

1 **Formation of late-generation atmospheric compounds inhibited by rapid deposition**

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8 **Abstract**

9 Reactive organic carbon species are important fuel for atmospheric chemical reactions, including
10 the formation of secondary organic aerosol. However, in parallel to atmospheric oxidation
11 processes, deposition can remove compounds from the atmosphere and impact downstream
12 environments. To understand the impact of deposition on atmospheric oxidation, we present a
13 framework for predicting and visualizing the fate of a molecule based on the physicochemical
14 properties of compounds (Henry's law constant, vapor pressure, and reaction rate constants),
15 which are used to estimate timescales for oxidation and deposition. By implementing our
16 deposition rates in chemical models, we show that deposition substantially suppresses
17 atmospheric reactivity and aerosol formation by removing early-generation products and
18 preventing the formation of large fractions (up to 90%) of downstream, late-generation
19 compounds. Deposition is frequently missing in the laboratory experiments and detailed
20 chemical modeling, which likely biases our understanding of atmospheric composition.

21

22 Oxidation in the atmosphere of reactive organic carbon (ROC) produces secondary organic
23 aerosol (SOA), fuels the formation of a majority of tropospheric ozone (O₃), and contributes to
24 secondary carbon dioxide (CO₂). These products may have major impacts on the ecosystem,
25 human health, and climate.^{1,2} ROC species emitted directly from a variety of sources³⁻⁸ go on to
26 oxidize through complex chains of photochemical reactions. As a result, oxidation on a timescale
27 of several hours to days⁹ produces hundreds of thousands of chemical products^{10,11} that may be in
28 the gas or particle phase. The oxidation reactions forming these products, which might be either
29 fragmented small molecules or functionalized less volatile species, occur in parallel with their
30 deposition to the Earth's surfaces. Dry deposition is driven by turbulence and concentration
31 gradients at the surface while wet deposition is driven by scavenging by precipitation. Both
32 deposition processes are governed by the tendency of a molecule to partition to an aqueous phase
33 (e.g., precipitation or leaf surfaces), quantified as its Henry's law constant, *H*. As a result,
34 deposition rates can be predicted as a function of Henry's law constants for a given set of
35 precipitation and leaf area conditions.¹² *H* is also correlated closely with vapor pressure for
36 atmospheric oxidation products.^{13,14}

37 Deposition of condensable gases has been demonstrated in regional modeling studies to reduce
38 surface concentrations of organic gases and particulate matter substantially.^{13,15} However,
39 because chemical mechanisms within regional transport models have to reduce complexity by
40 lumping chemical species together by source or process,¹⁶⁻¹⁸ the impact of deposition in the
41 model simulations may not necessarily reflect real world losses or their impacts on subsequent
42 oxidation chemistry. There is a critical need for computationally light and convenient approaches
43 to assess the influence of deposition on atmospheric chemistry, particularly reactive carbon
44 budgets, SOA formation, and oxidant reactivity. Deposition of early-generation oxidation

45 products may reduce the production of late-generation species, but no good current framework
46 exists to understand this process in a chemically explicit or fundamental way. Although many
47 methods have been proposed to classify molecules by their molecular formula and/or
48 physicochemical properties^{19,20,21,22,23}, they do not evaluate the impact of deposition on the
49 oxidation chemistry. In this work, a framework capturing the competition between oxidation and
50 deposition provides insight into the atmospheric fate of a molecule. By implementing this
51 competition into both a chemically explicit and a lumped volatility-basis 0-dimensional box
52 model, we find that deposition effectively competes with oxidation, removing ROC species that
53 would otherwise go on to form late-generational products, with major impacts on reactivity and
54 SOA formation.

55 **Predicting the fate of atmospheric compounds**

56 With basic assumptions regarding the state of the atmosphere (e.g., boundary layer height,
57 probability of rain, oxidant concentrations) and surface properties (e.g., leaf area index), the
58 timescales for both oxidation and deposition of a compound depend primarily on its volatility,
59 tendency to partition to aqueous phases (essentially “solubility”), and oxidation rate constants.^{9,12}
60 These physicochemical parameters can all be estimated from molecular structure, or, with higher
61 uncertainty, from molecular formula.¹⁴ Furthermore, due to the correlation between vapor
62 pressure and Henry’s law constant for atmospheric oxidation products,^{13,14} the fate of a molecule
63 can be visualized in a relatively simple two-dimensional space (Figure 1). The bounds of the
64 axes in Figure 1 roughly encompass the region found in the atmosphere, and compounds in only
65 a relatively narrow range of properties have a competitive fate between oxidation by OH radicals
66 and deposition (calculated as f_{fate} using Eqn S17). Only OH oxidation is included here, but other
67 gas-phase oxidation processes yield similar conclusions. Highly soluble species are mostly in the

