



1 **New particle formation in the sulfuric acid-dimethylamine-water system:**
2 **Reevaluation of CLOUD chamber measurements and comparison to an**
3 **aerosol nucleation and growth model**
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30 **Abstract**

31

32 A recent CLOUD (Cosmics Leaving OUtdoor Droplets) chamber study showed that sulfuric
33 acid and dimethylamine produce new aerosols very efficiently, and yield particle formation
34 rates that are compatible with boundary layer observations. These previously published new
35 particle formation (NPF) rates are re-analyzed in the present study with an advanced method.
36 The results show that the NPF rates at 1.7 nm are more than a factor of 10 faster than previously
37 published due to earlier approximations in correcting particle measurements made at larger
38 detection threshold. The revised NPF rates agree almost perfectly with calculated rates from a
39 kinetic aerosol model at different sizes (1.7 nm and 4.3 nm mobility diameter). In addition,
40 modeled and measured size distributions show good agreement over a wide range (up to ca. 30
41 nm). Furthermore, the aerosol model is modified such that evaporation rates for some clusters
42 can be taken into account; these evaporation rates were previously published from a flow tube
43 study. Using this model, the findings from the present study and the flow tube experiment can
44 be brought into good agreement. This confirms that nucleation proceeds at rates that are
45 compatible with collision-controlled (a.k.a. kinetically-controlled) new particle formation for
46 the conditions during the CLOUD7 experiment (278 K, 38% RH, sulfuric acid concentration
47 between 1×10^6 and 3×10^7 cm^{-3} and dimethylamine mixing ratio of ~ 40 pptv). Finally, the
48 simulation of atmospheric new particle formation reveals that even tiny mixing ratios of
49 dimethylamine (0.1 pptv) yield NPF rates that could explain significant boundary layer particle
50 formation. This highlights the need for improved speciation and quantification techniques for
51 atmospheric gas-phase amine measurements.

52 **1. INTRODUCTION**

53

54 The formation of new particles by gas-to-particle conversion (nucleation or new particle
55 formation, NPF) is important for a variety of atmospheric processes and for human health.

56 It has been shown in numerous studies that sulfuric acid (H_2SO_4) is often associated with
57 NPF (Weber et al., 1997; Kulmala et al., 2004; Fiedler et al., 2005; Kuang et al., 2008; Kirkby
58 et al., 2011) and indeed it can explain some of the observed particle formation together with
59 water vapor for neutral (uncharged) and ion-induced conditions when temperatures are low,
60 e.g., in the free troposphere (Lee et al., 2003; Lovejoy et al., 2004; Duplissy et al., 2016; Ehrhart
61 et al., 2016; Dunne et al., 2016). However, at least one additional stabilizing compound is
62 required in order to explain boundary layer nucleation at warm temperatures. Acid-base
63 nucleation, which involves a ternary compound, e.g., ammonia, besides sulfuric acid and water,
64 can lead to much higher NPF rates compared to the binary system (Weber et al., 1998; Ball et
65 al., 1999; Kürten et al., 2016a). Nevertheless, for most conditions close to the surface, the
66 concentrations of H_2SO_4 and NH_3 are too low, or temperatures are too high, to allow significant
67 ternary nucleation of these compounds (Kirkby et al., 2011; Kürten et al., 2016a). However, the
68 substitution of ammonia by amines, e.g., dimethylamine ($(\text{CH}_3)_2\text{NH}$), leads to NPF rates that
69 can explain the atmospheric observations over a wide range of sulfuric acid concentrations,
70 even when the amine mixing ratios are in the low pptv-range (Kurtén et al., 2008; Nadykto
71 et al., 2011; Ortega et al., 2012; Chen et al., 2012; Almeida et al., 2013; Glasoe et al., 2015). A
72 recent study even showed that NPF is collision-controlled, i.e., that it proceeds at the maximum
73 possible speed (Rao and McMurry, 1989), when amine mixing ratios are above ~ 20 pptv, and
74 sulfuric acid concentrations are between $1 \times 10^6 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ and $3 \times 10^7 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ at 278 K and 38% RH
75 (Kürten et al., 2014). Indications that NPF can be collision-limited were reported more than 30
76 years ago based on the analysis of chamber nucleation experiments (McMurry, 1980), although
77 the involvement of amines, which were probably present as a contaminant during those
78 experiments, was not considered. Indications that atmospheric nucleation might occur by a
79 collision-limited process have also been previously presented (Weber et al., 1996). Despite the
80 strong evidence that sulfuric acid-amine nucleation is very efficient, it has rarely been observed
81 in the atmosphere. Only one study has so far reported sulfuric acid-amine nucleation (Zhao et
82 al., 2011) despite amine mixing ratios of up to tens of pptv at some sites (Freshour et al., 2014;
83 Yao et al., 2016). A global modelling study of sulfuric acid-amine nucleation has been carried
84 out so far (Bergman et al., 2015) applying a nucleation parametrization based on the
85 measurements of Almeida et al. (2013) and Glasoe et al. (2015).

86 Atmospheric boundary layer nucleation can also be explained by the existence of highly-
87 oxygenated organic molecules (Crouse et al., 2013; Ehn et al., 2014), e.g., from α -pinene.
88 These highly-oxygenated molecules have been found to nucleate efficiently even without the
89 involvement of sulfuric acid, especially when ions take part in the nucleation process (Kirkby
90 et al., 2016).

91 Even though oxidized organics seem to be globally important for NPF (Jokinen et al., 2015;
92 Gordon et al., 2016; Dunne et al., 2016), the formation of new particles by sulfuric acid and
93 amines should still be considered because sulfuric acid-amine nucleation rates exceed those
94 from oxidized organics as soon as the concentrations of the precursor gases (sulfuric acid and



95 amines) are high enough (Berndt et al., 2014). Therefore, at least locally or regionally, i.e., close
96 to sources, amines should be relevant.

97 In this study, we reanalyze data from the CLOUD7 campaign (during October/November
98 2012, see Almeida et al., 2013; Kürten et al., 2014), using an advanced method that takes into
99 account the effect of self-coagulation in the estimation of new particle formation rates (Kürten
100 et al., 2015a). These re-analyzed data and NPF rates obtained from Scanning Mobility Particle
101 Sizer (SMPS) measurements are compared to results from a kinetic aerosol model. Modeling is
102 also used for a comparison between a flow tube study (Jen et al., 2016a) and the CLOUD results,
103 and for comparison to atmospheric boundary layer new particle formation rates.

104

105

106 2. METHODS

107

108 2.1 CLOUD experiment and instruments

109

110 The CLOUD (Cosmics Leaving OUtdoor Droplets) experiment at CERN was designed to
111 investigate nucleation and growth of aerosol particles in chemically diverse systems.
112 Additionally, the influence of ions on new particle formation (NPF) and growth can be studied
113 inside the 26.1 m³ electro-polished stainless steel chamber (Kirkby et al., 2011). For the
114 experiments discussed in this paper, NPF is initiated by illuminating the air inside the chamber
115 with UV light by means of a fiber-optic system (Kupc et al., 2011), which produces sulfuric
116 acid (H₂SO₄) photolytically from reactions involving O₃, H₂O, SO₂ and O₂. Diluted
117 dimethylamine and sulfur dioxide are taken from gas bottles; inside the chamber, these trace
118 gases mix with clean synthetic air (i.e., O₂ and N₂ with a ratio of 21:79 from evaporated
119 cryogenic liquids). To ensure homogenous conditions, the air is mixed with magnetically driven
120 fans installed at the top and bottom of the chamber (Voigtländer et al., 2012). A thermal housing
121 controls the chamber temperature to 278.15 K within several hundredths of a degree. The
122 temperature was not varied for the experiments relevant for this study. The relative humidity
123 was kept constant at 38% by humidifying a fraction of the inflowing air with a humidification
124 system (Duplissy et al., 2016). In order to keep the pressure inside the chamber at 1.005 bar,
125 the air that is taken by the instruments has to be continuously replenished. Therefore, a flow of
126 150 l/min of the humidified air is continuously supplied to the chamber. For the sulfuric acid,
127 dimethylamine and water system, ions do not have a strong enhancing effect on the nucleation
128 rates for most conditions (Almeida et al., 2013); therefore, we do not distinguish between the
129 neutral and charged pathway in such runs.

