

1 **Aerosol size distribution and new particle formation in western**
2 **Yangtze River Delta of China: two-year measurement at the SORPES**
3 **station**

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17 **Abstract:**

18 Aerosol particles play important roles in regional air quality and global climate change. In
19 this study, we analyzed two-year (2011-2013) measurement of submicron particles (6-800 nm) at a
20 suburban site in western Yangtze River delta (YRD) of East China. The number concentrations
21 (NCs) of particles in the nucleation, Aitken and accumulation modes were $5300 \pm 5500 \text{ cm}^{-3}$, 8000
22 $\pm 4400 \text{ cm}^{-3}$, $5800 \pm 3200 \text{ cm}^{-3}$, respectively. The NCs of total particles are comparable to that at
23 urban/suburban sites in other Chinese megacities, such as Beijing, but about 10 times higher than
24 the remote western China. Long-range and regional transports influenced largely on number
25 concentrations and size distributions of submicron particles. The highest and lowest accumulation
26 mode particle number concentrations were observed in air masses from YRD and coastal region,
27 respectively. Continental air masses from inland brought the highest concentrations of nucleation
28 mode particles. New particle formation (NPF) events, apparent in 44% of the effective
29 measurement days, occurred frequently in all the seasons except winter. The frequency of NPF in
30 spring, summer and autumn is much higher than other measurement sites in China. Sulfuric acid

31 was found to be the main driver of NPF events. The particle formation rate was the highest in
32 spring ($3.6 \pm 2.4 \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$), whereas the particle growth rate had the highest values in summer (12.8
33 $\pm 4.4 \text{ nm h}^{-1}$). The formation rate was typically high in relatively clean air masses, whereas the
34 growth rate tended to be high in the polluted YRD air masses. The frequency of NPF events and
35 the particle growth rates showed a strong year-to-year difference. In the summer of 2013,
36 associated with a multi-week heat wave and strong photochemical processes, NPF events occurred
37 with larger frequency and higher growth rates comparing with the same period in 2012. The
38 difference in the location and strength of sub-tropical high pressure system, which influences the
39 air mass transport pathways and solar radiation, seems to be the cause for year-to-year differences.
40 This study reported, up to now, the longest continuous measurement records of submicron
41 particles in East China and gained a comprehensive understanding of the main factors controlling
42 the seasonal and year-to-year variation of the aerosol size distribution and NPF in East China.

43

44 **1. Introduction**

45 Atmospheric aerosols affect human life by influencing both air quality and climate (e.g.
46 Charlson et al., 1992; Menon et al., 2002; Akimoto, 2003; Heal et al., 2012; IPCC, 2013). Fine
47 particles, especially the submicron ones, have received lots of attention due to their close
48 connection to climate via light extinction (Malm et al., 1994), cloud droplet activation (Kerminen
49 et al., 2005; Wiedensohler et al., 2009; Sihto et al., 2011) and precipitation formation (Gettelman
50 et al., 2013; Lebo and Feingold, 2014), as well as due to their adverse effects on human health
51 (Pope et al., 2002; Rao et al., 2012).

52 Numerous studies have been conducted all over the world focusing on the characters of
53 submicron particles, including their chemical composition and size distribution as well as their
54 formation and growth in the atmosphere (e.g. Woo et al., 2001; Birmili et al., 2003; Engler et al.,
55 2007; Zhang et al., 2007; Dal Maso et al., 2008; Laakso et al., 2008; Jimenez et al., 2009;
56 Komppula et al., 2009; Asmi et al., 2011; Kerminen et al., 2012; Vakkari et al., 2013; Kulmala et al.,
57 2014; Nie et al., 2014; Nieminen et al., 2014). In China, studies on submicron particles started
58 about a decade ago. However, to the best of our knowledge, there are only three studies in China
59 providing more than 1-year measurement of aerosol size distributions, with two of them conducted
60 in North China Plain (Wu et al., 2007; Shen et al., 2011) and one at Mount Waliguan in remote
61 western China (Kivekäs et al., 2009). Therefore, knowledge about the temporal variation of
62 submicron particles and their relationship to meteorology and human activities in China is rather
63 poor, even in some well-developed regions such as Yangtze River Delta (YRD) in East China.

64 The YRD has experienced rapid urbanization and industrialization in the last two decades,
65 which have induced large amounts of fossil fuel consumption in the region and resulted in serious
66 air pollution (Chameides et al., 2002; Ding et al., 2013ab; Tie and Cao, 2009; Li et al., 2011). In
67 addition, YRD is a region influenced by typical Asian monsoon, which dominates the temporal
68 and spatial variations of particles (Qian et al., 2003; Ding et al., 2013a). However, previous studies
69 on aerosols in this region were mainly on mass concentrations and chemical compositions (e.g.
70 Huang et al., 2012; Cheng et al., 2013; Ding et al., 2013a); studies on the number concentrations
71 and size distributions were rather limited. In Nanjing, Herrmann et al. (2014) reported the first

72 result of about 4-month data of aerosol size distribution at the SORPES station, a suburban site in
73 Nanjing, and Wang et al. (2014) reported about one month data at another suburban site. Both
74 studies were conducted during the cold season. In other regions of the YRD, Gao et al. (2009)
75 reported an intensive campaign in the early summer of 2005 in Taicang, a small town nearby
76 Shanghai, and Du et al. (2011) reported winter time measurements from October 2008 to February
77 2009 in Shanghai. These results showed significant differences in both the diurnal patterns and
78 NPF characteristics between the two seasons, and emphasize the need of continuous long-term
79 measurements on the number size distributions of submicron particles in this region.

80 In the present study, we report two-year continuous observation of submicron particles
81 (6-800 nm) and related quantities (including trace gases, $PM_{2.5}$ mass concentration and
82 meteorological data) recorded at the SORPES (Station for Observing Regional Processes of the
83 Earth System) site in suburban Nanjing of western YRD from December 2011 to November 2013.
84 The aim of this work is to characterize the temporal variations of particle number size
85 distributions and occurrence of new particle formation (NPF) in the western part of YRD, and to
86 improve our understanding on the sources and processes influencing the atmospheric aerosol
87 population in the developed region in China.

88

89 **2. Experiment and Methodology**

90 **2.1 Site information and measurements**

91 This study was conducted at the SORPES station (Station for Observation Regional Process
92 of the Earth System) developed in 2011 (Ding et al., 2013a). The site is located about 20 km
93 northeast of downtown Nanjing (118°57'10"E, 32°07'14"N, 40 m above ground level). With few
94 local sources within 2-3 km surround, it can be considered as a regional background site in the
95 well-developed YRD of East China. More details of the site, including trace gas, $PM_{2.5}$ and
96 meteorological measurements, can be found in Ding et al. (2013a).

97 Size distribution of submicron particles is measured with a DMPS (Differential Mobility
98 Particle Sizer) constructed at the University of Helsinki in Finland. This instrument was also
99 involved in the instrument inter-comparison workshops conducted within the European

100 infrastructure project EUSAAR (European Supersites for Atmospheric Aerosol Research) and
 101 ACTRIS (Aerosols, Clouds, and Trace gases Research Infrastructure Network) (Wiedensohler et
 102 al., 2012). Before entering the inlet of the instrument, the particles are cut off at 2.5 μm and then
 103 dried (using Nafion tube from December 2011 to June 2012 and silica gel dryer after June 2012).
 104 The instrument consists of one DMA (Differential Mobility Analyzer) in different flow rates and
 105 one CPC (Condensation Particle Counter, TSI Model 3772). The DMA segregates the particles
 106 into exact narrow size ranges based on different narrow ranges of electrical mobility of charged
 107 particles in the electrical field. Equilibrium charge is ensured by two Americium 241 sources (each
 108 about 37 kBq) before particles enter the DMA. The DMPS is a flow-switching type differential
 109 mobility particle sizer in which two different sample and sheath air flow rates for the DMA are
 110 used to cover a wide size range. In the high flow mode, the sample air and sheath air flows are 3
 111 and 20 L min^{-1} , respectively, and in the low flow mode they are 1 and 5 L min^{-1} , respectively. The
 112 high flow mode measures the size from 6 to 100 nm and the low flow mode measures from 100 to
 113 800 nm. The measurement time interval of the instrument is 10 minutes during which the total
 114 particle number concentration is measured by CPC directly and 29 channels (16 for low flow rate
 115 and 13 for high flow rate) are scanned. Weekly maintenance, including flow rate adjusting and
 116 impactor cleaning, is routinely performed. The data assimilation in two flow modes and the test of
 117 data quality are described in the Appendix.

118 **2.2 Calculation of variables characterizing new particle formation**

119 The calculation of particle growth and formation rates along with the condensation sink were
 120 made following the procedure described by Kulmala et al. (2012). The growth rate (GR) of
 121 particles during the NPF events can be expressed as:

$$122 \quad \text{GR} = \frac{dd_p}{dt} = \frac{\Delta d_p}{\Delta t} = \frac{d_{p2} - d_{p1}}{t_2 - t_1} \quad (1)$$

123 where d_{p1} and d_{p2} are the representative of the diameter of nucleated particles at the times t_1
 124 and t_2 , respectively. For calculation, d_{p1} and d_{p2} are defined as the centre of size bin and t_1
 125 and t_2 are the times when the concentration of this size bin reaches the maximum.

126 The formation rate of particles of diameter d_p is obtained from:

$$127 \quad J_{d_p} = \frac{dN_{d_p}}{dt} + \text{Coag}S_{d_p} \times N_{d_p} + \frac{\text{GR}}{\Delta d_p} \times N_{d_p} + S_{\text{losses}} \quad (2)$$

128 where the first term on the right side is the time evolution of the particle number concentration in
 129 the size range $[d_p, d_p + \Delta d_p]$. The second term is the coagulation loss approximated by the
 130 product of coagulation sink (CoagS_{d_p}) and the number concentration in the size range $[d_p, d_p +$
 131 $\Delta d_p]$. The third term is the growth out of the considered size range where GR is the observed
 132 growth rate. The fourth term represents additional losses which were not considered in this study.

133 Having positive correlation with the coagulation sink (CoagS), the condensation sink (CS)
 134 describes the speed at which condensable vapour molecules condense onto the existing aerosol. It
 135 is expressed as:

$$136 \quad \text{CS} = 4\pi \int_0^{d_p^{\max}} \beta_m(d'_p) d'_p N_{d'_p} dd'_p = 4\pi D \sum_{d'_p} \beta_{m,d'_p} d'_p N_{d'_p}, \quad (3)$$

137 where D is the diffusion coefficient of the condensing vapour, β_m is a transition-regime
 138 correction, d'_p is the discrete diameter and $N_{d'_p}$ is the particle number concentration in
 139 respective size bin. The increase of CS due to the particle hygroscopic growth was also estimated.
 140 The hygroscopic growth factor (GF), i.e. the ratio of the particle diameter at an ambient relative
 141 humidity (RH) to the corresponding “dry” particle diameter, was determined using the method
 142 described by Laakso et al. (2004),

$$143 \quad \text{GF} = \left(1 - \frac{\text{RH}}{100}\right)^{\gamma(d_p)} \quad (4)$$

144 Here $\gamma(d_p)$ depends on the particle diameter (d_p) and was obtained by a least square fit to
 145 hygroscopicity data. As there were no measured hygroscopic growth data at the SORPES station,
 146 the hygroscopicity data from another site in north of downtown Nanjing (Wu et al., 2014) was
 147 used.