68 particle phase and will be deposited as airborne particles (i.e., the green region in Figure 1) or go
69 on to react through in-particle chemistry, which is not considered here (discussed below).
70 Soluble but high volatility compounds will likely undergo gas deposition (i.e., blue region) while
71 less soluble and highly reactive species get oxidized (i.e., purple region). Oxidation is only
72 strongly competitive with deposition for compounds that are either highly insoluble, or have k_{OH}
73 greater than $\sim 3 \times 10^{-11} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molec}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$, faster than the typical reaction rate for oxidation
74 products.¹⁴ The correlation between vapor pressure and Henry's law constant is an
75 oversimplification, but it is useful for visualizing complex atmospheric mixtures. For
76 quantitative evaluation, each property can be treated separately and for other analyses in this
77 work is estimated individually for each molecule.

78 A more direct approach to determine the fate of an individual molecule is to compare the
79 timescales of the two competing loss processes, oxidation and deposition (Figure 2). This
80 approach does not require the same assumption of correlated Henry's law and vapor pressure.
81 Instead, each property is estimated from molecular structure using established structure-activity
82 relationships^{24,25}; in most cases uncertainties in these relationships will not impact the region of
83 Figure 1 in which a compound lies. Using parameters representative of the southeastern U.S. and
84 confirmed by observations there,²⁶ we find that dry deposition is much faster (~ 6 hours for
85 highly soluble gases) than wet deposition (over 100 hours).¹² We examine the competition
86 between predicted fates for thousands of atmospherically relevant compounds, using a published
87 list²⁷ of ~ 38000 model-predicted oxidation products of toluene, α -pinene, and n -decane.¹¹
88 Relatively few compounds, those in the upper-left (magenta markers), are expected to be lost
89 primarily by oxidation (less than 1% of compounds accounting for 18% of total mass), while a
90 large fraction (lower-right, blue markers, roughly one-third of total mass) is likely to be

91 deposited prior to oxidation. Roughly half of the total mass has a quarter or more of the molecule
92 lost by each pathway (region between the 3:1 or 1:3 lines). These compounds potentially require
93 more detailed analysis given that their fates are less clear. Conditions of the southeastern U.S. are
94 used to estimate deposition, but less-forested conditions where deposition is expected to occur
95 more slowly exhibit similar trends (Extended Data Figure 1). In addition, transport away from
96 the surface and to the free troposphere increases deposition lifetimes for longer-lived gases
97 (leading to an empty region in the lower right), but does not have a strong impact on more
98 reactive compounds. This approach can be applied to quickly identify key compounds from a
99 large pool of oxidation products to reduce the efforts of data analysis. For example, the wide use
100 of field deployable, online mass spectrometers generates extraordinarily large datasets containing
101 the time series of hundreds to thousands of chemical formulas. The approach can be applied to
102 narrow down the range of compounds that may be more or less important for aerosol formation
103 or downstream impacts, or may be used to reduce the need for including the oxidation of certain
104 compounds in chemical models.

105 **Impact of Deposition on Downstream Chemistry**

106 It is clear from Figures 1 and 2 that deposition is a significant loss pathway for compounds
107 across a large region of the physicochemical space observed in the atmosphere, and for many of
108 the oxidation products formed by common precursors. To investigate this impact quantitatively,
109 deposition is implemented into a 0-dimensional box model (chemically-explicit Framework for
110 0-D Atmospheric Modeling (F0AM) v3.1²⁸) simulating the atmospheric oxidation of single
111 precursors and a complex mixture. These deposition processes are occurring in ambient
112 atmospheres, but are generally not considered by box models of the atmosphere, nor are they
113 captured by oxidation experiments in laboratory chambers. Here, we demonstrate that

114 depositional loss has significant impacts on the mixture of products, and particularly that
115 removal of gaseous early-generation species may sharply reduce the formation of late-generation
116 species and organic aerosol.

