Secondary aerosol formation from dimethyl sulfide - improved mechanistic understanding based on smog chamber experiments and modelling

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Abstract. Dimethyl sulfide (DMS) is the dominant biogenic sulphur compound in the ambient atmosphere. Low volatile acids from DMS oxidation promote the formation and growth of sulphur aerosols, and ultimately alter cloud properties and Earth’s climate. We studied the OH-initiated oxidation of DMS in the Aarhus University research on aerosols (AURA) smog chamber and the marine boundary layer (MBL) with the aerosol dynamics, gas- and particle-phase chemistry kinetic multilayer model ADCHAM. Our work involved the development of a revised and comprehensive multiphase DMS oxidation mechanism, both capable of reproducing smog chamber and atmospheric relevant conditions. The secondary aerosol mass yield in the AURA chamber was found to have a strong dependence on the reaction of methyl sulfinic acid (MSIA) and OH at low relative humidity (RH), while the autoxidation of the intermediate radical \( \text{CH}_3\text{SCH}_2\text{OO} \) forming hydroperoxymethyl thioformate (HPMTF) proved important at high RH. The observations and modelling strongly support that a liquid water film existed on the Teflon surface of the chamber bag, which enhanced the wall loss of water soluble intermediates and oxidants DMSO, MSIA, HPMTF, \( \text{SO}_2 \), MSA, SA and \( \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \). The effect caused a decrease in the secondary aerosol mass yield obtained at both dry (0-12 \% RH) and humid (50-80 \% RH) conditions. Model runs reproducing the ambient marine atmosphere indicate that OH comprise a strong sink of DMS in the MBL, although less important than halogen species Cl and BrO. Cloudy conditions promote the production of \( \text{SO}_4^{2-} \) particular mass (PM) from \( \text{SO}_2 \) accumulated in the gas-phase, while cloud-free periods facilitate MSA formation in the deliquesced particles. The exclusion of aqueous-phase chemistry lowers the DMS sink as no halogens are activated in the sea spray particles, and underestimates the secondary aerosol mass yield by neglecting \( \text{SO}_4^{2-} \) and MSA PM production in the particle phase. Overall, this study demonstrated that the current DMS oxidation mechanisms reported in literature are inadequate in reproducing the results obtained in the AURA chamber, whereas the revised chemistry captured the formation, growth and chemical composition of the formed aerosol particles well. Furthermore, we emphasise the importance of OH-initiated oxidation of DMS in the ambient marine atmosphere during conditions with low sea spray emissions.
1 Introduction

Dimethyl sulfide (DMS: CH$_3$SCH$_3$) from biogenic ocean emissions is the largest source of natural sulphur in the ambient atmosphere (Lovelock et al., 1972; Andreae, 1990; Seinfeld and Pandis, 2016). DMS is oxidised mainly in the gas-phase by OH (66%), NO$_3$ (16%) and various halogen species (Hoffmann et al., 2016; Chen et al., 2018) globally, either by OH, NO$_3$ or Cl initiated H abstraction or OH and BrO addition:

$$\text{CH}_3\text{SCH}_3 + \text{OH}, \text{NO}_3, \text{Cl} \rightarrow \text{CH}_3\text{SCH}_2 \quad \text{(Abstraction)}$$

$$\text{CH}_3\text{SCH}_3 + \text{OH}, \text{BrO} \rightarrow \text{CH}_3\text{S(OH)}\text{CH}_3 \quad \text{(Addition)}$$

Each reaction defines a distinct abstraction and addition pathway, leading to the formation of low volatile acids, methanesulfonic acid (MSA: CH$_3$SO$_3$H) and sulphuric acid (SA: H$_2$SO$_4$)(Yin et al., 1990; Barnes et al., 2006). SA is known to undergo binary or ternary nucleation in the presence of H$_2$O and NH$_3$, while MSA is believed to nucleate only under certain favourable conditions (Korhonen et al., 1999; Chen et al., 2015). New particle formation (NPF) from SA is an important initial step in the production of cloud condensation nuclei (CCN), and has the potential to alter the properties of clouds and hence climate. MSA condenses on the new particles and promotes their growth into the CCN size range (>100 nm in particle diameter)(Saltzman et al., 1983). Although the chemistry of DMS oxidation and subsequent formation of SA and MSA has been studied in great detail, the current mechanism remain uncertain (Barnes et al., 2006; Hoffmann et al., 2016). Large scale models simplify the process by assuming fixed yields of SO$_2$ and MSA from DMS oxidation (Berglen et al., 2004; Kloster et al., 2006), leaving out important intermediates such as dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO: CH$_3$SOCH$_3$), methane sulphinic acid (MSIA: CH$_3$SO$_2$H) and the recently discovered autoxidation product hydroperoxymethyl thioformate (HPMTF: HOOCH$_2$SCHO)(Wu et al., 2014; Berndt et al., 2019; Veres et al., 2020). A study by Hoffmann et al. (2016) pointed out how model studies often exclude or simplify the effect of multiphase DMS chemistry. Soluble products and intermediates DMS, SO$_2$, DMSO, MSIA, MSA and SA will readily partition to the aqueous phase (Campolongo et al., 1999), and transform in various reaction pathways. Berresheim et al. (2014) noted that SA field measurements could not be explained when considering the oxidation of SO$_2$ by OH as the only source of SA, and questioned the importance of SO$_2$ in SA production and NPF. Taking into account the aqueous phase uptake of SO$_2$ during cloud cover, the authors theorised the rapid formation of SA from SO$_3$ (produced from thermal decomposition of CH$_3$SO$_3$) as a possible explanation to close the gap between measured and modelled SA concentrations. Multiphase DMS chemistry is also essential to explain the MSA to SO$_4^{2-}$ ratios found in atmospheric aerosol samples (Lucas and Prinn, 2002; Hoffmann et al., 2016). While MSA production in the gas-phase is scarce (Lucas and Prinn, 2002), aqueous-phase reactions almost predominantly form MSA (Hoffmann et al., 2016). MSA formation in the gas-phase does, however, remain uncertain, and early studies have suggested alternative production pathways via the MSIA intermediate (Yin et al., 1990; Glasow and Crutzen, 2004). In pristine marine environments, halogen compounds from sea spray aerosols comprise an important addition
to the otherwise OH dominated oxidation of DMS (Glasow and Crutzen, 2004). A modelling study by Braeuer et al. (2013) examined the activation and subsequent transfer of chlorine and bromine species from the particle-phase to the gas-phase. Cl and BrO radicals in particular were found to exert a strong increase in the DMS sink flux (Hoffmann et al., 2016).

Few have studied the gas and multiphase DMS chemistry in controlled smog chamber experiments, and none have tested model predictions under said conditions. Therefore, this study investigates the oxidation of DMS by OH radicals performed in the AURA smog chamber at Aarhus University (Rosati et al., 2020), using the state of the art gas and particle phase chemistry model for laboratory chamber studies (ADCHAM) (Roldin et al., 2014). A comprehensive multiphase mechanism was developed based on the Master Chemical Mechanism version 3.3.1 (MCMv3.3.1) (Jenkin et al., 1997, 2003), the CAPRAM DMS Module 1.0 (DM1.0) (Hoffmann et al., 2016) and the multiphase halogen chemistry mechanism CAPRAM Halogen Module 2.0 (HM2.0) (Braeuer et al., 2013). Additional reactions and rate constants were implemented from individual studies (Turnipseed et al., 1995; Kukui et al., 2003; Wu et al., 2014; Cao et al., 2013; Berndt et al., 2019, 2020). A stand-alone experiment examining butanol oxidation by OH was used to quantify the effect of high and low relative humidity (RH) on the OH concentration in the AURA chamber. The results were used to estimate the formation of a RH dependant water film forming on the Teflon bag surface, and implemented as a means to explain the difference in DMS experiments performed at dry and humid conditions. Finally, we performed several sensitivity runs investigating how the new revised DMS multiphase chemistry mechanism compare with previous DMS mechanisms under different relevant atmospheric conditions.

2 Smog chamber experiments

The experiments studied in this work were performed in the Aarhus University Research on Aerosol (AURA) smog chamber (Kristensen et al., 2017). Here we only give a brief overview of the smog chamber setup. For a detailed description of the experiments, e.g. different instrumentation, the reader is referred to Rosati et al. (2020).

AURA consists of a 5 m³ Teflon bag mounted inside a temperature controlled enclosure. All experiments studied in this work were performed in batch sampling mode. The chamber was first filled with clean particle-free air. After this the UV-lights were turned on, followed by addition of H₂O₂, which served as an OH source. For the modelled dry (low RH) and humid experiments, the injected H₂O₂ were equivalent to a H₂O₂ concentration of 20 ppmv and 70 ppmv, respectively. The reference time zero, which mark the start of the experiments and model simulations, was set to the time when DMS was injected into the chamber. DMS was injected after the H₂O₂. The total instrument sampling rates ranged between 4.2 and 6.9 L min⁻¹. During the sampling the Teflon bag was partially compressed. However, since the Teflon bag was mounted inside a fixed metal frame (Kristensen et al., 2017), a fraction of the sampled air must have been replaced with air leaking in from outside the Teflon bag, resulting in gradual dilution. Based on observations of the chamber volume, it was estimated that the chamber volume shrank to a minimum of 3 m³. In the model we considered the gradual compaction and dilution of the chamber volume due to the instrument sampling (see description in the supplementary material Sect S2.1). The inflow of air from outside the chamber is a likely source for the particle contamination (nitrate and organics) observed with the High Resolution Time-of-Fight Aerosol Mass Spectrometer (HR-ToF-AMS) (Rosati et al., 2020). However, since this source of contamination cannot explicitly be
Table 1. Experimental (model) conditions. Experiments DMS2, DMS6 and DMS7 marked in grey are referred to as 'Dry', 'Humid' and 'Cold' in Section 4.

| Exp. | Date       | [VOC] (ppb) | [H₂O₂] (ppm) | [NOₓ] (ppb) | [O₃] (ppb) | T (K) | RH (%) | Samp. rate (L min⁻¹) | Inflow (L min⁻¹) |
|------|------------|-------------|---------------|-------------|------------|-------|--------|---------------------|-----------------|
| DMS1 | 05.04.2018 | 200*        | 20            | 1.0         | 1.0        | 293   | 0-6    | 4.2                 | 0.0             |
| DMS2 | 19.05.2018 | 225         | 20            | 1.5         | 1.0        | 293   | 0-12   | 4.4                 | 0.0             |
| DMS3 | 21.05.2018 | 120         | 20            | 0.6         | 5.0        | 293   | 0-5    | 4.4                 | 0.0             |
| DMS4 | 23.05.2018 | 50          | 20            | 2.0         | 10.0       | 293   | 0-7    | 6.9                 | 0.0             |
| DMS5 | 26.05.2018 | 110         | 20            | 2.0         | 25.0       | 293   | 0-8    | 4.4                 | 0.0             |
| DMS6 | 26.02.2019 | 340         | 70            | 1.0         | 55.0       | 293   | 50-60  | 6.9                 | 2.0             |
| DMS7 | 01.03.2019 | 225         | 70            | 1.0         | 55.0       | 273   | 60-80  | 4.4                 | 2.0             |
| BUT1 | 26.03.2019 | 380         | 20            | 1.0         | 1.0        | 293   | 5      | 2.3                 | 0.0             |
| BUT2 | 28.03.2019 | 370         | 20            | 1.0         | 1.0        | 293   | 50-60  | 2.3                 | 2.0             |
| BUT3 | 29.03.2019 | 180         | 20            | 1.0         | 1.0        | 273   | 70-80  | 2.3                 | 2.0             |

* Estimated value based on the injected DMS sample volume (no PTR-MS measurements).