148 Sulfuric acid has been identified as the main factor of new particle formation (Kulmala et al.,
 149 2013). Therefore, in this study we used the semi-empirical equation constructed by Mikkonen et al.
 150 (2011) to calculate the sulfuric acid proxy,

$$151 \quad [\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4] = 1.30 \times 10^{-1} \cdot k \cdot \text{Radiation}^{1.10} \cdot [\text{SO}_2]^{0.69} \cdot \text{CS}^{-0.53} \cdot \text{RH}^{-1.92} \quad (5)$$

152 where k is the reaction rate constant.

153

154 **3. Results and discussions**

155 **3.1 Particle number concentrations and size distributions**

156 3.1.1 Overall results

157 Figure 1a shows the averaged particle number size distribution during the studied period. It
158 shows a typical multimodal distribution as a result of combination of three lognormal distributions
159 in the nucleation (6-30 nm), Aitken (30-100 nm) and accumulation modes (100-800 nm). Figure
160 1b illustrates the average fraction of the particle number, surface and volume concentration in
161 these three modes. It shows features similar to most other continental regions in the lower
162 troposphere, i.e. the nucleation and Aitken mode particles (<100 nm) dominate the number
163 concentration, and accumulation mode particles control the surface and volume concentration
164 (Raes et al., 2000; Asmi et al., 2011).

165 As shown in Table 1, the average total particle number concentration (NC) over the diameter
166 range 6-800 nm during the two-year period was $19200 \pm 9200 \text{ cm}^{-3}$, with the values of $5300 \pm$
167 5500 cm^{-3} in the nucleation mode (6-30 nm), $8000 \pm 4400 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ in the Aitken mode (30-100 nm)
168 and $5800 \pm 3200 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ in the accumulation mode (100-800 nm), respectively. The NC of total
169 particle at SORPES in Nanjing are comparable to those measured at the urban site (about 32700
170 cm^{-3} in the size range of 3-1000 nm) (Wu et al., 2008) and at a rural site in Beijing (about 11500
171 cm^{-3} in the size range of 3-1000 nm) (Shen et al., 2011), while about 10 times higher than those
172 measured at Mount Waliguan, a remote background site in western China (about 2100 cm^{-3} in the
173 size range of 12-570 nm) (Kivekäs et al., 2009). One typical feature at SORPES is the high
174 concentration of accumulation mode particles, which can be up to several times the typical
175 concentrations measured in Europe or North America (200 to 2900 cm^{-3} compared to 5700 cm^{-3} at
176 SORPES in the size range of 100-500 nm) (Stanier et al., 2004; Asmi et al., 2011; Wang et al.,
177 2011).

178 3.1.2 Seasonal variations

179 The average seasonal variations of particle number concentrations during the two-year
180 measurements are presented in Fig. 2. Nucleation mode particles had highest concentrations in
181 winter (December to January) and spring (April). Aitken mode particles showed similar patterns
182 with an additional peak in July. Accumulation mode particles showed high concentrations in
183 January and June and low concentrations in July, which is similar to the seasonal variation of

184 PM_{2.5} concentration reported by Ding et al. (2013a). As accounting for almost 70% of the total
185 particles, the nucleation and Aitken mode particles dominated the seasonal cycle of the total
186 particle number concentration. The exact values and standard deviations of the particle number
187 concentrations in spring (March - May), summer (June - August), autumn (September - November)
188 and winter (December - February) are given in Table 1. Seasonally, the nucleation and Aitken
189 mode particles showed the highest concentrations in spring ($6200 \text{ cm}^{-3} \pm 5900 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ and 8500
190 $\text{cm}^{-3} \pm 4000 \text{ cm}^{-3}$, respectively), whereas highest concentrations of accumulation mode particles
191 were observed in winter ($6500 \text{ cm}^{-3} \pm 3000 \text{ cm}^{-3}$). The arithmetic mean diameter (AMD) of the
192 particles and condensation sink (CS) revealed also seasonal cycles (Table 1), with the highest
193 values observed in winter (AMD_{6-800 nm}: $97 \text{ nm} \pm 26 \text{ nm}$, CS_{dry}: $4.2 \times 10^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1} \pm 1.9 \times 10^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$, CS:
194 $5.8 \times 10^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1} \pm 2.7 \times 10^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$). Given that the hygroscopicity measurements was conducted at another
195 site in Nanjing (Wu et al., 2014), the hygroscopic growth associated with the calculation of CS at
196 SORPES station might have large uncertainties. We therefore deployed the CS without
197 considering the hygroscopic growth in the following discussion.

198 Generally, the seasonal patterns of NC of submicron particles at SORPES were related to the
199 long-range transport associated with the Asian monsoon climate and also anthropogenic emissions.
200 Figure 3 presents the seasonal variations of four meteorological variables (temperature, pressure,
201 radiation and rainfall) during the two-year measurement period. In winter, few rains and low
202 boundary layer favor the accumulation of pollutants and result in high particle loadings. Besides,
203 the winter heating in northern China would bring aged accumulation mode particles to Nanjing via
204 the regional transports (Zhang et al., 2009; Li et al., 2011). In summer, the dominantly rainy and
205 unstable weather (e.g. convection and monsoon precipitation) leads to low particle number
206 concentrations, especially for accumulation mode particles. Radiation, which drives NPF events,
207 influences the NCs of nucleation and Aitken mode particles. Moreover, an evident holiday effect
208 can also influence the observed temporal variation. For example, the low particle loadings in all
209 the modes can be identified in February (see Fig. 2) when Chinese have the winter break to
210 celebrate the Spring Festival (Ding et al., 2013a).

211 Biomass burning (BB) is an important source of accumulation mode particles in early
212 summer (Ding et al., 2013a and 2013b), so the burning of wheat straw in northern and middle part

213 of East China (Wu et al., 2008; Shen et al., 2010) is the plausible cause for the observed particle
214 NCs peak in June (Fig. 2d). Here, we defined BB events as potassium concentration $K^+ > 2 \mu\text{g cm}^{-3}$
215 and $K^+/PM_{2.5}$ ratio > 0.02 (K^+ was measured using MARGA, Nie et al., 2015). The average NC of
216 accumulation mode particles during BB events in June was 31700 cm^{-3} , which is almost 6 times
217 higher than the corresponding NC in non-BB event days (5300 cm^{-3}). Relatively large ($>100 \text{ nm}$)
218 particles are emitted directly from BB (Reid et al., 2005; Li et al., 2007), or formed rapidly after
219 emissions by the combination of NPF and various particle growth processes (Hennigan et al., 2012;
220 Vakkari et al., 2014). Such particles are able to promote atmospheric heterogeneous chemistry by
221 providing a large surface area (Nie et al., 2015), influence the global climate by enhancing the
222 CCN capacity (Hennigan et al., 2012), and even change the everyday weather (Ding et al., 2013b).

223 **3.1.3 Diurnal pattern in different seasons**

224 The diurnal cycles of particle number size distributions had similar patterns in spring,
225 summer and autumn, which were connected to the events of new particle formation and growth,
226 showing the typical ‘banana’ shape during daytime (Fig. 4a-4c). However, obvious differences
227 could be observed for the starting time and strength of NPF in different seasons. It needs to be
228 pointed out that in the averaged diurnal pattern in spring, summer and autumn (Fig. 4a-4c) the
229 NPF had a relatively low number concentration of 6-15 nm particles, which is different from a
230 typical NPF event. The main reason for this feature is that the averaged patterns include both event
231 and non-event days and that sub-100 nm particle tend to grow also during non-event days without
232 a clear formation of new sub-15 nm particles. A detailed discussion on NPF events will be given
233 in section 3.2. Compared with other seasons, the high peaks of NC around 20-30nm and 100 nm
234 during the wintertime rush hours in the morning and late afternoon (Fig.4d) suggest that local
235 combustion sources, such as vehicle emission, played a more important role in the diurnal cycle of
236 the total particle concentration than sources like regional NPF and growth.

237 In order to investigate the detailed diurnal variations of the particle NCs in different modes,
238 we compared the diurnal patterns of the three modes in seasons: spring and winter (Fig. 5a-5c).
239 For nucleation mode particles, peak concentrations appeared at noontime in spring but at the early
240 morning or later afternoon in winter. The later suggests a possible influence from human activities,
241 such as vehicle emissions under conditions of a low mixing layer. For the Aitken mode particles,

242 in spring the highest concentrations were seen about two hours after the appearance of the peak in
243 the nucleation mode, which was due to the growth of nucleated particles to larger sizes (Fig.5b).
244 In winter, Aitken mode particles had peaks at the same time or a bit later than what the nucleation
245 mode particle did. The diurnal variation of the accumulation mode particle number concentration
246 (Fig. 5c) was controlled by the development of the boundary layer in both seasons, having a
247 pattern similar to that of the $PM_{2.5}$ concentration (Ding et al., 2013a).

248 **3.1.4 The influences of air masses**

249 Figure 6 shows backward trajectory cluster analysis for the SORPES site. Using the Hybrid
250 Single-Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory (HYSPLIT) model Version 4.9 (Draxler and Hess,
251 1998) driven with Global Data Assimilation System (GDAS) output, 5 clusters of trajectories were
252 identified based on hourly 3-day backward trajectories for the period of December 2011-
253 November 2013. Here we calculated the trajectories for 3 days by considering a rough turnover
254 time of about 2.4 days for 200 nm particles (Tunved et al., 2005). The results showed that air
255 masses arriving at the SORPES site generally came from the inland continent (14.8% of the air
256 masses belonging to the cluster C2 and 13.0% to the cluster C3), coastal North China (C1: 30.6%,
257 C4 and C5 together: 41.6% in total). The two continental air masses had distinguished source
258 regions, with C2 passed over the North China Plain and C3 traveled over a large are of BVOCs.
259 For the coastal air messes, C5 was much local compared to C4, but the latter just crossed the
260 city-cluster along Nanjing-Shanghai axis and might have an additional marine signature. The air
261 mass transport pattern was controlled by Asian monsoon (Ding et al., 2013a), with winter
262 monsoon bringing regional pollution from the North China Plain (C2, C1 and C5) and summer
263 monsoon bringing the YRD regional pollution (C4) or biogenic emissions from the South China to
264 the site (C3). Being located in the most western part of the YRD, SORPES is a unique site to
265 investigate the impact of different regional air masses.