117 Deposition greatly reduces aerosol formation and OH reactivity (the availability of reactive
118 carbon to fuel oxidation reactions) in both single-precursor and complex-mixture oxidation
119 systems (i.e., precursors in the southeastern United States summarized in Table S1) (Figure 3)..
120 For α -pinene oxidation by OH, deposition reduced maximum SOA mass yield from 34% to 20%
121 and peak OH reactivity from 0.28 to 0.18 s⁻¹. After 2 days of simulated oxidation, deposition has
122 removed nearly all remaining OH reactivity, with only long-lived volatile gases remaining in the
123 system. Similar strong impacts were observed for the simulated southeastern U.S., with
124 maximum aerosol concentration reduced by a factor of three from 0.6 to 0.2 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, peak OH
125 reactivity reduced from 3.9 to 3.6 s⁻¹, and two-thirds of OH reactivity removed after several days.
126 These conditions are illustrative and are based on parameters for the southeastern U.S.; real-
127 world atmospheric conditions vary substantially, but significant deposition of OH reactivity is
128 observed consistently for a wide range of oxidation systems (Figures S1 and S2). Large removals
129 of aerosol formation are also observed for these other oxidation systems, but the chemically
130 explicit model does not include many low-volatility species and may underestimate aerosol
131 formation.²⁹⁻³¹ Significantly reduced aerosol formation due to deposition is also observed when
132 using a box model (SimpleSOM) in which the complex mixture is binned by volatility³² (Figure
133 4). The conclusions of these box models are consistent with work in regional chemical models
134 that found dry deposition of semi-volatile oxidation products leads to a roughly 30 -50%
135 reduction in SOA concentration for the continental U.S.³³ We find not only that there is a general
136 reduction in SOA, but also that SOA formation nearly stops after the first few hours of oxidation.

137 Nearly all SOA formation in these simulations occurs through condensation of low-volatility
138 early-generation products, while other products that might go on to oxidize and form additional
139 SOA are mostly removed instead by deposition. This is in contrast to many chamber studies that
140 observe continued growth of SOA after depletion of the precursor.³⁴ Impacts are stronger in
141 modeled OH systems (Extended Data Figure 2) compared to modeled O₃ systems (Extended
142 Data Figure 3) because there is little downstream chemistry in ozonolysis following the
143 oxidation of the precursor double bond(s).

144 **Impact of Deposition on Late-forming Species**

145 The loss of early-generation oxidation products may substantially impact the formation of
146 downstream products yielding indirect depositional loss (i.e., loss of production). This is
147 suggested in the reduced formation of OA after several hours (Figures 3 and 4), but can be
148 examined directly by categorizing each product by its generation (Figure 5). Due to the cascade
149 of oxidation reactions, the loss of early-generation compounds results in substantial losses of
150 late-generation compounds (e.g., 50% at 2 lifetimes and 98% at 48 hours for α -pinene OH
151 oxidation, Figures 6a and S3a, respectively) in both the gas and particle. A snapshot of the fraction
152 of particle-phase mass lost due to deposition at 9 hours of oxidation (approximately 2 lifetimes
153 of α -pinene) shows that the median removal is 26%, 43%, and 54% for first- through third- and
154 later-generation compounds, respectively (Figure 6b). The losses of second- and third-generation
155 species, many of which are simply never formed rather than directly deposited, contribute
156 roughly half of the overall reduction in SOA due to deposition, and change the chemical
157 composition of the particles (Extended Data Figure 4).

158 The impact of deposition captured here, though large, may actually be more modest in the α -
159 pinene + OH system than other systems, because a large fraction of SOA is known to be formed

160 through first-generation autoxidation products. In any system for which late-generation SOA
161 formation may be significant, the impact of deposition can be significantly stronger since more
162 than 90% of 3rd and later-generation species were removed by deposition by the end of the
163 simulation (Extended Data Figure 5). Even in complex mixture of precursors and oxidants (i.e.,
164 southeastern U.S. model conditions), there are strong downstream effects, with two-thirds of the
165 SOA never formed (Figure 3b).

166 **Atmospheric Implications and Limitations**

167 This work suggests new strategies to reduce the complexity of atmospheric oxidation reactions
168 and impacts interpretations of laboratory experiments and models. By using physicochemical
169 parameters to predict the timescales for critical atmospheric fates, molecules can be grouped by
170 their probable impacts in the atmosphere. A large subset of oxidation products are likely to be
171 deposited without ever having the chance to oxidize, so their oxidation can likely be ignored in
172 simplified models. Furthermore, a major fraction of late-generation oxidation products are likely
173 to be never formed. It is possible that including the first few generations of oxidation products is
174 enough to reach carbon closure in environments with moderately fast deposition.