Table 2. Default model setup. Experiments DMS2, DMS6 and DMS7 marked in grey are referred to as 'Dry', 'Humid' and 'Cold' in Section 4.

| Exp. | Date       | \(u^*\) (m s⁻¹) | \(k_e\) (s⁻¹) | \(E_{f,cold}\) (V cm⁻¹) | \(LWC_{wall}\) (g m⁻³) | \(S(VI)_{wall}\) (µmol m⁻³) | \(N(III)_{wall}\) (µmol m⁻³) |
|------|------------|-----------------|---------------|-------------------------|------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| DMS1 | 05.04.2018 | 0.013           | 0.02          | 1.0                     | 10⁻⁵                   | 0.76                          | 1.21                          |
| DMS2 | 19.05.2018 | 0.013           | 0.02          | 3.0                     | 10⁻⁵                   | 0.76                          | 1.07                          |
| DMS3 | 21.05.2018 | 0.013           | 0.02          | 0.7                     | 10⁻⁵                   | 0.76                          | 0.99                          |
| DMS4 | 23.05.2018 | 0.013           | 0.02          | 2.0                     | 10⁻⁵                   | 0.76                          | 1.14                          |
| DMS5 | 26.05.2018 | 0.013           | 0.02          | 2.0                     | 10⁻⁵                   | 0.76                          | 0.91                          |
| DMS6 | 26.02.2019 | 0.013           | 0.02          | 5.0                     | 10                     | 0.76                          | 1.36                          |
| DMS7 | 01.03.2019 | 0.013           | 0.02          | 3.0                     | 500                    | 0.76                          | 1.29                          |
| BUT1 | 26.03.2019 | -               | 0.02          | -                       | 10⁻⁵                   | -                            | -                             |
| BUT2 | 28.03.2019 | -               | 0.02          | -                       | 30                     | -                            | -                             |
| BUT3 | 29.03.2019 | -               | 0.02          | -                       | 500                    | -                            | -                             |

quantified, the inflow of air was assumed to be free of particles in the model simulations. For the humid experiments, an inflow of humidified particle free air with a rate of 2.0 L min⁻¹ resulted in additional dilution of the chamber.

In addition to the DMS oxidation experiments, several butanol OH oxidation experiments were used to investigate how the humidity and temperature influenced the OH concentration in the chamber. Table 1 provide an overview of the conditions for all AURA experiments modelled with ADCHAM.

2.1 ADCHAM - AURA model setup

ADCHAM was setup and used to simulate in total seven DMS oxidation experiments (DMS1-7) and 3 butanol oxidation experiments (BUT1-3) at different environmental conditions (T and RH) (Table 1). The primary aim was to evaluate and constrain the relative role of different DMS gas-phase oxidation pathways leading to atmospheric secondary aerosol formation. The model
Figure 1. Illustration of the water film effect in the AURA chamber. Panel A depicts the PTR-MS butanol decay and B the OH concentration at varying RH with and without the influence of a liquid water film. The water content changed in accordance with varying temperature and RH, panel C. Outside cooling of the chamber may affect the water adsorption on the Teflon surface.

95 simulations were started 1 hour before the DMS injection with initially particle free air and NOx, O3 and H2O2 concentrations as specified in Table 1. The measured temperature and relative humidity (RH) time series with 1 minute resolution were read in as input to the model. The modelled particle number size distribution was represented by 200 fixed size bins between 1.07 nm to 500 nm in diameter.

2.1.1 Chamber wall effects - gas to wall partitioning

Comparing secondary aerosol yields from chamber experiments performed at high and low RH revealed a significant decrease in the overall PM during humid conditions. The effect may be caused by the formation of a liquid film on the chamber walls (Fig. 1c), lowering the gas-phase concentration of oxidants and water soluble products from the DMS oxidation mechanism. Adsorption of water onto Teflon bag surfaces is known to occur in smog chamber experiments (Sumner et al., 2004), and may lead to condensation during high RH conditions (Svensson et al., 1987). Wall contamination including HONO and HNO3 from NOx exposure increases the uptake by fixating the adsorbed water molecules (Sumner et al., 2004). Separate experiments examining 1-butanol oxidation by OH was used to quantify the thickness of the Teflon bag water film. Analogous to the method by Song et al. (2019) the OH concentration was estimated based on the decay of 1-butanol. Humid chamber conditions decreased OH production and slowed down the butanol oxidation (Fig. 1a). The effect likely arose from the enhanced water uptake to the Teflon walls, which lowered the gas-phase concentration of H2O2 and thus the production of OH (Fig. 1b).
The water content needed to suppress OH formation to match the experimental observations at \( \sim 60\% \) RH and 293K, in the centre of the chamber, corresponded to approximately 30 g m\(^{-3}\) or a liquid film layer of \( \sim 10 \) \( \mu \)m on the chamber surface (see supplementary Fig. S1). The predicted concentration requires water to condensate on the Teflon bag. While Sumner et al. (2004) rejects the idea that condensation is possible, chamber experiments by Svensson et al. (1987) showed that water condensates on both polluted and clean Teflon surfaces at RH conditions beyond 70\%. The authors also observed the formation of a few mono-layers of water during low RH (<5\%) conditions. During dry experiments in the AURA chamber a small increase in RH was observed caused by water contamination from instrument sampling (Table 1).

We performed several sensitivity tests with different water film thickness for the modelled DMS experiments (see Fig. S2-4). From this, we concluded that with an effective water film concentration of 10 \( \mu \)g m\(^{-3}\), \( \sim 1\% \) of a water monolayer, the model generally capture the observed PM mass formation and SA to MSA PM mass ratio during the dry experiments. For the humid DMS experiments the water concentration on the walls need to be \( \sim 10 \) g m\(^{-3}\) and \( \sim 500 \) g m\(^{-3}\) for the 293 K and 273 K experiments, respectively. The found optimal values of the wall liquid water content are on the same order of magnitude as the values estimated based on the butanol experiments performed at similar RH and temperature conditions (Table 2).

On average the temperature proved smaller at the chamber bag surface as opposed to the chamber bag centre. The effect was caused by the temperature regulation setup cooling the chamber bag from the outside (Fig. 1c). These results are of interest, as the local decrease in temperature facilitates a local increase in RH. Consequently, the outside cooling of the chamber bag contributed to the condensation of water vapour and formation of a relatively thick liquid film on the Teflon surface during the humid experiments. The temperature observations at the vertical facing chamber walls together with the observed RH in the centre of the chamber indicate that the RH next to the chamber walls reached up \( \sim 80\% \) during the 293 K experiments and that the air may have been supersaturated with respect to water (RH>100 \%) during the 273 K experiments. This motivates the use of a substantially thicker liquid water film during the 273 K experiments.

In all experiments, the AMS measurements reveal that the formed PM contains a substantial mass fraction of ammonium. We expect that the ammonium mass mainly originates from \( \text{NH}_3(g) \) gradually evaporating from the chamber walls and to a smaller extent from \( \text{NH}_3(g) \) leaking into the chamber. To be able to capture the observed secondary ammonium mass formation and the new particle formation (Sect. 2.1.3) in all experiments, we assumed an initial pool of \( \sim 100 \) \( \mu \)g m\(^{-3}\) dissolved ammonium sulfate on the chamber walls and that the \( \text{NH}_3(g) \) concentration in the air outside the chamber was 2.0 ppbv. The pool of ammonium and sulfate on the chamber walls can be motivated by previous experiments in the AURA chamber with ammonium sulfate seed particles, \( \text{SA}(g) \) and \( \text{NH}_3(g) \) depositing on the walls. While the sulfate (\( \text{S(VI)} \)) on the walls can be considered to be non-volatile, the semi-volatile ammonium (\( \text{N(III)} \)) will partition between the liquid film on the walls and the gas-phase in different extent which depend on the wall liquid water content, the acidity and the temperature. Hence, the \( \text{N(III)} \) concentration on the chamber walls most likely differs from one experiment to another. This motivates why we decided to use the initial \( \text{N(III)} \) wall concentration as a unknown model fitting parameter, when comparing the modelled and observed new particle and secondary ammonium mass formation. This resulted in initial \( \text{N(III)} : \text{S(VI)} \) on the walls ranging between 1.2 and 1.8 for the different experiments (Table 2). The mass transfer of \( \text{NH}_3(g) \) to and from the chamber walls was represented by the thermodynamics and multiphase chemistry module in ADCHAM (Sect. 2.1.2). Supplementary Fig. S5 shows the modelled
NH₃(g) concentration and the NH₃ concentration on the chamber walls for all modelled experiments. The modelled NH₃(g) concentration gradually decreased during most of the experiments because of the NH₃ uptake to the formed aerosol particles and the SA and MSA deposition on the chamber walls, which resulted in a gradually more acidic liquid water film. However, in DMS4, DMS6 and DMS7 the modelled NH₃ concentration increases slightly, especially during the end of the experiments. This is because the leakage of NH₃(g) into the chamber become larger than the sink of NH₃(g) to the particle phase.

The first order wall loss rates of gases were modelled using the theory proposed by McMurry and Grosjean (1985) (Eq. 1).

\[
k_w = \frac{A}{V} \frac{\alpha_w \nu}{1 + (\pi/2)(\alpha_w \nu/(4k_c D)^{1/2})}
\]

where \(A/V\) is the chamber surface area \(A\) to volume \(V\) ratio, \(\alpha_w\) the vapour wall mass accommodation coefficient, \(\nu\) the mean thermal speed of the molecules, \(k_c\) the coefficient of eddy diffusion and \(D\) the molecular diffusivity. \(k_c\) and \(\alpha_w\) are the two key unknown parameters in Eq. 1. In the AURA smog chamber \(k_w\) has been estimated to \(\sim 10^{-3}\) s⁻¹ for low volatility highly oxygenated organic molecules (HOMs) formed from \(\alpha\)-pinene ozonolysis (Quéléver et al., 2019). For a typical \(\alpha\)-pinene HOM monomer or SA and \(\alpha_w \geq 10^{-4}\) this corresponds to \(k_c \approx 0.02\) s⁻¹. This estimated value of \(k_c\) can, e.g., be compared with the value reported by Zhang et al. (2014) of 0.015 s⁻¹, for a Teflon chambers with a volume of 28 m³.