266 The average behavior of the particles number size distributions and diurnal variations of NCs
267 in the three modes in the five air mass clusters are shown in Fig. 7. The coastal air masses (C1)
268 had the lowest accumulation mode particle loading during the whole day (Fig. 7d). The
269 continental air masses (C2 and C3) had highest levels of nucleation mode particles (Fig. 7b),
270 probably associated with the dry and sunny weather. Since C3 air masses occurred mostly in

271 summer and travelled over regions abundant in BVOCs emissions, these air masses preferred NPF
272 and resulted in the highest concentrations of nucleation mode Aitken mode particles (Fig. 7b, c).
273 The YRD air masses (C4 and C5), passing through the YRD city clusters, brought the highest
274 accumulation mode particle loadings (Fig.7d) and lowered concentrations of nucleation mode
275 particles (Fig. 7b) due to the high coagulation/condensation sinks. C5 air masses, with more
276 locally air and less influences of marine air, displayed larger concentrations of accumulation mode
277 particles and lower concentrations of Aitken mode particles (Fig 7c, d).

278 **3.2 New particle formation (NPF)**

279 **3.2.1 Population statistic about NPF**

280 The sampling days during the 2-year measurements were classified into NPF event days,
281 non-event days and undefined days with the criterion whether a nucleation burst occurred or not.
282 By following the method used by Dal Maso et. al. (2005) and Kulmala et al. (2012), the event
283 days were further classified into Class I when the formation and growth rate can be calculated
284 with confidence, and Class II when the formation and growth rate cannot be calculated or done in
285 accurate ways.

286 The numbers of the four types of sampling days are given in Table 2, and the percentages of
287 them in each month are shown in Fig. 8a. Due to instrument maintenance, data from 111 days of
288 the two-year period were unavailable for the event classification. Only few of the days at SORPES
289 were considered as undefined days (11 days), for which it was hard to determine whether a NPF
290 event occurred or not. Overall, NPF event days (including Class I and Class II days) accounted for
291 44% of the sampling days. This frequency is a bit higher than observed in the other two long-term
292 measurements in China (urban Beijing ~40%, SDZ ~37%). In spring, summer and autumn, NPF
293 events took place in about half of the sampling days (55%, 54% and 49%, respectively), which is
294 more frequent than at other measurement sites in China, including as Taicang (44%), Hong Kong
295 (34%) and Xinken (26%) (Gao et al., 2008; Guo et al., 2012; Liu et al., 2008). A higher frequency
296 of NPF events in the warm season is similar to what has been observed in most other sites all over
297 the world and is mainly because of higher radiation and stronger biogenic activity during that time
298 of the year (Manninen et al., 2010). In contrast, in winter only 15 NPF event days during two-year

299 measurement period were identified. This frequency is similar to another work in Shanghai (Du et.
300 al., 2012), but quite different from that in Beijing where winter is the second season favorable to
301 NPF (Wu et al., 2007; Shen et al., 2011). One explanation for this could be that there are more
302 ‘clean’ days in winter in Beijing because of frequent cold fronts (Wehner et al., 2008). In June,
303 continuous rainy days (‘plum rain’ in China) with low radiation also inhibit the NPF events. There
304 was a great difference in the frequency of NPF events in summer between the two years: 39% in
305 2012 and 66% in 2013 (Fig. 8a).

306 Figure 8b gives the variability of start and end times of the Class I event days. Since the
307 cut-off diameter of the DMPS was 6 nm, the start and end times were defined here as the times
308 when the 6-7 nm particles started to increase and decrease back to the background level (i.e. ~ 50
309 cm^{-3}). Generally, the start time was somewhere between the sunrise and midday, and no evident
310 nocturnal events were identified. The seasonal variation of the start time followed that of sunrise,
311 which is similar to reported elsewhere around the world (e.g. Woo et al., 2001; Boy and Kulmala
312 et al., 2002; Kulmala et al., 2004; Hamed et al., 2007; Wu et al., 2007). However, at some days the
313 start time was just one hour after the sunrise. Most of such events took place in summer and were
314 associated with marine air masses that had been transported over the polluted area in YRD. This
315 topic will be studied further in our future work.

316 The formation rate of 6-nm particles (J_6) and growth rate of 6 to 30 nm particles ($\text{GR}_{6-30 \text{ nm}}$)
317 during the Class I event days are illustrated in Fig. 8c and 8d. The statistical results are given in
318 Table 2. The formation rates were highest in spring with the value of $3.6 \pm 2.4 \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$, followed
319 by summer ($2.1 \pm 1.4 \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$) and autumn ($2.1 \pm 1.9 \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$), whereas the lowest formation rates
320 were observed in winter ($1.8 \pm 1.6 \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$). The maximum formation rate was $10.9 \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ on 3
321 April, 2013. The observed formation rates in Nanjing are comparable to other measurements in
322 China, e.g. $3.3\text{-}81.4 \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ in Beijing (for J_3), $0.7\text{-}72.7 \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ with mean value $8 \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ at SDZ
323 (for J_3), $3.4 \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (3 October - 5 November, 2004) in PRD (for J_3), $3.8 \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (25 October – 29
324 November, 2010) in Hong Kong (for $J_{5,5}$ on Class I days), and about $2.2 \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (5 May – 2 June,
325 2005) in Shanghai (for J_{10}) (Wu et al., 2007; Shen et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2008; Guo et al., 2012;
326 Gao et al., 2008). Concerning the nuclei growth rates, the highest values of $12.8 \pm 4.4 \text{ nm h}^{-1}$ were
327 observed in summer, followed by spring ($10.0 \pm 3.4 \text{ nm h}^{-1}$), winter ($9.5 \pm 3.3 \text{ nm h}^{-1}$) and autumn

328 (8.9 ± 2.9 nm h⁻¹). The maximum growth rate was 22.9 nm h⁻¹, observed on 29 August, 2013. The
329 values of growth rates presented in this study for Nanjing are slightly higher than reported for the
330 other two long-term measurements in China, i.e. 0.1-11.2 nm h⁻¹ in Beijing and 0.3-14.5 nm h⁻¹
331 with mean value of 4.3 nm h⁻¹ at SDZ (Wu et al., 2007; Shen et al., 2011).

332 **3.2.2 Conditions favoring NPF**

333 In Figure 9, we compare the NPF related parameters between the event (Class I and Class II)
334 and non-event days in different seasons. As shown in Fig. 9a and 9b, higher temperatures and
335 lower RH favored the NPF events. Having a higher temperature on event days is similar to
336 observations made in Germany and Italy (Birmili and Wiedensohler, 2000; Birmili et al., 2003;
337 Hamed et al., 2007), but different from observations made in Finland or in the tropopause region
338 (Boy and Kulmala, 2002; Hamed et al., 2007; Young et al., 2007). A lower RH on event days is
339 similar to what has been observed in most of boundary layer stations (Boy and Kulmala, 2002;
340 Birmili et al., 2003; Hamed et al., 2007; Guo et al., 2012). In general, a low RH is related to sunny
341 days with strong radiation, which favor the formation of OH (Hamed et al., 2007). In addition, a
342 low RH will decrease the condensation sink by slowing the hygroscopic growth (Hamed et al.,
343 2011).

344 Radiation and O₃ concentrations were higher on event days than those on non-event days (Fig.
345 9c, d), indicating that the observed NPF events in YRD were typically photochemically influenced.
346 In line with most boundary layer stations (Manninen et al., 2010), lower PM_{2.5} concentrations and
347 CS favored the occurrence of NPF events (Fig. 9e, g). On average, higher SO₂ concentrations
348 were observed on event days in spring and summer, while the events in autumn and winter favored
349 lower SO₂ concentrations (Fig. 9f). This result was in accordance with our previous study
350 conducted in winter time that suggested NPF to occur preferably under conditions of lower SO₂
351 concentrations (Herrmann et al., 2014). In autumn and winter, the SO₂ peaks were always
352 accompanied with a high PM_{2.5} concentration in YRD. Therefore, the observed lower SO₂
353 concentrations on event days in autumn and winter are understandable as the pre-existing particles
354 play a more important role. The proxy of H₂SO₄ was significantly higher on event days than on
355 non-event days, suggesting the sulfuric acid was the main driver of NPF events at SORPES.

356 The statistics of the NPF events in different air masses clusters are given in Table 3. The
357 events influenced by two or more air mass groups, which were about 17% of sampling days, were
358 not included in this statistic. Air masses in C3 revealed the most frequent NPF (54 event days and
359 12 non-event days). As illustrated in section 3.1.4, C3 air masses took place usually in summer
360 and brought large amounts of BVOCs (e.g. monoterpenes) from south China (Fig. 6a). BVOC
361 emissions have previously been observed to contribute to the formation and growth of new
362 particles (Birmili et al., 2003; Tunved et al., 2006; Fu and Kawamura, 2011; Kamens et al., 2011).
363 Air masses in C4 and C5, which passed through polluted YRD area with lots of pre-existing
364 particles, generally had less NPF events, further indicating that the polluted YRD plume would
365 suppress the formation of new particles. In winter, when solar radiation is low, no NPF events
366 occurred in the YRD area masses (Herrmann et al., 2014).

367 **3.2.3 Factors influencing particle formation and growth rates**

368 To investigate the factors that influence the formation rate and growth rate, the correlation
369 coefficients of J_6 and GR_{6-30nm} with meteorological quantities and gaseous pollutants were
370 calculated (Table 4). The correlation coefficients that passed the statistical significance test
371 ($p < 0.05$) were highlighted by asterisk in Table 4. The particle formation rate (J_6) was negatively
372 correlated with RH and positively correlated with both radiation and O_3 . No significant correlation
373 between J_6 and SO_2 was seen at SORPES. The particle growth rate was positively correlated with
374 temperature, RH, radiation, O_3 and CS ($p < 0.05$). Worth noting here is that while lower values of
375 RH and CS appeared to favor the occurrence of a NPF event, higher values of these two quantities
376 clearly favored the particle growth. This suggests that the new formation and growth are
377 influenced, at least to some extent, by different processes and vapors (Yli-Juuti et al., 2011; Rose
378 et al., 2015). The scatter plots of J_6 -RH and GR_{6-30nm} -RH color-coded with O_3 mixing ratio are
379 shown in Fig. 10. The negative correlation between J_6 and RH did not depend on the O_3
380 concentration (Fig. 10a), whereas for GR_{6-30nm} an obvious difference in the GR_{6-30nm} -RH slope
381 could be identified for different levels of the O_3 mixing ratio (Fig. 10b). Here the good GR-RH
382 relationship may also be influenced by factors other than the O_3 mixing ratio, such as the transport
383 compounds acting as precursors for the vapors responsible for the particle growth. Because of the
384 influence of summer monsoon, air masses from the southeast and southwest directions are

385 generally much humid than those from the north. These southerly air masses could also be
386 accompanied with high concentration of BVOCs or anthropogenic VOCs and their oxidants. Ding
387 et al. (2013a) found that air masses from the YRD city clusters were always associated with high
388 concentration of O₃, which should also contain high concentration of anthropogenic VOCs.

