MIR incremental reactivity than ethane. On the other hand, in the MOIR scale, which represents NO<sub>x</sub> conditions most favorable for ozone formation, acetone is calculated to be slightly less reactive than ethane, regardless of which set of quantum yields are used. In general, the MIR and MOIR scales represent the range of conditions which are appropriate to consider when evaluating relative reactivities of VOC for control strategy purposes (Carter, 1991; 1993a,b).

However, other than considerations of precedence, the reactivity of acetone relative to ethane is of essentially no practical relevance. The two chemicals have vastly different physical properties and come from quite different types of sources, and to our knowledge no substitutions of acetone for ethane (or vice-versa) are being contemplated. If a reactive VOC is exempted, and if it is not used primarily as a substitute for more reactive VOCs, the net effect would be that there would have to be a slightly greater controls on all other (non-exempt) VOCs to achieve the same air quality gains. Thus, in effect, the proposal to exempt a VOC is equivalent to proposing to substitute it for the base ROG mixture. Therefore, the more relevant consideration when considering whether to exempt acetone is its reactivity compared to the base ROG mixture.

When compared on the basis of reactivities relative to the base ROG mixture, a somewhat different picture is obtained concerning the relative impacts of acetone and ethane on ozone formation. In particular, the relative reactivity (i.e., incremental reactivity relative to the base ROG) of acetone is found to vary over a considerably narrower range than is the case for ethane. Indeed, it is the variability of the relative reactivity of ethane, not acetone, which causes the variability of the acetone/ethane reactivity ratios among the scenarios. For example, the scenario with the most extreme acetone/ethane reactivity ratios (of 2-3) had relative reactivities for acetone very close to the average. The minimum, maximum, and average relative reactivities we obtained are summarized on Table 6, where they are compared with relative reactivities in the MIR and MOIR scales. It should be noted that the base case scenarios were designed to represent near-worst-case conditions only, and the results may be more variable if a greater variety of scenarios were included. However, these scenarios are representative of a wide variety of conditions which need to be considered when assessing effects of VOC controls.

Table 6. Summary of reactivities of acetone and ethane relative to the base ROG mixture.

	Based on effect on O <sub>3</sub> Yield			Based on Integrated O <sub>3</sub> > 0.12 ppm		
	Acetone (standard)	Acetone (adjusted)	Ethane	Acetone (standard)	Acetone (adjusted)	Ethane
<b>Base case</b>						
Minimum	0.11	0.09	0.05	0.10	0.07	0.05
Maximum	0.18	0.16	0.24	0.15	0.14	0.19
Average Base	0.14±0.01	0.13±0.02	0.17±0.04	0.12±0.01	0.10±0.01	0.12±0.03
<b>MIR Scale</b>	0.13	0.11	0.08			
<b>MOIR Scale</b>	0.14	0.12	0.15			

We believe the type of data on Table 6 provides a more appropriate basis for deciding whether it is appropriate to exempt acetone or ethane. Note that when the EPA decided to exempt ethane, in effect it decided it was not necessary to regulate emissions of a VOC which could be almost 25% as reactive as the average of all emissions in terms of peak ozone concentrations, and almost 20% as reactive in terms of effect on integrated ozone over the standard. When looked at this way, exempting a compound which is calculated to be no more than 20% as reactive in terms of peak ozone, or 15% as reactive in terms of integrated ozone over the standard, does not appear to be an inconsistent policy.

To conclude, when considering whether a VOC should be exempted from regulation as an ozone precursor, the most appropriate factor to consider is its relative reactivity, i.e., its reactivity relative to the mixture of all other VOC emissions. The results of this study indicate that the difference in relative reactivities between ethane and acetone is less than the variability of their relative reactivities from scenario to scenario. On this basis, it can be concluded the acetone and ethane can be considered to have essentially the same reactivity to within their variability with environmental conditions. However, it should be emphasized that the scenarios we employed were designed to represent near-worst-case conditions only, and the variability may be greater when considering a wider range of scenarios.

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## APPENDIX A.

### LISTING OF THE UPDATED SAPRC MECHANISM

A complete listing of the updated SAPRC used in this study is given in Tables A-1 through A-3. Table A-1 gives a list of the model species, Table A-2 gives the reactions, and Table A-3 gives the absorption cross sections and quantum yields used to calculate the photolysis rates.

Table A-1. List of model species used in the SAPRC-93 mechanism for the base case simulations.

name	description
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#### Constant Species.

O2	Oxygen
M	Air
H2O	Water

#### Active Inorganic Species.

O3	Ozone
NO	Nitric Oxide
NO2	Nitrogen Dioxide
NO3	Nitrate Radical
N2O5	Nitrogen Pentoxide
HONO	Nitrous Acid
HNO3	Nitric Acid
HNO4	Peroxynitric Acid
HO2H	Hydrogen Peroxide

#### Active Radical Species and Operators.

HO2.	Hydroperoxide Radicals
RO2.	Operator to Calculate Total Organic Peroxy Radicals
RCO3.	Operator to Calculate Total Acetyl Peroxy Radicals

#### Active Reactive Organic Product Species.

CO	Carbon Monoxide
HCHO	Formaldehyde
CCHO	Acetaldehyde
RCHO	Lumped C3+ Aldehydes
ACET	Acetone
MEK	Lumped Ketones
PHEN	Phenol
CRES	Cresols

Table A-1, (continued)