Fig. S6 in the supplementary material illustrates how \(k_w\) varies as a function of \(k_c\) and \(\alpha_w\), for a compound with similar molecular properties as MSA and SA. For \(\alpha_w \geq 10^{-4}\) the vapour wall losses are entirely governed by the chamber mixing and the molecular diffusion through a thin surface layer next to the chamber walls, while for smaller values of \(\alpha_w\), the surface reactivity also limits the wall uptake (McMurry and Grosjean, 1985). By default the chamber wall loss of the important condensable vapours (SA, MSA, HNO₃, NH₃) and the highly water soluble H₂O₂ were assumed to be limited exclusively by the chamber mixing and molecular diffusion across the surface layer next to the chamber walls (i.e. using \(\alpha_w = 1.0\)). For the important intermediate DMS oxidation products, i.e. DMSO, DMSO₂, MSIA and HPMTF, the wall mass accommodation coefficients were by default set to \(10^{-5}\). Wall mass accommodation coefficients \(\sim 10^{-5}\) have previously been suggested when modelling wall losses of volatile and semi-volatile organic molecules in Teflon smog chambers (Matsunaga and Ziemann, 2010; Zhang et al., 2014). For DMS, O₃, SO₂ and NO₂ we used a default \(\alpha_w\) of \(10^{-7}\). This \(\alpha_w\) value is approximately one order of magnitude greater than the value reported by McMurry and Grosjean (1985) for O₃, SO₂ and NO₂, during dry chamber conditions. The relatively low \(\alpha_w\) values used for DMS, compared to the DMS oxidation products, was motivated by the reported low mass accommodation coefficients for DMS uptake to particles and cloud droplets (Hoffmann et al., 2016; Zhu et al., 2006; Kreidenweis et al., 2003) and the observed and modelled DMS trends during the humid experiments. When using the default \(\alpha_w\) values \(k_w\) become \(\sim 10^{-3}\) s⁻¹ for MSA and SA, \(\sim 7 \cdot 10^{-4}\) s⁻¹ for the intermediate DMS oxidation products, and \(\sim 3 \cdot 10^{-5}\) s⁻¹ for DMS, O₃, SO₂ and NO₂, for a fully inflated chamber (\(V = 5\) m³⁻¹).

We performed several model sensitivity simulations with \(\alpha_w\) values \(\pm 1\) order of magnitude from the default values for DMS, DMSO, DMSO₂, MSIA, HPMTF, O₃ and SO₂, for all experiments listed in Table 1-2 (see Fig. S7-S21 in the supplementary material). From this we conclude that the modelled secondary aerosol formation is especially sensitive to the rate at which O₃ partition to the liquid water film on the chamber walls. The uptake of O₃ in the liquid water film governs the uptake and...
oxidation of MSIA\textsubscript{(g)} on the walls, both during the dry and humid experiments and the oxidation of DMS during the humid experiments (Fig. S7-11). Also lower wall loss rates (i.e. lower $\alpha_w$) for the intermediate oxidation products, especially MSIA, has relatively large impact on the modelled secondary aerosol mass formation. Decreasing $\alpha_w$ with one order of magnitude for the intermediate oxidation products result in increasing particle mass formation with a factor of 1.5-3 in experiment DMS1-6, but has very minor impact on the modelled particle mass (PM) formation during the humid and cold experiment (DMS7) (Fig. S17-21). In DMS7 the PM formation is instead to large extent influenced by the rate at which $O_3$ is dissolved into the liquid water film (Fig. S8-10). The wall losses of $O_3$ and NO\textsubscript{2} have been shown to increase during humid chamber conditions (Grosjean, 1985), and it is possible that the liquid water content on the chamber walls influence $\alpha_w$. However, for the base case model simulations we chose to use the same $\alpha_w$ values for both the dry and humid experiments.

The calculated $k_w$ were used as input parameters to the multiphase chemistry module (Sect. 2.1.2). This module solves a set of coupled ordinary differential equations which describe how the gas- and wall aqueous phase concentration of all compounds ($[c(g)]$ and $[c(aq)]$) evolve over time:

\begin{equation}
\frac{d[c(g)]}{dt} = -k_{aq}[c(g)] + \frac{k_{aq}}{H^*}[c(aq)] + R(g) \tag{2}
\end{equation}

\begin{equation}
\frac{d[c(aq)]}{dt} = k_{aq}[c(g)] - \frac{k_{aq}}{H^*}[c(aq)] + R(aq) \tag{3}
\end{equation}

Eq. 2 and 3 takes into account the mass transfer between the gas-phase and aqueous phase for all relevant reactions in the gas ($R(g)$) and aqueous phase ($R(aq)$), respectively. $k_{aq}$ is a first order mass transfer rate (unit s\textsuperscript{-1}) which in the case of the gas-wall partitioning is equal to $k_w$ and in the case of particles or cloud droplets is equal to the particle and cloud droplet condensation sink. ($[c(g)]$ and $[c(aq)]$) are both given in the unit molecules cm\textsuperscript{-3} and $H^*$ is the dimensionless Henry’s law solubility (Jacobson, 2005) which is given by:

\begin{equation}
H^* = LWC \cdot R^* \cdot T \cdot H^{cp} \tag{4}
\end{equation}

$H^{cp}$ denote the Henry’s law solubility in unit kg atm\textsuperscript{-1} mol\textsuperscript{-1}, $R^*$ is the universal gas constant (82.06 cm\textsuperscript{3} atm mol\textsuperscript{-1}; K\textsuperscript{-1}), $T$ is the temperature in K and LWC is the aqueous phase liquid water content, which in the case of gas-wall partitioning is equal to the effective wall water concentration given in unit kg cm\textsuperscript{-3}.

Table S2 gives the values of $H^{cp}$ and $\alpha_w$ for all species that were considered to undergo phase transfer between the gas and aqueous phase in the multiphase chemistry module.

\textbf{2.1.2 Multiphase chemistry}

The multiphase chemistry mechanism was developed based on the DMS gas-phase oxidation scheme in the Master Chemical Mechanism version 3.3.1 (MCMv3.3.1) (Jenkin et al., 1997, 2003, 2015; Saunders et al., 2003), the CAPRAM DMS Module
1.0 (DM1.0) (Hoffmann et al., 2016), and a subset of reactions from the multiphase halogen chemistry mechanism CAPRAM Halogen Module 2.0 (HM2.0) (Braeuer et al., 2013). Additional reactions and rate constants were implemented from individual studies (Turnipseed et al., 1995; Kukui et al., 2003; Wu et al., 2014; Cao et al., 2013; Berndt et al., 2019, 2020). A complete list of all reactions can be found in the supplementary material Table S1. In total the mechanism include 922 species and 2946 reactions of which 100 reactions are phase transfer reactions (forward and backward), 2542 are gas-phase reactions and 304 are aqueous phase reactions. However, the majority of the reactions are only relevant for the atmospheric model simulations (Sect. 3), including 1900 gas-phase reactions which is part of the MCMv3.3.1 isoprene chemistry scheme (Jenkin et al., 2015) (not listed in Table S1), 411 halogen gas-phase reactions, 216 halogen aqueous phase reactions and 58 halogen phase-transfer reactions. The concentrations of $\text{H}^+$ and $\text{OH}^-$ which are involved in many of the aqueous phase reactions were updated outside the multiphase chemistry mechanism in the ADCHAM thermodynamics module (Roldin et al., 2014) and were not considered to be influenced by the irreversible aqueous phase chemistry. Hence, $[\text{H}^+]$ and $[\text{OH}^-]$ were multiplied directly into the reaction rate expressions in the multiphase chemistry mechanism and are not explicitly included as reactants and products in the reactions listed in Table S1. The multiphase chemistry mechanism was generated with the Kinetic PreProcessor (KPP) (Damian et al., 2002) and solved with the ordinary differential equation solver DLSODE (Hindmarsh, 1983). Figure S22-24 shows examples of the modelled concentrations of the intermediate DMS oxidation products, $\text{O}_3$, $\text{OH}$, $\text{HO}_2$, and $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ in the gas- and wall aqueous phase for the experiment DMS2, DMS6 and DMS7. The figures also show the calculated pH in the liquid water film.

2.1.3 New particle formation

The new particle formation was modelled with the Atmospheric Cluster Dynamics Code (ACDC) (McGrath et al., 2012; Olenius et al., 2013) using the same ACDC version and methodology as described in (Roldin et al., 2019). With this approach both neutral and ion induced nucleation of ammonia-sulfuric acid clusters of a size up to 5 ammonia and 5 sulfuric acid molecules are simulated explicitly in ACDC. For this we used an estimated galactic cosmic ray ionization rate of $1.7 \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{s}^{-1}$. The model considered the losses of clusters by coagulation with the existing aerosol particles and their losses to the chamber walls. The number of clusters that are able to grow to the upper size range in ACDC are defining as new particles in the model and are added to the lowest particle number size bin in ADCHAM. Quantum chemical calculations suggest that MSA may be involved already in the initial molecule cluster formation steps (Rosati et al., 2020). However, ions have been shown to be very important for the formation of clusters involving sulfuric acid and ammonia and presently the SA-MSA-$\text{NH}_3$ clusters from Rosati et al. (2020) only considers electrically neutral species and thus was not used in the model simulations performed in this work.

