

A kinetic compass for the design of experiments to determine kinetic parameters

Matteo Krüger

Max Planck Institute for Chemistry

Ashmi Mishra

Max Planck Institute for Chemistry

Peter Spichtinger

Johannes Gutenberg University

Ulrich Pöschl

Max Planck Institute for Chemistry

Thomas Berkemeier

t.berkemeier@mpic.de

Max Planck Institute for Chemistry

Research Article

Keywords: Chemical Kinetics, Experiment Design, Global Optimization, Inverse Problem, Ensemble Methods, Multiphase Chemistry, Machine Learning

Posted Date: September 6th, 2023

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.21203/rs.3.rs-3317747/v1>

License:   This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License.

[Read Full License](#)

Additional Declarations: No competing interests reported.

Version of Record: A version of this preprint was published at Journal of Cheminformatics on March 22nd, 2024. See the published version at <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13321-024-00825-0>.

A kinetic compass for the design of experiments to determine kinetic parameters

Matteo Krüger¹, Ashmi Mishra¹, Peter Spichtinger², Ulrich Pöschl¹,
Thomas Berkemeier^{1*}

^{1*}Multiphase Chemistry Department, Max Planck Institute for Chemistry,
Hahn-Meitner-Weg 1, Mainz, 55128, Rhineland Palatinate, Germany.

²Institute for Atmospheric Physics, Johannes Gutenberg University,
Johann-Joachim-Becher-Weg 21, Mainz, 55128, Rhineland Palatinate, Germany.

*Corresponding author(s). E-mail(s): t.berkemeier@mpic.de;

Contributing authors: m.krueger@mpic.de; a.mishra@mpic.de; spichtin@uni-mainz.de;
u.poschl@mpic.de;

Abstract

Kinetic process models are widely applied in science and engineering, including atmospheric, physiological and technical chemistry, reactor design, or process optimization. These models rely on numerous kinetic parameters such as reaction rate, diffusion or partitioning coefficients. Determining these parameters by experiments can be challenging, especially for multiphase systems, and researchers often face the task of intuitively selecting experimental conditions to obtain insightful results. We developed a kinetic compass (KC) method that integrates kinetic models, global optimization, ensemble methods, and machine learning to identify experimental conditions with the greatest potential to constrain kinetic parameters. The approach is based on the quantification of model output variance in an ensemble of solutions that agree with experimental data. The utility of the KC method is demonstrated for the kinetic parameters in a multi-layer model describing the heterogeneous ozonolysis of oleic acid aerosols. We show how neural network surrogate models of the multiphase chemical reaction system can be used to accelerate the application of the kinetic compass for a comprehensive mapping and analysis of experimental conditions. The code is openly available and can be adapted to various types of process models.

Keywords: Chemical Kinetics, Experiment Design, Global Optimization, Inverse Problem, Ensemble Methods, Multiphase Chemistry, Machine Learning

1 Introduction

2 In multiphase chemical kinetics, the rate of change
3 in complex systems can be described by resolv-
4 ing mass transport and chemical reactions at the
5 molecular process level [1, 2]. While the underlying

6 physical and chemical principles are well under-
7 stood, the individual processes are inherently
8 coupled and the chemical and physical param-
9 eters, such as reaction, diffusion, or partitioning
10 coefficients, are often unknown or poorly con-
11 strained [3, 4]. The integration of these processes
12 occurring in parallel or in sequence often requires

13 computational kinetic models (KM). KM return 63
14 the concentration time profiles of reactants or 64
15 products under specified environmental or exper- 65
16 imental conditions [5–10]. However, the input 66
17 parameters for KM may not be known *a priori*, 67
18 and their determination can be challenging [11– 68
19 14]. The deduction or constraint of model input 69
20 parameters from model output is known as solving 70
21 the inverse problem. In practice, researchers often 71
22 utilize statistical approaches to solve the inverse 72
23 problem with global optimization techniques [15– 73
24 18]. Such techniques determine sets of parameter 74
25 values, so-called fits, that lead to model outputs 75
26 in agreement with previously acquired experimen- 76
27 tal data. In ill-posed problems, Berkemeier et al. 77
28 2021 [19] proposed the consideration of ensem- 78
29 bles of sufficiently well-fitting parameter sets to 79
30 extract information from the corresponding range 80
31 of kinetic model solutions in underdetermined 81
32 optimization problems. All kinetic parameter sets 82
33 in such a *fit ensemble* represent valid solutions 83
34 that match the experiments taken into account, 84
35 within a specified error margin.

36 Surrogate models (SM) are machine learning 86
37 models that are trained on inputs and outputs 87
38 of a template model. A SM can be used to sub- 88
39 stitute the template model in applications that 89
40 benefit from low computational cost in exchange 90
41 for slightly increased model uncertainty. Satisfac- 91
42 tory model accuracy can be ensured by a suffi- 92
43 cient size of the training data set, and therefore 93
44 depends on the initial investment of computa- 94
45 tional resources [20]. SM have helped solving 95
46 the issue of computational cost in many fields 96
47 of research, e.g. in geoscientific and atmospheric 97
48 modelling [21–27], chemical process engineering 98
49 [28], water resources modelling [29, 30], or opti- 99
50 mization in supply chain management [31]. SM 100
51 can also aid inverse modelling approaches. Berke- 101
52 meier et al. 2023 [20] showed that SM-supported 102
53 fit ensemble acquisition greatly outperforms regu- 103
54 lar sampling with the kinetic multi-layer model of 104
55 aerosol surface and bulk chemistry (KM-SUB) [5] 105
56 in terms of acquired fits for a given computational 106
57 effort. However, it remains unclear how SM uncer- 107
58 tainty affects the reliability of inverse modelling 108
59 techniques.

60 Among model input parameters, we differen-
61 tiate between kinetic parameters that define the
62 physical and chemical properties of the modelled

system (e.g. reaction rate coefficients), and param-
eters that define the environmental or experi-
mental conditions (e.g. initial concentrations or
temperature). When a model is evaluated for
experimental conditions that differ from those for
which its kinetic parameters were derived, model
uncertainty may strongly increase [2]. This situ-
ation may arise in particular when the data
underlying the model is limited, or when condi-
tions in the laboratory experiment (e.g. a test
reactor) deviate from the real-world application of
interest (e.g. the atmosphere, an industrial plant,
or an engine). Furthermore, when extrapolating a
model to conditions outside its calibration range,
not all fits in a fit ensemble may behave in the
same way. This ensemble variance associated with
a fit ensemble can be used to assess the model’s
fit uncertainty over a range of experimental condi-
tions [19]. The ensemble variance at a specific set
of experimental conditions may also be an indica-
tor for parameter sensitivity, and of the potential
to constrain the model if experimental data was
available for these conditions. Thus, while data
from any additional experiment may decrease the
fit uncertainty of an associated model, this pro-
cess can be optimized by selecting experimental
conditions associated with high ensemble variance.
These conditions are most likely to constrain the
underlying model and its physical and chemical
parameters.

For experimenters, it is difficult to guess such
optimal conditions *a priori*. In the fields of engi-
neering and materials science, so-called calibration
experiment design optimization techniques opti-
mize experimental inputs to maximize the infor-
mation obtained with a limited testing budget
[32–34]. However, to our knowledge, there are
no general, quantitative tools available that uti-
lize kinetic process models to guide laboratory
experiments. In this study, we present the kinetic
compass (KC), a method that optimizes the selec-
tion of future laboratory experiments to minimize
a model’s fit uncertainty. The KC is used alongside
the kinetic multi-layer model of aerosol surface
and bulk chemistry (KM-SUB), and a neural net-
work SM for it, to demonstrate its functionality in
experiment design and inverse modelling.

2 Method

We present the kinetic compass (KC), a method for experiment prioritization and reduction of a model’s fit uncertainty. The method requires a process model, data from previous laboratory experiments, and a set of variable experimental parameters that describe future experiments of interest. The individual steps of the proposed workflow are displayed in Fig. 1.

2.1 Inverse modelling solutions and uncertainty

The KC can be described as a method for uncertainty quantification. A kinetic model’s uncertainty can be based on model inadequacy, i.e. lack of knowledge of the underlying physics or chemistry, or model parametric uncertainty, i.e. insufficient knowledge of its input parameters. Parametric uncertainty is caused by the coupled nature of parameters and by underdetermination of the modelled system. To estimate parametric uncertainty, inverse modelling can be extended to an ensemble of kinetic parameter sets that return sufficient agreement with multiple experimental data sets [15, 19]. All possible sets of chemical and physical parameter values that lead to a sufficiently low residual between model output and experimental data, so-called fits, form the solution space of a kinetic model. In practice, we use a finite collection of fits, referred to as *fit ensemble*, as representation of the model solution space. Additional experimental data can help to narrow down the fit ensemble and thus decrease model parametric uncertainty.

