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Atmospheric isoprene ozonolysis: impacts of stabilized Criegee intermediate reactions with SO₂, H₂O and dimethyl sulfide

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Abstract

Isoprene is the dominant global biogenic volatile organic compound (VOC) emission. Reactions of isoprene with ozone are known to form stabilised Criegee intermediates (SCIs), which have recently been shown to be potentially important oxidants for SO_2 and NO_2 in the atmosphere; however the significance of this chemistry for SO_2 processing (affecting sulfate aerosol) and NO_2 processing (affecting NO_x levels) depends critically upon the fate of the SCI with respect to reaction with water and decomposition. Here, we have investigated the removal of SO_2 in the presence of isoprene and ozone, as a function of humidity, under atmospheric boundary layer conditions. The SO_2 removal displays a clear dependence on relative humidity, confirming a significant reaction for isoprene derived SCI with H_2O . Under excess SO_2 conditions, the total isoprene ozonolysis SCI yield was calculated to be 0.56 (± 0.03). The observed SO_2 removal kinetics are consistent with a relative rate constant, $k(\text{SCI} + \text{H}_2\text{O})/k(\text{SCI} + \text{SO}_2)$, of $5.4 (\pm 0.8) \times 10^{-5}$ for isoprene derived SCI. The relative rate constant for $k(\text{SCI decomposition})/k(\text{SCI} + \text{SO}_2)$ is $8.4 (\pm 5.0) \times 10^{10} \text{ cm}^{-3}$. Uncertainties are $\pm 2\sigma$ and represent combined systematic and precision components. These kinetic parameters are based on the simplification that a single SCI species is formed in isoprene ozonolysis, an approximation which describes the results well across the full range of experimental conditions. Our data indicate that isoprene-derived SCIs are unlikely to make a substantial contribution to gas-phase SO_2 oxidation in the troposphere. We also present results from an analogous set of experiments, which show a clear dependence of SO_2 removal in the isoprene-ozone system as a function of dimethyl sulfide concentration. We propose that this behaviour arises from a rapid reaction between isoprene-derived SCI and DMS; the observed SO_2 removal kinetics are consistent with a relative rate constant, $k(\text{SCI} + \text{DMS})/k(\text{SCI} + \text{SO}_2)$, of 4.1 (± 2.2). This result suggests that SCIs may contribute to the oxidation of DMS in the atmosphere and that this process could therefore influence new particle formation in regions impacted by emissions of unsaturated hydrocarbons and DMS.

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1 Introduction

Atmospheric chemical processes exert a major influence on atmospheric composition. Identified gas-phase oxidants include the OH radical, ozone, NO_3 and under certain circumstances other species such as halogen atoms. Reactions with these oxidants can lead to (for example) chemical removal of primary air pollutants; formation of secondary pollutants (e.g. ozone, harmful to human and environmental health, and a greenhouse gas); and the transformation of gas-phase species to the condensed phase (e.g., SO_2 oxidation leading to the formation of sulfate aerosol, and the formation of functionalised organic compounds leading to secondary aerosol formation, which can influence radiation transfer and climate).

Stabilised Criegee intermediates (SCI), or carbonyl oxides, are formed in the atmosphere predominantly from the reaction of ozone with unsaturated hydrocarbons, though other processes may be important in certain conditions, e.g. alkyl iodide photolysis (Gravestock et al., 2010), dissociation of the DMSO peroxy radical (Asatryan and Bozzelli, 2008), and reactions of peroxy radicals with OH (Fittschen et al., 2014). SCI have been shown in laboratory experiments and by theoretical calculations to oxidise SO_2 and NO_2 (e.g. Cox and Penkett, 1971; Welz et al., 2012; Taatjes et al., 2013; Ouyang et al., 2013; Stone et al., 2014) as well as a number of other trace gases found in the atmosphere. Recent field measurements in a boreal forest (Mauldin et al., 2012) and at a coastal site (Berresheim et al., 2014) have both identified an apparently missing process oxidising SO_2 to H_2SO_4 (in addition to reaction with OH) and have implied SCI as a possible oxidant, acting alongside OH. Assessment of the importance of SCIs for tropospheric processing requires a quantitative understanding of their formation yields and atmospheric fate – in particular, the relative importance of bimolecular reactions (e.g. with SO_2), unimolecular decomposition, and reaction with water vapour. Here we describe an experimental investigation into the formation and reactions of the SCIs derived from isoprene (the most abundant biogenic VOC), formed through the ozonolysis process, which dominates atmospheric SCI production, and studied under

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boundary layer conditions, to assess their potential contribution to tropospheric oxidation.

1.1 Stabilised Criegee intermediate kinetics

Ozonolysis derived CIs are formed with a broad internal energy distribution, yielding both chemically activated and stabilised CIs. SCIs can have sufficiently long lifetimes to undergo bimolecular reactions with H_2O and SO_2 , amongst other species. Chemically activated CIs may undergo collisional stabilisation to an SCI (Scheme 1), or unimolecular decomposition or isomerisation.

To date the majority of studies have focused on the smallest SCI, CH_2OO , because of the importance of understanding simple SCI systems (this species is formed in the ozonolysis of all terminal alkenes) and the ability to synthesize CH_2OO from alkyl iodide photolysis, with sufficient yield to probe its kinetics. However, the unique structure of CH_2OO (which prohibits isomerisation to a hydroperoxide intermediate) likely gives it a different reactivity and degradation mechanism to other SCI (Johnson and Marston, 2008).

