



The role of H₂SO₄-NH₃ anion clusters in ion-induced aerosol nucleation mechanisms in the boreal forest

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Abstract

New particle formation (NPF) provides a large source of atmospheric aerosols, which affect the climate and human health. Ion-induced nucleation (IIN) has been discovered as an important pathway of forming particles within recent chamber studies, however, atmospheric investigation remains incomplete. For this study, we investigated the air anion compositions in the boreal forest in Southern Finland for 3 consecutive springs, with a special focus on H₂SO₄-NH₃ anion clusters. We found that the ratio between the concentrations of highly oxygenated organic molecules (HOMs) and H₂SO₄ controlled the appearance of H₂SO₄-NH₃ clusters ($\#S > 3$): All such clusters were observed when $[HOM]/[H_2SO_4]$ was smaller than 30. The number of H₂SO₄ molecules in the largest observable cluster correlated with the probability of ion-induced nucleation (IIN) occurrence, which reached almost 100 % when the largest observable cluster contained 6 or more H₂SO₄ molecules. During selected cases when the time evolution of H₂SO₄-NH₃ clusters could be tracked, the calculated ion growth rates exhibited a good agreement across measurement methods and cluster (particle) sizes. In these cases, H₂SO₄-NH₃ clusters alone could explain ion growth up to 3 nm (mobility diameter). IIN events also occurred in the absence of H₂SO₄-NH₃, implying that also other NPF mechanisms prevail at this site, most likely involving HOMs. It seems that H₂SO₄ and HOMs both affect the occurrence of an IIN event, but their ratio ($[HOMs]/[H_2SO_4]$) defines the primary mechanism of the event. Since



36 that ratio is strongly influenced by solar radiation and temperature, IIN mechanism ought to vary
37 depending on conditions and seasons.

38

39 1 Introduction

40 Atmospheric aerosol particles are known to influence human health and the climate (Heal et al., 2012;
41 Stocker et al., 2013). New particle formation (NPF) from gas-phase precursors contributes to a major
42 fraction of the global cloud condensation nuclei population (Merikanto et al., 2009; Kerminen et al.,
43 2012; Gordon et al., 2017), and provides an important source of particulate air pollutants in many
44 urban environments (Guo et al., 2014).

45 Although NPF is an abundant phenomenon and has been observed in different places around the
46 globe within the boundary layer (Kulmala et al., 2004), the detailed mechanisms at each location may
47 differ and are still largely unknown. Experiments done in the CLOUD chamber (Cosmic Leaving
48 Outside Droplets) at CERN explored different NPF mechanisms on molecular level, including
49 sulfuric acid (H_2SO_4) and ammonia (NH_3) nucleation (Kirkby et al., 2011), H_2SO_4 and dimethylamine
50 (DMA) nucleation (Almeida et al., 2013), and pure biogenic nucleation (Kirkby et al., 2016) from
51 highly oxygenated organic molecules (HOMs) (Ehn et al., 2014). While chamber experiments can
52 mimic some properties of ambient observations (Schobesberger et al., 2013), it is still ambiguous to
53 what extent these chamber findings can be applied to understand NPF in the more complex
54 atmosphere, mostly due to the challenges in atmospheric measurements and characterization of the
55 nucleating species.

56 In the aforementioned chamber studies, ions have been shown to play a crucial role in enhancing new
57 particle formation, which is known as the ion-induced nucleation (IIN). The importance of IIN varies
58 significantly depending on the concentration and composition of the ion species, e.g., being negligible
59 in the H_2SO_4 -DMA system (Almeida et al., 2013), moderate in the H_2SO_4 - NH_3 system (Kirkby et al.,
60 2011) and dominating in the pure HOMs system (Kirkby et al., 2016). The recently developed
61 atmospheric-pressure-interface time-of-flight mass spectrometer (APi-TOF) (Junninen et al., 2010)
62 has been used for measuring ion composition at the SMEAR II station in Hyytiälä since 2009. Ehn et
63 al., (2010) have first shown that the negative ion population varied significantly, with H_2SO_4 clusters
64 dominating during the day and HOM-NO_3^- clusters during the night. This variation was further
65 studied by Bianchi et al., (2017), who grouped HOM-containing ions by separating the HOMs into
66 non-nitrate- and nitrate-containing species as well as into ion adducts with HSO_4^- or NO_3^- (Bianchi et
67 al., 2017). In the night time, HOMs may form negatively charged clusters containing up to 40 carbons
68 (Bianchi et al., 2017; Frege et al., 2018). In the daytime, H_2SO_4 and H_2SO_4 - NH_3 clusters appear to



69 be the most prominent negative ions (Schobesberger et al., 2015; Schobesberger et al., 2013).
 70 However, they have not yet been thoroughly studied regarding their appearance and their plausible
 71 links to atmospheric IIN.
 72 Although the fractional contribution of IIN to the total nucleation rate ($J_{\text{IIN}}/J_{\text{total}}$) turns out to be minor
 73 in Hyytiälä (Kulmala et al., 2013, Manninen et al. 2010), its importance ought to vary along with the
 74 temporal change in precursor vapor composition and concentration, which are reflected in the ion
 75 compositions. This study aims to connect our current understandings of the contribution of IIN and
 76 of ion composition to NPF, with a special focus on the fate of $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-NH}_3$ clusters. We also extend
 77 our analysis to ions other than H_2SO_4 clusters, i.e., HOMs, and identify their role in IIN, in addition
 78 to other measured parameters on site. Finally, this study confirms the consistency between chamber
 79 findings and atmospheric observations, even though it seems that at least two separate mechanisms
 80 are alternatively controlling the IIN in Hyytiälä.

