

# Ultrafast photochemistry of methyl hydroperoxide on ice particles

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**Simulations show that photodissociation of methyl hydroperoxide, CH<sub>3</sub>OOH, on water clusters produces a surprisingly wide range of products on a subpicosecond time scale, pointing to the possibility of complex photodegradation pathways for organic peroxides on aerosols and water droplets. Dynamics are computed at several excitation energies at 50 K using a semiempirical PM3 potential surface. CH<sub>3</sub>OOH is found to prefer the exterior of the cluster, with the CH<sub>3</sub>O group sticking out and the OH group immersed within the cluster. At atmospherically relevant photodissociation wavelengths the OH and CH<sub>3</sub>O photofragments remain at the surface of the cluster or embedded within it. However, none of the 25 completed trajectories carried out at the atmospherically relevant photodissociation energies led to recombination of OH and CH<sub>3</sub>O to form CH<sub>3</sub>OOH. Within the limited statistics of the available trajectories the predicted yield for the recombination is zero. Instead, various reactions involving the initial fragments and water promptly form a wide range of stable molecular products such as CH<sub>2</sub>O, H<sub>2</sub>O, H<sub>2</sub>, CO, CH<sub>3</sub>OH, and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>.**

air–water interface | molecular dynamics | peroxides | photodissociation

Photoinduced processes at surfaces of water or ice are of interest in atmospheric chemistry and other areas. However, molecular-level understanding of such processes is largely lacking, because the systems and the interactions involved are complex. In this article, we explore, as a fundamental prototype, the photodissociation of the simplest organoperoxide, CH<sub>3</sub>OOH, on an ice particle. A major motivation for studying this peroxide is its relevance to atmospheric chemistry, as discussed in refs. 1–11 and references therein. Methyl hydroperoxide is typically present in cloud water droplets in micromolar concentrations (7, 12, 13) and is also likely to occur in aerosols (4, 14). The fate of CH<sub>3</sub>OOH in water droplets may influence its role as a reservoir for HO<sub>x</sub> because this peroxide is known to be a major source of OH at high tropospheric altitudes (10, 15). Fenton-like reactions involving CH<sub>3</sub>OOH and Fe(II) serve as an important source of aqueous HO<sub>2</sub> radicals (16). Finally, recent evidence suggests that reactions between peroxides and isoprene oxidation products lead to the formation of tetrols, thus contributing to the production of secondary organic aerosols (17).

It is well established that gas-phase CH<sub>3</sub>OOH photolyzes under UV-visible excitation to form CH<sub>3</sub>O and OH with a quantum yield approaching unity (8, 18–23). Because of the moderate solubility of CH<sub>3</sub>OOH, it is also likely to undergo condensed-phase photolysis after being taken up by aqueous particles and ice particles and contribute to the production of aqueous free radicals (24). To the best of our knowledge, only two prior experiments examined photolysis of CH<sub>3</sub>OOH in liquid water (9) and ice particles.<sup>†</sup> Each of these studies identified CH<sub>2</sub>O and H<sub>2</sub>O as major products, suggesting that the photochemistry of CH<sub>3</sub>OOH is considerably more complicated in condensed-phase environments. Unlike the gas-phase photolysis of CH<sub>3</sub>OOH (5, 8), its condensed-phase photolysis has not been investigated by theoretical methods. We have used a theoretical study to trace the dynamics of the primary photolysis

products, CH<sub>3</sub>O and OH, on a small water cluster with atomistic simulations.