Recent experimental work (Berndt et al., 2014; Newland et al., 2015; Chao et al., 2015; Lewis et al., 2015) has determined the predominant atmospheric fate for CH_2OO to be reaction with water vapour. Some of these experiments (Berndt et al., 2014; Chao et al., 2015; Lewis et al., 2015) have demonstrated a quadratic dependence of CH_2OO loss on $[\text{H}_2\text{O}]$, suggesting a dominant role for the water dimer, $(\text{H}_2\text{O})_2$, in CH_2OO loss at typical atmospheric boundary layer H_2O concentrations. For larger SCI, both experimental (Taatjes et al., 2013; Sheps et al., 2014; Newland et al., 2015) and theoretical (Kuwata et al., 2010; Anglada et al., 2011) studies have shown that their kinetics, in particular reaction with water, are highly structure dependent. *syn*-SCI (i.e. those where an alkyl-substituent group is on the same side as the terminal oxygen of the carbonyl oxide moiety) react very slowly with H_2O , whereas, *anti*-SCI (i.e. with the terminal oxygen of the carbonyl oxide moiety on the same side as a hydrogen group) react relatively fast with H_2O . This difference has been predicted theoretically (Kuwata et al., 2010;

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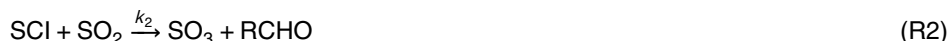
Anglada et al., 2011) and was subsequently confirmed in recent experiments (Taatjes et al., 2013; Sheps et al., 2014) for the two CH_3CHOO conformers. Additionally, it has been predicted theoretically (Vereecken et al., 2012) that the relative reaction rate constants for the water dimer vs. water monomer, $k(\text{SCI} + (\text{H}_2\text{O})_2)/k(\text{SCI} + \text{H}_2\text{O})$ of larger SCI (except *syn*- CH_3CHOO) will be over 70 times smaller than that for CH_2OO , suggesting that reaction with the water dimer is unlikely to be the dominant fate for these SCI under atmospheric conditions.

An additional, potentially important, fate of SCI under atmospheric conditions is unimolecular decomposition (denoted k_d in Reaction R4). This is likely to be a significant atmospheric sink for *syn*-SCI because of their slow reaction with water vapour. Previous studies have identified the hydroperoxide rearrangement as dominant for SCIs with a *syn* configuration, determining their overall unimolecular decomposition rate (Niki et al., 1987; Rickard et al., 1999; Martinez and Herron, 1987; Johnson and Marston, 2008). This route has been shown to be a substantial non-photolytic source of atmospheric oxidants (Niki et al., 1987; Alam et al., 2013). CIs formed in the *anti*-configuration are thought to primarily undergo rearrangement and possibly decomposition via a dioxirane intermediate (“the acid/ester channel”), producing a range of daughter products and contributing to the observed overall HO_x radical yield (Johnson and Marston, 2008; Alam et al., 2013).

For CH_2OO , rearrangement via a “hot” acid species represents the lowest accessible decomposition channel with the theoretically predicted rate constant being rather low, 0.3 s^{-1} (Olzmann et al., 1997). Recent experimental work supports this slow decomposition rate for CH_2OO (Newland et al., 2015; Chhantyal-Pun et al., 2015). However, Newland et al. (2015) have suggested the decomposition of larger *syn*-SCI to be considerably faster, albeit with substantial uncertainty, with reported rate constants for *syn*- CH_3CHOO of $288 (\pm 275) \text{ s}^{-1}$ and for $(\text{CH}_3)_2\text{COO}$ of $151 (\pm 35) \text{ s}^{-1}$. Novelli et al. (2014), estimated decomposition of *syn*- CH_3CHOO to be $20 (3-30) \text{ s}^{-1}$ from direct observation of OH formation, while Fenske et al. (2000), estimated decomposition of CH_3CHOO produced from ozonolysis of *trans*-but-2-ene to be 76 s^{-1} (accurate to

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within a factor of three).



1.2 Isoprene ozonolysis

Global emissions of biogenic VOCs have been estimated to be an order of magnitude greater, by mass, than anthropogenic VOC emissions (Guenther et al., 1995). The most abundant non-methane biogenic hydrocarbon in the natural atmosphere is isoprene (2-methyl-1,3-butadiene, C₅H₈), with global emissions estimated to be 594 (±34) Tg yr⁻¹ (Sindelarova et al., 2014). While the vast majority of these emissions are from terrestrial sources, there are also biogenic emissions in coastal and remote marine environments, associated with seaweed and phytoplankton blooms (Moore et al., 1994). Isoprene mixing ratios (as well as those of some monoterpenes) have been reported to reach hundreds of pptv (parts per trillion by volume) over active phytoplankton blooms in the marine boundary layer (Sinha et al., 2007; Yassaa et al., 2008), with the potential to impact local air quality (Williams et al., 2010).

Removal of isoprene from the troposphere is dominated by reaction with the OH radical during the day and reaction with the nitrate radical during the night (Calvert et al., 2000). The ozonolysis of isoprene is also a non-photolytic source of HO_x radicals (Atkinson et al., 1992; Paulson et al., 1997; Malkin et al., 2010), with measured yields of OH between 0.25 (Paulson et al., 1997) and 0.27 (Atkinson et al., 1992) (with a current recommended yield of 0.25, Atkinson et al., 2006). Isoprene ozonolysis also leads to

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the formation of a range of multi-functional oxygenated compounds, some of which can form secondary organic aerosol (Noziere et al., 2015).

