

## Response to the reviewers' comments:

### Reviewer 1:

The authors present an analysis of a dataset spanning more than one year of particle size distribution measurements that are analysed for new particle formation statistics and characteristics. Nighttime particle formation is an interesting phenomenon, and therefore the paper fits ACP in terms of its subject matter.

Overall, the paper is well structured, and the measurement description is good. There is a new method for determining the growth rate of particles, as well as classifying the events, which I consider very interesting. However, some missing description of the data analysis, as well as probable errors (detailed later) in the computations are problematic. I think that if these problems are corrected, the paper may well be published in ACP, but the mistakes and lack of description are so significant that they should be corrected.

The lack of description concerns the following methods:

1. line 85: The method to determine the event class is very interesting and seems promising. However, some more information is needed. How is the start time of using the regression determined? What is the meaning of the constant  $\beta_0$ ?

Response: Authors would like to thank the reviewer for acknowledging the importance of the current work. We have added the following lines to clarify the initial time selection in the regression analysis:

Page 4, line 88–89

‘The start and end time of the NPF events were identified visually from the surface plots of PNSD data and then incorporated in the regression analysis to calculate the growth rate.’

The  $\beta_0$  ( $\beta_0$ ) is the intercept of regression analysis. The term has been described now in the section 2.3 as follows:

Page 4, line 91

‘where,  $\beta_0$  is the intercept,...’

2. line 100, kernel density estimation: what is meant by smoothed density of NPF events?

Response: The smoothed density of NPF events was calculated using Kernel density estimation method and the results were presented in Figure 5. Kernel density estimation approach has been described clearly now in section 2.5 and following sentences have been added as follows:

Page 4–5, line 103–106

*‘Kernel density function, also termed as Kernel smoothing, is a non-parametric method to estimate the probability density function of a variable (Silverman, 1986). Kernel smoothing is a very effective approach of visualising data structures without incorporating parametric model (Wand and Jones, 1994). In this study, Kernel smoothing estimated the overall diurnal trend of the NPF events over the study period in conjunction with the histogram plot. We applied ‘ggplot2’ package in R programming language to plot smooth Kernel density trend of NPF events ([www.ggplot2.org](http://www.ggplot2.org)).’*

3. Also, I think listing the variables (both predicted and the ones used as explanatory variables) that are handled with GAM, would be beneficial to the reader.

Response: The following sentences have been added:

Page 5, line 111 –112

*‘One explanatory variable was used in each model. Hour, month, condensation sink, and production rate of the condensable vapor were used as the explanatory variables in each model.’*

4. The whole GAM methodology remains very unclear in the paper. Especially the validity of the model for the first thing analysed seems questionable to me: the GAM result (which I’m guessing is the line in Fig 3, top panel) seems to give different results at times 0 and 24; this makes no sense at all as the diurnal cycle should not depend of the choice of start and end times. For the annual trend the same applies. This makes the whole methodology suspect, but it is difficult to identify the problem with so little explanation given.

Response: GAM has been explained in the section 2.5 and following sentences have been added in the revised manuscript as below:

Page 5, line 107 – 110

*‘The mathematical framework in GAM is similar to the Generalized Linear Model (GLM); however, it replaces the linear function with non-parametric smoothers (e.g., penalised splines), which allow for flexible estimation of non-linear function. GAMs were found more appropriate than GLMs in estimating non-linear effect of response variables in air quality study (Clifford et al., 2011).’*

Regarding Figure 3, we would like to explain that we used 0-23h time instead of 01-24 h, which

means the diurnal GR values were plotted in times between 0 h and 23 h. Therefore, there is no overlap between times. Similarly, there is no overlap in annual trends. Figure 3 and its caption have been modified to:

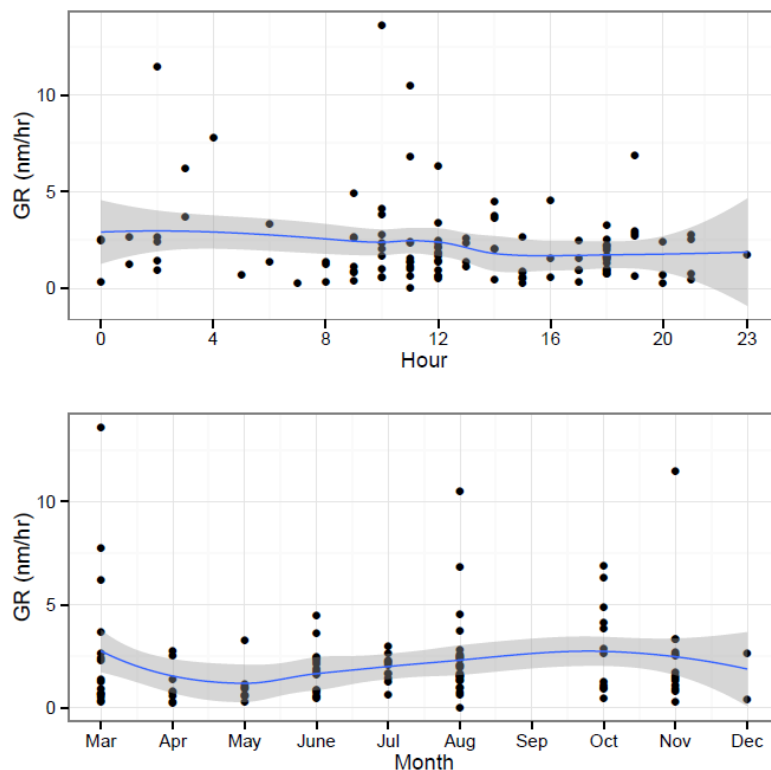
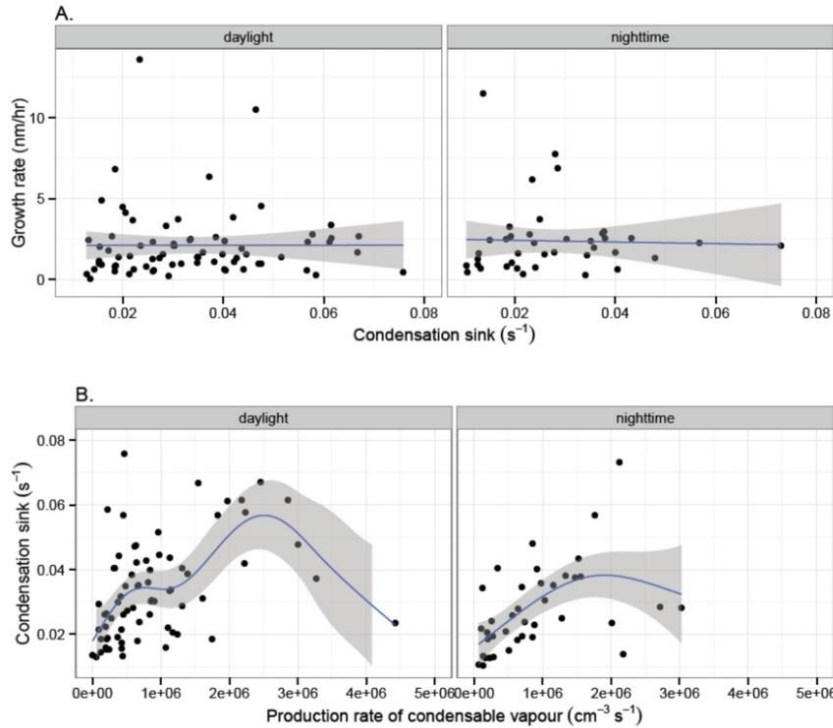


Figure 3: Diurnal (0 h to 23 h) and annual (March to December) trend in Growth Rate. NPF events were not observed in January and February. The solid line represents smoothed trend modelled with GAM and the shaded region represents 95% confidence interval.