There are many precedents of using molecular dynamics-based approaches for investigating photochemistry in condensed environments (26–31) and using small water clusters as representative model systems of aqueous reactivity (32, 33). For example, photolysis of water in crystalline ice was examined by using force fields to approximate the potentials (26). Photodissociation of HCl adsorbed on ice was studied with an approach in which the hydrogen fragment was described quantum-mechanically and the chlorine fragment and the water molecules were treated classically (27, 28). A similar quantum mechanics/molecular mechanics strategy was used to investigate the photodissociation of chlorine peroxide on ice (29). Several investigators have resorted to freezing certain degrees of freedom during their simulations (30, 31). This work uses PM3 electronic structure method (34) for the “on-the-fly” generation of the forces along the atomic trajectories (35), permitting efficient simulation for relatively large clusters. Present calculations do not involve freezing selected coordinates or reducing interactions to force fields that may artificially prevent unanticipated chemical processes. Our results show that even for a relatively small polyatomic molecule, such as CH<sub>3</sub>OOH, photolysis on ice produces a large variety of chemical outcomes. It is anticipated that for larger organic peroxides the variety of competing chemical pathways will be even greater. The capability of the method we have used to describe diverse, perhaps unexpected, chemical reactions is essential for simulating the photochemistry of organic peroxides in water. We anticipate that this method can also be used to simulate other photochemical processes occurring on or within water or other condensed environments.

## Results

The CH<sub>3</sub>OOH molecule was positioned at the surface of a cluster of 20 water molecules, and a dynamics simulation was run at 50 K under the influence of the PM3 potential. The trajectory was propagated for 30 ps. Twenty randomly chosen configurations, between 10 and 29 ps, were analyzed. Fig. 1 displays a representative snapshot of the cluster. In this and all other snapshots CH<sub>3</sub>OOH remained on the surface of the cluster. In simulations that intentionally positioned CH<sub>3</sub>OOH in the middle of the cluster, CH<sub>3</sub>OOH migrated toward the surface. The CH<sub>3</sub>O carbon and oxygen atoms were equidistant, on average, from the center of mass of the cluster ( $2.9 \pm 0.2$  and  $2.9 \pm 0.1$  Å, respectively). In contrast, the OH oxygen atom was found closer to the center of the cluster,  $1.8 \pm 0.2$  Å, and the OH hydrogen was typically found at an intermediate location,  $2.6 \pm 0.2$  Å. Fig. 1

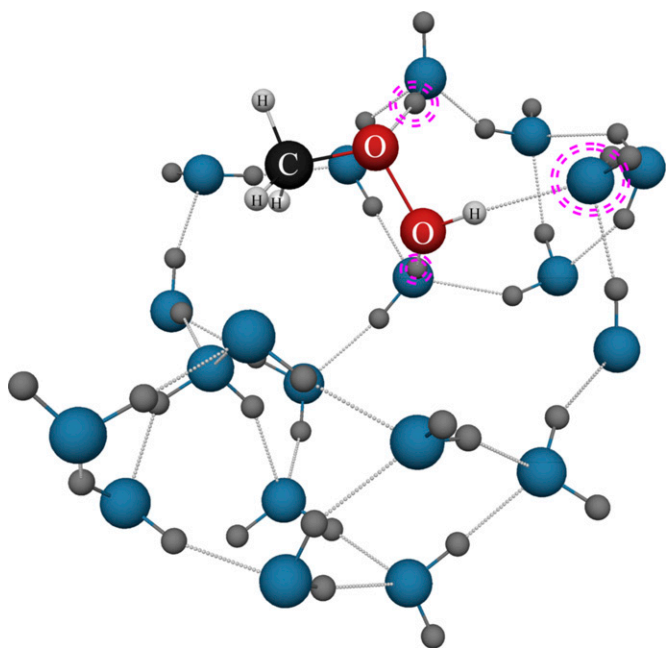
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**Fig. 1.** A representative structure of  $\text{CH}_3\text{OOH}$  on a 20-molecule  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  ice cluster at 50 K. Pink halos indicate water atoms that are hydrogen-bonded to  $\text{CH}_3\text{OOH}$ .

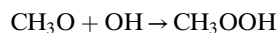
shows a typical bonding pattern, with the two oxygen atoms and peroxidic hydrogen atom in  $\text{CH}_3\text{OOH}$  forming hydrogen bonds with neighboring water molecules. This pattern was observed for all 20 sampled configurations.