389 In order to study further the event with high or low value of J₆/GR_{6-30nm}, we conducted
390 Lagrangian dispersion modeling for the selected days marked in Fig. 8c and 8d, by using the
391 method developed by Ding et al.(2013c) based on HYSPLIT model to study the influence of air
392 masses. Fig. 11 gives the footprint, i.e. retroplume at an altitude of 100 m, of the selected high and
393 low J₆/GR_{6-30nm} days. Air masses had an obvious influence on the formation rate and growth rate.
394 Most low J₆ days and high GR days occurred in the air masses passing over the polluted YRD area,
395 while all the high J₆ days and low GR days appeared in air masses that did not go through the
396 YRD area. This further suggests the differences in the particle formation and growth processes
397 could partly explain the positive correlation between the GR and RH. In addition to the high RH in
398 YRD air masses, the high anthropogenic VOCs concentration may play a more important role in
399 enhancing the particle growth. Our finding that the polluted YRD plume induces a high GR is
400 consistent with the studies reporting relatively high particle growth rates under urban conditions
401 (Kulmala and Kerminen, 2008; Peng et al., 2014).

402 **3.3 Causes on the high frequency of NPF in August 2013**

403 As shown in Fig. 8, a higher frequency of NPF events occurred in July and August of 2013
404 compared with the same months in 2012. In August of 2013, the frequency of Class I NPF events
405 was highest during the two-year measurement period, with 17 Class I events observed among the
406 24 analyzed days. Fig. 12 shows the time series of particle number size distribution, O₃ and PM_{2.5}
407 concentrations and radiation. The daily-average O₃ concentration gradually increased in early
408 August with an hourly maximum value up to 165 ppbv on 12 August, 2013. Accompanied with
409 this O₃ episode, the geometric mean diameter (GMD) of submicron particles and PM_{2.5}
410 concentration also increased (Fig 12a, b). Interestingly, there were continuously multi-day NPF
411 events in the first half of this month, even during 11-13 August when PM_{2.5} reached 70-80 μg m⁻³.
412 During 17-24 August, there were also notable NPF events. Contrary to this, few NPF took place in
413 August 2012.

414 Examination of average geopotential height and wind vector at the 925-hPa level during the
415 two Augusts (Fig. 13a) suggests that in 2013 the subtropical (Pacific) High moved more to the west
416 than that in 2012, causing a positive anomaly (high pressure) and anti-cyclone over Southeast
417 China (Fig. 13b). As a result, the Yangtze River Delta experienced a continuous heat wave with
418 humid and hot air transported from the south and southwest.

419 In order to further understand the air masses history during the events in 2013, Fig. 14 gives
420 the averaged “footprint” (i.e., 100 m retroplume) for the episode period. The air masses can be
421 divided into three time periods. During 6-11 August, the air masses came from the southwest with
422 high value of BVOCs and they also passed through the downtown of Nanjing. During this period,
423 O₃ was produced and accumulated with enough precursors and strong solar radiation. High O₃
424 concentrations also caused a strong atmospheric oxidation capacity, which caused an increase in
425 the GMD of submicron particles together with an increase in the PM_{2.5} mass concentration. On 11
426 August, the air masses transport pathway was changed, with air masses coming mainly from
427 southeast and the YRD city cluster, which is the most polluted area with high value of
428 anthropogenic VOCs and other pollution gases. Therefore, the O₃ concentration continued to
429 increase until 12 August and then maintained a high level until 19 August. A common character of
430 the air masses during both of these two periods was that the air had transported over regions with
431 high biogenic and anthropogenic emissions (See Figs. 6a, b and 14). During 19 to 22 August, the
432 air masses were mainly from northeast and had a high humidity that caused cloudy days with low
433 radiation and high wet deposition. The O₃ concentration, GMD of submicron particles and PM_{2.5}
434 mass concentration therefore sharply decreased on 19 August.

435 Despite the high levels of GMD, PM_{2.5} and CS (which is not shown in Fig 12), Class I NPF
436 events occurred every day during the whole O₃ episode (from 4 to 19 August, 2013). As the GMD
437 and PM_{2.5} increased, the particle formation rates became lower. This means that the high values of
438 GMD and PM_{2.5} suppressed new particle formation but could not stop the occurrence of NPF event
439 altogether under such an atmospheric condition of a high oxidization capacity. Because of lower
440 pre-existing particle loading after 19 August, new particle formation continued although the
441 radiation intensity and atmospheric ozone oxidation capacity were lower. Another obvious
442 character for the August 2013 was that, during the whole month, the particle growth rate had a

443 relatively high correlation with RH (with $r=0.54$), supporting the positive correlation between GR
444 and RH illustrated above (Fig. 15).

445 Here the year-to-year difference in aerosol size distributions and NPF characteristics
446 suggests that large-scale circulations together with meteorological factors had a strong
447 impact on the aerosol number concentration. Extreme meteorological conditions are able
448 to reshape the seasonal profile of the aerosol number concentration and NPF, which
449 means that measurements in a specific year cannot gain a full picture of seasonal profiles.
450 Given the fact that there are only a limited number of measurements covering more than
451 one year, especially in China, this work highlights the importance of long-term
452 continuous measurement.

453 **4. Summary**

454 This study reports a two-year measurement (from December 2011 to November
455 2013) period of submicron particles (6-800 nm) at the SORPES station located in
456 suburban Nanjing in the western part of YRD, East China, with the aim to characterize
457 the temporal variation of the particle number concentration and size distribution, and to
458 understand the new particle formation occurring in such a polluted monsoon area.

459 The average total number concentrations was 19200 ± 9200 (mean \pm standard
460 deviation) cm^{-3} , with $5300 \pm 5500 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ in the nucleation mode (6-30 nm), 8000 ± 4400
461 cm^{-3} in the Aitken mode (30-100 nm) and $5800 \pm 3200 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ in the accumulation mode
462 (100-800 nm). Seasonal variations of NC and size distribution were influenced by the
463 Asian monsoon, anthropogenic activities and atmospheric oxidation capacity. The diurnal
464 pattern of the particle number size distribution in winter showed peaks at the normal rush
465 hours, suggesting the source from direct emissions of vehicles. Air mass long-range
466 transportation played clear roles in influencing the particle number concentration: coastal
467 air masses had lowest concentrations of accumulation mode particles but relatively high
468 concentrations of nucleation mode particles, continental air masses had the highest
469 concentrations of nucleation mode particles with frequent new particle formation, and
470 YRD air masses had the highest concentrations of accumulation mode particles and

471 lowest concentration of nucleation mode particles because of the elevated
472 coagulation/condensation sinks.

473 NPF events were observed on 44% of the analyzed days, with the highest frequency
474 in spring, followed by summer and autumn, but only 15 event days in winter. The average
475 formation rates of 6 nm particles were 3.6 ± 2.4 , 2.1 ± 1.4 , 2.1 ± 1.9 and 1.8 ± 1.6 $\text{cm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ in
476 spring, summer, autumn and winter, respectively, and the corresponding particle growth
477 rates were 10.0 ± 3.4 , 12.8 ± 4.4 , 8.9 ± 2.9 and 9.5 ± 3.3 nm h^{-1} . A higher temperature, radiation
478 intensity and O_3 concentration together with a lower RH and $\text{PM}_{2.5}/\text{CS}$ ratio seemed to
479 favor the occurrence of new particle formation events. Sulfuric acid appeared to play a
480 key role in NPF event at SORPES. Trajectory analysis suggested that BVOC chemistry
481 contributed to the new particle formation and growth. The particle formation rate was
482 negatively correlated with RH and positively correlated with radiation and O_3 while
483 particle growth rate was positively correlated with temperature, RH, radiation, O_3 and CS.
484 Both particle formation and growth rate depended on the air mass origin, with low J_6 and
485 high GR typical for polluted YRD air masses and high J_6 and low GR for clean air
486 masses.

487 The observed frequency of NPF events and particle growth rate in summer showed a
488 strong year-to-year variation under the influence of different large-scale circulations, such
489 as subtropical High. Long-range transport, meteorological parameters and photochemical
490 pollutants promoted the atmospheric new particle formation and growth in the summer
491 2013 compared with the previous year. To quantitatively understand the processes
492 controlling the aerosol number concentration and size distribution, or to predict their
493 behavior, additional modeling work on NPF that relies on long-term observations should
494 be conducted in the future.

495

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502

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811

812 **Appendix: Performance of the flow-switching DMPS**

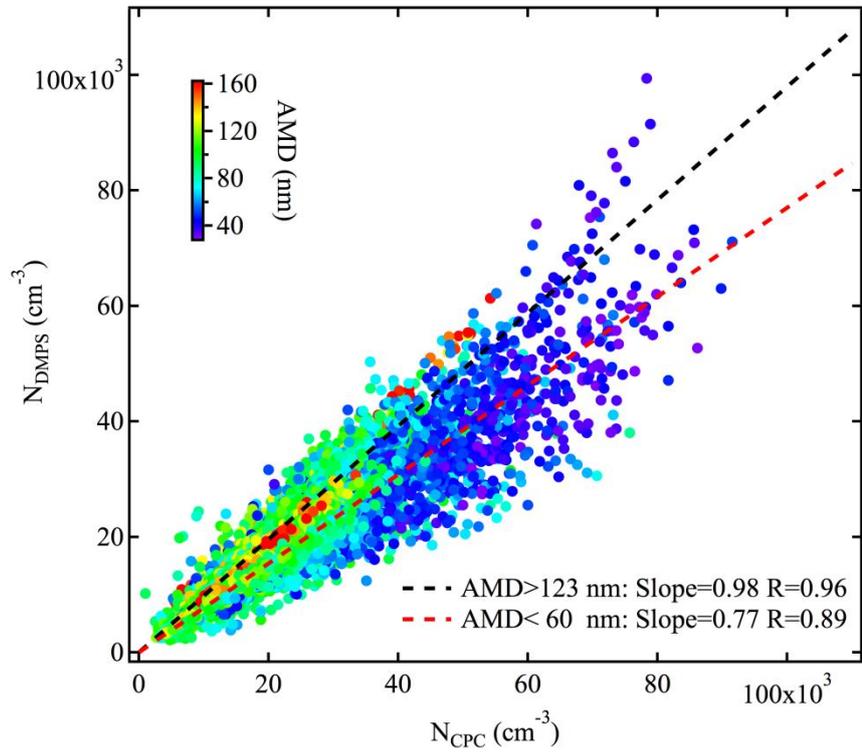
813 The flow-switching DMPS has two flow modes to measure the particles in two size ranges,
814 6-100 nm and 100-800 nm, respectively. To assimilate data in the two flow modes, in this study
815 the number concentrations of particles in the size range from 100 to 800 nm were multiplied by a
816 factor to make the particle number size distribution smooth. The correction was done for daily
817 data. The average correction factor was 1.05 ± 0.11 , which means that in this size range the original
818 inverted number concentrations increased on the average by 5%. The 10th, 25th, 50th, 75th and 90th
819 percentiles of this correction factor were 0.92, 0.96, 1, 1.1 and 1.2, respectively.

820 The model of CPC used in this study was the TSI 3772 with the 10 nm default cut-off
821 diameter when the condenser temperature is at the default value of 22 °C. It was set to 10°C in this
822 measurement, so the temperature difference ΔT between the saturator and the condenser was
823 higher ($\Delta T > 25$ °C) which leads to a higher supersaturation and a lower cut-off diameter. The
824 counting efficiency of 6nm particles is higher than 75% (Wiedensohler et al., 2012).

