# 1 The role of organic condensation on ultrafine particle growth during 2 nucleation events

3 D. Patoulias<sup>1,2</sup>, C. Fountoukis<sup>2</sup>, I. Riipinen<sup>3</sup> and S. N. Pandis<sup>1,2,4</sup>

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5 [1] Department of Chemical Engineering, University of Patras, Patras, Greece

6 [2] Institute of Chemical Engineering Sciences, Foundation for Research and Technology Hellas

7 (FORTH/ICE-HT), Patras, Greece

8 [3] Department of Applied Environmental Science & Bert Bolin Centre for Climate Research,

9 Stockholm University, Stockholm, Sweden

[4] Department of Chemical Engineering, Carnegie Mellon University, Pittsburgh, PA 15213,
 USA

# 12 Abstract

A new aerosol dynamics model (DMANx) has been developed that simulates aerosol 13 size/composition distribution and includes the condensation of organic vapors on nanoparticles 14 through the implementation of the recently developed Volatility Basis Set framework. 15 Simulations were performed for Hyytiala (Finland) and Finokalia (Greece), two locations with 16 17 different organic sources where detailed measurements were available to constrain the new model. We investigate the effect of condensation of organics and chemical aging reactions of 18 19 secondary organic aerosol (OA) precursors on ultrafine particle growth and particle number 20 concentration during a typical springtime nucleation event in both locations. This work 21 highlights the importance of the pathways of oxidation of biogenic volatile organic compounds and the production of extremely low-volatility organics. At Hyytiala, organic condensation 22 dominates the growth process of new particles. The low-volatility secondary OA contributes to 23 particle growth during the early growth stage, but after a few hours most of the growth is due to 24 semi-volatile secondary OA. At Finokalia, simulations show that organics have a complementary 25 role to new particle growth contributing 45% to the total mass of new particles. Condensation of 26 27 organics increases the number concentration of particles that can act as CCN ( $N_{100}$ ) by 13% at 28 Finokalia and 25% at Hyptiala during a typical spring day with nucleation. The sensitivity of our results to the surface tension used is discussed. 29

#### **1. Introduction**

New particles are introduced in the atmosphere by i) direct emissions from a variety of 32 (primary) sources and, ii) nucleation (in situ formation). Nucleation and subsequent growth of 33 new particles is often observed in most areas of the globe (Kulmala et al., 2004) and represents 34 an important source of ambient aerosol number concentration. Fresh particles formed by 35 nucleation can either grow through condensation of vapors (e.g. sulfuric acid and ammonia, 36 37 organics) to larger sizes or can be lost by coagulation with pre-existing larger particles. The newly formed particles that manage to survive coagulation can grow to larger sizes and become 38 39 cloud condensation nuclei (CCN) affecting the cloud droplet number concentration (Adams and Seinfeld, 2002). Nucleation and subsequent growth by condensation can be an important source 40 of CCN (Lihavainen et al., 2003; Kerminen et al., 2005; Laaksonen et al., 2005; Merikanto et al., 41 42 2009; Makkonen et al., 2009; Pierce and Adams, 2009b; Wang and Penner, 2009; Yu and Luo, 2009; Spracklen et al., 2010). Changes in CCN concentration affect cloud optical properties and 43 cloud lifetime, perturbing the energy balance of the planet (Twomey 1974; 1977; 1991; Albrecht, 44 1989). An increase of the number concentration of particles that can act as CCN results in higher 45 cloud droplet number concentrations and brighter clouds with longer lifetimes. Measurements of 46 47 CCN at a non-urban site in Germany suggested that CCN concentrations are mainly determined by the aerosol number size distribution while the composition of aerosol plays a secondary role 48 (Dusek et al., 2006). Furthermore, nanoparticles can affect human health by deposition in the 49 human lungs or the neurological system. For small particles the damage can be greater due to the 50 larger surface area per unit mass (Peters et al., 1997; Donaldson et al, 1998; 2002). The effects of 51 aerosol composition on human health are still uncertain (Godleski et al., 2000). 52

Several mechanisms have been proposed to explain in-situ particle formation. These 53 include sulfuric acid-water binary nucleation (Nilsson and Kulmala, 1998; Vehkamaki et al., 54 2002), ternary nucleation (Coffman and Hegg, 1995; Korhonen et al., 1999; Kulmala et al., 2002; 55 Napari et al., 2002), nucleation of organic vapors (Marti et al., 1997; Zhang et al., 2004), ion-56 induced nucleation (Laakso et al., 2002) and halogen-oxide nucleation (Hoffmann et al., 2001). 57 The binary nucleation mechanism has been the most commonly used in atmospheric models with 58 the critical cluster assumed to be composed of H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O. Ternary nucleation theory 59 usually includes ammonia (NH<sub>3</sub>) as a third component. It is possible that other compounds (e.g. 60 organics, amines) may play a similar role under certain conditions (Bonn et al., 2008; Kurten et 61

al., 2008; Metzger et al., 2010; Smith et al., 2010; Berndt et al., 2010; Zhao et al., 2011; Kirkby 62 et al., 2011; Almeida et al., 2013; Riccobono et al., 2014). A strong correlation has been found 63 between measured aerosol nucleation rate and the gas-phase sulfuric acid concentration (Weber 64 et al., 1996; Sihto et al., 2006; Riipinen et al., 2007; Kuang et al., 2008; Nieminen et al., 2009; 65 Paasonen et al., 2009; 2010) in various sites in Europe and the United States. Nucleation events 66 observed in sulfur-rich regions like the northeastern US appear to be initiated by the formation of 67 gas-phase H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> (via SO<sub>2</sub> oxidation) but terminated by the exhaustion of gas-phase NH<sub>3</sub> or other 68 bases (Jung et al., 2008). Ambient measurements and some laboratory studies (Sipila et al., 69 70 2010) have revealed a linear or squared correlation between new particle formation rate and concentration of sulfuric acid. 71

