



Determination of the absorption cross-sections of higher order iodine oxides at 355 nm and 532 nm.

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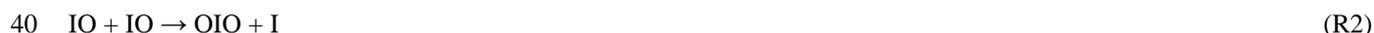
10 **Abstract.** Iodine oxides (I_xO_y) play an important role in the atmospheric chemistry of iodine. They are initiators of new particle
formation events in the coastal and polar boundary layer and act as iodine reservoirs in tropospheric ozone-depleting chemical
cycles. Despite the importance of the aforementioned processes, the photochemistry of these molecules has not been studied
in detail previously. Here, we report the first determination of the absorption cross sections of I_xO_y , $x = 2, 3, 5$, $y = 1-12$ at $\lambda =$
355 nm by combining pulsed laser photolysis of I_2/O_3 gas mixtures in air with time-resolved photo-ionization time-of-flight
15 mass spectrometry, using NO_2 actinometry for signal calibration. The oxides selected for absorption cross section
determinations are those presenting the strongest signals in the mass spectra, where signals containing 4 iodine atoms are
absent. The method is validated by measuring the absorption cross section of IO at 355 nm, $\sigma_{355 \text{ nm}, IO} = (1.2 \pm 0.1) \times 10^{-18} \text{ cm}^2$,
which is found to be in good agreement with the most recent literature. The results obtained are: $\sigma_{355 \text{ nm}, I_2O_3} < 5 \times 10^{-19} \text{ cm}^2$
molecule⁻¹, $\sigma_{355 \text{ nm}, I_2O_4} = (3.9 \pm 1.2) \times 10^{-18} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ molecule}^{-1}$, $\sigma_{355 \text{ nm}, I_3O_6} = (6.1 \pm 1.6) \times 10^{-18} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ molecule}^{-1}$, $\sigma_{355 \text{ nm}, I_3O_7} = (5.3$
20 $\pm 1.4) \times 10^{-18} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ molecule}^{-1}$ and $\sigma_{355 \text{ nm}, I_5O_{12}} = (9.8 \pm 1.0) \times 10^{-18} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ molecule}^{-1}$. Photodepletion at $\lambda = 532 \text{ nm}$ was only
observed for OIO, which enabled determining upper limits for the absorption cross sections of I_xO_y at 532 nm using OIO as an
actinometer. These measurements are supplemented with ab-initio calculations of electronic spectra in order to estimate
atmospheric photolysis rates $J(I_xO_y)$. Our results confirm a high $J(I_xO_y)$ scenario where I_xO_y is efficiently removed during
daytime, implying enhanced iodine-driven ozone depletion and hindering iodine particle formation. Possible I_2O_3 and I_2O_4
25 photolysis products are discussed, including IO_3 , which may be a precursor to iodic acid (HIO_3) in the presence of HO_2 .

1. Introduction

Photolabile iodine-containing molecules are emitted into the lower atmosphere from the sea surface and from marine biota. The atmospheric processing of iodine leads to its accumulation in aerosol, subsequent transport and deposition on land, where it enters the continental ecosystems (Saiz-Lopez et al., 2012b). In the course of this process, gas-phase reactive iodine is



30 involved in two important chemical processes of the background troposphere: ozone depletion and new particle formation .
Iodine is thought to be responsible for 9 to 16% of the contemporary ozone removal in the tropical troposphere (Saiz-Lopez et al., 2014), and there is evidence that anthropogenic ozone pollution enhances iodine release from the sea surface (Carpenter et al., 2013; Chance et al., 2014; MacDonald et al., 2014; Prados-Roman et al., 2015; Cuevas et al., 2018), which in turn has accelerated ozone loss in the last decades (Cuevas et al., 2018). The atmospheric chemistry of iodine is in principle fairly
35 simple, since the main atmospheric fate of the iodine atoms is reaction with ozone to form iodine monoxide (IO). This radical photolyzes readily (Gómez Martín et al., 2005), creating an ozone-neutral cycle and establishing a steady state concentration of I and IO, which are then termed collectively as active iodine or IO_x. Any other chemical cycle involving IO which recycles atomic iodine without concomitant generation of atomic oxygen leads to ozone depletion, e.g. (Gómez Martín et al., 2009):



Further steps in this scheme lead to the formation of higher iodine oxides (Gómez Martín et al., 2013):



Previous laboratory experiments on iodine photochemistry have reported kinetic growth of broad band absorptions following the decay of IO and OIO as well as significant deposition of particulates on the walls of the reactors (Cox and Coker, 1983; Laszlo et al., 1995; Harwood et al., 1997; Gómez Martín et al., 2005). These broad band absorbers have been tentatively
50 identified as some of the higher iodine oxides produced in reactions R4, R5 and R6 (Bloss et al., 2001; Gómez Martín et al., 2007), which are believed to be precursors to the particles that eventually deposit on the walls. Furthermore, iodine oxide containing particles have been observed in multiple aerosol flow tube and steady state chamber experiments starting from the photooxidation of iodine precursors directly injected into the chamber (Hoffmann et al., 2001; Jimenez et al., 2003; Saunders et al., 2010; Wei et al., 2017) or emitted from cultures of algae under oxidative stress (McFiggans et al., 2004; Pirjola et al., 2005). Emissions of I₂ and alkyl-iodides from coastal macroalgae and polar phytoplankton and concurrent observation of IO and OIO (Saiz-Lopez and Plane, 2004) have been unambiguously linked to intense new particle formation events (Jimenez et al., 2003; McFiggans et al., 2004). Thus, there is a strong indication that iodine oxide clustering also happens in the coastal boundary layer and is responsible for particle formation events.



60 Recent Chemical Ionization - Atmospheric Pressure Interface- Time of Flight Mass Spectrometry (CI-API-ToF-MS)
observations of IO_3^- and IO_3 -containing ion clusters in coastal and polar environments, as well as complementary laboratory
experiments in the absence of HO_x , have been interpreted as direct measurements of gas-phase iodic acid (HOIO_2 , hereafter
denoted as HIO_3) and HIO_3 clusters (Sipilä et al., 2016). Since all possible reaction paths between H_2O and I, IO and OIO are
very endothermic (Canneaux et al., 2010; Hammaecher et al., 2011; Khanniche et al., 2017a), and $\text{IO}_x\text{-H}_2\text{O}$ complexes are
65 very weakly bound (Galvez et al., 2013), the formation of oxyacids may rather proceed via hydrolysis of higher iodine oxides
(Kumar et al., 2018):



Ozone depletion and particle formation are to some extent competing processes. Significant I_xO_y photolysis rates may result
in regeneration of IO_x :



These photochemical reactions would enhance ozone depletion, while slowing down the incorporation of iodine into aerosol
via oxides and/or oxyacids. This is currently an important uncertainty in the iodine chemical mechanism incorporated into
global chemistry transport models (Saiz-Lopez et al., 2014; Sherwen et al., 2016). In order to reduce this uncertainty, we report
here a set of I_xO_y photodepletion experiments with mass spectrometric detection, which enables unambiguous observation of
80 all the species of interest (Gómez Martín et al., 2013). Experiments devoted to understanding the interaction between I_xO_y and
water, potentially leading to the formation of HIO_3 , will be reported elsewhere.

2. Methods

2.1. Experimental set-up

A pulsed laser photolysis (PLP) system has been employed to generate iodine oxides from the photolysis of O_3 in the presence
85 of I_2 in a tubular reaction cell (Figure 1). A flow of typically 1.5 slm of He carrier gas (99.999%, BOC Gases) was introduced
in the reactor. I_2 molecules were entrained in the carrier flow by passing a smaller flow of He (~100 sccm) through a 12 mm
diameter temperature-stabilized Teflon tube containing I_2 crystals (>99.5%, Sigma-Aldrich). An electrical discharge ozone



generator converted ~2% of a ~100 sccm O₂ flow (99.999%, BOC Gases) to O₃, which was introduced to the main flow via an inlet on the flow tube.

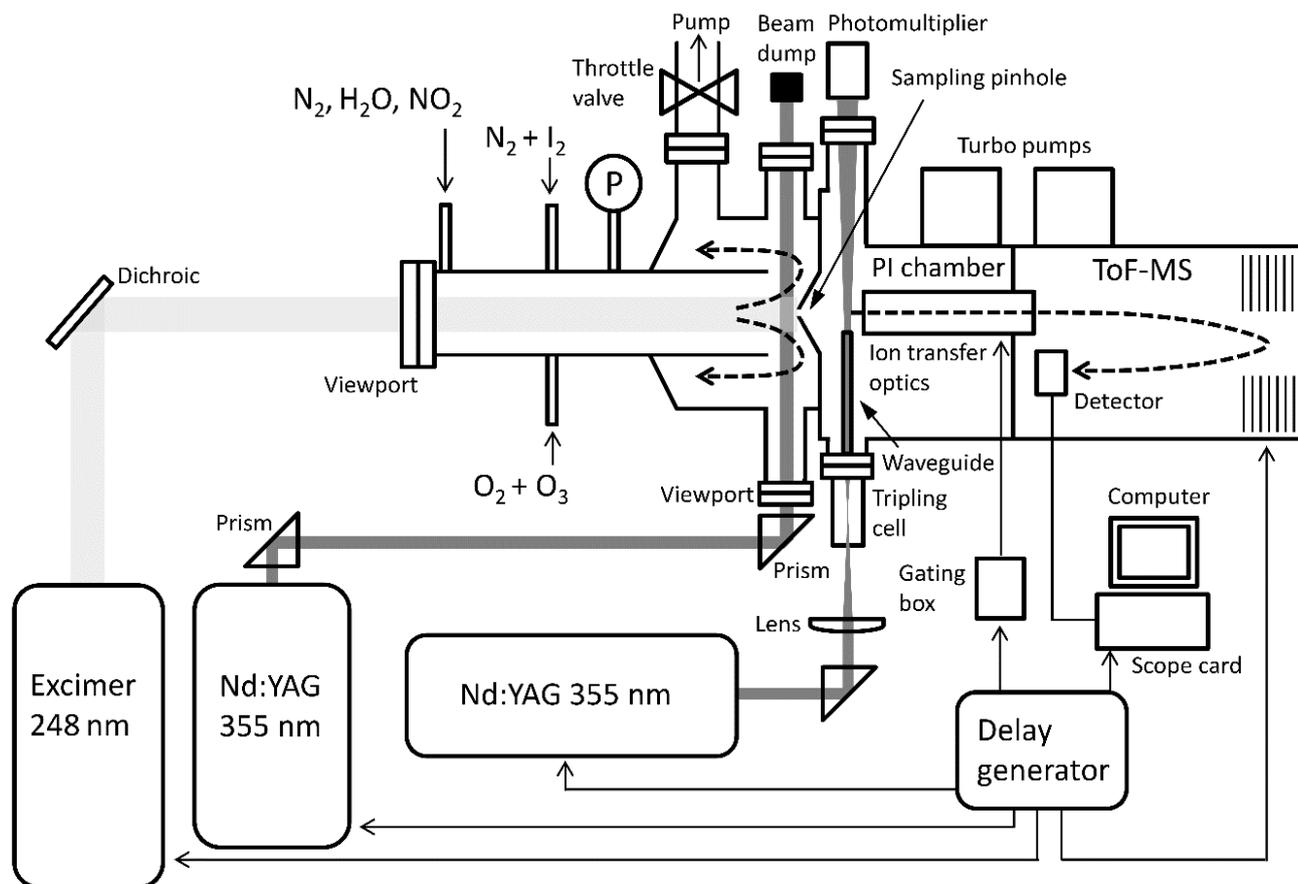


Figure 1: Schematic diagram of the experimental set-up for studying the photolysis of iodine oxides