130 A suite of instruments is connected to the CLOUD chamber to measure particles, ions,
131 clusters and gas concentrations. A summary of these instruments is provided elsewhere (Kirkby
132 et al., 2011; Duplissy et al., 2016). For this study, measured sulfuric acid and particle
133 concentrations are relevant. A Chemical Ionization-Atmospheric Pressure interface-Time Of
134 Flight Mass Spectrometer (CI-APi-TOF) was employed to measure sulfuric acid and its neutral
135 clusters in this study (Jokinen et al., 2012; Kürten et al., 2014). The particle concentrations
136 originate from a scanning mobility particle sizer (Wang and Flagan, 1990), which measured the
137 particle size distribution between ~4 and ~80 nm. The mixing ratio of dimethylamine was
138 determined by ion chromatography (Praplan et al., 2012; Simon et al., 2016).



139

140 **2.2 Calculation of particle formation rates**

141

142 Particle formation rates J ($\text{cm}^{-3} \text{s}^{-1}$) are calculated from the measured size distributions (assumed
143 to consist of n bins). For the size bin with the index m , the rate at which particles with a diameter
144 equal or larger than d_m are formed can be calculated according to (Kürten et al., 2015a):

145

$$146 J_{\geq m} = \frac{dN_{\geq m}}{dt} + \sum_{i=m}^n (k_{w,i} \cdot N_i) + k_{dil} \cdot N_{\geq m} + \sum_{i=m}^n (\sum_{j=i}^n s_{i,j} \cdot K_{i,j} \cdot N_j \cdot N_i). \quad (1)$$

147

148 This equation takes into account the time-rate-of-change of the number density of all particles
149 for which $d_p \geq d_m$, i.e., $N_{\geq m}$, and corrects for the effects of wall loss (size dependent wall loss
150 rates $k_{w,i}$), dilution (dilution rate k_{dil}), and coagulation (collision frequency function $K_{i,j}$), where
151 N_i and N_j are the particle number densities in different size bins. The rate of losses to the
152 chamber walls can be expressed by (Crump and Seinfeld, 1981):

153

$$154 k_w(d_p) = C_w \cdot \sqrt{D(d_p)}, \quad (2)$$

155

156 where $D(d_p)$ is the diffusivity of a particle of diameter d_p , which is given by the Stokes-Einstein
157 relation (Hinds, 1999),

158

$$159 D(d_p) = \frac{k_B T C_C}{3 \pi \eta d_p}, \quad (3)$$

160

161 where k_B , T , η , are the Boltzmann constant, the temperature, and the gas viscosity, respectively.
162 The Cunningham slip correction factor, C_C , is a function of the particle Knudsen number, $Kn =$
163 $2\lambda/d_p$, and λ is the mean-free-path of the gas molecules. The empirically derived proportionality
164 coefficient, C_w , depends upon the chamber dimensions and on the intensity of turbulent mixing.
165 The rate of loss of sulfuric acid to the chamber walls is generally used to characterize C_w . The
166 diffusivity of sulfuric acid is $0.0732 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ at 278 K and 38% RH (Hanson and Eisele, 2000).
167 The measured life time, determined from the decay of sulfuric acid when the UV light is turned
168 off, was 554 s (wall loss rate 0.00181 s^{-1}), with the experimentally determined diffusivity this
169 yields a factor C_w of $0.00667 \text{ cm}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-0.5}$. However, in this study diffusivities were calculated
170 according to equation (3), so the calculated monomer diffusivity (for a monomer with a density
171 of 1470 kg m^{-3} and a molecular weight of $0.143 \text{ kg mol}^{-1}$, see section 2.4) required a different
172 scaling, resulting in a value of $C_w = 0.00542 \text{ cm}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-0.5}$ that was used throughout this study.

173

174 Dilution is taken into account by a loss rate that is independent of size and equals $k_{dil} =$
175 $9.6 \times 10^{-5} \text{ s}^{-1}$. Correcting for particle-particle collisions requires the calculation of the collision
176 frequency function. We used the method from Chan and Mozurkewich (2001). This method
177 includes the effect of enhanced collision rates through van der Waals forces. A value of
178 $6.4 \times 10^{-20} \text{ J}$ was used for the Hamaker constant (Hamaker, 1937), leading to a maximum
179 enhancement factor of ~ 2.3 for the smallest clusters, relative to the collision rate in the absence
180 of van der Waals forces. The factor of 2.3 has previously been shown to give good agreement
between measured and modeled cluster and particle concentrations for the chemical system of



181 sulfuric acid and dimethylamine (Kürten et al., 2014; Lehtipalo et al., 2016). In order to consider
182 the collisions of particles in the same size bin, a scaling factor $s_{i,j}$ is used in equation (1), which
183 is 0.5 when $i = j$ and 1 otherwise.

184

185 2.3 Reconstruction method

186

187 Recently a new method was introduced, that makes it possible to retrieve new particle formation
188 rates at sizes below the threshold of the instrument used to determine the particle number
189 density. This method is capable of considering the effect of self-coagulation (Kürten et al.,
190 2015a). It requires introducing new size bins below the threshold of the SMPS (termed d_{p2}
191 in the following; d_{p2} corresponds to the index $m = 1$). The method starts by calculating the number
192 density in the first newly introduced smaller size bin (index $m = 0$, diameter $d_{p2} - dd_p$):

193

$$194 N_{m-1} = (d_{p,m} - d_{p,m-1}) \cdot \frac{J_{\geq m}}{GR_{m-1}} \approx dd_p \cdot \frac{J_{\geq m}}{GR} \quad (4)$$

195

196 Here, the particle growth rate GR (nm s^{-1}) needs to be used as well as the difference between
197 two adjacent size bins (dd_p). Once the number density in the newly introduced bin is known
198 this information can be used to calculate J_{m-1} . In the further steps, the numbers N_{m-2} and J_{m-2}
199 are calculated and so on. In this way, the size distribution can be extrapolated towards smaller and
200 smaller sizes in a stepwise process until eventually reaching the diameter d_{p1} .

201 The method has so far only been tested against simulated data but not against measured size
202 distributions (Kürten et al., 2015a). In this study the smallest measured SMPS diameter is $d_{p2} =$
203 4.3 nm; 26 new size bins with $dd_p = 0.1$ nm were introduced and this enabled the calculation of
204 the NPF rates at $d_{p1} = 1.7$ nm in the smallest size bin. This size was chosen since previously
205 published particle formation rates from the CLOUD experiment were reported for this diameter
206 (e.g. Kirkby et al., 2011; Almeida et al., 2013; Riccobono et al., 2014).

207

208 2.4 Kinetic new particle formation and growth model

209

210 The measured particle formation rates are compared to modeled formation rates assuming
211 collision-limited particle formation, i.e., all clusters are not allowed to evaporate. McMurry
212 (1980) was the first to show that number concentrations and size distributions of particles
213 formed photochemically from SO_2 in chamber experiments (Clark and Whitby, 1975) are
214 consistent with collision-controlled nucleation; results from updated versions of this model
215 have recently been presented (Kürten et al., 2014; McMurry and Li, 2017). The model used
216 here has been described previously (Kürten et al., 2014; Kürten et al., 2015a, Kürten et al.
217 2015b) but only brief introductions were reported; therefore, more details are provided in the
218 following.

219 As outlined in Kürten et al. (2014), collision-controlled new particle formation accurately
220 described the measured cluster distributions for the sulfuric acid-dimethylamine system up to
221 the pentamer (cluster containing five sulfuric acid molecules). In this model, it was assumed
222 that the clusters consist of “monomeric” building blocks, each containing one sulfuric acid and
223 one dimethylamine molecule. Evidence that this 1:1-ratio between acid and base is
224 approximately maintained for the small clusters was presented from neutral and charged cluster



225 measurements (Almeida et al., 2013; Kürten et al., 2014; Bianchi et al., 2014; Glasoe et al.,
 226 2015). The molecular weight was, therefore, chosen as $0.143 \text{ kg mol}^{-1}$ (sum of sulfuric acid
 227 with $0.098 \text{ kg mol}^{-1}$ and dimethylamine with $0.045 \text{ kg mol}^{-1}$), and the density as 1470 kg m^{-3}
 228 (Qiu and Zhang, 2012).