72 Significant uncertainties arise also from the incomplete understanding of the identity of 73 the species involved in the growth of these nuclei (Kulmala et al., 2004). Field measurements (Eisele and McMurry, 1997; Weber et al., 1998, 1999; Janson et al., 2001) and model 74 simulations (Kerminen et al., 2001; Kulmala et al., 2000; Pirjola and Kulmala, 2001; Anttila and 75 Kerminen, 2003) indicated that the condensation of sulfuric acid alone is often not sufficient to 76 explain the observed growth rates of fresh particles (Riipenen et al., 2011). The growth of fresh 77 78 nuclei could be due to the condensation of organic species (Kerminen et al., 2000; Anttila and Kerminen, 2003), heterogeneous reactions (Zhang and Wexler, 2002), or ion-enhanced 79 80 condensation (Laakso et al., 2002).

Jung et al. (2010) developed a three-dimensional regional chemical transport model 81 (CTM), PMCAMx-UF, with detailed aerosol microphysics (Gaydos et al., 2007; Karydis et al., 82 2007) that has been used for simulations over the US and Europe (Fountoukis et al., 2012). In 83 Europe the model predictions were compared against size distribution measurements from seven 84 sites (Fountoukis et al., 2012). The model was found to reproduce more than 70% of the hourly 85 number concentrations of particles larger than 10 nm  $(N_{10})$  within a factor of 2. For particles 86 larger than 100 nm (N<sub>100</sub>, a proxy for the number of particles that can act as CCN) a systematic 87 underprediction was seen. The growth rates were also underpredicted (with smaller errors in sites 88 where the sulfate to organics mass ratio is high (e.g., Melpitz)) possibly because of insufficient 89 organic vapor condensation (Fountoukis et al., 2012) as the model did not explicitly include 90 secondary organic aerosol (SOA) condensation on ultrafine particles. Yu (2011) and Riipinen et 91 al. (2011) studied the condensation of organics on ultrafine particles using global CTMs. Yu 92

(2011) estimated that the concentration of low volatility organics is a factor of 2-20 higher than 93 the H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> concentration in many continental locations and can significantly enhance the growth 94 rate of freshly nucleated particles. He compared predicted particle size distributions with field 95 measurements in a boreal forest site (Hyytiala, Finland) showing that the condensation of low 96 volatility organics can bring the simulation results closer to the observations. Riipinen et al. 97 (2011) estimated that roughly half of the condensed organic mass needs to be distributed 98 proportionally to the aerosol surface area to explain the observed aerosol growth. These organic 99 compounds need to have both high yields and very low volatility which is inconsistent with 100 101 laboratory observations of the first generation yields of SOA from biogenic precursors (Presto et al., 2006, Pathak et al., 2007, Pandis et al., 2013). Pierce et al. (2011) estimated that the average 102 effective saturation concentration ( $C^*$ ) of condensing organics needs to be  $10^{-3}-10^{-2} \mu g m^{-3}$  or 103 less to enhance the growth of freshly nucleated particles. 104

105 Secondary organic aerosol accounts for a significant mass fraction (20-90%) of submicrometer particulate matter at many locations around the globe and is one of the most 106 dominant particle components in the atmosphere (Jimenez et al., 2009). The sources and the 107 chemical composition of OA are still uncertain due to the large number (tens of thousands) of 108 109 different atmospheric organic compounds (Goldstein and Galbally, 2007). OA has been the subject of numerous studies during the last decade (Hallquist et al., 2009) but remains the least 110 understood component of atmospheric aerosols. The organic aerosol composition continuously 111 evolves with time due to various chemical reactions (Kanakidou et al., 2005). Gas-phase 112 oxidation of volatile organic compounds (VOCs) produces semi-volatile products that can then 113 condense to the particulate phase. Products with high vapour pressures can be oxidized to species 114 with lower vapour pressures that can then condense on preexisting particles. The chemical aging 115 (further oxidation) of semivolatile organic compounds is an important source of OA mass 116 (Donahue et al., 2006). Until recently most CTMs described secondary OA formation using two 117 surrogate species per VOC (Odum et al., 1996). This approach is computationally expensive due 118 to the large number of products while the use of only two products per VOC limits the 119 120 concentration range and the accuracy of this approach (Murphy et al., 2009). SOA vapors may undergo further gas-phase oxidation and simulation of this aging process would require 121 introduction of even more species (Ng et al., 2006). The Volatility Basis Set (VBS) framework 122 (Donahue et al., 2006) was proposed to address these problems, describing the complete 123

volatility range of OA compounds using logarithmically spaced bins characterized by an effective saturation concentration,  $C^*$  (in µg m<sup>-3</sup>). This framework has been shown to work well for simulations of aerosol mass distributions in 3-D CTMs (Murphy et al., 2009; Tsimpidi et al., 2010; Fountoukis et al., 2011).