90 Ozone was photolyzed at 248 nm by an excimer laser beam (Lambda Physik Compex 102), which was passed unfocussed through a quartz viewport along the tube main axis. This generated the well-known sequence of reactions:



95 followed by reactions R1, R2, R4, R5 and (R6), as well as further I_xO_y clustering reactions. The precursor concentrations ([I₂]~ 4 × 10¹⁴ molecule cm⁻³, [O₃]~ 5 × 10¹⁴ molecule cm⁻³) and laser energy (120 mJ pulse⁻¹) were tuned to ensure that I₂ was in excess over O(^3P). Iodine and ozone concentrations were measured using a 532 nm solid state laser in a single pass and a multipass Herriot cell (Lewis et al., 2018), respectively (Figure 2). A reflection (~5%) of the main 532 nm diode laser (Thorlabs



100 CPS532 532 nm 4.5 mW) beam was directed along the length of the cell (length = 40 cm) and detected using a photodiode detector (Thorlabs SM05PD3A). Ozone was detected by passing the main beam through a hole in the rear of a silver-coated concave mirror (Thorlabs CM508-200-P01 $f = 20$ cm) onto an identical mirror (without a hole) positioned 40 cm from the first mirror. The light was passed 40 times through the cell, and exits through the same entrance hole (some passes are omitted from the diagram for simplicity), giving a path length of 12 m.

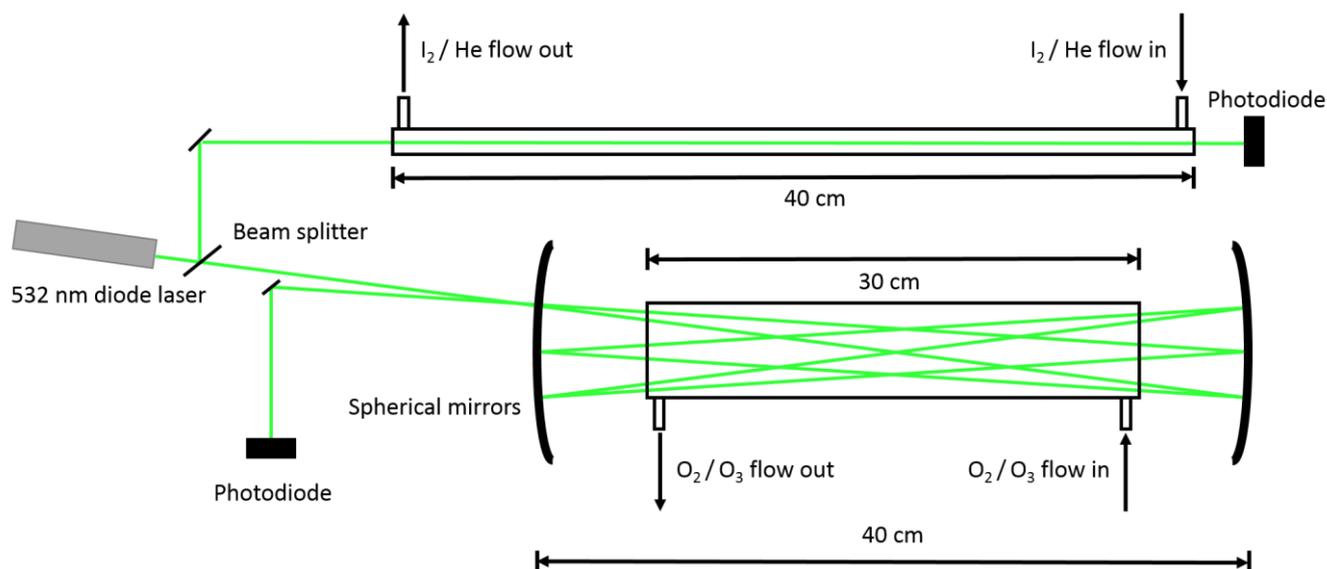


Figure 2: A Schematic of the absorption setup used to measure both I₂ and O₃

105 The concentrations C of O₃ and I₂ were then determined using the Beer-Lambert law (equation 1), where I and I_0 are the intensities of the 532 nm laser light recorded with and without the reagent present, respectively, OD is the optical density, σ the absorption cross section, and l the optical path length:

$$OD = \ln \frac{I_0}{I} = \sigma \cdot C \cdot l \quad (1)$$

110 O₃ has an absorption cross-section at 532 nm of $2.34 \times 10^{-21} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ molecule}^{-1}$ (Burrows et al., 1999). A typical concentration of $5 \times 10^{14} \text{ molecule cm}^{-3}$ in the reaction mixture (total flow ~ 1700 sccm) requires a concentration in the O₃/O₂ flow (100 sccm) of around $8.5 \times 10^{15} \text{ molecule cm}^{-3}$. An ozone concentration of $8.5 \times 10^{15} \text{ molecule cm}^{-3}$ results in $OD = 0.024$. I₂ has an absorption cross-section at 532 nm of $3.03 \times 10^{-18} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ molecule}^{-1}$ (Saiz-Lopez et al., 2004). A typical I₂ concentration of $4 \times 10^{14} \text{ molecule cm}^{-3}$ in the reaction mixture (total flow ~ 1700 sccm) requires a concentration in the I₂/He flow (100 sccm) of around $6.8 \times 10^{15} \text{ molecule cm}^{-3}$. An I₂ concentration of $6.8 \times 10^{15} \text{ molecule cm}^{-3}$, giving $OD = 0.62$. The ODs observed for both species are easily detectable by the instrument, which has a typical signal-to-noise ratio of ~ 400 .

115 In order to measure the photodepletion of the I_xO_y molecules at 532 nm and 355 nm, a frequency-doubled or tripled Nd:YAG laser beam (Continuum Surelite 10-II, 1 cm⁻¹ linewidth, 20 ns pulse width, $\sim 80 \text{ mJ pulse}^{-1}$ at 532 nm and $\sim 50 \text{ mJ pulse}^{-1}$ at 355 nm) was passed across the flow tube, perpendicular to the main axis and near the sampling point. Experiments were carried



out at 4-7 Torr. The pressure in the reactor was set by a throttle valve placed upstream of an Edwards 80 roots blower – oil rotary pump combination. The flows were set using MKS calibrated mass flow controllers and pressure was measured using a set of 10 Torr and 1000 Torr MKS Baratron pressure transducers.

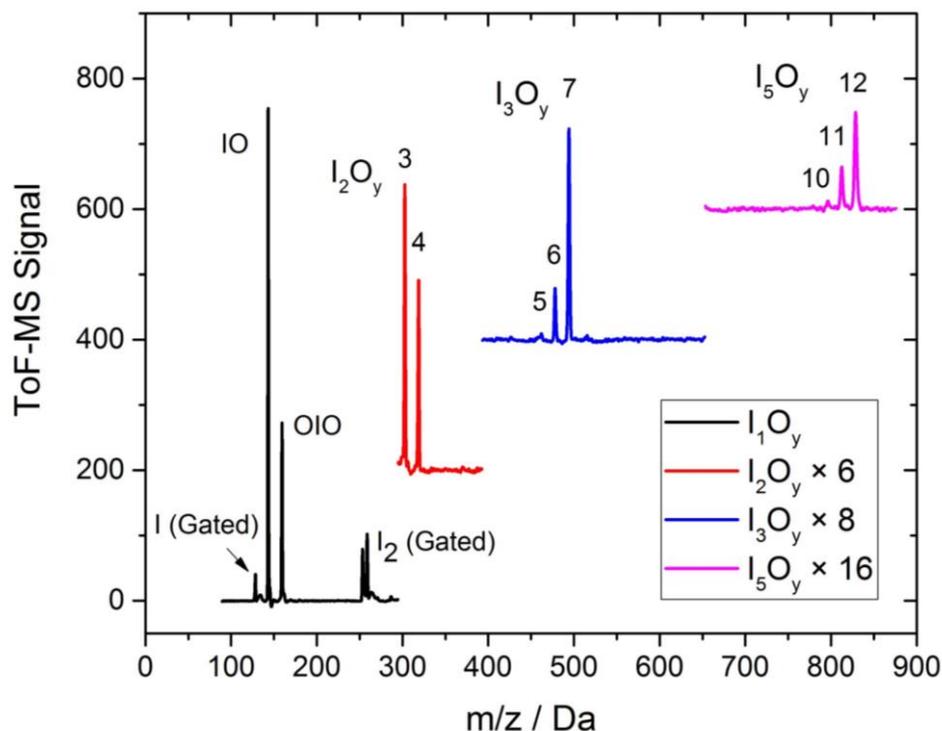


Figure 3: Mass spectra in four different m/z ranges encompassing peaks of species with 1, 2, 3 and 5 iodine atoms. Some of the spectra are scaled and shifted for clarity.

The iodine oxides generated were sampled in situ from the irradiated volume through a pinhole (200 μm diameter) situated on axis into a Kore Technology photo-ionization time-of-flight mass spectrometer (PI-ToF-MS) described in detail elsewhere (Gómez Martín et al., 2016). The PI chamber of this instrument ($\sim 10^{-4}$ Torr) is fitted with viewports, allowing a pulsed laser beam to be directed through the high density region of the sampled gas jet. Iodine oxides have ionization potentials in the range of 9-11 eV (Gómez Martín et al., 2013; Wei et al., 2017), which requires generating a vacuum ultraviolet (VUV) laser ionization beam. This is achieved by tightly focusing the 355 nm output of a frequency-tripled Nd:YAG laser (Continuum Surelite 10-II) in a cell filled with xenon, which produces VUV radiation by frequency tripling (118 nm, or equivalently 10.5 eV) (Kung et al., 1973; Mahon et al., 1979). The resulting positive ions are accelerated towards the ToF-MS by means of a continuous negative voltage. An electron photomultiplier detector coupled to a pre-amplifier outputs an analog signal, which is registered by the digital oscilloscope (Picoscope 6000). A limitation of this method is that large signals (e.g. I₂⁺ and I⁺) cause detector overload during a significant time span after the large peak has been registered. An analog gating box is used to lessen these effects by sending a (~ 400 ns wide) gating pulse to the ion extraction optics. Gating in this way removed >90% of the overloaded signal from I₂⁺ and I⁺, significantly improving the signal to overload ratio.



Synchronization between the chemistry-initiating laser pulse, the photolysis laser, the probing PI laser pulse and the detection
135 devices is provided by a computer-controlled delay generator (Quantum Composers, 9518). In this manner, the delay between
PLP and PI can be varied in order to observe the kinetics of reactants and products, and the photodepletion of the species of
interest. The experiment repetition rate was set at 10 Hz, the optimal repetition rate for operation of both the VUV generating
PI YAG laser and the YAG laser used for photolysis of the iodine oxides. A LabView program built in-house provides a
sequence of delays between the PLP and PI lasers which can be modified by the user via a graphical interface. Desired
140 experimental parameters are input into the LabView program, including the number of pre-photolysis points, the number of
experimental data, the duration of the experiment and the number of repetitions. Each experiment results in a 3-dimensional
dataset of signal intensity (proportional to concentration) vs. photolysis-photoionization delay and time-of-flight (Figure 3).
Mass-to-charge (m/z) calibration of time-of-flight was performed by selecting a number of well-known prominent mass peaks
(e.g. IO at $m/z = 143$, OIO at $m/z = 159$, I_2O_3 at $m/z = 302$, I_2O_4 at $m/z = 318$ and I_3O_7 at $m/z = 493$ (Gómez Martín et al., 2013)).