825 The DMPS was set up so that every time before number size distribution measurement, the
826 DMA was by-passed, and total aerosol number concentration was determined directly by the CPC
827 (Yli-Juuti et al., 2009). The average ratio of the total particle number concentration of that
828 integrated from the inverted size distributions and measured directly with the CPC (N_{DMPS} and
829 N_{CPC}) was 0.90 ± 0.17 and the correlation coefficient was 0.91 ($p < 1 \cdot 10^{-6}$). The 10th, 25th, 50th, 75th
830 and 90th percentiles were 0.71, 0.82, 0.91, 0.99 and 1.06, respectively. These values can indicate
831 that data quality of the DMPS was satisfactory.

832 Figure S1 shows the scatter plot of N_{DMPS} and N_{CPC} color-coded with the arithmetic mean
833 diameter of the whole particle number size distribution ($\text{AMD}_{6-800 \text{ nm}}$). The ratio of N_{DMPS} to N_{CPC}
834 was low when the $\text{AMD}_{6-800 \text{ nm}}$ was small but close to 1 when the $\text{AMD}_{6-800 \text{ nm}}$ was large. As the
835 small $\text{AMD}_{6-800 \text{ nm}}$ corresponds to new particle formation events with a high concentration of
836 nucleation mode particles, the lower N_{DMPS} -to- N_{CPC} ratio suggests that the DMPS (including the
837 inversion) may have underestimated the concentration of them. This is in line with the
838 inter-comparison study presented by Wiedensohler et al. (2012) where it was found that the largest
839 uncertainties of the size distributions were in the nucleation mode.

840



841

842 Figure S1 The scatter plot of N_{DMPS} vs. N_{CPC} color-coded with the arithmetic mean diameter of the
 843 particle number size distribution ($AMD_{6-800 \text{ nm}}$). Note: Linear fits for the data when the AMD_{6-800}
 844 nm is higher than 123nm (90th percentiles of the $AMD_{6-800 \text{ nm}}$ distribution) or lower than 60nm (10th
 845 percentiles of the $AMD_{6-800 \text{ nm}}$ distribution) are shown in the figure.

846

847 **Figures and Tables**

848

849 **Table 1.** Overall statistics for the number concentrations and relevant parameters calculated based
850 on DMPS measurement at the SORPES site during December 2011–November 2013.

851

	Annual	Spring	Summer	Autumn	Winter
Total particles (cm^{-3})	19200 ^A ±9200 ^B	20600±9000	18000±10800	18000±7600	19900±9300
Nucleation mode(cm^{-3})	5300±5500	6200±5900	4600±5500	4800±4900	5700±5400
Aitken mode (cm^{-3})	8000±4400	8500±4000	8100±5700	7600±3900	7800±3900
Accumulation mode(cm^{-3})	5800±3200	5900±2900	5300±4200	5600±2500	6500±3000
AMD _{6-800 nm} (nm)	92±25	89±23	90±26	92±26	97±26
CS (10^{-2} s^{-1})	3.8±2.0	4.0±1.7	3.5±2.5	3.6±1.7	4.2±1.9
CS _{wet} (10^{-2} s^{-1})	5.3±2.9	5.5±2.6	5.0±3.7	5.1±2.7	5.8±2.7

852 A: Mean, B: Standard deviation, AMD_{6-800 nm}: Arithmetic Mean Diameter of 6–800 nm particles,

853 CS: Condensation sink

854 CS_{wet}: Condensation sink with the consideration of hygroscopic growth

855

856 **Table 2.** Statistics of NPF events, J_6 , $GR_{6-30\text{ nm}}$ and CS at the SORPES station during the two-year
 857 measurement period

858

		Spring	Summer	Autumn	Winter
Event Classification	Class I	52	44	64	10
	Class II	42	29	24	5
	Non-event	75	60	89	115
	Undefined	3	3	1	4
J_6 ($\text{cm}^{-3}\text{s}^{-1}$)	Mean \pm SD	3.6 \pm 2.4	2.1 \pm 1.4	2.1 \pm 1.9	1.8 \pm 1.6
$GR_{6-30\text{ nm}}$ (nm/h)	Mean \pm SD	10.0 \pm 3.4	12.8 \pm 4.4	8.9 \pm 2.9	9.5 \pm 3.3

859

860 **Table 3.** Statistics of NPF events in different air masses backward trajectories of clusters.

	Class I	Class II	Non-event	Undefined
C1	52	25	82	3
C2	25	19	48	0
C3	32	22	12	0
C4	33	13	69	4
C5	20	11	72	3

861

862 **Table 4.** Correlation coefficients of J_6 and $GR_{6-30\text{ nm}}$ with main meteorological parameters and air
 863 pollutants

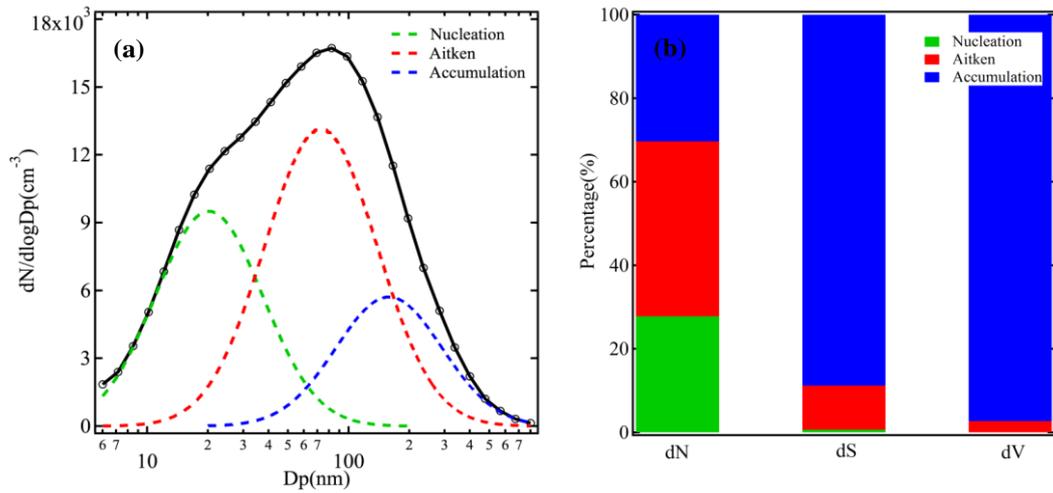
864

	Temp (°C)	RH (%)	Rad (W/m ²)	O ₃ (ppbv)	PM _{2.5} (µg/m ³)	SO ₂ (ppbv)	NO _x (ppbv)	CS (10 ⁻² s ⁻¹)
J_6 (cm ⁻³ s ⁻¹)	0.10	-0.31*	0.32*	0.17*	0.01	0.11	-0.01	0.06
$GR_{6-30\text{ nm}}$ (nm/h)	0.36*	0.27*	0.27*	0.38*	0.07	0.06	-0.14	0.38*

865 *: The correlation coefficient passes the statistical significant test (p<0.05).

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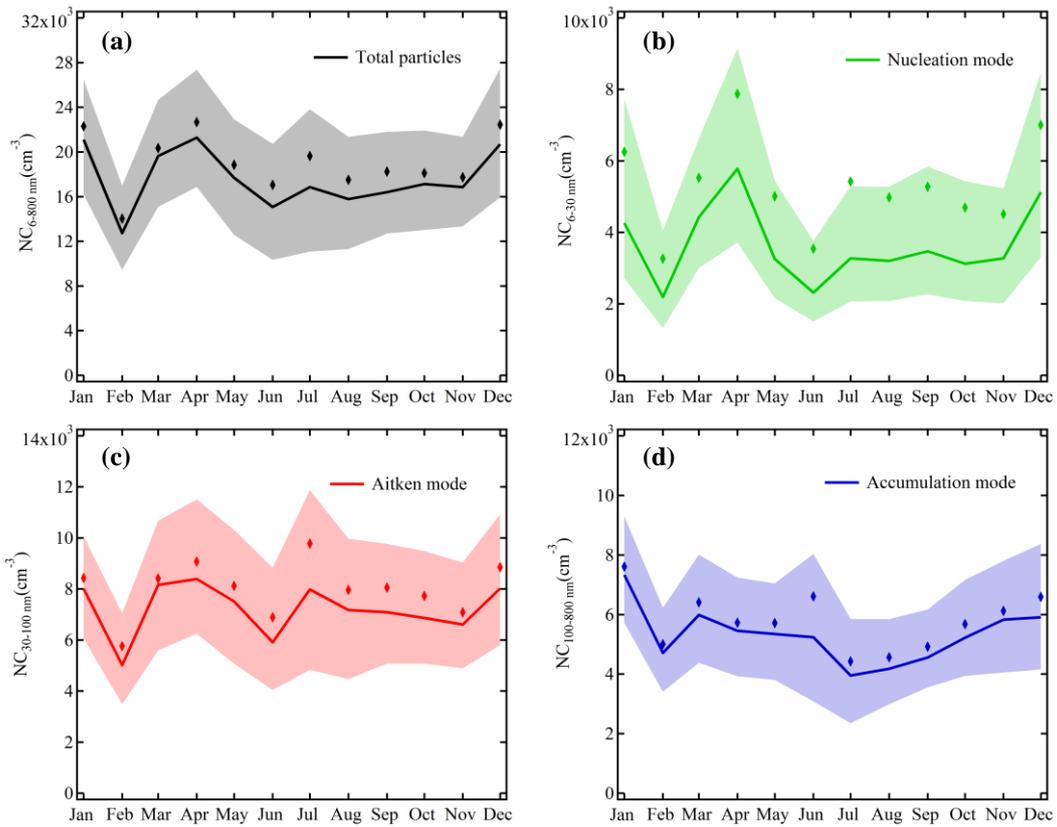
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868

869 **Fig. 1.** (a) Averaged number size distribution and lognormal fitting curves of three modes, and (b)
 870 averaged fraction of the particles number, surface and volume concentrations in the three modes
 871 measured at the SORPES site during December 2011–November 2013.

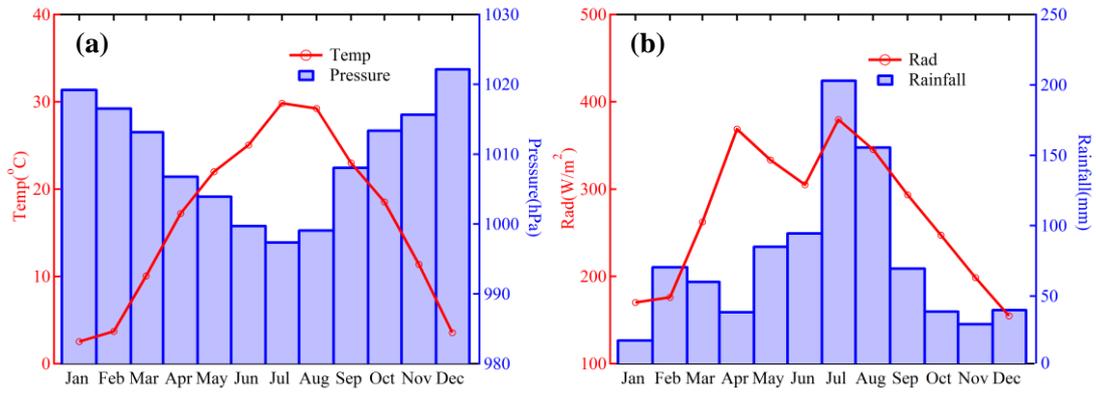
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873

874 **Fig. 2.** The averaged seasonal variations of (a) the total particle number concentration and number
 875 concentrations in the (b) nucleation, (c) Aitken and (d) accumulation mode. Note: Bold solid lines
 876 are the monthly median and shaded area represents the 25th or 75th percentiles. The diamond
 877 markers represent the monthly average.

