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Perchloric acid ($HClO_4$) Drives Atmospheric New Particle Formation Enhanced by Dimethylamine, ammonia and Sulfuric Acid: Mechanisms and Implications

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Abstract

Recent studies have revealed observations of atmospheric perchloric acid ($HClO_4$, PA) in the Arctic. There are few studies of PA forming aerosol particles in coastal marine regions. We use quantum chemical calculations and Atmospheric Clusters Dynamic Code (ACDC) to compare the enhancement potential of dimethylamine (DMA), ammonia (NH_3), and sulfuric acid (SA) for PA-based new particle formation (NPF). The results show that DMA and NH_3 can strongly interact with PA in both directions through hydrogen bonding and proton transfer. Halogen bonding is not found in PA-DMA and PA-NH_3 clusters. Even if the concentration of NH_3 exceeds that of DMA by 10-100 orders of magnitude, the cluster formation rate of PA-DMA cluster formation is much higher than that of the PA-NH_3 cluster system. Clusters with the same number of PA molecules as DMA molecules play a key role in the growth of PA-DMA clusters. Compared with the nucleation of PA with SA, PA nucleates more easily with alkaline gas. The present results reveal the potential for new particle formation of PA in the Arctic boundary layer.

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1 Introduction

At least 50% of the overall concentration of aerosol particles in the atmosphere is believed to be attributed to new particle formation (NPF) (Ehn et al., 2014). Because they reflect and absorb solar radiation, reduce visibility, and have an indirect and direct impact on the climate, these aerosols have a deleterious impact on human health(Zhang, 2010). The production mechanism and subsequent expansion of aerosol particles are poorly understood, making them one of the biggest uncertainties in global climate models (Masson-Delmotte et al., 2021). Theoretical studies, laboratory experiments, and field measurements of air aerosols and nucleation events are available (Lee et al., 2019; Chu et al., 2019; Kalivitis et al., 2019). The nucleation of amines and ammonia in the atmosphere using sulfuric acid (SA) is a crucial process in the contaminated boundary layer (Chen et al., 2012; Erupe et al., 2011; Jen et al., 2014; Loukonen et al., 2010; Zhao et al., 2010; Zollner et al., 2012). Nevertheless, SA concentrations in the atmosphere are typically too low to support cluster growth to CCN size. The particle production and subsequent growth stages are significantly influenced by other nucleating agent candidates in the atmosphere.

NPF can occur through a variety of nucleation pathways and involves important precursors like sulfuric acid (H_2SO_4), iodine oxoacids (HIO_x, HIO_2, and HIO_3), low-volatility organic compounds, ammonia (NH_3), and amines, as shown by laboratory experiments and theoretical calculations(He et al., 2023; He et al., 2021;

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Kirkby et al., 2023). By discovering significant perchlorate (ClO_4^-), recent investigations have conjectured the possible formation of perchloric acid ($HClO_4$, PA) in the lower atmosphere (Dasgupta et al., 2005; Rajagopalan et al., 2009; Furdui and Tomassini, 2010; Barrie et al., 1988). Atmospheric PA, the sinking process of chlorine, was initially identified as a significant component in the polar stratosphere (Sander et al., 1989; Webster et al., 1993; Jaeglé et al., 1996). Tham et al. shown the presence of PA in the Arctic region, an atmospheric sink for reactive chlorine that has not been previously considered (Tham et al., 2023). The observed concentration ranges of PA is 3×10^4-1×10^6 cm^{-1} in the Arctic atmosphere(Tham et al., 2023). Previous studies have found that chloric acid makes a relatively small contribution to new particle formation(Wang et al., 2025). Perchloric acid is a major component of chloric acid, and its contribution to new particle formation requires further investigation. The most prevalent and powerful organic base in the environment is dimethylamine (DMA), which significantly accelerates ion-induced and neutral SA-water nucleation (Ge et al., 2011; Jen et al., 2014). The concentration of DMA surpasses 3 parts per trillion by volume, according to experiments, and the nucleation rates of DMA are significantly higher than those of ambient ammonia (Almeida et al., 2013).

In this paper, the nucleation mechanism of $(PA)_{1-4}(DMA)_{1-4}$, $(PA)_{1-4}(NH_3)_{1-4}$, and $(PA)_{1-4}(SA)_{1-4}$ systems are investigated using quantum chemical calculations and the Atmospheric Clusters Dynamic Code (ACDC) methods. Furthermore, the relationships between various components and the thermodynamic characteristics of

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PA-related clusters were examined. Lastly, ACDC used dynamic simulations to examine the evaporation rates, formation paths, dimer concentrations, and particle formation rates of PA−related clusters using thermodynamic data from three PA−DMA, PA−NH_3, and PA−SA systems.