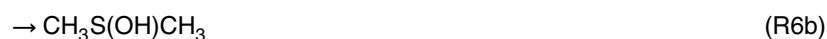
Isoprene ozonolysis yields five different initial carbonyl oxides (Scheme 2). The three basic species formed are formaldehyde oxide (CH₂OO), methyl-vinyl carbonyl oxide (MVKOO) and methacrolein oxide (MACROO) (Calvert et al., 2000; Atkinson et al., 2006). MVKOO and MACROO both have *syn* and *anti* conformers and each of these can have either *cis* or *trans* configuration (Zhang et al., 2002; Kuwata et al., 2005) with easy inter-conversion between the *cis* and *trans* conformers (Aplincourt and Anglada, 2003). The kinetics and products of isoprene ozonolysis have been investigated theoretically by Zhang et al. (2002). They predicted the following SCI yields: CH₂OO, 0.31; *syn*-MVKOO, 0.14; *anti*-MVKOO, 0.07; *syn*-MACROO, 0.01; *anti*-MACROO 0.04. This gives a total SCI yield of 0.57. They predicted that 95% of the chemically activated CH₂OO formed will be stabilized, considerably higher than the experimentally determined stabilization of excited CH₂OO formed during ethene ozonolysis (35–54%) (Newland et al., 2015). This is because the majority of the energy formed during isoprene ozonolysis is thought to partition into the larger, co-generated, primary carbonyl species (Kuwata et al., 2005) (i.e. methyl-vinyl ketone (MVK) or methacrolein (MACR)). The predicted stabilization of the other SCI ranges from 20 to 54% at atmospheric pressure. It is relevant to note that the recommended total SCI yield from isoprene ozonolysis in the Master Chemical Mechanism, MCMv3.2 (Jenkin et al., 1997; Saunders et al., 2003), is considerably lower at 0.22, as a consequence of the MCM protocol, which applies a weighted mean of total SCI yields measured for propene, 1-octene and 2-methyl propene (Jenkin et al., 1997). However, the relative yield of CH₂OO (0.50) compared to the total SCI yield in the MCM is very similar to that calculated by Zhang et al. (2002) (0.54).

1.3 Dimethyl sulfide (DMS)

The largest natural source of sulfur to the atmosphere is the biogenically produced compound dimethyl sulfide, DMS (CH₃SCH₃), which has estimated global emissions

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of $19.4 (\pm 4.4) \text{ Tgyr}^{-1}$ (Faloona, 2009). DMS is a breakdown product of the plankton waste product dimethylsulfoniopropionate (DMSP). Jardine et al. (2015) have also recently shown that vegetation and soils can be important terrestrial sources of DMS to the atmosphere in the Amazon Basin, during both the day and at night, and throughout the wet and dry seasons, with measurements of up to 160 pptv within the canopy and near the surface. The oxidation of DMS is a large natural source of SO_2 , and subsequently sulfate aerosol, to the atmosphere and therefore is an important source of new particle formation. This process has been implicated in an important feedback leading to a regulation of the climate in the pre-industrial atmosphere (Charlson et al., 1987). The two most important oxidants of DMS in the atmosphere are thought to be the OH and NO_3 radicals (Barnes et al., 2006) (Reactions R6–R7). Because of its photochemical source, OH is thought to be the more important oxidant during the day in tropical regions, while NO_3 becomes more important at night, at high latitudes, and in more polluted air masses (Stark et al., 2007). Certain halogenated compounds, e.g. Cl (Wingenter et al., 2005) and BrO (Wingenter et al., 2005; Read et al., 2008), have also been suggested as possible oxidants for DMS in the marine environment.



2 Experimental

2.1 Experimental approach

The EUPHORE facility is a 200 m^3 simulation chamber used primarily for studying reaction mechanisms under atmospheric boundary layer conditions. Further details of

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the chamber setup and instrumentation are available elsewhere (Becker, 1996; Alam et al., 2011), and a detailed account of the experimental procedure, summarised below, is given in Newland et al. (2015).

Experiments comprised time-resolved measurement of the removal of SO_2 in the presence of the isoprene-ozone system, as a function of humidity or DMS concentration. SO_2 and O_3 abundance were measured using conventional fluorescence and UV absorption monitors, respectively; alkene abundance was determined via FTIR spectroscopy. Experiments were performed in the dark (i.e. with the chamber housing closed; $j(\text{NO}_2) \leq 10^{-6} \text{ s}^{-1}$), at atmospheric pressure (ca. 1000 mbar) and temperatures between 287 and 302 K. The chamber is fitted with large horizontal and vertical fans to ensure rapid mixing (three minutes). Chamber dilution was monitored via the first order decay of an aliquot of SF_6 , added prior to each experiment. Cyclohexane (ca. 75 ppmv) was added at the beginning of each experiment to act as an OH scavenger, such that SO_2 reaction with OH was calculated to be $\leq 1\%$ of the total chemical SO_2 removal in all experiments.

Experimental procedure, starting with the chamber filled with clean air, comprised addition of SF_6 and cyclohexane, followed by water vapour (or DMS), O_3 (ca. 500 ppbv) and SO_2 (ca. 50 ppbv). A gap of five minutes was left prior to addition of isoprene, to allow complete mixing. The reaction was then initiated by addition of the isoprene (ca. 400 ppbv), and reagent concentrations followed for 30–60 min; typically ca. 25% of the isoprene was consumed after this time. Nine isoprene + O_3 experiments, as a function of $[\text{H}_2\text{O}]$, were performed over separate days. Each individual run was performed at a constant humidity, with humidity varied to cover the range of $[\text{H}_2\text{O}] = 0.4\text{--}21 \times 10^{16} \text{ molecules cm}^{-3}$, corresponding to an RH range of 0.5–27% (at 298 K). Five isoprene + O_3 experiments as a function of DMS were also performed. Measured increases in $[\text{SO}_2]$ agreed with measured volumetric additions across the SO_2 , humidity and DMS ranges used in the experiments.

the start of each experimental run; however, the possibility of other chemical loss processes (see below) dictates that the derived value for k_d is technically an upper limit. From Fig. 3, k_d/k_2 is determined to be $8.4 (\pm 50) \times 10^{10} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ (Table 2). Using the k_2 value determined by Welz et al. (2012) to put k_d/k_2 on an absolute scale (as above for k_3) yields a k_d of $\leq 3.3 (\pm 20) \text{ s}^{-1}$. Newland et al. (2015) recently determined k_d for CH_2OO to be $-8.8 (\pm 13) \text{ s}^{-1}$, i.e. indistinguishable from zero within uncertainty. This suggests that either k_d for the non- CH_2OO SCI within the ISOP-SCI family is relatively low, i.e. a few tens s^{-1} , and/or that CH_2OO dominates the ISOP-SCI population. The limited precision obtained for these k_d values reflects the uncertainty in the intercept of the regression analysis shown in Fig. 3.