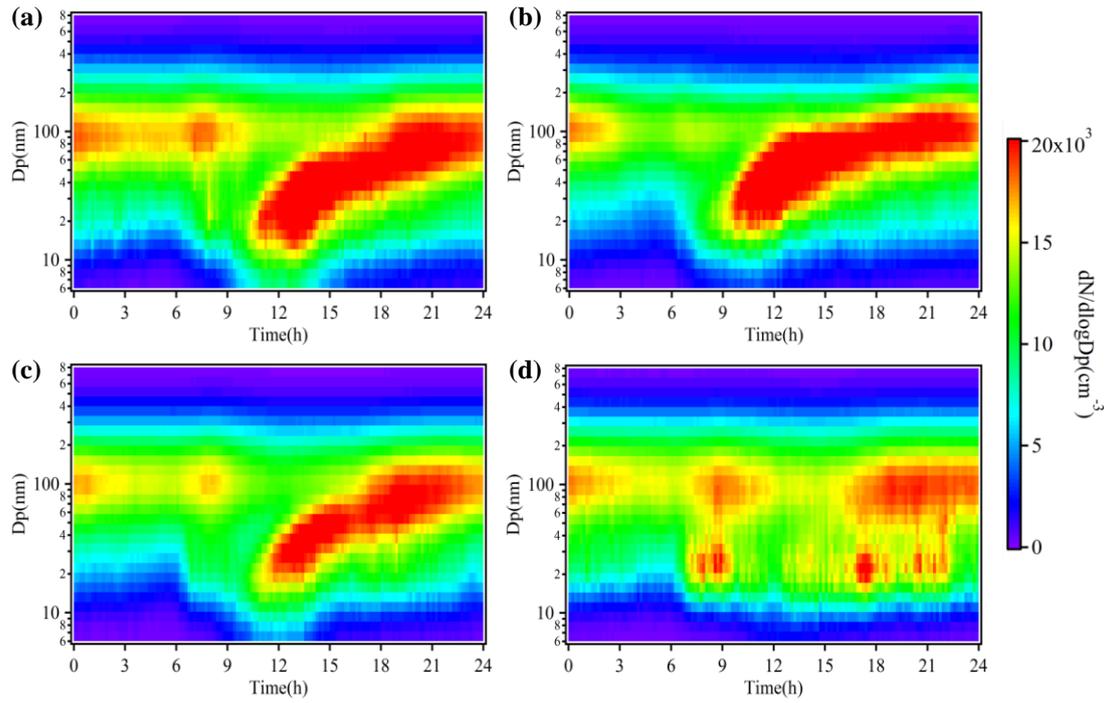
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879

880 **Fig. 3.** Averaged seasonal variations of **(a)** temperature and pressure, **(b)** radiation and rainfall
 881 during the entire measurement period.

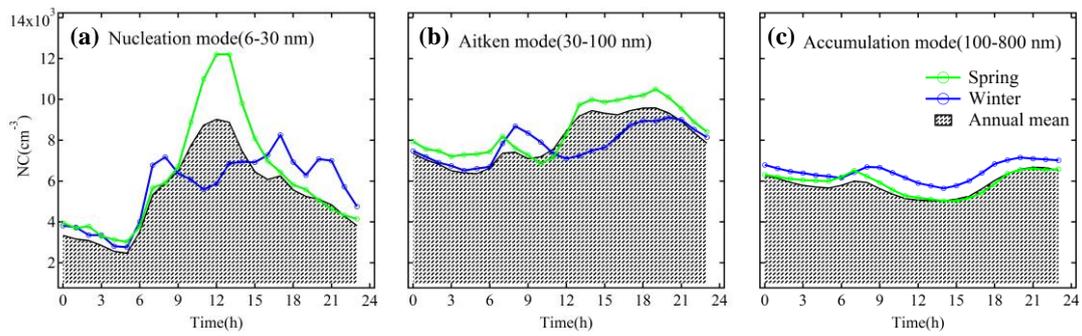
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884 **Fig. 4.** Averaged diurnal cycles of particle number size distributions for (a) spring, (b) summer, (c)
 885 autumn and (d) winter at the SORPES station during the 2-year measurement period.

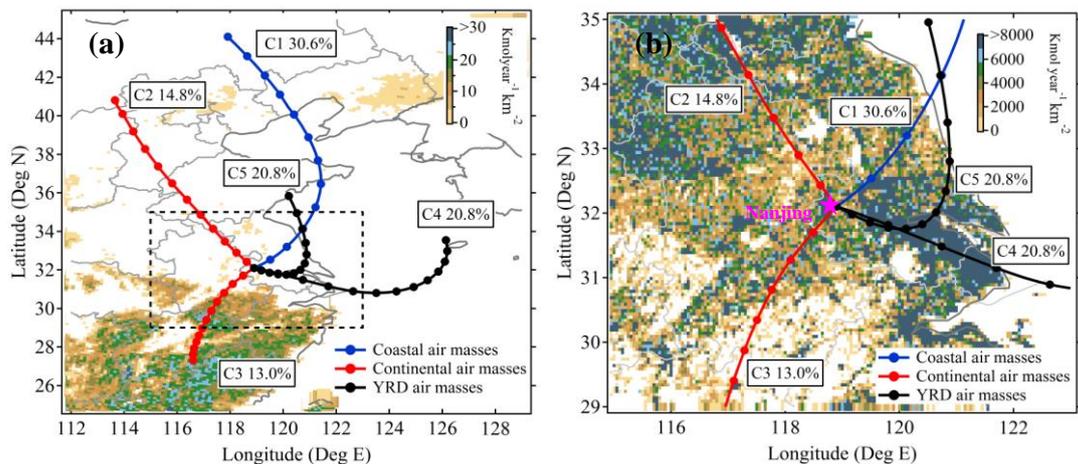
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888 **Fig. 5.** Averaged diurnal variations of particle number concentrations in **(a)** Nucleation mode, **(b)**
 889 Aitken mode, **(c)** accumulation mode in spring, winter and entire period during the two-year
 890 measurement period.

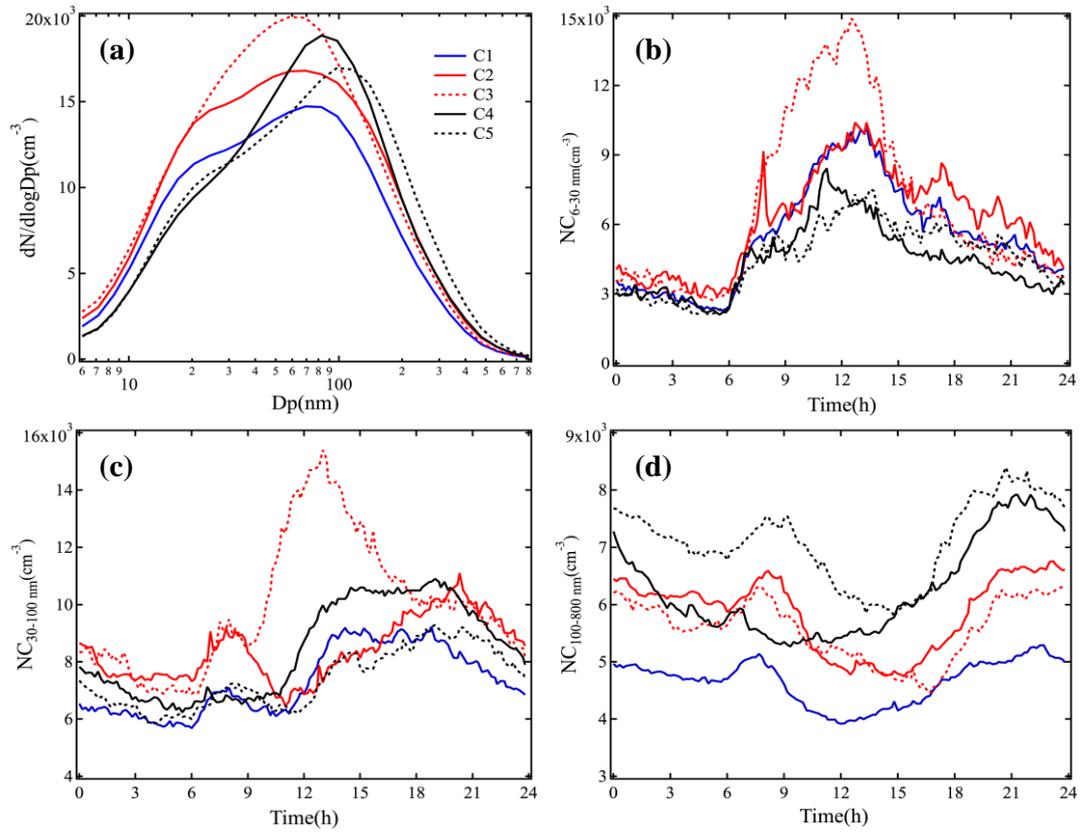
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892

893 **Fig. 6.** Mean air mass backward trajectories of five clusters showing on map of (a) monoterpene
 894 in East China and (b) anthropogenic VOCs in the YRD. Note: Points of trajectories represent the
 895 six-hourly location. The percentages of each cluster are tabulated in the map. The monoterpene
 896 data were calculated by MEGAN (Model of Emissions of Gases and Aerosols from Nature) with
 897 MM5(the Fifth-Generation Mesoscale Model) providing meteorological data and the anthropogenic
 898 VOCs data were accessed from MEIC (Multi-resolution Emission Inventory for China) database
 899 (<http://www.meicmodel.org/>).

