

1-Hexene Ozonolysis across Atmospheric and Combustion Temperatures via Synchrotron-Based Photoelectron Spectroscopy and Chemical Ionization Mass Spectrometry

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1	1-Hexene Ozonolysis Across Atmospheric and Combustion Temperatures via Synchrotron-
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34 Abstract

35 This study investigates the complex interaction between ozone and the autoxidation 36 of 1-hexene over a wide temperature range (300 - 800 K), overlapping atmospheric and 37 combustion regimes. It is found that atmospheric molecular mechanisms initiate the 38 oxidation of 1-hexene from room temperature up to combustion temperatures, leading to 39 the formation of highly oxygenated organic molecules. As temperature rises, the highly 40 oxygenated organic molecules contribute to radical-branching decomposition pathways 41 inducing a high reactivity in the low temperature combustion region, i.e. from 550 K. Above 42 650 K, the thermal decomposition of ozone into oxygen atoms becomes the dominant 43 process, and a remarkable enhancement of the conversion is observed due to their diradical 44 nature, counteracting the significant negative temperature coefficient behavior usually 45 observed for 1-hexene. In order to better characterize the formation heavy oxygenated 46 organic molecules at the lowest temperatures, two analytical performant methods have 47 been combined for the first time: synchrotron-based mass-selected photoelectron 48 spectroscopy and orbitrap chemical ionization mass spectrometry. At the lowest studied 49 temperatures (below 400 K), this analytical work has demonstrated the formation of the 50 ketohydroperoxides usually found during the LTC oxidation 1-hexene, as well as of molecules 51 containing up to 9 O-atoms.

52

53 Keywords

54Autoxidation, Highly Oxygenated Organic Molecules, Synchrotron Radiation,55Photoelectron Spectroscopy, Quantum Chemistry, Chemical Ionization Mass Spectrometry

56 Introduction

57 The intricacies of the combustion of organic compounds at low-temperature, i.e. 58 from 550 K, so called Low-Temperature Combustion (LTC), are fundamental in 59 comprehending environmental dynamics and promoting energy efficiency. A key aspect of 60 this is the autoxidation of fuel components and of volatile organic compounds (VOCs). This 61 process has repercussions on both atmospheric pollution and combustion pathways ^{1–7}. 62 Central to VOC oxidation are repeated radical-chain reactions, initiated by the formation of 63 carbon-centered radicals (R) from organic species (RH) ^{8–10}.

64 The rate at which VOCs oxidize is notably temperature dependent. Above 500 K, the oxidation accelerates via sequences of intramolecular H-shift/O₂-addition reactions 65 producing, via successive isomerization of peroxy (ROO) radicals into hydroperoxyalkyl 66 67 (QOOH) radicals, oxygenated intermediates whose exothermic decomposition enriches the radical pool¹¹. However, for most of the aliphatic hydrocarbons, there is a twist: beyond a 68 certain temperature threshold ~ 650 K, the negative temperature-coefficient (NTC) 69 emerges¹², causing an unexpected dip in rates of branching reactions responsible for 70 propagation (QOOH oxidation, cyclic ether decomposition) as temperatures soar further 71 ^{13,14}. The implications of this NTC behavior are substantial, shaping both the efficiency and 72 73 reliability of combustion, and consequently guiding the evolution of energy devices.

74 At ambient temperature, it was historically posited that VOC autoxidation had 75 minimal impact at ambient temperatures, stemming from the belief that peroxy ROO radical 76 reactions were primarily terminated by chain-ending events and that high C-H bond strengths prevent fast ROO H-migrations under standard conditions ¹⁵. A more detailed 77 analysis, however, reveals that the series of ROO -> QOOH reactions lead to much higher 78 79 oxygen contents with the formation of highly oxygenated organic molecules (HOMs) usually defined as containing six or more oxygen atoms ¹⁶. This transformation is influenced by 80 temperature and the presence of substituents, such as -OH, C=C, and C=O, in ROO radical 81 structures ^{17,18}. Although there exists other oxidation mechanisms in the troposphere, ozone 82 83 (O₃) initiated oxidation of VOC via ozonolysis has been shown to have the highest HOM yields ¹⁶. 84

In contrast to its relevance in atmospheric sciences, O_3 has only recently been identified as a species of interest in combustion chemistry ¹⁹. In the case of saturated reactants, O_3 acts as a promoter for oxidation reactions at combustion-relevant 88 temperatures due to the production of O-atoms from O₃-thermal decomposition. O-atoms readily assist in H-abstraction to initiate VOC oxidation at temperatures lower than in LTC 89 chemistry ^{20–23}. For fuels presenting a NTC behavior, this can be significantly reduced by the 90 presence of O-atoms, as it has been shown in the case of dimethylether²⁴, 91 methylhexanoate²⁵, and propane²³. In the case of unsaturated reactants, the interest of 92 ozonolysis mechanism for combustion has received much less attention ^{26–28}. While in this 93 case the impact of O₃ is not limited to merely hastening reactions as ozonolysis profoundly 94 alters kinetic networks by modifying molecular structures, the influence of O₃ on fuel 95 reactivity has only been investigated for ethylene²⁹ and methylcrotoate³⁰, two fuels which do 96 not present a NTC behavior. 97