Name	Description
BALD	Aromatic aldehydes (e.g., benzaldehyde)
GLY	Glyoxal
MGLY	Methyl Glyoxal
AFG1	Reactive Aromatic Fragmentation Products from benzene and naphthalene
AFG2	Other Reactive Aromatic Fragmentation Products
AFG3	Aromatic Fragmentation Products used in adjusted m-xylene mechanism
RNO3	Organic Nitrates
NPHE	Nitrophenols
PAN	Peroxy Acetyl Nitrate
PPN	Peroxy Propionyl Nitrate
GPAN	PAN Analogue formed from Glyoxal
PBZN	PAN Analogues formed from Aromatic Aldehydes
-OOH	Operator Representing Hydroperoxy Groups
<b>Non-Reacting Species</b>	
CO2	Carbon Dioxide
-C	"Lost Carbon"
-N	"Lost Nitrogen"
H2	Hydrogen
<b>Steady State Species and Operators.</b>	
HO.	Hydroxyl Radicals
O	Ground State Oxygen Atoms
O*1D2	Excited Oxygen Atoms
RO2-R.	Peroxy Radical Operator representing NO to NO <sub>2</sub> conversion with HO <sub>2</sub> formation.
RO2-N.	Peroxy Radical Operator representing NO consumption with organic nitrate formation.
RO2-NP.	Peroxy Radical Operator representing NO consumption with nitrophenol formation
R2O2.	Peroxy Radical Operator representing NO to NO <sub>2</sub> conversion.
CCO-O2.	Peroxy Acetyl Radicals
C2CO-O2.	Peroxy Propionyl Radicals
HCOCO-O2.	Peroxyacyl Radical formed from Glyoxal
BZ-CO-O2.	Peroxyacyl Radical formed from Aromatic Aldehydes
HOCOO.	Intermediate formed in Formaldehyde + HO <sub>2</sub> reaction
BZ-O.	Phenoxy Radicals
BZ(NO2)-O.	Nitratophenoxy Radicals
HOCOO.	Radical Intermediate formed in the HO <sub>2</sub> + Formaldehyde system.
(HCHO2)	Excited Criegee biradicals formed from =CH <sub>2</sub> groups
(CCHO2)	Excited Criegee biradicals formed from =CHCH <sub>3</sub> groups
(RCHO2)	Excited Criegee biradicals formed from =CHR groups, where R not CH <sub>3</sub>
(C(C)CO2)	Excited Criegee biradicals formed from =C(CH <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> groups
(C(R)CO2)	Excited Criegee biradicals formed from =C(CH <sub>3</sub> )R or CR <sub>2</sub> groups
(BZCHO2)	Excited Criegee biradicals formed from styrenes

Table A-1, (continued)

Name	Description
<b>Hydrocarbon species represented explicitly</b>	
CH4	Methane (EKMA simulations only)
ETHANE	Ethane (Ethane reactivity simulations only)
N-C4	n-Butane (Chamber simulations only)
N-C6	n-Hexane (Chamber simulations only)
N-C8	n-Octane (Chamber simulations only)
ETHE	Ethene
ISOP	Isoprene (EKMA Simulations only)
APIN	$\alpha$ -Pinene (EKMA Simulations only)
UNKN	Unknown biogenics. (EKMA Simulations only)
PROPENE	Propene (Chamber simulations only)
T-2-BUTE	<u>trans</u> -2-Butene (Chamber simulations only)
TOLUENE	Toluene (Chamber simulations only)
M-XYLENE	m-Xylene (Chamber simulations only)
<b>Lumped alkane and aromatic species used to represent the Base ROG mixture in the EKMA model simulations.</b>	
AAR1	Alkanes and aromatics with $k_{OH} < 5 \times 10^3 \text{ ppm}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1}$
AAR2	Alkanes and aromatics with $k_{OH}$ between $5 \times 10^3$ and $1.5 \times 10^4 \text{ ppm}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1}$
AAR3	Alkanes and aromatics with $k_{OH} > 1.5 \times 10^4 \text{ ppm}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1}$
<b>Lumped higher alkenes used to represent the Base ROG mixture in the EKMA model simulations</b>	
OLE2	Alkenes with $k_{OH} < 7 \times 10^4 \text{ ppm}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1}$ (Primarily terminal alkenes.)
OLE3	Alkenes with $k_{OH} > 7 \times 10^4 \text{ ppm}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1}$ (Primary internal alkenes.)

Table A-2. Listing of SAPRC-93 mechanism as used to in the base case simulations.