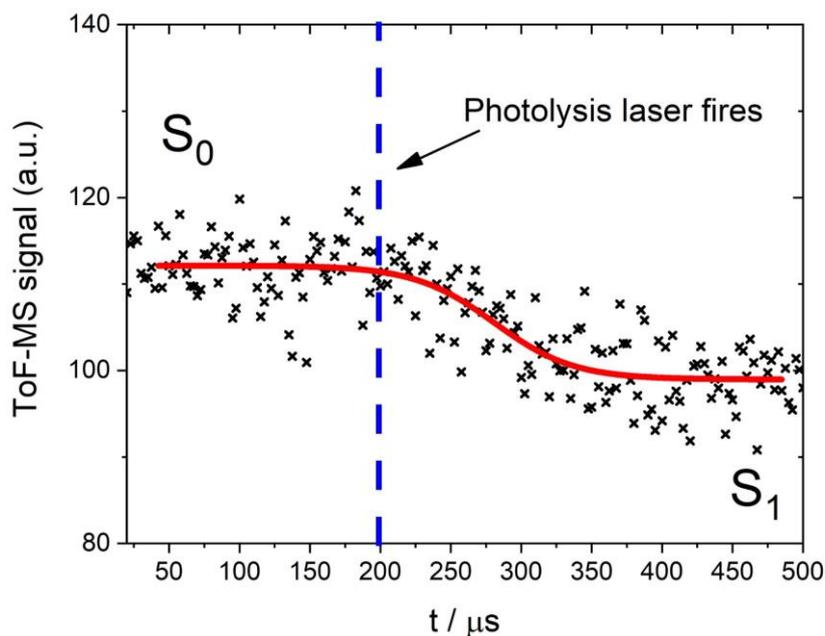


Figure 4: Schematic of a photodepletion measurement of NO_2 . The red curve is an empirical fit through the data performed to obtain the values of S_0 and S_1 .

145 To investigate the photodepletion of I_xO_y , it is desirable to keep the signal of the species of interest relatively constant over the
delay window used to probe the photolysis. The timing of the Nd:YAG photolysis laser shot was programmed to a fixed delay
with respect to the 248 nm excimer flash. To find the optimal window in which to conduct photolysis experiments, the reaction
kinetics were first explored between 0 and ~ 10 ms for different sets of conditions. It was important to generate a sufficiently
high concentration of I_xO_y to obtain a good signal-to-noise ratio, but not so high that the growth/removal timescale was
150 comparable to the observed photodepletion ($\sim 400 \mu s$). Fragmentation of iodine oxides was a significant problem in these
experiments where the amount of active iodine ($IO_x = I, IO$) released from reaction R12 is high, leading to fast formation of



I_xO_y and particles. Under these conditions, at long times after the peak IO and OIO (~3-5 ms), the observed signal of IO, OIO and I_xO_y is contaminated by photofragmentation of higher order iodine oxides. For this reason, great care needed to be taken to establish a time window for each species wherein higher oxides are not present, to ensure that any depletion in the mass spectrometric signal for each species is exclusively due to the removal of the species via photolysis. Evidence of fragmentation comes in the form of a secondary growth in the signal seen for IO and OIO. The delay between the excimer and the Nd:YAG photolysis laser was therefore carefully selected to coincide with a period of relatively constant signal of the desired analyte, typically a maximum for short lived species, or a slow rise for larger reaction products of interest.

The photolysis laser depletes any analyte within the photolysis volume which exhibits a bound-unbound transition at the energy of the photolysis wavelength used for each experiment. The signals for a certain m/z ratio before and after the photolysis laser is fired are respectively noted as S_0 and S_1 (Figure 4). Absorption cross sections were then calculated by comparing the relative signal change ($\zeta_{I_xO_y}$) for the analyte of interest to the relative signal change (ζ_{REF}) for a molecule having a well-studied spectrum in an analogous actinometric experiment using the same configuration and laser fluence. In this way, systematic errors arising from the beam energy and area are eliminated in the determination of the actinic flux F :

$$165 \quad \frac{S_{REF0} - S_{REF}}{S_{REF0}} = \frac{[X_{REF}]_0 - [X_{REF}]}{[X_{REF}]_0} \equiv \zeta_{REF} = 1 - e^{-F \cdot \sigma_{X_{REF}} \cdot \phi_{X_{REF}}} \quad (2)$$

$$F = -\frac{1}{\sigma_{X_{REF}} \cdot \phi_{X_{REF}}} \ln(1 - \zeta_{REF}) \quad (3)$$

Similarly, for the target I_xO_y molecule we have:

$$\frac{S_{I_xO_y0} - S_{I_xO_y}}{S_{I_xO_y0}} = \frac{[I_xO_y]_0 - [I_xO_y]}{[I_xO_y]_0} \equiv \zeta_{I_xO_y} = 1 - e^{-F \cdot \sigma_{I_xO_y} \cdot \phi_{I_xO_y}} \quad (4)$$

$$\sigma_{I_xO_y} \cdot \phi_{I_xO_y} = -\frac{1}{F} \ln(1 - \zeta_{I_xO_y}) \quad (5)$$

170 Inserting equation 3 in equation 5, we have:

$$\sigma_{I_xO_y} \cdot \phi_{I_xO_y} = \sigma_{X_{REF}} \phi_{X_{REF}} \frac{\ln(1 - \zeta_{I_xO_y})}{\ln(1 - \zeta_{REF})} \quad (6)$$

NO_2 (99.5%, BDH, 10% in He) was the best reference molecule to perform actinometry at 355 nm. In this case, $\sigma_{X_{REF}} = \sigma_{NO_2(355\text{ nm})} = 5.3 \times 10^{-19} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ molecule}^{-1}$ (Vandaele et al., 1998) and $\phi_{X_{REF}} = \phi_{NO_2(355\text{ nm})} = 1$ (Burkholder et al., 2015). Typically, NO_2 depletion was around 8% in the actinometric experiments. For the 532 nm photolysis experiments, OIO was chosen as reference, owing to the low sensitivity of its broad absorption bands to photolysis laser resolution (as opposed, for example, to I_2) and relatively well known absorption cross sections (Bloss et al., 2001; Gómez Martín et al., 2005). Thus $\sigma_{X_{REF}} = \sigma_{OIO(532\text{ nm})} = 9.5 \times 10^{-18} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ molecule}^{-1}$ and $\phi_{X_{REF}} = \phi_{OIO(532\text{ nm})} = 1$ (Gómez Martín et al., 2009). In principle, equation 6 yields the photolysis cross section, i.e. the product $\sigma_{I_xO_y} \cdot \phi_{I_xO_y}$, which is equal to the absorption cross section if $\phi_{I_xO_y} = 1$. This is a reasonable assumption for broad band absorption spectra.



180 2.2. Ab initio calculations

The geometry of the ground electronic state of IO_3 , I_2O_3 , I_2O_4 , I_3O_6 and I_3O_7 was optimized by using the B3LYP functional combined with the standard 6-311+G(2d,p) triple- ζ basis set for O and H, and an all-electron (AE) basis set for I (Glukhovtsev et al., 1995). The AE basis set is a contracted (15s12p6d)/[10s9p4d] 6-311G basis, the [5211111111,411111111,3111] contraction scheme supplemented by diffuse s and p functions, together with d and f polarization functions. See Glukhovtsev et al. (1995) for further details. Figure 5 illustrates the geometries of the various iodine oxides and hydroxy- species that are discussed in Section 4. The corresponding molecular parameters (Cartesian coordinates, rotational constants and vibrational frequencies) are listed in **Table 1**.

Table 1: Molecular properties of I_2O_3 , I_2O_4 , I_3O_6 (cyclic), I_3O_6 (linear), I_3O_7 (cyclic), I_3O_7 (linear), IO_3 and the transition state for dissociation of IO_3 to $\text{IO} + \text{O}_2$ (illustrated in Figure 5); and the stationary points on the $\text{IO}_3 + \text{HO}_2$ surface (Figure 11).

Molecule	Cartesian co-ordinates /Å ^a	Rotational constants /GHz ^a	Vibrational frequencies /cm ⁻¹ ^a
I_2O_3	I, -0.009, -0.201, -0.192 O, -1.208, -0.160, 1.377 I, -0.583, 0.643, 3.128 O, 0.427, 1.521, -0.391 O, 1.423, -1.065, 0.438	4.46970, 0.57042, 0.55739	44, 88, 241, 256, 299, 450, 624, 872, 902
I_2O_4	O, -1.655, -0.203, 1.563 I, 0.046, 0.313, 1.770 O, 0.699, 0.048, -0.103 O, 0.936, -0.982, 2.619 I, -0.385, -0.913, -1.502 O, -1.272, 0.428, -2.370	3.55600, 0.49098, 0.47135	48, 67, 92, 164, 248, 260, 308, 444, 538, 812, 874, 906
I_3O_6 (cyclic)	I, 1.335, -1.791, -0.031 O, 1.569, 0.091, -0.823 O, 3.064, -2.228, 0.378 I, 1.319, 1.750, 0.186 O, -0.279, 1.411, 0.952 O, 1.051, 2.850, -1.192 I, -2.620, -0.026, 0.066 O, -1.412, -1.310, -0.437 O, -4.280, -0.729, -0.202	0.44642, 0.26455, 0.17279	18, 26, 54, 59, 66, 70, 87, 107, 116, 171, 202, 274, 295, 319, 444, 563, 783, 804, 814, 843, 898
I_3O_6 (linear)	O, -0.860, 0.445, 0.841 I, -0.142, -0.977, -0.191 O, 1.698, -0.828, 0.694 O, -2.369, -1.079, -0.706 I, 3.054, 0.513, 0.198 O, 2.321, 1.165, -1.301 O, 4.415, -0.561, -0.236 I, -3.219, 0.313, 0.228 O, -3.185, 1.803, -0.797	1.40546, 0.15363, 0.14491	21, 33, 60, 69, 85, 98, 122, 166, 184, 262, 268, 302, 313, 343, 442, 565, 664, 699, 843, 871, 903
I_3O_7 (cyclic)	I, 1.050, -1.602, -0.490 O, 1.254, 1.127, -0.500	0.43718, 0.25525, 0.17036	29, 49, 61, 66, 79, 82, 90,