81

82 2 Materials and Methods

83 For this study, we used data collected at the Station for Measuring Forest Ecosystem-Atmospheric
 84 Relations (SMEAR II station), in Hyytiälä, Southern Finland (Hari and Kulmala, 2005). In this study,
 85 our data sets were obtained from intensive campaigns in 3 consecutive springs, 2011 – 2013. The
 86 exact time periods of the APi-TOF measurements are 22nd of March until 24th of May 2011, 31st
 87 March until 28th of April 2012, and 7th April until 8th of June 2013. For 134 days we were able to
 88 extend our analysis to include: i) ion composition and chemical characterization using the APi-TOF
 89 (Junninen et al., 2010), ii) particle and ion number size distribution using NAIS (e.g., Mirme and
 90 Mirme 2013), iii) concentrations of H_2SO_4 and HOMs measured by the chemical ionization
 91 atmospheric-pressure-interface time-of-flight mass spectrometer (CI-APi-TOF see, e.g., Jokinen et
 92 al., 2012; Ehn et al., 2014; Yan et al., 2016), and iv) other relevant parameters, e.g., NH_3 (Makkonen
 93 et al., 2014), temperature and cloudiness (Dada et al., 2017).

94 2.1 Measurement of atmospheric ions

95 The composition of atmospheric anions was measured using the atmospheric-pressure-interface time-
 96 of-flight mass spectrometer (APi-TOF) (Junninen et al., 2010). The instrument was situated inside a
 97 container in the forest, direct sampling the air outside. To minimize the sampling losses, we firstly
 98 drew the air at a larger flow rate within a wide tube (40 mm inner diameter), and another 30-cm-long
 99 coaxial tube (10 mm outer diameter and 8 mm inner diameter) inside the wider one was used to draw
 100 5 L/min towards the APi-TOF, 0.8 L/min out of which will enter through the pinhole. After entering



the pinhole, the ions are focused and guided through two quadrupoles and one ion lens, and finally and detected by the time-of-flight mass spectrometer.

Different from the commonly used chemical-ionization mass spectrometer (CIMS), the APi-TOF does not do any ionization, so it only measures the naturally charged ions in the sample. In the atmosphere, the ion composition is affected by the proton affinity of the species: Molecules with the lowest proton affinity are more likely to lose the proton and thus become negatively charged after colliding many times with other species; similarly, molecules with the highest proton affinity would probably become positively charged ions. In addition to the proton affinity, the neutral concentration also plays a role in determining the ion composition by affecting the collision frequency. Due to the limited ionization rate in the atmosphere, there is always a competition between different species in taking the charges. For example, the H_2SO_4 often dominates the daytime spectrum in the daytime when it is abundant, while in the night-time nitrate ions and its cluster with HOMs are always the prominent due to the rare chance to collide with the H_2SO_4 . Since the signal strength of an ion in APi-TOF depends not only on the abundance of the respective neutral molecules, but also on the availability of other charge-competing species, it is very important to note that APi-TOF can not quantify the neutral species.

One important virtue of APi-TOF is that it does not introduce extra energy during sampling, which ensures the sample is least affected when comparing to other measurement techniques such as CIMS. although fragmentation cannot be fully avoided inside the instruments (Schobesberger et al., 2013). Because of this, it is a best instrument to directly measure the composition of weakly bonded clusters in the atmosphere.

The APi-TOF data were processed with the tofTools package (version 6.08) (Junninen et al., 2010). Since the ion signal in APi-TOF is usually weak, a 5-hour integration time was used, after which the signals of $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-NH}_3$ clusters and HOMs were fitted (See Fig.1). For HOM signals, we used the same peaks reported in Bianchi et al., (2017), and the total signal of HOM ions is the sum of all identified HOMs.

It should also be mentioned that, the voltage tuning of the instrument was not the same in these years we analyzed, which led to differences in the ion transmission efficiency function. For example, we noticed that in 2011, the largest $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-NH}_3$ clusters contained 6 clusters, whereas more than 10 H_2SO_4 in the clusters were observed in other years. This was very likely due to the very low ion transmission in the mass range larger than about 700 Th. However, this should not affect our results and conclusions, because clusters consisting of 6 H_2SO_4 molecules had little difference from larger clusters in affecting the IIN (Fig. 3).

134 2.2 Measurement of H₂SO₄ and HOMs

135 The concentrations of H₂SO₄ and HOMs were measured by the chemical ionization atmospheric-
136 pressure-interface time-of-flight mass spectrometer (CI-API-TOF). The details of the quantification
137 method for H₂SO₄ can be found in Jokinen et al., (2012) and for HOMs in Kirkby et al., 2016. For all
138 data, we applied the same calibration coefficient (1.89×10^{10} 1/cm³) reported by Jokinen et al., (2012).
139 Although the tunings of CI-API-TOF were not exactly the same during the measurement period
140 included in this study, no systematic difference was found in the concentrations of H₂SO₄ and HOMs
141 from different years.