5. CS, GR and Q analysis: The obtained values seem very strange to me. The condensation sinks given (ranging from  $0.5\text{--}8\text{ s}^{-1}$ ) suggest that the condensing vapour lifetime is of the order of less than a second, suggesting very high concentrations of aerosol. Also, the vapour source rates are on the other hand very low, close to zero (fig 4). Unless the concentrations of aerosols are several orders of magnitude higher than usually, I think that the computations should be checked. The authors should also give in the text the variation and statistical values (mean, median, gsd, etc) of the number concentration and CS.

Response: We have checked the analysis of GR and Q and indeed found an error in the programming code in R. CS and Q have been recalculated and Figure 4 have been updated as follows:



6. Also, if the values are computed as in literature usually, it assumes a steady-state to get the formula  $Q - CS \times C_{\text{vapour}} = 0$ , giving  $Q = CS \times C_{\text{vapour}}$ .  $C_{\text{vapour}}$  is usually taken from the growth rate GR by using the free molecular regime formula  $C_{\text{vapour}} = A \times GR$ , where A is a constant. Now, if we plot these in a x-y figure (as in figure 4), the axes are not independent, as the GR and CS are included in Q already. Therefore, the fits in the figures are also including dependence of these variables. This should be discussed and taken into account in the analysis.

Response: We agree with the reviewer that two graphs (GR vs. CS and CS vs. Q) in Figure 4 are enough as the third graph (Q vs. GR) is not independent of the other two; so we decided to keep GR vs. CS and CS vs. Q. We have removed the Q vs CS section of the graph and the related discussion from the paper. The discussion is now limited to two graphs (i.e. GR vs. CS and CS vs. Q).

7. line 180 onwards: No clear time is given on how the daytime and nighttime were defined. This is needed for understanding the analysis.

Response: Accurate local sunrise and sunset time were used in this study and this information has been added in the sentence below:

Page 10, line 193 – 194

*'To investigate the unusual nocturnal events, data were divided into nighttime and daylight based on the start of the events using the accurate local sunrise and sunset time.'*

8. Other comments: The figure captions are much too short and it is difficult to follow what is in the figure.

Response: The captions have been revised to include more information:

*'Figure 1: Calculated growth rate (GR) of day light and nighttime NPF events with their 95% confidence interval.'*

*'Figure 2: Examples of the observed Class I and Class II NPF events.  $D_p$  is particle diameter and the colour of the image represent measured concentrations at each time.'*

*'Figure 3: Diurnal (0 h to 23 h) and annual (March to December) trend in growth rate (GR). GR was not observed in January and February. The line represents smoothed trend modelled with GAM and the shaded region represents 95% confidence interval.'*

*'Figure 4: Relationships between growth rate (GR), condensation sink (CS) and production rate of condensable vapour ( $Q$ ) for Class I NPFs during day light and nighttime. The line represents smoothed trend modelled with GAM and the shaded region represents 95% confidence interval.'*

*'Figure 5: Diurnal trend of Class I and II NPF events with their Kernel density estimation.'*

*'Figure 6: An example of a banana shaped nighttime event.  $D_p$  is particle diameter and the colour of the image represent measured concentrations at each time.'*

9. figure 3: what are the lines and shaded areas?

Response: Please see the response to the comment 8.

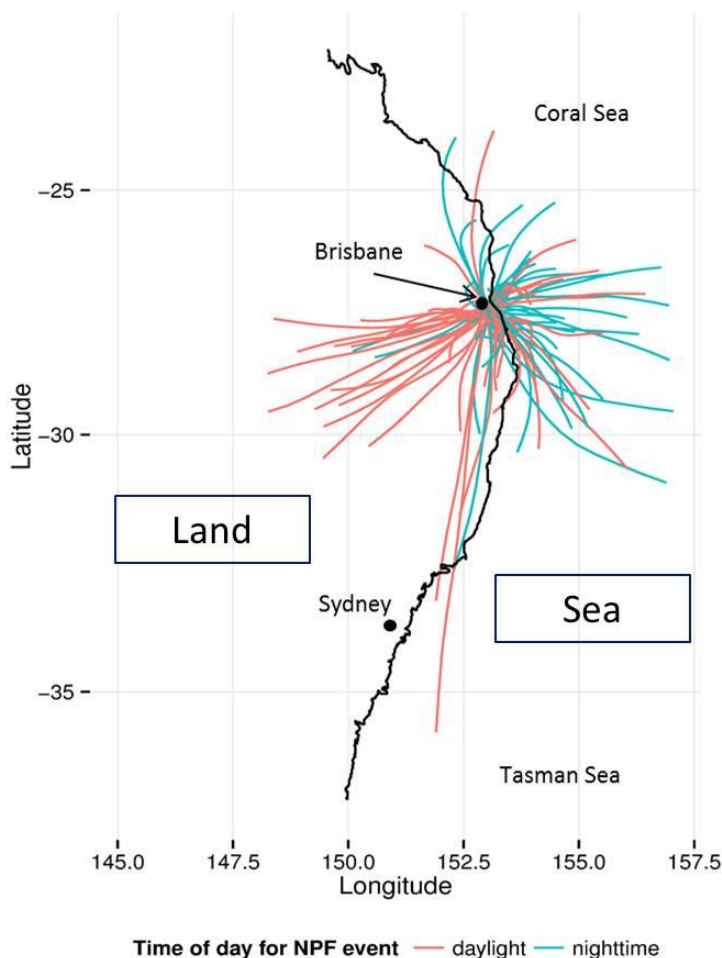
10. figure 5: what is the definition of NPF density?

Response: Figure 5 shows the diurnal trend of NPF events with Kernel density estimation. The caption of Figure 5 has been modified as below:

*'Figure 5. Diurnal trend of Class I and II NPF events with their Kernel density estimation.'*

11. figure 9: please indicate some geographic markers (country, cities, sea, land, etc.) in the map.

Response: Figure 9 has been replotted as follows:



12. One suggestion also: it would be interesting to know how the wind speed and direction affects new particle formation in the nighttime. Usually, a 'banana'-type NPF data suggests that NPF is occurring over a larger area, as advection carries air towards and away from the measurement point. However, in nighttime, wind may sometimes be non-existent. In this case, this could mean that NPF is occurring over a limited area. This could be an interesting piece of information in this case.

[Response: Thank for your suggestion, however, the investigation of the effects of wind speed and its direction to the NPFs is not within the scope of current paper and will be investigated in future work.](#)

## Reviewer 2:

This manuscript investigates nighttime formation of new particles by nucleation in an urban environment. The analysis is based on data obtained from short measurement campaigns at 25 different sites in Brisbane, Australia. The paper contains interesting new information on nocturnal new particle formation

and should therefore be published. Before acceptance, there are a number of concerns, mostly minor, that the authors should address.

1. Section 2.1. While detailed site information is not essential for the purpose of this paper, some information on the sites should be provided, such as which kind of different urban sites (traffic sites, urban background sites, etc.) the data set covered and how many of each site type there were.

Response: A brief description on the study sites has been added in the main text, as below:

Page 3, line 58-63

*“All 25 sites were located between 1.5 and 30 km from Brisbane city. Some sites were affected more by high traffic density than others. The average hourly traffic counts at the nearby roads to the sites were ranged between 44 to 1217 (Laiman et al., 2014). Further details regarding the UPTECH project and its study design can be found in our previous publication (Salimi et al., 2013).”*

2. The statement made at the end of section 2.3 (line 91) does not make any sense. Please delete, or provide additional information.

That sentence has been reworded to:

Page 4, line 93-94

*‘For each NPF event, growth rate (GR) and its related 95% confidence interval (CI) were calculated. When the CI’s were positive, they were classified as Class I, and the rest of events were classified as Class II.’*

3. Section 3.1, lines 122-137. Comparing to the whole range of observed GR values by two different studies saying that these values are similar or different not make much sense. Such a comparison should be based on narrower range of values like mean $\pm$  STD or median $\pm$ STD. Concerning urban areas in China, there are several recent publications from various sites to which new particle formation and growth rates could be compared as well.