	O, 1.159, -3.334, -0.902 I, 0.374, 2.634, 0.070 O, -1.810, 0.925, 0.501 O, 1.558, 4.011, -0.093 I, -2.237, -0.789, 0.151 O, 0.594, -1.505, 1.245 O, -3.595, -0.762, -1.001 O, -0.813, -1.235, -1.152		111, 123, 171, 186, 262, 279, 302, 308, 324, 494, 566, 782, 807, 852, 862, 905, 909
I₃O₇ (linear)	O, 4.334, 1.318, 0.098 I, 3.552, -0.283, 0.217 O, 1.828, 0.194, 0.994 O, 2.970, -0.766, -1.411 I, 0.004, 0.013, 0.002 O, -1.823, -0.085, -0.997 O, 0.008, -1.794, 0.247 I, -3.543, -0.351, -0.118 O, -2.958, -0.382, 1.579 O, -4.337, 1.219, -0.426	2.11361, 0.11760, 0.11718	21, 25, 33, 44, 46, 60, 84, 140, 186, 203, 263, 266, 296, 312, 320, 418, 433, 552, 635, 759, 867, 867, 901, 902
IO₃	I, 0.080, 1.235, 0.000 O, 0.645, -0.481, 0.000 O, 0.645, 2.092, 1.486 O, 0.645, 2.092, -1.486	6.18204, 6.18204, 3.57497	258, 258, 268, 766, 766, 799
TS for IO₃ → IO + O₂	I, 0.205, 0.253, -0.082 O, 1.400, -1.046, 0.249 O, -1.406, -0.589, -0.790 O, -1.419, -0.181, 0.909	8.93231, 4.04781, 3.81028	-914, 142, 252, 354, 701, 867
IO₃-HO₂ complex	I, -0.649, 0.251, 0.072 O, -0.420, -1.455, 0.587 O, -0.429, 1.299, 1.501 O, 1.098, 0.455, -0.961 O, 2.104, -0.347, -0.326 O, 2.090, -1.626, -0.927 H, 1.449, -2.095, -0.357	4.44296, 1.49686, 1.34348	64, 143, 192, 226, 297, 316, 464, 530, 568, 719, 860, 903, 938, 1453, 3638
TS from IO₃-complex to HIO₃ + O₂	I, 0.131, 1.178, -0.047 O, 0.550, -0.594, 0.341 O, 0.383, 2.058, 1.482 O, 1.579, 1.575, -1.172 O, 2.931, 0.475, -0.440 O, 2.661, -0.726, -0.774 H, 1.671, -0.878, -0.163	4.24271, 1.59293, 1.46409	1000i, 74, 225, 250, 288, 323, 377, 500, 624, 711, 823, 904, 1246, 1306, 1749
HIO₃	I, 1.574, -0.480, 0.151 O, -0.137, -0.710, -0.315 O, 2.309, 0.401, -1.439 O, 1.647, 0.832, 1.363 H, 1.792, 1.203, -1.629	5.68293, 5.36595, 3.62995	62, 258, 274, 304, 584, 871, 901, 981, 3732

190 ^a Calculated at the B3LYP/gen level of theory (see text)

The absorption cross-sections of the aforementioned molecules were calculated using the time-dependent density functional (TD-DFT) excited states method (Stratmann et al., 1998) within the Gaussian 16 suite of programs (Frisch et al., 2016). The



vertical excitation frequencies ($\tilde{\nu}_i$) and oscillator strengths (f_i) were obtained for the first 30 excited states. The cross section $\sigma(\tilde{\nu})$ at frequency $\tilde{\nu}$ was then computed using the GaussView program (Dennington et al., 2016):

$$195 \quad \sigma(\tilde{\nu}) = 2.17 \times 10^{-16} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{f_i}{\Delta} \exp \left[- \left(\frac{\tilde{\nu} - \tilde{\nu}_i}{\Delta} \right)^2 \right] \right) \quad (7)$$

where the summation is over the 30 electronic excited states and $\sigma(\tilde{\nu})$ is in units of $\text{cm}^2 \text{ molecule}^{-1}$. Each peak is assumed to have a Gaussian band shape with a width Δ , set here to the default value (Dennington et al., 2016) of 0.4 eV.

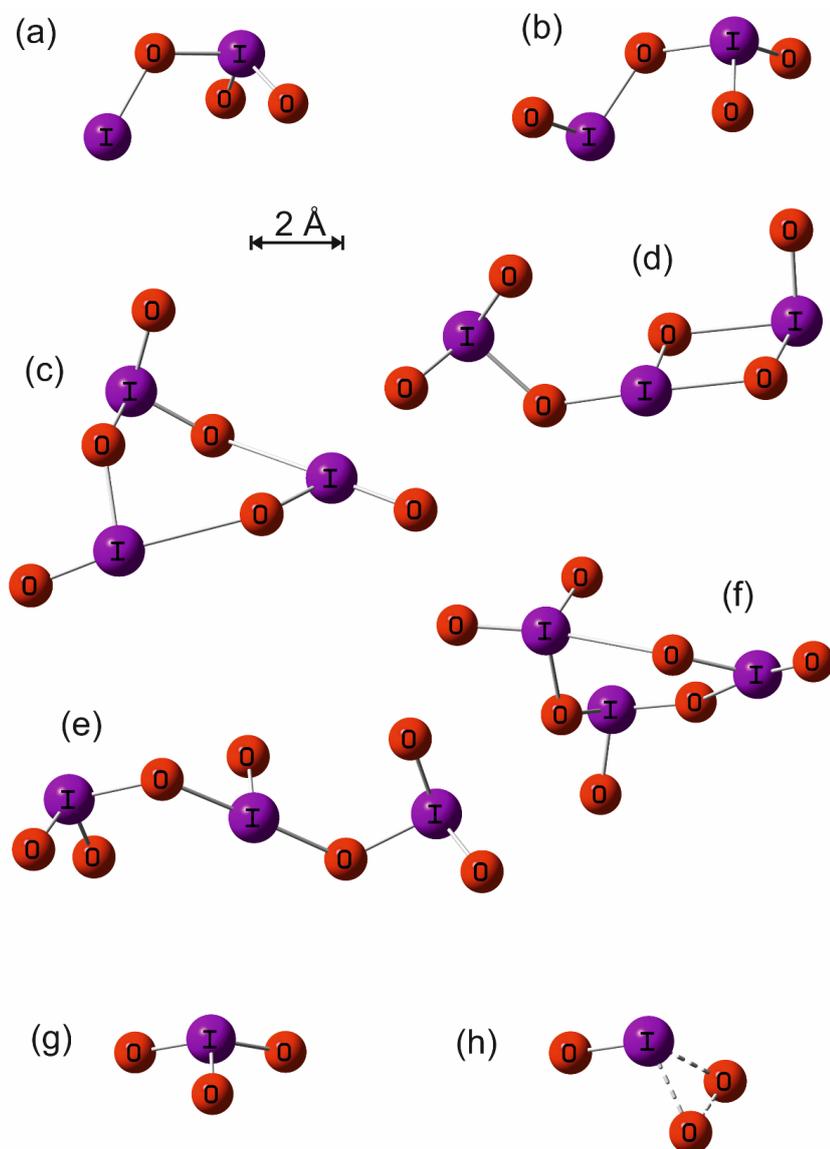


Figure 5: Molecular geometries of I_2O_3 , I_2O_4 , I_3O_6 (cyclic), I_3O_6 (linear), I_3O_7 (cyclic), I_3O_7 (linear), IO_3 and the transition state for dissociation of IO_3 to $\text{IO} + \text{O}_2$, calculated at the B3LYP/gen level of theory (see text for details).



2.3. Photolysis rate calculations

In this study we employ the global 3D model CAM-Chem (Community Atmospheric Model with chemistry, version 4.0), included in the CESM framework (Community Earth System Model) (Lamarque et al., 2012), to estimate the photolysis rate (J) of the different I_xO_y species according to their computed absorption cross-section, constrained by the experimental data at 532 and 355 nm. CAM-Chem has been configured with a 2.5° longitude by 1.9° latitude spatial resolution and 26 vertical level (from the surface to up to 40 km). The model was run in the specified dynamics mode (Lamarque et al., 2012), using offline meteorological fields from a previous free-running climatic simulation (Fernandez et al., 2014; Saiz-Lopez et al., 2015). CAM-Chem implements a state-of-the-art halogen chemistry scheme (Fernandez et al., 2014; Saiz-Lopez et al., 2014; Saiz-Lopez et al., 2015). This chemical scheme is fed by both organic and inorganic halogen emission sources (Ordóñez et al., 2012; MacDonald et al., 2014). Saiz-Lopez and co-workers ((Saiz-Lopez et al., 2014), hereafter SL2014) conducted two sets of simulations without and with the photolysis of I_xO_y oxides in CAM-Chem to evaluate the range of inorganic iodine loading, partitioning and impact in the troposphere. The photolysis of I_xO_y was based on the best available knowledge at that time on the major I_xO_y species (I_2O_2 , I_2O_3 and I_2O_4) and their absorption cross sections (Gómez Martín et al., 2005; Gómez Martín et al., 2013). In this study we run photolysis simulations and compare the J values with the new cross sections to those in SL2014.

3. Results

3.1. Photolysis at 355 nm

As described in the experimental section, kinetic profiles of the growth and removal of the target iodine oxide species were carried out in order to define the time periods with the most suitable kinetic profiles for photolysis measurements. In the case of IO and OIO, the photolysis delay was selected based on the location of the maxima of their kinetic profiles. Typically, this was around 1 and 2 ms for IO and OIO respectively. IO showed a clear depletion of ~20% at 355 nm (Figure 6a) corresponding to a cross section of $\sigma_{355 \text{ nm, IO}} = (1.2 \pm 0.1) \times 10^{-18} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ molecule}^{-1}$ (based on an average of 3 measurements) in excellent agreement with the most recent determinations based on absorption spectroscopy (Bloss et al., 2001; Spietz et al., 2005), where the presence of an underlying absorption corresponding to a product of reactions R2, R4, R5 or R6 was accounted for (Atkinson et al., 2007) (Figure 6b). We consider the mutual consistency between our measurement and the most reliable determinations of the IO cross section at 355 nm as a validation of our method for determining the absorption cross sections of I_xO_y species. As expected, no significant depletion was observed for OIO, with an upper limit of $\sigma_{355 \text{ nm, OIO}} < 10^{-19} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ molecule}^{-1}$ based on the noise of the mass spectrometric signal at m/z 159. No significant depletion was observed for I_2O_3 (m/z =302) at 355 nm (Figure 7, top left), and an upper limit for the absorption cross section of $\sigma_{355 \text{ nm, I2O3}} < 5 \times 10^{-20} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ molecule}^{-1}$ was determined based on the average noise of the I_2O_3 signal. By contrast, I_2O_4 was depleted by 355 nm photolysis by ~40% (Figure 7, top right), corresponding to a photolysis cross-section of $\sigma_{355 \text{ nm, I2O4}} = (2.7 \pm 0.3) \times 10^{-18} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ molecule}^{-1}$ (based on an average of



2 measurements).