142 2.3 Measurements of ion and particle size distribution

143 The mobility distribution of charged particles and air ions in the range 3.2-0.0013 cm²V⁻¹s⁻¹
144 (corresponding to mobility diameter 0.8 – 42 nm) were measured together with the size distribution
145 of total particles in the range ~2.5 - 42 nm using a neutral cluster and air ion spectrometer (NAIS,
146 Airel Ltd., (Mirme and Mirme, 2013)). The instrument has two identical differential mobility
147 analyzers (DMA) which allow for the simultaneous monitoring of positive and negative ions. In order
148 to minimize the diffusion losses in the sampling lines, each analyzer has a sample flow rate of 30 L
149 min⁻¹ and a sheath flow rate of 60 L min⁻¹. In “particle mode”, when measuring total particle
150 concentration, neutral particles are charged by ions produced from a corona discharge in a “pre-
151 charging” unit before they are detected in the DMAs. The charging ions used in this process were
152 previously reported to influence the total particle concentrations below ~2 nm (Asmi et al., 2008;
153 Manninen et al., 2010); for that reason, only the particle concentrations above 2.5 nm were used in
154 the present work. Also, each measurement cycle, i.e. 2 min in ion mode and 2 min in particle mode,
155 is followed by an offset measurement, during which the background signal of the instrument is
156 determined and then subtracted from measured ion and particle concentrations. In addition, particle
157 size distributions between 3 and 990 nm were measured with a differential mobility particle sizer
158 (DMPS) described in details in Aalto et al., (2001). Based on earlier work by Kulmala et al., (2001),
159 this data were used to calculate the condensation sink (CS), which represents the rate of loss of
160 condensing vapors on pre-existing particles.

161 2.4 Measurement of Meteorological parameter

162 The meteorological variables used as supporting data in the present work were measured on a mast,
163 all with a time resolution of 1 min. In specific, temperature and relative humidity were measured at
164 16.8 m using a PT-100 sensor and relative humidity sensors (Rotronic Hygromet MP102H with
165 Hygroclip HC2-S3, Rotronic AG, Bassersdorf, Switzerland), respectively. Global radiation was
166 measured at 18 m with a pyranometer (Middleton Solar SK08, Middleton Solar, Yarraville,



Australia), and further used to calculate the cloudiness parameter, as done previously by Dada et al., (2017, and references therein). This parameter is defined as the ratio of measured global radiation to theoretical global irradiance, so that parameter values < 0.3 correspond to a complete cloud coverage, while values > 0.7 are representative of clear sky conditions.

2.5 Calculation of particle formation rates and growth rates

The formation rates of 2.5 nm ions ($J_{2.5}^{+/-}$) and particles ($J_{2.5}$) were calculated using NAIS according to Kulmala et al. (2012). In particular, $J_{2.5}$ was calculated using Eq. 1:

$$J_{2.5} = \frac{dN_{2.5-3.5}}{dt} + CoagS_{2.5} \times N_{2.5-3.5} + \frac{1}{lnm} GR_{1.5-3} \times N_{2.5-3.5} \quad \text{Eq. 1}$$

where $N_{2.5-3.5}$ is the particle concentration between 2.5 and 3.5 nm measured with the NAIS in particle mode, $CoagS_{2.5}$ is the coagulation sink of 2.5 nm particles derived from DMPS measurements and $GR_{1.5-3}$ is the particle growth rate calculated from NAIS measurements in ion mode. The calculation of charged formation rates includes two additional terms to account for the loss of 2.5 – 3.5 nm ions due to their recombination with sub-3.5 nm ions of the opposite polarity (fourth term of Eq. S2) and the gain of ions caused by the attachment of sub-2.5 nm ions on 2.5-3.5 nm neutral clusters (fifth term of Eq. 2):

$$J_{2.5}^{\pm} = \frac{dN_{2.5-3.5}^{\pm}}{dt} + CoagS_{2.5} \times N_{2.5-3.5}^{\pm} + \frac{1}{lnm} GR_{1.5-3} \times N_{2.5-3.5}^{\pm} + \alpha \times N_{2.5-3.5}^{\pm} N_{<3.5}^{\mp} - \beta \times N_{2.5-3.5}^{\pm} N_{<2.5}^{\pm} \quad \text{Eq. S2}$$

where $N_{2.5-3.5}^{\pm}$ is the concentration of positive or negative ions between 2.5 and 3.5 nm, $N_{<2.5}^{\pm}$ is the concentration of sub-2.5 nm ions of the same polarity and $N_{<3.5}^{\mp}$ is the concentration of sub-3.5 nm ions of the opposite polarity, all measured with the NAIS in ion mode. α and β are the ion-ion recombination and the ion-neutral attachment coefficients, respectively, and were assumed to be equal to $1.6 \times 10^{-6} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$ and $0.01 \times 10^{-6} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$, respectively, according to Tammet and Kulmala (2005).

$GR_{1.5-3}$ were calculated from NAIS data in ion mode using the “maximum” method introduced by (Hirsikko et al., 2005). Briefly, the peaking time of the ion concentration in each size bin of the selected diameter range was first determined by fitting a Gaussian to the concentration. The growth rate was then determined by a linear least square fit through the times. The uncertainty in the peak time determination was reported as the Gaussian’s mean 67% confidence interval, and was further taken into account in the growth rate determination.