A total of 120 photolysis simulations were performed. Each of these simulations was constructed from 1 of 20 unique starting geometries and six different photon energies. The vertical transitions corresponding to the six photon energies are depicted in

**Fig. 2.** The 6.7-eV transition corresponds to a Franck–Condon excitation from the lowest energy state. The transition at 8.4 eV corresponds to a higher-energy UV photoexcitation. The 4.8-, 4.1-, and 2.9-eV transitions correspond to the atmospherically relevant photoexcitation energies in the near-UV and visible regions of the solar spectrum.

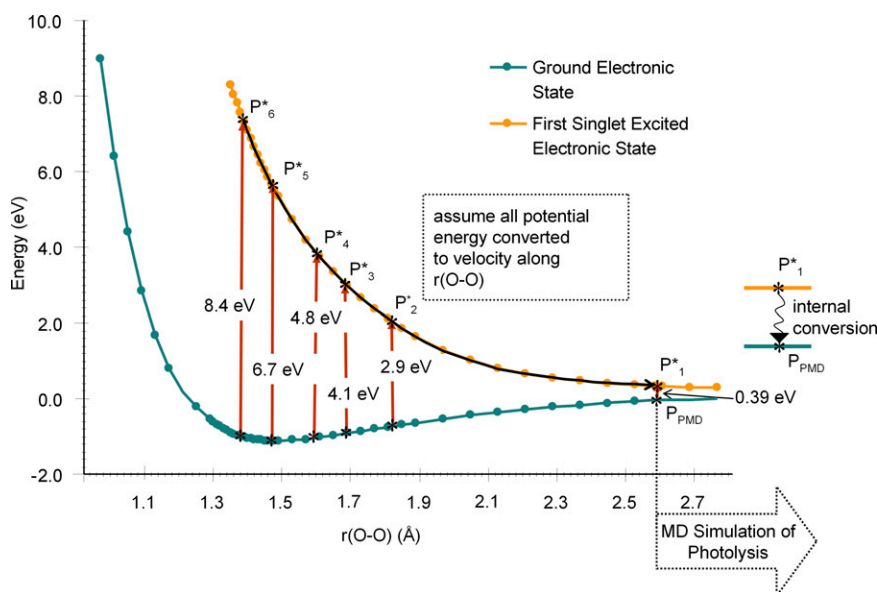
Table 1 presents key results for these photolysis simulations, sorted by the photon energy, including the fraction of successfully completed trajectories, probabilities of recombination and caging for each of the photolysis fragment, and the final cluster size.

The recombination reaction



occurred only 25% of the time for the 0.39-eV excitation even though the fragments were assigned only random thermal velocities at the beginning of this simulation (no recoil fragment from photolysis). In each of these cases the simulations showed that the fragments approached one another in an oscillating fashion. The amplitude of oscillation tended to decrease over time until the peroxide bond distance was relatively constant. Recombination never occurred at the atmospherically relevant excitation energies in which the fragments were forced to recoil from each other after the O—O bond cleavage. In a few instances, the fragments did approach one another, in the cluster, after a higher energy photolysis. These encounters, however, tended to stimulate ejection of H or  $\text{H}_2$  from the  $\text{CH}_3\text{O}$  fragment rather than lead to recombination. This finding indicates that, despite the anticipated molecular cage effects, recombination is very unlikely for a photolyzed  $\text{CH}_3\text{OOH}$  molecule sitting on top of an ice or water surface.