229 During the reported experiments (CLOUD7 in fall 2012), dimethylamine was always present
 230 at mixing ratios above ca. 20 pptv. Dimethylamine (DMA) was supplied from a certified gas
 231 bottle and diluted with synthetic air before it was introduced into the chamber to achieve the
 232 desired mixing ratios. Sulfuric acid was generated in situ from the reactions between SO_2 and
 233 OH whenever the UV light was turned on (see section 2.1). Since the UV light intensity and the
 234 gas concentrations were kept constant throughout each individual experiment, it is justified to
 235 assume a constant monomer production rate P_1 . The equation describing the temporal
 236 development of the monomer concentration, N_1 , is

$$237 \frac{dN_1}{dt} = P_1 - (k_{1,w} + k_{dil} + \sum_{j=1}^{N_{max}} K_{1,j} \cdot N_j) \cdot N_1 \quad (5)$$

238 and, for the clusters containing two or more sulfuric acid molecules ($k \geq 2$),

$$239 \frac{dN_k}{dt} = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \sum_{i+j=k} K_{i,j} \cdot N_i \cdot N_j - (k_{w,k} + k_{dil} + \sum_{j=1}^N K_{k,j} \cdot N_j) \cdot N_k. \quad (6)$$

240 The same loss mechanisms (wall loss, dilution and coagulation) as for the calculation of the
 241 particle formation rates (section 2.2) are considered when modeling the cluster concentrations.
 242 In this study, the particle size distribution was calculated from the monomer up to a diameter
 243 of $\sim 84 \text{ nm}$, which corresponds to the upper size limit of the SMPS used in CLOUD7. Tracking
 244 each individual cluster/particle up to this large size would be computationally too demanding,
 245 so the size distribution was divided into so-called molecular size bins (tracking each individual
 246 cluster), and geometric size bins, where the mid-point diameters of two neighboring size bins
 247 differ by a constant factor. The number of molecular size bins was set to 400 (which results in
 248 a diameter of $\sim 5 \text{ nm}$ for the largest molecular bin), while the number of geometric size bins was
 249 set to 190 with a geometric factor of 1.015 (maximum diameter of the last bin is 83.7 nm). The
 250 treatment of the geometric size bins was similar to the molecular bins, except that the collision
 251 products were distributed between the two closest size bins. Two smaller particles with
 252 diameters $d_{p,i}$ and $d_{p,j}$ generate a cluster with size

$$253 d_{p,x} = (d_{p,i}^3 + d_{p,j}^3)^{1/3}. \quad (7)$$

254 If it is assumed that the collision product falls into the size range covered by the geometric bins,
 255 its diameter will be between two size bins $d_{p,k}$ and $d_{p,k+1}$. The production rate of particles with
 256 diameter $d_{p,x}$ is

$$257 P_x = s_{i,j} \cdot K_{i,j} \cdot N_i \cdot N_j. \quad (8)$$

258 The resulting particles are distributed between the two bins to conserve mass, i.e.,



$$268 \quad P_k = \left(\frac{d_{p,k+1}^3 - d_{p,x}^3}{d_{p,k+1}^3 - d_{p,k}^3} \right) \cdot P_x, \quad (9a)$$

$$269 \quad P_{k+1} = \left(1 - \frac{d_{p,k+1}^3 - d_{p,x}^3}{d_{p,k+1}^3 - d_{p,k}^3} \right) \cdot P_x. \quad (9b)$$

270

271 The first terms on the right hand side of equations (9a) and (9b) determine the fraction by how
272 much the diameter of the newly-formed particle can be associated with either of the two
273 neighboring bins. The second factor accounts for the fact that the total mass of the newly-
274 formed particles needs to be conserved, therefore, a scaling with the particle diameters to the
275 power of three is necessary. When the collision product falls into the molecular size bin regime
276 the calculation is straightforward because the diameter of the product agrees exactly with a
277 molecular bin and does not need to be distributed between two bins (see the production term in
278 equation (6)). In case the collision products exceed the largest bin diameter, the product is
279 entirely assigned to the largest bin, while taking into account the scaling such that the total mass
280 is conserved.

281 In the model, no free parameter is used as the concentration of monomers is constrained by
282 the measurements. Therefore, the production rate P_1 is adjusted such that the resulting monomer
283 concentration in the model matches the measured sulfuric acid concentration. The model is used
284 to simulate the experiments for a duration of 10,000 s with a time resolution of 1 s. For the
285 small clusters and particles this leads to a steady-state between production and loss; therefore,
286 the resulting concentrations are essentially time-independent.

287 The model introduced here was compared with the model described in McMurry and Li
288 (2017) and yielded almost indistinguishable results for several scenarios when the same input
289 parameters were used. We take this as an indication that both models correctly describe
290 collision-controlled nucleation, especially since the models were independently developed and
291 do not share the same code. The model in this paper is based on defining size bins according to
292 their diameter, while the model by McMurry and Li (2017) uses particle volume.

293

294

295 3. RESULTS

296

297 3.1 Comparison between Almeida et al. (2013) and SMPS derived NPF rates

298

299 Using the model described in section 2.4, a comparison between the previously published NPF
300 rates from Almeida et al. (2013) and the modeled rates was performed. Almeida et al. (2013)
301 derived NPF rates for a particle mobility diameter of 1.7 nm. Using a density of 1470 kg m^{-3}
302 and a molecular weight of $0.143 \text{ kg mol}^{-1}$, it can be calculated that a spherical cluster containing
303 nine monomers (nonamer) has a geometric diameter of $\sim 1.4 \text{ nm}$, i.e., a mobility diameter of 1.7
304 nm (Ku and Fernandez de la Mora, 2009); therefore, the modeled nonamer formation rates were
305 used for the comparison.

306 Figure 1 shows the modeled formation rates at 1.7 nm and the Almeida et al. (2013) data as
307 a function of the sulfuric acid concentration (which is equivalent to the monomer concentration
308 in the model, see section 2.4, since it is assumed that all sulfuric acid is bound to DMA). It can
309 be seen that the modeled NPF rates are significantly higher. This indicates that the previously



310 published formation rates underestimate the true formation rates if sulfuric acid-dimethylamine
311 nucleation is indeed proceeding at the collision-limit. Previously published results indicated
312 that this is the case (Kürten et al., 2014; Lehtipalo et al., 2016); however, we will provide further
313 evidence that this assumption accurately describes the experiments in the present study and
314 provide an explanation why Almeida et al. (2013) underestimated the formation rates.

315 It should be noted that the displayed experimental $J_{1.7\text{nm}}$ values (open red triangles in Fig. 1)
316 are identical to the values from Almeida et al. (2013), while the sulfuric acid concentration has
317 been corrected. In Almeida et al. (2013) data were shown from CLOUD4 (spring 2011) and
318 CLOUD7 (fall 2012). For consistency, the sulfuric acid concentrations from the chemical
319 ionization mass spectrometer (Kürten et al., 2011) were used, as the CI-API-TOF was not
320 available during CLOUD4. Especially during CLOUD7, the chemical ionization mass
321 spectrometer (CIMS) showed relatively high sulfuric acid concentrations even when no sulfuric
322 acid was produced from the UV light system inside the CLOUD chamber; no correction was
323 applied for this effect in Almeida et al. (2013). However, taking into account a background
324 subtraction leads to a shallower slope for $J_{1.7\text{nm}}$ vs. sulfuric acid and brings the corrected CIMS
325 values in a good agreement with the sulfuric acid measured by the CI-API-TOF. In the present
326 study, the data from the CI-API-TOF were used. The slope for $J_{1.7\text{nm}}$ vs. sulfuric acid now yields
327 a value of close to 2, while the previously reported value was ~ 3.7 (Almeida et al., 2013). The
328 higher value resulted from the bias in the sulfuric acid concentration and the consideration of
329 data points at low sulfuric acid concentration, where new particle formation is significantly
330 affected by losses to the chamber walls, which tends to bias the slope towards higher values
331 (Ehrhart and Curtius, 2013).