98 The chemistry of autoxidation systems, particularly those initiated by O₃, is highly 99 complex. This complexity arises from the formation of numerous reactive intermediates that 100 can be present in only trace amounts and that result from various radical reaction pathways 101 influenced by temperature. This work presents an investigation over a wide temperature 102 range (300-800 K) of the influence of O₃ addition on the autoxidation chemistry of 1hexene (C_6H_{12}), a representative aliphatic compound in surrogate gasoline fuels ^{31–33}, 103 presenting a notable NTC behavior³⁴. The accuracy of chemical kinetic models depends on 104 105 experimental data used for both identifying and structurally characterizing these species; 106 however, obtaining reliable data is difficult using only a single analytical tool. As this work 107 especially focuses on product identification, an orbitrap mass spectrometer equipped with a 108 multi-scheme chemical ionization inlet (O-MION-CIMS) has been used to detect trace species 109 such as HOMs while a spectrometer using a photoelectron photoionization coincidence 110 scheme coupled to synchrotron radiation (SVUV-PEPICO) has been used to detect lower 111 oxygenated species.

112

113 Experimental and theoretical methods

This part describes the three experimental setups, a Jet-Stirred Reactor (JSR) ³⁵ with analysis using gas chromatographs (GCs), a JSR coupled to mass spectrometry with i²PEPICO spectroscopy, and a Tubular Flow Reactor (TFR) with orbitrap Chemical Ionization Mass Spectrometry (O-CIMS), as well as the related theoretical calculations needed to analyze the obtain data.

121

122 JSR + GCs

123 This spherical JSR, used by LRGP to study the oxidation of 1-hexene is made from fused silica, has a volume of roughly 81.2 cm³, and is maintained at isothermal and isobaric 124 conditions. ³⁵ Gas blends of fuel and O_2 with and without O_3 continuously flows in, with a 125 126 significant inert gas dilution to counteract the temperature variations from the exothermic 127 oxidation. The reactants are introduced into the JSR using helium as a transport gas, via four 128 central cross-shaped nozzles. These nozzles are designed to enhance turbulence and ensure 129 a homogeneous mixture. There is a preheating section before the reactor's entrance to 130 diminish internal temperature variations. Both the JSR and this preheating section are 131 heated by thermocoax resistances. A K-type thermocouple, located near the center of the 132 JSR in a glass sleeve, monitors the temperature, boasting an accuracy of about 1%. Gases 133 resulting from oxidation in the JSR are conveyed through heated tubes to a pair of GCs for 134 examination. These tubes are made of stainless steel, with an external diameter of 1/8 inch 135 and a length of approximately 5 meters.

136 At LRGP, the gas leaving the reactor are analyzed thanks to two GCs. The first GC has 137 a carbosphere-packed column and utilizes a thermal conductivity detector (TCD) to measure 138 lightweight and permanent gas species. The second GC comes with a Q-Bond capillary 139 column and a flame ionization detector (FID) which is preceded by a methanizer. This GC 140 specializes in measuring organic compounds. The methanizer contains a hydrogenation Ni 141 bed catalyst. A mix of buffer gas and H₂ (also utilized for the FID) passes through this 142 catalyst, turning species with carbonyl groups into their respective alkanes and converting 143 CO and CO₂ into methane. To identify different species, the GC with the Q-Bond capillary 144 column was paired with a quadrupole mass spectrometer. Ion generation was achieved 145 using electron impact ionization at 70 eV.

Calibrations for FID and TCD were carried out with gaseous standards supplied by Air Liquide for O₂, CH₄, CO, and CO₂. Any other species that the FID detected were calibrated using the effective carbon number (ECN) approach. ³⁶ Calibration factors for these species were derived from those of the calibrated ones, factoring in their effective carbon number. The estimated relative uncertainties for species calibrated with gaseous standards stood at 151 \pm 5%. For species calibrated via the ECN approach, the uncertainties were estimated to be 152 around \pm 10%.