The overall objective of this work is to examine the contribution of organic vapor 128 condensation to the growth of fresh particles formed by nucleation and whether this 129 condensation can explain the observed growth rate of new particles. We extend the Dynamic 130 Model for Aerosol Nucleation (DMAN) of Jung et al. (2006) which originally assumed that 131 particles can grow only by condensation (of sulfuric acid and ammonia) and coagulation. In this 132 work, we develop an updated version of DMAN (DMANx) which includes the condensation of 133 organic vapors on particles and the most recent version of the VBS framework. We estimate for 134 the first time the effect of the chemical aging gas-phase reactions of SOA components on 135 136 ultrafine particle growth. We examine the effects of condensation of organics, the chemical 137 aging gas-phase reactions, and the Kelvin effect on the predicted particle number concentrations. We focus on the composition of fresh particles during nucleation events as well as during their 138 subsequent growth, in two remote continental locations, Hyytiala, Finland and Finokalia, Greece 139 140 where there are sufficient measurements available to constrain the new model. This is the first step towards improving the predictions of the 3-D CTM, PMCAMx-UF. 141

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## 143 **2. Model description**

DMAN simulates nucleation, coagulation and condensation/evaporation for a multi-144 145 component atmospheric aerosol (Jung at el., 2006). It uses the Two-Moment Aerosol Sectional (TOMAS) algorithm of Adams and Seinfeld (2002) which is based on the sectional approach for 146 147 the description of the aerosol size composition distribution. TOMAS is an adaptation of cloud microphysics algorithms (Tzivion et al., 1987; 1989) to aerosol processes, is computationally 148 efficient, and tracks both mass and number concentrations simultaneously. The aerosol size 149 distribution is described with 41 size sections with the lowest size bin corresponding to a  $3.75 \times$ 150  $10^{-25}$  kg dry aerosol mass per particle. That corresponds to 0.8 nm dry diameter assuming a 151 density of 1.4 g cm<sup>-3</sup>. Each successive section has double the mass of the previous one. The 152 largest bin corresponds to a diameter of 10 µm. 153

### 155 **2.1 Nucleation**

DMAN has the option of using a number of nucleation parameterizations. In this work, 156 the rate of nucleation is calculated using a scaled ternary nucleation parameterization based on 157 the original expressions of Napari et al. (2002) if the NH<sub>3</sub> concentration exceeds 0.01 ppt, and 158 the binary parameterization of Vehkamaki et al. (2002) if it is less than this threshold value. The 159 original NH<sub>3</sub>-H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>-H<sub>2</sub>O parameterization has been successful in predicting the presence or lack 160 of nucleation events (Gaydos et al., 2005) in sulfur rich environments. However, it overpredicts 161 ultrafine number concentrations during nucleation events (Gaydos et al., 2005; Yu, 2006a, b; 162 Jung et al., 2006; 2008; Merikanto et al., 2007; Zhang et al., 2010) and thus a scaling factor of 163  $10^{-5}$  is applied to the nucleation rate following Jung et al. (2010). The critical nucleus is 164 predicted to consist of roughly two molecules of sulfuric acid and two molecules of ammonia 165 (Napari et al., 2002), so it is assumed here that the newly formed particles consist of ammonium 166 bisulfate and their diameter is 1 nm. 167

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#### 169 **2.2 Gas-phase chemistry**

In this work, the simulation of gas phase chemistry in DMAN is updated using the 170 SAPRC99 chemical mechanism (Carter, 2000; Environ, 2003) which includes 211 reactions of 171 56 gases and 18 free radicals. It includes five lumped alkanes, two lumped olefins, two lumped 172 aromatics, isoprene, a lumped monoterpene, and a lumped sesquiterpene species. Only the two 173 highest molecular weight alkane species are considered as SOA precursors because the other 174 175 three contain smaller hydrocarbons (Pandis et al., 1991). OLE1 contains all the terminal alkenes, while OLE2 consists of all the internal and cyclic alkenes. The major compounds for each VOC 176 class used in SAPRC99 are listed in Table S1 (Tsimpidi et al., 2010). The nine lumped VOCs 177 178 are considered as volatile SOA precursors with three of them being biogenic and the rest 179 anthropogenic.

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#### 181 **2.3 Coagulation**

182 Coagulation of particles in the atmosphere is an important sink of aerosol number but is 183 also a mechanism by which freshly nucleated particles grow to larger sizes. The TOMAS 184 algorithm is used for the simulation of coagulation. Following Adams and Seinfeld (2002),

TOMAS assumes that the aerosol particles coagulate via Brownian diffusion and the effects of 185 gravitational settling and turbulence are negligible. The calculation of the coagulation 186 coefficients is based on the wet diameters of the particles. These wet diameters are calculated 187 following the approach of Gaydos et al. (2005). For small particles (<100 nm), we use the 188 expression of Dahneke et al. (1983) in order to correct for non-continuum effects. The 189 coagulation algorithm uses an adaptive time step. The time step is limited so that the aerosol 190 number or mass concentration in any size category does not increase by more than an order of 191 magnitude or decrease by more than 25%. 192

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#### 194 **2.4 Condensation**

195 Condensation of gas-phase species to existing aerosol particles is an important source of 196 aerosol mass and a means by which small particles grow to CCN sizes. The TOMAS algorithm 197 is used for the simulation of condensation/evaporation of sulfuric acid, ammonia and organic 198 vapors, using the wet diameters of the particles (Gaydos et al., 2005). The driving force for 199 condensation of a vapor to an aerosol particle is the difference between its ambient vapor partial 200 pressure and the equilibrium vapor pressure over the particles, or:

201 
$$\Delta p_i = p_i - p_i^* x_i (D_p) \exp\left(\frac{4\sigma M_i}{RT\rho D_p}\right)$$
(1)

where  $\Delta p_i$  is the condensational driving force of the organic vapor *i* (the difference between the 202 203 partial pressure of condensing vapor and its equilibrium vapor pressure),  $p_i$  is the ambient partial pressure,  $x_i$  is the mass fraction of *i*,  $p_i^*$  is the effective saturation pressure over a flat surface,  $\sigma$  is 204 the surface tension,  $M_i$  is the molecular weight of i, R is the ideal gas constant, T is the 205 206 temperature,  $\rho$  is the liquid-phase density, and  $D_p$  is the diameter of the particle. The exponential term is known as the Kelvin effect due to the curvature of the particles. The exponential term is 207 208 large for small particles and "prevents" the condensation of organic vapors on these. As a result the Kelvin effect is important for the growth of newly formed particles. We use TOMAS with an 209 adaptive time step to efficiently solve the equations for condensation. The time step is chosen so 210 that individual particles in any size bin do not grow by more than 10%, the partial pressure of the 211 organic vapor does not fall below 25% of its original value, and the time step is never longer 212 213 than 15 min.

DMANx uses the Pseudo-Steady-State Approximation (PSSA), in which the sulfuric acid 214 concentration is calculated by assuming that its production rate (oxidation of sulfur dioxide) is 215 equal to its consumption rate (condensation and nucleation). Pierce and Adams (2009a) showed 216 that the PSSA for sulfuric acid increases the computational speed with a small loss in accuracy. 217 The PSSA was tested for a variety of conditions ranging from highly polluted to extremely clean 218 conditions. Its predictions for the sulfuric acid vapor concentration and the number of new 219 particles formed during typical atmospheric nucleation events agreed well with the "benchmark 220 model" (Pierce and Adams, 2009a). Jung et al. (2010) evaluated the performance of PSSA for 221 sulfuric acid in DMAN against a 4<sup>th</sup> order Runge-Kutta algorithm and showed that PSSA is 222 accurate and computationally efficient. 223

224 Condensation of ammonia is simulated following the approach described by Jung et al. 225 (2006). Ammonia condensation on the ultrafine particles ends when sulfate is fully neutralized to 226 ammonium sulfate. The equilibrium ammonia vapor pressure is assumed to be zero when 227 aerosols are acidic, i.e. when the molar ratio of  $NH_4^+$  to  $SO_4^{2-}$  is <2. If the amount of condensed 228 ammonia exceeds the amount needed to neutralize particles during a time step, we limit the 229 maximum amount of ammonia that can condense to avoid numerical problems.

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#### 2.5 Secondary organic aerosol formation

232 Gas-phase oxidation of volatile organic compounds (VOCs) produces semi-volatile products that can then condense to the particle phase. The VBS framework used in DMANx 233 (Donahue et al., 2006) describes the complete volatility range of OA compounds using 234 logarithmically spaced bins, characterized by an effective saturation concentration,  $C^*$  (in  $\mu g$ 235 m<sup>-3</sup>). SOA components partition between the aerosol and gas phases, and can be formed from 236 anthropogenic SOA (aSOA) and biogenic SOA (bSOA) precursors. Each of these types is 237 simulated here with 12 volatility bins  $(10^{-5}-10^6 \,\mu g \, m^{-3})$ . We assume an average molecular weight 238 of 200 gmol<sup>-1</sup> for both aSOA and bSOA, while the effective enthalpies of vaporization are 30 kJ 239 mol<sup>-1</sup> (Pathak et al., 2007; Stanier et al., 2007). The SOA yields used in the updated version of 240 DMAN are based on the NO<sub>x</sub>-dependent stoichiometric yields of Murphy et al. (2009). The 241 partitioning of OA between the gas and particulate phases is approximated using vapor-liquid 242 equilibrium theory (Equation 1). 243

Semi-volatile and intermediate-volatility organics can be oxidized to species with lower 244 volatility (Donahue et al., 2006) leading to SOA production. The gas-phase chemical aging of 245 SOA precursors is modeled using a second order gas-phase reaction with the hydroxyl radical. 246 We assume that each chemical aging step reduces the volatility of the corresponding organic 247 vapor by one order of magnitude (i.e. shifting organic material from a saturation concentration of 248 e.g.  $10^3$  to  $10^2 \mu g m^{-3}$ ), with a small net increase in mass (7.5%) to account for the added oxygen. 249 The chemical aging reactions for aSOA precursors are modeled with a rate constant k (298 K) = 250  $1 \times 10^{-11} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molec}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$  (Murphy et al., 2009). 251

In the base case, the gas-phase chemical aging of bSOA precursors is assumed to have a 252 negligible effect on OA concentration (Lane et al., 2008). The oxidation of biogenic VOCs 253 produces semi-volatile organics with saturation concentrations of 1, 10,  $10^2$  and  $10^3$  µg m<sup>-3</sup>. An 254 alternative hypothesis is that the condensation of very low-volatility organics may explain the 255 256 observed growth. We assume that a small fraction of organics, which are produced from the oxidation of biogenic VOCs, further reacts to form very low-volatility organics with a saturation 257 concentration of  $C^* = 10^{-3} \mu g m^{-3}$  (Pierce et al., 2011). The sensitivity of the model results to this 258 assumption will be tested assuming a reaction converting the gas-phase surrogate species with 259  $C^*=1 \mu g m^{-3}$  to extremely low volatility SOA with  $C^*=10^{-3} \mu g m^{-3}$  with a reasonable rate constant 260 equal to  $1 \times 10^{-11}$  cm<sup>3</sup> molec<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>. The importance of extremely low volatility organic material for 261 262 the growth of newly formed particles is explored in a subsequent section. This pathway is consistent with the recent observations of extremely low-volatility organic compounds by Ehn et 263 al. (2014), during ozonolysis reactions as well as reactions with the hydroxyl radical. 264

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# **3. Model Application**

We simulated a "typical" spring day with nucleation at both Hyytiala and Finokalia. First, we identified the days with observed particle formation and growth and then averaged the corresponding measurements during these days generating in this way the meteorological and chemical characteristics of an "average" nucleation day for the specific periods in the two locations (April 2007 in Hyytiala and May 2008 in Finokalia). For the parameters for which measurements were not available, but were needed for the model input, (e.g. OH concentration) we followed the same process using the predicted values from the 3-D chemical transport model PMCAMx (Fountoukis et al., 2015). Results are compared to the corresponding average values
observed during the specific periods.