Rxn.	Kinetic Parameters [a]				Reactions [b]
Label	k(300)	A	Ea	B	
<b>Inorganic Reactions</b>					
1	(Phot. Set = NO2 )				NO2 + HV = NO + O
2	2.16E-05	2.16E-05	0.00	-4.30	O + O2 + M = O3 + M
3A	1.42E+04	9.54E+03	-0.24	-1.00	O + NO2 = NO + O2
3B	2.28E+03	(Falloff Kinetics)			O + NO2 = NO3 + M
	k0 =	3.23E-03	0.00	-4.00	
	kINF =	3.23E+04	0.00	-1.00	
	F =	0.60	n =	1.00	
4	2.76E+01	2.94E+03	2.78	-1.00	O3 + NO = NO2 + O2
5	4.94E-02	2.06E+02	4.97	-1.00	O3 + NO2 = O2 + NO3
6	4.11E+04	2.49E+04	-0.30	-1.00	NO + NO3 = #2 NO2
7	6.90E-10	1.19E-10	-1.05	-2.00	NO + NO + O2 = #2 NO2
8	1.84E+03	(Falloff Kinetics)			NO2 + NO3 = N2O5
	k0 =	7.90E-02	0.00	-6.30	
	kINF =	2.20E+03	0.00	-1.50	
	F =	0.60	n =	1.00	
9	2.26E-03	3.72E+13	22.26	1.00	N2O5 + #RCON8 = NO2 + NO3
10	1.47E-06	1.47E-06	0.00	-1.00	N2O5 + H2O = #2 HNO3
11	6.13E-01	3.67E+01	2.44	-1.00	NO2 + NO3 = NO + NO2 + O2
12A	(Phot. Set = NO3NO )				NO3 + HV = NO + O2
12B	(Phot. Set = NO3NO2 )				NO3 + HV = NO2 + O
13A	(Phot. Set = O3O3P )				O3 + HV = O + O2
13B	(Phot. Set = O3O1D )				O3 + HV = O*1D2 + O2
14	3.23E+05	3.23E+05	0.00	-1.00	O*1D2 + H2O = #2 HO.
15	4.29E+04	2.82E+04	-0.25	-1.00	O*1D2 + M = O + M
16	7.05E+03	(Falloff Kinetics)			HO. + NO = HONO
	k0 =	2.51E-02	0.00	-4.60	
	kINF =	2.20E+04	0.00	-1.50	
	F =	0.60	n =	1.00	
17	(Phot. Set = HONO )				HONO + HV = HO. + NO
18	1.66E+04	(Falloff Kinetics)			HO. + NO2 = HNO3
	k0 =	9.34E-02	0.00	-5.20	
	kINF =	3.52E+04	0.00	-2.30	
	F =	0.60	n =	1.00	
19	1.51E+02	9.47E+00	-1.65	-1.00	HO. + HNO3 = H2O + NO3
21	3.52E+02	3.52E+02	0.00	-1.00	HO. + CO = HO2. + CO2
22	1.02E+02	2.35E+03	1.87	-1.00	HO. + O3 = HO2. + O2
23	1.21E+04	5.43E+03	-0.48	-1.00	HO2. + NO = HO. + NO2
24	2.00E+03	(Falloff Kinetics)			HO2. + NO2 = HNO4
	k0 =	6.46E-03	0.00	-5.20	
	kINF =	6.90E+03	0.00	-2.40	
	F =	0.60	n =	1.00	
25	3.24E-03	1.95E+13	21.66	1.00	HNO4 + #RCON24 = HO2. + NO2
27	6.77E+03	1.91E+03	-0.75	-1.00	HNO4 + HO. = H2O + NO2 + O2
28	3.05E+00	1.61E+01	0.99	-1.00	HO2. + O3 = HO. + #2 O2
29A	2.54E+03	3.23E+02	-1.23	-1.00	HO2. + HO2. = HO2H + O2
29B	1.80E-03	6.82E-05	-1.95	-2.00	HO2. + HO2. + M = HO2H + O2
29C	1.34E-01	1.11E-05	-5.60	-2.00	HO2. + HO2. + H2O = HO2H + O2 + H2O
29D	9.52E-02	2.37E-06	-6.32	-2.00	HO2. + HO2. + H2O = HO2H + O2 + H2O
30A	(Same k as Reaction 29A )				NO3 + HO2. = HNO3 + O2
30B	(Same k as Reaction 29B )				NO3 + HO2. + M = HNO3 + O2
30C	(Same k as Reaction 29C )				NO3 + HO2. + H2O = HNO3 + O2 + H2O
30D	(Same k as Reaction 29D )				NO3 + HO2. + H2O = HNO3 + O2 + H2O
31	(Phot. Set = H2O2 )				HO2H + HV = #2 HO.
32	2.49E+03	4.84E+03	0.40	-1.00	HO2H + HO. = HO2. + H2O
33	1.45E+05	6.75E+04	-0.46	-1.00	HO. + HO2. = H2O + O2
<b>Peroxy Radical Operators</b>					
B1	1.13E+04	6.16E+03	-0.36	-1.00	RO2. + NO = NO
B2	3.31E+04	(Falloff Kinetics)			RCO3. + NO = NO
	k0 =	2.03E+01	0.00	-9.10	
	kINF =	3.87E+04	0.00	-1.90	
	F =	0.27	n =	1.00	
B4	1.52E+04	(Falloff Kinetics)			RCO3. + NO2 = NO2
	k0 =	9.23E+00	0.00	-9.10	
	kINF =	1.76E+04	0.00	-1.90	
	F =	0.30	n =	1.00	
B5	7.19E+03	4.99E+02	-1.59	-1.00	RO2. + HO2. = HO2. + RO2-HO2-PROD
B6	7.19E+03	4.99E+02	-1.59	-1.00	RCO3. + HO2. = HO2. + RO2-HO2-PROD
B8	1.47E+00	1.47E+00	0.00	-1.00	RO2. + RO2. = RO2-RO2-PROD
B9	1.60E+04	2.73E+03	-1.05	-1.00	RO2. + RCO3. = RO2-RO2-PROD
B10	2.40E+04	4.11E+03	-1.05	-1.00	RCO3. + RCO3. = RO2-RO2-PROD
B11	(Same k as Reaction B1 )				RO2-R. + NO = NO2 + HO2.
B12	(Same k as Reaction B5 )				RO2-R. + HO2. = -OOH
B13	(Same k as Reaction B8 )				RO2-R. + RO2. = RO2. + #.5 HO2.
B14	(Same k as Reaction B9 )				RO2-R. + RCO3. = RCO3. + #.5 HO2.