175 The goal of this work is to create a simplified approach for understanding a complex atmosphere.
176 Consequently, some processes are not well captured and could be significant for certain
177 compounds. To evaluate the sensitivity of these conclusions to some of the processes that impact
178 aerosol formation, we also examined both the influence of transport to the free troposphere and
179 the influence of partitioning of soluble gases to an aqueous particle phase using simplified
180 implementations in the chemical box model. The impacts of deposition were not sensitive to
181 transport to the free troposphere across a broad range of mixing timescales (Supplementary
182 Figure 4). Though gas-water partitioning substantially increased the magnitude of aerosol

183 formation, the impact of deposition was not strongly affected (Supplementary Figure 5), likely
184 because deposition affects a wide range of compounds that are not sensitive to uptake to the
185 aqueous aerosol (Supplementary Figure 3). Other processes such as condensed-phase
186 reactions,³⁵⁻³⁷ heterogeneous reactions³⁸, and reactive uptake³⁹ were not considered in this
187 framework though they may be important generally or for specific molecules. However, the
188 general conclusions regarding the high impact of deposition are found to apply across the range
189 of precursors, model approaches, and model complexity examined here. It should be noted that
190 the calculation of deposition timescales here is based on conditions in the forested southeast
191 United States where deposition occurs rapidly. In real-world conditions, atmospheric gases and
192 particles may travel a long distance while they react with oxidants and get deposited to surfaces,
193 so representative deposition timescales may need to be averaged over the range of transport.
194 While regions with slower deposition will decrease the impact of deposition (Extended Data
195 Figure 1), our sensitivity analysis shows that slower deposition (i.e., decreasing the LAI from 4.7
196 to 0.47) still strongly suppresses concentrations after multiple lifetimes of oxidation.
197 Furthermore, a large fraction of emissions occurs in regions of high leaf area, so many early-
198 generation oxidation products will be subject to rapid deposition. However, a global analysis of
199 competition between oxidation and deposition would significantly improve understanding of the
200 global impacts of deposition.

201 The strong impact of deposition observed here raises interesting questions for our general
202 understanding of atmospheric chemistry and our interpretation of laboratory experiments. Prior
203 work has demonstrated both first-generation and later-generation aerosol formation in
204 chambers^{34,40-42}, but this work suggests that a substantial fraction of later-generation components
205 may not actually be formed under ambient conditions. Recent work has sought to reconcile

206 laboratory data with ambient conditions by accounting for losses of particle-forming gases to
207 chamber wall surfaces.^{43,44} In fact, deposition has a weaker influence than wall loss on early-
208 generation SOA and a stronger effect on late-generation products (Extended Data Figure 6).
209 After simulated multi-hour oxidation experiments, aerosol mass loadings in the chamber
210 experiments are higher than would be expected in an ambient environment exposed to
211 deposition. Any corrections for wall loss would further overestimate late-generation SOA, while
212 improving estimates of early-forming mass. Further investigating the similarities between
213 laboratory and real-world deposition is necessary to better understand and resolve these issues.
214 These findings in this work may also provide new insights in improving regional-scale models.
215 Since all regional-scale models rely on condensed chemical mechanisms in which chemicals in
216 many cascades of reactions are binned into some representative species, they may not capture the
217 impact of upstream species on downstream ones which is critical for the impact of deposition.
218 This work highlights the importance of considering Henry's law constants when assigning
219 properties or surrogate compounds to chemical bins, which may not currently be one of the
220 criteria considered.

221

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229

230 **Author Contributions**

231 C.B. and G.I.V.W. contributed equally to this work. C.B. performed data analysis and led model
232 implementations and interpretation. G.I.V.W. conceived of the study, contributed to data analysis,
233 and conducted modeling. Both authors contributed significantly to writing and editing.