2.2 Operating principle

The KC is a framework to optimize the deduction or constraint of kinetic parameters with experiments. In general, the information gained from new experimental data can be used to reject fits from a fit ensemble. The KC finds experimental conditions with the highest constraint potential, optimizing the reduction of model solution space and model parametric uncertainty. For this purpose, the method computes ensemble solutions under experimental conditions that have not been considered previously, and determines the ensemble variance under these conditions. We present two metrics evaluating the ensemble variance, the

ensemble spread of model solutions (Sect. 2.3) and the *parameter (boundary) constraint potential* (Sec. 2.4). By sampling the space of feasible experiments, *constraint potential maps* (Sec. 2.5) of these metrics are obtained. Maxima on these maps represent prospective experiments that are most likely to achieve large constraints of the model. After fit ensemble filtering based on the new experimental data, the KC method can be repeated to suggest the next experiment. In this study, we simulate the suggested laboratory experiments with the model KM-SUB to showcase the alternating application of the KC with laboratory experiments. For more detailed and mathematical definitions of process models, their solution space, as well as fit ensembles and ensemble solutions, see Suppl. Note 1. For the specifications of fit ensemble acquisition and error calculation in this study, see Suppl. Note 2.

2.3 Ensemble spread

The ensemble spread is a measure for the variance between a multitude of model predictions. Resembling similar concepts in weather and climate forecasting [35], we calculate the ensemble spread (ES) as:

$$ES = \frac{\int (\overline{Z}(x) + \sigma_Z(x)) dx - \int (\overline{Z}(x) - \sigma_Z(x)) dx}{\int \overline{Z}(x) dx} \quad (1)$$

where $(x_m)_{m=1, \dots, n_z}$ is the sequence of independent variables associated with the output sequence $(z_m)_{m=1, \dots, n_z}$, and $\int \overline{Z}$, $\int \overline{Z} + \sigma$ and $\int \overline{Z} - \sigma$ are integrals of the interpolated sequences $(\overline{Z}_m)_{m=1, \dots, n_z}$, $(\overline{Z}_m + \sigma_m)_{m=1, \dots, n_z}$ and $(\overline{Z}_m - \sigma_m)_{m=1, \dots, n_z}$ for n_z model outputs with an ensemble mean \overline{Z}_m and ensemble standard deviation σ_m (Suppl. Note 3).

In short, the ensemble spread describes the area enclosed by the curves of the ensemble mean \pm its standard deviation, normalized by the area under the ensemble mean curve. Visualizations of the ensemble spread as constraint potential metric are provided in Fig. 2D,E. A large ensemble spread is generally associated with a larger fraction of rejected fits during fit ensemble filtering.

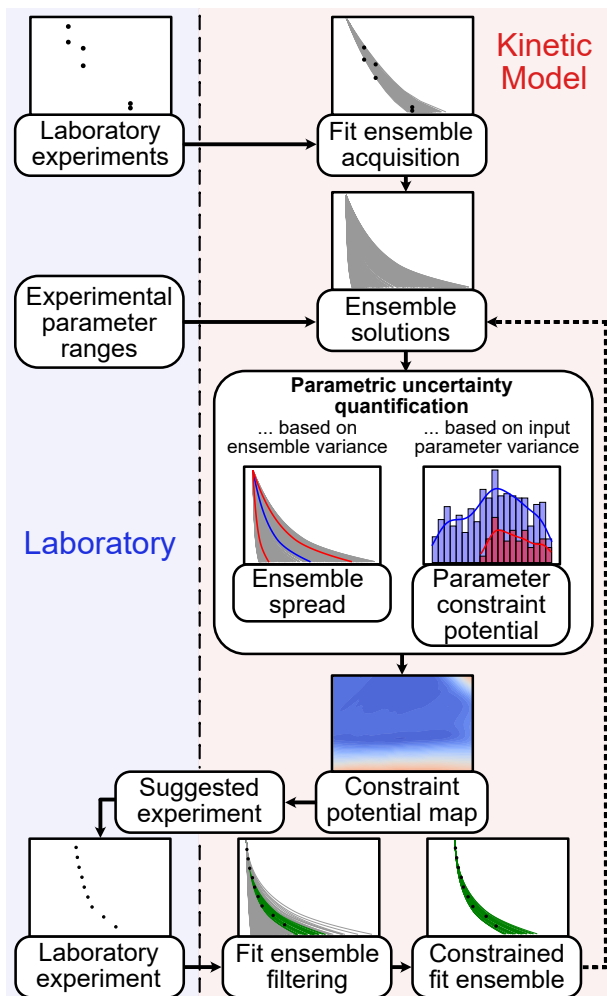


Fig. 1 Workflow of the kinetic compass (KC) method presented in this study. The method relies on exchange between laboratory experiments (left) and model calculations (right) to eliminate variance in model output. Data from laboratory experiments are used for the acquisition of a fit ensemble, which are kinetic parameter sets that lead to model outputs in agreement with the experimental measurements. Evaluating the model for the entire fit ensemble and over a defined range of experimental parameters yields sets of ensemble solutions that serve as the basis for all calculations with the KC. The KC offers two metrics for parametric uncertainty quantification: ensemble spread, and parameter (boundary) constraint potential (Sec. 2.4). The metrics are used to build constraint potential maps, which highlight areas with large model output variance in the experimental parameter range. These experimental parameters are suggested as next experiment as they are likely to lead to rejection of a large number of fits during fit ensemble filtering. The KC can be used iteratively (dashed arrow), using the ensemble solutions of the constrained fit ensembles.

2.4 Parameter boundary constraint potential

The parameter (boundary) constraint potential allows an extension of the method to constraints of individual kinetic parameters. The metric quantifies the potential narrowing of an individual parameter's boundaries in the constrained fit ensemble.

In brief, the parameter constraint potential is calculated by iterating over predictions in an ensemble solution. In each iteration, we calculate the distribution of remaining kinetic parameters in a hypothetical constrained fit ensemble that would be obtained if one selected fit of the ensemble would represent the truth. The kinetic parameter's boundaries in this distribution are normalized by its current boundaries in the fit ensemble to

215 compute a numerical value for the parameter’s
216 constraint potential.

217 To calculate the parameter (boundary) con-
218 straint potential, we determine the subset C of the
219 fit ensemble FE. C contains all fits that lead to
220 model solutions within error threshold θ in com-
221 parison to the model solution of subset-forming fit
222 FE_l :

$$C_l = \{FE_r : \Delta(ENS_l, ENS_r) < \theta\} \quad (2)$$

223 where ENS_l and ENS_r are the model solutions
224 using fits FE_l and FE_r in the evaluated ensemble
225 solution (ENS). Hence, we obtain one subset C_l
226 for each selected subset-forming fit FE_l . If every
227 fit is evaluated as subset-forming fit in turn, n_{FE}
228 subsets are generated for every ensemble solution.
229 The parameter constraint potential (CP) for a spe-
230 cific parameter λ_p and ensemble solution is then
231 defined as:

$$CP_p = \sum_{l=1}^{n_{FE}} (Q10_{\lambda_p, l} - \min(\lambda_p)) + (\max(\lambda_p) - Q90_{\lambda_p, l}) \quad (3)$$

232 where $Q10_{\lambda_p, l}$ and $Q90_{\lambda_p, l}$ are the 10- and 90-
233 percentiles of the distribution of λ_p in subset C_l ,
234 respectively. $\min(\lambda_p)$ and $\max(\lambda_p)$ are the global
235 minimum and maximum of the selected kinetic
236 parameter in the entire fit ensemble.

237 Note that the computational effort associated
238 with this method is large due to the pairwise com-
239 parison of all predictions in an ensemble solution.
240 Therefore, we suggest an approximation based on
241 a reduced sample density. A detailed definition of
242 the parameter constraint potential with reduced
243 sample density is presented in Supplementary
244 Note 4 and visualized in Fig. S4.

245 2.5 Constraint potential maps

246 The application of a metric for model constraint
247 potential on a range of ensemble solutions (one for
248 each tested experimental condition) can be visu-
249 alized in a constraint potential map. This map
250 is a n -dimensional hypersurface, where n is the
251 number of varied experimental parameters, and
252 whose maxima represent experimental conditions
253 favorable for constraint of the underlying model.
254 An example for a constraint potential map is pre-
255 sented for two varied experimental parameters and
256 the ensemble spread metric in Fig. 2. For further

257 information on the chemical system (oleic acid
258 ozonolysis) and the variable experimental param-
259 eters (particle radius, ozone concentration), as well
260 as a description of the restrictions regarding exper-
261 imental accessibility applied in this work, see Sec.
262 2.6, Suppl. Note 5, and Fig. S5. Note that while
263 we evaluate a full grid of combinations of experi-
264 mental parameters for the purpose of testing and
265 visualization, the constraint potential metrics can
266 similarly be used with an optimization algorithm
to reduce the required computational effort.