Table A-2 (continued)

Rxn. Label	Kinetic Parameters [a]				Reactions [b]
	k(300)	A	Ea	B	
B19	(Same k as Reaction B1 )				RO2-N. + NO = RNO3
B20	(Same k as Reaction B5 )				RO2-N. + HO2. = -OOH + MEK + #1.5 -C
B21	(Same k as Reaction B8 )				RO2-N. + RO2. = RO2. + #.5 HO2. + MEK + #1.5 -C
B22	(Same k as Reaction B9 )				RO2-N. + RCO3. = RCO3. + #.5 HO2. + MEK + #1.5 -C
B15	(Same k as Reaction B1 )				R2O2. + NO = NO2
B16	(Same k as Reaction B5 )				R2O2. + HO2. =
B17	(Same k as Reaction B8 )				R2O2. + RO2. = RO2.
B18	(Same k as Reaction B9 )				R2O2. + RCO3. = RCO3.
B23	(Same k as Reaction B1 )				RO2-XN. + NO = -N
B24	(Same k as Reaction B5 )				RO2-XN. + HO2. = -OOH
B25	(Same k as Reaction B8 )				RO2-XN. + RO2. = RO2. + #.5 HO2.
B26	(Same k as Reaction B9 )				RO2-XN. + RCO3. = RCO3. + HO2.
G2	(Same k as Reaction B1 )				RO2-NP. + NO = NPHE
G3	(Same k as Reaction B5 )				RO2-NP. + HO2. = -OOH + #6 -C
G4	(Same k as Reaction B8 )				RO2-NP. + RO2. = RO2. + #.5 HO2. + #6 -C
G5	(Same k as Reaction B9 )				RO2-NP. + RCO3. = RCO3. + HO2. + #6 -C
<b>Excited Criegee Biradicals</b>					
RZ1	6.00E+01	(No T Dependence)			(HCHO2) = #.12 CO + #.18 CO2 + #.7 HCOOH + #.12 HO2. + #.12 HO.
RZ2	6.00E+01	(No T Dependence)			(CCHO2) = #.25 CCOOH + #.15 "CH4 + CO2" + #.6 HO. + #.3 "CCO-O2. + RCO3." + #.1 "RO2-R. + HCHO + CO + RO2."
RZ3	6.00E+01	(No T Dependence)			(RCHO2) = #.25 CCOOH + #.15 CO2 + #.6 HO. + #.3 "C2CO-O2. + RCO3." + #.1 "RO2-R. + CCHO + CO + RO2." + #.55 -C
RZ4	6.00E+01	(No T Dependence)			(C(C)CO2) = HO. + R2O2. + HCHO + CCO-O2. + RCO3. + RO2.
RZ5	6.00E+01	(No T Dependence)			(C(R)CO2) = HO. + CCO-O2. + CCHO + R2O2. + RCO3. + RO2.
RZ8	6.00E+01	(No T Dependence)			(BZCHO2) = #.5 O3OL-SB + #.5 "BZ-O. + R2O2. + CO + HO."
<b>Lumped Hydroperoxide Group</b>					
B7	(Phot. Set = CO2H )				-OOH + HV = HO2. + HO.
B7A	2.65E+03	1.73E+03	-0.25	-1.00	HO. + -OOH = HO.
B7B	5.45E+03	2.63E+03	-0.44	-1.00	HO. + -OOH = RO2-R. + RO2.
<b>Formaldehyde</b>					
C1	(Phot. Set = HCHONEWR)				HCHO + HV = #2 HO2. + CO
C2	(Phot. Set = HCHONEWM)				HCHO + HV = H2 + CO
C3	1.43E+04	1.65E+03	-1.29	1.00	HCHO + HO. = HO2. + CO + H2O
C4	1.14E+02	1.42E+01	-1.24	-1.00	HCHO + HO2. = HOCOO.
C4A	1.06E+04	1.44E+14	13.91	0.00	HOCOO. = HO2. + HCHO
C4B	(Same k as Reaction B1 )				HOCOO. + NO = -C + NO2 + HO2.
C9	9.36E-01	4.11E+03	5.00	-1.00	HCHO + NO3 = HNO3 + HO2. + CO
<b>Acetaldehyde and PAN</b>					
C10	2.30E+04	8.15E+03	-0.62	-1.00	CCHO + HO. = CCO-O2. + H2O + RCO3.
C11A	(Phot. Set = CCHOR )				CCHO + HV = CO + HO2. + HCHO + RO2-R. + RO2.
C12	4.17E+00	2.05E+03	3.70	-1.00	CCHO + NO3 = HNO3 + CCO-O2. + RCO3.
C13	(Same k as Reaction B2 )				CCO-O2. + NO = CO2 + NO2 + HCHO + RO2-R. + RO2.
C14	(Same k as Reaction B4 )				CCO-O2. + NO2 = PAN
C15	(Same k as Reaction B6 )				CCO-O2. + HO2. = -OOH + CO2 + HCHO
C16	(Same k as Reaction B9 )				CCO-O2. + RO2. = RO2. + #.5 HO2. + CO2 + HCHO
C17	(Same k as Reaction B10 )				CCO-O2. + RCO3. = RCO3. + HO2. + CO2 + HCHO
C18	3.90E-02	(Falloff Kinetics)			PAN = CCO-O2. + NO2 + RCO3.
	k0 =	7.19E+12	23.97	-1.00	
	kINF =	2.40E+18	27.08	0.00	
		F = 0.30	n = 1.00		
<b>C3+ Aldehydes and PPN</b>					
C25	2.89E+04	1.25E+04	-0.50	-1.00	RCHO + HO. = C2CO-O2. + RCO3.
C26	(Phot. Set = RCHO )				RCHO + HV = CCHO + RO2-R. + RO2. + CO + HO2.
C27	4.17E+00	2.05E+03	3.70	-1.00	NO3 + RCHO = HNO3 + C2CO-O2. + RCO3.
C28	(Same k as Reaction B2 )				C2CO-O2. + NO = CCHO + RO2-R. + CO2 + NO2 + RO2.
C29	1.23E+04	1.23E+04	0.00	-1.00	C2CO-O2. + NO2 = PPN
C30	(Same k as Reaction B6 )				C2CO-O2. + HO2. = -OOH + CCHO + CO2
C31	(Same k as Reaction B9 )				C2CO-O2. + RO2. = RO2. + #.5 HO2. + CCHO + CO2
C32	(Same k as Reaction B10 )				C2CO-O2. + RCO3. = RCO3. + HO2. + CCHO + CO2
C33	4.07E-02	9.60E+18	27.97	0.00	PPN = C2CO-O2. + NO2 + RCO3.