Response: In the revised manuscript (section 3.1), we have compared the average GRs and here also included a recent study that calculated GRs in China. The modified section reads as seen:

Page 5-6, line 131-149

*“Day light NPF event average GRs obtained by author of an earlier study conducted also in Brisbane (Cheung et al., 2011), were found to be of 4.6 nmh<sup>-1</sup> (range of 1.79 to 7.78 nm h<sup>-1</sup>), which is one order of magnitude higher than in this study (2.4 nm h<sup>-1</sup>). Cheung et al. (2011) calculated GRs based on a long-term measurement data at a single site; however this study used*

*data from 25 sites to calculate average GRs and therefore GRs in this study are expected to be more representative of the area of the study than the former one.*

*Studies from the other places in the world show higher GRs in some cases but also similar to this study. Similarly to our study, day light NPF events were also observed frequently (40% of all observations) in urban locations in Beijing, China, during periods of low relative humidity and peak solar radiation, with the average GRs of 1.8 and 4.4 nm h<sup>-1</sup> during clean and polluted NPF events, respectively (Wu et al., 2007). In a recent study in North China Plain, Shen et al. (2016) found day light NPF event average GRs of 1.2 nm h<sup>-1</sup> higher than in this study. A 10-day campaign in a Japanese forest showed midday NPFs with the mean particle GR of 9.2 nm h<sup>-1</sup>, ranged between 5 and 15.7 nm h<sup>-1</sup>, which is approximately four times higher than our study (Han et al., 2013). However, in a long-term (1996-2004) measurement campaign at four Boreal forest, Finland, Dal Maso et al. (2007) recorded the average GRs of 3.0 nm h<sup>-1</sup> (range of 0.5 –15.1 nm h<sup>-1</sup>), which is similar to this in our study. However, nighttime NPFs were observed mostly at forest sites (Lee et al., 2008; Svenningsson et al., 2008; Suni et al., 2008). At a forest site in Abisko, Sweden, GRs which followed nighttime NPF events were 10-40 nm h<sup>-1</sup> which is on average four times higher than in our urban site study (Svenningsson et al., 2008). A rare observation of a nighttime NPF event at an urban site in Hong Kong was recently reported by Man et al. (2015). The event was associated with particle growth, and the GRs were higher than in our study, ranging from 7.1 to 39 nm h<sup>-1</sup>.”*

4. Section 3.1. I do not understand what the given CCN size range of 61-97 nm is supposed to mean here. The minimum size at which particles may as CCN depend on both supersaturation (S) and particles chemical composition. At high but realistic values of S even particles as small as 50 nm in diameter may act as CCN, whereas in most environments the minimum activation diameter is around 100 nm. There are several papers that discuss this topic.

Response:

That sentence has been reworded to:

Page 6, line 148

*‘The event was associated with particle growth higher than in our study, ranging from, 7.1 to 39 nm h<sup>-1</sup>.’*

5. Section 3.2, lines 145-147. The discussion is confusing. What is meant by "Diurnal model"? It seems that GAM results have somehow been applied here but the extremely short description of the model in section 2.5 makes it impossible for the reader to understand what has been really done.



Response:

The GAM model description has been revised in the section 2.5. Please see response to comment 4 of the reviewer 1.

In addition, the section 3.2 has been revised to:

Page 7, line 157–162

*‘GAM model fit to the diurnal GR data revealed that GR had the highest value when the event started during the day light (peaking around 10 am) while nighttime events were less frequent and had relatively lower GR (Figure 3). GAM model fit shows that the GR had the highest and lowest values in October and May, respectively (Figure 3). The temporal and diurnal trend analysis showed positive correlation between the GR and the solar radiation. The highest GR occurred during the periods with the highest solar radiation.’*

6. Section 3.3, line 160: the event-quenching ability of high CS is an interesting observation that has been seen in many other, but not in all, earlier studies. The recent paper by Salma et al. (2016, Atmos. Chem. Phys. 16, p. 8715) investigates this same issue in detail based on an urban-rural pair of measurement data sets. The authors could discuss the role of CS a bit more and cite a couple of relevant papers.

Response: The recent paper by Salma et al. (2016) has been added in the updated manuscript. To clarify the role of CS in NPF events, the following sentences have been added in the Section 3.3:

Page 8–9, line 178–181

*“Salma et al. (2016) observed particle quenching/shrinkage events in NPFs which were linked to atmospheric conditions in Budapest, Hungary. The study observed 25% decrease in CS concentration during shrinkage phase compared to growth phase. Similar findings were observed in Po Valley, Italy (Hamed et al., 2007).”*

7. There are some inconsistencies in the values GR discussed in the text and GR shown by figures 3 and 8. While there is one high value of GR at around 10 am in Figure 3, the GR in general tends to be a bit higher at night compared with daytime. This is supported by figure 8. In the text, it is stated that GR had the highest value in November, which is not supported by figure 3.

Response: The relevant description in section 3.2 has been modified as explained above in the response 5.

GAM model fit to the monthly GR data revealed their annual trend, as seen in Figure 3. The

following sentence has been added in section 3.2:

Page 7, line 159

*“GAM model fit shows that the GR had the highest and lowest values in October and May, respectively (Figure 3)”.*

Also we have mentioned the findings of overall median GRs during day light and nighttime events in the section 3.4 (Figure 8), as below:

Page 10, line 197

*“On average, GRs of nocturnal events were higher than those of day light events (Figure 8)”*

8. There seems to be a scale error in the values of CS in Figure 4. Should be the real values be three orders of magnitude lower?

Response: Authors would like to thank the reviewer for noticing this problem. Yes, there was an error in the programming code in R. We have reanalysed the whole data and calculated the CS and Q again. Figure 4 has been plotted again.

Language/other technical issues:

1. line 30: . . . urban areas

Response: Fixed

2. line 94: . . . onto particles

Response: Fixed

3. lines 98-99: incorrect way of citing papers. Should be ". . .using the method described in Svenningsson et al. (2008), Kulmala. . ."

Response: Fixed

4. lines 120-121: the ranges should be expressed either as "in the range of M-N" or "ranged between M and N". Please correct.

Response: Fixed

5. line 122, . . .Hemisphere, we observed. . .

Response: Fixed

6. line 147: . . .less GR?

Response: Fixed

Times of days should be expressed consistently in the paper. Now the time is given as an hour of day in many figures (which is OK), while expressions like 6pm (line 181) is used in the text.

Response: Fixed

7. Having no space between individual papers in the reference list makes the list a bit difficult to

read.

[Response: Fixed](#)

8. Finally, many of the figure captions contain too little information to understand the figure without search for more information from the main text. For example, the meaning of dots, lines and shadowed areas should be explained in the caption of Figure 3.

[Response: Please see the response to comment 8 of the reviewer 1.](#)

# 1 Nocturnal new particle formation events in urban environment

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8 **Abstract.** Few studies have investigated nocturnal new particle formation (NPF) events, and none of them were conducted  
9 in urban environments. Nocturnal NPF can potentially be a significant source of particles in urban areas, and studying them  
10 would improve our understanding of nucleation mechanisms. To address this, our study was conducted in an urban  
11 environment to investigate the physical characteristics of NPF events, with a particular focus on nocturnal events and the  
12 differences between them and the daytime NPF events. Particle number size distribution (PNSD) was measured for two  
13 weeks at each of 25 sites across an urban environment. A new method was proposed to automatically categorise NPF events  
14 based on growth rate (GR) in order to remove the bias related to the manual procedure. Out of 219 observed events, 118 and  
15 101 were categorised into class I and II respectively and 73 happened during the night time which included more than 30%  
16 of the events. GR and condensation sink (CS) were calculated and a slight negative relationship between GR and CS was  
17 observed. Nocturnal events displayed higher GRs compared to day time ones which were on average about 10%. Back  
18 trajectory analysis was also conducted to estimate the locations of the sources of day time and nocturnal precursors. While  
19 the precursors related to day time events originated from different locations with no particular pattern, back-trajectory  
20 analysis showed many air masses associated with nocturnal NPF events were transported from over the ocean. Overall,  
21 nocturnal NPF events were found to be a significant source of particles in the studied environment with different physical  
22 characteristics/sources compared to day time events.