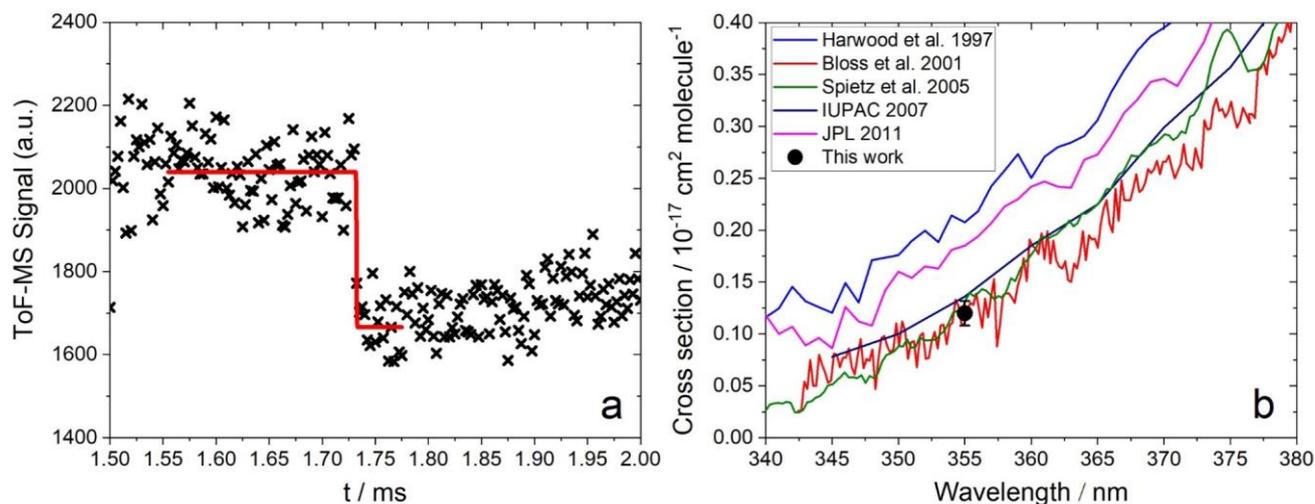


Figure 6: Panel a: measured photodepletion of IO ($m/z = 143$). Panel b: comparison of published absorption cross section with the absorption cross section at 355 nm determined in this work

The molecular clusters I_3O_7 ($m/z = 493$) and I_5O_{12} (827) are two of the major peaks of successive mass peak progressions observed in the mass spectra in Figure 3. Experimental runs with wider spectral windows show peaks that correspond to even larger molecular clusters: I_7O_{17} (1161), I_9O_{22} (1495), $\text{I}_{11}\text{O}_{27}$ (1829) and $\text{I}_{13}\text{O}_{32}$ (2163). Notably, no mass peaks with even number of iodine atoms appear. It is also interesting that these peaks are separated by 334 atomic mass units, which is the value of m/z for I_2O_5 . Although I_2O_5 is not observed in the gas phase, it is noted that as the clusters grow larger, the ratio O:I ratio tends to 2.5, reaching 2.46 for $\text{I}_{13}\text{O}_{32}$, i.e. within the range of variability of the O:I ratio of iodine oxide particles (IOPs) determined by EDX ($\text{O/I} = 2.42 \pm 0.05$) (Saunders et al., 2010). The prominent peak at $m/z = 493$ is the largest mass observed in our previous work on I_xO_y (Gómez Martín et al., 2013) and appears in all the spectra acquired in the course of the present work. From the observed photodepletion of I_3O_7 at 335 nm we have determined an absorption cross section of $\sigma_{335 \text{ nm}, \text{I}_3\text{O}_7} = (5.3 \pm 1.4) \times 10^{-18} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ molecule}^{-1}$ (based on an average of 3 measurements) (Figure 7). The measured cross section for the I_5O_{12} cluster is $\sigma_{355 \text{ nm}, \text{I}_5\text{O}_{12}} = (9.8 \pm 1) \times 10^{-18} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ molecule}^{-1}$ (based on an average of 2 measurements). The determined cross sections and upper limits at 355 nm are listed in **Table 2**.

Fragmentation precludes determination of photolysis products at 355 nm (channels of photochemical reactions R9-R11) due to the fact that the signal arising from parent ions (which may be 355 nm photolysis products), is indistinguishable from daughter ions resulting from fragmentation of higher oxides due to the 118 nm photoionization. For any given species, possible increases in signals corresponding to products of photolysis at 355 nm are offset by the decrease in the parent ion concentration and therefore the daughter ion signal. As an example, consider I_3O_7 photolysis at 355 nm. The peaks of the possible photolysis products I_2O_3 , I_2O_4 , OIO and IO (referred to here as photofragments), prior to photolysis will have contributions from the parent ion signals of these species, as well as daughter ion signals of I_3O_y . Upon photolysis of I_3O_7 , the concentration of I_3O_7



will decrease, causing a decrease in the parent ion signal, and therefore the daughter ion signals, resulting in turn in a net negative impact on the amplitude of all daughter ion signals. In addition to the decrease in daughter ion signals resulting from possible photofragment species, the parent ion signal for the photolabile species (IO , I_2O_4 in this example) will decrease due to direct photolysis of these species. Concurrently with the decrease in the I_3O_7 parent ion signal, there will be a positive contribution to some or all of the concentrations of possible photofragment parent ion signals. It is impossible to separate these contributions to the net change in signal magnitude, and therefore the products of these photolysis processes cannot be determined.

250

255 As indicated by reactions R10b and R11b, IO_3 ($m/z = 175$) is a potential product of I_2O_3 and I_2O_4 photolysis. However, this species has never been observed in the gas phase. According to our ab initio calculations, the ionisation potential of IO_3 is 12.1 eV, which is higher than the photoionization energy employed in the present work (10.5 eV).

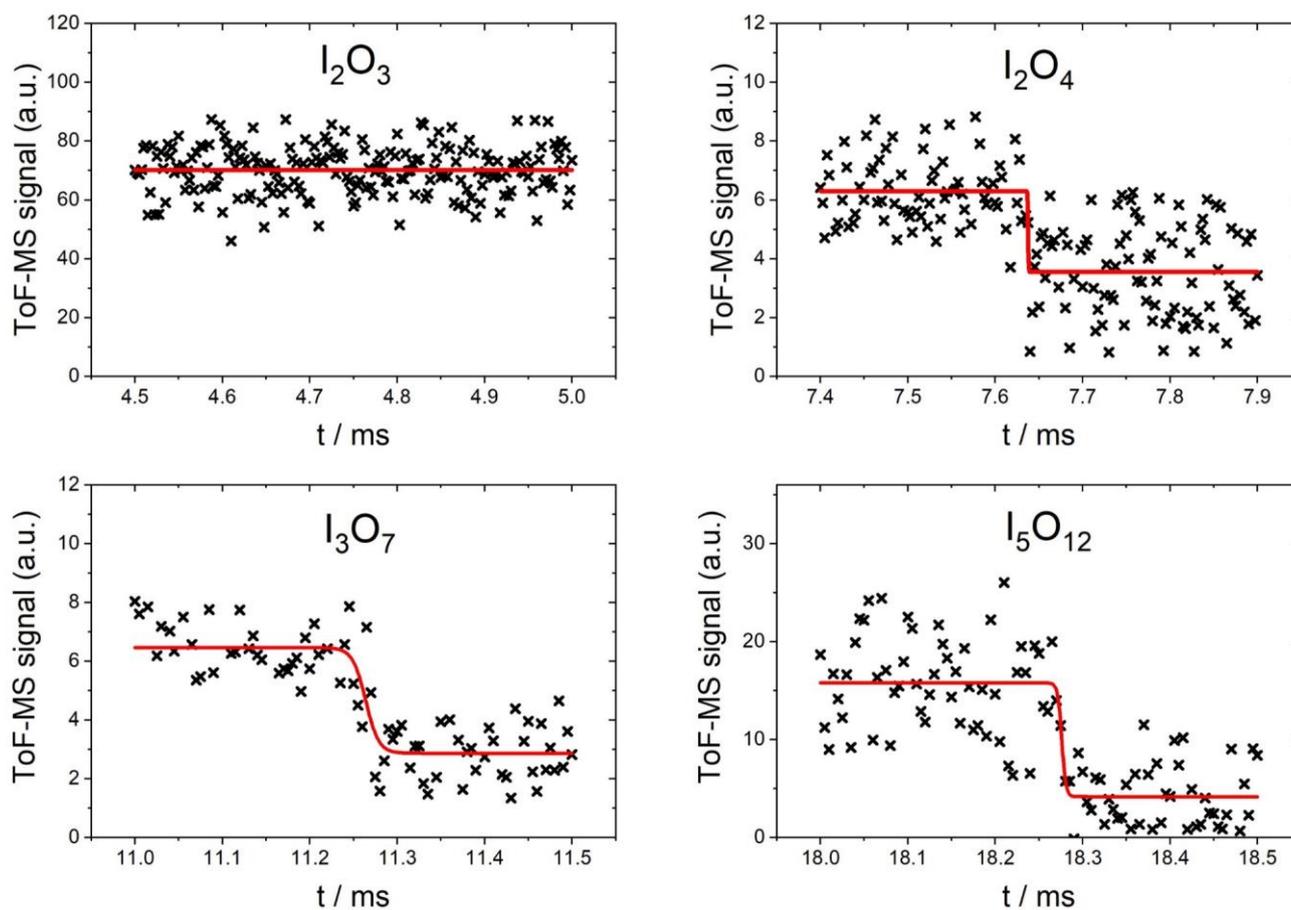


Figure 7: Measured photodepletion at 355 nm of I_2O_3 , I_2O_4 , I_3O_7 and I_5O_{12} .



3.2. Photolysis at 532 nm

As expected (Gómez Martín et al., 2009), OIO shows strong depletion in the 532 nm photolysis experiments, and it is therefore used as the actinometer at this wavelength. None of the higher order iodine oxides showed measurable depletion above the noise. Table 2 lists the upper limits to the absorption cross-sections of each species at 532 nm, determined from the signal-to-noise ratio of the recorded traces.

Table 2: Absorption cross sections of iodine oxides at 532 nm and 355 nm

Species	$\sigma_{355 \text{ nm}} / \text{cm}^2 \text{ molecule}^{-1}$	$\sigma_{532 \text{ nm}} / \text{cm}^2 \text{ molecule}^{-1}$
IO	$(1.2 \pm 0.1) \times 10^{-18}$	<i>a</i>
OIO	$< 10^{-19}$	<i>b</i>
I ₂ O ₃	$< 5 \times 10^{-19}$	$< 5.0 \times 10^{-19}$
I ₂ O ₄	$(3.9 \pm 1.2) \times 10^{-18}$	$< 1.3 \times 10^{-18}$
I ₃ O ₆	$(6.1 \pm 1.6) \times 10^{-18}$	$< 1.5 \times 10^{-18}$
I ₃ O ₇	$(5.3 \pm 1.4) \times 10^{-18}$	$< 1.4 \times 10^{-18}$
I ₅ O ₁₂	$(9.8 \pm 1.0) \times 10^{-18}$	$< 1.5 \times 10^{-18}$

^a The 0←0 band of IO is placed at 465.5 nm (Spietz et al., 2005), and therefore, there cannot be any band of ground state IO ($v'' = 0$) at a longer wavelength. There is a hot band at ~530 nm (0←4), but the $v'' = 4$ state is not populated at room temperature in equilibrium.

^b Actinometer

4. Discussion

4.1. Absorption spectra

A time-dependent broad band absorption was observed by Bloss et al. (2001) concurrently with the IO self-reaction decay, which was assigned to I₂O₂. The shape of the band was observed to be different for $\lambda < 360$ nm depending on the chemical scheme employed to generate iodine oxides. Later, a broad band absorption with a similar spectral slope was reported (Figure 8) together with targeted UV measurements showing that the band peaks around 250 nm (Gómez Martín et al., 2005; Spietz et al., 2005). The kinetics of the absorption spectrum for $\lambda > 310$ nm were found to result from the overlap of at least two different species, one dominating the absorption below 340 nm (labelled as Y) and another one dominating from 340 nm towards the visible (labelled as Z). It was found that the kinetics of species Y was compatible with a product of the IO self-reaction, i.e. I₂O₂. By contrast Z, which would be similar to the spectrum measured by Bloss et al. for $\lambda > 360$ nm, was not compatible with a product of the IO self-reaction, and it was tentatively assigned to I₂O₃.