Trajectories resulting in the ejection of  $\text{CH}_3\text{O}$  and/or OH from the cluster were also surprisingly rare, except during the highest energy photolysis events.  $\text{CH}_3\text{O}$  was ejected from the cluster more often than OH because of the initial orientation of  $\text{CH}_3\text{O}$ —OH. In general,  $r(\text{O—O})$  was approximately perpendicular to the surface of the water cluster, at the beginning of these simulations, and the



**Fig. 2.** Ground-state and first excited-state potential energies of  $\text{CH}_3\text{OOH}$  along  $r(\text{O—O})$ . The lengths of the vertical arrows indicate the photoexcitation energies explored. In each photolysis simulation the system was excited to a point  $P^*_i$ . The molecule then dissociated along the excited-state potential, and the decrease in energy along the potential curve  $r(\text{O—O})$  was assumed to be entirely converted into the kinetic energy in the  $r(\text{O—O})$  coordinate. At  $P^*_1$  it was assumed that the system internally converted to the ground state at  $P_{\text{PMD}}$  when the simulation commenced. In the actual calculations, the PM3 potential was used rather than the configuration interaction singles (CIS) potential.

**Table 1. Data for the photolysis simulations**

Photon energy, eV	$\lambda$ , nm	Simulation completion frequency	Recombination, %	CH <sub>3</sub> O escape, %	OH escape, %	Final cluster size, $\mu(\#H_2O) \pm \sigma$
0.39	3,180	20/20	25	0	0	15.9 $\pm$ 4.2
2.9	428	7/20	0	0	0	12.3 $\pm$ 5.7
4.1	300	8/20	0	18	18	10.9 $\pm$ 6.9
4.8	256	10/20	0	0	0	10.1 $\pm$ 6.4
6.7	185	17/20	0	88	41	18.1 $\pm$ 3.3
8.4	147	16/20	0	100	100	19.2 $\pm$ 1.1

Data for the photolysis simulations including the photon energy and wavelength, and the r(O—O) coordinate corresponding to vertical transitions at this energy. The simulation completion frequencies represent the fraction of the 20 trajectories that ran until a point at which the final chemical products and cluster size could be determined. The recombination percentages represent the fraction of the successful trajectories that lead to reformation of CH<sub>3</sub>OOH. The escape percentages represent the fraction of trajectories that lead to unreacted escape of CH<sub>3</sub>O or OH. The end cluster sizes represent the average size of the largest water cluster after the simulations had ran to completion.

CH<sub>3</sub>O group was on the surface. In the ejection events, the OH fragment rapidly recoiled, directly through the center of the cluster, and then exited the opposing surface often colliding with and simultaneously coejecting one to three water molecules. The CH<sub>3</sub>O fragment, in contrast, traveled directly away from the surface of the cluster, in a slow, perpendicular manner and was not generally obstructed by neighboring H<sub>2</sub>O molecules.

The most exciting result of these simulations was the observation of rich chemistry involving the initial photolysis fragments, with some of the products appearing as early as 0.2 ps. Fig. 3 shows the distribution of chemical products in the 50-K photolysis simulations of CH<sub>3</sub>OOH on 20 water molecules. The bars indicate the percentage of the completed simulations that led to a particular chemical species as a final product. Products like CHO, H, O, and CH<sub>2</sub>(OH)<sub>2</sub>, which appeared in only one or two simulations, were not included in Fig. 3. At the three lowest photon energies CH<sub>2</sub>O and H<sub>2</sub>O were the major products. For example, CH<sub>2</sub>O and H<sub>2</sub>O formation occurred in 50% of the 4.1-eV simulations, while H<sub>2</sub>, CO, CH<sub>3</sub>OH, and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> formed in the remaining cases. The formation of CH<sub>2</sub>O and H<sub>2</sub>O took place, in some instances, by the direct abstraction of an H atom from CH<sub>3</sub>O by OH. However, a more common pathway was unimolecular dissociation of CH<sub>3</sub>O via a CH<sub>2</sub>OH intermediate into CH<sub>2</sub>O and H, followed by a series of H atom transfers between several water molecules, until an H atom was passed to OH to form H<sub>2</sub>O.