Sipilä et al. (2014) recently reported a value of k_{loss}/k_2 for isoprene ozonolysis derived SCI, treated using a single-SCI approach, which is analogous to the value $(k_3[\text{H}_2\text{O}] + k_d)/k_2$ reported in this section. They derive a value of $2.5 (\pm 0.1) \times 10^{12} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ at $[\text{H}_2\text{O}] = 5.8 \times 10^{16} \text{ cm}^{-3}$. From the k_3 and k_d values derived in the single SCI analysis in this work (Table 2) we calculate a value of $3.2 (\pm 0.7) \times 10^{12} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ at the same $[\text{H}_2\text{O}]$, in reasonably good agreement.

Other potential fates for SCIs include reaction with ozone (Kjaergaard et al., 2013; Vereecken et al., 2014; Wei et al., 2014), with other SCI (Su et al., 2014; Vereecken et al., 2014), carbonyl products (Taatjes et al., 2012), acids (Welz et al., 2014), or with the parent alkene (Vereecken et al., 2014). Sensitivity analyses indicate that the reaction with ozone could be significant, as predicted by theory (Kjaergaard et al., 2013; Vereecken et al., 2014; Wei et al., 2014) with an upper limit of $\sim 10\%$ of SCI loss for the lowest RH (worst case) experiment, while total losses from reaction with SCI (self-reaction), carbonyls and alkenes are calculated to account for $< 1\%$ of the total SCI loss under the experimental conditions applied.

The results presented here suggest that while SCI and conformer specific identification is important to determine the product yields, it does not appear to be important when solely considering the combined effects of isoprene ozonolysis products on the oxidation of SO_2 under the experimental conditions applied.

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3.3 Analysis 2: two-SCI species (CH_2OO + CRB-SCI) treatment

In Sect. 3.2 the combined effects of the five SCI initially produced during isoprene ozonolysis were treated as a single pseudo-SCI, ISOP-SCI. In this section an alternative approach is presented, in which the SCI family is split into two components. These are: CH_2OO , for which the reaction rates with water and the water dimer have been quantified in recent experimental studies, and the sum of the MVKOO and MACROO SCI, denoted CRB-SCI.

To date, the effects of the water dimer, $(\text{H}_2\text{O})_2$ have only been determined experimentally for CH_2OO (Berndt et al., 2014; Chao et al., 2015; Lewis et al., 2015; Newland et al., 2015). Theoretical calculations (Vereecken et al., 2012) predicted the significant effect of the water dimer compared to the monomer for CH_2OO , but also that the ratio of the SCI + $(\text{H}_2\text{O})_2$: SCI + H_2O rate constants, k_5/k_3 , of the larger, more substituted SCI, *anti*- CH_3CHOO and $(\text{CH}_3)_2\text{COO}$, are 2–3 orders of magnitude smaller than for CH_2OO (Vereecken et al., 2012). This would make the dimer reaction negligible at atmospherically accessible $[\text{H}_2\text{O}]$ (i.e. $< 1 \times 10^{18} \text{ cm}^{-3}$) for SCI larger than CH_2OO . The results presented in Sect. 3.2 show that, under the single-SCI treatment of the isoprene ozonolysis SCI chemistry, a water monomer only approach is able to describe the experimental data. Hence the effect of the water dimer reaction on CRB-SCI is not considered in this analysis (the water dimer reaction is included for CH_2OO).

$$[\text{SO}_2] \left(\frac{1}{f} - 1 \right) = \gamma^A \left(\frac{k_3^A [\text{H}_2\text{O}] + k_5^A [(\text{H}_2\text{O})_2] + (k_d^A + L^A)}{k_2^A} \right) + \gamma^C \left(\frac{k_3^C [\text{H}_2\text{O}] + (k_d^C + L^C)}{k_2^A} \right) \quad (5)$$

where ^A is CH_2OO and ^C is CRB-SCI.

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Using the data given below, a steady state SCI concentration of 2.4×10^2 molecules cm^{-3} is calculated for an isoprene ozonolysis source. This assumes an ozone mixing ratio of 40 ppbv, an isoprene mixing ratio of 1 ppbv, an SCI yield φ of 0.56, and a reaction rate constant k_1 (isoprene – ozone) of 1.0×10^{-17} $\text{cm}^3 \text{s}^{-1}$ (288 K) (Atkinson et al., 2006); $k_2(\text{SCI} + \text{SO}_2)$ of 3.9×10^{-11} $\text{cm}^3 \text{s}^{-1}$, $k_3(\text{SCI} + \text{H}_2\text{O})$ of 2.1×10^{-15} $\text{cm}^3 \text{s}^{-1}$ with $[\text{H}_2\text{O}]$ of 2.8×10^{17} cm^{-3} (RH \sim 65% at 288 K). A typical diurnal loss rate of SO_2 to OH ($k_{\text{OH}}[\text{OH}]$) is 9×10^{-7} s^{-1} (Welz et al., 2012), while the SO_2 loss rate arising from reaction with ISOP-SCI, using the values above, would be 9.2×10^{-9} s^{-1} . This suggests, for the conditions given above, the diurnally averaged loss of SO_2 to SCI to be a small fraction of that due to OH. This analysis neglects additional chemical sinks for SCI, which would reduce SCI abundance, and the possibility of other alkene ozonolysis products leading to SO_2 oxidation which may increase the impact of alkene ozonolysis upon gas-phase SO_2 processing (Mauldin et al., 2012; Curci et al., 1995; Prousek, 2009). However, the analysis also neglects additional sources of SCI, e.g. photolysis of alkyl iodides (Gravestock et al., 2010; Stone et al., 2013), dissociation of the dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) peroxy radical (Asatryan and Bozzelli, 2008; Taatjes et al., 2008), and reactions of peroxy radicals with OH (Fittschen et al., 2014), which are currently poorly constrained and may even dominate SCI production over an ozonolysis source in some environments.