## 23 1 Introduction

24 Atmospheric aerosols are known to affect atmospheric and climatic conditions (Solomon et al., 2007;McMurry et al., 2004)  
25 and also have an adverse effect on human health, as shown by numerous epidemiological studies (Pope II and Dockery,  
26 2006;Dockery, 2009;Dockery and Pope, 1994;Gauderman et al., 2007). Smaller particles, such as ultrafine particles (UFPs,  
27 with a diameter < 100 nm), can have greater adverse effect on human health as they can penetrate deeply into the pulmonary

28 system (WHO, 2005;Delfino et al., 2005;Li et al., 2003). New particle formation (NPF) events as a major source of UFPs  
29 have been observed in different types of locations around the globe including coastal, forested, mountainous, rural, and  
30 urban areas (Holmes, 2007;Kulmala et al., 2004;Kerminen et al., 2010). By elevating ambient particle number concentration  
31 (PNC), NPF events can potentially affect the climate and cause adverse effects on human health. Therefore, numerous  
32 studies have investigated this phenomenon and the relevant physical properties (e.g. growth rate (GR)) and their trends  
33 around the globe.

34 NPF events usually occur during midday periods, indicating the photochemical origin of this phenomenon (Kulmala and  
35 Kerminen, 2008), but in some locations NPF events have also been observed during nighttime (Lee et al.,  
36 2008;Svenningsson et al., 2008;Suni et al., 2008). Man et al. (2015) found that the ammonium nitrate and organics are  
37 responsible in the nocturnal particle growth in Hong Kong. Nocturnal NPF events under low condensation sinks have been  
38 observed in the upper troposphere and from ground-based measurements (Lee et al., 2008); in contrast to day time events no  
39 distinctive growth pattern was observed for these events (GR approximately  $0 \text{ nm h}^{-1}$ ). Eucalypt forest was found to be an  
40 active source of nocturnal NPF events as this phenomenon was observed in this environment in 32% of the analysed nights  
41 in a study conducted in New South Wales, Australia (Suni et al., 2008). Chamber experiments were also conducted under  
42 dark by varying conditions to reproduce the nocturnal events observed in the atmosphere, and it was found that in the  
43 presence of ozone, several monoterpenes such as delta-3-carene,  $\alpha$ -pinene, and limonene were able to produce NPF events  
44 (Ortega et al., 2012).

45 Nocturnal NPF events have been studied much less than daytime events as they were usually considered as exceptions  
46 because of the dominant theory that NPF events take place in the presence of solar radiation. However, as mentioned above,  
47 nocturnal NPF events were found to be significant sources of particles in some environments and needs to be further studied  
48 as understanding this phenomenon will enhance an overall knowledges of atmospheric nucleation mechanisms. In addition,  
49 no studies have ever reported the nocturnal events in urban environment, and there is no information available about the  
50 characteristics of this phenomenon in more polluted area.

51 This work was conducted in Australia where NPF events have been previously found to be a significant contributor to the  
52 total UFPs (Salimi et al., 2014b;Cheung et al., 2011). This study reports for the first time on the occurrence of nocturnal NPF  
53 events in urban environments and it aimed to determine their physical characteristics and compare them with day time NPF  
54 events.

## 55 2 Materials and Methods

### 56 2.1 Background

57 From October 2010 to August 2012, air quality measurements were performed for two consecutive weeks at each of 25  
58 randomly selected government primary schools within the Brisbane Metropolitan Area. All 25 sites were located between  
59 1.5 and 30 km from Brisbane city. Some sites were affected more by high traffic density than others. The average hourly  
60 traffic counts at the nearby roads to the sites were ranged between 44 to 1217 (Laiman et al., 2014). This study was  
61 conducted within the scope of the Ultrafine Particles from Traffic Emissions and Children's Health (UPTECH) project,  
62 which sought to determine the relationships between exposure to traffic-related UFPs and children's health. Further details  
63 regarding the UPTECH project and its study design can be found in our previous publication (Salimi et al., 2013). While this  
64 study has been performed within the framework of UPTECH project, the results are not limited to school environments and  
65 have urban implications.

### 66 2.2 Instrumentation, quality assurance, and data processing

67 TSI Scanning Mobility Particle Sizer (SMPS) was employed to measure the PNSD within in the size range of 9-414 nm with  
68 five minutes interval. TSI 3071 Differential Mobility Analyser (DMA) and a TSI 3782 water-based Condensation Particle  
69 Counter (CPC) formed the SMPS system. Sheath flow of 6.4 lpm was supplied by employing a diaphragm pump connecting  
70 to a critical orifice. Sheath air was dried and filtered using a silica gel dryer and a High Efficiency Particulate Air (HEPA)  
71 filter respectively.

72 The SMPS system was calibrated for size accuracy using monodisperse polystyrene latex (PSL) particles, with a nominal  
73 diameter of 100 nm, five times during the entire measurement campaign. The instruments passed all the tests with a  
74 maximum error of 3.5% from the nominal diameter, as recommended in (Wiedensohler et al., 2012). The following quality  
75 assurance actions were performed at each regular site visit. Sheath and aerosol flow rate of the SMPS system was measured  
76 using a bubble flow meter. The system was zero checked by connecting the HEPA filter to the inlet of the system. Particle  
77 loss due to diffusion was corrected using the formula derived for the laminar flow regime (Hinds, 1999). Particle loss inside  
78 the bipolar charger and DMA was corrected using an equivalent tube length as suggested in (Karlsson and Martinsson,  
79 2003;Covert et al., 1997).

## 80 2.3 New particle formation identification and classification

81 Surface plots of all the measured PNSD data were scanned visually for NPF events as recommended by Dal Maso et al.  
82 (2005). NPF events have been categorised into two main groups (Classes I and II) based on their GR. As discussed by Dal  
83 Maso et al. (2005), class I events are the ones of which the growth can be determined with high confidence, whereas, the  
84 growth of particles in the class II events are uncertain. The criteria described in the literature for identification of these types  
85 of events from one another are purely visual and consequently subjective. To address this issue, a simple statistical method  
86 was developed in this study. After identifying NPF events and the period for which it was observed, a linear regression  
87 model was fit to calculate the growth rate from the time series of count median diameter (CMD) (Creamean et al., 2011).  
88 The start and end time of the NPF events were identified visually from the surface plots of PNSD data and then incorporated  
89 in the regression analysis to calculate the growth rate. The linear regression model for each NPF event was thus:

$$\log CMD_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 t_i + \varepsilon_i$$

90 where,  $\beta_0$  is the intercept,  $\beta_1$  is the growth rate of the CMD and the residuals,  $\varepsilon_i$ , are independent, identically distributed  
91 white noise.

92 For each NPF event, growth rate (GR) and its related 95% confidence interval (CI) were calculated. When the CI's were  
93 positive, they were classified as Class I, and the rest of events were classified as Class II.

94 All statistical analysis was conducted in R (R Development Core Team, 2010).

## 95 2.4 Condensation sink

96 Condensation sink (CS) is a measure of the surface area available on to particles and determines the rate of condensation of  
97 gaseous molecules on particles. CS can be calculated from particle number size distribution data, and has been used in the  
98 literature to estimate the concentrations and source rates of condensable vapours during the NPF events (Kulmala et al.,  
99 2005). CS was calculated using the methods available in the literature (Pirjola et al., 1999; Lehtinen et al., 2003; Willeke,  
100 1976; Bae et al., 2010; Salimi et al., 2014a).