2.1.4 Particle wall losses

The particle wall losses of particles with 0 to 3 elemental charges were calculated using the particle wall loss parametrizations described in Roldin et al. (2014). For this, the model takes into account the initial fraction of neutral and charged new particles, which was calculated with ACDC, and the evolution of the aerosol particle charge distribution over time. The key unknown
parameters which govern the particle wall losses of neutral and charged particles are the friction velocity \(u^*\) and the electric field strength \(E_{field}\). We used a fixed value of \(u^*\) of 0.013 m s\(^{-1}\) for all experiments. This value was chosen in order for the particle wall losses to be consistent with the gas wall loss rates calculated with Eq. 1. I.e., for a hypothetical non-charged particle or gas molecule of 0.6 nm in diameter both parametrizations give first order wall loss rates of \(\sim 10^{-3}\) s\(^{-1}\). \(E_{field}\) (Table 2) were set to different values in the range of 0.7-5 V cm\(^{-1}\), depending on the observed and modelled particle number and volume concentration loss rates. The air ion concentration in the chamber was calculated from the steady state solution of the ion balance equation, taking into account the ion formation rate, ion–ion recombination, condensation sink and wall losses of air ions (Kirkby et al., 2016). The steady state air ion concentration of positively and negatively charged ions \([n^+ - n^-]\), was used to derive the particle charge distribution by solving a system of differential equations:

\[
\frac{d[N_0]_i}{dt} = [n^\pm](k_{-1i} \frac{1}{2}[N_1]_i - k_{0i}[N_0]_i) \quad (5)
\]

\[
\frac{d[N_1]_i}{dt} = [n^\pm](k_0[N_0]_i + k_{-2i} \frac{1}{2}[N_2]_i - k_{1i} \frac{1}{2}[N_1]_i - k_{-1i} \frac{1}{2}[N_1]_i) \quad (6)
\]

\[
\frac{d[N_2]_i}{dt} = [n^\pm](k_{1i} \frac{1}{2}[N_1]_i + k_{-3i} \frac{1}{2}[N_3]_i - k_{2i} \frac{1}{2}[N_2]_i - k_{-2i} \frac{1}{2}[N_2]_i) \quad (7)
\]

\[
\frac{d[N_3]_i}{dt} = [n^\pm](k_{2i} \frac{1}{2}[N_2]_i - k_{-3i} \frac{1}{2}[N_3]_i) \quad (8)
\]

In the above equations \([N_0]_i, [N_1]_i, [N_2]_i\) and \([N_3]_i\) denote the number concentration of particles with 0, 1, 2 or 3 elemental charges in each size bin (i). \(k_{qi}\) are the aerosol particle ion attachment coefficients (unit cm\(^3\)s\(^{-1}\)), which depend on the size and sign of the particle charge \(q\) and air ions (Fuchs, 1963; Hoppel and Frick, 1986). For example, \(k_{-2i}\) represent the attractive air ion attachment coefficients for an air ion approaching a particle, in size bin i, with 2 elemental charges when the sign of the particle and ion charge are different, while \(k_{1i}\) represent the repellent air ion attachment coefficient for an air ion approaching a particle with 1 elemental charge, when the sign of the charge of the ion and particle are the same. Equation 5-8 assumes an even distribution of positive and negative charged air ions (i.e. \([n^+] = [n^-] = \frac{1}{2}[n^\pm]\)). Particles with more than 3 elemental charges were not considered in the model. Thus, the 1/2 fraction of all particles with 3 elemental charges which in reality would have gained 4 elemental charges upon collision with air ions were assumed to keep their 3 elemental charges. Fig. S25 in the supplementary material illustrates how the modelled particle charge distribution and particle wall losses evolve during experiment DMS2.
3 Atmospheric model runs

To evaluate the updated multiphase DMS chemistry for atmospheric realistic conditions ADCHAM was set up to reproduce the pristine marine environments of the open ocean. For this purpose an emission estimate of relevant gas-phase and particle-phase species was implemented based on the model scenarios in the work by Braeuer et al. (2013) and Hoffmann et al. (2016). While halogens are of insignificant importance in the AURA smog chamber, they comprise an important oxidant in the ambient atmosphere. Bromine and chlorine released from sea salt aerosols interact strongly with sulphur compounds including DMS (Braeuer et al., 2013), and alter the mechanism presented in Figure 2. Consequently, the CAPRAM Halogen Module was implemented to address both the gas-phase and aqueous-phase oxidation of DMS by halogen compounds. A base run scenario (named AtmMain) reproduced the movement of an air parcel along a marine environment trajectory for 120 hours (Fig. 5). Starting at midnight the simulation included eight in-cloud periods, four during the day and four at night. ADCHAM clouds formed and evaporated during 75 minute adiabatic cooling and warming periods, respectively, in which the RH changed slowly over time. The in-cloud residence time was chosen in accordance with the study by Pruppacher and Jaenicke (1995). The maximum cloud liquid water content was assumed to be 0.3 g m$^{-3}$. The last cloud period included a rain event, with below cloud particle scavenging described by the parameterisation by Laakso et al. (2003) and gas scavenging described by a parameterisation from Simpson et al. (2003). Cloud conditions were introduced to illustrate the effect of multiphase DMS chemistry, and varying UV light intensity to reproduce the oxidation capacity of the marine atmosphere during both day and night-time conditions. The wet deposition of particles and gases by rain was introduced to spark a NPF event. Between in-cloud periods the RH was kept at 90%. Consequently, the aerosols formed were treated as deliquesced particles receptive to aqueous-phase chemistry. This setup was essential to capture the gas-phase concentrations of halogens bromide and chloride mainly formed by halogen activation inside the particles. Sea spray emissions were based on a temperature and wind speed dependant parameterisation by Salter et al. (2015). Wind speed was kept fixed at 8 m s$^{-1}$ in accordance with the global annual average marine wind speed (Kent et al., 2013). Besides the base setup four sensitivity runs were performed to validate the effect of varying atmospheric conditions. The first (named ‘PolAtm’) represented a polluted marine environment with high NO$_x$ and O$_3$ gas-phase concentrations. The second (named ‘woCloudAtm’) did not include any in-cloud periods. The third run (named 'woAqAtm') disregarded all aqueous-phase chemistry. The final run (named 'lowWindAtm') kept the wind-speed at 2 m s$^{-1}$.

For the atmospheric model simulations the particle number size distribution was represented by 200 fixed size bins in the diameter range 1.07 nm to 10 µm.

4 Results and Discussion

4.1 Gas-phase DMS oxidation

The presented gas-phase mechanism has predominantly been based on the MCMv3.3.1 reaction scheme, although several pathways were added or modified to explain the observations in the AURA chamber. Figure 2 presents an outline of the most important multiphase DMS chemistry. Initially the model overestimated the sink flux of DMS by OH addition compared
Figure 2. Simplified mechanism of the OH-initiated oxidation of DMS. Reaction rates are reported in s⁻¹ for gas-phase and aqueous-phase chemistry, and M atm⁻¹ for phase-transfers (marked with broken arrows). All have been estimated at 293K, 5% RH and relevant OH, O₃, HO₂, NO and NO₂ concentrations in the AURA smog chamber. The blue area denotes the aqueous-phase oxidation of important water soluble intermediates and products (marked in yellow). Red and green shaded areas represent the OH addition and H abstraction pathways, respectively, while the yellow area illustrates the remaining mechanism after the two previous pathways intercept. The number beneath each arrow denotes the rate of said reaction, and the chemical species above its reactant.

to proton-transfer-reaction mass spectrometry (PTR-MS) measurement made in the chamber. At the same time, MSA PM concentrations were significantly underestimated in proportion to those measured by the HR-ToF-AMS. Therefore, efforts were made to slow down the DMS oxidation in the addition pathway while promoting MSA production. Analogous to the DM1.0 mechanism (Hoffmann et al., 2016) the initial addition of OH to DMS was modified by implementing the DMS-OH adduct as an intermediate product, either decomposing back to DMS (Lucas and Prinn, 2002), reacting with O₂ to form a stabilised peroxyl radical (RO₂) or fragment into CH₃SOH. Most important was the decomposition back to DMS (not considered in MCM) that lowered the initial rate of DMS oxidation.

MSA, often believed to be formed solely in the abstraction pathway (MCMv3.3.1), is produced almost exclusively from the reaction of CH₃SO₃ with HO₂. However, this reaction and the pathway leading to it did not explain the yields obtained in the chamber experiments. Therefore, an alternative pathway considering oxidation of the stable intermediate MSIA by OH was implemented to increase SA and MSA production. The importance of MSIA oxidation by OH was discussed by Glasow and Crutzen (2004) and mentioned in several previous studies (Yin et al., 1990; Lucas and Prinn, 2002; Kukui et al., 2003). While MCM assumes unity production of SO₂, there are strong indications that intermediate CH₃SO₂ in the abstraction pathway

https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-2020-1324
Preprint. Discussion started: 8 February 2021
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comprise the main product. As a consequence, the MSIA + OH reaction creates a link between the addition and abstraction pathway. The increased production of CH$_3$SO$_2$ promotes the formation of SA and MSA in the gas-phase along with PM yields in the smog chamber experiments. It should be noted that during high RH chamber conditions (or cloudy MBL in the atmosphere) the MSIA + OH reaction becomes less important, since MSIA and its precursor DMSO partitions almost exclusively to the aqueous-phase (Campolongo et al., 1999; Barnes et al., 2006).

In the abstraction pathway, the large increase in MSA and SA production by the MSIA + OH pathway was counterbalanced to match observations by implementing a newly discovered DMS autoxidation pathway (Veres et al., 2020). The pathway proceeds via the CH$_3$SCH$_2$OO radical (the main product of the initial DMS + OH reaction in the abstraction pathway), and undergoes two unimolecular hydrogen shifts (H-shifts) and O$_2$ addition to form the stable intermediate product HPMTF. The mechanism was propounded in theory by Wu et al. (2014) and confirmed experimentally by Berndt et al. (2019). Wu et al. (2014) estimated an upper limit of 2.48 s$^{-1}$ at 295 K for the rate-limiting H-shift in CH$_3$SCH$_2$OO, considerably larger than the laboratory study by Berndt et al. (2019) (0.23 s$^{-1}$) and the multiconformer transition state theory (MC-TST) calculation by Veres et al. (2020) (0.047 s$^{-1}$). While Veres et al. (2020) argues that the slow rate coincides with autoxidation rates of similar peroxides (Crounse et al., 2013), a combination of the intermediate rate proposed by Berndt et al. (2019) and temperature dependence suggested by Veres et al. (2020) offered a good agreement with observations from the AURA chamber experiments.

SO$_2$ comprised the main product in the abstraction pathway, formed mainly through the thermal decomposition of CH$_3$SO$_2$. While SO$_2$ is often mentioned as the most important source of SA (Barnes et al., 2006), the slow oxidation by OH and uptake to the aqueous-phase during high RH chamber conditions suggested that its contribution was of minor importance. Instead, SO$_3$ formed by thermal decomposition of CH$_3$SO$_3$ was found as the main source of SA. SO$_3$ reacts rapidly with water to form SA, and is not affected by multiphase DMS chemistry (Hoffmann et al., 2016). Consequently, SO$_3$ from thermal decomposition of CH$_3$SO$_3$ may be the main driver of NPF from DMS oxidation in the chamber experiments and possibly the ambient marine atmosphere. A similar theory was presented in a field study by Berresheim et al. (2014), in which the authors suggested that said reaction may be able to explain the gap between modelled and measured SA concentrations. Although very fast thermal decay rates for CH$_3$SO$_3$ has been proposed in literature (Cao et al., 2013), rates close to the value given in MCM provide the best match between the observed and modelled SA and MSA PM. Since SO$_2$ has little effect on the gas-phase SA production in the chamber experiments, the fate of CH$_3$SO$_3$ may be the factor controlling the MSA/SA formation, ratio and temperature dependence. The critical factor concerns the branching between thermal decay and reaction with HO$_2$.