2 Computational methods

To find the global minimum of the $(PA)_{1-4}(DMA)_{1-4}$, $(PA)_{1-4}(NH_3)_{1-4}$ and $(PA)_{1-4}(SA)_{1-4}$ clusters, we used a multi-step global minimum sampling approach. the ABCluster software was employed to randomly construct the initial structures of 1000 – 10,000 $(PA)_{1-4}(DMA)_{1-4}$, $(PA)_{1-4}(NH_3)_{1-4}$ and $(PA)_{1-4}(SA)_{1-4}$ clusters(Zhang and Dolg, 2015). In addition, the Universal force field (UFF) (Rappé et al., 1992) was used to describe every molecule in the ABCluster software (Zhang and Dolg, 2015). Initially, from structures (>20,00) produced by the artificial bee colony algorithm (Karaboga, 2005) for cluster (ABCluster), 1000 structures with comparatively low energy were selected. In the multistep sampling scheme, the geometry optimization is carried out at the PM7, ωB97X-D/6-31+G(d,p) and ωB97X-D/6-31++G(d,p) levels of theory, and the single-point energy calculations are executed at the DLPNO-CCSD(T)/aug-cc-pVTZ level of theory based on the ωB97X-D/6-31++G(d,p) theory level. The PM7 and ωB97X-D computations were carried out utilizing the GAUSSIAN 09 program package(Frisch et al., 2016). ORCA 4.0.0 was implemented to perform DLPNO-CCSD(T) computations(Neese, 2012). The initial structures will

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be modified and re-optimized until the optimization is successful in order to address convergence issues and failures, such as terminating with a false frequency in the optimization of the $(PA)_{1\text{-}4}(DMA)_{1\text{-}4}$, $(PA)_{1\text{-}4}(NH_3)_{1\text{-}4}$ and $(PA)_{1\text{-}4}(SA)_{1\text{-}4}$ cluster geometries. PA-DMA clusters' free energy of formation (ΔG) is computed at various temperatures (238, 258, and 278 K). The structures of $(SA)_{1–4}$, $(NH_3)_{1–4}$ and $(DMA)_{1–4}$ clusters were obtained from previous studies and are recalculated here(Xie et al., 2017; Ge et al., 2011; Jen et al., 2014; Almeida et al., 2013).

Atmospheric Cluster Dynamics Code (ACDC) Simulation

ACDC was applied to compute the growth pathway, steady-state concentrations, and time-evolving cluster formation rates for the $(PA)_{1–4}(DMA)_{1–4}$, $(PA)_{1–4}(NH_3)_{1–4}$ and $(PA)_{1–4}(SA)_{1–4}$ clusters(Mcgrath et al., 2012a; Mcgrath et al., 2012b). The results of the experiments employing the birth and death equations and the conclusions of the ACDC simulations correspond well(Mcgrath et al., 2012b). In this study, ACDC simulations were performed to model the formation process of PA−DMA, PA−NH_3 and PA−SA neutral clusters without considering the effects of charge and water(Mcgrath et al., 2012b). For the studied PA-DMA clusters, the $\beta_{DMA}C_{DMA}/\Sigma\gamma$ of $(PA)_5(DMA)_5$ cluster is greater than 1. According to the ACDC manual(Mcgrath et al., 2012b), a system size of 6 molecules is large enough. The resulting PA-DMA systems $(PA)_5(DMA)_5$ cluster is set as boundary clusters. The concentration ranges of [PA], [SA], [DMA] and [NH_3] were defined at 10^6 −10^8 cm^{-3}, 10^6 −10^8 cm^{-3}, 0.1−100 ppt and 1−100 ppt, respectively(Xie et al., 2017; Ge et al., 2011; Jen et al., 2014; Almeida

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et al., 2013).

3 Results and discussion

3.1 Cluster structures and cluster formation free energy

Figure 1 displays the $(PA)_{1-4}(DMA)_{1-4}$ clusters identified minimum free energy configurations at the DLPNO-CCSD(T)/aug-cc-pVTZ//ωB97X-D/6-31++G(d,p) level of theory. Proton transfer and hydrogen bonding stabilize the majority of PA−DMA clusters. The formation of halogen bond is not found in PA−DMA clusters. All PA−DMA heteromolecular clusters have been discovered to undergo proton transfer, in which the hydrogen atom of hydroxyl group in the PA molecule moves to the nitrogen atom of the NH_2− group in the DMA to produce N−H...Cl−O hydrogen bond. Each PA molecule donates a proton to a DMA molecule when the quantity of PA molecules and DMA molecules is equal.

When the number of PA molecules is not equal to the number of DMA molecules, the number of proton transfers between PA and DMA depends on the smaller value of the number of PA or DMA molecules. In the PA−NH_3 cluster system (Fig. S1), NH_3 accepts hydrogen atoms from the hydroxyl group in PA to generate NH_4^+ and ClO_4^-. It should be noted that when the number of PA molecules is greater than or equal to the number of NH_3 molecules, all NH_3 will be fully protonated. Similar to the PA−DMA cluster system, halogen bonds do not appear in the PA−NH_3 cluster system. The nitrogen atom of NH_3 and the hydrogen atom of the hydroxyl group in PA combine to

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form the N−H...Cl−O hydrogen bond. However, proton transfer does not take place in any of the PA−SA heteromolecular clusters (Fig. S10). Thus, hydrogen bonds (P−O...H−O and O−H...O−S) and electrostatic interactions sustain the PA−SA cluster system.