## 101 2.5 Kernel density estimation and generalised additive modelling

102 Kernel density function, also termed as Kernel smoothing, is a non-parametric method to estimate the probability density  
103 function of a variable (Silverman, 1986). Kernel smoothing is a very effective approach of visualising data structures  
104 without incorporating parametric model (Wand and Jones, 1994). In this study, Kernel smoothing estimated the overall  
105 diurnal trend of the NPF events over the study period in conjunction with the histogram plot. We applied 'ggplot2' package

in R programming language to plot smooth Kernel density trend of NPF events ([www.ggplot2.org](http://www.ggplot2.org)). The relationship between the variables were analysed using Generalised Additive Modelling (GAM) (Wood, 2003). The mathematical framework in GAM is similar to the Generalized Linear Model (GLM); however, it replaces the linear function with non-parametric smoothers (e.g., penalised splines), which allow for flexible estimation of non-linear function. GAMs were found more appropriate than GLMs in estimating non-linear effect of response variables in air quality study (Clifford et al., 2011). One explanatory variable was used in each model. Hour, month, condensation sink, and production rate of the condensable vapor were used as the explanatory variables in each model.

## 2.6 Back trajectory analysis

In order to investigate the possible sources of the NPF events, back trajectory analysis were conducted for all the Class I events. 24-hour air mass back trajectory was calculated using the HYSPLIT model to observe the passage of air before the start of nucleation (Draxler and Rolph, 2003).

## 3 Results and discussion

### 3.1 New particle formation events

New particle formation events were identified by visually scanning all the surface plots and were categorised into two groups (Classes I and II) as described in Materials and Methods. Figure 1 illustrates the calculated GRs and their 95% confidence intervals, events that their confidence interval contains only positive values were categorised as class I, while the rest were classified as class II events. Figure 2 shows the particles evolutions during typical Class I, where a banana shaped growth of particles is visible, and Class II events, where burst of particles in nucleation size occurs without clear further growth.

219 events were observed in 285 days of measurements, of which 118 and 101 were categorised into Classes I and II, respectively. The frequency of NPF events were significantly higher than previous observations in the same environment (Mejía et al., 2008; Cheung et al., 2011) and was aligned with the results of the cluster analysis in Salimi et al. (2014b). In our study, the apportionments of the daytime and nighttime NPF events were 66.66% and 33.33%, respectively. In this study, overall 54.3% NPF events were class I, consisting of 34.2% daytime events and 20.1% nighttime events. GRs were ranged between 0.015 – 13.6 ( $\text{nm h}^{-1}$ ) during daytime and 0.25 – 11.5 ( $\text{nm h}^{-1}$ ) during nighttime.

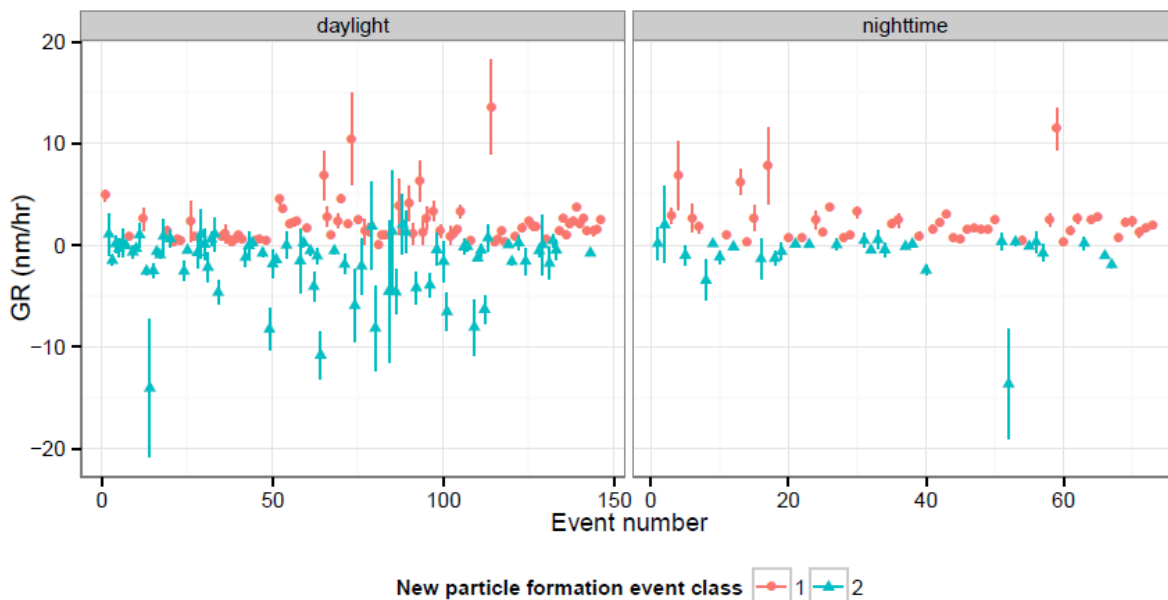
In our previous investigations in subtropical urban and coastal environments in the Southern Hemisphere, we observed daytime NPF events (Cheung et al., 2011; Mejía and Morawska, 2009; Salimi et al., 2014a). Day light NPF event average GRs obtained by author of an earlier study conducted also in Brisbane (Cheung et al., 2011), were found to be of 4.6  $\text{nmh}^{-1}$  (range of 1.79 to 7.78  $\text{nm h}^{-1}$ ), which is one order of magnitude higher than in this study (2.4  $\text{nm h}^{-1}$ ). Cheung et al. (2011)



134 calculated GRs based on a long-term measurement data at a single site; however this study used data from 25 sites to  
 135 calculate average GRs and therefore GRs in this study are expected to be more representative of the area of the study than  
 136 the former one.

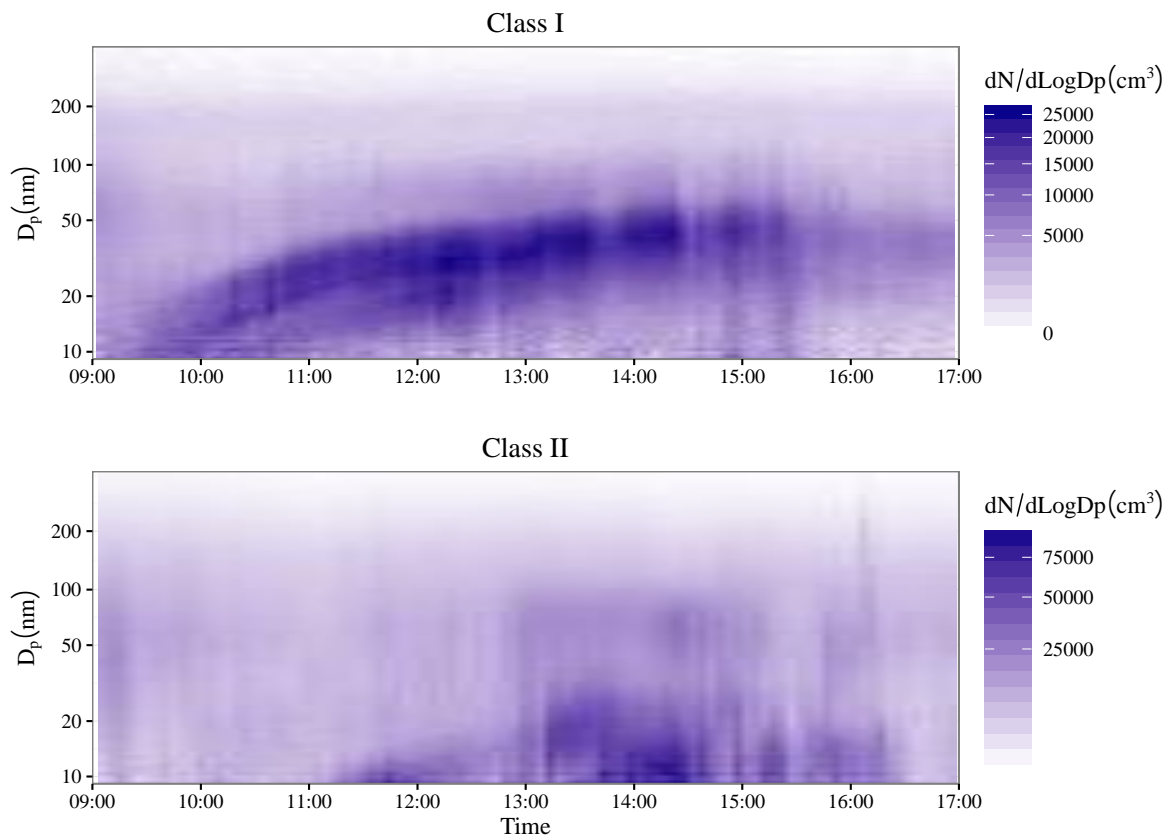
137 Studies from the other places in the world show higher GRs in some cases but also similar to this study. Similarly to our  
 138 study, day light NPF events were also observed frequently (40% of all observations) in urban locations in Beijing, China,  
 139 during periods of low relative humidity and peak solar radiation, with the average GRs of 1.8 and 4.4 nm h<sup>-1</sup> during clean  
 140 and polluted NPF events, respectively (Wu et al., 2007). In a recent study in North China Plain, Shen et al. (2016) found day  
 141 light NPF event average GRs of 1.2 nm h<sup>-1</sup> higher than in this study. A 10-day campaign in a Japanese forest showed  
 142 midday NPFs with the mean particle GR of 9.2 nm h<sup>-1</sup>, ranged between 5 and 15.7 nm h<sup>-1</sup>, which is approximately four times  
 143 higher than our study (Han et al., 2013). However, in a long-term (1996-2004) measurement campaign at four Boreal forest,  
 144 Finland, Dal Maso et al. (2007) recorded the average GRs of 3.0 nm h<sup>-1</sup> (range of 0.5 –15.1 nm h<sup>-1</sup>), which is similar to this  
 145 in our study. However, nighttime NPFs were observed mostly at forest sites (Lee et al., 2008; Svenningsson et al., 2008; Suni  
 146 et al., 2008). At a forest site in Abisko, Sweden, GRs which followed nighttime NPF events were 10-40 nm h<sup>-1</sup> which is on  
 147 average four times higher than in our urban site study (Svenningsson et al., 2008). A rare observation of a nighttime NPF  
 148 event at an urban site in Hong Kong was recently reported by Man et al. (2015). The event was associated with particle  
 149 growth, and the GRs were higher than in our study, ranging from 7.1 to 39 nm h<sup>-1</sup>.