The extended DMAN (DMANx) is first tested in Hyytiala (Finland), an environment 276 dominated by biogenic VOCs. Meteorological data, gas-phase concentrations, and aerosol 277 number distributions are available from ground measurements at the SMEAR II station in 278 Hyytiala and used here as inputs for DMANx. SMEAR II (Station for Measuring Forest 279 Ecosystem-Atmosphere Relations) is located in a rather homogenous Scots pine (Pinus 280 sylvestris) stand on flat terrain at the Hyptiala Forestry Field Station of the University of Helsinki 281 (61°51'N, 24°17'E, 181 m above sea level). The biggest city near SMEAR II is Tampere which 282 has approximately 200,000 inhabitants and is located 60 km from the measurement site. Hari and 283 Kulmala (2005) have described the station and its operation in detail. The main inputs of our 284 simulations (Table 1) are meteorological data (temperature and relative humidity), SO<sub>2</sub>, NH<sub>3</sub>, 285 OH, O<sub>3</sub>, VOC concentrations and the initial aerosol number distribution. The SO<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>3</sub> 286 concentration, T and RH were measured continuously while the OH concentration was based on 287 the predictions of the 3-D CTM PMCAMx-2008 (Fountoukis et al., 2011). The concentrations of 288 the lumped VOCs, TERP, ISOP and ARO1 were estimated based on Proton Transfer Reaction 289 290 Mass Spectrometer (PTRMS) measurements. The rest of the lumped VOCs were taken from PMCAMx-2008. The concentration of NH<sub>3</sub> was based on the measurements during the QUEST 291 IV campaign in Hyytiala (Riipinen et al., 2007). The initial aerosol number distributions are 292 available from DMPS (Differential Mobility Particle Sizer) measurements of ambient dry size 293 distributions (Aalto et al., 2001). 294

DMANx was also tested in Finokalia, a remote area in the Eastern Mediterranean region 295 with high sulfate levels and relatively low VOC concentrations. Finokalia (35° 24' N, 25° 60' E) 296 is a remote coastal station located in the southeast of the Mediterranean Sea on the island of 297 Crete in Greece. The nearest large urban center is Heraklion with 150,000 inhabitants located 50 298 km west of Finokalia. The Finokalia station is located at the top of a hill at an elevation of 230 299 m, facing the sea. There is no notable human activity at a range of approximately 15 km 300 (Kouvarakis et al., 2000). There are very few trees and little vegetation in the surrounding area. 301 302 Most of the aerosol at the site is transported from the surrounding regions, such as Greece, Turkey and northern Africa (Pikridas et al., 2010). The concentrations of NH<sub>3</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub> and aerosol 303 number distributions were based on the measurements during the Finokalia Aerosol 304

Measurement Experiment -2008 and -2009 (FAME-08 and FAME-09) (Pikridas et al., 2010; 2012). The other inputs (Table 1) were based on the predictions of PMCAMx.

The model simulates a full day beginning at midnight. In each simulation, we assumed that for the initial distribution each size bin contains half organics and half ammonium sulfate. Our results are not especially sensitive to this assumed initial composition; the initial particle size distribution is a lot more critical..

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# **4. Results**

### **4.1 Simulation without condensation of organic vapors**

In the simulation neglecting the organic contribution to ultrafine particle growth in Hyytiala the new particles reach a diameter of 9 nm and the growth rate is only 1 nm h<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. 1a). The typical observed growth rates in Hyytiala are between 1-4.5 nm h<sup>-1</sup> and the final diameters between 14-45 nm (Pierce et al. 2011; Yli-Juuti et al. 2011). A significant advantage of DMANx is that it can track the composition of fresh particles formed by nucleation. The growing nucleation mode consists of sulfate and ammonium without any organics (Fig. 1b).

In the Finokalia nucleation simulation, the model predicted that the fresh particles grew to 32 nm with a rate of 3 nm h<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. S1a) which is less than the 5 nm h<sup>-1</sup> reported by Pikridas et al. (2010; 2012). The particles reached a diameter of 10 nm at 10:00 local time. These new particles consisted of sulfate and ammonium (Fig S1b). At the start of the nucleation event fresh particles consist of 93% sulfate which drops to 72% by the end of the day.

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# 326 4.2 Organic condensation with $\sigma$ =0.025 N m<sup>-1</sup> (no chemical aging of biogenic SOA precursors)

In the simulation with organic vapor condensation and  $\sigma$ =0.025 N m<sup>-1</sup> (Pierce et al., 2011) without gas-phase chemical aging of biogenic SOA (bSOA) precursors, the predicted growth rate in Hyytiala remains low at 1.2 nm h<sup>-1</sup> and the diameter of new particles at the end of the day is 12 nm (Fig. 2a) These results are low compared to typical measurements of growth rate in this area. The simulation showed that using a reasonable surface tension value practically prevents the condensation of organics on fresh particles until they can grow above a diameter of 5 nm. Surface tension has also a major effect, as expected, on the composition of the new particles. At the beginning of the nucleation event (Fig. 2b), the new particles do not contain any organics and their initial growth is due to the condensation of sulfuric acid and ammonia. At 12:00 LST when the new particles have reached a diameter of 5 nm, the effect of surface tension has decreased and organics start slowly condensing, contributing to growth. The mass fraction of organics in the new particles gradually increases reaching 60% at the end of the day when these particles reach 10 nm (Fig. 2b).