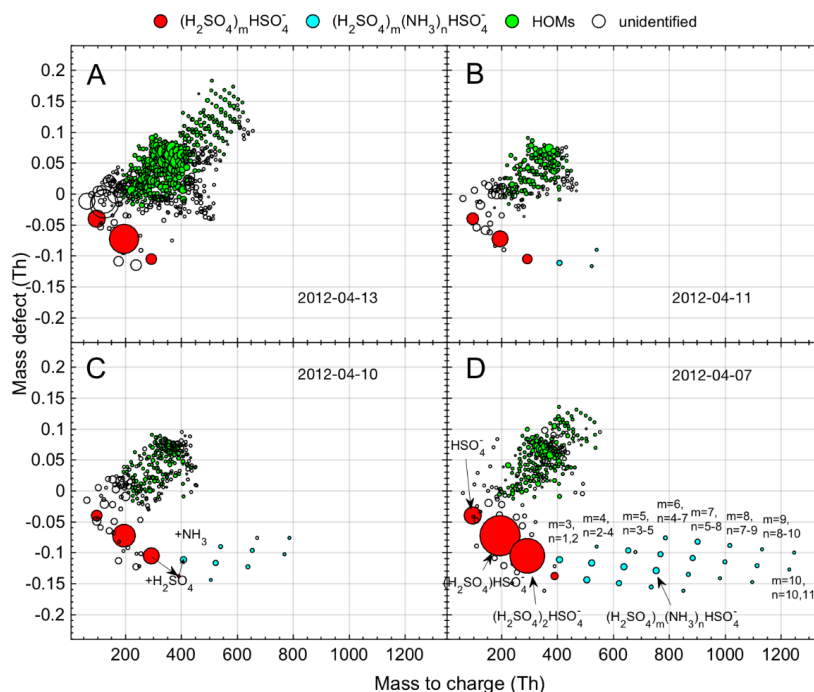


Similar approach was used to estimate the early growth rate of the $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-NH}_3$ clusters detected with the API-TOF. Prior to growth rate calculation, we first converted cluster masses into diameters in order to get growth rate values in nm h^{-1} instead of amu h^{-1} . For that purpose, we applied the conversion from Ehn et al., (2011), using a cluster density of 1840 kg m^{-3} . The time series of the cluster signals were then analysed in the same way as ion or particle concentrations using the “maximum” method from Hirsikko et al. (2005), and the growth rate was calculated using the procedure recalled above. Our ability to determine the early cluster growth rate from API-TOF measurement was strongly dependant on the strength of the signal of the different $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-NH}_3$ clusters. As a consequence, the reported growth rates characterize a size range which might slightly vary between the events, falling in a range between 1 and 1.7 nm.

3 Results and Discussion

3.1 Daytime ion composition

We examined the daytime ion composition of 134 days from three consecutive springs (2011-2013) in Hyytiälä. Consistent with the findings by previous studies, showing that H_2SO_4 clusters are the most abundant ions in the daytime (Ehn et al., 2010; Bianchi et al., 2017), we found that NH_3 -free H_2SO_4 clusters can contain up to three H_2SO_4 molecules when counting the HSO_4^- also as one H_2SO_4 molecule ($(\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4)_2\text{HSO}_4^-$), and that NH_3 is always present in clusters containing 4 or more H_2SO_4 molecules. The latter feature suggests the important role of NH_3 as a stabilizer in growing H_2SO_4 clusters (Kirkby et al. 2011). NH_3 -free clusters (at least dimers $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{HSO}_4^-$) were observed on 116 measurement days, but the signal intensity varied from day to day. Bigger clusters that contained NH_3 were observed on 39 days, containing a maximum of 4 to 13 H_2SO_4 per cluster. Figure 1 provides four examples of daytime ion spectra, including an NH_3 -free case (Fig. 1A) and three cases with a different maximum size of $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-NH}_3$ clusters (Fig. 1B-D), illustrating the significant variations in signal and maximum size of $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-NH}_3$ clusters. In the NH_3 -free case, a larger number of HOM clusters (green circles) was observed, indicating a competition between H_2SO_4 and HOMs in taking the charges. The largest detected cluster during the measurement was $(\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4)_{12}(\text{NH}_3)_{13}\text{HSO}_4^-$, which corresponds to a mobility-equivalent diameter of about 1.7 nm according to the conversion method (Ehn et al., 2011) and is big enough to be detected by particle counters. Since the observed formation of such large $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-NH}_3$ clusters is essentially the initial step of IIN, we anticipate that the variation of $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-NH}_3$ clusters will influence the occurrence of IIN.



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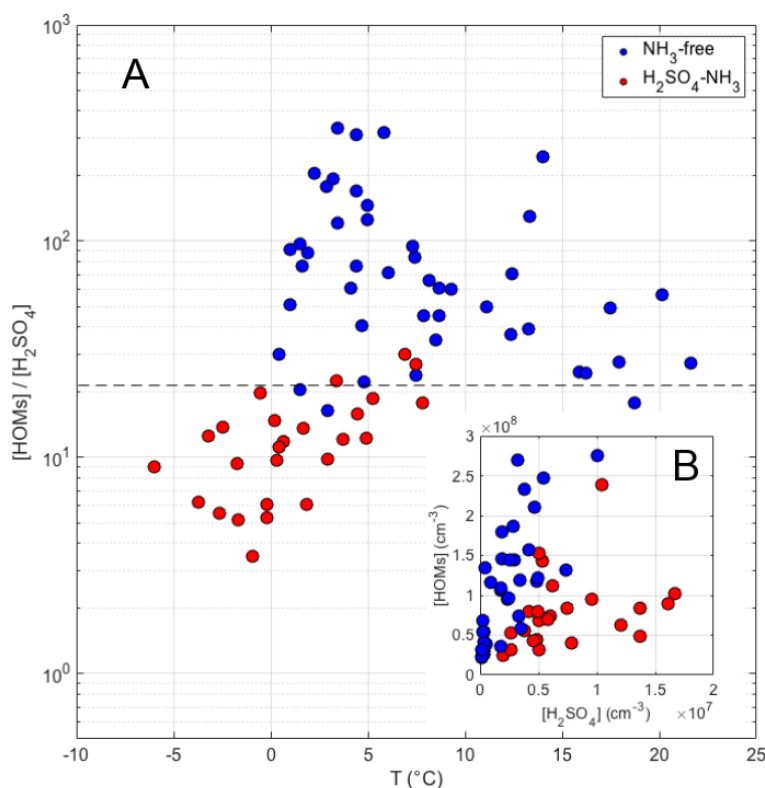
229 Figure 1 Mass defect plot showing the composition of ion clusters on four separate days. A) NH_3 -free clusters,
 230 B,C,D) H_2SO_4 - NH_3 clusters with different maximum number of H_2SO_4 molecules. The circle size is linearly
 231 proportional to the logarithm of the signal intensity.