Gomez Martin et al. (2005) derived the cross section of the species Y and Z at 322 nm and 356 nm respectively, using an iodine mass conservation approach where the depletion of the I₂ precursor was balanced by the sum of atomic iodine contained in the oxides formed after the photolysis flash. The cross sections were determined in a per iodine atom basis. Assuming



absorbers with two iodine atoms, the spectra of Y and Z were scaled as shown in Figure 8 (Saiz-Lopez et al., 2014). Since the spectra are featureless, they can be assumed to result from bound to free transitions, justifying a unit photolysis quantum yield of the molecules generating them.

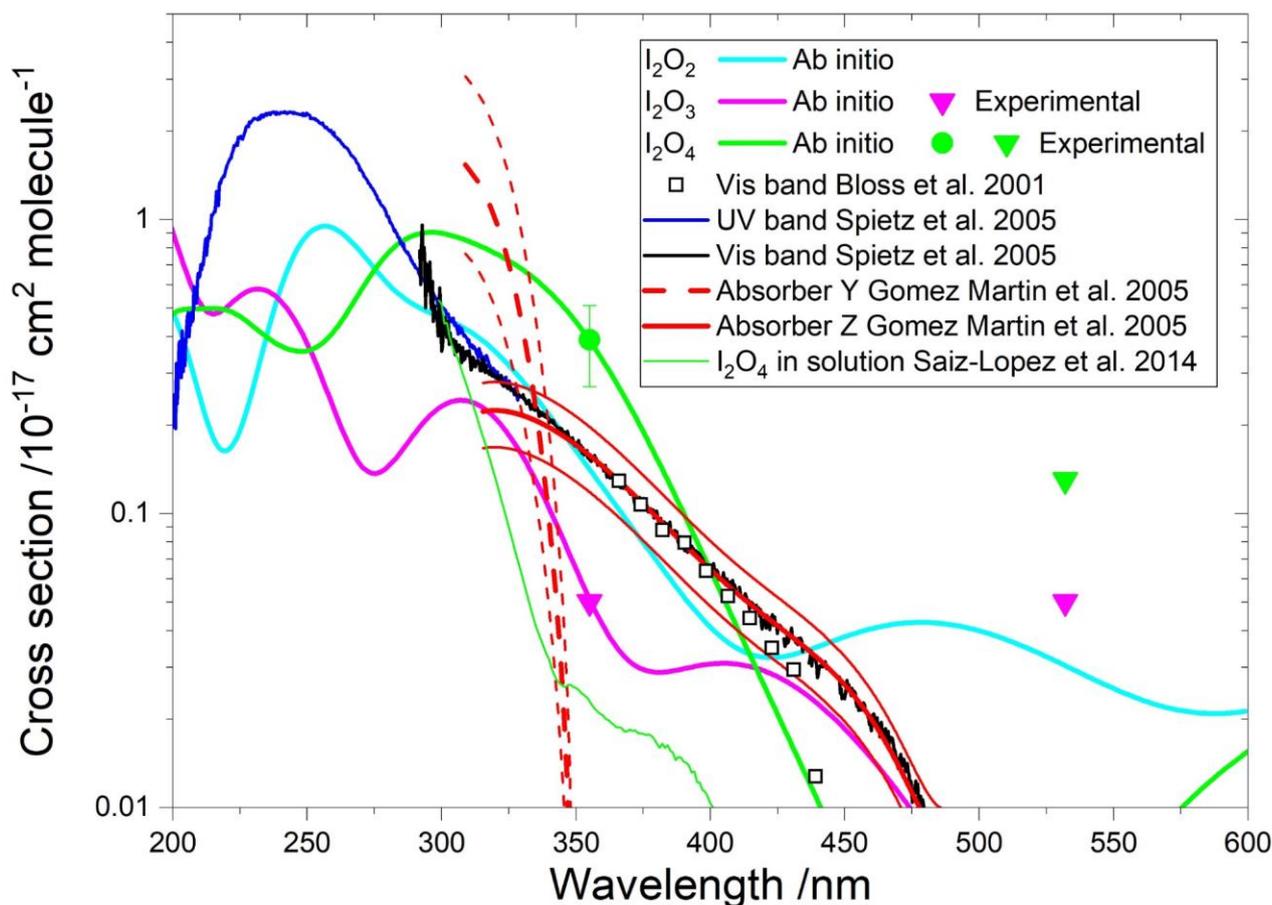


Figure 8: Absorption cross sections of I_2O_2 , I_2O_3 and I_2O_4 . The cyan, pink and green lines correspond to the respective ab initio spectra. The pink and green symbols indicate respectively the measured absorption cross sections of I_2O_3 and I_2O_4 (triangles indicate upper limits). The empty squares correspond to an absorption band reported by Bloss et al. (2001) in 8 nm interval averages for $\lambda > 362$ nm. The blue and black lines correspond to absorption bands reported by Spietz et al. (2005). The latter was found to be a superposition of two absorptions with different kinetic behaviour, denoted Y (dashed red line) and Z (solid red line) (Gómez Martín et al., 2005). The thin red lines represent the uncertainties of these spectra, which mainly originate from the absolute absorption cross sections of Y and Z at 322 and 356 nm respectively. A spectrum of I_2O_4 in solution is indicated in green (Saiz-Lopez et al., 2014).

285 The absorption cross sections determined in this work from photodepletion of I_2O_3 and I_2O_4 at 355 nm do not confirm the previous tentative assignment of absorber Z to I_2O_3 . The cross section of I_2O_4 obtained from our photodepletion experiments is in better agreement with the absorber Z. Also, it appears that the spectrum of I_2O_4 in solution largely underestimates the gas-phase spectrum. The absorption of Z at 355 nm in Figure 8 lies slightly below the I_2O_4 cross section determined in the present



work, which is consistent with a contribution to Z of other I_xO_y species with $x > 2$ (i.e. the scaling of the spectrum should be effectively higher than the factor of 2 used by Gomez Martin et al. (2005)). In fact, the theoretical spectra of I_2O_4 , I_3O_6 and I_3O_7 (Figure 8 and Figure 9) show similar shapes between 300 and 500 nm. It is very likely that the absorption band extending from 200 nm to nearly 500 nm (blue and black lines in Figure 8) results from the overlap of absorptions corresponding to several I_xO_y species. Therefore, these experimental absorption spectra are not useful for photolysis rates calculations unless

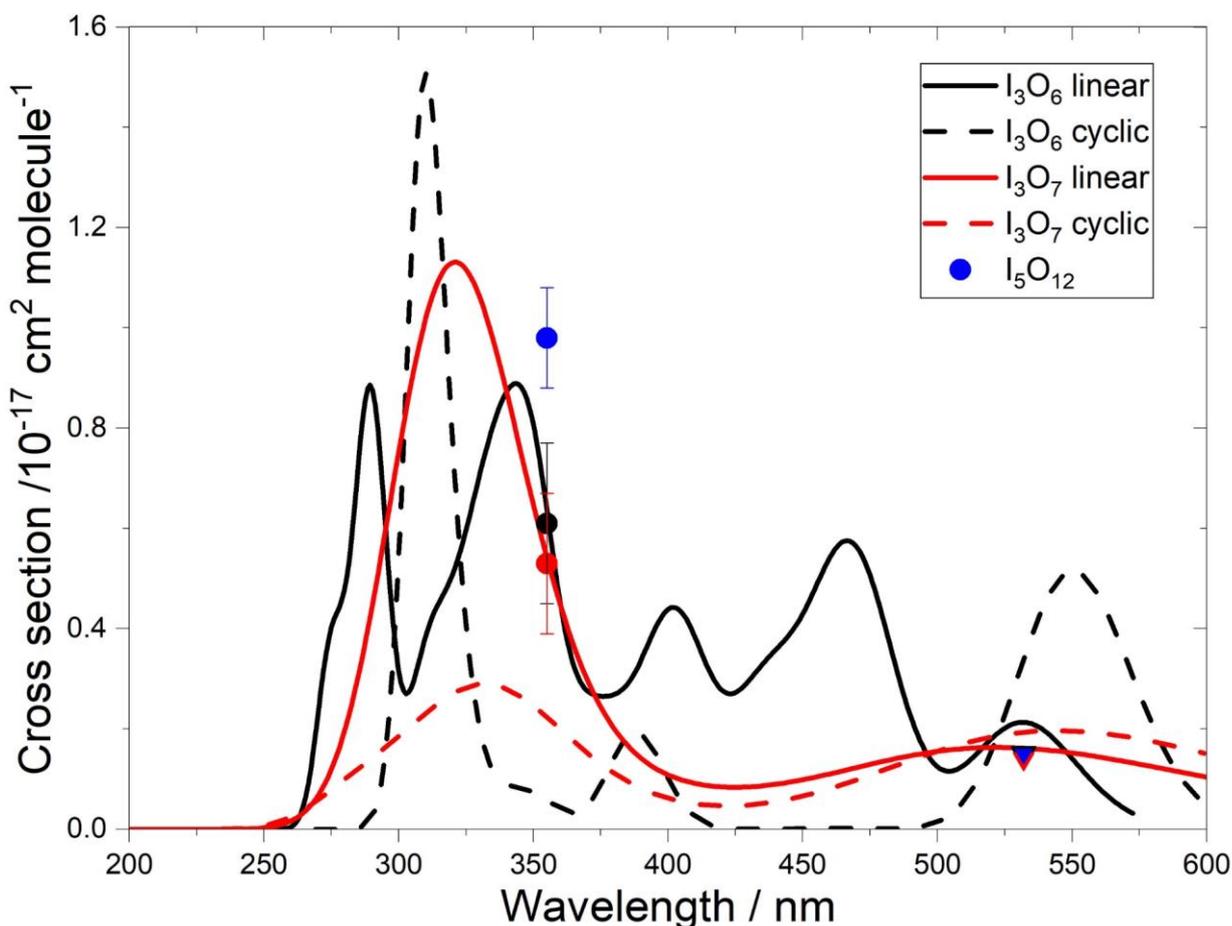


Figure 9: Absorption cross section spectra of I_3O_6 (black lines and symbols), I_3O_7 (red lines and symbols) and I_5O_{12} (blue symbols). *Ab initio* spectra of linear and cyclic isomers are shown by solid and dashed lines, respectively.

further deconvolution enables separation of the different contributions.

The calculated spectra shown in Figure 8 and Figure 9 agree generally well with the experimentally determined values at 355 nm and 532 nm, with only the upper limits for I_3O_6 and I_3O_7 appearing to be below the calculated values at 532 nm. Note that theoretical absorption cross section spectra for both the linear and cyclic forms (Figure 5) of I_3O_6 and I_3O_7 are shown in Figure 9. The linear forms of both species fit significantly better to the experimental values, suggesting the linear form is the one which is formed preferentially in these reactions.