153 JSR

JSR + i²PEPICO spectroscopy

154 The same heated JSR was positioned within the SAPHIRS chamber's permanent endstation, ³⁷ found at one of the DESIRS VUV beamline's monochromatized branches at the 155 SOLEIL synchrotron. ³⁸ There, the JSR's internal gas mixture was extracted through a 156 157 micrometer-sized hole, facilitating a molecular-beam expansion in the vacuum chamber with a pressure of approximately 10⁻⁴ mbar. This chamber was linked through two sequential 158 159 skimmers to the ionization chamber. This process produced a cooled molecular beam where 160 the likelihood of reactive collisions was significantly reduced due to its low number density 161 and dilution with helium. As a result, reactive intermediates were maintained throughout 162 the expansion and made their way to the ionization chamber without any collisions.

163 Within the ionization chamber, the VUV synchrotron light targeted the gas mix, 164 leading to the formation of photoelectrons and photoions. These were detected 165 simultaneously by the double-imaging photoelectron/photoion (i²PEPICO) spectrometer known as DELICIOUS III.³⁹ These particles moved in opposite directions, diverging based on 166 167 their kinetic energies before arriving at the velocity map imaging (VMI) spectrometer, 168 forming circular patterns. The particles' times of arrival were documented. Using the 169 electron's time of arrival as a benchmark, mass spectra were plotted. With the help of the 170 VMI system and photoion-mass selection, a two-dimensional matrix of mass-selected photoelectron spectra (PES) could be created based on photon energy, ⁴⁰ using the Abel 171 172 inversion method. By choosing a specific kinetic energy range (100 meV in this study), the 173 corresponding threshold photoelectron spectra (TPES) could be deduced, specifically within 174 a photon energy span from 9.0 to 10.4 eV, advancing in 10 meV increments with each step 175 taking 60 seconds. The error margins in TPES were calculated using a Poisson distribution of 176 the photoelectron image pixel counts. This was carried through the image's Abel inversion 177 transformation using standard error propagation equations. In TPES, the clarity of the signal 178 can be affected by the occurrence of false coincidences when two or more ionization 179 incidents happen nearly simultaneously. This can obscure the identification of lesser species 180 when the actual coincidence signal aligns with the background's Poisson noise. In scenarios 181 where the signal-to-background ratio is insufficient for an electron kinetic energy analysis, 182 the total ion yield (TIY) for each mass is determined by integrating over all electron energies.

183 TPES provides a glimpse into the isomers' electronic structures. These isomers can be 184 pinpointed by comparing them to the reference spectra of individual entities. If reference 185 spectra are not present in existing studies, the PES of specific entities can be modeled using 186 advanced theoretical computations.

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188 TFR + O-CIMS

189 Gas-phase ozonolysis initiated 1-hexene oxidation was studied in a borosilicate glass 190 flow tube reactor (5 cm o.d. and 100 cm length) coupled with the multi-scheme chemical ionizarion inlet (MION, Karsa Inc.)^{41,42} and an orbitrap MS (ThermoScientific Exploris 240). 191 192 The MION inlet was operated with nitrate (NO₃) ionization scheme. The 1-hexene (Sigma 193 Aldrich >99% purity) was used from a premixed gas cylinder with a concentration of 100.6 194 ppm diluted in scientific grade N_2 . The O_3 in the experiments was produced by an ozone 195 generator (UVP Ozone Generator, Analytik Jena US), from a 2 SLPM flow of purified air 196 (AADCO 737-15), which was also utilized as the bath gas in the experiments. A total flow rate 197 of around 15 SLPM was applied, with the reaction time controlled by a moveable injector for 198 reagent gas introduction and resulted in 1.5 to 9.2 seconds residence times. All flows were 199 regulated by calibrated mass flow controllers (Alicat Scientific). In a set of experiments D₂O 200 was added to the gas stream to provide further verification on the detected product 201 identities. The $C_5H_9O_7$ radical and its OH loss product $C_5H_8O_6$ both exchanged 2 H to D, and 202 the preceding $C_5H_9O_5$ radical 1 H to D, in accordance with their proposed production 203 pathway (see Figure 3 in the main text). Importantly, the conversion of the reagent ion 204 adduct HNO₃*NO₃⁻ to DNO₃*NO₃⁻ was complete, indicating that the H to D exchange of the 205 reaction products also run to competition (i.e., every labile H-atom was quantitatively 206 converted to D-atoms).

207

208 Theoretical calculations

209 In this work, we utilized the Merck molecular force field MMFF94 methodology to create initial conformer structures for each isomer considered. ⁴³ These were further refined 210 211 using a superior theoretical approach, namely density functional theory (DFT) with the M06-212 2X-D3 functional. ⁴⁴ This DFT functional was paired with the aug-cc-pVTZ Dunning's correlation consistent basis set, ⁴⁵ enhanced with diffuse functions. Additionally, the zero-213 damped D3 dispersion correction developed by Grimme and colleagues ⁴⁶ was integrated 214

into M06-2X. The refined neutral species structures then served as starting points for the ionic forms. We employed two-electron integrals with strict optimization criteria to guarantee the dependability of conformer energies and vibrational frequencies. These were computed within the harmonic approximation at the consistent theoretical level.