332

333 3.2 Comparison between NPF rates from the kinetic model and SMPS measurements

334

335 The formation rates in Almeida et al. (2013) were calculated from measured particle number
336 densities with a condensation particle counter that has a lower cut-off diameter of ~ 3 nm. The
337 derivation of particle formation rates at 1.7 nm therefore required an extrapolation to the smaller
338 diameter. With the available model, we are now, in principle, able to calculate NPF rates for
339 any particle diameter and compare the result to directly measured rates. This was done for the
340 SMPS size channel corresponding to a mobility diameter of 4.3 nm ($J_{4.3\text{nm}}$) with the method
341 described in section 2.2. Using the SMPS data has the advantage that the size-dependent loss
342 rates can be accurately taken into account, which is not possible when only the total (non size-
343 resolved) concentration from a condensation particle counter is available. On the other hand,
344 the smallest SMPS size channels need to be corrected by large factors to account for losses and
345 charging probability, which introduces uncertainty.

346 The result for $J_{4.3\text{nm}}$ is shown in Figure 1 together with the modeled particle formation rates
347 for the same diameter. The agreement between modeled and measured NPF rates is very good
348 indicating that the collision-controlled model accurately describes 4.3 nm particle production
349 rates for these experiments. This is further evidence that particles are formed at the collision-
350 limit. However, it is also an indication that the Almeida et al. (2013) data underestimate the
351 NPF rates, which is further discussed in the following section.

352

353



354 **3.3 Reconstruction model results**

355

356 Recently, a new method was introduced, which allows the extrapolation of NPF rates
357 determined at a larger size (d_{p2}) to a smaller diameter (d_{p1}). The advantage of that method is
358 that the effect of cluster-cluster collisions (self-coagulation) can be accurately taken into
359 account (Kürten et al., 2015a). So far, the method has not been tested for measured particle size
360 distributions. However, the effect of cluster-cluster collisions should be largest in the case of
361 collision-controlled nucleation since it results in the highest possible cluster (particle)
362 concentrations for a given production rate of nucleating molecules. Therefore, the current data
363 set is ideal for testing the new method. It requires the measured growth rate as an input
364 parameter (equation (4)); this growth rate was derived from fitting a linear curve to the mode
365 diameter determined from the SMPS size distribution (Hirsikko et al., 2005). It was then used
366 as a constant (i.e., it was assumed that it is independent of size) for the full reconstruction of
367 the size distribution, in order to obtain a formation rate at 1.7 nm. The growth rate could only
368 be accurately determined for experiments with relatively high sulfuric acid concentration
369 (above $\sim 5 \times 10^6 \text{ cm}^{-3}$); therefore, the reconstruction method was only tested for these conditions
370 (Figure 1). The comparison with the modeled formation rates at the same size (1.7 nm) shows
371 that the reconstruction method yields quite accurate results, highlighting the importance of
372 cluster-cluster collisions in this chemical system. This explains why the Almeida et al. (2013)
373 data strongly underestimate the particle formation rates.

374 While the reconstruction method gives good results in the present study, it needs to be
375 mentioned that the errors for this method can become quite large. Small inaccuracies in the
376 growth rate, can be blown up to very large uncertainties due to the non-linear nature of the
377 method. This can be seen for some of the data points with large error bars in the positive
378 direction. The errors are calculated by repeating the reconstruction with growth rates $GR \pm dGR$,
379 where dGR is the error from the fitted growth rate. Therefore, the accuracy of the method
380 strongly depends on good growth rate measurements, and relies on the assumption that the
381 growth rate does not change as a function of size. This seems to be a reasonable approximation
382 for collision-controlled nucleation under the present conditions, but it could be different in other
383 chemical systems.

384

385 **3.4 Size distribution comparison between model and SMPS**

386

387 Further comparison between modeled and measured data was performed for one experimental
388 run (CLOUD7 run 1036.01) in which the particles were grown to sizes beyond 20 nm.
389 Therefore, the time-dependent cluster/particle concentrations were modeled for a monomer
390 production rate of $2.9 \times 10^5 \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$, which results in a steady-state monomer concentration of
391 $1.05 \times 10^7 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ for the model; this is the same as the measured sulfuric acid concentration. The
392 measured and modeled size distributions are shown in Fig. 2 (upper panel) at four different
393 times, i.e., at 1h, 2h, 4h and 6h after the start of the experiment. Given that there is no free
394 parameter used in the model, the agreement is very good. For the earliest time shown (1h) the
395 modeled concentrations overestimate the measured concentrations by up to 30%, whereas for
396 the later times ($\geq 4\text{h}$) the model underestimates the measured concentrations by up to 30%. It
397 is unclear whether these small discrepancies are due to SMPS measurement uncertainties, or if



398 the model does not include or accurately describe all the relevant processes. If, for example, the
399 SMPS would underestimate the concentrations of the smaller particles (< ca. 15 nm) and
400 overestimate those of the larger particles, the observed difference between modeled and
401 measured concentrations could also be explained.

402 The lower panel of Fig. 2 compares measured and modeled aerosol volume concentrations.
403 In order to enable direct comparison, the modeled size distribution was integrated starting at
404 4.3 nm since the SMPS did not capture smaller particles. In the beginning of the experiment the
405 modeled aerosol volume is somewhat larger than the measured one, but, towards the end of the
406 experiment (ca. 4h after its start), the volumes agree quite well, possible because the
407 overestimated modeled particle number density at small diameters is compensated by the
408 underestimated particle concentration in the larger size range (see Fig. 2, upper panel). This
409 trend leads eventually to a slight underestimation of the aerosol volume by the model.

410 If one assumes that the SMPS is not responsible for the slight disagreement, then the
411 following conclusions can be drawn regarding the accuracy of the model. The particle growth
412 rate is almost perfectly represented by the model given the good agreement between the
413 positions of the local maxima in the size distribution and the intersections between the size
414 distributions and the x-axis. This good agreement between measured and modeled size
415 distributions has already been demonstrated in Lehtipalo et al. (2016) for a particle diameter of
416 2 nm. The results shown here indicate that no significant condensation of other trace gases
417 contribute to the growth of particles because, in this case, the measured particle size
418 distributions would be shifted towards larger diameters compared to the model.

419 The good agreement between model and measurement is also a confirmation of the effect of
420 van der Waals forces, when a Hamaker constant of 6.4×10^{-20} J is used, a value that has been
421 demonstrated previously to represent particle size distribution dynamics correctly (McMurry,
422 1980; Chan and Mozurkewich, 2001; Kürten et al., 2014; Lehtipalo et al., 2016). Regarding the
423 underestimation of the modeled size distribution for diameters ≥ 15 nm, one explanation could
424 be that the size-dependent particle loss rates in the CLOUD chamber are weaker than assumed
425 ($k_w \sim D^{0.5}$; see equation (2)). A weaker size dependence would lead to higher predicted particle
426 concentrations at larger sizes (Park et al., 2001). However, no evidence was found from the
427 existing CLOUD data that this is the case. Dedicated wall loss experiments could be performed
428 in the future to investigate this hypothesis further.