267 2.6 Kinetic multi-layer model and 268 neural network surrogate model

269 In this study, we use the kinetic multi-layer model
270 of aerosol surface and bulk chemistry (KM-SUB)
271 [5] along with experimental data of the heteroge-
272 neous ozonolysis of oleic acid from the literature.
273 However, the KC method can be used with any
274 process model and underlying chemical or physical
275 system. Detailed information about KM-SUB can
276 be found in previous publications [5, 12]. In brief,
277 KM-SUB is a chemical flux model that explic-
278 itly describes gas diffusion, accommodation of gas
279 molecules to surfaces, surface-bulk exchange, bulk
280 diffusion, as well as chemical reaction at the sur-
281 face and in the bulk of a condensed phase. The
282 resulting set of ordinary differential equations is
283 solved numerically. KM-SUB input parameters
284 include initial concentrations, chemical reaction
285 rate coefficients, and mass transport coefficients,
286 and are presented in Table 1. KM-SUB outputs
287 are the concentration profiles over space and time
288 for all chemical species.

289 For the training of neural network surrogate
290 models, KM-SUB output is simplified to nine
291 points of reaction progress, i.e. the time required
292 to reach 90 %, 80 %, 70 %, 60 %, 50 %, 40 %, 30 %, 20 % and 10 % of the total number of oleic acid (OL) in a single aerosol particle, $N_{OL,0}$. For comparability, we represent the output of the full KM-SUB model in this study in the same way. We train a fully-connected, feed-forward neural network on 1×10^6 KM-SUB outputs as training data. For further information on training of the surrogate model see Berkemeier et al. 2023 [20] and Suppl. Note 6.

293 The KC method requires evaluation of the
294 underlying process model during fit ensemble
295 acquisition and during calculation of ensemble
296

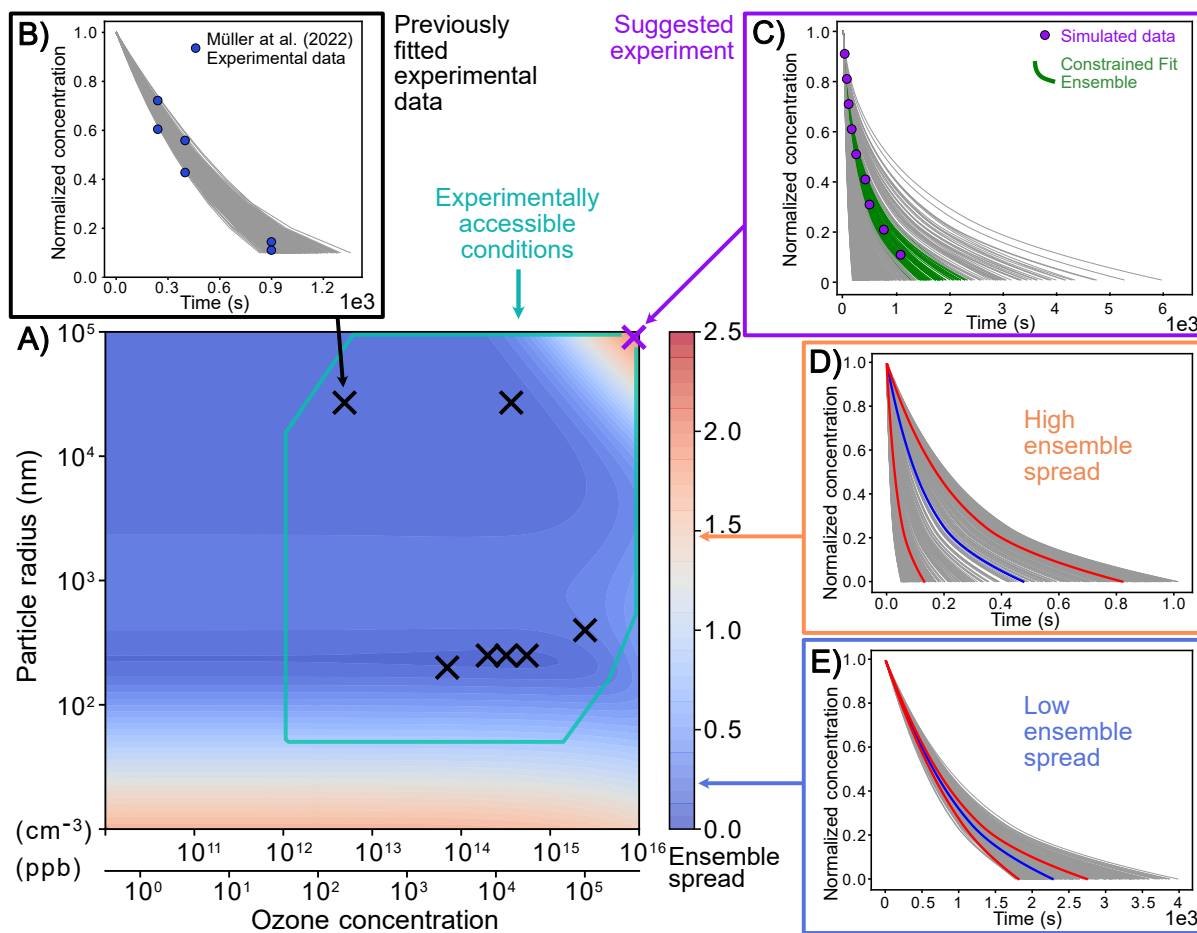


Fig. 2 Constraint potential map obtained with the kinetic compass (KC) method. The contour map in (A) shows an exemplary constraint potential map using the ensemble spread metric. Model calculations are obtained with KM-SUB on a 100×100 grid of two experimental parameters, ozone concentration and particle radius, and for a fit ensemble of 500 fits. The teal box frames the area of experimentally accessible conditions with regards to particle radius, ozone concentration and predicted experiment duration (Suppl. Note 5). Black crosses in (A) mark the experimental conditions of available experimental data that were used to obtain the fit ensemble (cf. Fig. 3) and (B) shows the ensemble solution (gray lines) in comparison to one of these experimental data sets (blue markers). The purple cross in (A) represents the ensemble spread maximum within experimental accessibility and thus the recommended experiment. (C) illustrates the ensemble solution at this ensemble spread maximum. New experimental data from the recommended experiment (purple markers) are used to obtain the constrained fit ensemble (green lines) through rejection of fits. (D) and (E) showcase ensemble solutions with a high ensemble spread of 1.446 and a low ensemble spread of 0.234, respectively. Here, colored lines visualize the mean of the ensemble solution (blue line) and the mean ± 1 standard deviation (red lines).

306 solutions (Fig. 1). In this study, we test and 313
 307 compare three different approaches: using KM- 314
 308 SUB for both steps (KM-only), using the SM 315
 309 for both steps (SM-only), and a KM/SM-hybrid 316
 310 approach, in which KM-SUB is used for fit ensemble 317
 311 acquisition and the SM to obtain ensemble 318
 312 solutions. 319

3 Results and Discussion

3.1 Acquisition of fit ensembles

315 We demonstrate the applicability of the kinetic 316
 317 compass (KC) for the heterogeneous ozonolysis 318
 319 of oleic acid aerosols using the kinetic multi- 320
 320 layer model of aerosol surface and bulk chemistry 321
 (KM-SUB), and a neural network surrogate model 322
 (SM) for it. Both models map seven kinetic and

Table 1 KM-SUB kinetic and experimental input parameters. The respective lower and upper boundaries indicate the initial constraints of the fit ensemble and an estimate of experimentally accessible conditions in a laboratory for atmospheric aerosol chemistry.