150



151

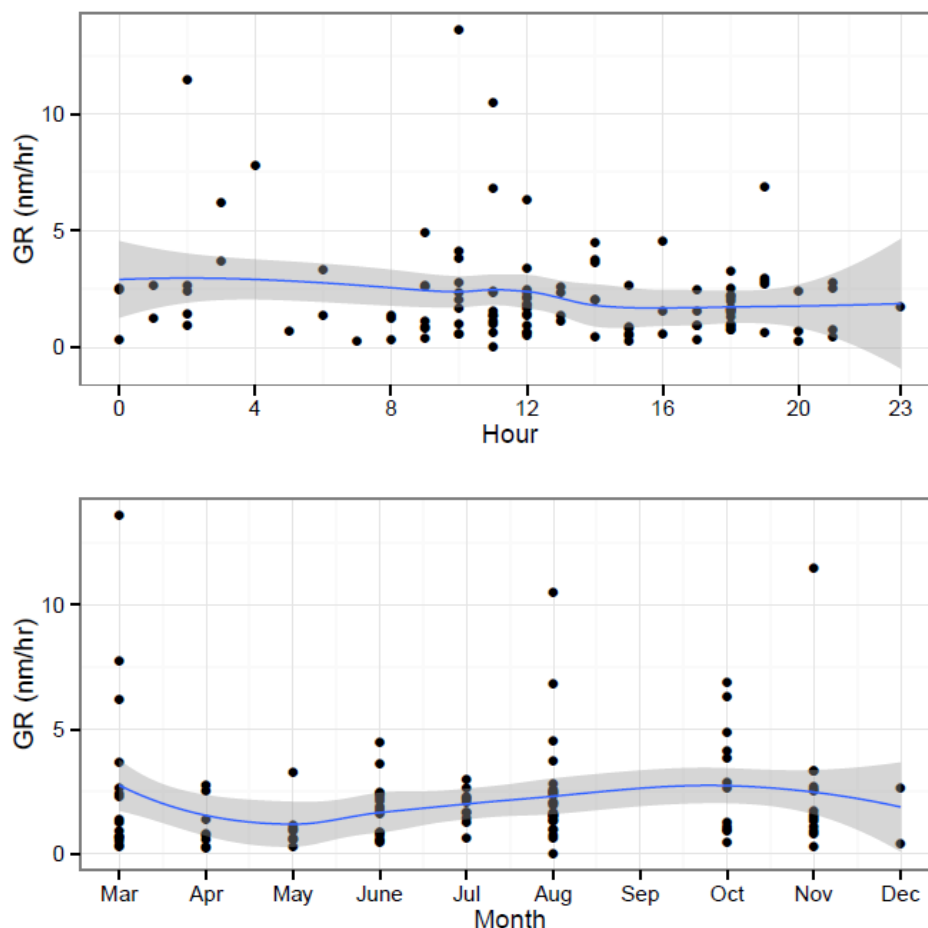
152 **Figure 1: Calculated growth rate (GR) of day light and nighttime NPF events with their 95% confidence interval.**



**Figure 2: Examples of the observed Class I and Class II NPF events.  $D_p$  is particle diameter and the colour of the image represent measured concentrations at each time.**

### 3.2 Diurnal and temporal variation of newly formed particle growth rate

Temporal trends of GRs related to class I events were analysed using GAM as described in section 2. GAM model fit to the diurnal GR data revealed that GR had the highest value when the event started during the day light (peaking around 10 am) while nighttime events were less frequent and had relatively lower GR (Figure 3). GAM model fit shows that the GR had the highest and lowest values in October and May, respectively (Figure 3). The temporal and diurnal trend analysis showed positive correlation between the GR and the solar radiation. The highest GR occurred during the periods with the highest solar radiation.