219 The refined individual structures underwent conformational averaging through 220 Boltzmann weighting, considering electronic energies and a JSR temperature of 400 K. For 221 this study, it's assumed that all reactants and products stabilize at 400 K. Additionally, the 222 conformer distribution remains constant after expansion via the pinhole. To model 223 transitions between the vibrational stages of the most stable neutral conformers and their 224 ions, we used the time-independent adiabatic Hessian Franck-Condon (TI-AH|FC) model at 400 K. ⁴⁷ The derived stick spectrum was then combined with a Gaussian profile featuring a 225 200 cm⁻¹ bandwidth, aligning with the experimental resolution. The adiabatic ionization 226 227 energy (AIE) calculations were conducted at the CBS-QB3 theoretical level, originating from 228 the foundational state of both neutral and ionic forms, and using the refined DFT structures. $^{\rm 48,49}$ We aligned the 0-0 transition of the computed stick spectra to correspond with the 229 230 experimental spectra, keeping within the energy calculation's uncertainty.

231 It's crucial to highlight that when examining flexible molecular constructs, such as 232 hydroperoxides, the TPES analysis faces complications. These stem from the existence of 233 vibrational modes with low frequencies. Often, these lead to minimal overlaps between 234 vibrational wave functions, which dilutes the vibrational information. Combined with a 235 diminished signal-to-noise ratio, potential erroneous peaks, and a considerable count of 236 potential isomers, individual assignments become complex. Thus, while simulated spectra 237 are helpful in deducing key elements from experimental spectra, they might not capture all 238 conceivable molecular formations.

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Experimental Results and Theoretical Analysis

This part describes the results obtained for the temperature evolution of 1-hexene mole fraction in JSR and then focuses on the ozonolysis products measured both in TFR and JSR with discussing only a few products measured by GC; the full details of product formation will be given in a future paper.

245

246 JSR 1-hexene reactivity

247 This research first examined the reactivity of 1-hexene during its JSR oxidation with 248 and without O₃ in JSR using GCs. Experiments were conducted over a temperature range of 249 350-800 K with constant parameters: pressure at 800 torr, equivalence ratio of 0.5, and a 250 0.01 initial mole fraction of 1-hexene diluted in He. Residence times were 2.0 s (without O_3) 251 and 2.5 s (with O_3). An O_3 mole fraction of 1,000 ppm was introduced through an O_3 252 generator using an O_2 /He mixture, and its mole fraction quantified by an O_3 analyzer (a scheme of the experimental setup can be found in Smith Lewin et al.²⁷). The overall mole 253 254 fraction of O_2 is less than 10%.

Reactants and products from 350 to 800 K were identified and using two GCs. 1-hexene mole fraction profiles are depicted in Figure 1. The O₃-profile is not shown because it is almost consumed at 350 K in its reaction with 1-hexene via ozonolysis, despite having a low rate coefficient ($\sim 10^{-17}$ cm³ s^{-1 50}).



259

260Figure 1. Temperature evolution of the 1-hexene mole fraction as measured by GC during the oxidation261of a reactive gas mixture composed of 1-hexene/ O_2 /He, with (blue triangles) and without (red dots) O_3 with262figures indicating the conversion yield due to O_3 addition. The blue- and orange-colored areas indicate the263temperature ranges where specific species contribute to the increased conversion of 1-hexene when O_3 is264added. The green area symbolizes the LTC zone.

Without O₃, the results align with literature regarding the oxidation of 1-hexene ³⁴. The beginning of reactivity is observed at 550 K, indicating the transition into the LTC region. At this point, the conversion rate peaks at 40% when the temperature reaches 650 K. Following this, as the system enters the NTC zone, the fuel conversion dropping to as low as 10% at 750 K. Subsequently, the reactivity increases significantly upon entering the hightemperature (HT) zone.

272 When O_3 is added, the 1-hexene consumption goes to 20% between 350 and 550 K 273 compared to the case without O_3 where no reactivity is observed before 550 K. This 274 enhancement remains consistent above 550 K. Above 650 K (in the NTC zone), the 275 enhancement increases with temperature, up to 40% at 750 K, making a significant boost in 276 reactivity compared to the non- O_3 case. This enhancement is more marked that for other 277 fuels (dimethylether²⁴, methylhexanoate²⁵, and propane²³), for which such as O_3 effect was 278 reported.

