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Anthracene and phenanthrene tropospheric oxidation promoted by the nitrate radical in the gas-phase. Theoretical modelistic study.

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7 Abstract. Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons and their oxidized derivatives are ubiquitous environmental pollutants that are toxic to different degrees. The NO₃ radical is known to be an 8 9 important actor in fostering nighttime atmospheric chemistry; hence it could elicit some nocturnal 10 PAH-loss processes. In this study the gas phase pathways open to the initial anthracene and 11 phenanthrene NO₃ π–radical adducts in the presence of O₂, NO and NO₂ are examined by Density Functional Theory to ascertain the mechanistic features of their NO₃-initiated oxidative degradation. 12 Unimolecular steps involving the initial adducts (ring closures or fragmentation) present rather high 13 14 free energy barriers and seem unlikely. Regarding bimolecular reactions, any radical present in the tropospheric environment can give an intrinsically fast radical coupling with the initial adducts, thus 15 16 producing bifunctional closed shell species. The addition of ground state dioxygen is a relatively fast step that is reversible in some cases, less so in others. It entails subsequent reaction steps, which 17 involve the peroxyl radical intermediate and addition and loss of small species as NO, NO₃, NO₂ and 18 O_2 . These steps can either trigger a β -fragmentation with formation of a closed shell dialdehyde or 19 20 formation of a closed shell nitroxy ketone, bifunctional species that appear to be the most likely

Keywords: 1) anthracene; 2) phenanthrene; 3) nitrate radical; 4) NO₃ 5) tropospheric oxidation; 6) gas-phase 7) mechanism; 8) DFT

products when typical tropospheric concentrations are taken into account.

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Proposed running title: PAH oxidation promoted by NO₃

1. Introduction.

Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) and their oxidized derivatives are ubiquitous environmental pollutants present in the troposphere, which are toxic to different extents (Finlayson-Pitts and Pitts, 2000; Keyte et al., 2013). They are emitted during incomplete combustion of fossil fuels (Lim et al., 1999) and biomass (Jenkins et al., 1996; Mandalakis et al., 2005; Samburova et al., 2016). PAHs can undergo oxidation and functionalization in general, both during combustion and their subsequent transport in the troposphere.(Calvert et al. 2002; Kameda 2011) In particular, anthracene and phenanthrene belong to the list of the 16 priority PAHs indicated by the US Environmental Protection Agency. This list has played an important role in monitoring programs (Lammel, 2015), though reservations about its future use has been recently put forth (Andersson and Achten, 2015).

Homogeneous (gas phase) and heterogeneous (particle phase) experimental and theoretical studies have been published on the reactions of PAHs with ozone (Finlayson-Pitts, 1997; Perraudin et al., 2007, 2006; Zhang et al., 2013) or with the hydroxyl radical (Biermann et al., 1985; Brubaker and Hites, 1998; Dang et al., 2015a, 2015b, 2014; Giordana et al., 2008; Helmig and Harger, 1994; Sasaki et al., 1997; Zhao et al., 2016). Some publications have also dealt with the action of the nitrate radical (Atkinson et al., 1990; Dang et al., 2015c; Qu et al., 2008; Sasaki et al., 1997; Zhang P., 2014; Chapleski et al., 2016). The reaction with the NO₃ radical, known to play in general a significant role in nighttime tropospheric chemistry (Stone et al., 2014), may have some importance in contributing to nocturnal PAH loss pathways. Current knowledge of the NO₃-initiated gas phase atmospheric oxidation of different PAHs, based on experimental results, is mostly limited to cases in which a high concentration of NO₂ is also present. For example, in their studies on naphthalene and fluoranthene, Sasaki et al. found nitro-derivatives as important products (Arey et al., 1989; Sasaki et al., 1997). In their reacting system they had not only NO₃, but also substantial concentrations of NO₂, both coming from N₂O₅ (NO₂ was also added with concentration in the order of 10¹³ molecules cm⁻³). Whereas a variety of experimental studies dealing with naphthalene and its derivatives + NO₃ reacting system is available (see Keyte et al. 2013, pp 9349-9353), much less has been done for anthracene and phenanthrene, considering both the gas phase and the particle phase (Arey et al., 1989; Jariyasopit et al., 2014b; Kwok et al., 1994).