SCI concentrations are expected to vary greatly depending on the local environment, e.g. alkene abundance may be considerably higher (and with a different reactive mix of alkenes giving a range of structurally diverse SCI) in a forested environment, compared to a rural background. Furthermore, isoprene emissions exhibit a diurnal cycle in forested environments owing to a strong temperature dependence, hence are predicted to change significantly in the future as a response to a changing climate and other environmental conditions (Peñuelas and Staudt, 2010).

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4 Isoprene + ozone as a function of DMS

4.1 Results

A series of experiments analogous to those reported in Sect. 3 were performed as a function of dimethyl sulfide concentration, [DMS], rather than $[\text{H}_2\text{O}]$. Figure 5 shows that SO_2 loss in the presence of isoprene and ozone is increasingly inhibited by the presence of greater amounts of DMS. Under the experimental conditions applied, it is assumed that the SCI produced in isoprene ozonolysis are reacting with DMS in competition with SO_2 (Reaction R9).

Using Eq. (4) a similar analysis to that performed for $\text{SCI} + \text{H}_2\text{O}$ can be applied. Figure 6 shows a fit of Eq. (4) to the experimental data. This yields a gradient of k_8/k_2 and an intercept of $(k_3[\text{H}_2\text{O}] + k_d + L)/k_2$. The derived relative rate constant of $k(\text{SCI} + \text{DMS})/k(\text{SCI} + \text{SO}_2)$, k_8/k_2 , using this method is 4.1 (± 2.2). Using the absolute value of k_2 (CH_2OO) derived by Welz et al. (2012) (as described previously) determines a value of $k_8 = 1.6 \times 10^{-10}$ $\text{cm}^3 \text{s}^{-1}$.

The intercept of the linear fit in Fig. 6 is $1.1 (\pm 1.2) \times 10^{12}$ cm^{-3} . This represents $(k_3[\text{H}_2\text{O}] + k_d + L)/k_2$ and hence can also be compared with the kinetic parameters derived in Sect. 3 (non-DMS experiments). From Fig. 3, $(k_d + L)/k_2 = 8.4 (\pm 5.0) \times 10^{10}$ cm^{-3} and $k_3[\text{H}_2\text{O}]/k_2 = 4.3 (\pm 0.6) \times 10^{11}$ cm^{-3} ($[\text{H}_2\text{O}] = 8 \times 10^{15}$ cm^{-3} , the mean of the values for the five DMS experiments, $6.7\text{--}8.8 \times 10^{15}$ cm^{-3}), giving a combined value of $5.2 (\pm 0.7) \times 10^{11}$ cm^{-3} . These two values agree within the precision of the data.

4.2 Discussion and atmospheric implications

To the authors' knowledge, this is the first work to show the relatively fast (in relation to other recently determined SCI bimolecular reactions, e.g. $\text{SCI} + \text{SO}_2$ and NO_2 , and the well established $\text{OH} + \text{DMS}$ reaction) rate of reaction of SCI with DMS, although the products have yet to be identified. While this work presents only SCI derived from iso-

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prene ozonolysis, it seems likely that the fast reaction rate will apply to all SCI (though the precise rate will be structure dependent).

DMS is mainly produced as a by-product of phytoplankton respiration and so the highest concentrations are found in marine coastal environments or above active phytoplankton blooms. Furthermore, Jardine et al. (2015) have recently shown that DMS mixing ratios within and above a primary Amazonian rainforest ecosystem can reach levels of up to 160 pptv, in canopy and above the surface, for periods of up to 8 h during the evening and into the night, with levels peaking at 80 pptv above canopy.

SCI can also be expected to be present in the marine environment. As already discussed, mixing ratios of isoprene (Sinha et al., 2007; Yassaa et al., 2008) and monoterpenes (Yassaa et al., 2008) have been reported to reach in the region of hundreds of pptv over active phytoplankton blooms in the marine boundary layer. Additionally, the emission of small alkenes from coastal waters has been observed (Lewis et al., 1999). Furthermore, the photolysis of alkyl iodides (prevalent in the coastal environment, Jones et al., 2010) may be a significant source of SCI (Stone et al., 2013). Berresheim et al. (2014) have suggested that small SCI derived from alkyl iodide photolysis may be responsible for observed H_2SO_4 production, in excess of that expected from measured SO_2 and OH concentrations, at the coastal atmospheric observatory Mace Head, Ireland. Jones et al. (2014) proposed SCI produced from alkyl iodide photolysis as a possible source of surprisingly high formic acid concentrations observed in the marine environment in the European Arctic. Other non-ozonolysis sources of SCI include dissociation of the dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) peroxy radical (Asatryan and Bozzelli, 2008; Taatjes et al., 2008) (which could be an important source in the marine environment, where DMSO is an oxidation product of OH + DMS), and potentially from reactions of peroxy radicals with OH in remote atmospheres (Fittschen et al., 2014).

From the analysis in Sect. 3.4 a concentration of ISOP-SCI of $2.4 \times 10^2 \text{ molecules cm}^{-3}$ was calculated, assuming an isoprene concentration of 1 ppbv. In a remote marine environment isoprene concentrations are probably an order of magnitude lower than this and consequently [ISOP-SCI] would be calculated to be on

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the order of $2 \times 10^1 \text{ molecules cm}^{-3}$. However, some regions will be impacted by both high isoprene and DMS concentrations, for example tropical islands, such as Borneo, which can have high isoprene concentrations and are strongly influenced by marine air masses (MacKenzie et al., 2011), as well as significant terrestrial sources from vegetation and soils in the Amazon, especially into the evening and at night (Jardine et al., 2015), when ozonolysis chemistry is at its most effective relative to photochemical OH chemistry. High sulfate composition of organic aerosols collected from the Borneo rain forests likely arises from the chemical processing of oceanic emissions of DMS and SO_2 (Hamilton et al., 2013). The sulphate content of aerosols was observed to increase further over oil palm plantations in Borneo, where isoprene concentrations may reach levels on the order of tens of ppbv (MacKenzie et al., 2011), indicating scope for alkene ozonolysis–DMS chemical interactions to become significant. If a diurnally averaged [OH] is taken as $5 \times 10^5 \text{ molecules cm}^{-3}$ then the loss rate of DMS to OH is $\sim 3.5 \times 10^{-6} \text{ s}^{-1}$ while the loss to ISOP-SCI, at a concentration of $1 \times 10^2 \text{ cm}^{-3}$, is $\sim 2 \times 10^{-8} \text{ s}^{-1}$, i.e. about 0.6% of the loss to OH. However in an environment with particularly high isoprene mixing ratios, such as over the oil palm plantations in Borneo this could rise to a few percent.