The ΔG values of $(PA)_{1-4}(DMA)_{1-4}$, $(PA)_{1-4}(NH_3)_{1-4}$ and $(PA)_{1-4}(SA)_{1-4}$ clusters at the DLPNO-CCSD(T)/aug-cc-pVTZ//ωB97X-D/6-31++G(d,p) level of 278K, are shown in Figure 2. The ΔG values of $(PA)_2$, $(PA)_3$ and $(PA)_4$ clusters are −0.06, −0.99 and 2.90 kcal mol^{-1}, respectively, indicating that pure PA molecules are thermodynamically less susceptible to forming clusters. The PA−DMA cluster growth is more thermodynamically advantageous than the PA−NH_3 cluster growth, as indicated by the fact that all ΔG values of the PA−DMA cluster system are lower than those of the PA−NH_3 cluster system. Furthermore, the negative correlation between temperature and the ΔG values of PA−DMA clusters is discovered (Figure S7, S8 and S9), suggesting that the stability of PA−DMA clusters diminishes as the temperature rises. The $(PA)_{1-4}(DMA)_1$ clusters are 15.15 - 38.79 kcal mol^{-1} lower than those of the corresponding $(PA)_{1-4}$ clusters, which suggests the possibility of collisional growth of DMA with $(PA)_{1-4}$ clusters. The $(PA)_1(DMA)_1$, $(PA)_1(NH_3)_1$, and $(PA)_1(SA)_1$ initial clusters are quite significant in the corresponding cluster systems, with ΔG values of −15.15, −9.73, and −4.08 kcal mol^{-1}, respectively. The $(PA)_4(DMA)_4$ cluster has the lowest ΔG value, as low as −127.04 kcal mol^{-1}. The PA−SA cluster system exhibits the greatest ΔG values among the PA−DMA, PA−NH_3, and PA−SA cluster systems, suggesting that it is a thermodynamically challenging system. In conclusion, DMA

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has greater potential for PA-driven nucleation than NH_3 and SA based on the thermodynamic data.

3.2 Evaporation Rates and Cluster Stability

The stability of the PA−DMA, PA−NH_3, and PA−SA cluster systems is further assessed by calculating the evaporation rates at 278 K based on the determined ΔG values. The evaporation rate of DMA-rich clusters is higher than that of PA-rich clusters, as illustrated in Fig. 3, suggesting that clusters with a high percentage of PA molecules are more stable. $(PA)_1(DMA)_1$, $(PA)_2(DMA)_2$, $(PA)_3(DMA)_3$, and $(PA)_4(DMA)_4$ clusters are all highly stable, with evaporation rates of 8×10^{-2}, 4×10^{-10}, 2×10^{-5}, and 4×10^{-5} s^{-1}, respectively. All pure PA and DMA clusters are unstable, with evaporation rates exceeding 10^9 s^{-1}. The PA−rich hetero molecular clusters are more stable, probably because PA−rich clusters tend to contain more hydrogen bonds and various intermolecular interactions.

With the exception of the $(PA)_4(DMA)_2$, $(PA)_4(DMA)_3$, and $(PA)_4(DMA)_4$ clusters, the evaporation rates of the majority of PA−DMA cluster systems are lower than those of the comparable clusters of PA−NH_3 cluster systems. Similarly, $(PA)_1(NH_3)_1$, $(PA)_2(NH_3)_2$, $(PA)_3(NH_3)_3$, and $(PA)_4(NH_3)_4$ clusters are the stable clusters of the PA−NH_3 cluster system, which have evaporation rates of 3×10^{-2}, 2×10^{-1}, 3×10^{0}, and 2×10^{-8} s^{-1}, respectively. $(PA)_1(SA)_1$ cluster is the most stable cluster with an evaporation rate as high as 6×10^{6} s^{-1} , suggesting the instability of PA−SA clusters.

The actual Gibbs free energies of the PA−DMA systems affected by temperature

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and vapor concentration were calculated, as shown in Figure. 4. At 278 K, for the PA−DMA cluster system, $(PA)_1(DMA)_1$, $(PA)_2(DMA)_2$, $(PA)_3(DMA)_3$, and $(PA)_4(DMA)_4$ clusters are the primary pathways and the growth process is unimpeded. The decreasing trend of the actual Gibbs free energy during the formation of the PA−DMA system is more pronounced with decreasing temperature, implying the thermodynamic stability of the PA−DMA system.