Some of the oxidized PAH derivatives are of concern for human health, (Asare et al., 2009, 2008; Durant et al., 1996; Landvik et al., 2007; Talaska et al., 1996) and in addition a large share of oxidation products are not identified. Therefore it is worthwhile to further investigate the mechanistic details of these processes. Theoretical investigations as the present one can be complementary to experimental studies, and the comparison be informative. Within it, we explore the gas phase

1 reaction mechanisms of NO₃-triggered oxidative degradation of anthracene and phenanthrene.

2 Therefore, we will consider how ground electronic state O₂, NO, and NO₂ will react with PAH-derived

intermediate radicals. We model these reactions in a semi-quantitative way to ascertain their

4 mechanistic features (reaction pathways and related free energy barriers) and also with the purpose

of suggesting, on that basis, likely closed shell products. Accordingly, we deliberately do not extend

the investigation to all possible reaction pathways when differing for regio- and diastereochemistry,

as is done with the goal of obtaining quantitative predictions.

Under typical atmospheric conditions, anthracene and phenanthrene are partitioned between gas and particle phases (see Figures 10.2 and 10.3 in Finlayson-Pitts and Pitts, 2000) for which oxidative degradation might present mechanistic differences. In the present study we begin by focusing only on the gas phase reaction pathways, for which the syn additions are explored in a more complete and detailed way (syn additions are expected to be more pertinent to the adsorbed system, in which one face of the PAH system is engaged with the underlying surface).

To our knowledge experimental results are scarce for phenantrene (Kwok et al., 1994) and anthracene (Arey et al., 1989; Jariyasopit et al., 2014b; Ringuet et al. 2012), with more data available for naphthalene. Some publications deal with our title PAHs, but are either carried out in the presence of high NO₂ concentration, or deal with heterogeneous chemistry of these and other PAHs.(Mak et al 2007; Zhang et al. 2011; Liu et al. 2012; Cochran et al. 2016) Some theoretical papers published in the last few years also bear similarities to the present study. In particular, a study on hydroxycyclohexadienyl peroxyl radical (from benzene) plus NO, (Yan et al., 2013) those on benzene (Qu et al., 2006a) or naphthalene (Qu et al., 2006b) plus NO₃, one on 9-chloroanthracene plus NO₃ (Dang et al., 2015c), and one on the role of water in the formation of nitro-PAHs (Zhang Q. et al., 2014).

2. Theoretical Method.

All stationary points on the energy hypersurface, *i.e.* minima and first order saddle points, corresponding to transition structures (TS), were determined by gradient procedures (Pople et al., 1992; Schlegel, 1982a, 1982b, 1981; Schlegel et al., 1984) within the Density Functional Theory (DFT), (Parr and Yang, 1989) and making use of the M06-2X (Zhao and Truhlar, 2008, 2007) functional. Reactants, transition structures, intermediates, and products have been optimized with the 6-31G(d,p) basis set. Single-point energies of various species were calculated with Dunning's correlation-consistent polarized valence triple- ζ basis set cc-pV*TZ* (Kendall et al., 1992). On the basis of previous studies,(Trogolo et al., 2014) this computational approach is expected to perform acceptably. The nature of the critical points (and the thermochemistry) was assessed by vibrational

analysis: the 6-31G(d,p) thermochemical corrections gave estimates of the zero point vibrational energy (ZPE), by which the cc-pVTZ relative energies were corrected [here $\Delta E_{ZPE} = \Delta E_{CC-pVTZ} + \Delta ZPE_{6-31G(d,p)}$], and similarly enthalpy (ΔH) and Gibbs free energy (ΔG) differences were obtained. The thermochemistry was assessed in all cases at T = 298.15 K and ΔG values at this temperature are reported in Scheme 1 (in kcal mol⁻¹). Geometry optimization and thermochemistry calculations were carried out by using the GAUSSIAN 09 system of programs (Frisch et al., 2009).