Parameter	Lower boundary	Upper boundary	Description
k_{SLR}	1.0×10^{-15}	1.0×10^{-8}	Rate coefficient of OL+O ₃ surface reaction (cm ³ s ⁻¹)
k_{BR}	1.0×10^{-20}	1.0×10^{-11}	Rate coefficient of OL+O ₃ bulk reaction (cm ³ s ⁻¹)
$D_{\text{b,O}_3}$	1.0×10^{-11}	1.0×10^{-5}	Bulk diffusion coefficient of ozone (cm ² s ⁻¹)
$D_{\text{b,OL}}$	1.0×10^{-12}	1.0×10^{-6}	Bulk diffusion coefficient of oleic acid (cm ² s ⁻¹)
$H_{\text{cp,O}_3}$	5.0×10^{-6}	5.0×10^{-3}	Henry’s law solubility coefficient of ozone (mol cm ⁻³ atm ⁻¹)
$\tau_{\text{d,O}_3}$	1.0×10^{-9}	1.0×10^{-2}	Desorption lifetime of O ₃ (s)
$\alpha_{\text{s,0,O}_3}$	1.0×10^{-4}	1	Surface accommodation coefficient of ozone on an adsorbate-free surface ()
r_{p}	2.5×10^{-6}	1.0×10^{-3}	Particle radius (cm)
$[\text{O}_3]_{\text{g,0}}$	1.0×10^{11}	1.0×10^{15}	Initial gas phase number concentration of ozone (cm ⁻³)
$[\text{OL}]_{\text{b,0}}$	1.0×10^{19}	2.0×10^{21}	Initial bulk number concentration of oleic acid (cm ⁻³)

three experimental input parameters (Tab. 1) onto the concentration-time profile of oleic acid. For each model, we obtained fit ensembles (N=500) in compliance with seven experimental data sets [8, 36–38] as shown in Fig. 3. Each kinetic parameter set in the fit ensemble is associated with one model output (gray lines) for each experimental condition. Both fit ensembles (of KM-SUB and the SM) have a minimal mean-squared logarithmic error (MSLE) of 0.0085; the median MSLE are 0.0102 for KM-SUB and 0.0099 for the SM.

3.2 Ensemble spread

Figure 4 displays constraint potential maps for the ensemble spread metric and the variable experimental parameters of particle radius (r_{p}) and ozone concentration ($[\text{O}_3]_{\text{g,0}}$). The conditions associated with the experimental data used to obtain the fit ensemble (black crosses) are, naturally, located in areas of low ensemble spread. Maxima of the ensemble spread, i.e. regions associated with large model variance, occur at very low particle radii (< 50 nm), and for the combination of large radii (> 10 μm) with high ozone concentrations (> 100 ppm). The constraint potential maps obtained with the KM-only approach (panel A) and the KM/SM-hybrid approach (panel B) appear similar overall. The absolute ensemble spread maxima are both located at maximal particle radii and ozone concentrations (purple crosses). As main difference, isopleths appear less

smooth for the SM. A constraint potential map of the SM-only approach is displayed in Fig. S6. The computationally less expensive SM-only method leads to slightly larger differences to the KM-SUB constraint potential map. In particular, the ensemble spread maximum at low particle radii is less pronounced.

3.3 Parameter boundary constraint potential

In addition to the ensemble spread, we apply the KC using both models with the parameter constraint potential (Sec. 2.4). This method aims for a minimization of a chosen kinetic parameter’s uncertainty range in the solution space. Figs. 5A and C display parameter constraint potential maps for the kinetic parameters k_{SLR} and $D_{\text{b,OL}}$, respectively. The maximum of the k_{SLR} constraint potential matches the maximum of the ensemble spread at low particle radii in Fig. 4, whereas the maximum of the $D_{\text{b,OL}}$ constraint potential matches the maximum of the ensemble spread at large radii and high ozone concentrations. Hence, high ensemble spreads appear to be necessary but not sufficient conditions for high parameter constraint potentials.

We simulate the suggested experiments with KM-SUB, using the best fit in the KM-SUB fit ensemble as simulated truth. Under consideration of the original data and the new synthetic experiment, we filter the fit ensembles using the MSLE

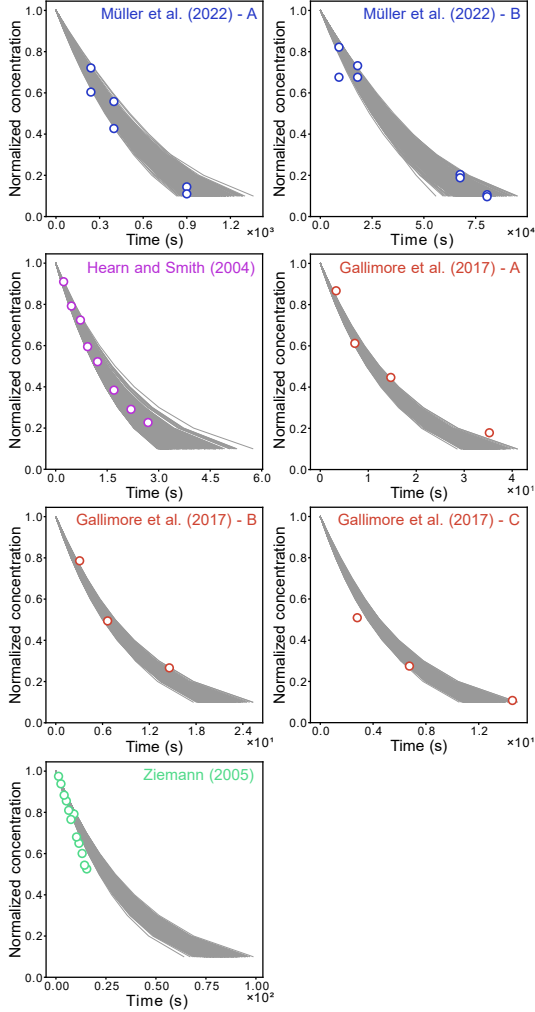


Fig. 3 Ensembles of kinetic multi-layer model of aerosol surface and bulk chemistry (KM-SUB) outputs ($N=500$, gray lines) with a mean square logarithmic error (MSLE) < 0.0105 in comparison with seven literature data sets (markers) of oleic acid aerosol ozonolysis displayed as normalized oleic acid concentrations ($N_{OL,t}/N_{OL,0}$).

381 threshold of $\theta = 0.0105$. Figs. 5B and D show 395
 382 frequency distributions of five kinetic parameters 396
 383 in the fit ensemble before (blue) and after (red)
 384 fit filtering. The experiments suggested by the 397
 385 constraint potential metrics achieve a significant 398
 386 reduction in the uncertainty range for their asso- 399
 387 ciated parameters, k_{SLR} and $D_{b,OL}$, respectively. 400
 388 Simultaneously, constraints are achieved for other 401
 389 parameters, e.g. k_{BR} in Fig. 5B, following the 402
 390 similarity between the parameter constraint poten- 403
 391 tial maps (Fig. S7). Parameter constraint poten- 404
 392 tial maps and simulated constraints for the SM-only 405
 393 approach (Fig. S8) are very similar to those using 406
 394 the KM-only approach. 407

3.4 Statistical testing of the kinetic compass method

408 The KC can be applied repeatedly to narrow down
 model solutions in iterative fashion. Here, we sim-
 ulate this procedure using synthetic experimental
 data, which is obtained by assuming that a single
 fit from the fit ensemble is the true solution of the
 modelled system (the *simulated truth*). The sim-
 ulation is repeated for each fit in the ensemble as
 simulated truth. Detailed information on the sim-
 ulation of experimental data is presented in Suppl.
 Note 7.

Fig. 6 shows the statistics of a total of 500 of
 these simulations with five iterations of the KC,

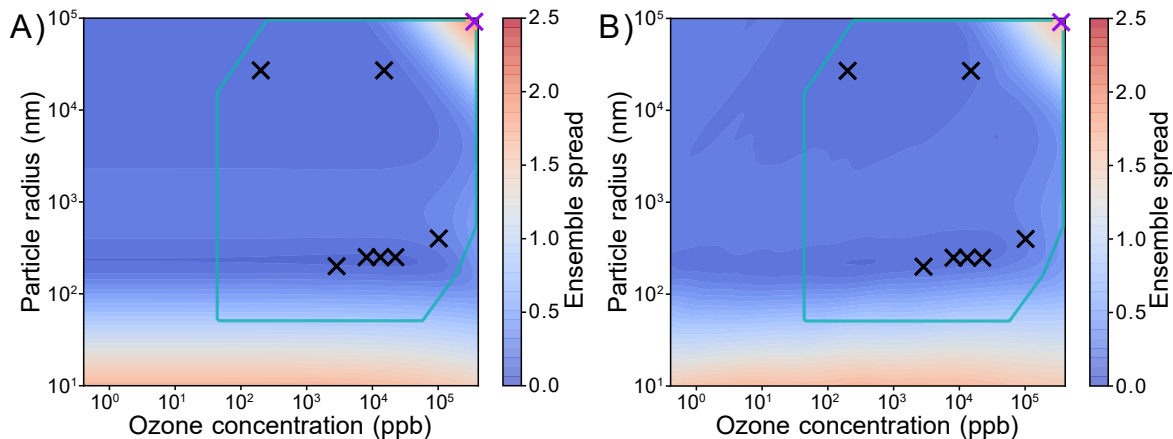


Fig. 4 Constraint potential maps for the ensemble spread, evaluated by (A) KM-SUB (KM-only approach) and (B) SM, based on the KM-SUB fit ensemble (KM/SM-hybrid approach). The teal box outlines conditions for feasible experiments. Black crosses represent the experimental parameters of the seven real experiments that are used for the initial acquisition of the fit ensemble. Purple crosses represent the ensemble spread maximum in each grid with satisfied experimental constraint conditions.