The organic composition of the fresh particles in Hyytiala is shown in Figure S2. 341 Components with lower volatility ( $C^*=10^{-2}$  and  $10^{-3} \mu g m^{-3}$ ) contribute around 30% of the 342 organic mass in the initial stages of the growth (Fig. S2). Another 55% is due to the  $C^*=0.1$  and 1 343 µg m<sup>-3</sup> components. As the day goes on the contribution of the more volatile components 344 increases and at the end of the day 65% of the new particle organic mass is semi-volatile material 345  $(C^* \text{ of } 1 \text{ and } 10 \text{ } \mu\text{g m}^{-3})$ . We estimate that the fraction of the condensing organic mass that has 346 gone to the ultrafine particles (diameter <100 nm) reached a maximum value of  $3.5 \times 10^{-5}$  at 12:00 347 LST. 348

In the case of  $\sigma = 0.025$  N m<sup>-1</sup> at Finokalia (without chemical aging of bSOA precursors), 349 the predicted growth rate is  $3.8 \text{ nm h}^{-1}$  and the new particles' diameter reaches 42 nm (Fig. S3a) 350 which is still lower than the 5 nm  $h^{-1}$  value of the measurements. At 9:30 the newly formed 351 particles consist of 90% sulfate, 6% ammonium and 4% organics (Fig. S3b). The organics 352 condensation starts accelerating later, when these particles become larger than 3 nm (after 10:00 353 LST). The predicted SOA mass fraction increases to 35% by the end of day. The surrogate OA 354 species with  $C^*=1$  and 10 µg m<sup>-3</sup> were the major components of new particles in this case too, 355 representing around 70% of the OA during the day (Fig S4). In this simulation a maximum of 356 3% of condensing organic mass has gone to the ultrafine particles (at 12:00). 357

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# 4.3 Contribution of gas-phase chemical aging of biogenic SOA precursors

The simulations described in the previous section (with condensation of organics and  $\sigma$ = 0.025 N m<sup>-1</sup>) showed that the addition of condensation of semi-volatile organics did not close the gap between predictions and field measurements of particle growth. Adding gas-phase chemical aging of bSOA precursors in the Hyytiala simulation results in a growth rate of 2.2 nm h<sup>-1</sup> and a final diameter of 23 nm. These are very similar to the values of growth rate (2.1 nm h<sup>-1</sup>) and final diameter (21 nm) observed in Hyytiala on 10 April 2007 (Pierce et al., 2011) (Fig. 3). In the

beginning of the simulation the new particles consist mainly of ammonium sulfate and a small 366 amount of organics (Fig. 4a). This small fraction of organics is the extremely low-volatility 367 organics ( $C^* = 10^{-3} \mu g m^{-3}$ ) produced from the aging reaction of bSOA precursors (Fig. 4b). 368 During the day the new particles grow and the mass of organics increase. The low volatility 369 material dominates the growth during the first few hours when the diameter is less than 5 nm, 370 while the semi-volatile ( $C^* = 1$ , 10 and 100 µg m<sup>-3</sup>) dominates the growth during the later stages. 371 At 18:00 LST the new particles consist mostly (90%) of organics (40% of low volatility and 60% 372 semi-volatile SOA) (Fig 4). The semi-volatile SOA contributes to growth when the particles pass 373 374 the size of  $\sim 10$  nm where the Kelvin effect is small. The aging reaction affects new particles at the beginning of growth when the particles are very small. The maximum mass of condensing 375 organics that has gone to the ultrafine particles is about 0.9% at noon which is larger than in the 376 377 simulation without aging.

The assumed gas-phase aging reaction of bSOA precursors helps new particles to grow to 378 larger sizes in Finokalia too and predictions are now consistent with field measurements (Fig. 5). 379 The predicted growth rate is 4.7 nm h<sup>-1</sup> while the measured growth rate in Finokalia is around 5 380 nm h<sup>-1</sup> (Pikridas et al., 2012). The revised model can reproduce the observed growth rate and the 381 382 final particle size encouragingly well. At the start of the growth, the new particles consist of 85% (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> while at the end of the day this drops to 55% (Fig. 6a). The organic components 383 initially comprise 12% of the nucleated particle mass, and are mostly of low volatility (75% is 384 from the  $C^* = 10^{-3} \mu g m^{-3}$  volatility bin). During the day the organics mass fraction increases, 385 reaching a maximum of 45% of the nucleated particle mass and consisting of 30% low-volatility 386 and 70% semi-volatile organics (Fig. 6b). 4% of the condensing organics at noon has gone to the 387 ultrafine particles. 388

389

### 390 4.4 Sensitivity analysis

# 391 4.4.1 Organic condensation neglecting the Kelvin effect without aging of bSOA precursors

Condensation of organics neglecting the Kelvin effect (assuming  $\sigma = 0 \text{ N m}^{-1}$ ) helps the newly formed particles to reach a diameter of 28 nm in Hyytiala while the average growth rate is 1.8 nm h<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. S5a). At 8:00 LST the nucleation mode particles have a size of ~2 nm and consist of 55% sulfate, 11% ammonium and 34% organics. During the day the new particles continue to grow and the fraction of organics increases to 85% at the end of the day (Fig. S5b). The size of the new particles increases due to the condensation of organics. The surrogate OA components with effective saturation concentration of  $C^* = 1$  and 10 µg m<sup>-3</sup> are predicted to be the major components of the fresh particles contributing 80% of the SOA, initially, and 70% in the end (Fig. S6).