429

430 **3.5 Comparison of CLOUD chamber data to flow tube measurements by Jen et al. (2016a)**

431

432 The data presented in the previous sections provide evidence that the new particle formation in
433 the sulfuric acid-dimethylamine system during CLOUD7 proceeds at rates that are consistent
434 with collision-controlled nucleation, in agreement with results for this data set obtained using
435 different approaches (Kürten et al., 2014; Lehtipalo et al., 2016). However, measured cluster
436 concentrations for the sulfuric acid-dimethylamine system from flow tube experiments
437 indicated that finite evaporation rates exist for some clusters (Jen et al., 2014; Jen et al., 2016a).
438 This was supported by the observation that diamines can yield even higher formation rates than
439 amines for some conditions (Jen et al., 2016b). In this section, we compare the results by Jen et
440 al. (2016a) to the results from the present study. In order to perform the comparison, the model
441 described in section 2.4 was expanded in a way that allows to calculate the concentrations of



442 the monomer, dimer and trimer as a function of their dimethylamine content. In the following
 443 A_xB_y denotes the concentration of a cluster containing x sulfuric acid ($x = 1$ for the monomer)
 444 and y base (dimethylamine) molecules. It is assumed that $x \geq y$ for all clusters, i.e., the number
 445 of bases is always smaller or equal to the number of acid molecules. When the total monomer
 446 concentration ($A_1 + A_1B_1$) is fixed then the following equations result, i.e. for the A_1B_1 cluster:

$$448 \frac{dA_1B_1}{dt} = K_{1,1} \cdot B_1 \cdot A_1 - (k_{1,w} + k_{dil} + k_{e,A_1B_1} + \sum_{j=1}^{N_{max}} K_{1,j} \cdot N_j) \cdot A_1B_1, \quad (10)$$

449
 450 for the two different identities of the sulfuric acid dimer:

$$452 \frac{dA_2B_1}{dt} = (K_{1,1} \cdot A_1 \cdot A_1B_1 + k_{e,A_3B_1} \cdot A_3B_1) - (k_{w,2} + k_{dil} + K_{1,2} \cdot B_1 + \sum_{j=1}^N K_{j,2} \cdot N_j) \cdot$$

$$453 A_2B_1, \quad (11a)$$

$$455 \frac{dA_2B_2}{dt} = (0.5 \cdot K_{1,1} \cdot A_1B_1 \cdot A_1B_1 + K_{1,2} \cdot B_1 \cdot A_2B_1 + k_{e,A_3B_2} \cdot A_3B_2) - (k_{w,2} + k_{dil} +$$

$$456 \sum_{j=1}^N K_{j,2} \cdot N_j) \cdot A_2B_2, \quad (11b)$$

457
 458 and for the three different identities of the sulfuric acid trimer:

$$460 \frac{dA_3B_1}{dt} = (K_{1,2} \cdot A_1 \cdot A_2B_1) - (k_{w,3} + k_{dil} + k_{e,A_3B_1} + K_{1,3} \cdot B_1 + \sum_{j=1}^N K_{j,3} \cdot N_j) \cdot A_3B_1, \quad (12a)$$

$$462 \frac{dA_3B_2}{dt} = (K_{1,2} \cdot A_1B_1 \cdot A_2B_1 + K_{1,2} \cdot A_1 \cdot A_2B_2 + K_{1,3} \cdot B_1 \cdot A_3B_1) - (k_{w,3} + k_{dil} + k_{e,A_3B_2} +$$

$$463 K_{1,3} \cdot B_1 + \sum_{j=1}^N K_{j,3} \cdot N_j) \cdot A_3B_2, \quad (12b)$$

$$465 \frac{dA_3B_3}{dt} = (K_{1,2} \cdot A_1B_1 \cdot A_2B_2 + K_{1,3} \cdot B_1 \cdot A_3B_2) - (k_{w,3} + k_{dil} + \sum_{j=1}^N K_{j,3} \cdot N_j) \cdot A_3B_3. \quad (12c)$$

466
 467 Stable tetramers are formed from trimers and dimers; in order to be stable they need to contain
 468 at least two base molecules (Jen et al., 2016a):

$$470 \frac{dN_4}{dt} = (K_{1,3} \cdot A_1B_1 \cdot A_3B_1 + K_{1,3} \cdot N_1 \cdot (A_3B_2 + A_3B_3) + 0.5 \cdot K_{2,2} \cdot N_2 \cdot N_2) - (k_{w,4} +$$

$$471 k_{dil} + \sum_{j=1}^N K_{j,4} \cdot N_j) \cdot N_4. \quad (13)$$

472
 473 The concentrations of larger clusters and particles are calculated with the same method as
 474 described in section 2.4. The evaporation rates considered are $k_{e,A_1B_1} = 0.1 \text{ s}^{-1}$, $k_{e,A_1B_1} = 1 \text{ s}^{-1}$ and
 475 $k_{e,A_1B_1} = 1 \text{ s}^{-1}$ (Jen et al., 2016a). Pure acid clusters are assumed to evaporate much more rapidly
 476 at this temperature (278 K) and are, therefore, not considered (Hanson and Lovejoy, 2006). The
 477 cluster concentrations reported in the following refer to the number of acid molecules in the
 478 cluster, i.e., $N_1 = A_1 + A_1B_1$, $N_2 = A_2B_1 + A_2B_2$ and $N_3 = A_3B_1 + A_3B_2 + A_3B_3$.

479 Figure 3 shows a comparison between calculated cluster (dimer, trimer, tetramer and
 480 pentamer) concentrations using collision-controlled nucleation (section 2.4) and the model
 481 described in this section. When a DMA mixing ratio of 40 pptv is used (this was the average
 482 mixing ratio of DMA during the CLOUD7 experiments), there is almost no difference between



483 the two scenarios. This indicates that, under the CLOUD7 conditions, new particle formation
484 proceeded at almost the same rates that result for collision-controlled nucleation. Nevertheless,
485 this does not imply that all cluster evaporation rates are zero. The conditions are only such that,
486 due to the high DMA mixing ratio, most of the clusters (including the monomer) contain as
487 many DMA molecules as sulfuric acid molecules; if the ratio between acid and base is 1:1 the
488 clusters are most stable if their evaporation rates are assumed zero as in the model by Jen et al.
489 (2016a). This assumption is supported by quantum chemical calculations (Ortega et al., 2012).

490 The effect of the dimethylamine concentration on the cluster concentrations and on the
491 particle formation rate was further investigated. The lower panel of Fig. 3 shows that the cluster
492 concentrations and the NPF rate at 1.7 nm decrease with decreasing DMA levels. The figure
493 shows the concentrations and the NPF rate normalized by the results for the collision-limit. The
494 NPF rate drops by about a factor of three when DMA is reduced to $2.5 \times 10^7 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ (~ 1 pptv).
495 Below that level, the reduction in J and in the trimer, tetramer, and pentamer concentrations is
496 approximately linear with DMA. The dimer is less affected since, in the model, its evaporation
497 rates are set to zero while the evaporating trimers contribute to the dimer concentration. From
498 this perspective, very high particle formation rates should be observed even at DMA mixing
499 ratios around 1 pptv, which should be almost indistinguishable from rates calculated for
500 collision-controlled nucleation. Possibilities why such high rates have so far not been observed
501 are discussed in section 4.

502

503 3.6 Simulation of atmospheric nucleation at low DMA mixing ratio

504

505 A comparison between modeled and measured atmospheric data is shown in Fig. 4. The
506 measured data at a mobility diameter of 1.5 nm are from a station in a boreal forest in Finland
507 (Kulmala et al., 2013). Sipilä et al. (2015) reported recently that no dimethylamine could be
508 detected at this site. However, the detection limit of the instrument was ~ 0.12 pptv; this would
509 leave open the possibility that tiny concentrations of DMA could be present. Therefore, the
510 model described above was used to estimate what NPF rates would result for a comparable low
511 dimethylamine mixing ratio of 0.1 pptv for varying concentrations of sulfuric acid. The adjusted
512 model described in section 3.5 was used to calculate the NPF rates at 1.5 nm (cluster containing
513 six sulfuric acid and six DMA molecules) in order to be consistent with the atmospheric
514 measurements (Kulmala et al., 2013). The effect of the condensation sink by pre-existing
515 particles that can scavenge sulfuric acid and the newly-formed particles was considered by
516 introducing a monomodal log-normal size distribution with a mode diameter of 100 nm and a
517 geometric standard deviation of 1.5. The total particle concentration of the pre-existing aerosol
518 was scaled such that the condensation sink is $2 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ for sulfuric acid. To cover a wide size
519 range the geometric factor for the size bin was increased from 1.015 to 1.035. For these
520 simulations, the wall loss factor and the dilution rate constant were set to zero.