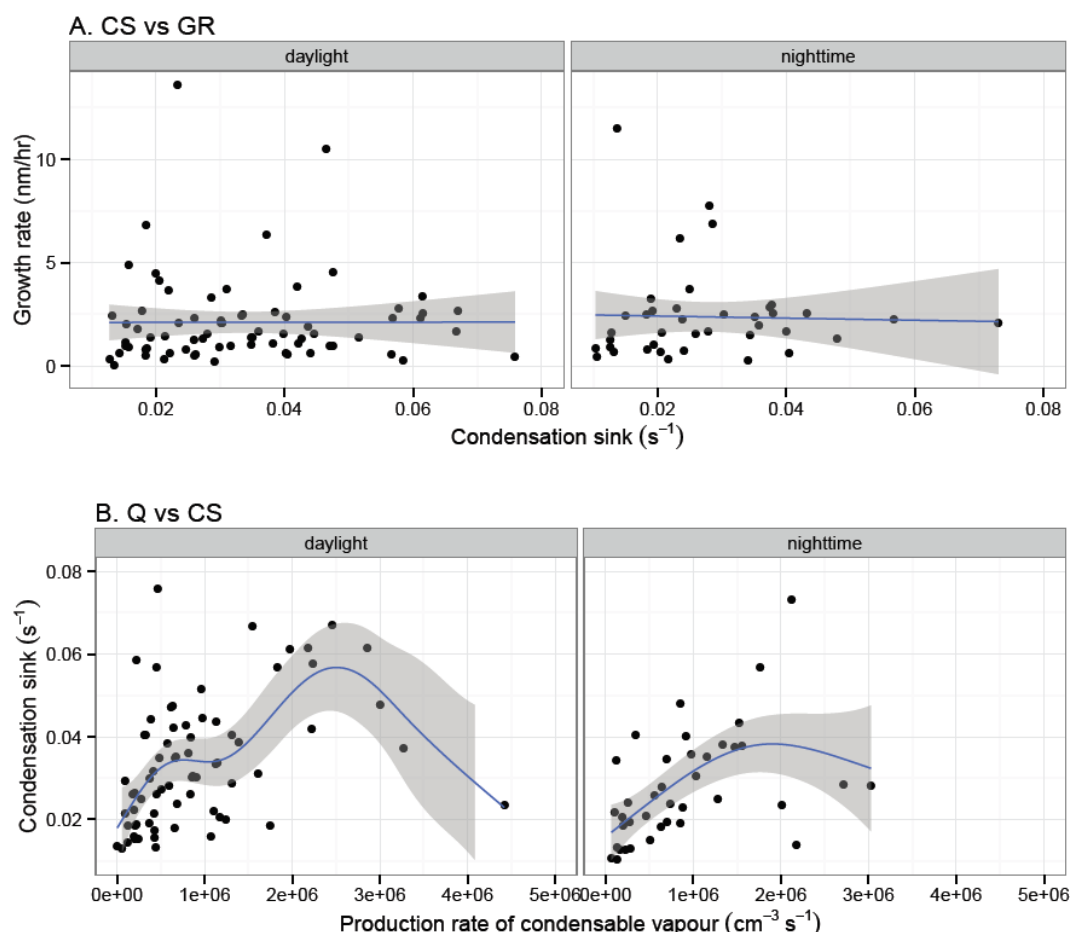


**Figure 3: Diurnal (0 h to 23 h) and annual (March to December) trend in Growth Rate. NPF events were not observed in January and February. The line represents smoothed trend modelled with GAM and the shaded region represents 95% confidence interval.**

### 3.3 Condensation sink and growth rate

The aerosol condensation sink (CS) is an important parameter that determines how fast molecules will condense onto pre-existing aerosols (Dal Maso et al., 2002; Pirjola et al., 1999; Kulmala et al., 2005). In this study, the calculated CS values were averaged from the values from the period half an hour before the start of the NPF events; their relationship with the GR was analysed using a GAM. GR is expected to be negatively correlated with CS as a higher surface area of particles leads to higher condensation of vapour on pre-existing particles and consequently less GR (Hamed et al., 2007; Kulmala et al., 2005). In this study, a weak negative correlation between CS and GR was observed during both day time and nighttime events and the uncertainties in GRs were observed in higher CS (Figure 4). However, a positive relationship between the GR and CS, which is not clearly observed in this study, denotes the event-quenching ability of the high CS. Svenningsson et al. (2008) concluded that high CS only allows events with high formation rate and GR to be observed as the newly formed particles in weaker events would be scavenged by pre-existing particles. The explanation is only applicable to a high GR in days with high CS as it cannot justify the low GR in the days with low CS (Svenningsson et al., 2008). Salma et al. (2016) observed

179 particle quenching/shrinkage events in NPFs which were linked to atmospheric conditions in Budapest, Hungary. The study  
 180 observed 25% decrease in CS concentration during shrinkage phase compared to growth phase. Similar findings were  
 181 observed in Po Valley, Italy (Hamed et al., 2007). To investigate this further, the relationship between the calculated vapour  
 182 production rate and the CS during both day and nighttime events was modelled using GAM (Figure 4). The condensable  
 183 vapour concentration was significantly lower during night time than daytime events, indicating limited source of  
 184 condensable vapour production during night.

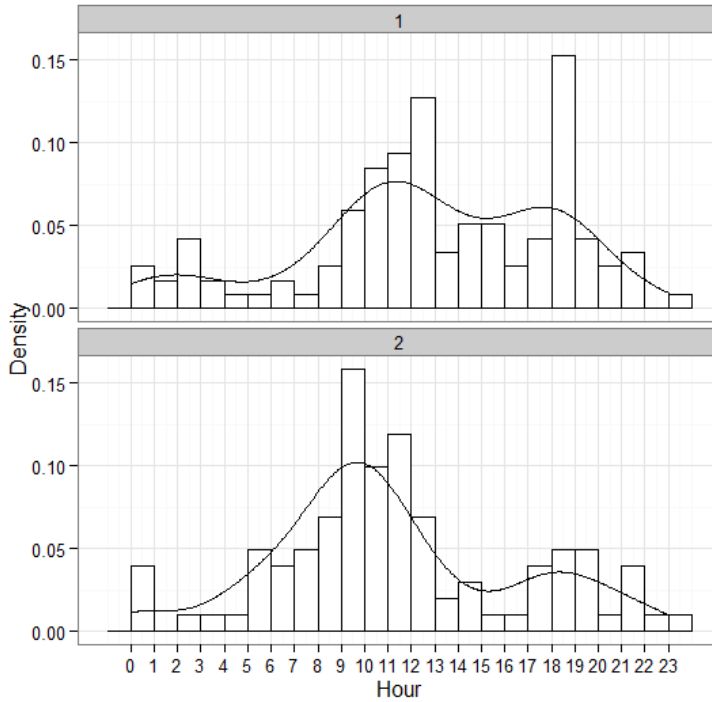


185  
 186 **Figure 4: Relationships between growth rate (GR), condensation sink (CS) and production rate of condensable vapour (Q) for**  
 187 **Class I NPFs during day light and nighttime. The line represents smoothed trend modelled with GAM and the shaded region**  
 188 **represents 95% confidence interval.**

### 189 3.4 Temporal and diurnal variation of the events

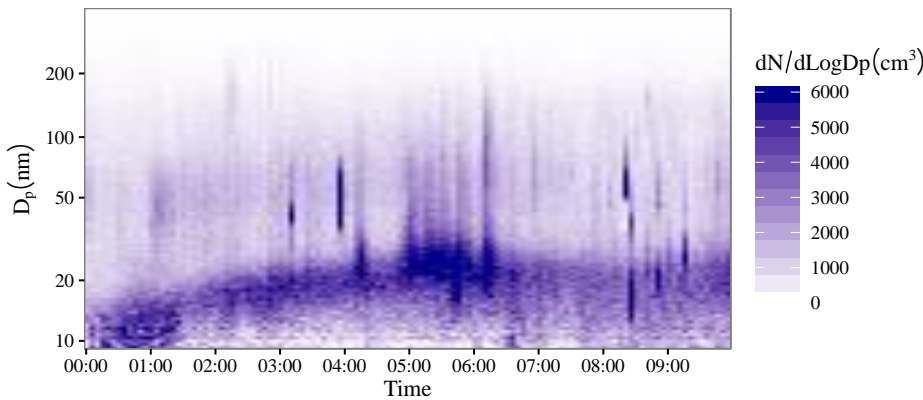
190 The relative frequency of the times at which NPF events occur indicate that while the bulk of the NPF events occur during  
 191 the midday period (10:00-13:00), there are a number of Class I NPF events which occurred between 18:00 and 19:00 (Figure  
 192 5).

193 To investigate the unusual nocturnal events, data were divided into nighttime and daylight based on the start of the events  
 194 using the accurate local sunrise and sunset time. Out of 219 events, 73 events happened during the night time. Typical  
 195 “banana shape” in the PNSD surface plot as well as the sudden burst of newly formed particles was observed during the  
 196 night time events which are in contrast with the literature where only Class II events were observed (Lee et al., 2008) (Figure  
 197 6). Nocturnal events occurred mostly in March and the least in December (Figure 7). On average, GRs of nocturnal events  
 198 were higher than those of day time events (Figure 8).