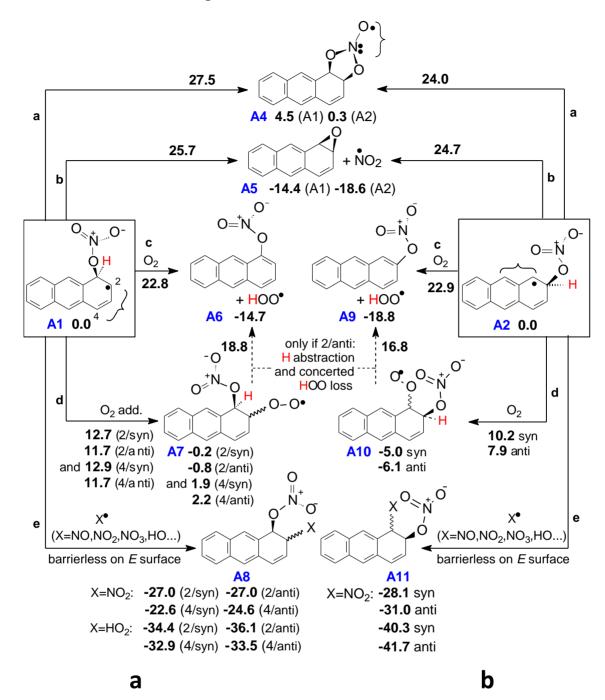
For singlet diradicaloid structures (such as those corresponding to homolytic dissociations), the "automatic" restricted closed shell singlet solution yields zero spin densities. Therefore, the wavefunction stability was checked and obtained by relaxing the wavefunction in the orbital rotations space. The desired spin densities, as expected for diradicaloid structures, were obtained in correspondence of the attained ('singlet' unrestricted) wavefunction stability. Because the resultant spin-mixing (the unrestricted wavefunction is not an eigenfunction of \hat{S}^2) gives a better description of the electron distribution but alters the energy, the energy values were refined by Yamaguchi's formula to get rid of the contribution of the closest spin contaminant of the same parity (Baker et al., 1993; Goldstein et al., 1996; Wittbrodt and Schlegel, 1996; Yamaguchi et al., 1988; Yamanaka et al., 1994).

3. Results and Discussion.

3.1 Anthracene. NO₃ adds to anthracene, without any barrier on the potential energy surface, to form three anthracenyl nitrate radicals. These are the boxed structures **A1** (addition to position 1) and **A2** (position 2) in Scheme 1, and **A3** (position 9) in Scheme 3. Adduct **A1**, at -12.7 kcal mol⁻¹ below the two reactants, is more stable than **A2** by 4.2 kcal mol⁻¹; adduct **A3** is the stablest, being located at -20.2 kcal mol⁻¹, i.e. 7.5 below **A1**. The energetics (ΔG at 298.15 K) for each reaction pathway is reported relative to **A1** in Scheme 1, left, relative to **A2** in Scheme 1, right, and relative to **A3** in Scheme 3. The intermediates **A4** and **A5**, shared by both pathways, are associated with two free energy values, with the relevant zero is indicated in parentheses. Scheme 2 displays further steps departing from the peroxyl structures **A7** and **A10** in Scheme 1.

First we will describe the different reaction steps possibly undergone by the initial adducts A1, A2, and A3. Then, we will assess their relative importance. We have taken into account possible unimolecular reaction steps departing from the initial adducts, as well as dioxygen intervention (O_2 is the reactive species present with the highest density, close to 5 x 10^{18} molecules cm⁻³). Also taken into account are NO and NO₃ reactions with relevant intermediate radicals (Scheme 2). Section A in the Supplementary Material displays a larger number of less likely pathways. NO_x species (collective for NO + NO₂) are present in the troposphere at concentrations ranging from 10^8-10^9 (unpolluted

- situation) to 10^{12} (polluted) molecules cm⁻³. The role of NO_x species can be particularly interesting
- 2 in the formation of the concerning PAH nitro derivatives, which have drawn



Scheme 1. Anthracene. Initial steps departing from the NO₃ adduct in position 1, A1 (left, a), and in position 2, A2 (right, b). They also involve positions 2 and 1, respectively. Gibbs free energy differences at T = 298.15 K, with respect to A1 and with respect to A2; A2 is 4.2 kcal mol⁻¹ above A1. In A1, A2, and A4 the brace indicates delocalization.

attention in the years(Fiedler and Mücke, 1991; Finlayson-Pitts and Pitts, 2000; Ghigo et al., 2006; Gibson, 1982; Jariyasopit et al., 2014a, 2014b; Keyte et al., 2013; Pitts et al., 1978; Zimmermann et al., 2013). It needs to be taken into account that NO₂ concentration can be high in some laboratory experiments (Arey et al., 1989).