232 3.2 The determining parameters for H_2SO_4 - NH_3 cluster formation

233 To find out the dominating parameters that affect the formation of H_2SO_4 - NH_3 clusters, we performed
 234 a correlation analysis that included the ambient temperature, relative humidity (RH), wind speed,
 235 wind direction, condensation sink (CS), as well as the gas-phase concentrations of NH_3 , H_2SO_4 , and
 236 HOMs. Among all the examined parameters, we found that the ratio between concentrations of HOMs
 237 and H_2SO_4 had the most pronounced influence on the appearance of H_2SO_4 - NH_3 clusters. As shown
 238 in Figure 2, all H_2SO_4 - NH_3 clusters were detected when $[\text{HOMs}]/[\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4]$ was smaller than 30. No
 239 such dependence was observed for only $[\text{HOMs}]$ or $[\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4]$. This implies that the appearance of
 240 H_2SO_4 - NH_3 clusters is primarily controlled by the competition between H_2SO_4 and HOMs in getting
 241 the charges. More specifically, HSO_4^- , the main charge carrier in the daytime, may either collide with
 242 neutral H_2SO_4 to form large clusters to accommodate NH_3 , or collide with HOMs that prevents the
 243 former process. In addition, a reasonable correlation was found between $[\text{HOMs}]/[\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4]$ and
 244 temperature, likely explained by emission of volatile organic compounds (VOC) increasing with



245 temperature, leading to higher HOMs concentrations, whereas the formation of H_2SO_4 is not strongly
246 temperature-dependent. This observation indicates that the formation of $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-NH}_3$ clusters might
247 vary seasonally: we expect to see them more often in cold seasons when HOM concentrations are
248 low, and less often in warm seasons.
249 Parameters other than $[\text{HOMs}]/[\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4]$ and temperature seemed to have little influence on the
250 formation of $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-NH}_3$ clusters. Interestingly, we found that NH_3 was even lower when $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-}$
251 NH_3 clusters were observed, indicating that the NH_3 concentration is not the limiting factor for
252 forming $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-NH}_3$ clusters (also see section 3.4). In addition, $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-NH}_3$ clusters were observed
253 in a wide range of RH spanning from 20 to 90 %, suggesting that RH is not affecting the cluster
254 formation. Besides, no clear influence from condensation sink (CS), wind speed, or wind direction
255 was observed.



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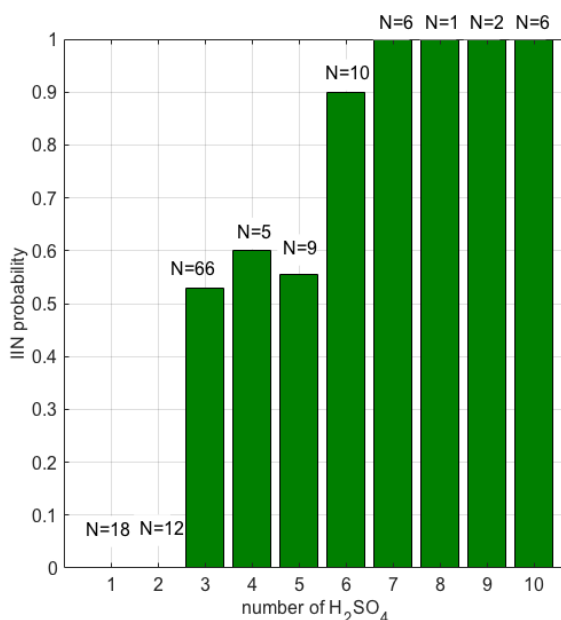
257 *Figure 2 The effect of concentration of HOMs, H_2SO_4 , their ratio ($[\text{HOM}]/[\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4]$), and temperature on the*
258 *appearance of $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-NH}_3$ clusters.*

259 3.3 The relation between $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-NH}_3$ clusters and IIN



260 3.3.1 The effect of cluster size on the probability of IIN events

261 We identified IIN events using data from the NAIS (ion mode) by observing of an increase in the
262 concentration of sub-2 nm ions (Rose et al., 2018), and classified 67 IIN events out of the 134 days
263 of measurements. We defined the IIN probability as the number of days when IIN events were
264 identified out of the total number of days that were counted. For example, the overall IIN probably is
265 50 % (67 out of 134 days). We found that the maximum observed size of $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-NH}_3$ clusters may
266 affect the occurrence of IIN. Our conclusion is complementary to previous theories which stated that
267 the critical step of particle nucleation is the formation of initial clusters that are big enough for
268 condensational growth to outcompete evaporation (Kulmala et al., 2013). To further understand the
269 size-dependency of IIN probability, we investigated the IIN probability when different maximum
270 sizes of $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-NH}_3$ clusters were observed. As illustrated in Figure 3, the IIN probability increases
271 dramatically when larger $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-NH}_3$ clusters were observed: IIN events were never observed when
272 only HSO_4^- or $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{HSO}_4^-$ were present, whereas the IIN probability increased to about 50 – 60 %
273 when the largest clusters contained 3 – 5 H_2SO_4 molecules. IIN occurred in 24 out of 25 days (96 %)
274 when the largest clusters consisted of no less than 6 H_2SO_4 molecules. Thus, it is evident that the
275 occurrence of IIN is related to the size and thus the stability of $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-NH}_3$ clusters, and that a cluster
276 consisting of 6 H_2SO_4 molecules seems to lie on the threshold size of triggering nucleation.