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1-hexene ozonolysis products in TFR

To understand the 20% reactivity enhancement observed all along below 650 K, 1-hexene oxidation initiated by O_3 was also studied at 300 K in an atmospheric pressure flow reactor coupled with an orbitrap mass spectrometer equipped with a multi-scheme chemical ionization inlet (O-MION-CIMS) ^{41,42}. A gas mixture consisting of bath gas air with various 1-hexene and O_3 mole fractions was investigated in a TFR utilizing a moveable injector to achieve reaction times between 1.5 and 9.2 s. As shown in Figure 2, several HOMs and less oxygenated reaction products were promptly observed.



290Figure 2. NO_3^- O-MION-CIMS mass spectra of 1-hexene + O_3 oxidation products. a) At 1.5 seconds reaction time291with $[C_6H_{12}] = 0.5 \text{ ppm (red)}$ and $[C_6H_{12}] = 1.69 \text{ ppm (yellow)}$. B) At 9.2 seconds reaction time with $[C_6H_{12}] = 0.17$ 292ppm (red) and $[C_6H_{12}] = 1.69 \text{ ppm (yellow)}$. C) D_2O addition experiments showing the expected $H \rightarrow D$ 293substitution (see Figure 3). The inset shows the corresponding conversion of the reagent ion adducts $HNO_3^*NO_3^-$ 294to $DNO_3^*NO_3^-$ indicating the completeness of the H to D substitution. All spectra were measured at 300 K and295atmospheric pressure of air with $[O_3] = 0.2 \text{ ppm}$. The NO_3^- is omitted from the given product ion-adduct labels.296Gray color is used to label background peaks.

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298 Under the low ROO conversion regime, *i.e.*, short reaction time and low reactant 299 concentrations, the nitrate chemical ionization mass spectrum was dominated by a few 300 peroxy radicals formed by autoxidation, and their apparent unimolecular termination 301 products, *i.e.*, formed by an OH loss through abstraction from a carbon bearing an -OOH 302 group ¹⁶. While both ROO from OH and O₃ initiated oxidation seemed to be apparent at 303 longer reaction times (Figure 2b), (i.e., with 6 C-atoms indicating OH involvement and 5 C-304 atoms signifying ozonolysis initiation, or a C-atom loss during the oxidation; Figure 3), the 305 dominance of the ozonolysis-initiated oxidation was apparent at short timescales (Figure 2a). 306 The most abundant ROO species observed was C₅H₉O₇ and its OH termination product 307 $C_5H_8O_6$, formed via a pseudo-unimolecular pathway shown in Figure 3, and supported by the 308 D₂O addition experiments (see Figure 3 and the SM). At longer residence times the 309 complexity quickly increases, leading to a multitude of radical and closed-shell reaction 310 products including the ROO accretion products ROOR with 10 C-atoms (Figure 2b). Also, a $C_6H_9O_8$ radical becomes prominent, indicating the presence of cyclohexene ^{51,52}, which was found as a minor impurity in the 1-hexene cylinder by a proton-transfer-reaction mass spectrometry (PTRMS) analysis.

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Figure 3. Simplified reaction network of 1-hexene ozonolysis proposed in this work based on experimental
 observations. CI, KHP, and POZ refer to Criegee intermediates, ketohydroperoxides, and primary ozonide
 respectively. Dotted arrows refer to minor channels. The red circles indicate the H-atoms that were exchanged
 in the D₂O addition experiments (see Figure 2c and SM for more details).

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321 1-hexene ozonolysis products in JSR

The study of 1-hexene + O_3 reaction between 350 K and 800 K in the JSR was also conducted with a i²PEPICO spectrometer available on the DESIRS VUV beamline at the SOLEIL synchrotron (see more experimental details in SM). Figure 4 displays a typical mass spectrum registered for a He/O₂/1-hexene mixture at 400 K. The molecular structure of the chain-branching agents shown in Figure 4 was determined through the analysis of their mass-selected threshold photoelectron spectra (TPES) measured using mass spectrometer coupled with the i²PEPICO spectroscopy.



Figure 4. Typical mass spectrum recorded by synchrotron VUV photoionization of a He/O₂/1-hexene gas mixture at 400 K with the addition of 3,000 ppm of O₃ (blue line). The mass spectrum is integrated over the 9.0–10.4 eV photon energy range. The inset shows a zoomed view of the expanded mass spectrum from 95 to 150 amu. Because the vertical scale is adjusted to emphasize the low-intensity peaks, that of 1-hexene (m/z 84) and of its 7% ¹³C isotopologue (m/z 85) are truncated. The structures of some already-known products and intermediates based on the literature, are displayed along with combustion chain-branching agents that are the masses of interest that have been identified in this work. See text for details.

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Despite it was obtained at 400 K, the mass spectrum of Figure 4 reveals the presence products and intermediates both from the O₃-related kinetic network and from the LTC chemistry, which is expected to start only above 550 K. For instance, the hydroperoxides (m/z 116, 118, and 134) and ketohydroperoxides (m/z 130, 132, and 148) observed in Figure 4 with alkenyl (AnHP/AnKHP) or hydroxyl (HyHP/HyKHP) functional groups are well known chain branching agents formed in the LTC of 1-hexene (see Figure S1) ^{34,53}.