4.2. Photolysis products

300 The likely photodissociation pathways of I_2O_3 and I_2O_4 can be elucidated by seeing how the geometry of each excited state relaxes after vertical excitation from the ground-state geometry using the TD-DFT method (see Section 2.2). In the case of I_2O_3 , excitation in both the bands at 334 and 453 nm (Figure 8) produces a pronounced extension of the I– IO_3 bond, indicating photolysis leading to $\text{I} + \text{IO}_3$ (R10b). For I_2O_4 , excitation at 667 nm and in its strong band at 324 nm produces $\text{IO} + \text{IO}_3$, whereas absorption in the weak band at 366 nm produces $\text{OIO} + \text{OIO}$.

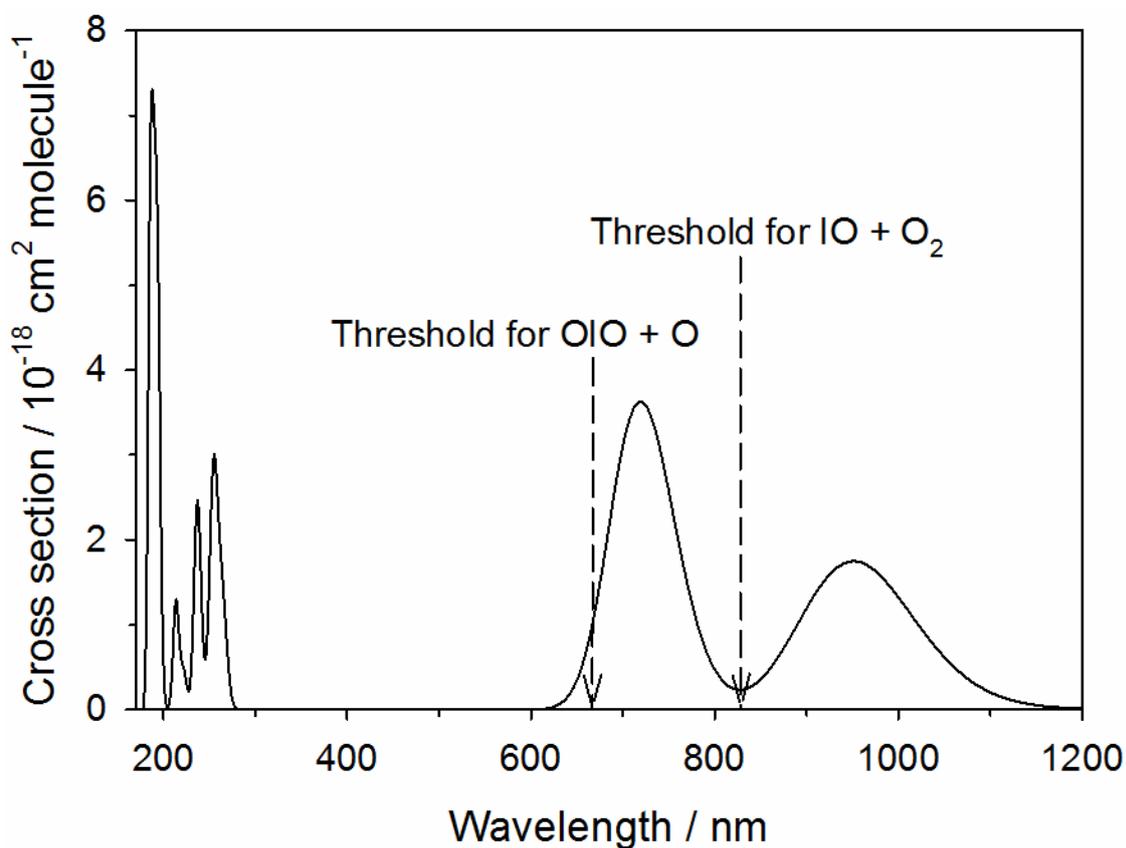


Figure 10: Absorption spectrum of IO_3 calculated at the TD/B3LYP/gen level of theory (see text for further details). The arrows indicate the energy thresholds for the two photodissociation pathways.

305 The theoretical absorption spectrum of IO_3 is shown in Figure 10, calculated at the same level of theory as described in Section 2.2. IO_3 absorbs in the tropospheric solar actinic range in two near-IR bands centered at 710 and 950 nm. There are two possible photolysis pathways:





310 The first channel requires 180 kJ mol^{-1} to break the $\text{O}_2\text{I}-\text{O}$ bond (not including spin-orbit coupling), corresponding to a photolytic threshold of 665 nm. R16 is closely analogous to the photolysis of OIO in its band between 500 and 600 nm, where the I atom is squeezed out from between the two O atoms in a process that overall is actually exothermic because of the strength of the newly-formed O_2 bond (Gómez Martín et al., 2009). In the same way, R16 is exothermic by 78 kJ mol^{-1} . However, there is a barrier of 145 kJ mol^{-1} involved in squeezing the IO out from between the 2 oxygen atoms. This corresponds to a photolytic
315 threshold of 827 nm. Both of these thresholds are indicated on Figure 10. This shows that absorption across the entire 710 nm band is sufficient for photolysis via R16 to occur. If that were the case, then $J(\text{IO}_3 \rightarrow \text{IO} + \text{O}_2)$ could be as large as 0.15 s^{-1} . Photolysis via R15 is just possible in the short wavelength tail of the 710 nm band, so $J(\text{IO}_3 \rightarrow \text{OIO} + \text{O})$ could be as large as 0.007 s^{-1} . It therefore seems likely that photolysis of IO_3 is fast and mainly produces IO.

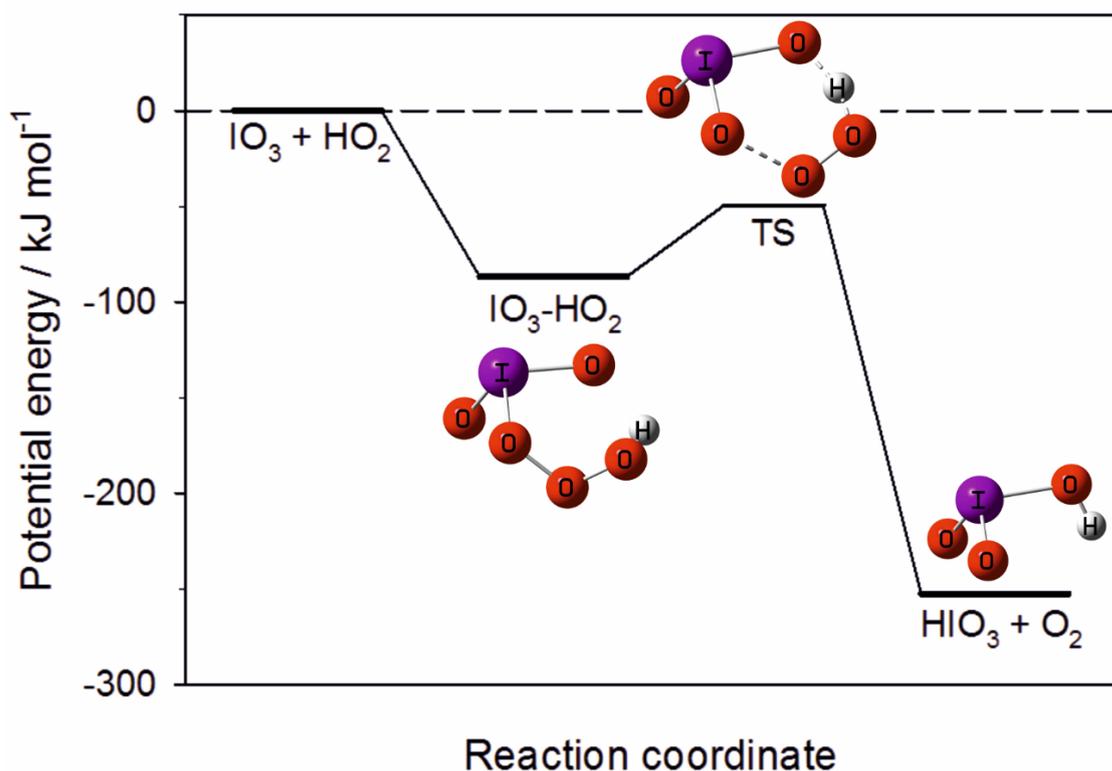


Figure 11: Potential energy surface for the reaction between IO_3 and HO_2 to produce HIO_3 , calculated at the B3LYP/gen level of theory (see text for further details).

320 If, however, photolysis of IO_3 is significantly slower than this upper limit, the molecule could persist in the atmosphere long enough to undergo reaction with other molecules. An intriguing possibility is that IO_3 may be a source of HIO_3 . The reaction



is endothermic by 25 kJ mol^{-1} (14 kJ mol^{-1} according to previous work at higher level of theory (Khanniche et al., 2017b)),



and so most likely does not occur. However, the reaction



325 is very exothermic with a deep submerged barrier (Figure 11). A Rice-Ramsperger-Kassel-Markus (RRKM) calculation using
the MESMER program (Glowacki et al., 2012) with the molecular parameters in Table 1 indicates that the rate constant of
R17 is $k(290 \text{ K}) \sim 3 \times 10^{-11} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecule}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$. Given that $[\text{HO}_2]$ is typically $3 \times 10^8 \text{ molecule cm}^{-3}$ at midday (Stone et al.,
2012), IO_3 could be converted to HIO_3 with a reaction rate of $\sim 0.01 \text{ s}^{-1}$ i.e. about 15 times slower than the upper limit to the
330 photolysis rate discussed above. R17 could therefore provide a route to HIO_3 formation, and this should be the subject of future
investigation.

4.3. Atmospheric implications

The theoretical spectra constrained with the measurements at 355 nm and 532 nm have been implemented in CAM-Chem in
order to calculate photolysis rates for I_2O_y ($y = 2, 3, 4$) and I_3O_7 . The main changes with respect to SL2014 are:

1. The new I_2O_2 cross sections are lower in the UV than those of the absorber Y used in SL2014 (Figure 8) and extend
335 over a wider range of the actinic range.
2. I_2O_3 and I_2O_4 have respectively lower and higher absorption cross sections than in SL2014, as a result of replacing
the absorption Z and the I_2O_4 spectrum in solution in favour of theoretical spectra constrained with experimental
values. The cross section of I_2O_3 is lower, but only by a factor of ~ 2 in the important region between 350 nm and 450
nm. The cross sections of I_2O_4 increase by 1 order of magnitude with respect to the spectrum in solution.
- 340 3. Higher iodine oxides like I_3O_7 and I_5O_{12} not included in SL2014 also photolyze. They show bands in the green part
of the spectrum (Figure 9) and therefore have higher photolysis rates than I_2O_4 .

Annual zonal-average photolysis rate plots are shown in Figure 12 and Figure 13. Surface atmospheric photolysis of all the
 I_xO_y species is generally fastest between 30° and -30° latitude, displaying slight minima at 5° and -5° latitude due to attenuation
345 of actinic flux by cloud cover at the intertropical convergence zone. Average I_xO_y global J values in the upper troposphere
exhibit a maximum around 5° latitude, where solar flux is highest. At 5° latitude, I_2O_2 and I_2O_4 J values are largest at an
altitude of 8 km. Similarly, the J values for I_2O_3 and I_3O_7 at 5° latitude are highest at 8 km, and then remain relatively constant
above 20 km. In contrast with J values for I_xO_y at 5° latitude, values at mid-latitudes increase with altitude, showing no maxima
at 8 km. The observed increase in J values at 8 km is explained by the albedo effect of cloud cover in certain regions,
350 particularly the intertropical convergence zone, contributing to the total (incident + reflected) solar flux in these regions.