409 and compares the performance of three numerical 439
 410 experiment selection methods: ensemble spread 440
 411 using KM-SUB (blue), ensemble spread using the 441
 412 KM/SM-hybrid approach (orange), and random 442
 413 selection (green) within the boundaries of experi- 443
 414 mental accessibility. Fig. 6A shows the decreasing 444
 415 number of accepted fits in the fit ensemble. The 445
 416 median numbers of fits after the five iterations are 446
 417 (121, 49, 38, 31, 28) for the KM-SUB ensemble 447
 418 spread, (121, 53, 39, 35, 29.5) for the KM/SM- 448
 419 hybrid ensemble spread and (421.5, 355, 307, 301, 449
 420 291) for the random selection. Hence, statistically, 450
 421 the KC leads to a significantly larger constraint 451
 422 of the fit ensemble compared to random selec- 452
 423 tion, irrespective of using the full KM or the 453
 424 SM-assisted hybrid approach. Figs. S10 - S13 show 454
 425 examples of individual trajectories of the KC, i.e. 455
 426 simulations including numerical experiment selec- 456
 427 tion, synthetic experimental data generation, and 457
 428 fit filtering.

429 4 Conclusion

430 This study demonstrates the application of compu- 462
 431 tational models to guide experiment design and 463
 432 prioritization based on the anticipated reduction 464
 433 of a model's solution space. The method extrap- 465
 434 olates current ensemble solutions to conditions of 466
 435 potential future experiments and identifies condi- 467
 436 tions under which ensemble variance, and thus 468
 437 model parametric uncertainty is largest. In compar- 469
 438 ison with random selection, the reduction of 470

fits in the fit ensemble, representing reduction 439
 of model variance, is much larger for the kinetic 440
 compass (KC) guided numerical selection of experi- 441
 ments. 442

In our simulations, experiments associated 443
 with the maximum of the constraint potential 444
 map for the ensemble spread metric led to large 445
 constraints of the fit ensemble. However, the 446
 same experiments did not achieve a significant 447
 constraint of the uncertainty ranges of some 448
 kinetic parameters. By evaluating the KC with the 449
 parameter constraint potential metric and select- 450
 ing the experiment accordingly, the constraint of 451
 individual parameter uncertainty ranges can be 452
 optimized more effectively. 453

The computational effort of the KC can be 454
 strongly reduced by training a neural network sur- 455
 rogate model (SM), with nearly identical results. 456
 After consideration of the computational effort 457
 of SM training, and for the system at hand, we 458
 observe an acceleration of the evaluation of the 459
 KC by a factor of ~ 5 using a KM/SM-hybrid 460
 approach, and an acceleration by a factor of ~ 7.5 461
 using only the SM (Suppl. Note 8). While SM 462
 for multiphase kinetic models have already proven 463
 useful in forward modelling applications [20], we 464
 here further demonstrate their utility in an inverse 465
 modelling approach. 466

For the kinetic multi-layer model of aerosol 467
 surface and bulk chemistry (KM-SUB) and the 468
 heterogeneous ozonolysis of oleic acid, the KC sug- 469
 gests experiments with either very small particles 470

471 (< 50 nm) or with exceptionally large particles
472 (≈ 100 μm) and high ozone concentrations (\approx
473 1000 ppm) (Sec. 3.2). The first suggestion seems
474 logical: experiments with nano-sized particles of
475 oleic acid have not been conducted and extrapolation
476 to these conditions will be associated with
477 model uncertainty. The method predicts that mea-
478 surements using nano-sized particles would help
479 especially to constrain the surface reaction rate
480 coefficient k_{SLR} . The second suggestion of the KC
481 may seem counter-intuitive, as these large particle -
482 high ozone conditions are far away from
483 atmospheric relevance. In fact, these experiments
484 likely offer a constraint on the diffusion coef-
485 ficient of oleic acid, $D_{\text{b,OL}}$, a parameter that
486 is rather unimportant under typical atmospheric
487 conditions. Note, however, that the simple model
488 used in this analysis does not consider changes in
489 $D_{\text{b,OL}}$ upon formation of oxidation products.

490 Overall, this analysis of the oleic acid - ozone
491 reaction system shows that additional experiments
492 measuring the loss of oleic acid under conditions
493 typical for the atmosphere will not improve our
494 knowledge of this well-studied system any further.
495 More extreme conditions are needed to narrow
496 down the model solution space, however, this will
497 not come with an improvement of the predictive
498 power of our models for atmospheric conditions
499 (other than small nano-particles). Conversely, any
500 solution in the fit ensemble obtained in this study
501 and in Berkemeier et al. 2021 [19] should per-
502 form well under atmospherically-relevant condi-
503 tions. More knowledge about the system can also
504 be derived by changing the experimental observ-
505 able. For the heterogeneous ozonolysis of alkenes,
506 for example, product analyses have recently pro-
507 vided additional constraints for kinetic models
508 [38, 39]. Extending the KC method from experi-
509 mental conditions to experimental observables will
510 be a subject of future studies.

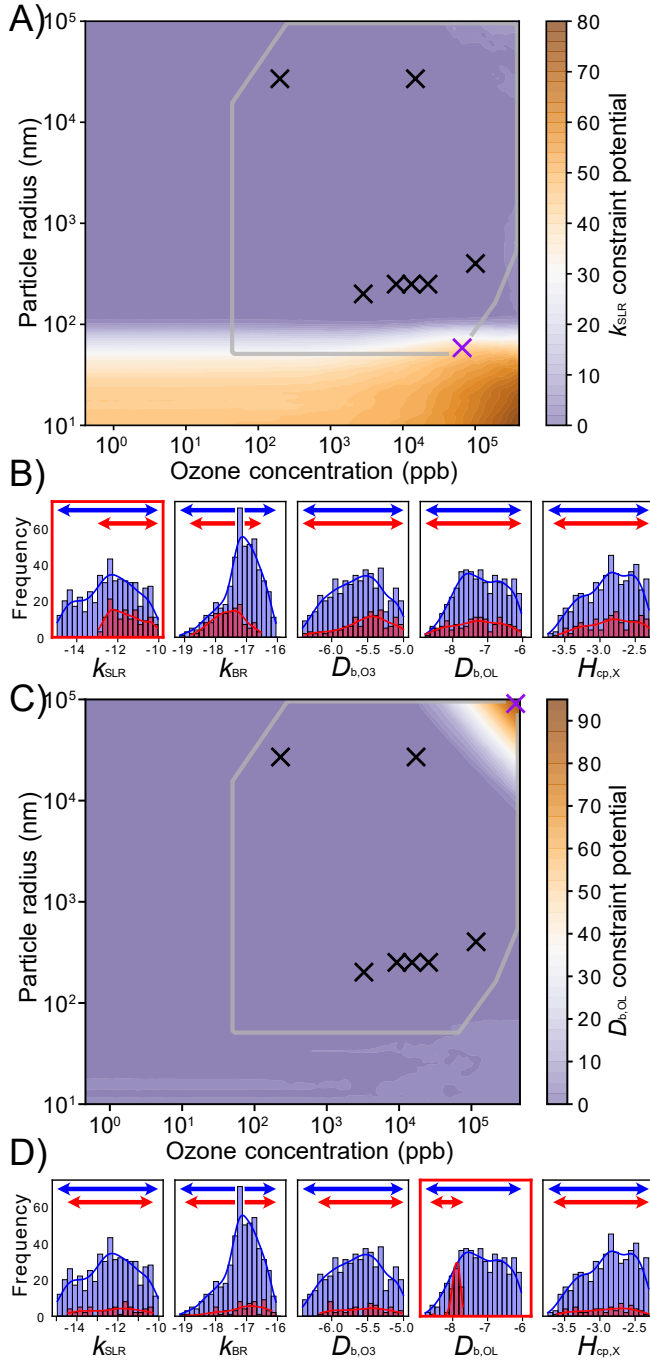


Fig. 5 Constraint potential maps for the kinetic parameters (A) k_{SLR} and (C) $D_{\text{b},\text{OL}}$ obtained with KM-SUB. The gray box outlines conditions for feasible experiments. Black crosses represent the experimental parameter sets of the seven real experiments that are used for the initial acquisition of the fit ensemble. The purple cross represents the parameter constraint potential maximum with satisfied experimental constraint conditions. The suggested experimental conditions are used to obtain synthetic experimental data by evaluating KM-SUB for the best fit in the KM-SUB fit ensemble. Frequency distributions of five kinetic parameters are shown and highlighted for (B) k_{SLR} and (D) $D_{\text{b},\text{OL}}$ in the KM-SUB fit ensemble before (blue) and after (red) fit filtering with error threshold $\theta = 0.0105$. Blue and red arrows visualize the outer boundaries of each distribution.