3.1.1 Nitroxy in position 1: initial steps. Of the initial steps possibly involving A1 (Scheme 1, left), two are unimolecular with formation of one extra ring (A1-A4 and A1-A5). Other two (A1-A6 and **A1-A7**) imply either H abstraction by O_2 , or its addition to the π -system. Still another step similarly sees NO₂ addition; also other free radicals would similarly add, as NO, HO, or NO₃ itself. detail, (a) A1 could undergo a 5-membered ring formation (c-CCONO) to its radical isomer A4 with a barrier ΔG^{\dagger} = 27.5 kcal mol⁻¹. This cyclic intermediate is less stable than **A1** by 4.5 kcal mol⁻¹. (b) As an alternative, **A1** could lose NO₂, and concertedly close an epoxide ring to give **A5**, with $\Delta G^{\dagger} = 25.7$ kcal mol⁻¹. This step is exoergic by $\Delta G = -14.4$ kcal mol⁻¹. Regarding the bimolecular reactions, (c) O₂ could abstract the hydrogen geminal to the nitroxy group in A1 with consequent formation of 1nitroxy-anthracene **A6** (an arylnitrate) and the hydroperoxyl radical with ΔG^{\dagger} = 22.8 kcal mol⁻¹ and a G gain of 14.7 kcal mol⁻¹ for the step. (d) in A1, O₂ could also add to the π -system, namely to the allylic positions 2 or 4. The related spin densities ($\Delta \rho = \alpha$ electron density - β electron density) are 0.55 on C2, and 0.64 on C4. This addition could proceed through four attacks differing in regio- and diastereochemistry with respect to the nitroxy group (2 or 4, and syn or anti with respect to the approximate molecular plane). Only one attack will be fully examined as far as the subsequent steps are considered: it is the addition to position 2/syn, which presents a barrier ΔG^{\dagger} = 12.7 kcal mol⁻¹ to give the peroxyl radical A7 2/syn at -0.2 kcal mol⁻¹. By considering that the peroxyl radical intermediates are located at approximately the same energy as the initial NO₃ adduct A1, the dioxygen addition step (if considered alone) can be regarded as quite reversible. (e) Also a variety of radicals X can similarly add with the same regio- and diastereochemistry, via a very easy step as regards energy. For simple radical couplings, fairly high rate constants of the order of $10^{-11} - 10^{-12}$ molec⁻¹ cm³ s⁻¹ have been assessed, depending on the reaction type. For instance NO₂ adds in position 2 without any E barrier, and a nitroxy nitro closed shell adduct forms, located at -22.6 kcal mol⁻¹ (nitro in 4/syn) and -24.6 (4/anti), or -27.0 kcal mol⁻¹ (nitro in 2, syn and anti both). A possible HNO₃ loss from the anti nitroxy nitro A8 intermediate (compare Ghigo et al. 2006) could produce 2-nitro anthracene, but this step results too demanding as a gas phase process (see Scheme S1 in the Supplementary Material), though in conditions different from the gas phase we cannot exclude such a step. This is consistent with the available experimental results (Kwok et al., 1994; see, in particular, p 791).