3.3 Steady-State Cluster Concentrations and Nucleation Rate

To further assess the enhancement potential of DMA and NH_3 for PA-driven nucleation, the simulated steady-state PA dimer concentration ($\sum[(PA)_2]$ (cm^{-3})) (a) and the simulated cluster formation rate of the system, J (cm^{-3} s^{-1}) (b), at 278 K as the function of [PA] are shown in Figure. 5. It can be seen that the values of $\sum[(PA)_2]$ and J of the PA-DMA system gradually increase with the increase of [PA] and [DMA] under simulated conditions. However, the effects of [PA] and [DMA] on $\sum[(PA)_2]$ and J values gradually diminish with the increase of [PA] and [DMA]. In the PA-DMA system, neither $\sum[(PA)_2]$ nor J values were saturated with respect to [DMA] at [DMA] = 0.1 - 10 ppt and [PA] = 10^6 - 10^8 cm^{-3}. J values for the PA-DMA system were 10^{-1} cm^{-3} s^{-1} at 278 K, [DMA] = 1 ppt and [PA] = 10^6 cm^{-3}. Comparison of the cluster formation rates, J (cm^{-3} s^{-1}), of PA-DMA and PA-NH_3 systems at 278 K; [PA] = 10^6 -10^8 cm^{-3}; [DMA] = 1 ppt; [NH_3] = 100 ppt; CS = 2×10^{-3} s^{-1}, as shown in Fig. 5(c). Even the concentrations of NH_3 are 2 orders of magnitude higher than those of the DMA concentration, the J values of the PA−DMA cluster system are 8-10 orders of

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magnitude higher than those of the PA−NH_3 cluster system for NH_3 concentrations that are 2 orders of magnitude higher than those of the DMA concentration.

In addition, the trends of *J* for the PA-DMA cluster system at temperature of 238, 258 and 298 K; [PA] (10^6 - 10^8 cm^{-3}) and [DMA] (0.1, 1 and 10 ppt) are shown in Fig. 6. As the temperature decreases (from 298 K to 258 K), the *J* value of the PA-DMA cluster system increases. When the temperature range is 238-258 K, the *J* value of PA-DMA cluster system tends to be saturated and does not change significantly with temperature. The *J* value of the PA-DMA system is 1.65 cm^{-3} s^{-1} at 258 K, [DMA]=1 ppt and [PA]=10^6 cm^{-3}.

3.4 Cluster Growth Route

The growth routes of the PA−DMA (a) and PA−NH_3 (b) systems at 278 K, [PA] = 10^6 cm^{-3}, [DMA] = 3 ppt, and [NH_3] = 100 ppt are shown in Fig. 6. The evaporation rates of $(PA)_2$ and $(DMA)_2$ clusters are 4×10^9 and 2×10^{12} s^{-1}. The higher evaporation rate causes the PA-DMA system to form via the $(PA)_1(DMA)_1$ dimer pathway rather than via the $(PA)_2$ and $(DMA)_2$ cluster pathways. The formation of the $(PA)_1(DMA)_1$ dimer is the initial stage in the PA-DMA system. There is no branching during the growth of clusters of the PA-DMA system, which may be due to the fact that the evaporation rate of clusters on the diagonal (the number of PA molecules is the same as the number of DMA molecules) is much lower than that of clusters off the diagonal (the number of PA molecules is different from the number of DMA molecules). A $(PA)_2(DMA)_2$ cluster complex is then formed by the combination of two

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$(PA)_1(DMA)_1$ dimer clusters.

$(PA)_2(DMA)_2$ also has only one growth path and further collides with $(PA)_1(DMA)_1$ to form a $(PA)_3(DMA)_3$ cluster. Eventually $(PA)_5(DMA)_4$ and $(PA)_5(DMA)_5$ clusters are stable enough to grow from the PA-DMA system. Therefore, collision between clusters with PA and DMA monomers is not the main way in the PA-DMA cluster system. Cluster coalescence between a large number of $(PA)_1(DMA)_1$ clusters play an important role in the growth of PA-DMA clusters, which may be due to the low evaporation rate and high stability of $(PA)_1(DMA)_1$, $(PA)_2(DMA)_2$, $(PA)_3(DMA)_3$, and $(PA)_4(DMA)_4$ clusters. The growth path of the PA-NH_3 cluster system is very similar to that of the PA-DMA cluster system, in which a PA monomer molecule collides with an NH_3 molecule to form a $(PA)_1(NH_3)_1$ dimer cluster, and then $(PA)_1(NH_3)_1$ dimer clusters are continuously added to form $(PA)_4(NH_3)_4$ cluster.

4 Atmospheric Implications and Conclusion

In this paper, quantum chemical methods are used to study the energy minimum configurations for the formation of atmospheric clusters of PA with DMA, NH_3 and SA in the Arctic boundary layer. The evaporation rates, cluster formation rates and growth paths of the nucleation process of PA with DMA, NH_3 and SA clusters are simulated by inputting ACDC from the thermodynamic data obtained. The following conclusions were drawn:

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(1) Based on the Gibbs free energies calculated in this study, DMA and NH_3 can strongly interact with PA through hydrogen bonding and proton transfer, thus promoting the rapid formation of PA-DMA and PA-NH_3 clusters. No halogen bonds are found in PA-DMA and PA-NH_3 clusters.