Table A-2 (continued)

Rxn. Label	Kinetic Parameters [a]				Reactions [b]
	k(300)	A	Ea	B	
<b>Acetone (standard mechanism)</b>					
C38	3.28E+02	7.06E+02	0.46	1.00	ACET + HO. = R2O2. + HCHO + CCO-O2. + RCO3. + RO2.
C39		(Phot. Set = ACET-93C)			ACET + HV = CCO-O2. + HCHO + RO2-R. + RCO3. + RO2.
<b>Acetone (adjusted mechanism)</b>					
C38	3.28E+02	7.06E+02	0.46	1.00	ACET + HO. = R2O2. + HCHO + CCO-O2. + RCO3. + RO2.
C39x		(Phot. Set = ADJACET)			ACET + HV = CCO-O2. + HCHO + RO2-R. + RCO3. + RO2.
<b>C4+ Ketones</b>					
C44	1.70E+03	4.29E+02	-0.82	1.00	MEK + HO. = H2O + #.5 "CCHO + HCHO + CCO-O2. + C2CO-O2." + RCO3. + #1.5 "R2O2. + RO2."
C57		(Phot. Set = KETONE)			MEK + HV + #.1 = CCO-O2. + CCHO + RO2-R. + RCO3. + RO2.
<b>Organic Nitrates</b>					
C95	3.03E+03	3.22E+04	1.41	-1.00	RNO3 + HO. = NO2 + #.155 MEK + #1.05 RCHO + #.48 CCHO + #.16 HCHO + #.11 -C + #1.39 "R2O2. + RO2."
<b>Glyoxal and GPAN</b>					
C58A		(Phot. Set = GLYOXAL1)			GLY + HV = #.8 HO2. + #.45 HCHO + #1.55 CO
C58B		(Phot. Set = GLYOXAL2)			GLY + HV + #0.029 = #.13 HCHO + #1.87 CO
C59	1.67E+04	1.67E+04	0.00	-1.00	GLY + HO. = #.6 HO2. + #1.2 CO + #.4 "HCOCO-O2. + RCO3."
C60		(Same k as Reaction C12)			GLY + NO3 = HNO3 + #.6 HO2. + #1.2 CO + #.4 "HCOCO-O2. + RCO3."
C62		(Same k as Reaction B2)			HCOCO-O2. + NO = NO2 + CO2 + CO + HO2.
C63		(Same k as Reaction B4)			HCOCO-O2. + NO2 = GPAN
C65		(Same k as Reaction B6)			HCOCO-O2. + HO2. = -OOH + CO2 + CO
C66		(Same k as Reaction B9)			HCOCO-O2. + RO2. = RO2. + #.5 HO2. + CO2 + CO
C67		(Same k as Reaction B10)			HCOCO-O2. + RCO3. = RCO3. + HO2. + CO2 + CO
C64		(Same k as Reaction C18)			GPAN = HCOCO-O2. + NO2 + RCO3.
<b>Methyl Glyoxal</b>					
C68A		(Phot. Set = MEGLYOX1)			MGLY + HV = HO2. + CO + CCO-O2. + RCO3.
C68B		(Phot. Set = MEGLYOX2)			MGLY + HV + #.107 = HO2. + CO + CCO-O2. + RCO3.
C69	2.52E+04	2.52E+04	0.00	-1.00	MGLY + HO. = CO + CCO-O2. + RCO3.
C70		(Same k as Reaction C12)			MGLY + NO3 = HNO3 + CO + CCO-O2. + RCO3.
<b>Phenol and cresols</b>					
G46	3.86E+04	3.86E+04	0.00	-1.00	HO. + PHEN = #.15 RO2-NP. + #.85 RO2-R. + #.2 GLY + #4.7 -C + RO2.
G51	5.28E+03	5.28E+03	0.00	-1.00	NO3 + PHEN = HNO3 + BZ-O.
G52	6.16E+04	6.16E+04	0.00	-1.00	HO. + CRES = #.15 RO2-NP. + #.85 RO2-R. + #.2 MGLY + #5.5 -C + RO2.
G57	3.08E+04	3.08E+04	0.00	-1.00	NO3 + CRES = HNO3 + BZ-O. + -C
<b>Benzaldehyde and PBzN</b>					
G30	1.89E+04	1.89E+04	0.00	-1.00	BALD + HO. = BZ-CO-O2. + RCO3.
G31		(Phot. Set = BZCHO)			BALD + HV + #.05 = #7 -C
G32	3.83E+00	2.05E+03	3.75	-1.00	BALD + NO3 = HNO3 + BZ-CO-O2.
G33		(Same k as Reaction B2)			BZ-CO-O2. + NO = BZ-O. + CO2 + NO2 + R2O2. + RO2.
G34	1.23E+04	1.23E+04	0.00	-1.00	BZ-CO-O2. + NO2 = PBZN
G36		(Same k as Reaction B6)			BZ-CO-O2. + HO2. = -OOH + CO2 + PHEN
G37		(Same k as Reaction B9)			BZ-CO-O2. + RO2. = RO2. + #.5 HO2. + CO2 + PHEN
G38		(Same k as Reaction B10)			BZ-CO-O2. + RCO3. = RCO3. + HO2. + CO2 + PHEN
G35	1.30E-02	9.60E+16	25.90	0.00	PBZN = BZ-CO-O2. + NO2 + RCO3.
<b>Nitrophenols</b>					
G58	5.28E+03	5.28E+03	0.00	-1.00	NPHE + NO3 = HNO3 + BZ(NO2)-O.
G43	5.19E+04	1.91E+04	-0.60	-1.00	BZ-O. + NO2 = NPHE
G44		(Same k as Reaction B5)			BZ-O. + HO2. = PHEN
G45	6.00E-02	(No T Dependence)			BZ-O. = PHEN
G59		(Same k as Reaction G43)			BZ(NO2)-O. + NO2 = #2 -N + #6 -C
G60		(Same k as Reaction B5)			BZ(NO2)-O. + HO2. = NPHE
G61		(Same k as Reaction G45)			BZ(NO2)-O. = NPHE
<b>Aromatic Fragmentation Products</b>					
G7	1.67E+04	1.67E+04	0.00	-1.00	HO. + AFG1 = HCOCO-O2. + RCO3.
G8		(Phot. Set = ACROLEIN)			AFG1 + HV + #0.029 = HO2. + HCOCO-O2. + RCO3.