521 The results from Fig. 4 (green line) indicate that the expected NPF rates would be higher
522 than the measured rates in most cases; especially at high sulfuric acid concentrations, the
523 calculated rates are significantly faster. This is due to a steeper slope of the NPF rates as a
524 function of sulfuric acid. However, keeping the dimethylamine mixing ratio constant at 0.1 pptv
525 for all acid concentrations is probably not realistic for two reasons: (1) a high sulfuric acid
526 concentration is, in some cases, related to a high OH concentration; OH can, however, deplete



527 DMA in the gas phase; and (2) the DMA is consumed by the newly-formed particles. In order
528 to consider these effects, the DMA concentration is assumed to scale inversely with the sulfuric
529 acid concentration, i.e., at $1 \times 10^6 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ of sulfuric acid, the DMA mixing ratio is 0.1 pptv, while
530 it is only 0.01 pptv at $1 \times 10^7 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ of sulfuric acid. This is a very strong assumption about the
531 connection between sulfuric acid and DMA, but the scenario (magenta curve) results in much
532 slower NPF rates at high acid concentrations and the model curve can in principle replicate the
533 measured NPF rates including the shallower slope. It has to be noted that very small DMA
534 mixing ratios (e.g., 0.01 pptv equal $\sim 2.5 \times 10^5 \text{ cm}^{-3}$) are assumed, which are up to ~ 100 times
535 lower than the acid concentration. Therefore, the scenario might seem unphysical at the first
536 glance. However, not all amine molecules are bound to sulfuric acid. The model indicates that
537 only a tiny fraction of the sulfuric acid monomer contains a dimethylamine molecule, so there
538 would still be a high fraction of free DMA. What is, however, required for such a scenario is a
539 local source term that replenishes the DMA; otherwise the DMA would be rapidly depleted by
540 the condensation sink. Evidence that amine mixing ratios decreased during new particle
541 formation events has been reported (Kürten et al., 2016b).

542 In addition, it should be noted that we do not attempt to explain new particle formation in
543 the boreal forest from sulfuric acid and dimethylamine as no direct evidence has been found
544 that this occurs. Rather, our analysis shows that amine mixing ratios below current detection
545 limits could lead to significant NPF rates.

546

547

548 4. DISCUSSION

549

550 This study confirms the previous conclusion that new particle formation in the sulfuric acid-
551 dimethylamine-water system can proceed at or close to the collision-controlled limit (Kürten et
552 al., 2014; Lehtipalo et al., 2016). This is the case for sulfuric acid concentrations between 1×10^6
553 and $3 \times 10^7 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ and dimethylamine mixing ratios around 40 pptv at 278 K and 38% RH. For
554 these conditions particle formation rates and size distributions can be reproduced with high
555 accuracy by an aerosol model that assumes that particle growth is exclusively due the
556 irreversible addition of $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4 \cdot (\text{CH}_3)_2\text{NH}$ “monomers” and coagulation. Even when
557 evaporation rates for the less stable clusters are introduced in the model (Jen et al., 2016a) the
558 resulting particle formation rates are effectively indistinguishable from the kinetic model results
559 for CLOUD7 conditions. This indicates that the flow tube study by Jen et al. (2016a) and the
560 CLOUD data are in good agreement. The fact that the measured particle size distribution can
561 be reproduced with good accuracy shows that neither water nor other species contribute
562 significantly to particle growth during these CLOUD chamber experiments. Water could play
563 a role at higher relative humidities, however, in addition, it is not clear yet how temperature
564 influences the cluster evaporation rates. The evaporation rates from Jen et al. (2016a) were
565 derived at temperatures close to 300 K; therefore the simulation of nucleation in the CLOUD
566 chamber (278 K) using the Jen et al. (2016a) rate parameters is likely to overestimate the effect
567 of cluster evaporation.

568 The question of why sulfuric acid-amine nucleation is rarely observed in the atmosphere is
569 still open. Jen et al. (2016a) reported that clusters that contain equal numbers of dimethylamine
570 and sulfuric acid molecules are ionized at reduced efficiencies than more acidic clusters with



571 the commonly used $\text{NO}_3^-(\text{HNO}_3)_{0.2}$ reagent ions. Still, Kürten et al. (2014) observed high
572 concentrations for large clusters containing acid and base at an average ratio of 1:1. A reduced
573 detection efficiency was also reported but the reduced sensitivity (in relation to the monomer)
574 was, e.g. only a factor of 3 for the trimer containing DMA. Using the model results from section
575 3.5 the expected trimer concentration at $5 \times 10^6 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ of sulfuric acid and 1 pptv of DMA should
576 be $\sim 1 \times 10^5 \text{ cm}^{-3}$. Even when the detection efficiency for the trimer was reduced by a factor of
577 3, such a concentration should still be well above the detection limit of a CI-APi-TOF.
578 However, no sulfuric acid trimers could be detected in a field study where amines were present
579 at levels above 1 pptv (Kürten et al., 2016b). It is, therefore, possible that any amines present
580 were not suitable for nucleation. Therefore, application of methods capable of amine speciation
581 should be applied more widely in atmospheric measurements (Place et al., 2017).

582 Several CLOUD papers reported particle formation rates for a diameter of 1.7 nm. Some of
583 these published formation rates were derived from direct measurements using particle counters
584 with cut-off diameters close to 1.7 nm (Riccobono et al., 2014; Duplissy et al., 2016), while
585 other reported NPF rates were derived from process models describing the nucleation process
586 in the CLOUD chamber (Kirkby et al., 2011; Kirkby et al., 2016). Therefore, no extrapolation
587 of the NPF rates from a larger threshold diameter was performed, which could have led to an
588 underestimation due to missing self-coagulation. Besides Almeida et al. (2013), the data set
589 reported by Dunne et al. (2016) and Kürten et al. (2016a) did make use of the NPF rate
590 extrapolation method from 3.2 to 1.7 nm without taking into account the effect of self-
591 coagulation. However, the reported formation rates are, in almost all cases, considerably slower
592 than those for the collision-controlled limit at a given sulfuric acid concentration since no
593 dimethylamine was present in the CLOUD chamber (Dunne et al., 2016; Kürten et al., 2016a).
594 The chemical system in these studies was the binary system, (H_2SO_4 and H_2O) and the ternary
595 system involving ammonia. The conditions only approached the collision-controlled limit at
596 the lowest temperature (210 K) when the highest ammonia mixing ratio of ~ 6 pptv was
597 investigated (Kürten et al., 2015b). However, even under these conditions, the reported rates
598 are only about a factor of 2 slower than the collision-controlled limit (Kürten et al., 2016a).
599 This is probably related to the low acid concentrations ($\leq 3 \times 10^6 \text{ cm}^{-3}$) in these experiments,
600 where the self-coagulation effect is not as strong as at higher acid concentration (see Fig. 1)
601 when wall loss and dilution lead to decreased cluster concentrations relative to the monomer.
602 This indicates that previously published CLOUD results, other than the Almeida et al. (2013)
603 data, are most likely not significantly affected.

604 McMurry and Li (2017) have recently investigated the effect of the wall loss and dilution
605 rate on new particle formation with their numeric model, which uses dimensionless parameters.
606 In order to allow for a comparison between McMurry and Li (2017) and the present study,
607 information on the parameters W (describing wall loss) and M (describing dilution) is provided
608 (see McMurry and Li, 2017, for the exact definitions). These parameters range from 0.04 to 0.7
609 (W) and 2×10^{-3} to 4×10^{-2} (M) for the experiments shown in this study. The monomer production
610 rate (P_1) ranges from 7×10^3 to $2 \times 10^6 \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$.

611

612

613



5. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

New particle formation rates from CLOUD chamber measurements for the sulfuric acid-dimethylamine-water system were re-analyzed. It was found that the previously published rates by Almeida et al. (2013) underestimate the NPF rates by up to a factor of ~50 at high acid concentrations ($\sim 1 \times 10^7 \text{ cm}^{-3}$). The reason for this underestimation is the effect of self-coagulation that contributes efficiently to the loss of small particles in the size range relevant for the data analysis (between 1.7 and 3.2 nm). The previously used method for extrapolating the NPF rates from 3.2 nm to 1.7 nm did not include this effect and therefore the correction factors were too small. Using an advanced reconstruction method that accounts for the effect of self-coagulation yields much higher NPF rates (Kürten et al., 2015a). These corrected NPF rates are in good agreement with rates calculated from an aerosol model assuming collision-controlled nucleation and with measured NPF rates from SMPS data. Furthermore, the model can reproduce the measured size distribution with good accuracy up to ~30 nm.