(2) Under the condition that the DMA concentration is two orders of magnitude lower than the NH_3 concentration, the formation rate of PA-DMA clusters is much faster than that of PA-NH_3 clusters.The cluster formation rate of the PA-SA cluster system is the slowest among the three systems. This may be due to the fact that no proton transfer occurs between the PA and SA molecules and only hydrogen bonding stabilizes the clusters.

(3) The formation rate of pure PA clusters is extremely low. DMA can promote the formation rate of PA clusters to a high level, which reflects the stabilizing effect of DMA on PA clusters. The results suggest that PA can contribute to new particle formation in the Arctic. The formation of $(PA)_1(DMA)_1$ and $(PA)_1(NH_3)_1$ dimers are the decisive clusters for the growth of PA-DMA and PA-NH_3 cluster systems.

(4) PA can form stable binary clusters with DMA, which is an important step in the formation of new particles in the atmosphere. The nucleation mechanism of PA-DMA revealed in this study may contribute to a deeper understanding of the role of marine chlorine-containing components on marine NPF.

Previous views hold that nucleation involving sulfuric acid/iodine oxoacid and amines/ammonia is a key pathway for new particle formation in the polluted boundary layer. This study extends this paradigm to a overlooked ocean-derived chlorinated

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precursor: perchloric acid. The results of this study provide a partial explanation for the "fate" of PA in the Arctic atmosphere: PA can not only be removed via wet and dry deposition but is also likely to participate in new particle formation by reacting with basic gases (especially DMA) to form stable clusters. This provides a theoretical basis for understanding the role of chlorine-containing components, particularly previously overlooked chlorate, in tropospheric aerosol nucleation.

This study indicates that perchloric acid has potential in new particle formation in the Arctic marine boundary layer, particularly in the presence of dimethylamine. This finding has significant atmospheric and climatic implications: first, it reveals a potential new and efficient nucleation pathway between active chlorine released from the ocean (via the formation of $HClO_4$) and nitrogen-containing bases (such as DMA from marine biogenic sources), which may have important implications for assessing the number of cloud condensation nuclei and cloud radiative forcing in the marine boundary layer. Second, it expands our understanding of the atmospheric chlorine cycle, indicating that, in addition to known deposition processes, gas-to-particle transformations involving basic gases represent an important, previously unrecognized atmospheric "sink" for $HClO_4$. Therefore, future global and regional climate models should incorporate $HClO_4$ and its nucleation mechanisms with amine compounds when simulating aerosol formation over polar and marine regions, in order to more accurately characterize aerosol-cloud-climate interactions.

Data availability

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All data supported the paper are available from the article, supplementary information，and the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

Author Contributions Statement

Shengming Wang: Investigation, Conceptualization, Formal analysis, Data curation, Writing-original draft. **Xiangli Shi:** Methodology, Writing-reviewing and editing, Validation, Supervision. **Qingzhu Zhang:** Methodology, Validation, Supervision, Funding acquisition. **Wenxing Wang:** Resources, Funding acquisition, Writing-reviewing and editing Supervision.

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Additional information

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Figure Captions

Figure 1. Identified minimum free energy configurations of the $(PA)_{1-4}(DMA)_{1-4}$ clusters at the DLPNO-CCSD(T)/aug-cc-pVTZ//ωB97X-D/6-31++G(d,p) level of theory. The atoms of oxygen, nitrogen, chlorine, carbon, and hydrogen are represented by the red, blue, green, gray, and white balls, respectively. Hydrogen bonds are indicated by the dashed white lines.

Figure 2. At the DLPNO-CCSD(T)/aug-cc-pVTZ//ωB97X-D/6-31++G(d,p) level of theory, the formation free energy (ΔG) (in kcal mol^{-1}) of (a) $(PA)_{1-4}(DMA)_{1-4}$, (b) $(PA)_{1-4}(NH_3)_{1-4}$ and (c) $(PA)_{1-4}(SA)_{1-4}$ clusters. The computations are carried out at 1 atm and 278 K.

Figure 3. Evaporation rates for (a) $(PA)_{1-4}(DMA)_{1-4}$ and (b) $(PA)_{1-4}(NH_3)_{1-4}$ (c) $(PA)_{1-4}(SA)_{1-4}$ clusters at 278 K and 1 am.

Figure 4. Actual Gibbs free energy of the PA-DMA clusters at 278, 258 and 238K.

Figure 5. Simulated steady-state PA dimer concentration $\sum[(PA)_2]$ (cm^{-3}) (a) and the cluster formation rates J (cm^{-3} s^{-1}) of the simulation systems (b) as a function of [PA] at 278 K. (c) Comparison of the cluster formation rates J (cm^{-3} s^{-1}) of PA−DMA clusters with PA−NH_3 clusters at 278 K; [PA] = 10^6 −10^8 cm^{-3}; [DMA] = 1 ppt; [NH_3]

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= 100 ppt; and CS = 2×10^{-3} s^{-1}. The ΔG values at the DLPNO-CCSD(T)/aug-cc-pVTZ//ωB97X-D/6-31++G(d,p) level are used to compute the PA–DMA and PA–NH_3 rates.