Table A-2 (continued)

Rxn. Label	Kinetic Parameters [a]				Reactions [b]
	k(300)	A	Ea	B	
U2OH	2.52E+04	2.52E+04	0.00	-1.00	HO. + AFG2 = C2CO-O2. + RCO3.
U2HV	(Phot. Set = ACROLEIN)				AFG2 + HV + #0.615 = HO2. + CO + CCO-O2. + RCO3.
U3OH	2.52E+04	2.52E+04	0.00	-1.00	HO. + AFG3 = C2CO-O2. + RCO3.
U3HV	(Phot. Set = ACROLEIN)				AFG3 + HV + #0.022 = HO2. + CO + CCO-O2. + RCO3.
<b>Methane</b> - Used in EKMA Simulations					
RCH4	1.28E+01	9.18E+02	2.55	1.00	CH4 + HO. = HCHO + RO2-R. + RO2.
<b>Ethane</b> - Used for Ethane Reactivity Simulations					
OH01	2.74E-13	1.28E-12	0.92	2.00	ETHANE + HO. = RO2-R. + CCHO + RO2.
<b>n-Butane</b> - Used in Full Surrogate Experiment Simulations					
OH02	2.56E-12	1.36E-12	-0.38	2.00	N-C4 + HO. = #.076 RO2-N. + #.924 RO2-R. + #.397 R2O2. + #.001 HCHO + #.571 CCHO + #.14 RCHO + #.533 MEK + #-0.076 -C + #1.397 RO2.
<b>n-Hexane</b> - Used in Mini-Surrogate Experiment Simulations					
OH03	5.63E-12	1.35E-11	0.52	0.00	N-C6 + HO. = #.185 RO2-N. + #.815 RO2-R. + #.738 R2O2. + #.02 CCHO + #.105 RCHO + #1.134 MEK + #.186 -C + #1.738 RO2.
<b>n-Octane</b> - Used in Full Surrogate Experiment Simulations					
OH04	8.76E-12	3.15E-11	0.76	0.00	N-C8 + HO. = #.333 RO2-N. + #.667 RO2-R. + #.706 R2O2. + #.002 RCHO + #1.333 MEK + #.998 -C + #1.706 RO2.
<b>Ethene</b>					
OH05	8.43E-12	1.96E-12	-0.87	0.00	ETHENE + HO. = RO2-R. + RO2. + #1.56 HCHO + #.22 CCHO
O305	1.68E-18	9.14E-15	5.13	0.00	ETHENE + O3 = HCHO + (HCHO2)
N305	2.15E-16	5.43E-12	6.04	0.00	ETHENE + NO3 = R2O2. + RO2. + #2 HCHO + NO2
OA05	7.42E-13	1.04E-11	1.57	0.00	ETHENE + O = RO2-R. + HO2. + RO2. + HCHO + CO + #2 OLE-RI
<b>Propene</b> - Used in Full Surrogate Experiment Simulations					
OH06	2.60E-11	4.85E-12	-1.00	0.00	PROPENE + HO. = RO2-R. + RO2. + HCHO + CCHO
O306	1.05E-17	5.51E-15	3.73	0.00	PROPENE + O3 = #.6 HCHO + #.4 CCHO + #.4 (HCHO2) + #.6 (CCHO2)
N306	9.80E-15	4.85E-12	3.70	0.00	PROPENE + NO3 = R2O2. + RO2. + HCHO + CCHO + NO2
OA06	4.01E-12	1.18E-11	0.64	0.00	PROPENE + O = #.4 HO2. + #.5 RCHO + #.5 MEK + #-0.5 -C + #.4 OLE-RI