For the Finokalia case, the predicted growth rate of new particles is  $3.8 \text{ nm h}^{-1}$  and the 401 diameter of the new fresh particles reaches 42 nm (Fig. S7a). The condensation of organics helps 402 the particles to grow faster and to reach larger sizes compared to the case described in 4.1. At 403 8:00 the particles consist of 35% organics, 5% ammonium and 60% sulfate (Fig. S7b). After 404 11:00 the new particles composition is relatively stable: 40% organics, 42% sulfate and 18% 405 ammonium. For this case of zero surface tension, organics condense immediately on the newly 406 formed particles, resulting in fast growth. In this case about 6.5% of condensing organics has 407 gone to the ultrafines at 12:00. The SOA composition is similar to that of the  $\sigma$ = 0.025 N m<sup>-1</sup> 408 409 case (Fig S8).

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## 411 4.4.2 Sensitivity of particle number concentration to surface tension

So far the model showed that organic condensation can cause an increase in the size of 412 413 the ultrafine particles. However, large particles also grow by organic condensation resulting in increased coagulation probability for the newly formed particles (Kuang et al., 2009; Westervelt 414 415 et al., 2013; 2014). This causes a significant reduction in the number concentration of small particles compared to the case without condensation of organics. The increase of surface tension 416 leads to organic vapor condensation mostly on large particles and to a smaller extent on freshly 417 nucleated particles due to the increased Kelvin effect which prevents the condensation of 418 organics on new particles. 419

The predicted daily mean number concentration of particles above 3 nm (N<sub>3</sub>) in Hyytiala is 3,100 cm<sup>-3</sup> for the simulation without organics, 5,400 cm<sup>-3</sup> for the zero surface tension case, 2,500 cm<sup>-3</sup> when the organic surface tension is 0.025 N m<sup>-1</sup> and 3,000 cm<sup>-3</sup> with the aging of bSOA precursors (Fig. 7a). The maximum value of N<sub>3</sub> is predicted at 13:00 in all cases. For the zero surface tension simulation N<sub>3,max</sub> is 13,500 cm<sup>-3</sup> while in the no-organics case N<sub>3,max</sub>=6,300 cm<sup>-3</sup>. When the organic surface tension is 0.025 N m<sup>-1</sup> N<sub>3,max</sub>=4,600 cm<sup>-3</sup> and increases to 6,000 cm<sup>-3</sup> with the addition of aging of bSOA precursors (Fig. 7a). 427 At Finokalia the average predicted daily concentration of  $N_3$  is 3600 cm<sup>-3</sup> without the 428 condensation of organics and is predicted to be the same for the bSOA aging case. A similar  $N_3$ 429 is predicted for the  $\sigma$ =0.025 N m<sup>-1</sup> case (3,550 cm<sup>-3</sup>) (Fig. S9a) while  $N_3$  increases to 4300 cm<sup>-3</sup> 430 for zero surface tension. The maximum  $N_3$  is predicted to be the largest for the zero surface 431 tension case (Fig. S9a).

<sup>432</sup> Neglecting the Kelvin effect in both locations allows rapid condensation of organics on <sup>433</sup> the fresh particles resulting in an increase of N<sub>3</sub>. The Kelvin effect prevents the condensation of <sup>434</sup> organics on new particles resulting in a decrease of N<sub>3</sub>. The bSOA aging and the  $\sigma$ =0.025 N m<sup>-1</sup> <sup>435</sup> simulations do not significantly affect N<sub>3</sub> compared to the simulation without organics.

The daily mean number concentration of particles above 100 nm ( $N_{100}$ ) in Hyytiala is 380 cm<sup>-3</sup> for the no-organics case and 440 cm<sup>-3</sup> for all the other simulations (Fig. 7b). In all the Hyytiala simulations with organics condensing  $N_{100}$  increases after 8:00 due to organics while in the simulation without organics a smaller increase is predicted after 12:00 due to sulfuric acid (Fig. 7b). Condensation of organics increased  $N_{100}$  by 25% at the end of the day.

A similar behavior is predicted at Finokalia.  $N_{100}$  starts increasing after 8:00 for all the 441 cases with organics condensation and after 9:00 for the no-organics case. The reason for the 442 shorter delay before the onset of N<sub>100</sub> increase in the no-organics case compared to Hyytiala is 443 that the condensation of sulfuric acid-ammonium has a predominant role in Finokalia at 444 increasing N<sub>100</sub> while at Hyytiala simulations organics dominate this growth process. 445 Furthermore, at Finokalia the concentration of sulfuric acid is higher and the photochemistry is 446 faster (much higher OH levels) than at Hyytiala. The daily mean number concentration of 447 particles that can act as CCN ( $N_{100}$ ) is predicted to be 1000 cm<sup>-3</sup> without organics and 1100 cm<sup>-3</sup> 448 for the other simulations (Fig. S9b).  $N_{100}$  reaches a maximum (1070 cm<sup>-3</sup>) at 13:00 for the no-449 organics case and at 18:00 in the other simulations (1210 cm<sup>-3</sup>) (Fig. S9b). At the end of the day 450 N<sub>100</sub> has increased by 13% due to condensation of organics. The increase of surface tension and 451 the addition of aging of bSOA precursors do not change  $N_{100}$ . 452

453

# 454 **5.** Conclusions

455 We developed an updated version of DMAN (DMANx) which includes the condensation 456 of organic vapors on ultrafine particles, using the Volatility Basis Set framework. Simulations were performed for two locations with different organic sources, Hyytiala and Finokalia, duringa typical springtime day with aerosol nucleation and growth.