Evaporation of water molecules from the cluster was observed in many trajectories. The extent of evaporation can be judged for the final cluster size (Table 1). In general, larger final cluster sizes, i.e., those having a smaller degree of evaporation, were observed for the highest and lowest excitation energies. At the medium, more atmospherically relevant, excitation energies the

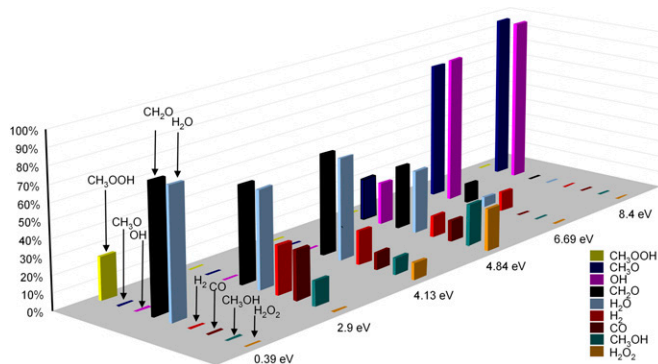
fragments remained in the cluster after photoexcitation, but tended to release kinetic energy through collisions with water molecules. Additional kinetic energy was released in subsequent chemical reactions. Combined, these effects tended to break apart the clusters, producing the lower final cluster sizes that were observed.

## Discussion

We have used a fast method suitable for studying the photochemistry of polyatomic molecules in condensed and/or heterogeneous environments such as atmospheric surfaces. Our calculations indicate that photolysis of CH<sub>3</sub>OOH, on the surface of a small water cluster, leads to several wavelength-dependent chemical outcomes, including formation of CH<sub>2</sub>O and H<sub>2</sub>O, fragment escape, recombination, and formation of other chemical products. Fifty percent of the photolysis simulations at  $\lambda = 300$  nm (4.1 eV) resulted in the formation of CH<sub>2</sub>O and H<sub>2</sub>O. Although CH<sub>3</sub>O and OH are the major products of CH<sub>3</sub>OOH gas-phase photolysis (8, 18–22), the formation of CH<sub>2</sub>O and H<sub>2</sub>O is thermodynamically favored ( $\Delta E = -55$  kcal·mol<sup>-1</sup>). However, this process is inhibited by an energy barrier that is  $\approx 3.4$  kcal·mol<sup>-1</sup> greater than the energy requirement for the formation of CH<sub>3</sub>O and OH in a direct O—O bond cleavage (8). Our simulations show that the surrounding water molecules favor the formation of the lower energy reaction products CH<sub>2</sub>O and H<sub>2</sub>O.

Monod et al. (9) recently reported the results of experimental studies aimed at characterizing the photolysis of CH<sub>3</sub>OOH and the related peroxide C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>5</sub>OOH under simulated cloud droplet conditions. Millimolar concentrations of the peroxide molecules, dissolved in water, were photolyzed at neutral to acidic pH values at 279 K. In agreement with our simulations they found that, for the photolysis of CH<sub>3</sub>OOH at pH 7, the dominant product was CH<sub>2</sub>O followed by H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. Monod et al. (9, 16) have suggested that the CH<sub>3</sub>O radical, in water, may quickly isomerize to form CH<sub>2</sub>OH. In the simulations we carried out that led to the formation of CH<sub>2</sub>O, CH<sub>3</sub>O did, in fact, isomerize to CH<sub>2</sub>OH. Isomerization to CH<sub>2</sub>OH was then followed by the ejection of H and the formation of CH<sub>2</sub>O. Finally, it should also be noted that, in a recent investigation, Schrems et al.<sup>†</sup> demonstrated that the photolysis of CH<sub>3</sub>OOH in ice generates CH<sub>2</sub>O as the major product.