Figure 6. The simulated cluster formation rate J (cm^{-3} s^{-1}) of the PA-DMA system at different temperatures (A) 238, (B) 258 K, and (C) 298 K; [PA] = 10^6 −10^8 molec. cm^{-3}; [DMA] = 0.1, 1, and 10 ppt; and CS = 2×10^{-3} s^{-1}.

Figure 7. (a) Main clustering routes of $(PA)_{1-4}(DMA)_{1-4}$ clusters at 278 K, [PA] = 10^6 cm^{-3}, and [DMA] = 3 ppt. (b) Main clustering routes of $(PA)_{1-4}(NH_3)_{1-4}$ clusters at 278 K, [PA] = 10^6 cm^{-3}, and [NH_3] = 100 ppt.

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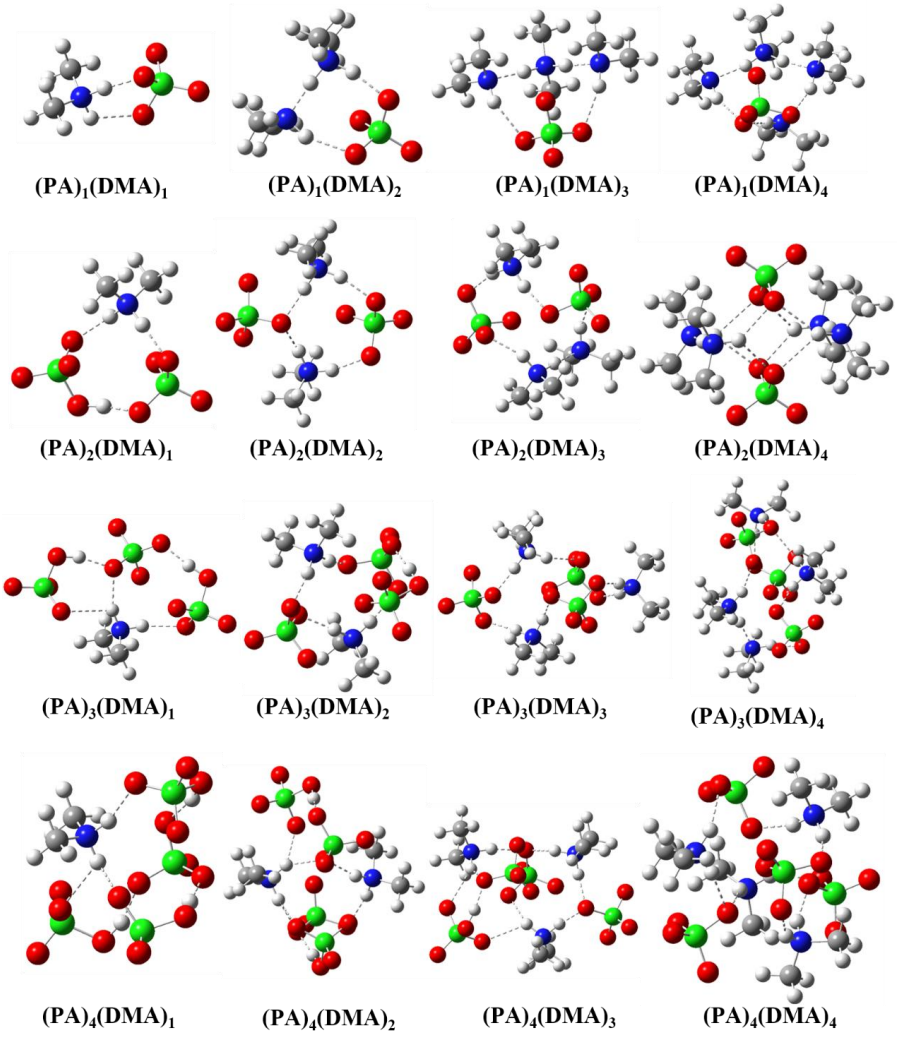