SCI derived from isoprene ozonolysis are unlikely to compete with OH during the day-time or NO_3 during the night, as an oxidant of DMS. However, alternative SCI sources have been suggested which may lead to significantly higher SCI concentrations in marine environments those predicted from ozonolysis alone. Further investigation is required to clarify the reasons for the observed discrepancies in SO_2 and DMS oxidation and the possibility that these may be, at least in part, explained by the presence of SCI, dependent on the products of SCI-DMS interactions. SCI are most likely of a similar importance to other minor reaction channels for DMS processing such as reaction with atomic chlorine or BrO, reported to have a reaction rate constant of $\sim 3.4 \times 10^{-10} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecule}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ at 298 K (Atkinson et al., 2004) and marine boundary layer concentrations on the order of 10^3 – $10^4 \text{ molecules cm}^{-3}$ (von Glasow and Crutzen,

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Table 1. Total isoprene SCI yields derived in this work and reported in the literature.

$\varphi_{\text{ISOP-SCI}}$	Reference	Methodology
0.56 (± 0.03)	This work	SO ₂ loss
0.58 (± 0.26)	Sipilä et al. (2014)	Formation of H ₂ SO ₄
0.30 ($\varphi_{\text{CH}_2\text{OO}}$) ^a	Neeb et al. (1997)	HMHP ^b yield
0.27	Hasson et al. (2001)	HMHP yield + difference between MVK and MACR production at high/low [H ₂ O]
0.28	Rickard et al. (1999)	Assumes stabilisation of 40 % of CH ₂ OO produced + difference between MVK and MACR production at high/low [SO ₂]
0.53	Rickard et al. (1999)	Assuming 95 % of CH ₂ OO is stabilised (after Zhang et al., 2002) + difference between MVK and MACR production at high/low [SO ₂]
0.57	Zhang et al. (2002)	Theoretical
0.22	MCMv3.2 ^c	Based on a weighted average of the yields for propene, 1-octene and 2-methyl propene.

Uncertainty ranges ($\pm 2\sigma$, parentheses) indicate combined precision and systematic measurement error components for this work, and are given as stated for literature studies. All referenced experimental studies produced SCI from C₅H₈ + O₃ and were conducted between 700 and 760 Torr. ^a Yield of stabilised CH₂OO only, ^b Hydroxymethyl hydroperoxide (a first order product of CH₂OO + H₂O). ^c <http://mcm.leeds.ac.uk/MCM/> (Jenkin et al., 1997).

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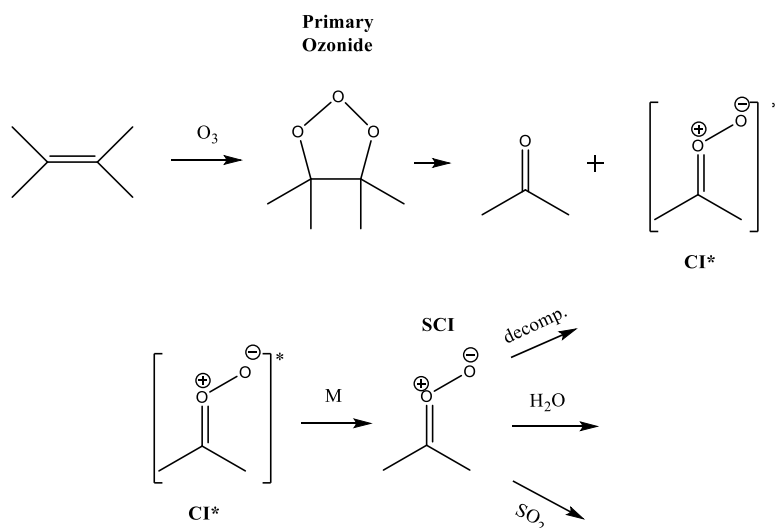
Table 2. Isoprene derived SCI relative and absolute rate constants derived in this work^a.

SCI	$10^5 k_3/k_2$	$10^{15} k_3$ ($\text{cm}^3 \text{s}^{-1}$)	$10^{-11} k_d/k_2$ (cm^{-3})	k_d (s^{-1})	k_8/k_2
CH_2OO^b	3.3 (± 1.1)	1.3 (± 0.4)	-2.3^c (± 3.5)	-8.8^c (± 13)	
ISOP-SCI	5.4 (± 0.8)	2.1 (± 0.3)	0.8 (± 5)	3.3 (± 20)	4.1 (± 2.2)
CRB-SCI	7.8 (± 1.1)	3.0 (± 0.4)	1.8 (± 11)	7.0 (± 43)	