234

235 **Competing interests**

236 The authors declare no competing interests.

237

238 **Figure Captions**

239 **Figure 1.** Prediction of the fate of a molecule based on its Henry's law constant and OH reaction
240 rate constant. Molecules in the purple, blue, and green regions are primarily removed via
241 oxidation, gas deposition, and particle deposition, respectively. Dashed lines with a grey scale
242 indicate the boundary of the fraction of compounds removed by a specific pathway. The figure
243 assumes deposition conditions in the forested southeast United States and $[\text{OH}] = 1 \times 10^6$
244 molecules cm^{-3} .

245

246 **Figure 2.** Modeled oxidation and deposition timescales of atmospheric oxidation products. The
247 timescales are predicted by explicit chemical modeling of oxidation of toluene, α -pinene, and *n*-

248 decane assuming deposition conditions in the forested southeast United States and $[\text{OH}] = 1 \times 10^6$
249 molecules cm^{-3} . Each marker represents one oxidation product and is sized by its relative
250 concentration in the model. Dashed lines are the boundaries where compounds have a ratio of
251 timescales at 3:1 or 1:3. A timescale of 2.5 days is assumed for transport from the planetary
252 boundary layer to the free troposphere, which matches some global aircraft observations but may
253 be slower than expected in summertime continental conditions such as those explored here;
254 conclusions are not sensitive to the selection of this parameter (Supplementary Figure 4).

255
256 **Figure 3.** Impact of deposition on modeled organic aerosol formation and OH reactivity in a
257 chemically-explicit model. F0AM model cases of (a) α -pinene (introduced with an initial level of
258 1 ppb) + OH (held at 1×10^6 molecules cm^{-3}) oxidation reactions and (b) mixture of precursors
259 and oxidants in the southeastern U.S. Model with deposition is dashed lines (orange: OH
260 reactivity; blue: total OA) and without deposition is solid lines. Deposition parameters were
261 constrained by measurements in the forested southeast United States. Precursors are excluded in
262 the calculation of OH reactivity. Diurnal cycle of daylight is included in southeastern U.S.
263 model.

264
265 **Figure 4.** Impact of deposition on the modeled organic aerosol formation in a volatility-binned
266 box model. The SimpleSOM³² model simulates the oxidation of 1 ppb α -pinene (by $\text{OH} = 1 \times 10^6$
267 molecules cm^{-3}) under the low NO_x condition as a function of (a) model time and (b) percent of
268 precursor consumed. Deposition parameters were constrained by measurements in the forested
269 southeast United States.

270

271 **Figure 5.** Concentrations of gas- and particle-phase oxidation products categorized by their
272 oxidation generation under model conditions with and without considering deposition. The
273 model is the same as that in Figure 3a and simulates the case of (a) and (c) without the
274 implementation of deposition and (b) and (d) with deposition implemented. Deposition
275 parameters were constrained by measurements in the forested southeast United States.

276

277 **Figure 6.** Removal of compounds due to deposition as a function of oxidation generation.
278 Fractional loss is shown for (a) gas-phase species and (b) particle-phase species via deposition.
279 Dots represent chemical species simulated in F0AM at 9 hours (i.e., 2 lifetimes) for the α -pinene
280 + OH oxidation reactions. The width of the violin at a given level is proportional to the
281 aggregated relative abundance of chemicals near that level.

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465 **Methods**

466 **Deposition of gases.** Dry deposition timescales were estimated as a function of Henry's law
467 constants and molecular weight based on the resistance-in-series model of deposition velocities
468 at the surface.⁴⁵ Since dry deposition timescales may vary significantly depending on multiple
469 factors such as location, atmospheric conditions, and characteristics of the surfaces, we apply
470 parameters used by Nguyen et al.²⁶ for the southeastern U.S.; this environment represents
471 relatively rapid dry deposition due to high coverage of vegetation, but for the same reason is a
472 hotspot of ROC emissions and has observationally constrained dry deposition timescales.
473 Deposition velocities for each compound are converted to first-order timescales for dry
474 deposition by assuming a deposition height of 750 m, representative of the approximate middle
475 of the continental planetary boundary layer. Uncertainty in dry deposition timescales is driven by
476 variability in leaf area index, for which a sensitivity analysis is performed in Extended Data
477 Figure 5.

478 Wet deposition timescales were estimated as a function of Henry's law constants as previously
479 reported by Bi and Isaacman-VanWertz¹² This study found that precipitation characteristics are
480 sufficiently similar across different globally distributed sites that the precipitation frequency and
481 duration, rather than its intensity or droplet size distribution, govern the overall wet deposition
482 timescales. One-minute rain data at the Mobile, AL International Airport was used to estimate a
483 timescale of wet deposition of 104 hours for the most soluble gases (uncertainty ~30%) in the
484 southeastern U.S. Timescales for gases with $H < 10^5 \text{ M atm}^{-1}$ were estimated using the empirical
485 relationship reported in that work.