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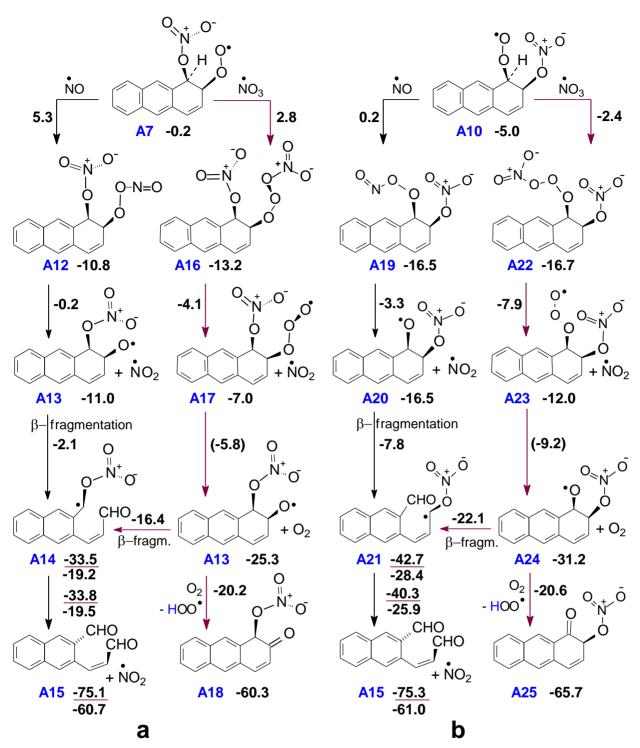
¹ For the radical coupling *phenyl + phenyl → biphenyl*, for instance, $k = 1.9 \times 10^{-11}$ molec⁻¹ cm³ s⁻¹ has been assessed at T = 300 K (Park and Lin, 1997). For *methyl + phenyl → toluene*, $k = 2.1 \times 10^{-11}$ molec⁻¹ cm³ s⁻¹ at T = 300 K (Tokmakov et al., 1999). But lower values are found in other cases, as in the presence of delocalized π radicals. For *cyclohexadienyl + NO* at 296 K the values are: k = 6-12 (P-dependent, in the range 20–80 Torr of He) x 10⁻¹³ molec⁻¹ cm³ s⁻¹ (Nakashima et al., 2008).

Values for the hydroperoxyl radical are also reported. Similar considerations apply to A2 (see below). The extent to which bifunctional derivatives formation can compete, depends on the relative concentrations of O_2 and X, and on the accuracy of the relevant rate constants, hence it is rather hard to assess. Regarding A6 formation, an alternative pathway (O_2 addition to give A7, H abstraction from the position geminal to the nitroxy group operated by $-O^{\bullet}$, hydroperoxyl radical loss) would give the same aromatic nitrate (Scheme 1, pathway d). The barrier for intramolecular H abstraction is, for the syn isomer, much higher than for the step A1-A6 (see Supplementary Material, section A). If the peroxyl group is anti to the nitroxy, i.e. close to the hydrogen to be abstracted, it comes out by contrast to be lower: 19.6 kcal mol $^{-1}$ with respect to the preceding minimum (compare 22.8 kcal mol $^{-1}$ for the intermolecular process). In this case, hydroperoxyl loss is concerted with the H abstraction.

3.1.2 Nitroxy in position 2: initial steps. Similarly to A1, the two intermediates A4 and A5 can be obtained from A2, through ring closure steps (Scheme 1b). In A2 the largest spin density is on C1, $\Delta \rho = 0.64$. It is somewhat higher than that associated to C2 in A1, 0.55: an allyl-like system similar to that found in A1 is present, but with larger spin density on one carbon, C1. Accordingly, the ring closures entail comparable, but slightly smaller, barrier heights than for A1: 24.0 kcal mol⁻¹ to get A4, and 24.7 kcal mol⁻¹ to get A5 from A2 (which is 4.2 kcal mol⁻¹ above A1).² Steps c, d, and e follow again, and present barriers not too dissimilar from those of Scheme 1a, somewhat lower in the case of dioxygen addition. Also the peroxyl radicals A10 are more stable by ca. 5 kcal mol⁻¹ than those labeled A7, with the two substituents in ortho. Dioxygen addition is in this case significantly less reversible (in itself) than for A7. The step free energy differences are generally lower by ca. 4 kcal mol⁻¹, which can be traced back to the 4.2 kcal mol⁻¹ energy difference of A2 vs A1 (while the step products are quite alike).

3.1.3 Further steps from the peroxyl radicals. By considering further different radical additions to the peroxyl intermediate **A7**, as those by NO, NO₂, NO₃, or HO, one can assess if its terminal oxygen can be successively abstracted in a viable way. Starting from the peroxyl radical intermediate **A7** located at -0.2 kcal mol⁻¹, some steps could be initiated by NO (Scheme 2a). NO could in principle abstract the terminal oxygen by an effective collision, to form the oxyl radical intermediate **A13** + NO₂, at -11.0 kcal mol⁻¹, but we could not find such a transition structure.