<b>trans-2-Butene</b> - Used in Full Surrogate Experiment Simulations					
OH07	6.30E-11	1.01E-11	-1.09	0.00	T-2-BUTE + HO. = RO2-R. + RO2. + #2 CCHO
O307	1.95E-16	6.64E-15	2.10	0.00	T-2-BUTE + O3 = CCHO + (CCHO2)
N307	3.92E-13	1.10E-13	-0.76	2.00	T-2-BUTE + NO3 = R2O2. + RO2. + #2 CCHO + NO2
OA07	2.34E-11	2.26E-11	-0.02	0.00	T-2-BUTE + O = #.4 HO2. + #.5 RCHO + #.5 MEK + #.5 -C + #.4 OLE-RI
<b>Toluene</b> - Used in Full Surrogate Experiment Simulations					
OH08	5.91E-12	1.81E-12	-0.70	0.00	TOLUENE + HO. = #.085 BALD + #.26 CRES + #.118 GLY + #.131 MGLY + #.49 AFG2 + #.74 RO2-R. + #.26 HO2. + #2.486 -C + #.74 RO2.
<b>m-Xylene</b> (Standard Mechanism) - Used in Full Surrogate Experiment Simulations					
OH09	2.36E-11	(No T Dependence)			M-XYLENE + HO. = #.04 BALD + #.18 CRES + #.108 GLY + #.37 MGLY + #.75 AFG2 + #.82 RO2-R. + #.18 HO2. + #2.884 -C + #.82 RO2.
<b>m-Xylene</b> (Adjusted Mechanism) - Used in Set 3 Mini-Surrogate Experiment Simulations (see Carter et al., 1993)					
OH09x	2.36E-11	(No T Dependence)			M-XYLENE + HO. = #.04 BALD + #.18 CRES + #.108 GLY + #.37 MGLY + #2 AFG3 + #.82 RO2-R. + #.18 HO2. + #-0.866 -C + #.82 RO2.
<b>Isoprene</b> (SAPRC-90 mechanism) - Used in EKMA Simulations					
ISOH	1.46E+05	3.73E+04	-0.81	-1.00	ISOP + HO. = RO2-R. + HCHO + RCHO + RO2. + -C
ISO3	2.20E-02	1.81E+01	4.00	-1.00	ISOP + O3 = #.5 HCHO + #.15 CCHO + #.5 RCHO + #.21 MEK + #.295 CO + #.285 O3OL-SB + #.165 HO2. + #.06 HO. + #.135 RO2-R. + #.135 RO2. + #1.565 -C + #.36 OLE-RI
ISN3	1.01E+03	4.45E+03	0.89	-1.00	ISOP + NO3 = NO2 + R2O2. + HCHO + RCHO + RO2. + -C
ISOA	8.81E+04	8.81E+04	0.00	-1.00	ISOP + O = #.4 HO2. + #.5 MEK + #.5 RCHO + #1.5 -C + #.4 OLE-RI
<b>α-Pinene</b> (SAPRC-90 mechanism) - Used in EKMA Simulations					
APOH	7.80E+04	1.78E+04	-0.88	-1.00	APIN + HO. = RO2-R. + RCHO + RO2. + #7 -C
APO3	1.47E-01	1.45E+00	1.37	-1.00	APIN + O3 = #.05 HCHO + #.2 CCHO + #.5 RCHO + #.61 MEK + #.075 CO + #.1 O3OL-SB + #.05 CCO-O2. + #.05 C2CO-O2. + #.1 RCO3. +



Table A-2 (continued)