Using realistic values of surface tension we estimate that the semi-volatile organics 459 condensation is not enough to grow the new particles to sizes comparable to those observed. 460 Assuming that biogenic SOA precursors chemically age and produce extremely low volatility 461 organics (i.e. with an effective saturation concentration of  $10^{-3} \mu \text{g m}^{-3}$ ) results in predicted 462 growth rates similar to those measured. In the biogenic VOC-dominated environment of 463 Hyytiala, the very low volatility organics condense onto particles smaller than 3 nm. After this 464 first-stage of growth for the new particles, the Kelvin effect becomes small and the semi-volatile 465 organics are the major components controlling the subsequent growth of the nucleated particles. 466 In an environment with more sulfuric acid and less biogenic VOCs (Finokalia) the condensation 467 468 of organics plays a complementary role in the growth of nucleated particles contributing 45% of 469 the total mass of new particles during a day representative of springtime nucleation.

The chemical gas-phase chemical aging of biogenic SOA precursors contributes to the growth of the nucleated particles because of the extra mass added from the aging reactions. Laboratory experiments and direct field measurements (Ehn et al., 2014) support the importance of extremely low-volatility VOCs produced in the gas phase from the oxidation of monoterpenes and other VOCs.

475 The condensation of organics with zero surface tension resulted in a predicted growth rate similar to the field measurements, but the zero value of surface tension is unrealistic. The 476 condensation of organics with zero surface energy also affects the number concentration of 477 particles. Increasing surface tension inhibits the growth of new fresh particles and thus results in 478 a decrease of total particle number concentrations in both locations. Interestingly, when 479 including aging of bSOA precursors the new model predicts daily mean number concentrations 480 similar to those for the no-organics simulation. The number concentration of particles that can 481 act as CCN (N<sub>100</sub>) increases (by 13% at Finokalia and 25% at Hyytiala) during a typical spring 482 day with nucleation, compared to the case in which the condensation of organics is neglected. 483 The increase of surface tension and the aging of bSOA precursors do not significantly affect  $N_{100}$ 484 485 compared to the zero surface energy case.

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Table 1. Main inputs of DMANx simulations.

Inputs	Hyytiala (Finland)	Finokalia (Greece)
Temperature	Measurements	Model PMCAMx
RH	Measurements	Model PMCAMx
O <sub>3</sub>	Measurements	Model PMCAMx
ОН	Model PMCAMx	Model PMCAMx
SO <sub>2</sub>	Measurements	Measurements
NH <sub>3</sub>	Measurements (PTR-MS)	Measurements
TERP	Measurements (PTR-MS)	Model PMCAMx
ISOP	Measurements (PTR-MS)	Model PMCAMx
ARO1	Measurements (PTR-MS)	Model PMCAMx
ARO2	Model PMCAMx	Model PMCAMx
ALK4	Model PMCAMx	Model PMCAMx
ALK5	Model PMCAMx	Model PMCAMx
Initial number distributions	Measurements (DMPS)	Measurements (SMPS)

840

841





0

3 6 9

**FIGURE 1:** a) Predicted aerosol dry size distribution for a typical spring nucleation event at Hyptiala without condensation of organics. Particle number concentration is plotted against local time of day (x-axis) and particle diameter (y-axis). b) Predicted composition of new particles.

2

12 15 18 21 24

Time (hr)

0.0

Sulfate

8 10 12 14 16 18 20 22 24

Time (hr)

859

860

861







**FIGURE 2:** Simulation with surface tension  $\sigma$ =0.025 N m<sup>-1</sup> at Hyytiala: a) predicted particle size distribution with number concentration plotted against time of day (x-axis) and particle diameter (y-axis) and b) the composition of new particles.







FIGURE 3: Comparison of (a) measured on 10 April 2007 and (b) predicted (with aging of bSOA precursors and  $\sigma$ =0.025 N m<sup>-1</sup>) dry size distribution as a function of local time at Hyytiala for a typical nucleation event day.



**FIGURE 4:** a) Mass fraction of fresh particles and b) mass fraction of SOA for the different volatility bins as a function of local time at Hyytiala. Simulation includes bSOA aging and  $\sigma=0.025$  N m<sup>-1</sup>.







**FIGURE 5:** Comparison of (a) measured on 19 March 2009 (Pikridas et al., 2012) and (b) predicted dry size aerosol distribution (with bSOA aging and  $\sigma$ =0.025 N m<sup>-1</sup>) as a function of time at Finokalia.





**FIGURE 6:** a) Mass fraction of fresh particles and b) mass fraction of SOA for the different volatility bins as a function of local time at Finokalia. Simulation includes bSOA aging and  $\sigma$ =0.025 N m<sup>-1</sup>.





**FIGURE 7:** Predicted concentrations of a)  $N_3$  and b)  $N_{100}$  at Hyytiala for the four simulated cases. Black line represents no condensation of organics, red is with condensation of organics with  $\sigma = 0.0$  N m<sup>-1</sup>, blue is with condensation of organics with  $\sigma = 0.025$  N m<sup>-1</sup> and green is condensation of organics with aging reactions of bSOA precursors and  $\sigma$ =0.025 N m<sup>-1</sup>.

995