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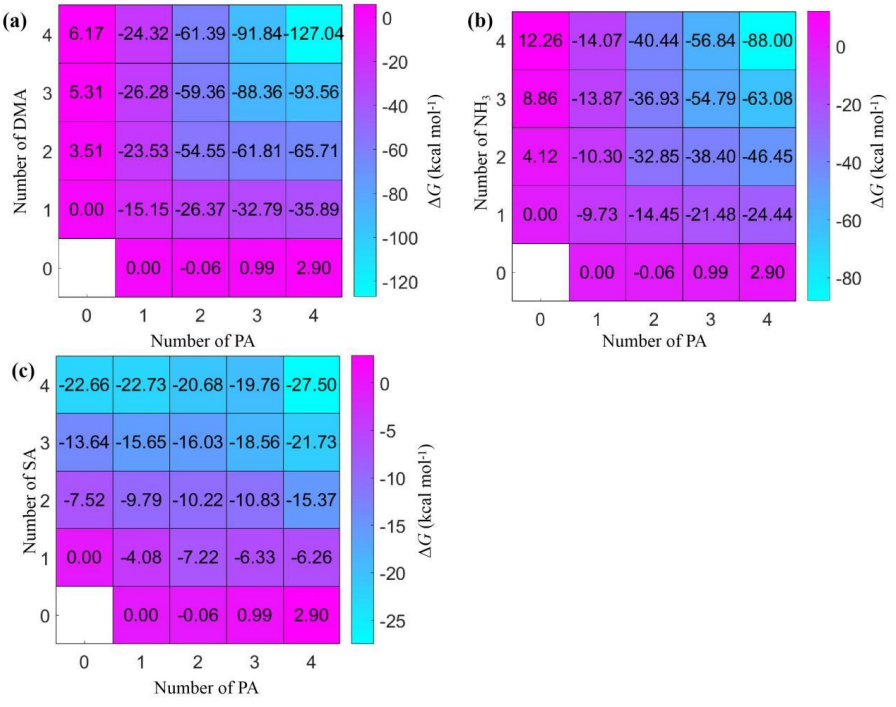

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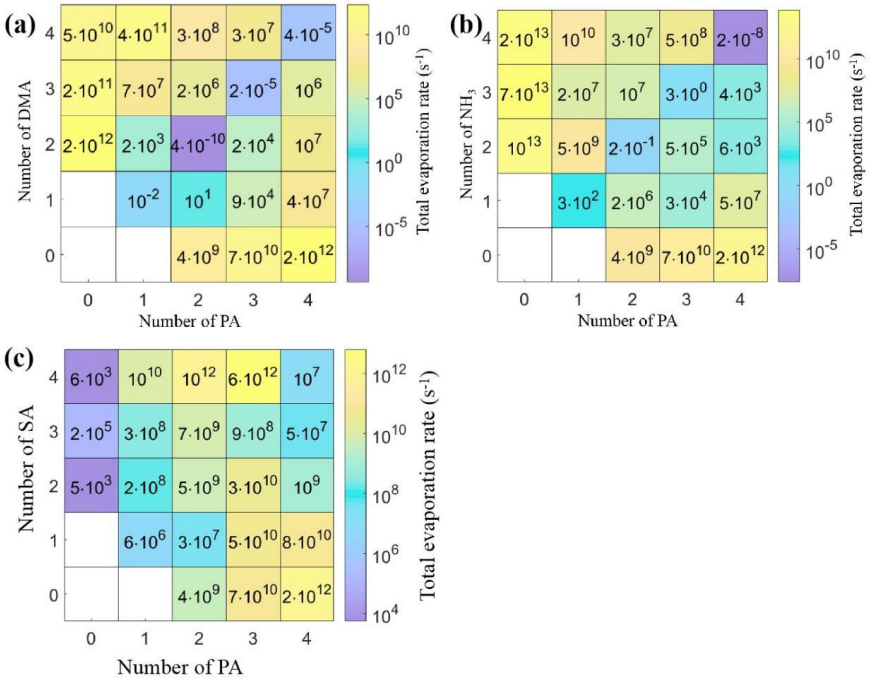

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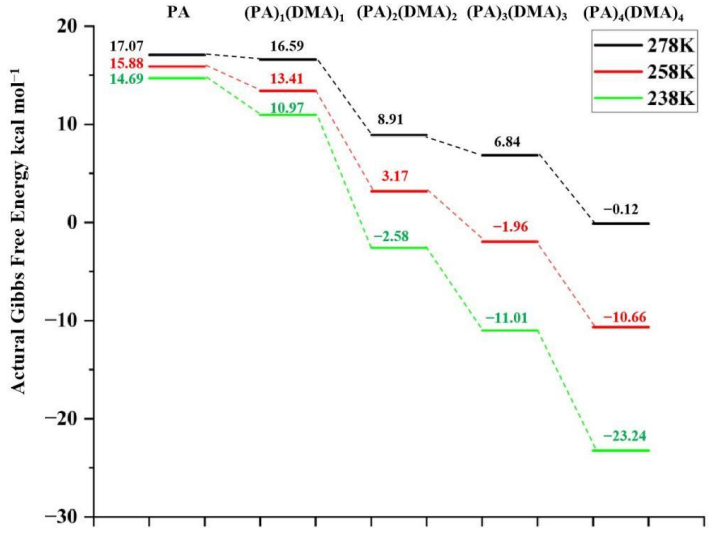