Isomerisation of CH$_3$S(OO) to CH$_3$SO$_2$ was added to the MCM mechanism to increase the rate of SA production and hence the onset of NPF (previously to slow compared to observations in the chamber). CH$_3$SO$_2$ is the main precursor of CH$_3$SO$_3$. Consequently, the rate of CH$_3$S(OO) isomerisation and CH$_3$SO$_2$ production affects the formation of both SA and MSA. Turnipseed et al. (1995) reported an upper limit for said reaction of 20-25 s$^{-1}$, while other studies (Campolongo et al., 1999; Lucas and Prinn, 2002; Hoffmann et al., 2016) found the isomerisation rate to be substantially slower (1 s$^{-1}$). The later was sufficient to match experimental results.
4.2 Aqueous-phase DMS oxidation

During high RH conditions in the chamber experiments or cloud cover in the MBL, water affects the gas-phase oxidation of DMS (Hoffmann et al., 2016). In the atmosphere the aqueous-phase chemistry proceeds in cloud droplets and deliquesced particles (Seinfeld and Pandis, 2016). In the chamber the water adsorbs to the Teflon bag and forms a thin liquid film (see section 2.1.1). In either case the presence of water can significantly lower the gas-phase concentration of oxidants $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$, $\text{OH}$, $\text{O}_3$, $\text{HO}_2$ and water soluble intermediates and products in the DMS oxidation mechanism. These include DMS, DMSO, MSIA, MSA, SA and $\text{SO}_2$ (Campolongo et al., 1999) (Fig. S22-24). The dominant pathway in the multiphase DMS oxidation mechanism is initiated by the oxidation of DMS by $\text{O}_3$. Although DMS has a small Henry’s law solubility, the constant turnover by $\text{O}_3$ ensures a steady flux of DMS from the gas-phase to the aqueous-phase. The mechanism proceeds via the DMSO and MSIA intermediates with MSA as the main product (Glasow and Crutzen, 2004; Hoffmann et al., 2016). The Henry’s law solubility for DMS and DMSO were based on a study by Campolongo et al. (1999), while COSMOtherm (COSMOtherm, 2019) calculations (see supplementary section S2.3) were used to quantify the Henry’s law solubility and acid dissociation (pKa) of MSIA, MSA, hydrated and non-hydrated HPMTF. The Henry’s law solubility of hydrated HPMTF was found comparable to that of MSA, while that of non-hydrated HPMTF proved similar to DMSO. Although Veres et al. (2020) suggested that HPMTF may contribute directly to the growth of aerosol particles, the increase in PM from hydrated HPMTF did not coincide with observations in the chamber experiments. Consequently, HPMTF likely played no (or an insignificant) direct part in the particle growth but remained in the gas-phase as a sulphur reservoir reducing the overall secondary aerosol yield from DMS oxidation. In atmospheric relevant conditions HPMTF may oxidise in cloud droplets analogous to compounds with similar functional groups (Doussin and Monod, 2013). While this reaction pathway has not been validated in the literature, we propose a mechanism that incorporates the aqueous-phase OH-initiated oxidation of HPMTF to $\text{HOOCH}_2\text{SCO}$. The subsequent transfer of $\text{HOOCH}_2\text{SCO}$ to the gas-phase strongly increases the HPMTF derived production of $\text{SO}_2$ and thus $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$.

4.3 Chamber contaminants

Smog chamber experiments have the advantage of elucidating atmospheric phenomena in controlled temperature, RH, UV light and VOC concentration conditions. Even so, contamination from walls and instrument sampling affects the outcome (Sumner et al., 2004). $\text{NO}_x$ pollutants has a high impact on DMS chemistry (Barnes et al., 2006). Both by direct oxidation of intermediate species in the DMS oxidation mechanisms and indirect by the formation of ozone. Chambers exposed regularly build up HONO on the walls from the heterogeneous reaction of $\text{NO}_2$ and water on the Teflon bag surface (Svensson et al., 1987). The HONO wall pool comprise an additional source of $\text{NO}_x$ during chamber experiments. When exposed to UV-lights $\text{NO}_2$ photodissociates to form NO and ground state atomic oxygen O($^3\text{P}$) that combines rapidly with molecular oxygen to yield ozone. In the gas-phase, ozone facilitates the formation of $\text{SO}_2$ via the $\text{CH}_3\text{SO}$ intermediate thereby reducing SA production and NPF. The effect is dominant in high RH conditions, during which $\text{SO}_2$ is taken up by the water film on the Teflon bag. In the aqueous phase, ozone drives the uptake of DMS by rapid oxidation (see section 4.2). $\text{NO}_x$ concentrations were estimated based on the observed ozone formation in the chamber experiments.
Table 3. Overview of conditions used in the model base runs (grey rows) and sensitivity runs (white rows) in both chamber and atmospheric relevant simulations.

| Model run | Specification |
|-----------|---------------|
| **Humid** [DMS6] | (Base) MCMv3.3.1, CAPRAM4.0α, HM2.0, 293 K, ~70%RH, high LWC<sub>wall</sub> |
| (Yin et al., 1990) | Base case with CH<sub>3</sub>SCH<sub>2</sub>OO H-shift rate from Yin et al. (1990) |
| (Veres et al., 2020) | Base case with CH<sub>3</sub>SCH<sub>2</sub>OO H-shift rate from Veres et al. (2020) |
| **Dry** [DMS2] | (Base) MCMv3.3.1, CAPRAM4.0α, HM2.0, 293 K, ~5%RH, low LWC<sub>wall</sub> |
| (Yin et al., 1990) | Base case with MSIA + OH rate by Yin et al. (1990) |
| (Lucas and Prinn, 2002) | Base case with MSIA + OH rate by Lucas and Prinn (2002) |
| **Cold** [DMS7] | (Base) MCMv3.3.1, CAPRAM4.0α, HM2.0, 273 K, ~70%RH, high LWC<sub>wall</sub> |
| AtmMain | (Base) MCMv3.3.1, CAPRAM4.0α, HM2.0, 280 K, 90%RH, cloud period, rain event |
| PolAtm | Base case with high O<sub>3</sub>, HNO<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub> |
| woCloudAtm | Base case without cloud periods and rain event |
| woAqAtm | Base case with aqueous-phase reaction rates set to 0 |
| lowWindAtm | Base case with 2 m s<sup>-1</sup> wind speed |

Matsunaga and Ziemann (2010) described the direct uptake of gas-phase molecules and particulate matter to Teflon surfaces. During long term usage, the concentration of certain sticky species may be build up on the chamber bag in spite of thorough cleaning. Previous experiments performed in the AURA chamber have used (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> as seed particles. Therefore, we motivate the presence of a (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> coating from (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> seed particles deposited on the chamber walls. Depending on the pH of the aqueous solution a fraction of the dissolved NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> will deprotonate and form NH<sub>3</sub>(aq) which evaporates and forms a continuous source of NH<sub>3</sub>(g). Different smog chamber studies have examined NPF from ternary nucleation involving SA, water and NH<sub>3</sub> (Benson et al., 2011; Kürten et al., 2016), and all demonstrate that NH<sub>3</sub> enhance SA nucleation. The influx of NH<sub>3</sub> to the gas-phase was essential to reproduce the particle number (PN) concentration and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> PM observed by PSM/WCPC and HR-ToF-AMS measurements, respectively. The increasing LWC on the chamber walls during humid and cold conditions resulted in lower NH<sub>3</sub>(g) concentrations (Fig. S5), which enables the model to capture the observed lower particle number concentrations during the humid and cold experiment (DMS7) (Fig. S32). Furthermore, a study by Kirkby et al. (2011) performed in the Cosmics Leaving Outdoor Droplets (CLOUD) chamber revealed that trace amounts of NH<sub>3</sub> were always present during experiments, even under extremely clean conditions. Consequently, NH<sub>3</sub> most likely was present, albeit at low concentration, during all chamber experiments.

4.4 Model simulations

The ADCHAM model was constrained to conditions specific for the experiments performed in the AURA smog chamber. Fig. S26-32 compares the modelled and measured gas and particle concentrations for all AURA DMS experiments listed in Table...
Table 4. Summary of modelled DMS conversion yields to HPMTF, SO$_2$, MSA and S(IV), total PM yields and MSA/SO$_2^{2-}$ PM ratios in humid, dry and cold chamber plus atmospheric relevant conditions. Grey rows denote base runs while white rows denote sensitivity runs.

| Model run      | DMS → HPMTF (%) | DMS → SO$_2$ (%) | DMS → MSA (%) | DMS → S(VI) (%) | PM yield [µg cm$^{-3}$] | MSA/SO$_2^{2-}$ |
|----------------|------------------|------------------|---------------|-----------------|------------------------|-----------------|
| **Humid**      |                  |                  |               |                 |                        |                 |
| [DMS6] (Yin et al., 1990) | 0.67             | 2.19             | 0.28          | 0.16            | 4.40                   | 1.72            |
| (Veres et al., 2020)   | 0.29             | 3.44             | 0.51          | 0.31            | 8.38                   | 1.65            |
| **Dry**        |                  |                  |               |                 |                        |                 |
| [DMS2] (Yin et al., 1990) | 15.15            | 6.93             | 2.02          | 0.47            | 16.86                  | 4.34            |
| (Lucas and Prinn, 2002) | 11.53            | 5.99             | 1.02          | 0.41            | 12.14                  | 2.49            |
| **Cold**       |                  |                  |               |                 |                        |                 |
| [DMS7]         | 0.04             | 0.68             | 0.17          | 0.08            | 2.14                   | 1.96            |
| AtmMain        | 6.90             | 2.04             | 26.05         | 15.95           | 1.43                   | 1.63            |
| PoIAtm         | 6.345            | 5.51             | 17.10         | 21.41           | 1.60                   | 0.80            |
| woCloudAtm     | 28.60            | 9.31             | 36.22         | 9.13            | 2.13                   | 3.97            |
| woAqAtm        | 39.20            | 5.02             | 3.65          | 9.07            | 0.29                   | 0.40            |
| lowWindAtm     | 10.54            | 2.17             | 20.32         | 19.71           | 1.07                   | 1.13            |

PM yields in atmospheric relevant simulations exclude Cl$^-$ and Na$^+$ from sea salt aerosols.
PM yields in smog chamber simulations obtained at maximum SMPS PM concentration.