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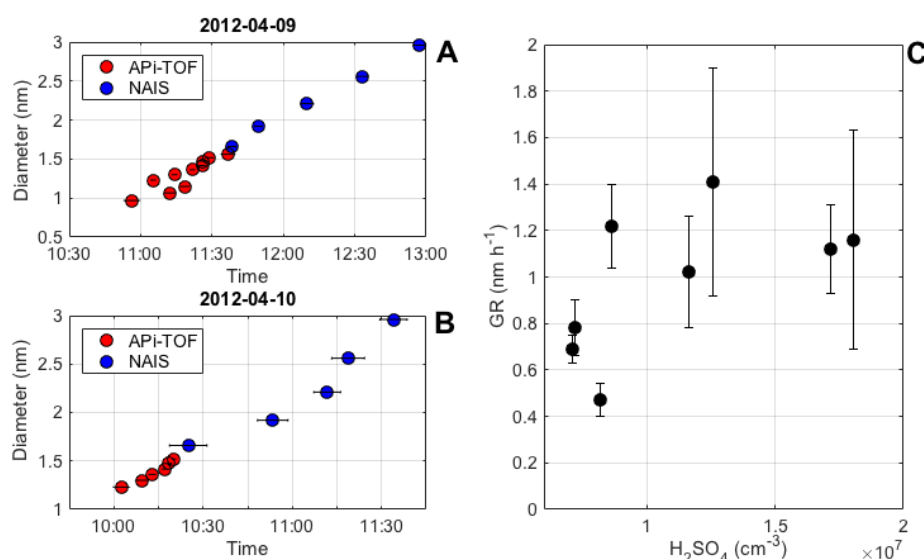
278 *Figure 3 The maximum number of H_2SO_4 molecules observed in clusters and the respective IIN probability.*
 279 *The days when it was unclear if IIN occurred were counted as non-event days. N denotes the number of days*
 280 *when such clusters were the largest observed.*

281 3.3.2 Continuous growth from clusters to 3 nm particles

282 Although the strong connection between the size of $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-NH}_3$ clusters and the occurrence of IIN
 283 was confirmed, it is challenging to directly observe the growth of these clusters in the atmosphere,
 284 limited by the inhomogeneity of the ambient air and low concentrations of atmospheric ions.
 285 Combining APi-TOF and NAIS measurements, we were however able to follow the very first steps
 286 of the cluster growth for 8 of the detected events. In Figures 4A and 4B, we present two examples in
 287 which the continuous growth of $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-NH}_3$ clusters to 3 nm (mobility diameter) particles was
 288 directly evaluated using the maximum-time method. The maximum times, determined from APi-TOF
 289 and NAIS data independently, fall nicely on the same linear fit. The permanence of the growth and
 290 the linearity of the fit suggests that the current mechanism ($\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-NH}_3$, acid-base) explains the
 291 formation and growth of sub-3 nm ion clusters in these cases. In most cases, the calculation of cluster
 292 GR from APi-TOF measurement suffered from high uncertainties, but a weak positive correlation
 293 can be observed between the cluster growth rate and H_2SO_4 concentration (Fig. 4C). This correlation
 294 is likely due to the collision of H_2SO_4 with existing $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-NH}_3$ clusters being the limiting step for
 295 cluster growth when NH_3 is abundant enough to follow up immediately (Schobesberger et al., 2015).



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297

298 *Figure 4 Cluster growth rate determined from API-TOF (A) and NAIS (B) measurements using the maximum*
 299 *time method, and the correlation between growth rates and concentrations of H₂SO₄ molecules (C).*

300 3.4 Evidence for other IIN mechanisms

301 For the 134 days of measurements, we were able to identify 67 IIN events using the NAIS data, out
 302 of which H₂SO₄-NH₃ clusters were observed on 32 days, implying that at least 35 IIN events were
 303 likely driven by mechanism(s) other than H₂SO₄-NH₃. In Figure 5, we classified the days according
 304 to the types of IIN observation: 32 IIN events involving H₂SO₄-NH₃ (SA-E), 3 non-events with the
 305 presence of H₂SO₄-NH₃ clusters (SA-NE), 35 IIN events involving other mechanisms (O-E), 41 other
 306 non-event days (O-NE), and 23 days with unclear types. We further present the respective statistics
 307 of additional measurements for the first four types of days, including the concentrations of plausible
 308 precursor vapors, condensation sink and meteorological parameters. It should be noted that the SA-
 309 NE has only 3 days, thus the statistics on this type of days might not be fully representative.