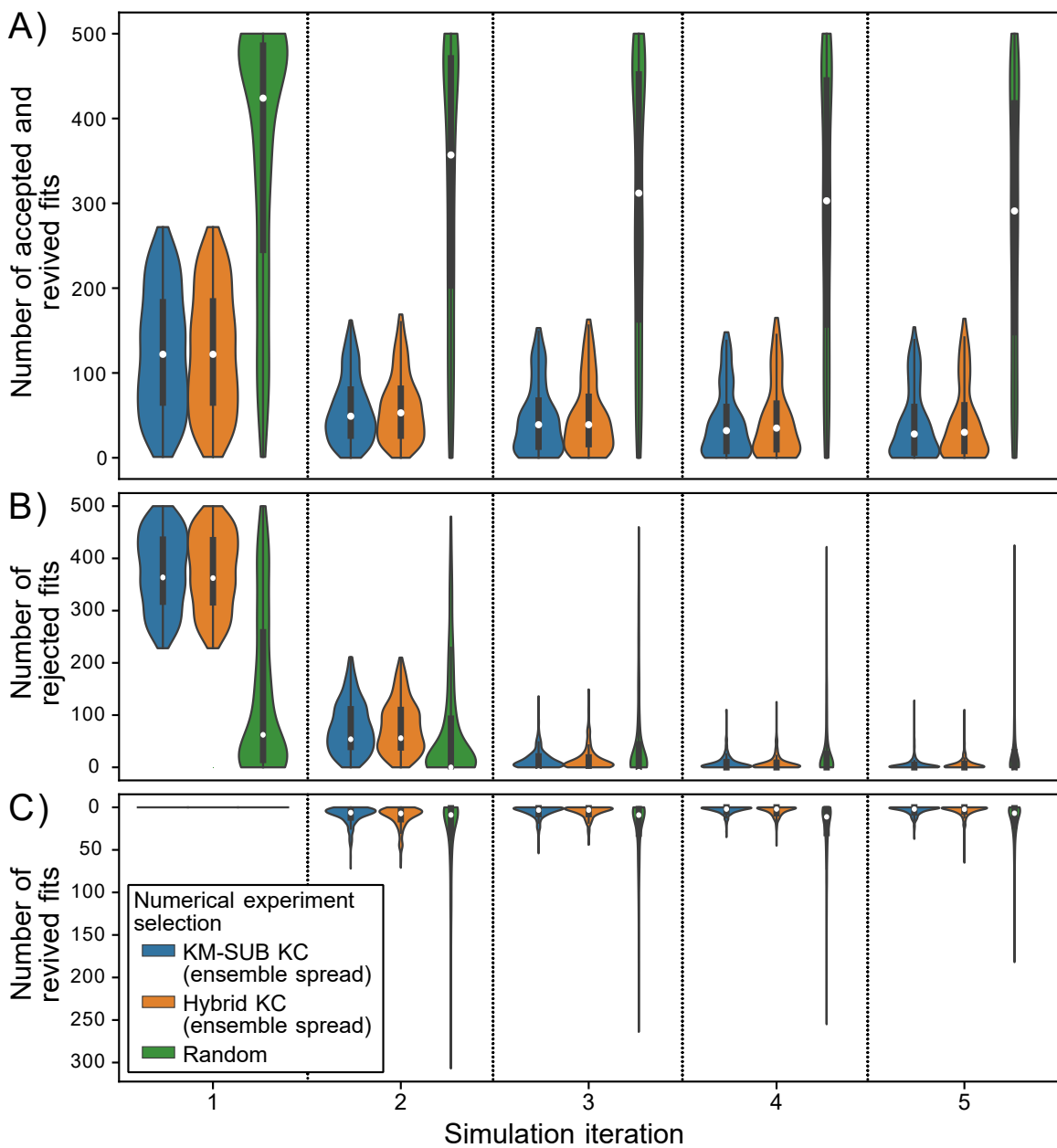


Fig. 6 Number of fits that are (A) accepted, (B) rejected and (C) revived based on synthetic experimental data in five iterations of the kinetic compass (KC). Numbers are based on statistics for $n = 500$ simulations, where each fit in the KM-SUB fit ensemble is once selected as simulated truth. Medians are shown as white markers, interquartile ranges as vertical wide black lines and $1.5 \times$ interquartile ranges as narrow black lines. While experiment simulation (via KM-SUB) and fit filtering (of the KM-SUB fit ensemble, absolute MSLE threshold, $\theta = 0.0105$) are identical for all approaches, we compare different numerical selection methods of experiments: KM-only KC (blue), KM/SM-hybrid KC (orange), and random selection of experiments (green). Fit ensemble constraint is significantly larger when experiments are selected using the KC. While the two models utilized for its evaluation lead to very similar fit ensemble constraints, the random selection of experiments performs significantly worse.

511 **List of Abbreviations.** CP - (parameter
512 boundary) constraint potential
513 ENS - ensemble solution
514 ES - ensemble spread
515 FE - fit ensemble
516 KC - kinetic compass
517 KM - kinetic model
518 KM-SUB - kinetic multi-layer model of aerosol
519 surface and bulk chemistry
520 MSLE - mean-squared logarithmic error
521 OL - oleic acid
522 SM - surrogate model

523 **Supplementary information.** The online ver-
524 sion contains supplementary material available at
525 t <https://doi.org/...>

526 **Additional file 1: Suppl. Note 1.**
527 Equations for process models, fit ensembles and
528 prediction ensembles. **Suppl. Note 2.** Fit ensem-
529 ble acquisition with KM-SUB and SM. **Suppl.**
530 **Note 3.** Equations for ensemble mean and
531 standard deviation. **Suppl. Note 4.** Paramete-
532 r boundary constraint potential metric with
533 reduced sample density. **Suppl. Note 5.** Oleic
534 acid ozonolysis system applied in this study.
535 **Suppl. Note 6.** Surrogate model training.
536 **Suppl. Note 7.** Uncertainty calibration and
537 simulated experiments. **Suppl. Note 8.** Compu-
538 tational effort. **Figure S1.** Contrariwise cross-
539 evaluation of the KM-SUB and SM fit ensembles.
540 **Figure S2.** Scatter plot matrix of the KM-SUB
541 fit ensemble. **Figure S3.** Scatter plot matrix
542 of the SM fit ensemble. **Figure S4.** Visualiza-
543 tion of the parameter constraint potential metric.
544 **Figure S5.** Restrictions for constraint poten-
545 tial maps with regards to experimental feasibility.
546 **Figure S6.** Constraint potential maps for the
547 ensemble spread, evaluated by KM-SUB and SM.
548 **Figure S7.** Parameter constraint potential maps
549 evaluated by KM-SUB and the SM. **Figure S8.**
550 Parameter constraint potential maps evaluated by
551 KM-SUB and the SM. **Figure S9.** Visualization
552 of the uncertainty calibration method. **Figure**
553 **S10.** Simulated trajectories for iterative KC appli-
554 cation. **Figure S11.** Simulated trajectories for
555 iterative KC application. **Figure S12.** Simulated
556 trajectories for iterative KC application. **Figure**
557 **S13.** Simulated trajectories for iterative KC appli-
558 cation.

559 **Acknowledgments.** The authors thank Cora-
560 line Mattei for helpful discussions. Parts of this

561 research were conducted using the supercom-
562 puter Mogon and/or advisory services offered by
563 Johannes Gutenberg University Mainz ([hpc.uni-
564 mainz.de](http://hpc.uni-mainz.de)), which is a member of the AHRP
565 (Alliance for High Performance Computing in
566 Rhineland Palatinate, www.ahrp.info) and the
567 Gauss Alliance e.V. The authors gratefully
568 acknowledge the computing time granted on the
569 supercomputer Mogon at Johannes Gutenberg
570 University Mainz (hpc.uni-mainz.de).

571 **Authors' contributions.** TB conceived the
572 study. MK and TB designed research. TB wrote
573 the kinetic model code and performed simula-
574 tions. MK wrote the kinetic compass and sur-
575 rrogate model code and performed simulations.
576 All authors discussed and interpreted calculation
577 results. MK and TB wrote the manuscript with
578 contributions from all authors.

579 **Funding.** This work was funded by the Max
580 Planck Society (MPG). AM and MK are sup-
581 ported by the Max Planck Graduate Center
582 with the Johannes Gutenberg University Mainz
583 (MPGC).

584 **Availability of data and materi-**
585 **als.** The data is openly available at
586 <https://doi.org/10.17617/3.D5PCQK>.