1-2. Different sensitivity runs were performed for three representative experiments (DMS2, DMS6 and DMS7) to highlight the effects of our revised DMS multiphase chemistry mechanism, compared to previous studies. An additional run examined the implemented mechanism in atmospheric relevant conditions. Table 3 provides an outline of each simulation while results are given in Table 4.

4.4.1 Humid chamber

ADCHAM reproduced the MSA, SO$_2^{2-}$ and NH$_4^+$ PM from HR-ToF-AMS measurements along with DMS and O$_3$ concentrations in the AURA smog chamber at 293K and high RH conditions (Fig. 3b,c). In this context, it should be noted that the HR-ToF-AMS PM concentration was corrected using the SMPS particle volume concentration (PV) (Fig. 3e) and HR-ToF-AMS aerosol density (Rosati et al., 2020) analogous to the method by Bahreini et al. (2009) to account for the uncertainties in the HR-ToF-AMS measurements. The model also captured trends in the PN concentration from PSM and SMPS measurements (Fig. 3a,d). We motivate the PN concentration underestimate in the first two hours of the experiment by the presence of organic contamination (Fig. 3b). A similar effect is seen in the modelled PV (Fig. 3e), which likewise does not consider the influence of organics in the aerosol particle formation. A water concentration of 10 g m$^{-3}$ corresponding to a ~3 µm water film was implemented based on model sensitivity runs (Fig. S3). The found optimal LWC are within the same order of magnitude as the value predicted by the butanol experiment (see section 2.1.1). Consequently, H$_2$O$_2$ partitioned strongly to the aqueous-phase
Figure 3. Modelled and measured results from an OH initiated DMS oxidation experiment performed at 293K and 70% RH in the AURA smog chamber. Panel A illustrates PN concentrations at 1.7 nm cut-off obtained from PSM and SMPS measurements, B the HR-ToF-AMS PM composition, C the DMS and O₃ gas-phase concentration decay, D the SMPS number size distribution and E the SMPS PV concentration.

Reducing gas-phase concentration of HO₂ with a factor of ∼ 4 compared to the dry experiments (Fig. S22-23). With the reduction in HO₂, MSA production from the CH₃SO₃ + HO₂ reaction decreased correspondingly. The reduced conversion from CH₃SO₃ to MSA favoured the decomposition of CH₃SO₃ to SO₃ and lowered the MSA/SO₄²⁻ ratio compared to experiments performed in dry conditions (Table 4). The overall mass yield was strongly influenced by the uptake of DMSO and MSIA to the water film. Since the oxidation of MSIA by OH was implemented as an alternative source of CH₃SO₂ (an important precursor of SA and MSA) in the gas-phase mechanism (Kukui et al., 2003), SA and MSA production and concentrations in
the gas-phase were reduced in accordance with the DMSO and MSIA dissolution in the wall aqueous film (Fig. S22-23). Thus, the presence of a water film on the chamber bag surface strongly altered the DMS oxidation product ratio and total PM yield. An organic PM signal was observed consistently in all chamber experiments (Fig. 3b). The effect could not be replicated by considering condensation of DMSO and MSIA onto preexisting particles, and may originate from organic wall contaminants or inflow of air from outside the chamber caused by the continuous instrument sampling. Considering the proportion between organic, MSA and $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ PM, we cannot exclude that such contamination may have affected both particle formation and growth. ADCHAM reproduced the $\text{NH}_4^+$ PM (Fig. 3b) by considering an influx of NH$_3$ from $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ wall contamination (see section 4.3). High amounts of water ensured a more dilute solution, which allowed more NH$_3$ to be dissolved in the aqueous phase on the chamber walls, resulting in lower NH$_3$(g) concentration in the chamber (Fig. S5).

PTR-MS measurements indicated a strong DMS oxidation in the first few hours of the experiment (Fig. 3c). While OH initiated gas-phase oxidation alone could not explain the observed trend, the aqueous-phase oxidation by O$_3$ improved the fit (Fig. S8). DMS has a small Henry’s law solubility and the majority resides in the gas-phase (Campolongo et al., 1999).

However, the O$_3$ present in the water film ensured a steady conversion of DMS to DMSO and hence a flux of DMS between the gas-phase and aqueous-phase. The uptake of O$_3$ to the water film was apparent from the decrease in O$_3$ concentration observed in the experiment (Fig. 3c). In dry conditions, O$_3$ was found to increase gradually from NO$_x$ contamination (see section 4.3). These results strongly advocate the presence of a chamber wall water film. Despite the aqueous-phase uptake O$_3$ remained abundant in the gas-phase, thus favouring the $\text{CH}_3\text{SO} + \text{O}_3$ reaction and promoting SO$_2$ production. The reduced importance of SO$_2$ in gas-phase SA formation worked to lower the overall SA and MSA production, since SO$_2$ was taken up by the water film. Consequently, the gas-phase O$_3$ abundance decreased SA production and hence NPF.

MSIA oxidation by OH was essential to capture the observed onset in NPF from PSM and SMPS measurements (Fig. 3a). The reaction increases the rate of CH$_3$SO$_2$, CH$_3$SO$_3$ and hence SA production. The effect was also achieved by implementing the isomerisation of CH$_3$SOO to form CH$_3$SO$_2$. This is an important result, since neither of said reactions are implemented in MCM. The strong uptake of H$_2$O$_2$ to the water film likewise increased SA production and NPF by lowering HO$_2$ concentrations in the gas-phase, which led to a decrease in the rate of the CH$_3$SO$_3$ + HO$_2$ reaction and promoted SO$_3$ production from the thermal decomposition of CH$_3$SO$_3$. Consequently, SA production and hence NPF occurred faster during high RH conditions. The total PN concentrations remained low due to the uptake of DMSO and MSIA to the water film.

The autoxidation of the CH$_3$SCH$_2$OO radical leading to the formation of HPMTF exerted a strong influence on the PM yield in the humid chamber experiments. The effect was evident when implementing the rate limiting H-shift reaction constant as suggested by Yin et al. (1990) and Veres et al. (2020), respectively (Table 4), as opposed to rate proposed by Berndt et al. (2019). PM yields decreased by 48 percent in accordance with the study by Yin et al. (1990), and increased by 90 percent in accordance with the study by Veres et al. (2020). The difference coincides with the production and accumulation of HPMTF in the gas-phase. In consequence of the high sensitivity of the reaction rate to the model outcome, more detailed studies of the HPMTF autooxidation pathway are needed to overcome the uncertainty related to the current mechanism.

Overall, modelling the OH-initiated DMS oxidation at high RH strongly indicated the presence of a water film on the Teflon bag. This crucial finding comprise an important consideration when performing smog chamber experiments, and could help to...
Figure 4. Modelled and measured results from two separate DMS experiments performed in the AURA smog chamber at dry (red) and humid (blue) conditions, respectively. Panel A shows the PTR-MS progression in $O_3$ concentration, B the HR-ToF-AMS MSA to $SO_4^{2-}$ ratio C the SMPS total secondary aerosol mass concentration. The HR-ToF-AMS chemical composition is illustrated by pie charts.

explain the complex interaction between gaseous species and chamber walls. The effect, however, remains uncertain (Svensson et al., 1987; Sumner et al., 2004) and requires further investigation to be validated.

4.4.2 Dry chamber

ADCHAM captures the difference in secondary aerosol PM concentration between dry and humid experiments performed in the AURA smog chamber (Fig. 4c). The water film concentration was kept low in accordance with the study by Svensson et al.
(1987), and had little effect on the DMS oxidation. Consequently, almost all DMSO and a large fraction of MSIA remained in the gas-phase (Fig. S17-18, Fig. S22) and increased the total MSA and SA PM. The limited uptake of MSIA to the water film made the MSIA + OH reaction essential to reproduce the MSA PM production. By contrast, said reaction had little impact on the overall PM yield in high RH conditions since MSIA dissolve and react almost exclusively in the aqueous-phase. While different rates has been reported for the oxidation of MSIA by OH in literature, $1.0 \times 10^{-12} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecule}^{-1}$ (Lucas and Prinn, 2002) and $1.6 \times 10^{-11} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecule}^{-1}$ (Yin et al., 1990), the increased rate of $1.0 \times 10^{-10} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecule}^{-1}$ proposed by Kukui et al. (2003) offered a good agreement with the observed PM concentration (see supplementary Fig. S33). This result entails that the main pathway leading to gas-phase MSA production in low RH chamber or cloud-free atmospheric conditions proceeds not by the abstraction pathway as assumed in previous studies but via the addition pathway. A similar conclusions was drawn in a study by Glasow and Crutzen (2004). The effect became more profound when incorporating the production of HMPTF by autoxidation (Veres et al., 2020). In this case, the rate proposed by Berndt et al. (2019) ensured a strong decrease in SA and MSA production formed via the abstraction pathway. Consequently, the OH-initiated addition to DMS and subsequent oxidation pathway proved the main source of secondary aerosol PM in the AURA chamber at low RH conditions. The effect of the MSIA + OH reaction rate on the PM yield is evident from the results in Table 4. The reaction rate proposed by Yin et al. (1990) and Lucas and Prinn (2002) decreased the PM yield by 28 and 36 percent, respectively, as opposed to the rate suggested by Kukui et al. (2003). A better understanding of this reaction is needed to improve model predictions on the production of MSA and SA in the gas-phase.

The $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ (and hence $\text{HO}_2$) partitioned readily to the aqueous-phase in the humid experiments but not in the dry. The difference is evident from the MSA/$\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ PM ratio observed in dry and humid experiments (Fig. 4b). In the dry experiments the high $\text{HO}_2$ gas-phase concentration favoured the $\text{CH}_3\text{SO}_3 + \text{HO}_2$ reaction and therefore MSA as opposed to SA production. Thus, MSA dominated the observed PM mass in dry conditions. In the humid experiments the substantially lower $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ and hence $\text{HO}_2$ gas-phase concentration limited the $\text{CH}_3\text{SO}_3 + \text{HO}_2$ reaction and favoured the decomposition of $\text{CH}_3\text{SO}_3$ to $\text{SO}_3$ and hence SA. Consequently, $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ PM production matched that of MSA in humid conditions. The initial $\text{O}_3$ concentration appeared low during dry conditions, but increased consistently as each experiment progressed (Fig. 4a). This response incites a constant influx of $\text{NO}_x$ which may arise from a HONO wall pool (see section 4.3) and NO$_2$ contamination from air leaking in from outside the Teflon bag. The decrease in the gas-phase $\text{O}_3$ concentration observed in humid conditions was associated with the uptake of $\text{O}_3$ to the Teflon bag water film. Our model results indicate that such uptake was of no or insignificant importance during dry conditions (Fig. S7).