Extending the aerosol model by including evaporation rates for some clusters (see Jen et al., 2016a) still yields good agreement between modeled and measured CLOUD NPF rates and cluster concentrations. This indicates that the data from the flow tube study by Jen et al. (2016a) and from CLOUD (Kürten et al., 2014) are consistent.

The aerosol model including the evaporation rates is also used to simulate atmospheric new particle formation. Assuming low DMA mixing ratios (≤ 0.1 pptv) the atmospheric NPF rates can be reproduced reasonably well; however, the relatively low slope of NPF rate vs. sulfuric acid concentration requires the use of a decreasing DMA concentration with increasing sulfuric acid concentration. Such conditions are, however, reasonable because the incorporation of amines into newly formed particles leads to depletion of the amines, while H_2SO_4 is efficiently replenished by the production from OH and SO_2 .

The above findings raise some further conclusions and questions. These are in part related to the rare detection of sulfuric acid-amine nucleation in the atmosphere. Only one study has so far reported sulfuric acid-amine nucleation (Zhao et al., 2011). The nucleation of sulfuric acid-amines could occur, however, more often than currently thought.

- It is unclear to what extent previously published atmospheric NPF rates are affected by incomplete J extrapolations. Some J measurements were made at diameters close to 3 nm and extrapolated to a smaller size. If self-coagulation were important, the formation rates at the small sizes could be significantly underestimated, and, therefore, in reality be much closer to rates consistent with collision-controlled nucleation than previously thought. In such a case, DMA (or other equally effective amines) could have been responsible for nucleation as they are among the most potent nucleation precursors (in combination with sulfuric acid). To avoid such ambiguities, the NPF rates should, in the future, be directly measured at small diameters whenever possible.
- Better gas-phase amine (base) measurements are needed. Detection limits need to reach mixing ratios even below 0.1 pptv; ideally the methods should also be capable of speciating the amines (discriminate e.g. dimethylamine from ethylamine, which have the same mass



657 when measured by mass spectrometry but probably behave differently in terms of their
658 contribution to NPF).

659

660 – It is not clear why no clusters containing three or more sulfuric acid molecules are frequently
661 observed during atmospheric new particle formation when amines are expected to be
662 present. This could be due to incorrect assumptions about the amine concentrations, the
663 amine identities, or a reduced detection efficiency of chemical ionization mass
664 spectrometers (Jen et al., 2016a). The potential formation of complex multi-species clusters
665 (containing sulfuric acid, amines, ammonia and oxidized organics) in the atmosphere could
666 distribute the clusters over many different identities and therefore result in concentrations
667 too low to be detected by the current instrumentation for the individual species.

668

669 The overall contribution of amines to atmospheric nucleation can only be quantified after these
670 issues are understood. Besides further atmospheric measurements, controlled laboratory
671 measurements are necessary. Of special interest are the temperature dependent evaporation
672 rates of the relevant sulfuric-acid amine clusters.



673 **DATA AVAILABILITY**

674

675 Data used in this study can be obtained by sending an email to the corresponding author.

676

677

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679

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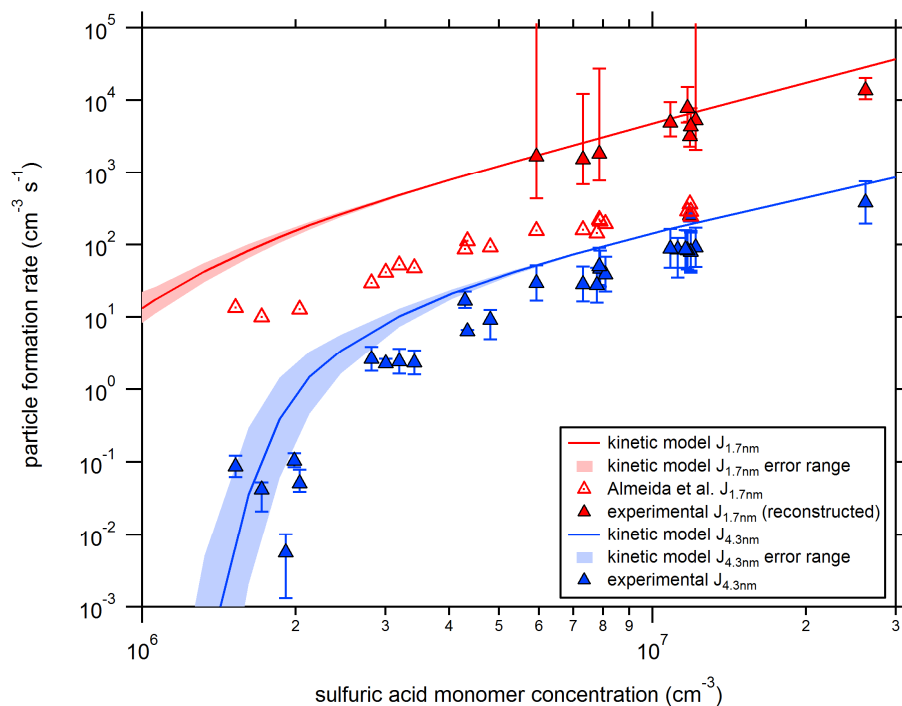
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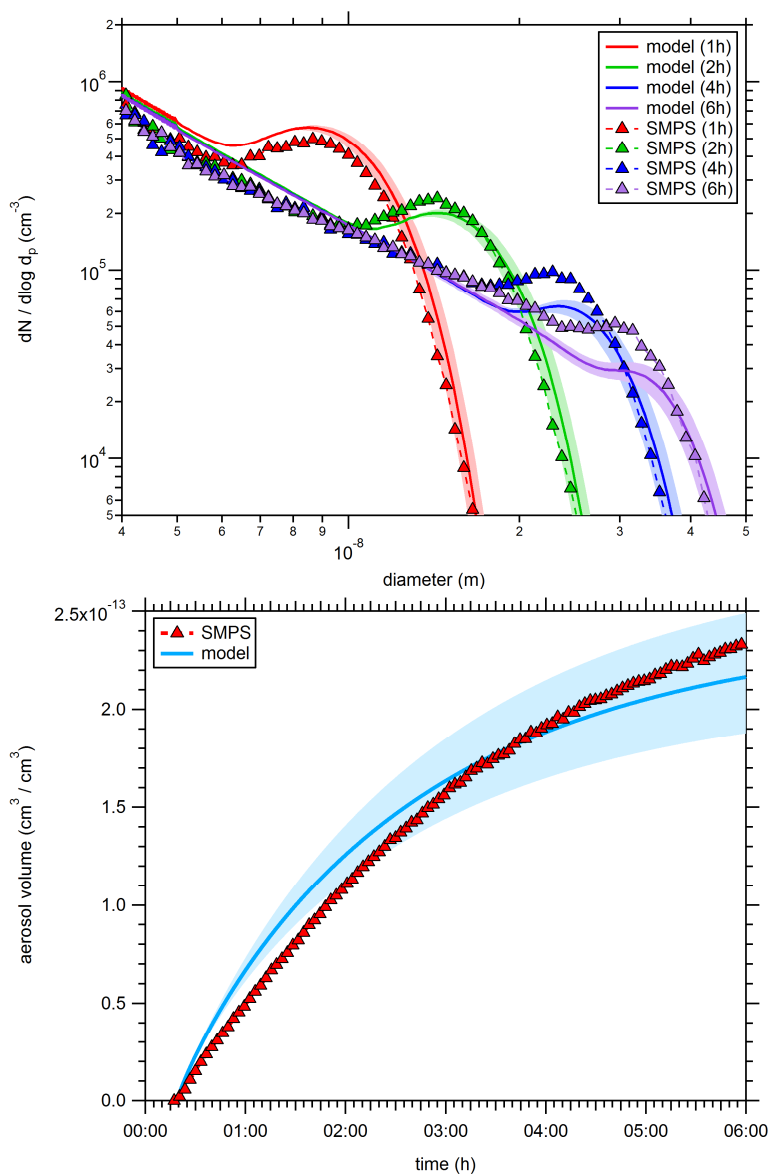
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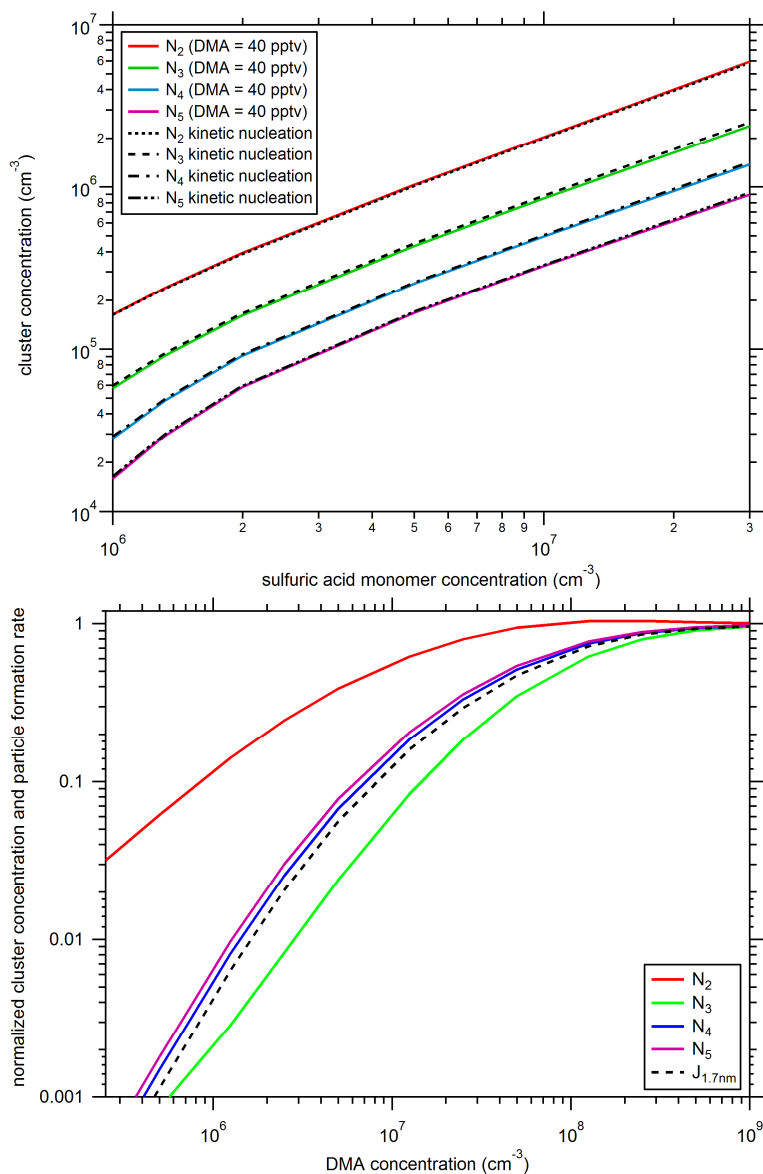
1071 **Fig. 1.** Comparison between experimental and theoretical particle formation rates at two
1072 different sizes (mobility diameters of 1.7 nm and 4.3 nm). The lines indicate calculated particle
1073 formation rates from the collision-controlled aerosol model described in section 2.4 for CLOUD
1074 chamber conditions. The shaded regions show the model uncertainties when using an error of
1075 $\pm 20\%$ for the wall loss coefficient (C_w , see equation (2)). The open red symbols show previously
1076 published CLOUD7 data for the sulfuric acid-dimethylamine-water system (Almeida et al.,
1077 2013), while the blue symbols show the rates derived from SMPS size distribution
1078 measurements (this study). The data shown by the closed red symbols were derived with the
1079 method introduced by Kürten et al. (2015a) by extrapolating the SMPS data starting at 4.3 nm.