310 Consistent with the previous discussion (Fig. 2), low temperatures are conducive of IIN events via
 311 the H₂SO₄-NH₃ mechanism whilst being the highest other type of events (O-E) (Fig. 5A). The clear-
 312 sky parameter shows a noticeably higher value during both event types compared to the non-event
 313 cases (Fig. 5B), indicating that photo-chemistry related processes are important for all events.
 314 Moreover, the CS is obviously lower for both types of events than on non-event days (Fig. 5C).
 315 Although a strong effect on the appearance of H₂SO₄-NH₃ clusters has not been evidenced, it is a



316 most important parameter in regulating the occurrence of IIN. Similar effects of cloudiness and CS
317 on governing the occurrence of NPF have been reported by Dada et al., (2017) based on long-term
318 data sets.

319 Remarkably, NH_3 has very low concentrations during H_2SO_4 - NH_3 events in comparison to other type
320 of events (Fig. 5D). This is likely due to high NH_3 concentrations coinciding with higher temperature
321 and thus elevated HOMs concentration, or the less stability of H_2SO_4 - NH_3 clusters at high
322 temperatures that they fall apart to release NH_3 back to the atmosphere. This observation rules out
323 the addition of NH_3 as a limiting step in the H_2SO_4 - NH_3 nucleation mechanism, but the participation
324 of NH_3 in other type of events cannot be excluded.

325 H_2SO_4 has the highest concentrations during the H_2SO_4 - NH_3 -involved events (Fig. 5E), but the
326 concentration of H_2SO_4 in SA-NE days is not much lower, suggesting that the occurrence of H_2SO_4 -
327 NH_3 -involved events is not solely controlled by the H_2SO_4 concentration. The Incorporating the effect
328 of CS ($[\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4]/\text{CS}$) significantly improves the separation (Fig. 5F). HOM concentrations are highest
329 in the case of other events, revealing that HOMs play a key role in this mechanism (Fig. 5F), although
330 the contribution of H_2SO_4 in this HOM-involving IIN mechanism cannot be excluded. Similar to the
331 H_2SO_4 - NH_3 -driven cases, incorporating the CS better distinguishes the event and non-event cases.

332 Overall, our results suggest that the concentrations of H_2SO_4 and HOMs, together with the CS
333 governs the occurrence of IIN, whereas their ratio determines the exact underlying mechanism (Figs
334 2). Although H_2SO_4 - NH_3 and HOMs clearly drives the SA-E and O-E events, respectively, we cannot
335 exclude the later participation of HOMs in SA-E cases or H_2SO_4 in O-E cases. Different NPF
336 mechanisms have also been identified at the Jungfraujoch station (Bianchi et al., 2016, Frege et al.,
337 2018) when influenced by different air masses. At SMEAR II station, on the other hand, our results
338 suggest that the natural variation of temperature is already sufficient to modify the NPF mechanism
339 via modulating the biogenic VOC emissions.

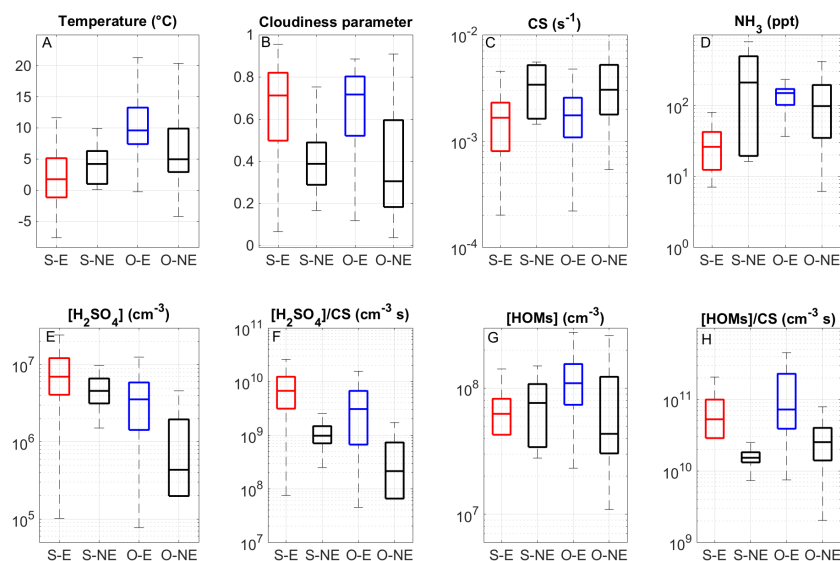


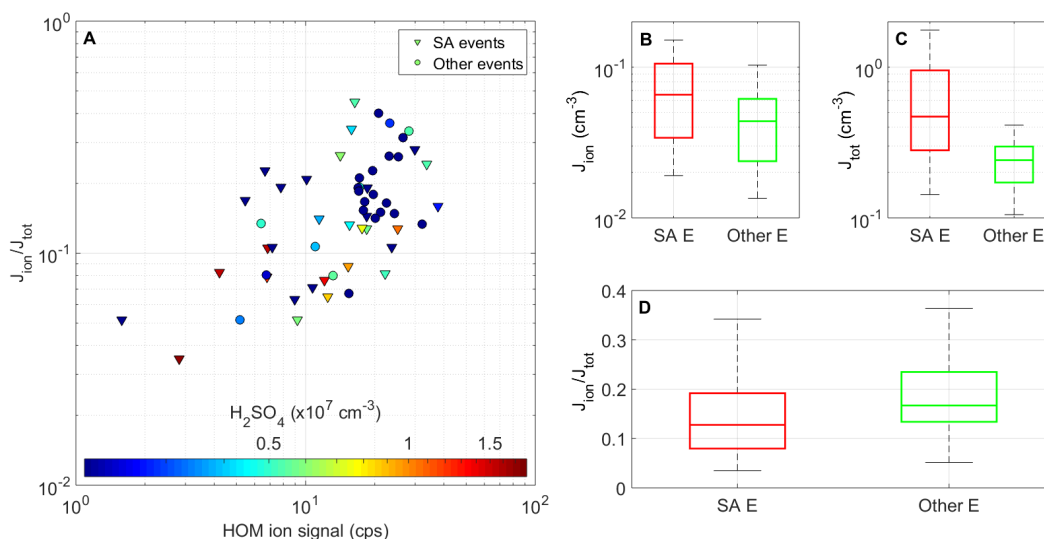
Figure 5 Comparison of different parameters for H_2SO_4 - NH_3 -involved events (SA-E, red bars), non-events with the presence of H_2SO_4 - NH_3 clusters (SA-NE, first column of black bars), other events (O-E, blue bars), and other non-events (O-NE, second column of black bars).