Rxn. Label	Kinetic Parameters [a]				Reactions [b]
	k(300)	A	Ea	B	
					#.105 HO2. + #.16 HO. + #.135 RO2-R. + #.15 R2O2. + #.285 RO2. + #.5.285 -C + #.5 OLE-RI
APN3	8.95E+03	1.75E+03	-0.97	-1.00	APIN + NO3 = NO2 + R2O2. + RCHO + RO2. + #7 -C
APOA	4.40E+04	4.40E+04	0.00	-1.00	APIN + O = #.4 HO2. + #.5 MEK + #.5 RCHO + #6.5 -C + #.4 OLE-RI
<b>Unknown Biogenics</b> (Averaged parameters of $\alpha$ -pinene and $\beta$ -pinene, SAPRC-90 mechanism) – Used in EKMA Simulations					
UNOH	9.64E+04	9.64E+04	0.00	-1.00	UNKN + HO. = RO2-R. + RO2. + #.5 HCHO + RCHO + #6.5 -C
UNO3	8.59E-02	8.59E-02	0.00	-1.00	UNKN + O3 = #.135 RO2-R. + #.135 HO2. + #.075 R2O2. + #.21 RO2. + #.025 CCO-O2. + #.025 C2CO-O2. + #.05 RCO3. + #.275 HCHO + #.175 CCHO + #.5 RCHO + #.41 MEK + #.185 CO + #5.925 -C + #.11 HO. + #.192 O3OL-SB + #.43 OLE-RI
UNN3	6.31E+03	6.31E+03	0.00	-1.00	UNKN + NO3 = R2O2. + RO2. + #.5 HCHO + RCHO + #6.5 -C + NO2
UNOA	4.26E+04	4.26E+04	0.00	-1.00	UNKN + O = #.4 HO2. + #.5 RCHO + #.5 MEK + #6.5 -C + #.4 OLE-RI
<b>Representation of Alkanes and Aromatics the base ROG mixture in the EKMA simulations.</b> [d,e]					
A1OH	2.90E+03	4.17E+03	0.22	0.00	AAR1 + HO. = #.917 RO2-R. + #.042 RO2-N. + #.007 RO2-XN. + #.034 HO2. + #.33 R2O2. + #1.295 RO2. + #.141 HCHO + #.315 CCHO + #.163 RCHO + #.254 ACET + #.25 MEK + #.024 CO + #.01 PHEN + #.065 GLY + #.077 AFG1 + #.078 -C
A2OH	8.75E+03	3.60E+03	-0.53	0.00	AAR2 + HO. = #.828 RO2-R. + #.109 RO2-N. + #.002 RO2-XN. + #.061 HO2. + #.635 R2O2. + #1.574 RO2. + #.013 HCHO + #.173 CCHO + #.205 RCHO + #.179 ACET + #.592 MEK + #.032 CO + #.007 CO2 + #.061 CRES + #.02 BALD + #.028 GLY + #.031 MGLY + #.115 AFG2 + #.917 -C
A3OH	4.30E+04	1.66E+04	-0.57	0.00	AAR3 + HO. = #.785 RO2-R. + #.079 RO2-N. + #.136 HO2. + #.198 R2O2. + #1.063 RO2. + #.003 HCHO + #.01 CCHO + #.046 RCHO + #.3 MEK + #.002 CO2 + #.136 CRES + #.027 BALD + #.046 GLY + #.36 MGLY + #.565 AFG2 + #3.376 -C
<b>Representation of Anthropogenic C<sub>3</sub> Alkenes the base ROG mixture in the EKMA simulations.</b> [d]					
O2OH	4.69E+04	3.28E+03	-1.59	0.00	OLE2 + HO. = #.859 RO2-R. + #.141 RO2-N. + RO2. + #.859 HCHO + #.252 CCHO + #.607 RCHO + #1.269 -C
O2O3	1.59E-02	2.10E+00	2.91	0.00	OLE2 + O3 = #.6 HCHO + #.635 RCHO + #.981 -C + #.4 (HCHO2) + #.529 (CCHO2) + #.071 (RCHO2)
O2N3	1.77E+01	3.28E+03	3.12	0.00	OLE2 + NO3 = R2O2. + RO2. + HCHO + #.294 CCHO + #.706 RCHO + #1.451 -C + NO2
O2OA	6.07E+03	6.67E+03	0.06	0.00	OLE2 + O = #.4 HO2. + #.5 RCHO + #.5 MEK + #1.657 -C + #.4 OLE-RI
O3OH	9.73E+04	7.33E+03	-1.54	0.00	OLE3 + HO. = #.875 RO2-R. + #.125 RO2-N. + RO2. + #.302 HCHO + #.609 CCHO + #.548 RCHO + #.104 ACET + #.079 MEK + #.053 BALD + #.852 -C
O3O3	2.30E-01	2.48E+00	1.42	0.00	OLE3 + O3 = #.24 HCHO + #.269 CCHO + #.373 RCHO + #.056 MEK + #.024 BALD + #.978 -C + #.106 (HCHO2) + #.427 (CCHO2) + #.253 (RCHO2) + #.143 (C(C)CO2) + #.035 (C(R)CO2) + #.036 (BZCHO2)
O3N3	1.53E+03	7.67E+02	-0.41	0.00	OLE3 + NO3 = R2O2. + RO2. + #.346 HCHO + #.696 CCHO + #.626 RCHO + #.119 ACET + #.091 MEK + #.06 BALD + #.883 -C + NO2
O3OA	3.37E+04	1.15E+04	-0.64	0.00	OLE3 + O = #.4 HO2. + #.5 RCHO + #.5 MEK + #2.14 -C + #.4 OLE-RI

[a] Except as noted, expression for rate constant is  $k = A e^{E_a/RT} (T/300)^B$ . Rate constants and A factor are in ppm, min units. Units of Ea is kcal mole<sup>-1</sup>. "Phot Set" means this is a photolysis reaction, with the absorption coefficients and quantum yields given in Table A-5.

[b] Format of reaction listing same as used in documentation of the detailed mechanism (Carter 1990).

[c] "#RCONnn" as a reactant means that the rate constant for the reaction is obtained by multiplying the rate constant given by that for reaction "nn". Thus, the rate constant given is actually an equilibrium constant.

[d] Rate constants and product yield parameters based on the mixture of species in the base ROG mixture which are being represented.

[e] Lumping of alkanes with aromatics is not recommended for grid model simulations or for trajectory simulations where the composition of emitted ROG species vary with time. This is not the case with these EKMA simulations.