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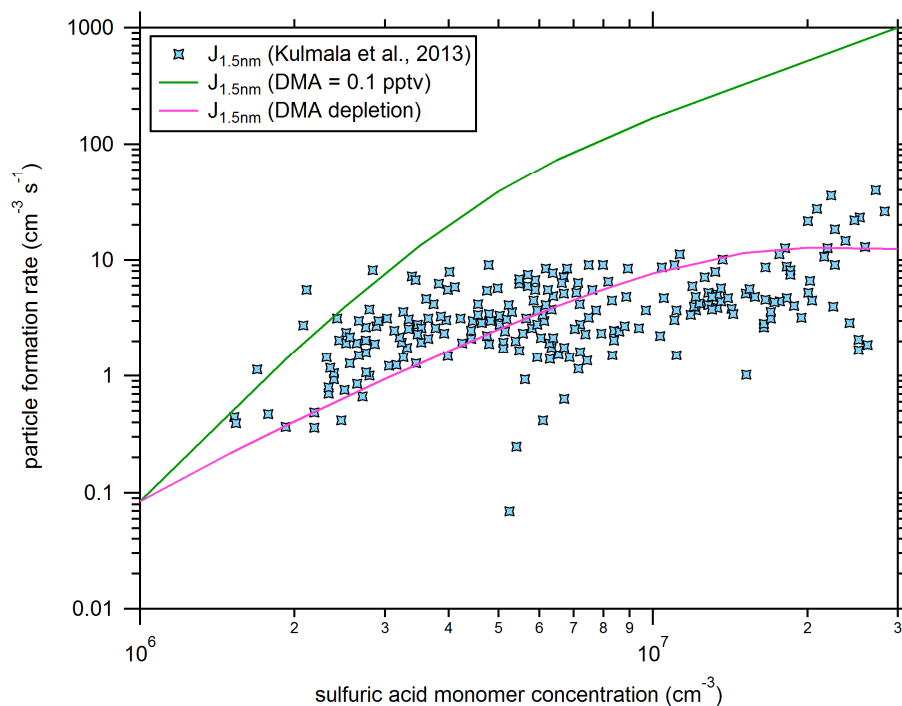
1082 **Fig. 2.** Comparison between simulated and measured particle size distributions for one
1083 experiment (CLOUD7, run 1036.01). The comparison is shown in the upper panel for four
1084 different times (1h, 2h, 4h and 6h) after the start of the experiment. The lower panel shows a
1085 comparison between modeled and measured aerosol volume as a function of time. The shaded
1086 regions show the model uncertainties when using an error of $\pm 20\%$ for the wall loss coefficient
1087 (C_w , see equation (2)).



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1090 **Fig. 3.** Upper panel: Comparison of modeled cluster (N_2 = dimer, N_3 = trimer, N_4 = tetramer
1091 and N_5 = pentamer) concentrations using different scenarios. The dashed black lines use the
1092 collision-controlled nucleation scheme with all evaporation rates set to zero (section 2.4); while
1093 the colored solid lines are calculated based on the model by Jen et al. (2016a) with a
1094 dimethylamine mixing ratio of 40 pptv, which was the average mixing ratio during the
1095 CLOUD7 campaign. Lower panel: Variation in modeled cluster concentration and $J_{1.7\text{nm}}$ as a
1096 function of the dimethylamine mixing ratio (Jen et al., 2016a). The data were normalized to the
1097 values from the collision-controlled limit calculation (upper panel). For the calculations a
1098 sulfuric acid concentration of $5 \times 10^6 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ was used. See text for further details.



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1101 **Fig. 4.** Comparison between atmospheric (symbols, see Kulmala et al., 2013) and modeled new
1102 particle formation rates at 1.5 nm using the model according to Jen et al. (2016a). Using a DMA
1103 mixing ratio of 0.1 pptv results in some overlap between the atmospheric data and the modeled
1104 NPF rates (solid green line). Assuming that the DMA is depleted linearly with increasing acid
1105 concentration (starting at 0.1 pptv at $1 \times 10^6 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ of sulfuric acid) results in the solid magenta
1106 curve. The condensation sink (CS) in these calculations is $2 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$.