As shown in Figure S2 in SM, the TPES for m/z 116, 118, 130, and 148, and the total ion yield (TIY) of m/z 132 and 134, show good agreement with the simulated curves of the isomers in Figure 4 despite low signal-to-noise ratios and the complexity related to the simulation of vibronic transitions in floppy molecular systems ⁵⁴. Note that the identification of the minor KHP, 5-hydroperoxyhexan-2-one, at m/z 132 is also validated by the presence of methyl ethyl ketone at m/z 72 as a product of the KHP decomposition (Figure S3), furthering confidence in the molecular structure findings.



Figure 5. TPES of m/z 102 (open dots) compared to simulated PES of the isomers considered in this work: 3-butyldioxirane (purple line), 2-hydroxypentanal (blue line), and pentanoic acid (orange line). The thick red line is a weighed combination of the simulated spectra using a 0.4:1.0:0.3 signal ratio (2-hydroxypentanal, 3-butyldioxirane, pentanoic acid).

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359 In 1-hexene ozonolysis oxidation, the formation of the primary ozonide (POZ), namely 360 4-butyl-1,2,3-trioxolane, dissociates into two reactive Criegee Intermediates (CIs): CH₂OO 361 and C₄H₉CHOO, as seen in Figure 3. These concurrent dissociations produce formaldehyde (m/z 30) and pentanal (m/z 86) as co-products. The absence of a signal at m/z 30 in Figure 4 362 is due to the ionization energy of formaldehyde (IE = 10.88 eV^{55}) which falls outside the 363 364 photon energy range explored in this study. Nevertheless, both formaldehyde and pentanal 365 were quantified in appreciable amounts using GC (see Figure 6). There is no formation of 366 both species without the introduction of O₃ below 550 K and this acts as a direct proof of the 367 ozonolysis mechanism.



Figure 6. Mole fraction of formaldehyde (left panel) and pentanal (right panel) recorded by GC as a function of temperature without (red circles) and with (blue triangles) the addition of O_3 .

Furthermore, this study highlights the detection of a KHP at m/z 132 stemming from POZ isomerization (see Figure 3) that has gained experimental validation only recently in ozonolysis systems ^{56,57}. Besides the good agreement between the TIY of m/z 132 and the simulated one (see SI for theoretical details) for 1-hydroperoxyhexan-2-one in Figure S2, Figure 7 depicts a strong correlation between the experimentally recorded TPES of m/z 114 and a simulated spectrum of 2-oxohexanal, the product of the decomposition of 1-hydroperoxyhexan-2-one providing compelling evidence for its formation. Note that as expected due to their short lifetime, the POZ has not been detected in this study.





Figure 7. TPES of m/z 114 (open dots) compared to a simulated spectrum of 2-oxohexanal (red line). The
chemical reaction shows the fragmentation mechanism of the KHP, 1-hydroperoxyhexan-2-one at m/z 132.

Formic acid (HCOOH, m/z 46) formed via the isomerization of the CI CH_2OO into dioxirane intermediate (see Figure 3) has also been identified via GC-MS (see Figure 8), but quantification of HCOOH remained elusive due to its low FID signal ⁵⁸. As for formaldehyde, no signal at m/z 46 has been recorded in Figure 4 because the AIE of HCOOH falls outside the photon energy range examined in this work (11.33 eV). Note that, due to the time restrictions typical of large facilities such as the SOLEIL synchrotron, the chosen photon energy range aimed to cover the ionization energy of most organic species.



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Figure 8. Chromatogram obtained at 650 K with the addition of O_3 showing the retention peak of formic acid along with other important oxidation products. The probability of match of each peak to the species according to the NIST database is provided based on the respective fragmentation pattern of each peak using a mass spectrometer with electron ionization.

400 In the gas-phase, due to the large exothermicity and the succession of weakly bound 401 intermediates, the CI C₄H₉CHOO isomerization is thought to predominate. The CI is expected 402 to isomerize promptly to 1-hydroperoxypent-1-ene, a vinylhydroperoxide (VHP) that is 403 generally susceptible to dissociation into an organic oxygenated radical or subsequently 404 isomerize into 2-hydroxypentanal, which then dissociates into butanal by losing a 405 formaldehyde molecule. This oxygenated radical is the potential precursor to a sequence of 406 reactions leading to HOM species detected in this work. However, the CI can also results in 407 an oxirane, specifically 3-butyldioxirane, whose O-O bond cleavage can terminate in the 408 formation of pentanoic acid. The TPES of m/z 102 is showcased in Figure 5 contrasted with 409 simulated spectra of 3-butyldioxirane, 2-hydroxypentanal, and pentanoic acid. A least-410 squares fit of the simulated spectra to the TPES spectrum of m/z 102 reveals the presence of 411 all the discussed species. The detection of pentanoic acid was also corroborated by GC (see

412 Figure 9) and acts also as another direct proof of the ozonolysis mechanism, as it is not

413 formed without the addition of O₃.