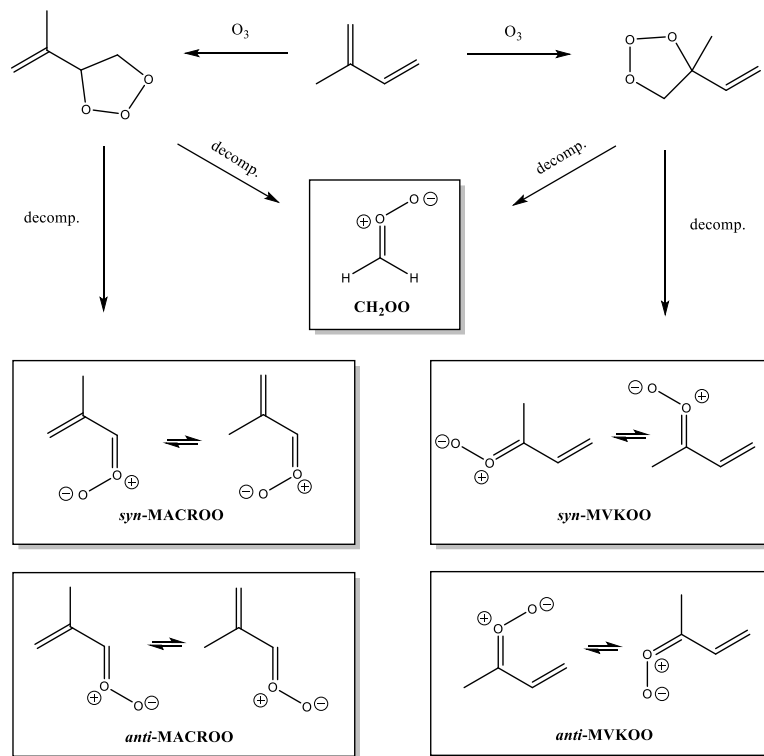
Uncertainty ranges ($\pm 2\sigma$, parentheses) indicate combined precision and systematic measurement error components.

^a Scaled to an absolute value using $k_2(\text{CH}_2\text{OO}) = 3.9 \times 10^{-11} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$ (Welz et al., 2012). ^b From Newland et al. (2015). ^c Values are indistinguishable from zero within the measurement uncertainties.

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**Scheme 1.** Simplified generic mechanism for the reaction of Criegee Intermediates (CIs) formed from alkene ozonolysis.

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Scheme 2. Mechanism of formation of the nine possible Criegee Intermediates (CIs) from isoprene ozonolysis.

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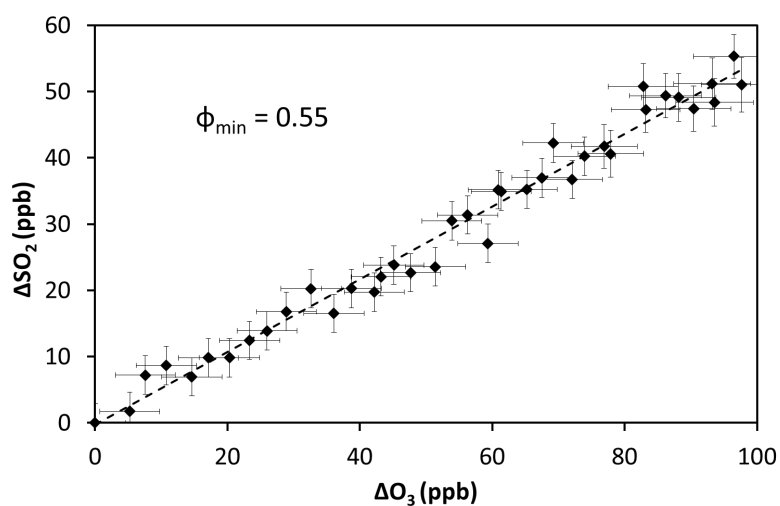


Figure 1. ΔSO_2 vs. ΔO_3 during the excess SO_2 experiments ($[H_2O] < 5 \times 10^{15} \text{ cm}^{-3}$). The gradient determines the minimum SCl yield (ϕ_{\min}) from isoprene ozonolysis.

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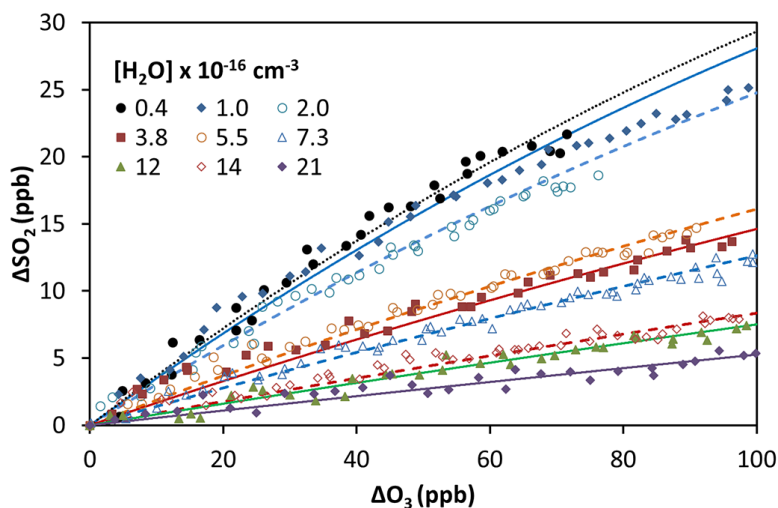


Figure 2. Cumulative consumption of SO_2 and O_3 , ΔSO_2 vs. ΔO_3 , for the ozonolysis of isoprene in the presence of SO_2 at a range of water vapour concentrations, from $4 \times 10^{15} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ to $2.1 \times 10^{17} \text{ cm}^{-3}$. Symbols are experimental data corrected for chamber dilution. Lines are smoothed fits to the experimental data.