486 Henry's law constants and molecular weight of oxidation products of ROC species including
487 isoprene, terpenes, aromatics, and oxygenates (detailed list in Table S1) were obtained by the
488 HenryWIN bond contribution method (HWINb) using the Simplified Molecular Input Line Entry
489 System (SMILES) as inputs to the Estimation Programs Interface (EPI) Suite software (version
490 4.1) developed US Environmental Protection Agency.⁴⁶

491 Additional details of the estimation approach for both wet and dry deposition timescales are
492 described by Supplementary Equations 1 through 10 and discussions thereof.

493 Compounds for which deposition were modeled include those used in the 0-dimensional model
494 (described below), and those predicted to be formed in the atmospheric oxidation of α -pinene,
495 toluene, and n-decane using the Generator for Explicit Chemistry and Kinetics of Organics in the
496 Atmosphere (GECKO-A).¹¹ These compounds are obtained from a published dataset²⁷ of 38,000
497 gas- and particle-phase oxidation products of these three precursors under oxidation conditions
498 approximately representative of average continental conditions.¹⁴

499 **Deposition of particles.** A constant deposition velocity was assigned to airborne particles,
500 yielding a particle-phase deposition timescale of 7 days. Gas-particle partitioning for each
501 compound was estimated by an equilibrium absorptive partitioning model based on saturation
502 concentration of gases (calculated from vapor pressure) and airborne particle-phase organic mass
503 concentration (calculated directly in the box model, and assumed to 5 ug m^{-3} for calculated
504 general lifetimes). Vapor pressure is estimated using EVAPORATION²⁵. For visualization only,
505 the close linear correlation between Henry's law constants and vapor pressure atmospheric
506 oxidation products^{13, 14} is used to collapse the vapor pressure and Henry's law constant axes into
507 a single axis

508 **Oxidation of gases.** Oxidation timescales were estimated using reaction rate constants with
509 oxidants. Since almost all closed-shell species react with OH radicals, we use the OH reaction
510 rate constant, k_{OH} , and an average OH concentration in the atmosphere $\overline{[OH]} = 1 \times 10^6$ molecules
511 cm^{-3} as the indicators for the oxidation timescale of ROC species in this study. Particle-phase
512 reactions with OH are treated as negligible as they remain poorly constrained. This may
513 underestimate oxidation rates as some compounds have competitive O_3 oxidation rates; however,
514 most of the species examined here do not contain non-aromatic double bonds subject to O_3
515 reaction. Similarly, most species can undergo NO_3 reaction, which is not considered here as rates
516 are still poorly constrained and structure-activity relationships are uncertain. The reaction rate
517 constant for each molecule, k_{OH} , was obtained based on SMILES using the AOPWIN module of
518 the EPI Suite⁴⁶, which is primarily an implementation of the Kwok and Atkinson⁴⁷ structure-
519 activity relationship. The details of the estimation of oxidation timescales are described by
520 Supplementary Equations 18 and 19 and discussion thereof.

521 **0-dimensional chemical box models.** To examine the role of deposition in the atmosphere,
522 deposition was implemented into two 0-dimensional box models as a first-order loss process,
523 including a chemically explicit model and a volatility-binned model.

524 The chemically-explicit Framework for 0-D Atmospheric Modeling (F0AM) v3.1²⁸ was used,
525 including the Washington Aerosol Module (WAM) extension⁴⁸ for gas-particle partitioning. The
526 oxidation chemistry of all precursors followed the Master Chemical Mechanism (MCM) v3.1.1,
527 with additional pathways for the formation of highly oxygenated peroxy radicals and coproducts
528 added for α -pinene oxidation, developed by Pye, D'Ambro²⁹ Molecules were classified by their
529 generation, defined as the least number of reactions of OH, O_3 , or photolysis reactions needed to
530 produce this compound. Deposition of all gas-phase species was added as a first-order constant