### 4.4.3 Cold chamber

At 273K the rate of OH addition surpassed that of H-abstraction in the initial step of DMS oxidation. Production rates of DMSO and MSIA increased accordingly, but gas-phase concentrations remained low as both species partitioned strongly to the water film (Fig. S24). The autoxidation pathway leading to HPMTF formation proved insignificant at 273K due to the temperature dependence on the rate determining H-shift in the $\text{CH}_3\text{SCH}_2\text{OO}$ radical intermediate. Thus, the strong decrease in secondary aerosol formation from the increased formation and uptake of DMSO and MSIA was counterbalanced by the decrease in...
HPMTF production. SO$_3$ formation from thermal decomposition of CH$_3$SO$_3$ decreased in accordance with the chamber temperature. This response induced a substantial increase in MSA gas-phase and PM production that did not reflect observations in the AURA chamber - Table 4 illustrates how the MSA/SO$_4^{2-}$ ratio remains independent to changes in temperature. To solve the gap between model and measurements, the water film concentrations was increased from 10 g m$^{-3}$ to 500 g m$^{-3}$ (Fig. S4). Consequently, the gas-phase concentration of H$_2$O$_2$ and hence HO$_2$ decreased along with the CH$_3$SO$_3$ + HO$_2$ reaction rate, thereby reducing MSA formation while promoting SO$_3$ and thus SA production. Sumner et al. (2004) applied Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) theory to describe the adsorption of water on a Teflon bag surface, and argued that a decrease in temperature would enhance the uptake of water. Furthermore, RH calculations based on temperature measurements outside the chamber bag suggests that supersaturation may have occurred along the bag surface due to strong outside cooling. These findings, together with the observed slow 1-butanol decay during similar cold humid conditions (Fig. S1), advocate the increase in water film concentration needed to reproduce PM observations (Fig. S32).

The uptake of gaseous species to the aqueous-phase increased in accordance with the water film concentration and Henry’s law theory (Fig. S24). Most important was the decrease in the gas-phase NH$_3$ that worked to suppress the onset and total concentration of NPF (Fig. S5).

4.4.4 Atmospheric implication

DMS decay dominated during the day when the UV light intensity and thus the gas-phase concentration of oxidant species OH, Cl and BrO was high (Fig. 5b). BrO and Cl-initiated oxidation of DMS accounted for 40.4 and 25.7 percent of the total sink flux over the entire simulation, respectively. Thus highlighting the importance of halogen chemistry in the DMS oxidation mechanism. In this context, it is important to note that the presence of sea spray aerosols and consequently halogen compounds is highly dependant on wind speed. While Cl and BrO radicals comprise the main sink flux of DMS at 8 m s$^{-1}$, their influence decrease substantially at 2 m s$^{-1}$. This effect is apparent from the lowWindAtm sensitivity run, in which OH dominates the oxidation of DMS (see supplementary Fig. S37). Furthermore, other studies (Kristensen et al., 2016) regard sea salt particles as unimportant to the submicron aerosol number concentrations in the marine atmosphere. This statement stands in stark contrast to the sea spray parameterisation by Salter et al. (2015) utilised in this work. Therefore, it is plausible that the emission of the sea salt aerosols and thus the halogen radical concentration may be overestimated in the model.

Halogen activation inside the sea salt aerosols comprised the main source of both Br and Cl in the gas-phase. Analogous to the work by Braeuer et al. (2013) chloride ions were activated by the iodine species HOI in the deliquesced sea-salt particles, forming ICl capable of transferring to the gas-phase. BrCl formed by bromide activation also partitioned to the gas-phase. Both species photodissociated proportional to the UV light intensity causing Br and Cl concentrations to peak at midday in non-cloud conditions. Br and Cl gas-phase radicals reacted strongly with ozone to form BrO and ClO. While ClO had little effect on the DMS decay, BrO comprised the main oxidant and dominated the sink flux of DMS (Fig. 5b). During in-cloud periods the halogen activation terminated and both bromide and chloride stayed in the aqueous-phase. Consequently, neither BrCl nor ICl was released to the gas-phase thus decreasing the sink flux of DMS by halogen species.
Figure 5. Modelled DMS oxidation and subsequent PM production in pristine marine environment conditions. Panel A illustrates the evolution of DMS, SA, MSA, HMPTF, MSIA and DMSO gas-phase concentrations, B the sink fluxes of DMS due to Cl, OH, BrO, NO$_3$ and O$_3$ and C the number size distribution and secondary aerosol PM production. Light blue areas denote in-cloud period, in which rain events are represented as dark blue. Night and daytime periods are represented by the normalised UV-intensity and marked by grey and white areas, respectively.

The net effect of the OH-initiated oxidation of DMS accounted for 32.0 percent of the total sink flux over the entire simulation. Although the oxidation capacity of OH differed from those of halogens BrO and Cl it still comprised an considerable part in the decay of DMS in atmospheric relevant conditions. During in-cloud periods the phase transfer of OH and its precursor O$_3$ decreased the gas-phase oxidation of DMS. Despite the uptake a significant amount remained in the gas-phase. As a result, the sink flux of DMS by OH radicals exceeded that of halogen species during in-cloud periods. Besides OH the aqueous-phase oxidation of DMS by O$_3$ proved the main sink of DMS during in-cloud periods. The importance of said reaction increased as the UV-light intensity decreased and hence the Cl, BrO and OH gas-phase concentrations decreased. Consequently, the night-
time in-cloud oxidation of DMS was solely due to aqueous-phase O$_3$. During nighttime non-cloud periods the NO$_3$ radical proved a small but stand-alone sink of DMS.

The main gas-phase products comprised HPMTF, DMSO, MSIA and SO$_2$, whereas MSA and SA were present only in small quantities (Fig. 5a). HPMTF, DMSO and SO$_2$ accumulated in the gas-phase in between cloud periods while MSIA, SA and MSA condensed onto the preexisting sea salt aerosols. The large surface area ensured a strong condensation sink and prevented NPF from SA and NH$_3$ nucleation. SA in the gas-phase formed predominantly via the SO$_3$ intermediate from the thermal decomposition of CH$_3$SO$_3$. The oxidation of SO$_2$ by OH proved a small but insignificant source of SA. Consequently, NPF involving SA from marine DMS emissions may solely stem from SA production via the CH$_3$SO$_3$ intermediate. This finding is consistent with the study by Hoffmann et al. (2016). Although essential for the formation of new particles, SA produced in the gas-phase proved insignificant to the overall formation of SO$_4^{2-}$ PM. During in-cloud periods, SO$_2$ partitioned strongly to aqueous-phase. The subsequent oxidation by O$_3$ and H$_2$O$_2$ comprised the main source of SO$_4^{2-}$ PM throughout the simulation. MSA in the gas-phase formed almost exclusively via the CH$_3$SO$_3$ intermediate. However, the strong uptake of MSIA to the particles made the system less sensitive to the MSIA + OH reaction. As a result, the gas-phase MSA production proved insignificant to the total MSA PM concentration. Instead, MSA was almost exclusively formed via the aqueous-phase oxidation by O$_3$ in both the deliquesced particles and cloud droplets in between and during in-cloud periods, respectively (see supplementary Fig. S38). The uptake of MSIA to the aerosol particles, and thus the importance of the MSIA + OH reaction, does, however, depend strongly on the Henry’s law solubility of MSIA, which is highly uncertain. The Henry’s law solubility utilised in this work was based on COSMOtherm calculations and exceeded that suggested in previous studies (Barnes et al., 2006; Hoffmann et al., 2016) by more than one order of magnitude. In this context, it is important to note that the Henry’s law solubility of MSIA utilised by Barnes et al. (2006) and Hoffmann et al. (2016) were assumptions based the Henry’s law solubility of DMSO and MSA. The extent of the aqueous-phase MSA production increased in accordance with the increased uptake of MSIA to the particle-phase. This finding contradicts the work by Glasow and Crutzen (2004), in which the gas-phase production of MSA comprised more than half of the total MSA yield. The difference was unexpected, since Glasow and Crutzen (2004) implemented the MSIA + OH reaction and rate based on the experimental work by Kukui et al. (2003) also utilised in this paper. The effect was explained by the aqueous-phase oxidation of MSIA by O$_3$, not considered in the study by Glasow and Crutzen (2004). Without this reaction, MSA in the aqueous-phase formed primarily by OH oxidation and thus solely during in-cloud periods when the aqueous OH concentration was high.

DMSO resided in the gas-phase in between cloud periods, but partitioned strongly to the aqueous-phase when clouds were present. OH radicals facilitated the conversion of DMSO to MSIA in the cloud droplets during the day. At night, the OH oxidation terminated and DMSO was released back to the gas-phase in accordance with the cloud evaporation. The uptake of DMSO and subsequent oxidation to MSIA and thus MSA increased the MSA production during cloud periods.

Due to its high stability, HPMTF accumulated in the gas-phase during clear conditions, an insignificant fraction being oxidised by OH. Analogous to the field measurements by Veres et al. (2020) HPMTF was taken up by aqueous cloud particles during in-cloud periods. Veres et al. (2020) claimed that HPMTF may likely contribute directly to particle formation and growth, but failed to provide adequate prove for this finding. COSMOtherm calculations quantifying the Henry’s law solu-
bility of HPMTF render its contribution to particle growth very insignificant, and neither ADCHAM nor the AURA chamber experiments suggests that HPMTF resides in the aerosol-phase. Furthermore, HPMTF is unlikely to contribute to NPF. This is caused by the fact that the functional groups in the HPMTF molecule is a carbonyl group and a hydroperoxide group. Based on COSMOtherm calculations (Kurtén et al., 2016), it has been well-established that highly oxygenated organic molecules (HOMs) consisting of multiple carbonyl-, hydroperoxy- and peroxy acid functional groups may not have low vapour pressures, despite their high O:C ratios, especially if the HOM contains only few H-bond donors (Hyttinen et al., 2020). Furthermore, quantum chemical calculations have shown that in order for a given organic highly oxidized organic molecule to be involved in sulfuric acid based new particle formation it must contain several strong binding moieties such as carboxylic acid groups (Elm et al., 2017). The importance of HPMTF in new particle formation is further diminished by the fact that the monomer can be stabilised by an intramolecular hydrogen bond between the -OOH and O=C- groups. This implies that the intramolecular hydrogen bond needs to be broken before HPMTF can cluster with another molecule. Using quantum chemical calculations it has been shown that such intramolecular hydrogen bonds hinder strong cluster formation between sulfuric acid and highly oxidized C₆H₈O₇ peroxy acid products formed from cyclohexene ozonolysis (Elm et al., 2015, 2016). HPMTF may, however, indirectly contribute to particle growth via the aqueous-phase oxidation by OH forming SO₂ and hence SO₄²⁻. At present, no data on the aqueous-phase oxidation of HPMTF is available in the literature. Instead, a rate constant of the OH-initiated oxidation of HPMTF was estimated based on experimental data of compounds with similar functional groups (Doussin and Monod, 2013). Unlike the slow gas-phase oxidation, the implemented rate ensured a strong sink flux of HPMTF in the aqueous-phase. The formed intermediate HOOCH₂SCO partitioned readily to the gas-phase and oxidised to form SO₂. Consequently, the aqueous-phase oxidation of HMPTF may increase the conversion of HPMTF to SO₂ and thus the SO₄²⁻ PM production. However, further investigations are required to overcome the uncertainties linked to said reaction. The weak oxidation of HPMTF by OH and consequent accumulation in the gas-phase could potentially reduce the local effect of DMS derived aerosol formation, as HPMTF may be transported large distances before partitioning to and oxidise in aqueous cloud particles.

