



1 Particle size distribution and new particle formation under influence of biomass

2 burning at a high altitude background site of Mt. Yulong (3410m) in China

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13 Abstract

14 Biomass burning (BB) activities have a great impact on particle number size distribution (PNSD) in upper troposphere of Tibet-Plateau, which could affect 15 regional and global climate. The intensive campaign for the measurement of PNSD, 16 17 gaseous pollutants and meteorological parameters was conducted at Mt. Yulong, a 18 high-altitude site (3410 m a. s. l.) in the southeast of Tibet Plateau during the 19 pre-monsoon season (22 March to 15 April), when the intensive BB activities in South 20 Asia were observed by fire maps. Long-range transport of BB pollutants could increase the accumulation mode particles in background atmosphere of Mt. Yulong. 21 As a consequence, cloud condensation nuclei (CCN) concentration was found to be 22 23 2-8 times higher during BB periods than that during clean period. Apart from BB, variation of planet boundary layer (PBL) and new particle formation were other 24 factors that influenced PNSD. However, only 3 NPF events (with a frequency of 14 %) 25 were observed at Mt. Yulong. Occurrence of NPF events during clean episode 26 corresponded with elevated PBL or transported BB pollutants. Due to lack of 27 condensable vapors including sulfuric acid and organic compounds, the newly formed 28 particles were not able to grow to CCN size. Our study emphasized the influences of 29 BB on aerosol and CCN concentration in atmosphere of Tibet Plateau. These results 30





- 31 can improve our understanding of the variation of particle concentration in upper
- 32 troposphere, and provide information for regional and global climate models.
- 33 Key words: Tibet-Plateau, particle number size distribution, biomass burning,
- 34 CCN, new particle formation
- 35 1. Introduction

The aerosol particles can influence the radiation of the planet surface through 36 scattering the sunlight, and cloud albedo by serving as cloud condensation nuclei 37 (CCN) (IPCC, 2013). The cloud albedo effect of aerosols provides the biggest 38 uncertainties in global climate models (IPCC, 2013), and depends strongly on number 39 concentration and size of particles. Numerous studies concentrated on monitoring 40 particle number size distribution (PNSD) within the planet boundary layer (PBL), 41 where anthropogenic sources have strong impacts (Peng et al., 2014). While the 42 particles in pristine free troposphere (FT) were rarely studied. Particles in FT mainly 43 44 originated from lifting of emission within PBL by convective, frontal, and orographic 45 lifting (Okamoto and Tanimoto, 2016), or atmospheric nucleation. Those particles have longer lifetime and could be transported in a longer distance, during which they 46 47 could exchange with PBL (Shen et al., 2016;D'Andrea et al., 2016). Hence, studies on FT are important because : 1) CCN in FT could influence cloud albedo more directly 48 49 compared to surface CCN; 2) FT served as a route of long-range transport of 50 pollutants. Aircraft study is a direct way to measure the FT particles, but it is costly and can only provide data within short periods. Therefore, measurement at high 51 mountain sites is one common method to study the FT particles and analyze the 52 53 influences of pollution transport on FT (Shen et al., 2016).

Particles originated from BB in South Asia could have impacts on vast atmosphere of Tibet Plateau by transport in FT. As the highest plateau in the world, Tibet Plateau has very few anthropogenic sources, and could be taken as the continent background. However, recent studies revealed that the smoke plume in South Asia could ascend to FT, and transport to Himalayas and the mountain valley of Tibet Plateau during pre-monsoon season (Cong et al., 2015;Lüthi et al., 2015;Bukowiecki et al., 2016). During pre-monsoon season, the enhanced convection and steep pressure





61 gradient across the Himalaya-Gangetic region could rise the BB particles to higher 62 altitude (Gautam et al., 2009;Adak, 2014). The particles could be transported by dry 63 westerly, and have impacts on aerosols in Tibet Plateau region (Bonasoni et al., 64 2010;Chen et al., 2014). Former studies verify South Asian BB's influence in Tibet 65 Plateau by chemical analysis of K⁺, levoglucosan, etc. However, there was limited 66 information of variation of PNSD under influence of BB. Also, there were limited 67 studies concerning the contribution of BB to CCN in Tibet Plateau.

Except primary emissions, new particle formation (NPF) is another important 68 source of particles in FT, but with limited measurement. According to model results, 69 nucleation in FT contribute to 35 % of the CCN globally (Merikanto et al., 2009). 70 Considering the level of pre-existing particles in FT is relatively low, it should 71 provide a good condition for nucleation of the nanoparticles. As a result, NPF has 72 been observed to happen frequently in FT, including Mt. Tai (1500m a.s.l.) (Shen et 73 74 al., 2016), Mediterranean Sea (1000m-300m a.s.l.) (Rose et al., 2015), Mt. Puy de Dôme (1465 m a.s.l), Mt. Izana (2367m a.s.l.) (Rodr guez et al., 2009;Garc á et al., 75 2014), Colorado Rocky Mountains (2900m a.s.l.) (Boy et al., 2008), etc. While NPF 76 77 events happened less frequently at Indian foothill Himalayas (2080m) (Neitola et al., 78 2011). Studies at mountain sites considered that the frequency of NPF corresponded 79 to the rise of PBL height, which could raise the concentration of anthropogenic SO₂, 80 NH₃ and other nucleation precursors. Mechanisms of formation and the growth of nanoparticles in FT remain ambiguous (Bianchi et al., 2016), thus comprehensive 81 measurements of PNSD as well as trace gases at high-mountain sites are necessary to 82 83 provide information around this topic.