A comparison between CH<sub>3</sub>OOH and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> is of interest. Gas-phase H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> promptly breaks into two OH radicals upon UV photoexcitation with nearly 100% efficiency (36). Approximately 50% of the OH+OH pairs formed by photolysis of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> in water (37, 38) or ice (39) recombine back into H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. On the contrary, both experimental and theoretical evidence suggest that recombination is not as efficient in the photolysis of CH<sub>3</sub>OOH. Monod et al. (9, 40) attribute this result to the ease



**Fig. 3.** Chemical product distribution in the photolysis of CH<sub>3</sub>OOH on a 50-K ice cluster.

of isomerization of  $\text{CH}_3\text{O}$  radical into  $\text{CH}_2\text{OH}$  radical under aqueous conditions. Our simulations appear to suggest an H-atom transfer from  $\text{CH}_3\text{O}\cdot$  to  $\cdot\text{OH}$  as a plausible mechanism for the suppression of recombination. Regardless of the interpretation, it is clear that the photolysis product distribution is strongly affected by prompt secondary reactions occurring after the initial O—O bond breaking.

The PM3 method is, in general, not quantitatively accurate. However, for organic molecules at water clusters, the system targeted here, it offers a reasonable balance between efficiency and accuracy. To test the accuracy of this method, we calculated the PM3 electronic binding energy for the  $\text{H}_2\text{O}\text{---}\text{H}_2\text{O}$  dimer and found it to be  $-3.2\text{ kcal}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$ . This finding is in good agreement with the existing literature that estimates the true binding energy to be  $\approx 3\text{--}5\text{ kcal}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$  (41–43). Crucial for the applicability of the method is that, after a short time, the propagation could be assumed to take place in the ground electronic state. This assumption certainly neglects reactions that could potentially occur on the electronically excited potential energy surface (PES). In the case of the UV photolysis of organic peroxides, the excited-state chemistry is not likely to make a significant contribution because the initial O—O bond breaking occurs on a femtosecond time scale on a fully repulsive PES (Fig. 2). The semiquantitative agreement with experiment suggests that the dynamics of photodissociation of  $\text{CH}_3\text{OOH}$  in water are governed by the ground-state PES. This approach may therefore be applicable to a broad range of direct photodissociation processes at water and ice surfaces.

## Materials and Methods

Molecular dynamics simulations were used to describe the system at thermal equilibrium, before absorption of a photon. An efficient, yet sufficiently realistic, force field is essential for the dynamics simulations. We

chose the semiempirical PM3 potential (34) and used it in on-the-fly simulations of the dynamics (35) at 50 K. For a recent review of dynamics simulations of atmospherically relevant processes, including simulations of reactions in water clusters and PM3 for dynamics, refer to ref. 33. The trajectories were followed over time until equilibration, with attention paid to the relative position and orientation of the  $\text{CH}_3\text{OOH}$  with respect to the rest of the ice cluster and the interactions of water molecules with the peroxide. Snapshots extracted from these simulations were used to obtain a set of starting configurations for the subsequent photolysis simulations.

The potential energies for the ground state and first excited singlet state of isolated  $\text{CH}_3\text{OOH}$  versus O—O distance (Fig. 2) were computed by using configuration interaction singles (25). The excited-state potential is repulsive at the relevant geometries, and dissociation after the Franck–Condon photoexcitation of  $\text{CH}_3\text{OOH}$  begins by breaking the O—O bond. This assumption is supported by previous studies (5, 8). When the  $\text{CH}_3\text{O}$  and OH fragments separate to a distance of 2.6 Å, the ground and excited curves coalesce, and we assumed that at this point the system converts to the ground electronic state. Several trial simulations for  $\text{CH}_3\text{OOH}$  on ice showed that dissipation of energy from the fragments into the cluster was negligible at these early stages of the process. Thus, all trajectories were pursued on the ground-state PM3 potential, starting from fragment distances of  $r(\text{O—O}) \approx 2.6\text{ Å}$ . All of the excess energy was assumed to go into the translational recoil of the OH and  $\text{CH}_3\text{O}$  fragments parallel to the O—O bond; appropriate values of their initial velocities were calculated from conservation of linear momentum and superimposed onto the thermal velocities. The propagation of all trajectories was pursued on the fly with the PM3.

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