Previous model studies (Glasow and Crutzen, 2004; Braeuer et al., 2013; Hoffmann et al., 2016) did not consider the effect of precipitation on the gas-phase concentration of aerosol particles and gaseous species. Therefore, a 5 mm h⁻¹ intensity rain event and below cloud scavenging of particles and gases according to the parameterisations by Laakso et al. (2003) and Simpson et al. (2003) were implemented in the base model run (Fig. 5c). The wet deposition of aerosol particles efficiently lowered the available surface area and thus decreased the condensation sink of SA and NH₃. Following the rain event a distinct growth mode occurred, initialised by NPF of said gaseous species. Unlike the main growth mode dominated by the presence of sea spray aerosols, the new mode grew solely by SA, MSA and SO₄²⁻ produced in the gas-phase and particle-phase, respectively. A distinct Hoppel minimum formed in the main growth mode proceeding the first cloud period (Fig. 5c), becoming more profound by each cloud passage. The effect was most distinct during the day, in which the activated cloud particles grew considerably by the ample SO₂ concentration. The absence of a Hoppel minimum in both the woCloudAtm (see suplementary Fig. S33) and woAqAtm (see suplementary Fig. S34) sensitivity run demonstrates the contribution of in-cloud and aqueous-phase chemistry to the total PM concentration.
The woCloudAtm sensitivity run demonstrated the importance of cloud chemistry in the ambient atmosphere. Semi-soluble products HPMTF and SO₂ did not partition to the deliquesced particles, and thus their conversion yields increased as both species accumulated in the gas-phase (Table 4). SO₄²⁻ PM production decreased in consequence of the reduction in aqueous SO₂. Unlike AtmMain, SA proved an important source of secondary aerosol mass. The increase in the SO₂ gas-phase concentration promoted SA production and thus SA derived SO₄²⁻ PM. MSA formation remained indifferent from AtmMain and dominated in the deliquesced aerosol particles. Consequently, the MSA to SO₄²⁻ PM ratio proved higher in woCloudAtm than AtmMain. The absence of a rain event in woCloudAtm increased the overall secondary aerosol mass yield by 95 percent. This effect was caused by the decrease in the wet deposition of aerosol particles. The PN concentration in the NPF event that followed decreased accordingly, as the condensation sink of species SA and NH₃ capable of forming new particles remained high. By comparison the PN concentration in the NPF event following the rain event in AtmMain was one degree of magnitude higher. Unlike AtmMain, NPF events in woCloudAtm occurred consistently throughout the simulation (see supplementary Fig. S35). Each event initiated in the morning in accordance with the increase in OH, BrO and Cl concentrations and thus DMS oxidation and SA production. The lack of clouds allowed the particles to grow to approximately 30 nm in particle mode diameter. In AtmMain, morning NPF events were terminated by the uptake of SA and NH₃ to the cloud particles. Overall, cloud free conditions promoted the gas-phase SA production and thus NPF, but impeded SO₂ derived SO₄²⁻ PM formation in the aqueous particle phase as species SO₂ and HPMTF accumulated in the gas-phase.

The effects of aqueous-phase chemistry in both the deliquesced particles and cloud droplets were validated in the woAqAtm sensitivity run. Bromide and chloride ions did not activate as no iodine chemistry took place in the aerosol particles. Consequently, neither HOBr nor ICl entered the gas-phase and thus no BrO or Cl radicals were formed. The lack of reactive halogen species lowered the sink flux of DMS, causing it to accumulate in the gas-phase throughout the simulation (see supplementary Fig. S36). The total secondary aerosol yield decreased in accordance with the decrease in DMS decay (Table 4). MSA PM production proved strongly reduced in woAqAtm relative to AtmMain. While woAqAtm still considered the phase transfer of soluble species, no reactions took place in the particle-phase. As a result, MSIA did not oxidise by O₃ to form MSA in the deliquesced particles. Instead, MSA formed solely in the gas-phase via the CH₃SO₃ intermediate. The decrease in MSA production is evident from the decrease in the MSA/SO₄²⁻ PM ratio (Table 4). Analogous to woCloudAtm the SO₄²⁻ PM production was strongly reduced as SO₂ did not transform in the particle-phase. SO₂ and CH₃SO₃ derived SA formation in the gas-phase therefore comprised the only source of SO₄²⁻ PM throughout the simulation. In conclusion, the absence of aqueous-phase chemistry lead to an underestimation of both SO₄²⁻ and in particular MSA PM production and thus the total secondary aerosol yield.

The PolAtm sensitivity run reproduced DMS chemistry in polluted marine environments of high initial O₃ and NO₂ gas-phase concentrations. Model inputs were based on measurements in the marine boundary layer at Tudor Hill, Bermuda, and the English Channel (Boylan et al., 2015; Leser et al., 2003). Both locations experience high O₃ and NOₓ pollution from the USA and Europe, respectively. The day and night-time DMS sink flux increased in accordance with pollutants O₃ and NO₂, respectively, by the increase in oxidants OH and NO₃ (see supplementary Fig. S34). The effect is evident from the increase in the total secondary aerosol mass yield (Table 4). Elevated NO₃ concentrations favoured the abstraction pathway
and thus the formation of HPMTF, and suppressed the gas-phase production of DMSO and MSIA in the addition pathway. The effect was counterbalanced by the increase in aqueous-phase production of DMSO and MSIA from the increase in O$_3$-initiated DMS oxidation in the aerosol cloud droplets. Elevated O$_3$ concentrations promoted SO$_2$ production via the CH$_3$SO and HOOCH$_2$SO intermediates. However, analogous to HPMTF the increase was not reflected in the conversion yields (Table 4). The increased OH and O$_3$ oxidation capacity of the aqueous-phase ensured a high uptake and turn-over rate of species SO$_2$ and HPMTF, thus lowering their respective gas-phase concentrations.

5 Conclusions

We have presented ADCHAM simulation of the OH-derived oxidation of DMS and subsequent particle formation and growth in the AURA smog chamber and under relevant atmospheric conditions. New particles in the chamber experiments formed primarily by nucleation of SA (produced in the gas-phase via the CH$_3$SO$_3$ intermediate), and NH$_3$, and grew by condensation of MSA. The total production of secondary aerosol mass and the MSA to SA ratio was strongly influenced by the formation of a liquid water film on the Teflon bag chamber wall, the effect of which increased in accordance with RH. Water soluble reaction products and intermediates DMS, DMSO, DMSO$_2$, MSIA, HPMTF, MSA and SA were taken up by the water film. Consequently, the secondary aerosol PM production decreased significantly during experiments performed at humid conditions (50-80% RH) compared to experiments performed at dry conditions (0-12% RH). Recently discovered autoxidation product HPMTF comprised a large fraction of the gas-phase products produced in both smog chamber and atmospheric relevant simulations, but proved insignificant to the direct formation and growth of aerosol particles. HPMTF may, however, contribute indirectly to the particle growth by oxidising in the aqueous-phase to form SO$_2$ and thus SA and SO$_4^{2-}$. At high RH the rate of CH$_3$SCH$_3$OO autoxidation leading to the formation of HMPTF had a strong impact on the secondary mass yield in the chamber experiments. At low RH, the oxidation of MSIA by OH proved essential to the total particle mass. Overall, a significant revision of the DMS oxidation mechanisms presented in literature was needed to reproduce the measurements obtained in the AURA smog chamber.

OH-derived oxidation of DMS in an atmospheric relevant context comprised a significant DMS sink, but proved less important than the equivalent oxidation by halogen species BrO and Cl. The relative importance of OH oxidation increased in accordance with a decrease in wind speed, which lowered sea spray emissions and thus the gas-phase concentration of reactive halogen species. The large surface area of the sea spray aerosols induced a strong condensation sink, thus impeding NPF. By introducing precipitation in the model the decrease in the condensation sink was sufficient to allow new particles to form by nucleation of SA and NH$_3$.

Smog chamber studies are able to elucidate atmospheric phenomena in a controlled environment, but rarely represent actual atmospheric conditions. Therefore, future studies will focus on implementing the revised DMS chemistry in the chemistry transport model ADCHEM, and test the setup on field measurements from the marine Arctic environment.
Code and data availability. All source codes, including the complete ADCHAM model version and plotting programs used to conduct the analysis presented in this paper can be obtained by contacting the corresponding author R.W.J. All results presented in the paper and supplementary material and the complete DMS multiphase chemistry mechanism (Supplementary Tables S1) written in a format compatible with the Kinetic PreProcessor (KPP) Damian et al. (2002) can be downloaded from an open archive provided by the data publisher PANGAEA [https://doi.org/XXX]

Author contributions. Conceptualisation, R.W.J, P.R. and S.C; Methodology, R.W.J., P.R., J.E. and N.H.; Software, R.W.J. and P.R.; Formal analysis, R.W.J., P.R. and D.L.; Investigation, R.W.J., B.R. and S.C.; Resources, P.R. and M.B.; Writing – original draft, R.W.J., P.R., J.E. and N.H.; Visualisation, R.W.J. and P.R.; Supervision, P.R., J.E. and M.B.

Competing interests. The authors declare no competing interests.

Acknowledgements. The authors would like to thank Tinja Olenius from the Swedish Meteorological and Hydrological Institute (SMHI) for help with the implementation of ADCD in ADCHAM and Mads Mørk Jensen for the calibration and interpretation of the AMS measurements. This project has received funding from the Swedish Research Council Formas project no. 2018-01745-COBACCA, Swedish Research Council VR project no. 2019-05006, the Austrian Science Fund (FWF: J 3970-N36), Aarhus University, the Faroese Research Foundation grant 0454, the Independent Research Fund Denmark grant number 9064-00001B and the European Research Council (ERC) under the European Union’s Horizon 2020 research and innovation programme, Project SURFACE (Grant Agreement No. 717022). We thank the Swedish Strategic Research Program MERGE, the Centre for Scientific and Technical Computing at Lund University, LUNARC, the Swedish National Infrastructure for Computing, SNIC and CSC - IT Center for Science, Finland, for computational resources.
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