587 **Code availability.** The source
588 code is openly available at
589 <https://doi.org/10.17617/3.D5PCQK>. The
590 kinetic compass is available as package
591 for the programming language Julia at
592 <https://gitlab.mpcdf.mpg.de/mkruege/kineticcompass>.

593 Declarations

594 **Competing interests.** The authors declare
595 that they have no competing interests.

596 **Ethical approval and consent to participate.**
597 Not applicable.

598 References

- 599 [1] Worsnop, D.R., Morris, J.W., Shi, Q.,
600 Davidovits, P., Kolb, C.E.: A chemical
601 kinetic model for reactive transformations
602 of aerosol particles: Reactive transforma-
603 tion of aerosol particles. *Geophys. Res. Lett.*

- 604 **29**(20), 57–1574 (2002) <https://doi.org/10.1029/2002GL015542> 647
- 605 648
- 606 [2] Pöschl, U., Rudich, Y., Ammann, M.: Kinetic 649
607 model framework for aerosol and cloud surface 650
608 chemistry and gas-particle interactions 651
609 – Part 1: General equations, parameters, 652
610 and terminology. *Atmos. Chem. Phys.* **7**(23), 653
611 5989–6023 (2007) [https://doi.org/10.5194/](https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-7-5989-2007) 654
612 [acp-7-5989-2007](https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-7-5989-2007) 655
- 613 [3] Kolb, C.E., Cox, R.A., Abbatt, J.P.D., 656
614 Ammann, M., Davis, E.J., Donaldson, D.J., 657
615 Garrett, B.C., George, C., Griffiths, P.T., 658
616 Hanson, D.R., Kulmala, M., McFiggans, G., 659
617 Pöschl, U., Riipinen, I., Rossi, M.J., Rudich, 660
618 Y., Wagner, P.E., Winkler, P.M., Worsnop, 661
619 D.R., O’ Dowd, C.D.: An overview of current 662
620 issues in the uptake of atmospheric trace 663
621 gases by aerosols and clouds. *Atmos. Chem.* 664
622 *Phys.* **10**(21), 10561–10605 (2010) [https://](https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-10-10561-2010) 665
623 doi.org/10.5194/acp-10-10561-2010 666
- 624 [4] Abbatt, J.P.D., Lee, A.K.Y., Thornton, J.A.: 667
625 Quantifying trace gas uptake to tropospheric 668
626 aerosol: recent advances and remaining chal- 669
627 lenges. *Chem. Soc. Rev.* **41**, 6555–6581 (2012) 670
628 <https://doi.org/10.1039/C2CS35052A> 671
- 629 [5] Shiraiwa, M., Pfrang, C., Pöschl, U.: Kinetic 672
630 multi-layer model of aerosol surface and bulk 673
631 chemistry (KM-SUB): the influence of inter- 674
632 facial transport and bulk diffusion on the 675
633 oxidation of oleic acid by ozone. *Atmos.* 676
634 *Chem. Phys.* **10**(8), 3673–3691 (2010) [https://](https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-10-3673-2010) 677
635 doi.org/10.5194/acp-10-3673-2010 678
- 636 [6] Shiraiwa, M., Pfrang, C., Koop, T., Pöschl, 679
637 U.: Kinetic multi-layer model of gas-particle 680
638 interactions in aerosols and clouds (KM- 681
639 GAP): linking condensation, evaporation 682
640 and chemical reactions of organics, oxida- 683
641 nts and water. *Atmos. Chem. Phys.* **12**(5), 684
642 2777–2794 (2012) [https://doi.org/10.5194/](https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-12-2777-2012) 685
643 [acp-12-2777-2012](https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-12-2777-2012) 686
- 644 [7] Roldin, P., Eriksson, A.C., Nordin, E.Z., Her- 687
645 mansson, E., Mogensen, D., Rusanen, A., 688
646 Boy, M., Swietlicki, E., Svenningsson, B., 689
690
- Zelenyuk, A., Pagels, J.: Modelling non-
equilibrium secondary organic aerosol forma-
tion and evaporation with the aerosol dynam-
ics, gas- and particle-phase chemistry kinetic
multilayer model ADCHAM. *Atmos. Chem.*
Phys. **14**(15), 7953–7993 (2014) [https://doi.](https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-14-7953-2014)
[org/10.5194/acp-14-7953-2014](https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-14-7953-2014)
- [8] Gallimore, P.J., Griffiths, P.T., Pope, F.D.,
Reid, J.P., Kalberer, M.: Comprehensive
modeling study of ozonolysis of oleic acid
aerosol based on real-time, online mea-
surements of aerosol composition: Organic
Aerosol Model and Measurements. *J. Geo-*
phys. Res. Atmos. **122**(8), 4364–4377 (2017)
<https://doi.org/10.1002/2016JD026221>
- [9] Wilson, K.R., Prophet, A.M., Willis,
M.D.: A kinetic model for predicting
trace gas uptake and reaction. *J. Phys.*
Chem. A **126**(40), 7291–7308 (2022)
<https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.jpca.2c03559>
<https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.jpca.2c03559>.
PMID: 36170058
- [10] Milsom, A., Lees, A., Squires, A.M., Pfrang,
C.: MultilayerPy (v1.0): a Python-based
framework for building, running and opti-
mising kinetic multi-layer models of aerosols
and films. *Geosci. Model Dev.* **15**(18),
7139–7151 (2022) [https://doi.org/10.5194/](https://doi.org/10.5194/gmd-15-7139-2022)
[gmd-15-7139-2022](https://doi.org/10.5194/gmd-15-7139-2022)
- [11] Tsuchiya, M., Ross, J.: Application of
Genetic Algorithm to Chemical Kinetics: Sys-
tematic Determination of Reaction Mech-
anism and Rate Coefficients for a Com-
plex Reaction Network. *J. Phys. Chem. A*
105(16), 4052–4058 (2001) [https://doi.org/](https://doi.org/10.1021/jp004439p)
[10.1021/jp004439p](https://doi.org/10.1021/jp004439p)
- [12] Berkemeier, T., Huisman, A.J., Ammann,
M., Shiraiwa, M., Koop, T., Pöschl, U.:
Kinetic regimes and limiting cases of gas
uptake and heterogeneous reactions in atmo-
spheric aerosols and clouds: a general classi-
fication scheme. *Atmos. Chem. Phys.* **13**(14),
6663–6686 (2013) [https://doi.org/10.5194/](https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-13-6663-2013)
[acp-13-6663-2013](https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-13-6663-2013)
- [13] Taylor, C.J., Booth, M., Manson, J.A., Willis,