² In **A2**, the spin density $\Delta \rho$ is somewhat more localized with respect to **A1**. However, some delocalization occurs also in **A2**, involving a system C1(0.64)-C_{tert}-C9(0.33) ($\Delta \rho$ values here in parentheses). This situation bears some resemblance to an allylic system, but is less symmetric than in **A1**. All other $|\Delta \rho|$ values are lower than 0.09.



Scheme 2. Anthracene. Reaction steps of the peroxyl radicals A7 and A10 with NO (black arrows) and NO_3 (red arrows; red-underlined figures pertain to this pathway when double values appear). See text and Scheme 1. Value in parentheses do not include the Yamaguchi treatment.³ Gibbs free energy differences at T = 298.15 K, with respect to the initial adduct A1.

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³ For both anthracene and phenanthrene, in the fragmentations of the trioxyl intermediates, **A17**, **A23**, **A31** (Scheme 4), and **P12** (Scheme 6), respectively, the earliness of the transition structures (in a geometrical sense: R₀₋₀=1.72-1.74 Å), causes the quartet, which is the next spin contaminant involved in the process of finding a stable wavefunction, to be quite high in energy. The ensuing Yamaguchi correction (Yamaguchi et al., 1988) comes out to be large enough to produce "negative"

barriers". If we can cast some doubts on the real existence of a trioxyl intermediate, we can deem (in any case) this fragmentation a very easy step.

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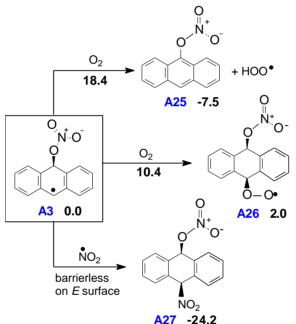
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Alternatively, NO could first add to A7 (radical coupling) to form the peroxynitrite A12. The addition step presents a low free energy barrier, 5.3 kcal mol⁻¹, and A12 is located 10.6 kcal mol⁻¹ lower than A7. If (Scheme 2a, first column) a subsequent NO₂ loss from A12 were feasible, it would then give A13, and by β -fragmentation A14, bearing an aldehydic group. A14 is a radical stabilized by delocalization and α -effect. Loss of NO₂ would finally produce the closed shell dialdehyde **A15**.

The pathway A7-A13 shown in Scheme 2a (second column) resulted to be energetically the easiest. It leads to the dialdehyde A15, as well as to the closed shell nitroxyketone A18 (red arrows): these can be considered as end products for the reacting system considered here. Other less fortunate attempts are documented in the Supplementary Material, section A. The nitrate-mediated pathway A10-A20 opens the way to the formation of the same dialdehyde A15 and a nitroxyketone A25 (Scheme 2b).



Scheme 3. Anthracene. Initial steps involving positions 9 and 10. Gibbs free energy differences at T = 298.15 K, with respect to the initial adduct A3.

3.1.4 Nitroxy in position 9. In the case of the nitrate adduct having the -ONO2 group in position 9, A3, which is 7.5 kcal mol-1 below A1, three of the five cases of Scheme 1 can be considered (Scheme 3) because (a) an -O-N-O- bridge between two carbons forms only through a high barrier (Supplementary Material, Section A), and (b) an epoxide ring formation would cancel the aromaticity of one benzo group. Step A3-A25 corresponds to pathway c in Scheme 1 and leads to a structural isomer of A6. Step A3-A26 corresponds to pathway d. Step A3-A27 is, as for pathway e, a coupling of two radicals (here exemplified by the formation of 10-nitro-9,10-dihydroanthr-9-yl nitrate. Further viable pathways from **A3** were not found. Steps relying on a β -fragmentation in an oxyl intermediate

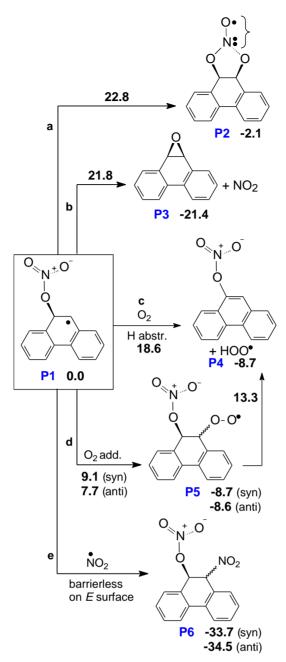
- similar to A13 are to be ruled out because it would originate a phenyl radical, which proved to be
- 2 too high in energy. From **A26**, further steps could lead to a very stable nitroxyketone. They are
- 3 similar to those discussed in connection with Scheme 2 and are displayed in Scheme 4.