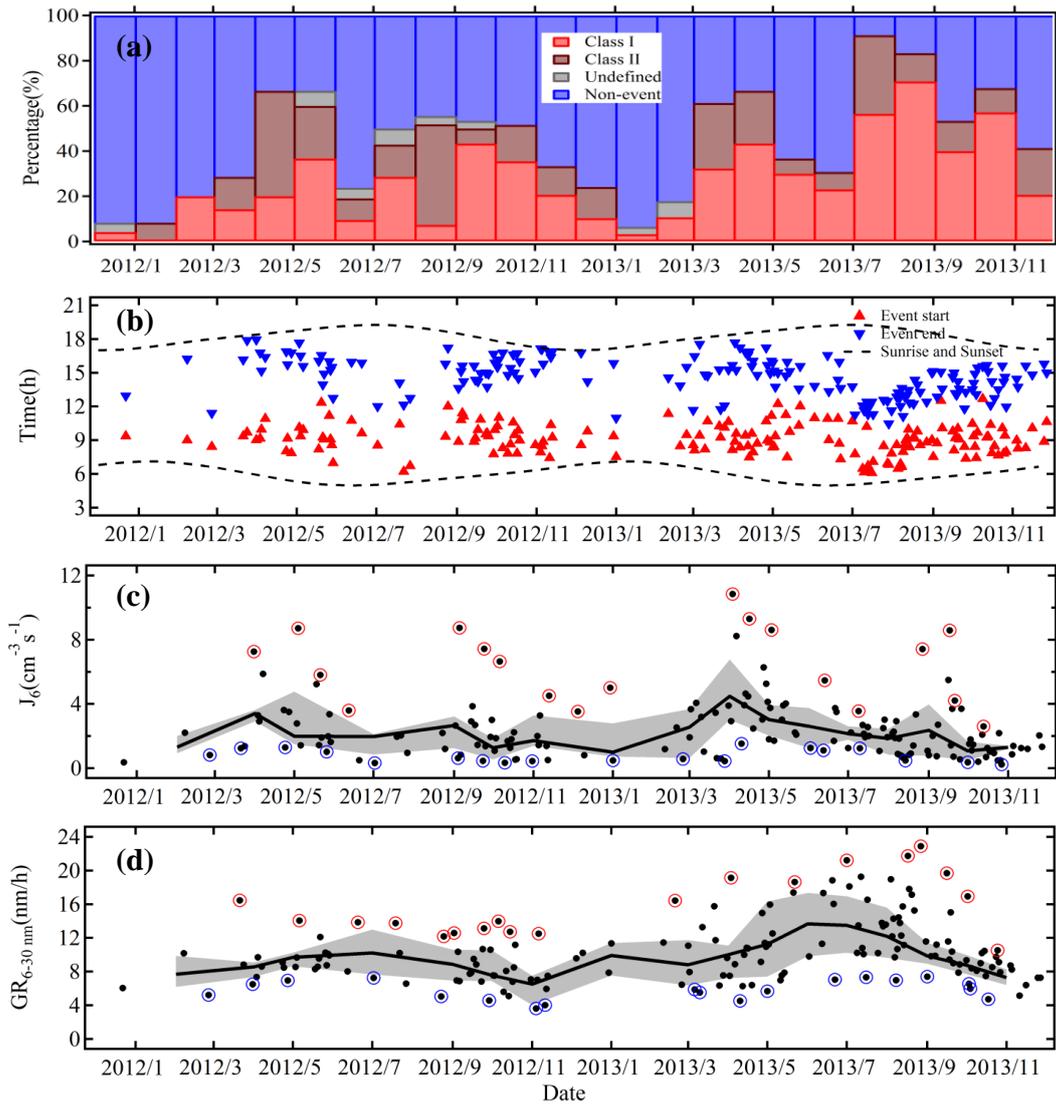
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901

902 **Fig. 7.** (a) Particles number size distributions of five clusters (C1, C2, C3, C4 and C5 air masses,
 903 respectively); Diurnal variations of particle number concentration of five clusters in (b) nucleation
 904 (6-30 nm), (c) Aitken (30-100 nm) and (d) accumulation mode (100-800 nm).

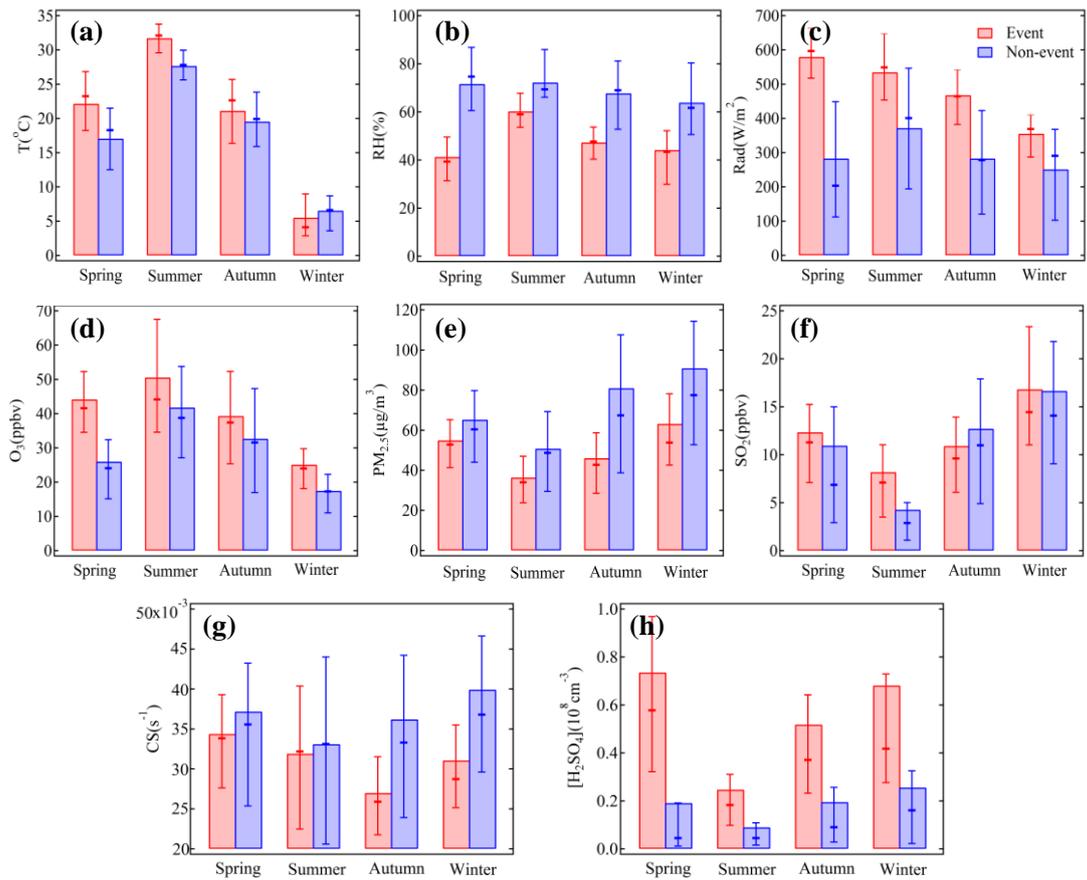
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907 **Fig. 8.** Monthly time series of (a) the fraction of Class I, Class II NPF events, undefined and
 908 non-event days, (b) start time and end time of Class I event days, (c and d) J_6 and growth rate
 909 during Class I event days. Note: Dashed lines in Fig. 8b represent the sunrise and sunset.
 910 Bold solid lines in Fig. 8c and 8d are the median values and shaded area represents the 25th or 75th
 911 percentiles. Red circles and blue circles in Fig. 8c and 8d are the days that selected for further
 912 investigation in Sect. 3.2.3.

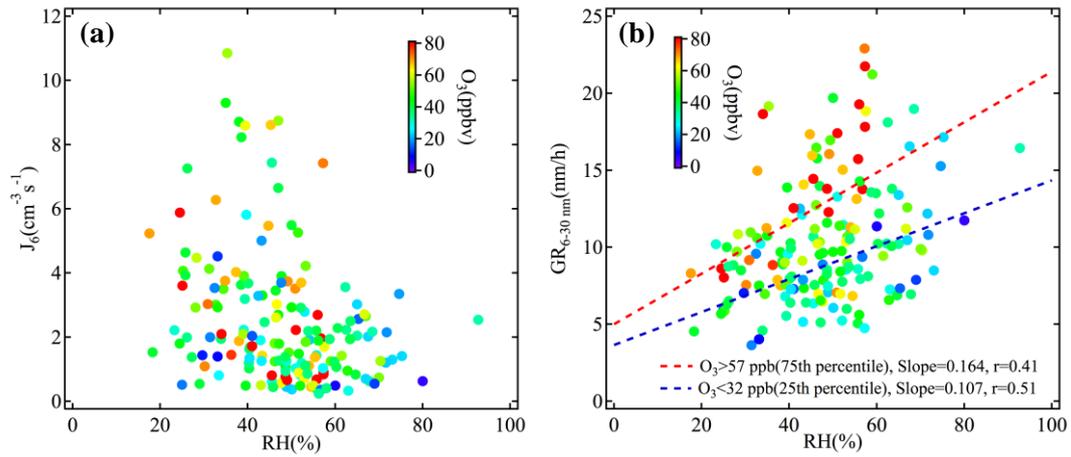
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915 **Fig. 9.** (a-c) Meteorological variables, (d-f) gaseous pollutants, (g) condensation sink and (h)
 916 H₂SO₄ proxy during event (Red) and non-event (Blue) days in different seasons. Note: Bars are
 917 the mean value. The bold stick and whiskers are median values and 25th or 75th percentiles.

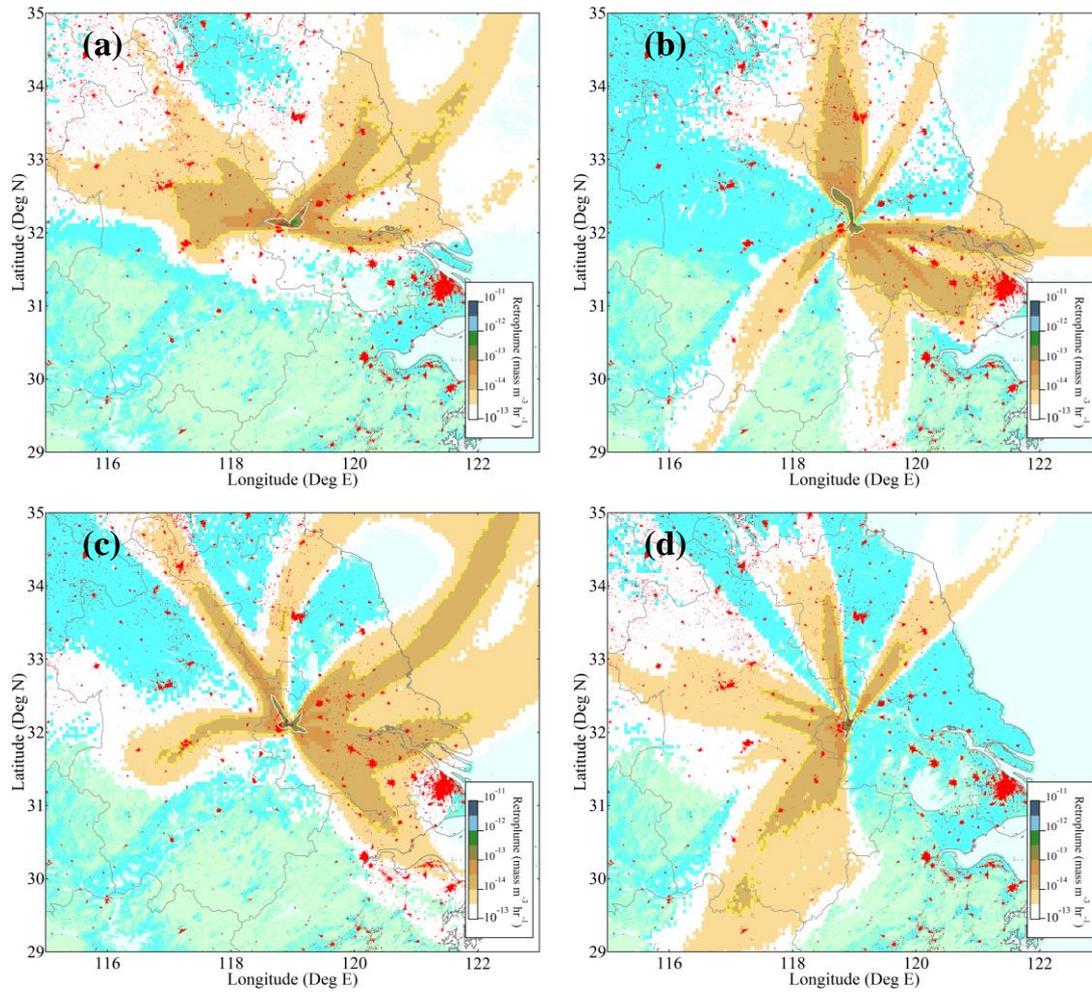
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920 **Fig. 10.** Scatter plot (a) between J_6 and RH and (b) between $\text{GR}_{6-30 \text{ nm}}$ and RH, color-coded with
 921 the O_3 concentration. Note: Linear fits for the data when the O_3 concentration is higher than 57
 922 ppbv (the 75th percentile) or lower than 32 ppbv (the 25th percentile) are shown in Fig. 10b,
 923 respectively.