- 692 M.J., Clemens, G., Taylor, B.A., Cham- 738
693 berlain, T.W., Bourne, R.A.: Rapid, auto- 739
694 mated determination of reaction models and 740
695 kinetic parameters. *Chem. Eng. J.* **413**,
696 127017 (2021) [https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cej.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cej.2020.127017)
697 [2020.127017](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cej.2020.127017) 741
- 698 [14] Willis, M.D., Wilson, K.R.: Coupled Interfacial and Bulk Kinetics Govern the Timescales of Multiphase Ozonolysis Reactions. *J. Phys. Chem. A* **126**(30), 4991–5010 (2022) <https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.jpca.2c03059> 742
699 743
700 744
701 745
702 746
703 747
704 748
- 703 [15] Berkemeier, T., Ammann, M., Krieger, U.K., 749
704 Peter, T., Spichtinger, P., Pöschl, U., Shi- 750
705 raiwa, M., Huisman, A.J.: Technical note: 751
706 Monte Carlo genetic algorithm (MCGA) 752
707 for model analysis of multiphase chemical 753
708 kinetics to determine transport and reaction 754
709 rate coefficients using multiple experimen- 755
710 tal data sets. *Atmos. Chem. Phys.* **17**(12), 756
711 8021–8029 (2017) [https://doi.org/10.5194/](https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-17-8021-2017)
712 [acp-17-8021-2017](https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-17-8021-2017) 757
713 758
- 713 [16] Tikkanen, O.-P., Härmäläinen, V., Rovelli, 759
714 G., Lipponen, A., Shiraiwa, M., Reid, J.P., 760
715 Lehtinen, K.E.J., Yli-Juuti, T.: Optimization 761
716 of process models for determining volatility 762
717 distribution and viscosity of organic 763
718 aerosols from isothermal particle evapora- 764
719 tion data. *Atmos. Chem. Phys.* **19**(14), 765
720 9333–9350 (2019) [https://doi.org/10.5194/](https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-19-9333-2019)
721 [acp-19-9333-2019](https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-19-9333-2019) 766
- 722 [17] Wei, J., Fang, T., Lakey, P.S.J., Shiraiwa, M.: 767
723 Iron-Facilitated Organic Radical Formation 768
724 from Secondary Organic Aerosols in Sur- 769
725rogate Lung Fluid. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* **56**(11), 7234–7243 (2022) [https://doi.org/10.](https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.est.1c04334)
726 [1021/acs.est.1c04334](https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.est.1c04334) 770
727 771
- 728 [18] Milsom, A., Squires, A.M., Ward, A.D., 773
729 Pfrang, C.: The impact of molecular self- 774
730 organisation on the atmospheric fate of a 775
731 cooking aerosol proxy. *Atmos. Chem. Phys.* **22**(7), 4895–4907 (2022) [https://doi.org/10.](https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-22-4895-2022)
732 [5194/acp-22-4895-2022](https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-22-4895-2022) 776
733 777
- 734 [19] Berkemeier, T., Mishra, A., Mattei, C., 779
735 Huisman, A.J., Krieger, U.K., Pöschl, U.: 780
736 Ozonolysis of Oleic Acid Aerosol Revisited: 781
737 Multiphase Chemical Kinetics and Reaction
Mechanisms. *ACS Earth Space Chem.* **5**(12),
3313–3323 (2021) [https://doi.org/10.1021/](https://doi.org/10.1021/acsearthspacechem.1c00232)
[acsearthspacechem.1c00232](https://doi.org/10.1021/acsearthspacechem.1c00232)
- [20] Berkemeier, T., Krüger, M., Feinberg, A., Müller, M., Pöschl, U., Krieger, U.K.: Accelerating models for multiphase chemical kinetics through machine learning with polynomial chaos expansion and neural networks. *Geosci. Model Dev.* **16**(7), 2037–2054 (2023) <https://doi.org/10.5194/gmd-16-2037-2023>
- [21] O’Gorman, P.A., Dwyer, J.G.: Using Machine Learning to Parameterize Moist Convection: Potential for Modeling of Climate, Climate Change, and Extreme Events. *J. Adv. Model. Earth Syst.* **10**(10), 2548–2563 (2018) <https://doi.org/10.1029/2018MS001351>
- [22] Rasp, S., Pritchard, M.S., Gentine, P.: Deep learning to represent subgrid processes in climate models. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **115**(39), 9684–9689 (2018) <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1810286115>
- [23] Keller, C.A., Evans, M.J.: Application of random forest regression to the calculation of gas-phase chemistry within the GEOS-Chem chemistry model v10. *Geosci. Model Dev.* **12**(3), 1209–1225 (2019) <https://doi.org/10.5194/gmd-12-1209-2019>
- [24] Lu, D., Ricciuto, D.: Efficient surrogate modeling methods for large-scale Earth system models based on machine-learning techniques. *Geosci. Model Dev.* **12**(5), 1791–1807 (2019) <https://doi.org/10.5194/gmd-12-1791-2019>
- [25] Kelp, M.M., Jacob, D.J., Kutz, J.N., Marshall, J.D., Tessum, C.W.: Toward Stable, General Machine-Learned Models of the Atmospheric Chemical System. *J. Geophys. Res. Atmos.* **125**(23) (2020) <https://doi.org/10.1029/2020JD032759>
- [26] Harder, P., Watson-Parris, D., Stier, P., Strassel, D., Gauger, N.R., Keuper, J.: Physics-informed learning of aerosol microphysics. *Environ. Data Science* **1**, 20 (2022) <https://doi.org/10.1017/eds.2022.22>

- 782 [27] Sturm, P.O., Wexler, A.S.: Conservation laws 825
783 in a neural network architecture: enforcing 826
784 the atom balance of a Julia-based photo- 827
785 chemical model (v0.2.0). *Geosci. Model Dev.* 828
786 **15**(8), 3417–3431 (2022) [https://doi.org/10.](https://doi.org/10.5194/gmd-15-3417-2022) 829
787 [5194/gmd-15-3417-2022](https://doi.org/10.5194/gmd-15-3417-2022) 830
- 788 [28] McBride, K., Sundmacher, K.: Overview 831
789 of Surrogate Modeling in Chemical Pro- 832
790 cess Engineering. *Chem. Ing. Tech.* **91**(3), 833
791 228–239 (2019) [https://doi.org/10.1002/cite.](https://doi.org/10.1002/cite.201800091) 834
792 [201800091](https://doi.org/10.1002/cite.201800091) 835
- 793 [29] Yan, S., Minsker, B.: Applying Dynamic 836
794 Surrogate Models in Noisy Genetic Algo- 837
795 rithms to Optimize Groundwater Remedia- 838
796 tion Designs. *J. Water Resour. Plann. Man-* 839
797 *age.* **137**(3), 284–292 (2011) [https://doi.org/](https://doi.org/10.1061/(ASCE)WR.1943-5452.0000106) 840
798 [10.1061/\(ASCE\)WR.1943-5452.0000106](https://doi.org/10.1061/(ASCE)WR.1943-5452.0000106) 841
- 799 [30] Razavi, S., Tolson, B.A., Burn, D.H.: Review 842
800 of surrogate modeling in water resources. 843
801 *Water Resour. Res.* **48**(7) (2012) [https://doi.](https://doi.org/10.1029/2011WR011527) 844
802 [org/10.1029/2011WR011527](https://doi.org/10.1029/2011WR011527) 845
- 803 [31] Wan, X., Pekny, J.F., Reklaitis, G.V.: 846
804 Simulation-based optimization with surro- 847
805 gate models—Application to supply chain 848
806 management. *Comput. Chem. Eng.* **29**(6), 849
807 1317–1328 (2005) [https://doi.org/10.1016/j.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compchemeng.2005.02.018) 850
808 [compchemeng.2005.02.018](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compchemeng.2005.02.018) 851
- 809 [32] Franceschini, G., Macchietto, S.: Model- 852
810 based design of experiments for parameter 853
811 precision: State of the art. *Chem. Eng. Sci.* 854
812 **63**(19), 4846–4872 (2008) [https://doi.org/10.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ces.2007.11.034) 855
813 [1016/j.ces.2007.11.034](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ces.2007.11.034)
- 814 [33] Hu, Z., Ao, D., Mahadevan, S.: Calibra-
815 tion experimental design considering field
816 response and model uncertainty. *Comput. Methods Appl. Mech. Eng.* **318**, 92–
817 119 (2017) [https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cma.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cma.2017.01.007)
818 [2017.01.007](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cma.2017.01.007)
819
- 820 [34] Jung, Y., Lee, I.: Optimal design of experi-
821 ments for optimization-based model calibra-
822 tion using Fisher information matrix. *Reliab.*
823 *Eng. Syst. Saf.* **216**, 107968 (2021) [https:](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.res.2021.107968)
824 [//doi.org/10.1016/j.res.2021.107968](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.res.2021.107968)
- [35] Whitaker, J.S., Loughe, A.F.: The rela-
tionship between ensemble spread and
ensemble mean skill. *Mon. Weather Rev.*
126(12), 3292–3302 (1998) [https://doi.](https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0493(1998)126(3292:TRBESA)2.0.CO;2)
[org/10.1175/1520-0493\(1998\)126\(3292:](https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0493(1998)126(3292:TRBESA)2.0.CO;2)
TRBESA)2.0.CO;2
- [36] Hearn, J.D., Smith, G.D.: Kinetics and
Product Studies for Ozonolysis Reactions of
Organic Particles Using Aerosol CIMS. *J.*
Phys. Chem. A **108**(45), 10019–10029 (2004)
<https://doi.org/10.1021/jp0404145>
- [37] Ziemann, P.J.: Aerosol products, mecha-
nisms, and kinetics of heterogeneous reac-
tions of ozone with oleic acid in pure and
mixed particles. *Faraday Discuss.* **130**, 469
(2005) <https://doi.org/10.1039/b417502f>
- [38] Müller, M., Mishra, A., Berkemeier, T.,
Hausammann, E., Peter, T., Krieger, U.K.:
Electrodynamic balance–mass spectrometry
reveals impact of oxidant concentration on
product composition in the ozonolysis of
oleic acid. *Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys.* **24**(44),
27086–27104 (2022) [https://doi.org/10.1039/](https://doi.org/10.1039/D2CP03289A)
[D2CP03289A](https://doi.org/10.1039/D2CP03289A)
- [39] Reynolds, R., Ahmed, M., Wilson, K.R.:
Constraining the reaction rate of criegee
intermediates with carboxylic acids during
the multiphase ozonolysis of aerosolized
alkenes. *ACS Earth Space Chem.* **7**(4),
901–911 (2023) [https://doi.org/10.1021/](https://doi.org/10.1021/acsearthspacechem.3c00026)
[acsearthspacechem.3c00026](https://doi.org/10.1021/acsearthspacechem.3c00026)

Supplementary Files

This is a list of supplementary files associated with this preprint. Click to download.

- [KruegerKineticCompassSI.pdf](#)