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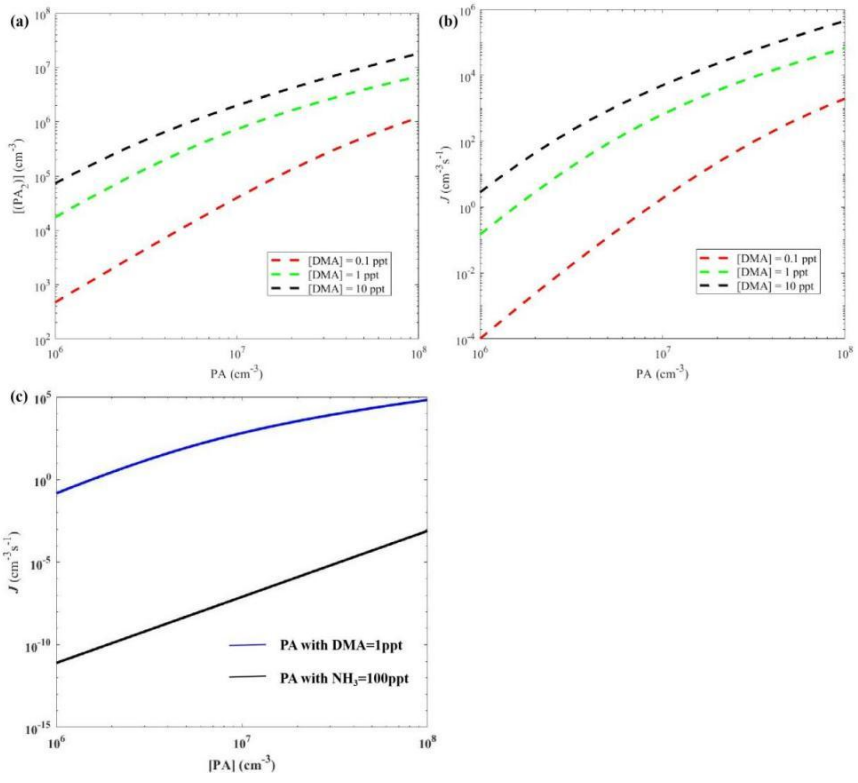

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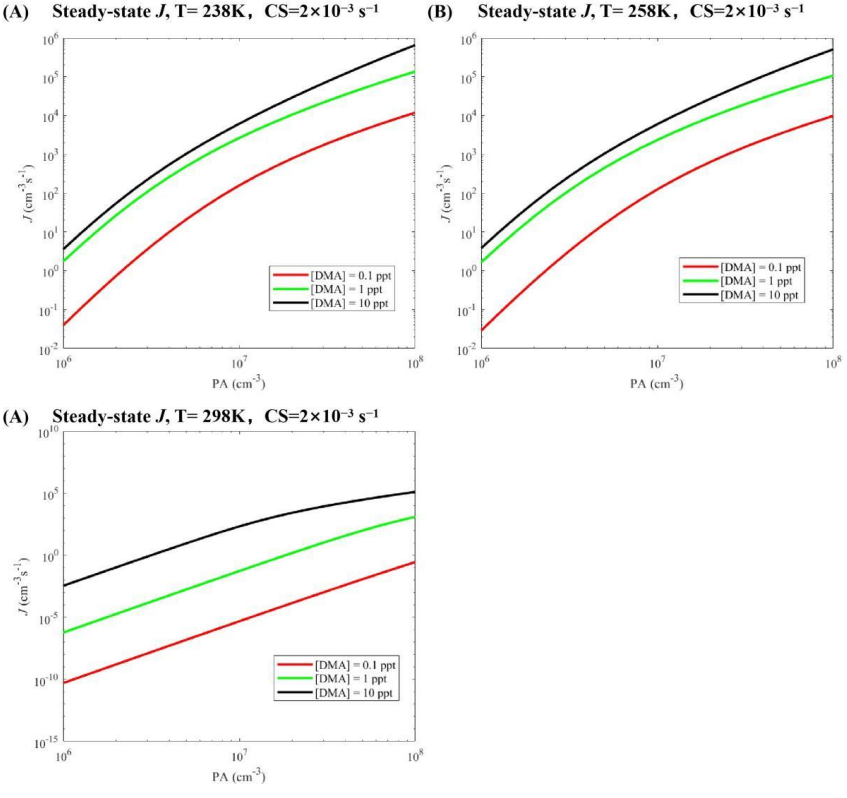

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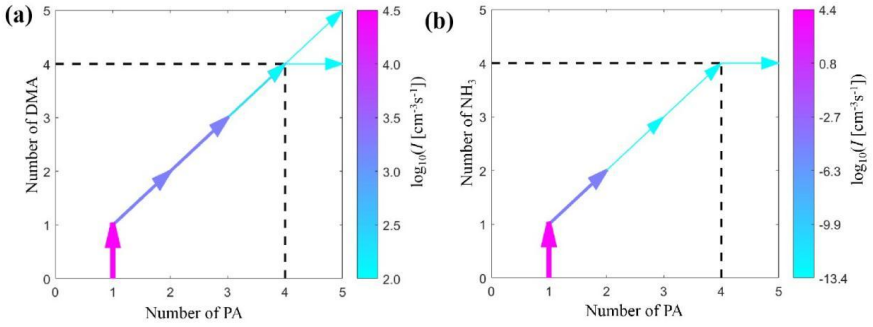

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