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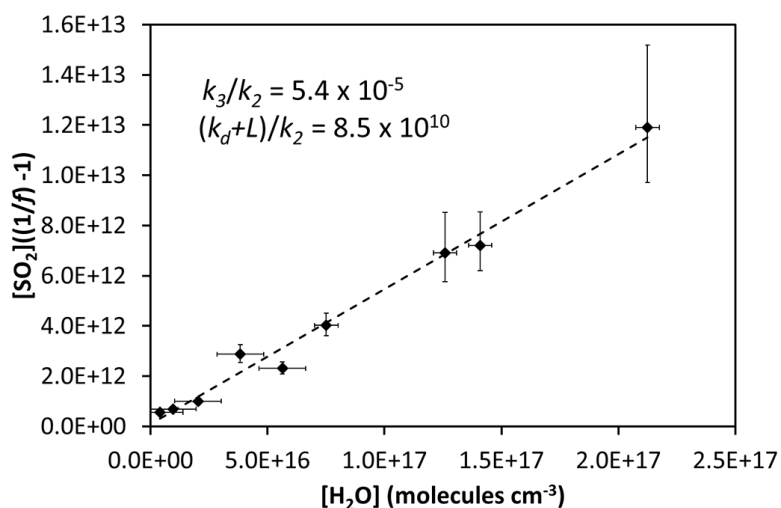


Figure 3. Application of Eq. (3) to derive relative rate constants for reaction of the isoprene derived SCl with H_2O (k_3/k_2) and decomposition ($(k_d + L)/k_2$).

8878

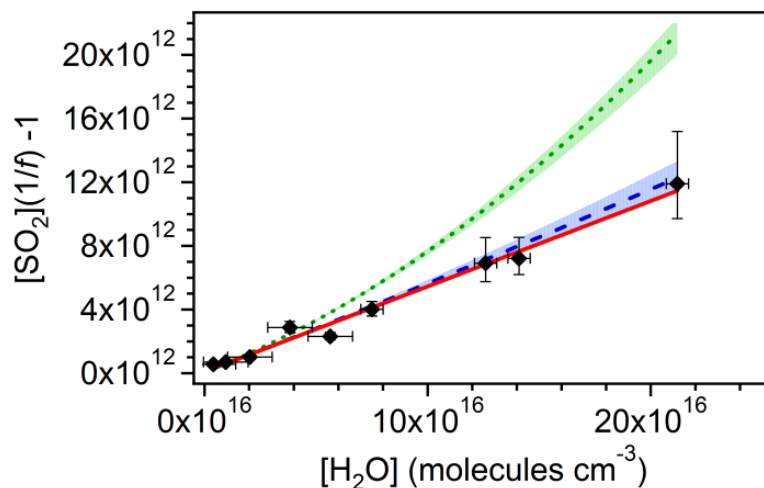


Figure 4. Application of Eq. (5) to derive relative rate constants for reaction of the sum of the MVKOO and MACROO SCI (CRB-SCI) with the water monomer, and the decomposition rate. Red line: water monomer only reactions; blue dashed line: water monomer reaction and CH₂OO water dimer reaction rate from Newland et al. (2015); green dotted line: CH₂OO water dimer reaction rate from Chao et al. (2015). Shaded areas indicate reported uncertainties on dimer reaction rates.

8879

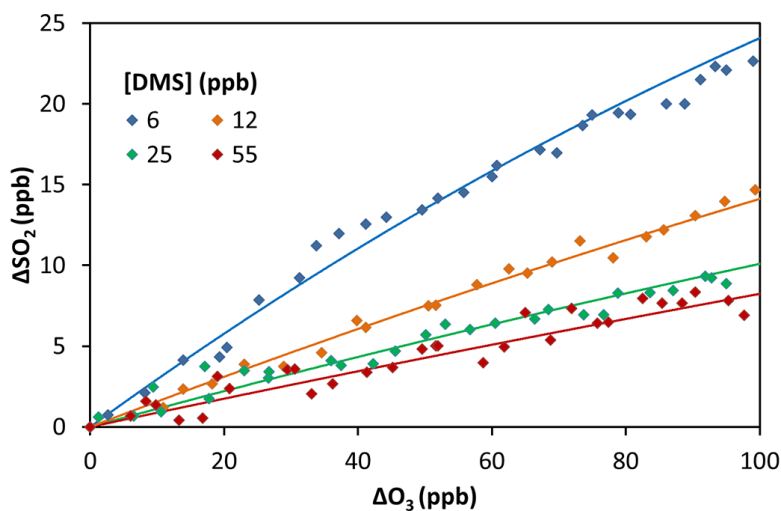


Figure 5. Cumulative consumption of SO₂ and O₃, ΔSO₂ vs. ΔO₃, for the ozonolysis of isoprene in the presence of SO₂ at a range of DMS concentrations, from 6 to 55 ppbv. [H₂O] in all experiments was < 9 × 10¹⁵ cm⁻³. Markers are experimental data, corrected for chamber dilution. Solid lines are smoothed fits to the experimental data.

8880

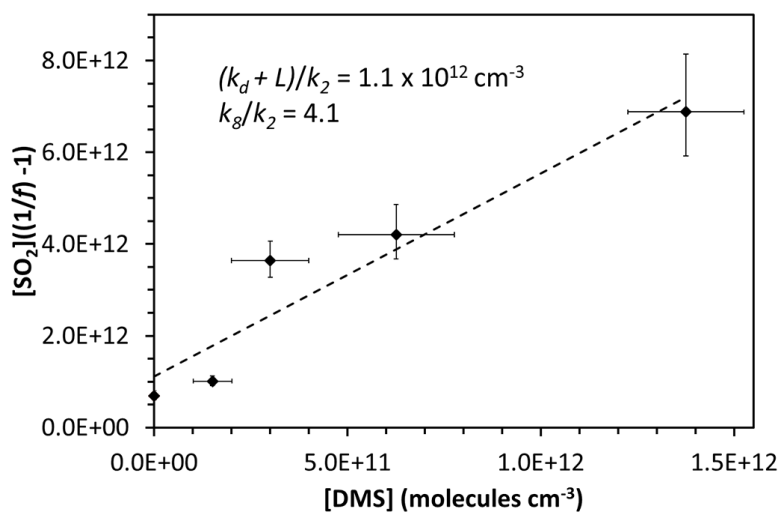


Figure 6. Application of Eq. (4) to derive rate constants for reaction of ISOP-SCI with DMS (k_g) relative to that for reaction with SO_2 .