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415 416

Figure 9. Pentanoic acid mole fraction recorded by GC as a function of temperature without (red circles) and with (blue triangles) the addition of O3.

417 418

419 Discussion

420 The results described in the previous part show that under combustion regime, 421 various hydroperoxide intermediates like KHPs are produced already at 300 K in 1-hexene 422 ozonolysis, indicating the formation of their parent OOQOOH radicals (for example, $C_5H_9O_5$ 423 and $C_5H_9O_7$). The rate of the O₃-derived reactions, such as ROO H-shift isomerization, is likely 424 to increase significantly with temperature due to their substantial barriers enhancing the 425 quantity of oxygenated intermediates, and play a crucial role in shaping the autoxidation behavior of 1-hexene. As temperature drops barrierless or low-barrier mechanisms are 426 favored such as OH-addition reactions to olefins ⁵⁹. At the opposite, H-abstraction by OH 427 428 becomes increasingly competitive as temperature rises due to the increased energy at 429 higher temperatures, facilitating overcoming the activation barriers inherent to H-430 abstraction reactions. This is illustrated by a decrease of the m/z 130/148 signal ratio by 431 around 50% at 400 K measured in Figure 4 compared to that measured in the LTC.^{60,61} The 432 LTC of 1-hexene is dominated by two pathways: H-abstraction and OH-addition onto the 433 double bond of the carbon chain leading respectively to m/z 130, an alkenyl 434 ketohydroperoxide and m/z 148, an hydroxyl ketohydroperoxide (see Figure S1). While the

H-abstraction is favored in the LTC, this result in this work emphasizing a shift in dominantreaction pathways.

437 The O₃-related kinetic network operates up to at least 650 K and is responsible for the observed 20% enhancement in the conversion of 1-Hexene when O₃ is added. This 438 439 increase is also a substantial contribution to the reactivity in the LTC region, even with the 440 KHP branching decomposition into OH and oxy (OQ=O) radicals, enhancing much more the overall combustion kinetics ⁶². Propagation reactions from the O₃ side involving various 441 442 oxygenated intermediates increase the pool of radicals, especially OH with the loose O-OH 443 bonds, to trigger the LTC chemistry below 550 K. The species related to the LTC chemistry 444 found in Figure 4 are mainly initiated by the abstraction of allylic and alkylic H-atoms, the 445 addition of OH-radicals to the double bond, followed by the addition of an O_2 molecule. The 446 addition of H-atoms to create alkyl radicals (R) also play a role, but to a lesser extent as the 447 temperature is low (see Figure S1).

448 Importantly, the O-MION-CIMS measurements also show the detection of ROO accretion products: ROOR' ^{63,64} which have been found especially important for the 449 450 formation and growth of atmospheric SOA. While the accretion products were not found in 451 the PEPICO experiments, their involvement in shaping the autoxidation behavior of a VOC at elevated temperature could also be substantial. They form very rapidly ⁶⁵, the peroxide 452 453 bridge connecting the R units is weak, and the R units likely contain one or two relatively 454 weakly bound hydroperoxide functional groups each, potentially providing a cascade of 455 reactive radicals during decomposition contributing to increasing oxidation rate.

Out of the two CIs that are formed, C_4H_9CHOO is anticipated to have a more significant impact than CH_2OO in increasing the concentration of radicals. The nascent stabilization factor of CH_2OO is expected to be higher than C_4H_9CHOO because of the larger size of the pentanal co-product which takes away more energy than formaldehyde ⁶⁶. However, this requires further theoretical analysis to determine the energy barriers associated with isomerization and dissociation processes in this ozonolysis system, as well as to calculate their respective branching ratios.

Beyond 650 K, the NTC zone begins because substantial quantities of poorly reactive OOH radicals, which are produced through reactions like the concerted elimination (ROO = olefin + HOO). However, this slowdown is expected to be counteracted by the thermal decomposition of O_3 into O atoms, which affects the overall radical concentration and balance in the system. The thermal decomposition of O_3 starts around 450-500 K and is almost complete at the temperature of 650 – 700 K ²⁷. The increase of 40% is twice the increase observed at low temperatures likely due to the biradical nature of O atoms sharing two radical sites (O + RH -> R + OH). The contribution of the much-accelerated O_3 + 1hexene reaction in this region remain an opening question but is likely to be minimum compared to the thermal decomposition of O_3 .