3.5 Contribution of IIN to total nucleation rate

To further understand the respective importance of these mechanisms, we investigated particle formation rate through ion-induced nucleation rate (J_{IIN}) and its contribution to the total formation rate ($J_{\text{IIN}}/J_{\text{total}}$). We were able to calculate the J_{IIN} and J_{total} for 2.5 nm particles for 57 (out of 67) cases, and the ratio $J_{\text{IIN}}/J_{\text{total}}$ varied from 4 – 45 %, showing a clear correlation with the HOM ion signal (Fig. 6A). This indicate the participation of HOMs even in H_2SO_4 - NH_3 -driven cases. In addition, most of the high $J_{\text{IIN}}/J_{\text{total}}$ ratios were observed at moderate or low H_2SO_4 concentrations, e.g., $J_{\text{IIN}}/J_{\text{total}} > 15$ % was only observed when $[\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4] < 6 \times 10^6 \text{ cm}^{-3}$. These observations indicate that HOMs are important in high $J_{\text{IIN}}/J_{\text{total}}$ cases, while during events driven by H_2SO_4 - NH_3 clusters low $J_{\text{IIN}}/J_{\text{total}}$ is more often observed. Accordingly, the median value of $J_{\text{IIN}}/J_{\text{total}}$ for the H_2SO_4 - NH_3 cases is about 12 %, consistent with Kulmala et al. (2013), but clearly higher (18 %) in HOM-driven events (Fig. 6D). Figures 6B and 6C reveal that both J_{IIN} and J_{total} values are in fact higher in H_2SO_4 - NH_3 cases, but the neutral nucleation pathway is relatively more enhanced, leading to the lower ratio. These results suggest that ion-induced nucleation plays a more important role in the events driven by HOMs than in the events driven by H_2SO_4 - NH_3 . A plausible explanation is that NH_3 is performing well in



359 stabilizing H_2SO_4 molecules during the clustering process, whereas ions are a relatively more
 360 important stabilizing agent for HOM clustering.



361
 362 *Figure 6 Ion-induced nucleation rate and total nucleation rate under different nucleation mechanisms. A). The*
 363 *fractional contribution of IIN to the total nucleation rate ($J_{\text{IIN}}/J_{\text{total}}$) as a function of total signal of HOM ions*
 364 *color-coded by H_2SO_4 concentration. Data points are the averaged value from the starting time to the peaking*
 365 *time of the 2.5 – 3.5 nm cluster concentration. B,C,D). Statistics of J_{IIN} , J_{total} and $J_{\text{IIN}}/J_{\text{total}}$ in the events driven*
 366 *by different nucleation mechanisms.*

367

368 4 Summary and Conclusion

369 We investigated the formation of $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-NH}_3$ anion clusters measured by APi-TOF during three
 370 springs from 2011 to 2013 in a boreal forest in Southern Finland and their connection to IIN. The
 371 abundance and maximum size of $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-NH}_3$ clusters showed great variability. Out of the total 134
 372 measurement days, $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-NH}_3$ clusters were only seen during 39 days. The appearance of these
 373 clusters was mainly regulated by the concentration ratio between HOMs and H_2SO_4 , which can be
 374 changed by temperature via modulating the HOM production.

375 We found that the maximum observable size of $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-NH}_3$ clusters has a strong influence on the
 376 probability of an IIN event to occur. More specifically, when clusters containing 6 or more H_2SO_4
 377 molecules were detected, IIN was observed at almost 100% probability. We further compared the
 378 cluster ion growth rates from APi-TOF and NAIS using the maximum-time method. In these $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{-}$
 379 NH_3 driven cases when we could robustly define the track of the cluster evolution, the cluster growth
 380 was continuous and near linear from cluster-sizes up to 3 nm, suggesting co-condensation of H_2SO_4



and NH_3 as the sole growth mechanism. This does not exclude that organics could also participate in the growth process in Hyytiälä in other days.

In addition, we noticed that there was another mechanism driving the IIN, and HOMs are the most likely responsible species, although H_2SO_4 and NH_3 might also participate in this mechanism. Such mechanism was at least responsible for 35 IIN events during the measurement days, and is expected to be the prevailing one in higher-temperature seasons.

The contribution of IIN to the total rates of NPF differs between events driven by H_2SO_4 - NH_3 and by HOMs. IIN plays a bigger role in HOM-driven events, likely due to a relatively stronger stabilizing effect of ions, contributing up to 40 % of the total nucleation rate. Since the production of HOMs and H_2SO_4 are strongly modulated by solar radiation and/or temperature, a seasonal variation of IIN can be expected, not only in terms of frequency, but also in terms of the underlying mechanisms, and hence in terms of the enhancing effect of ions. This information should be considered in aerosol formation modelling in future works.

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