Scheme 4. Anthracene. Steps following initial O_2 addition to C10 in 9-nitroxyanthracene. Additions of NO (black arrows) and NO_3 (red arrows; red-underlined figures pertain to this pathway when double values appear). Value in parentheses do not include the Yamaguchi treatment.³ Gibbs free energy differences at T =298.15 K, with respect to the initial adduct A3.

By comparing the two reaction channels, we see that NO addition to **A26** is less demanding than NO₃ addition, while the adducts **A28** and **A30** have similar stability The oxyl radical **A29** that forms through further NO₂ or O₂ losses can undergo H abstraction by O₂ to give 9-nitroxy-anthr-10-one. This time a β -fragmentation similar to that seen in Scheme 2 cannot take place, because it implies formation of a rather unstable phenyl radical.

3.2 Phenanthrene. This PAH presents its equivalent positions 9 and 10 as the most reactive. NO_3 adds to these positions again without any energy barrier, 1 to form the 9-phenanthrenylnitrate radical **P1** (boxed structure, taken as our ΔG reference in Scheme 5 and Scheme 6). **P1** could undergo a 5-membered ring formation (c-CCONO) to its radical isomer **P2**, step (a), with a barrier ΔG^{\ddagger} = 22.8 kcal mol⁻¹. This substantial barrier should be overcome, to take a pathway that, through a ring opening, leads to a dialdehyde (biphenyl-2,2'-dicarbaldehyde). Details are provided in the Supplementary Material , section A. (b) As an alternative, **P1** could lose NO_2 , and concertedly close an epoxide ring to give **P3**, with ΔG^{\ddagger} = 21.8 kcal mol⁻¹. Both these pathways do not appear to be very likely, since they correspond to quite slow reaction steps, though less difficult than the analogous steps seen for anthracene. (c) Coming to bimolecular processes, O_2 could abstract the hydrogen geminal to the nitroxy group "on the fly", with ΔG^{\ddagger} = 18.6 kcal mol⁻¹ and formation of 9-nitroxyphenanthrene, **P4**, an arylnitrate. (d) Otherwise, O_2 could first add to the adjacent position 10. This step cannot be seen as reversible, in itself, as **A1-A7**, and is more similar in this respect to **A2-A10**, even with a higher barrier for the backwards step.

O₂ addition, as already discussed, can occur with syn or anti diastereochemistry. In the case of anti addition, the terminal peroxyl –O· can abstract the hydrogen geminal to the nitroxy group and then a hydroperoxyl radical can leave. If H abstraction were impossible because of a syn arrangement, it could also occur as NO-mediated process (details in the Supplementary Material, section A). The barrier to the peroxyl intermediate **P5** is 3.0 kcal mol⁻¹ high (2.2 if O₂ adds anti), and **P5** lies at -8.7 (syn) or -8.6 (anti) kcal mol⁻¹. Formation of 9-nitroxy-phenanthrene **P4** would ensue from both c and d pathways but with a second sizable barrier of ca. 22 kcal mol⁻¹ with respect to **P5** along pathway d. Other possible reaction steps from **P5** are discussed below (Scheme 6). (e) Any radical tropospheric species (as NO₃, NO₂, NO,...) could also add with the same diastereochemistry, and closed shell products would form. Here this termination step is exemplified in Scheme 5 by NO₂ addition, which takes place via a barrierless step as regards energy.



Scheme 5. Phenanthrene. Initial steps involving positions 9 and 10. Gibbs free energy differences at
 T = 298.15 K, with respect to the initial adduct P1. In P2, the brace indicates delocalization. Pathway e:
 NO₂ taken as an example of any termination step occurring via radical coupling.