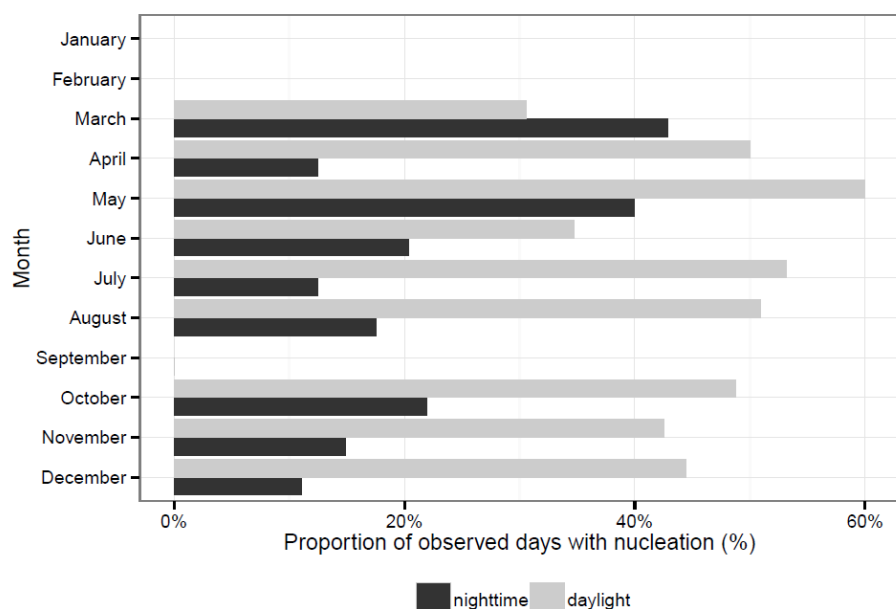
199

200 **Figure 5: Diurnal trend of Class I and II NPF events with their Kernel density estimation.**

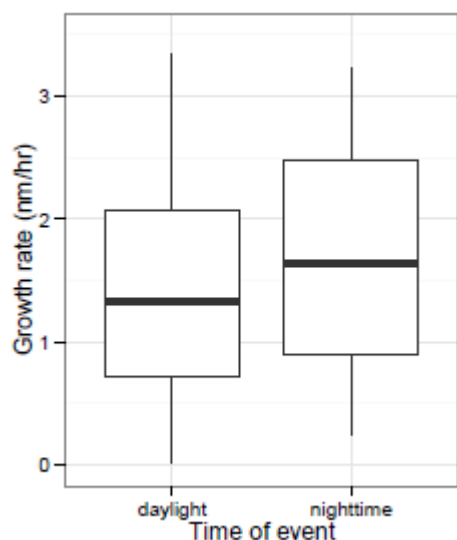


201

202 **Figure 6: An example of a banana shaped night time event.  $D_p$  is particle diameter and the colour of the image represent**  
 203 **measured concentrations at each time.**



**Figure 7: Temporal trend of the night time events. Nucleation events were not observed in January, February, and September.**



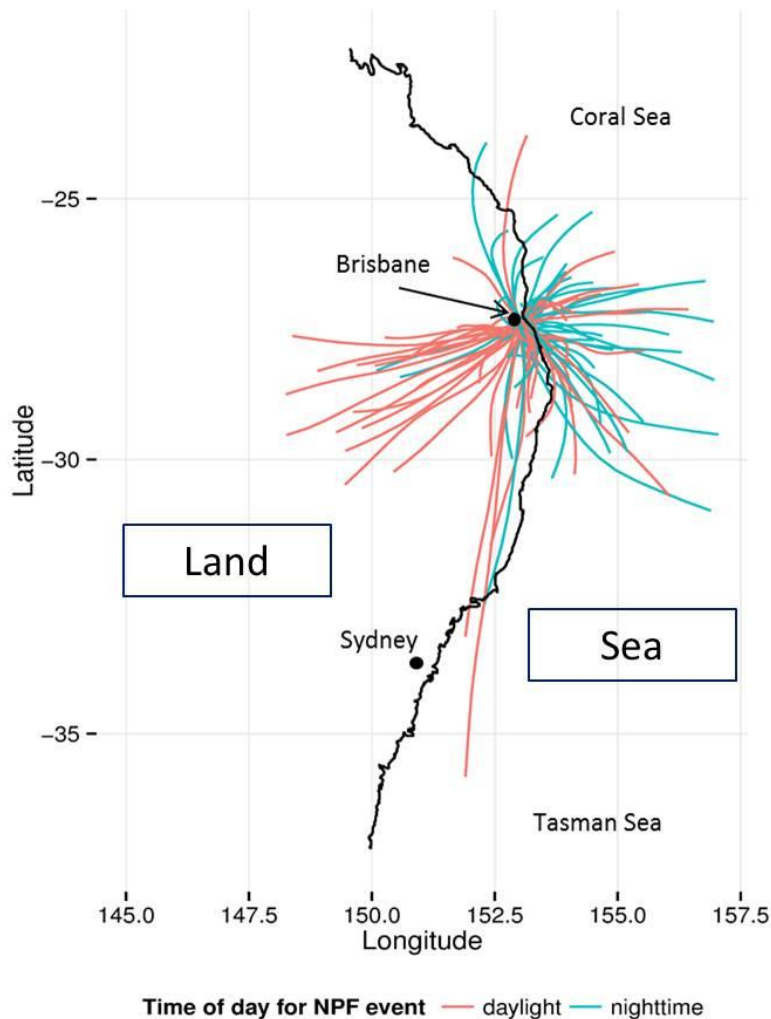
**Figure 8: Growth rate in day light and night time nucleation events.**

### 3.5 Source of the events

Air mass back trajectory analyses were conducted to investigate the possible sources of both day time and night time type 1 NPF events, for the 24 hours preceding the start of each event (Figure 9). The sources' locations related to daytime events do not form a specific cluster and air masses coming from different locations seem to carry the required precursors for the daytime events. Air mass origin is found to be an influencing factor to aerosol mass concentration, chemical composition, and daytime NPF events in Vienna, Austria, which agrees with our findings (Wonaschutz et al., 2015). In a recent investigation in Korea, Kim et al. (2016) found a link between daytime NPF events and continental air mass. The

215 relationship between nighttime NPFs and origin of air masses were not studied in those researches due to limited occurrences  
216 of NPF events at night.

217 Figure 9 shows that the nighttime events were linked to air masses from the East, North-East and South-East (over the  
218 ocean), pointing out the location of the sources of the precursors. Biogenic dimethylsulfide (DMS) compounds were  
219 observed over the sea surface across the globe, with a higher quantities in the coral reef regions (Deschaseaux et al.,  
220 2015;Kettle et al., 1999). With the presence of DMS, sulphur containing aerosols were observed at night in the coastal  
221 regions in California, USA (Gaston et al., 2015). Biogenic DMS were found as a precursor of NPF in a coastal region in  
222 Antarctica (Yu and Luo, 2010). In a recent study, Swan et al. (2016) found that emissions from coral and reef seawater are  
223 potential sources of secondary aerosol in the Great Barrier Reef, Queensland, Australia. It is therefore possible that the  
224 nighttime NPF identified in our study take their origin from the air mass containing biogenic oceanic precursors. To confirm  
225 this, it is recommended that future studies would focus on comprehensive chemical characterisation of the air masses  
226 impacting on the urban study areas.



227  
228 **Figure 9: 24-hr HYSPLIT back trajectory analysis for day time and night time Class I events.**

#### 229 4. Conclusion

230 PNSD was measured at 25 sites within an urban environment and 219 NPF events were observed in 285 days of  
231 measurement. A new method for classification of the events was proposed and applied successfully to the data, 118 and 169  
232 of the events were categorised into class I and II respectively. Nocturnal NPF events were found to account for a surprisingly  
233 high proportion (30%) of the total events. Unlike the nocturnal events observed in the literature (Lee et al., 2008), both Class  
234 I “banana shape” and the sudden burst of newly formed particles with no growth (Class II) were observed in the PNSD  
235 surface plot of the nocturnal events. These events occurred most commonly in March and were found to have higher GR  
236 compared to daytime ones. CS was calculated and averaged in the period of half an hour before the start of the events, and  
237 displayed a weak negative correlation with the GR during both day and nighttime events. In addition, back trajectory  
238 analysis revealed that precursors to NPF are being blown in to the Brisbane Metropolitan Area on the East, North-East and  
239 South-Easterly, while the sources of precursors related to day time events did not appear to display any spatial pattern. This  
240 indicates that nocturnal NPF events may have different precursors than day time nucleation. Overall, this study found  
241 nocturnal NPF events were a significant source of ultrafine particles in an urban environment, however, more studies need to  
242 be undertaken in order to determine the chemical characterisation of the night time events and the chemical composition of  
243 their precursors.

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