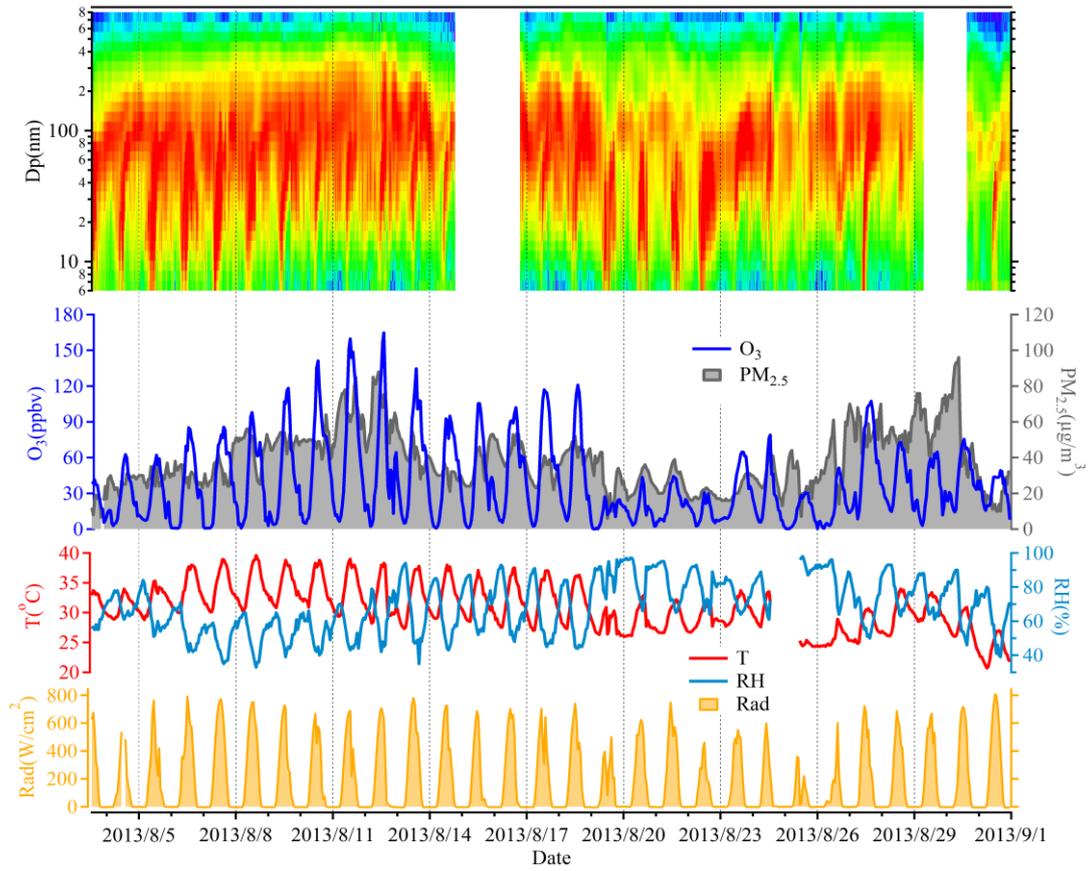
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925

926 **Fig. 11.** The averaged retroplumes (i.e. 100 m footprint) of the selected events: (a) high J_6 , (b) low
 927 J_6 , (c) high GR, (d) low GR days. Note: Red area in the maps shows the location and size of city.

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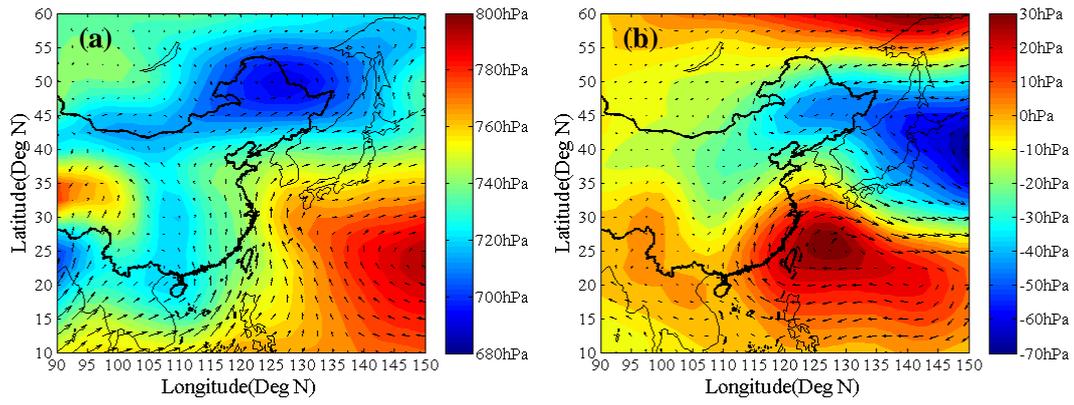


929

930 **Fig. 12.** Time series of (a) particles number size distribution, (b) O_3 and $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations, (c)
 931 temperature and RH, and (d) intensity of radiation measured at SORPES site in August 2013.

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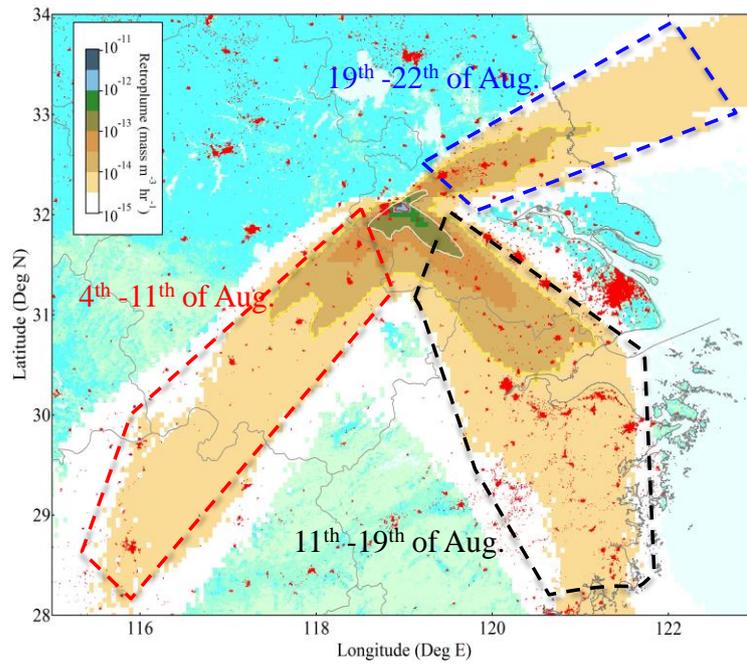
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935 **Fig. 13. (a)** Average geopotential height and wind vector at the 925-hPa level during August 2013.
 936 **(b)** Differences in geopotential height and wind vector between Aug 2013 and Aug 2012 at the
 937 925-hPa level.

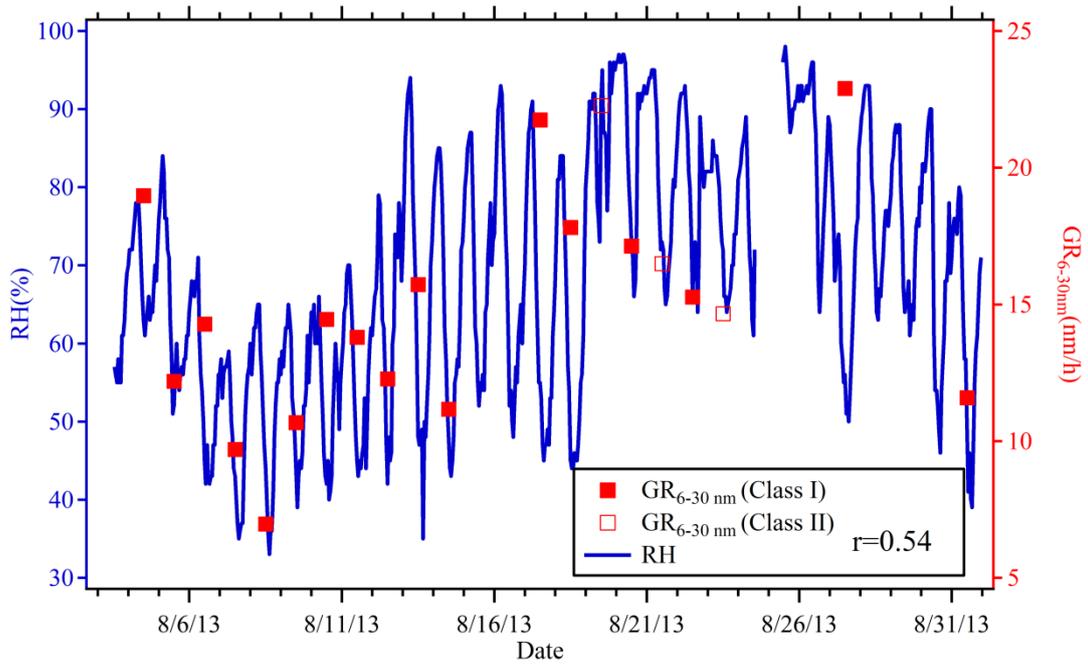
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939

940 **Fig. 14.** Retroplumes from 4 to 22 August 2013 identified with three main periods. Note: Red
 941 points denote the urban area.

942



943

944 **Fig. 15.** Time series of RH and the GR_{6-30 nm} of NPF days (Class I and Class II) in August 2013

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