Similarly to what described for anthracene, starting from the peroxyl radical intermediate **P5**, at -8.7 kcal mol⁻¹, further steps, initiated by NO, can in principle form an oxyl radical intermediate **P8** + NO₂ at -19.1 kcal mol⁻¹. However, we found no trace of a TS for O abstraction by NO "on the fly". Instead, the 9-nitroxy-10-peroxynitrite **P7** first forms upon radical coupling (Scheme 6, left), with a barrier of 6.0 kcal mol⁻¹; **P7** is located at -19.7 kcal mol⁻¹. Upon NO₂ loss, it would give the oxyl intermediate **P8**. If **P8** forms this way, further steps through a stabilized radical **P11** can finally give the closed shell dialdehyde, **P10**. **P8** could also form through the NO₃-addition pathway shown on the right. The dialdehyde **P12**, and to a slightly lesser extent the nitroxy ketone **P13**, appear to be good candidates for being major products of the NO₃-mediated oxidation.

Scheme 6. Phenanthrene. Additions of NO (left, black arrows) and NO₃ (right, red arrows; red-underlined figures pertain to this pathway when double values appear). Value in parentheses do not include the Yamaguchi treatment.³ Gibbs free energy differences at T =298.15 K, with respect to the initial adduct **P1**.

The reaction of phenanthrene with HO and NO_3 radicals was studied experimentally (Kwok et al., 1994). In that study a kinetic constant of 1.2×10^{-13} molecules⁻¹ cm³ s⁻¹ for NO_3 (1.3 x 10^{-11} for HO) was determined, concluding that these reactions should dominate phenanthrene atmospheric loss processes. Their experiments were carried out in the presence of a varying initial concentration of

 NO_2 , namely 0, 4.4 x 10^{13} and 2.4 x 10^{14} molecules cm⁻³. A non-zero intercept in a rate plot vs NO_2 , concentration suggested that the phenanthrene-nitrate radical reaction must also involve a pathway independent of NO_2 concentration. This pathway could actually be a set of pathways of different importance, as shown in Schemes 1, 3, 5.

The results of our present study can be compared with those from the recent theoretical study on phenanthrene plus HO, O_2 , and NO_x (Zhao et al., 2016). In those studies, the principal products were indicated to be oxidized ring retaining products, as well as products from ring opening, namely, phenanthrones, phenanthrols, quinones and dialdehydes. The same research group had previously investigated the reaction of the nitrate radical with 9-chloro-anthracene in the presence of O_2 and NO_x (Dang et al., 2015c), and the same kind of reactions involving naphthalene too (Qu et al., 2006c). They found that, following barrierless nitrate addition to the PAH π –system, the main products should be: 9-chloroanthryl nitrates, diones, epoxides, and dialdehydes.

4. Conclusions

In this study, we have investigated the NO₃-initiated gas phase oxidative degradation of anthracene and phenanthrene. A variety of reaction steps have been considered that contemplate the intervention of O₂, NO, NO₂, and also NO₃ (for a second time), and also unimolecular steps. Some reaction steps, considered less likely, are collected in the Supplementary Material. These results indicate that one NO₃-initiated pathway, which is also O₂ and NO₃-mediated, leads to the formation of a dialdehyde and a nitroxy-ketone. The same kind of pathway is effective for both anthracene (Schemes 2 and 4) and phenanthrene (Scheme 6). The key species is an early intermediate, a nitroxy peroxyl radical that forms after the initial NO₃ attack to the PAH upon dioxygen addition. It further evolves to carbonyl products, through free energy barriers that are significantly lower than those related to other possible intermediates or closed shell products. Some bifunctional PAH derivatives can also form through couplings of the initial nitroxy radical adducts with free radicals X present in the troposphere. The example of the formation of a nitroxy nitro product is shown (pathway e in Schemes 1, 3, 5). HNO₃ loss from the closed shell anti nitroxy nitro intermediate could allow the formation of a nitroaromatic. However, it but results very difficult in the gas phase.

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- 3 Composition Change, the European NeTwork of Excellence).
- 4 Supplementary Material for this article is available: it includes the geometries and energetics of
- 5 all optimized structures, plus the illustration of other reaction channels explored but not reported in
- 6 the main text because of their more demanding energetics.

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