531 proceeding at a rate inverse to the deposition lifetime while particle deposition was not included.
532 All compounds except the precursors were allowed to deposit in the simulations. Compounds
533 with saturation vapor concentrations less than $100 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ were configured to dynamically
534 partition between the gas and aerosol phases using vapor pressures determined by
535 EVAPORATION;^{25, 49} sensitivity to this threshold was explored, particularly in investigating the
536 impacts of gas-water partitioning, and conclusions of this work were not found to be sensitive to
537 the value selected. Both single-precursor and simulated southeastern U.S. atmospheres were
538 modeled. For the single precursor-oxidant simulation, oxidants are held at constant levels (i.e.,
539 O_3 at 60 ppb and/or OH at 1×10^6 molecules cm^{-3}) and an initial aliquot of the precursor was
540 added (1 ppb of α -pinene). Oxidation of a mixture of precursors that roughly represents the
541 southeastern U.S. was performed using the sample model scenario provided with the F0AM
542 model based on concentrations measured in the 2013 Southern Oxidant and Aerosol Study
543 (SOAS).⁵⁰ Oxidants were held at their observed values within each hour and changed hourly
544 based on the measurements in a typical diurnal cycle while precursors, including alkanes,
545 aromatics, oxygenates, and monoterpenes were introduced as a mixture at the beginning of the
546 simulation and allowed to decay photochemically. For each oxidation product, two nonreactive
547 tracers including one for cumulative depositional loss and the other for cumulative production
548 were added to the chemical mechanisms to track the mass balance of formed species throughout
549 the simulation. OH reactivity is quantified as the sum of the concentrations of each compound
550 times its OH reaction rates; precursors are excluded from the calculation for purposes of all
551 figures.

552 A computationally-efficient version of the volatility-binned statistical oxidation model
553 (SimpleSOM)³², originally developed by Cappa and Wilson²² was modified by adding

554 deposition of gases into the box model and was used to validate the strong effects of deposition
555 on oxidation observed in FOAM. SimpleSOM simulates multigenerational gas-phase chemistry,
556 phase-state-influenced kinetic gas/particle partitioning, heterogeneous chemistry, oligomerization
557 reactions, and vapor losses to the walls of chambers. Baseline model parameters for α -pinene
558 oxidation were used that reproduce observed chamber measurements in low-NO_x photooxidation
559 chamber experiments.⁵¹ Baseline conditions include a vapor wall loss correction based on
560 measured parameters. The model was modified by implementing deposition as a first-order
561 removal process within the chemistry module that does not yield any product (i.e., removes,
562 rather than transforms, mass). The Henry's law constant of each volatility bin was obtained by
563 assuming the previously-demonstrated linear relationship based on the vapor pressure; though
564 this introduces uncertainty due to differences in the slope of this relationship for different
565 precursors, there is no other mechanism for this estimation as each volatility bin has no
566 associated structure, and the relationship used is an average for products of multiple precursors
567 to keep the implementation as general as possible.¹⁴ Deposition rates were determined as a
568 function of Henry's law constants for each volatility bin using the empirical relationship shown
569 in Supplementary Figure 1. In the baseline conditions, precursor and oxidation concentrations
570 were reduced from chamber concentrations to make the results more representative of real-world
571 conditions (i.e., α -pinene at 1 ppb and OH at 1×10^6 molecules cm⁻³).

572

573 **Data availability**

574 Lifetimes for compounds shown in Figure 2 are provided as Source Data, and are estimated
575 alongside their physicochemical properties for these compounds and an additional ~140,000
576 compounds in a publicly available dataset (DOI: 10.17632/3rgvkf7c9n).²⁷ Compounds used in

577 chemically explicit modeling are freely available through the Master Chemical Mechanism
578 (<https://mcm.york.ac.uk/MCM/>) and referenced publicly available works. Deposition lifetimes
579 for all compounds used in the chemically explicit box model are provided as Supplementary
580 Dataset 1. These data and the referenced publicly available models are used generate Figures 3,
581 5, and 6, as well as Extended Data Figures 2-4. All information to generate Figures 1 and 4 are
582 described in the Methods and Supplementary Information. Source Data are provided for
583 Extended Data Figures 1 and 6.

584

585 **Code availability**

586 Models used in this work are publicly available as cited. The F0AM model was used as provided,
587 with additional reactions added as described in the manuscript and Supplementary Information.
588 The SimpleSOM model was modified slightly to include deposition as described in the
589 manuscript; the modified code has been provided to the authors of the model for inclusion in
590 their next publicly available release.

591

592 **Methods References**

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