473 This work reveals the concurrent operation of two distinct yet intertwined chemical 474 systems where reaction mechanisms relevant to both atmospheric science and combustion 475 chemistry coexist. Radicals generated from ozonolysis spark a cascade of reactions 476 reminiscent of combustion processes at temperatures well below what they would be in the absence of O_3 , establishing a distinct connection between atmospheric and combustion 477 478 chemistry. What is particularly noteworthy here is that these two chemical systems -479 ozonolysis and combustion — do not interact. By looking at Figure 1, the fuel conversion 480 curves are the same except for a constant offset, up to the NTC region.

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Implications for Energy Efficiency, Atmospheric Sciences, and Pollution Control

This work reports on the interplay of O_3 and the oxidation chemistry of 1-hexene across a wide temperature range (300 – 800 K), connecting combustion engineering with atmospheric science. The results emphasize an important discovery: O_3 enhances oxidation and facilitates fuel conversion under typically inhibitory combustion conditions (<500 K and > 700 K). The presence of O_3 expands the initially limited range of reactivity, covering temperatures from those relevant to the atmosphere all the way up to those relevant to combustion counteracting the NTC behavior.

490 At low combustion temperatures (< 550 K), ozonolysis initiates the LTC chemistry, 491 resulting in the formation of oxygenated reactive intermediates, including KHPs. These 492 findings support recent research emphasizing the significance of H-migration in ROO radicals 493 even at ambient atmospheric temperatures and in systems lacking the autocatalytic influence of oxygen containing functional groups (i.e., pristine ROO radicals) ^{67–69}. The similar 494 495 sequence of reactions has been shown to lead to the formation of multitude of oxygenated 496 compounds, and ultimately HOMs, the fuel that drives atmospheric secondary organic 497 aerosol generation [4, 16]. Thus, the current results build an intriguing bridge between 498 atmospheric and combustion science: The same compounds that allow the embryonic molecular clusters to grow into atmospherically relevant aerosol particles provide the spark
for igniting the formation of combustion intermediates at temperatures lower than has been
previously thought possible.

502 Specific combustion intermediates that are common in systems sequentially oxidizing 503 toward HOMs were here identified under intentionally increased O₃ concentrations but their 504 formation is unlikely to happen at typical ambient O₃ levels. To modify combustion 505 processes, significantly higher O₃ levels than those commonly found in the environment are 506 necessary, but these levels are not overly difficult to attain. Furthermore, current findings 507 suggest that for a comprehensive understanding of particle formation in areas with 508 temperature higher than in the troposphere and high O₃ concentrations, sometimes exceeding ppm levels, such as in smoke plumes ⁷⁰, the cooling exhausts of combustion 509 devices ¹⁹, or even in certain megacities during intense pollution episodes ^{71–73}, it is essential 510 511 to understand the processes resulting from both combustion and atmospheric chemistry.

512 From the industrial point of view, there is a growing interest in technologies based on plasma-assisted combustion for the development of superior air-breathing engines ⁷⁴ in 513 514 which O₃ can be formed in substantial amount, shading light on its potential as an efficient fuel oxidation promoter ¹⁹. The ability of O_3 to modify autoignition chemistry and trigger 515 516 unsaturated fuel autoxidation under conditions that are usually inhibitory multiplies the 517 interest in using O₃ in energy conversion devices, opening new possibilities ranging from the 518 refinement of fuel composition for optimization of current processes working at 519 intermediate combustion temperatures. The current research underscored a remarkable 520 influence of O₃ on the occurrence of NTC, that had been so far intuited in alkane oxidation systems but with very limited effect ^{24,25}. It also makes opportunities for the development of 521 522 new combustion techniques working at extremely low temperature and pollution mitigation 523 strategies.

524 By counteracting the NTC behavior and enabling more efficient fuel conversion across 525 a broader temperature range, engineers and scientists gain increased flexibility in designing 526 advanced energy conversion devices. This newfound flexibility means that temperature 527 constraints, which may have previously limited device development, are no longer a barrier. 528 Energy conversion devices can now be tailored and optimized for operation across a wider 529 spectrum of temperatures, offering a more adaptable and versatile approach.

Conclusion

532 This work highlights the dual role of O_3 at both low and high temperatures, emphasizing its potential usefulness for fuel optimization and pollution reduction. Moreover, 533 534 the importance of atmospheric molecular mechanisms in triggering autoignition and 535 autoxidation under conditions that normally prevent it is also underlined. The combination 536 of two advanced analytical tools in mass spectrometry and spectroscopy has enabled the 537 detection of different species that are part of the same kinetic network; this suggests 538 promising prospects for using this analytical pairing to study even more complex chemical 539 systems.

540

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