Figure 12(d-f) show the percentage difference between the SL2014 J values and those calculated in this study. As a result of
the new I_2O_2 cross sections extending across the actinic window, this species shows an increase in J values at all latitudes, with
the largest increases seen at the poles ($\sim 300\%$ increase), and lower increases of around 100% near the equator. I_2O_3 shows a
uniform decrease of around 46% across all latitudes and altitudes, as expected from the approximately uniform decrease of the



355 new spectrum with respect to absorber Z , which was taken as I_2O_3 in SL2014. I_2O_4 exhibits the largest increase in J values across all latitudes, ranging from 750% at 40 km between -30° and 30° latitude, up to increases above 1000% at the poles.

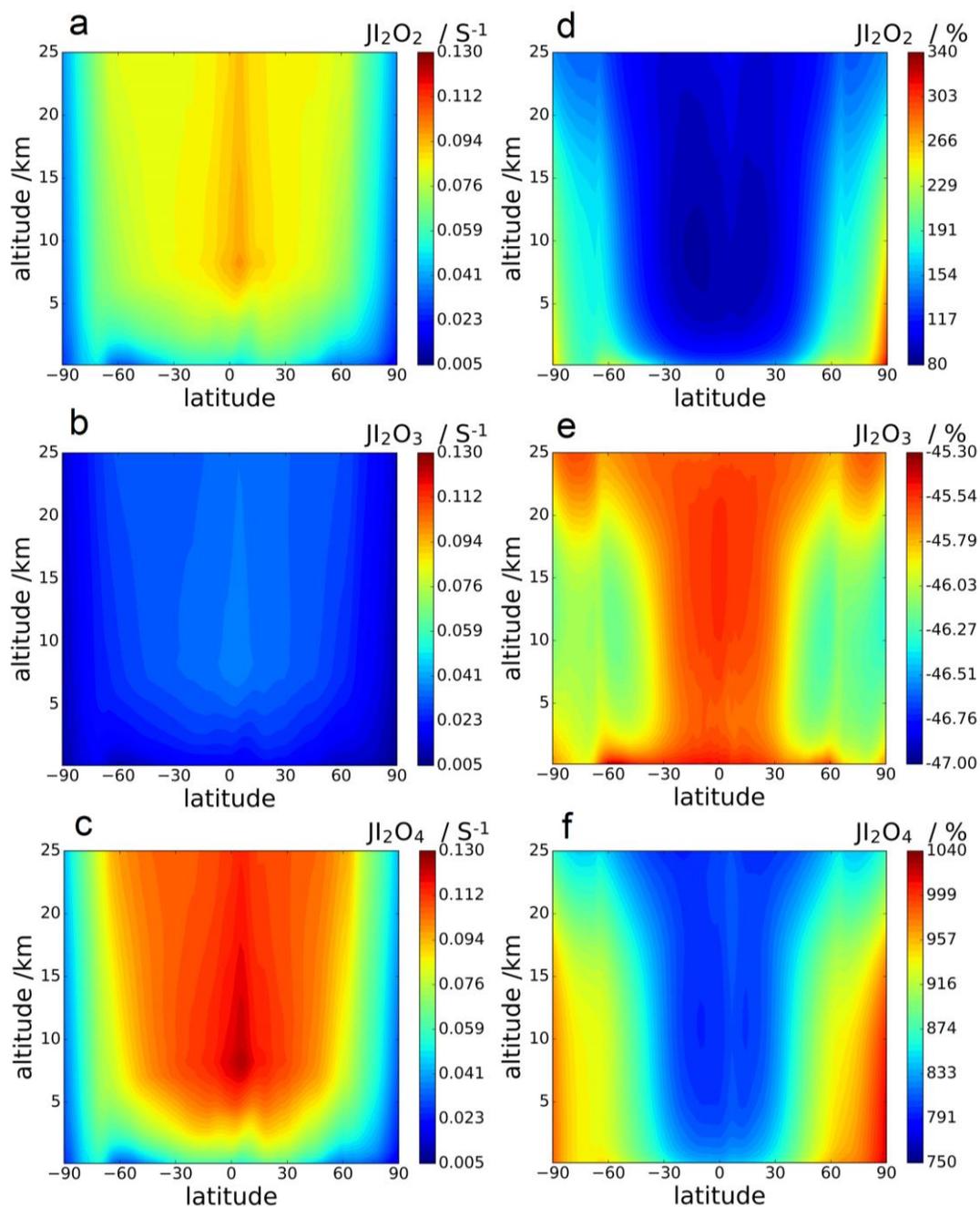


Figure 12: Annual zonal average J value vertical profiles for I_2O_2 , I_2O_3 and I_2O_4 (panels a, b and c, respectively; note that the colour scale is the same for these three panels) and the percentage change between the SL2014 annual zonal average J value vertical profiles, and the profiles in this study (panels d, e and f, respectively)



360 Photolytic lifetimes of I_xO_y species in the troposphere vary from a few seconds for the most photolabile species, i.e. I_3O_7 , to several minutes for I_2O_3 , which has the smallest absorption cross-sections in the actinic region and the smallest J values of the species in this study. Mid and high-latitudes exhibit particularly low J surface values and encompass many coastal regions where active iodine concentrations are high and iodine-driven particle formation has been reported (Saiz-Lopez et al., 2012b). Photolysis of higher iodine oxides (R9-R11) competes with gas-to-particle formation (R7) and recycles IO_x , which participates in ozone depleting cycles (e.g. R1-R3). Therefore, higher J values at the surface tend to hinder particle formation and enhance ozone depletion. The new spectra result in decreased photolysis lifetimes of I_2O_2 (factor of ~ 3) and I_2O_4 (factor of ~ 10) and indicate that photolysis of nascent iodine clusters such as I_3O_7 and I_5O_{12} may further slow down particle formation. On the other hand, the lifetime I_2O_3 is approximately doubled, which increases the chances of participating in other reactions, including clustering with other I_xO_y . Whether this may balance the decrease in the photolysis lifetimes of other species or not remains to be studied in future work. I_2O_3 is believed to be an important iodine reservoir and key intermediate in the formation of new particles (Gómez Martín et al., 2013; Saiz-Lopez et al., 2014), but there is a substantial lack of mechanistic information about iodine oxides and how they may convert (or not) into HIO_3 .

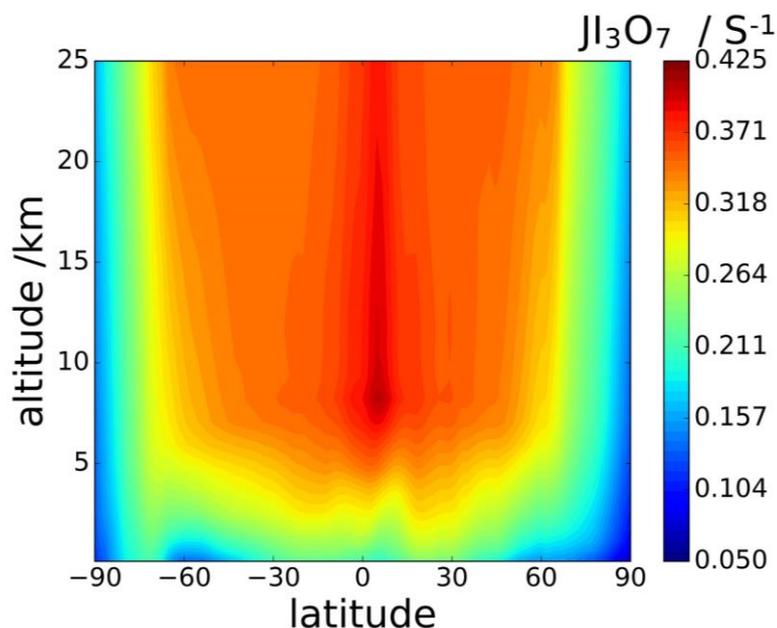


Figure 13: Annual zonal average vertical J value profile for I_3O_7 (not included in SL2014)

370 Another hotspot of iodine chemistry is the tropical upper troposphere - lower stratosphere region (UTLS), where significant concentrations of iodine exist as a result of strong convection carrying iodine precursors emitted at the ocean surface (mainly CH_3I). The effect of the new spectra on the J values in this region is similar to the effect at the surface, although the changes are less pronounced. In the UTLS, I_xO_y molecules play the role of iodine reservoirs and, as a result of the enhanced actinic flux (see J maxima between 8 and 17 km around the equator in Figures 12 and 13), their photolysis has a significant impact on ozone depletion in this climatically sensitive region (Saiz-Lopez et al., 2012a). Iodine recycling in aerosol is believed to



play an important role in explaining observed concentrations of gas-phase IO_x (Koenig et al., 2020). The form in which gas-phase iodine (oxides, oxyacids or nitrate) is taken up in sulphate aerosol may also determine the extent to which iodine can return to the gas phase.

To investigate with more detail the effect of the new spectra on particle formation, iodine speciation in aerosol and ozone depletion, the iodine chemistry scheme in CAM-Chem needs to be expanded to include the photolysis products and yields of I_xO_y photolysis reactions, as well as the reactions of the possible photoproducts, which are poorly known. New laboratory and theoretical work is required to solve these uncertainties. The mechanism of IOP formation remains controversial, with two possible pathways proposed via I_xO_y and HIO_3 . Work on the IOP formation mechanism conducted in the course of this research will be published elsewhere. Future laboratory measurements of I_xO_y spectra and kinetics may benefit from a multiplexed approach where tuneable photoionization mass spectrometry, absorption spectroscopy and multi-wavelength laser photodepletion are used concurrently. A follow up modelling study will be conducted with an updated mechanism for atmospheric iodine chemistry, including the photochemistry outlined in this paper, as well as a chemical scheme for IOP formation.

5. Conclusion

The photodepletion laboratory experiments reported in this work confirm that I_xO_y species are photolabile, and therefore supports the $J(\text{I}_x\text{O}_y)$ scenario in ASL2014, with important consequences for ozone depletion. The values of the absorption cross sections obtained at 355 nm and 532 nm have been employed to revisit the assignment of absorption bands in previous work. Also, comparison between theoretical spectra and measurements gives some clues about the geometry of the molecules. I_2O_3 has a smaller absorption cross-section in the actinic region than previously thought, which may facilitate other reactions, including clustering to form new particles. Other I_xO_y species have larger absorption cross-sections in the actinic region, resulting in rapid photolysis to smaller iodine-containing molecules. Possible photolysis products include IO_3 , which could be a precursor of HIO_3 in the marine boundary layer. These new findings highlight the need for new experimental and theoretical studies, particularly investigating the products of these photochemical processes, as well as the effect on IOPs (and therefore cloud condensation nuclei) formation.

Author contribution. A. S.-L. devised the research. J. C. G. M., M. A. B. and J. M. C. P. designed the experimental set up, and T. R. L. carried out the experiments and analysed the data; J. M. C. P. and J. C. G. M. carried out electronic structure and master equation calculations; C. A. C. carried out radiative transfer calculations; T. R. L. and J. C. G. M. wrote the manuscript with contributions from all co-authors.

Competing interests. The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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