This study aimed to: 1) investigate the influence of BB from South Asia on PNSD and CCN concentration at South east of Tibet Plateau; 2) characterize the NPF at high-mountain sites. For purposes of these, a comprehensive measurement was conducted at a background site in Mt. Yulong (3140 m a.s.l.), during the pre-monsoon season.

89 2. Experiments and data analysis





90 2.1 Monitoring site

An intensive field campaign was conducted during 22 March to 15 April, at a 91 high mountains site of Mt. Yulong (27.2N, 100.2E) in Southwest China and Southeast 92 corner of Tibet Plateau, with an altitude of 3140 m a. s. l. This site is one of national 93 regional background sites coordinated by the Chinese Environmental Monitoring 94 Center (CEMC), which is a remote site on the transport route of South Asian 95 pollutants during pre-monsoon season. At the foot of the Mt. Yulong, 36 km to the 96 south of the site is the famous Lijiang Old Town, a populated tourist place. More 97 details of the monitoring site can be found in another paper (Zheng et al., 2017). 98

99 2.2 Instrumentation

PNSD was measured with a time resolution of 5 min, by two set of scanning 100 mobility particle sizer (SMPS, TSI Inc., St. Paul, MN, USA) and an aerodynamic 101 particle sizer (APS, TSI model 3321, TSI Inc., St. Paul, MN, USA). The first set of 102 103 SMPS consisted of a short differential mobility analyzer (DMA, Model 3085) and an ultra-condensing particle counter (UCPC, Model 3776, flowrate 1.5 L/min) was used 104 to measure the 3-60 nm particles. Another SMPS with long DMA (Model 3081) and 105 normal CPC (Model 3022, flow rate 0.3 L/min) was used for measuring 60-700 nm 106 particles. A silicon diffusion tube was placed before the SMPS, controlling the relative 107 humidity of sampling air under 35 %. Diffusion loss and multiple charging calibration 108 of the particles was done for SMPS data. APS with flow rate of 1 L/min was used for 109 measuring 0.5-10 µm particles. The result of APS was modified to stokes diameter 110 assuming the particle density to be 1.7 μ g/m³ before combining with SMPS data. A 111 bypass flow was added before the inlet cutoff, to meet the working flow rate of the 112 PM₁₀ cyclone (16.7 L/min). 113

To investigate the BB influences in aerosols, a high-resolution time-of-flight aerosol mass spectrometer (HR-TOF-AMS) was deployed to measure the chemical composition of aerosols. Through this instrument, we can obtain the concentration of nitrate, sulfate, ammonium, chloride and high-resolution mass spectrum of organics,





118 especially the fragments of BB organic markers. Black carbon (BC) is another important marker for combustion sources. In this study, BC was measured with an 119 aethalometer (Magee Scientific, USA, type AE31), by collecting aerosol particles on a 120 121 filter stripe, and analyzing the transmission of the lights with seven wave length, from 370 to 950 nm. BC concentration was calculated as a multiple of the light absorption 122 coefficient at 880nm, with the default mass attenuation cross sections of 16.6 m² g⁻¹ 123 (Fröhlich et al., 2015). To get the concentration of organic tracers of the new particle 124 formation, an online-gas chromatography coupled with mass spectrometer and flame 125 ionization detectors (GC-MS/FID) was used to measure the non-methane 126 127 hydrocarbons (NMHCs), including benzene, toluene, monoterpene, etc. Meteorological parameters, PM2.5 and trace gases were also measured by online 128 instruments during the campaign (Table S1). 129

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131 2.3 Data processing

132 2.3.1 Backward trajectory analysis

The 48h backward trajectories of the air mass were computed at 4000 m a.s.l. 133 (600 m above the ground of the Mt. Yulong site) by the Weather Research and 134 Forecasting (WRF) model (version 3.61) to identify the impacts from South Asia. The 135 fire spots were obtained from the satellite map from Moderate Resolution Imaging 136 Spectroradiometer (MODIS) (https://firms.modaps.eosdis.nasa.gov/firemap/). In order 137 to characterize the air mass origin during the NPF events, the 48h backward 138 trajectories at 600 m above the ground were calculated by NOAA HYSPLIT 4 139 (Hybrid Single-Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory) model (Draxier and Hess, 140 1998). 141

142 2.3.2 Parameterization of NPF

143 The data of each PNSD during NPF was fitted as the sum of three or two mode 144 lognormal distribution (Hussein et al., 2005), including the geometric mean diameter





D_m, geometric standard deviation σ_m and total number concentration of each mode.
During the NPF events, the growth rate (GR) was calculated as the variation of the
mean diameter D_m of newly formed mode in unit internal:

Formation rate was calculated for nucleation fraction of the particles (3-25 nm), withthe formula:

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$$J_{3-25} = \frac{dN_{3-25}}{dt} + N_{3-25} \cdot CoagS_8 + F_{growth}$$
(2)

in this formula, N₃₋₂₅ is number concentration of particles within size range of 3-25
nm, CoagS₈ is the coagulation rate of particles with diameter of 8 nm, which is the
geometric mean of 3-25 nm. The coagulation rate was calculated as:

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$$\operatorname{CoagS}(D_p) = \int K(D_p, D'_p) n(D'_p) dD'_p$$
(3)

in which $n(D'_p)$ is number concentration of particles with size of D'_p , K (D_p, D'_p) is the coagulation coefficient between D_p and D'_p particles. During nucleation events, there were negligible particles that grew beyond 25 nm, so the last term in formula of was not included (Dal Maso et al., 2005). To quantify the limitation of NPF from pre-existing particles, the condensation sink was calculated as: CS = $2\pi D \sum_i \beta \cdot D_i \cdot N_i$ (4)

where D is the diffusion coefficient of the condensational vapor, e.g. sulfuric acid, β the transitional regime correction factor, D_i and N_i are the diameter and number concentration of particles in class i. In calculation described above, all diameters were dry diameter directly measured from SMPS, so the coagulation and condensation sink could be underestimated.

167 Sulfuric acid was thought to be the most important precursor of NPF events 168 (Sipiläet al., 2010), and could contribute to particle growth by condensation (Yue et 169 al., 2010;Zhang et al., 2012). In this study, the content of H₂SO₄ was calculated by a 170 pseudo-steady state method (Kulmala et al., 2001):

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$$[H_2SO_4]=k \cdot [OH][SO_2]/CS$$
 (5)

in which [OH] and [SO₂] are number concentration of OH radicals and SO₂, value of





173	k is 10^{-12} cm ³ s ⁻¹ . [OH] was estimated by:						
174	$[0H] = a(JO^{1}D)^{\alpha}(J_{NO2})^{\beta} \frac{b[NO_{2}]+1}{c[NO_{2}]^{2}+d[NO_{2}]+1} $ (6)						
175	in which $\alpha = 0.83$, $\beta = 0.19$, $a = 4.1 \times 10^9$, $b = 140$, $c = 0.41$, $d = 1.7$ (Ehhalt and Rohrer,						
176	2000). Contribution of sulfuric acid condensation to particle growth was calculated by						
177	Yue et al 's (2010) method.						
178	2.3.3 Calculation of CCN concentration						
179	In order to evaluate the variation of indirect climate effects of the particles at Mt.						
180	Yulong, CCN number concentration was estimated from data of PNSD and particle						
181	chemical composition. Firstly, the SNA (sulfate, nitrate, ammonium) was ion-coupled						
182	to get exact chemical compounds of the inorganic salts in particles. NH4NO3, H2SO4,						
183	NH ₄ HSO ₄ and (NH ₄) ₂ SO ₄ were calculated following the formula:						
184	$n_{\rm NH_4NO_3} = n_{\rm NO_3},$						
185	$n_{\rm H_2SO_4} = \max(0, n_{\rm SO_4^2} - n_{\rm NH_4^+} + n_{\rm NO_3^-}),$						
186	$n_{\rm NH_4HSO_4} = \min(2n_{\rm SO_4^2} - n_{\rm NH_4^+} + n_{\rm NO_3^-}, n_{\rm NH_4^+} - n_{\rm NO_3^-}),$						
187	$n_{(\mathrm{NH}_4)_2\mathrm{HSO}_4} = \max(n_{\mathrm{NH}_4^+} - n_{\mathrm{NO}_3^-} - n_{\mathrm{SO}_4^{2-}}, 0),$						
188	where n is the mole number of the specific compounds (Gysel et al., 2007). Based on						
189	κ-Köhler theory and Zdanovskii–Stokes–Robinson (ZSR) mixing rule, the						
190	hygroscopic parameter of mixed particles can be calculated as (Petters and						
191	Kreidenweis, 2007):						
192	$\kappa = \sum_{1}^{n} \varepsilon_{m} \kappa_{m}$						
193	where ε_m is the volume fraction of the composition <i>m</i> in particles, and κ_m is the						
194	hygroscopic parameter of pure composition m . In this research, we consider						
195	secondary inorganic ions, organics and BC as majority composition of particles, and						
196	put them into the ZSR mixing formula. The correlated parameters of the compounds						
197	we used are in table 1.						
198	Table 1. Densities and hygroscopic parameters of the compounds used in CCN						
199	calculation						

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Species	NH ₄ NO ₃	NH4HSO4	(NH ₄) ₂ SO ₄	H_2SO_4	Organics	BC
ρ (kg m ⁻³)	1720	1780	1769	1830	1400	1700
κ	0.67	0.61	0.61	0.91	0.1	0

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Based on κ -Köhler theory, the relationship between κ and D_c under certain supersaturation (S_c) is:

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$$\kappa = \frac{4A^3}{27D_c^3 \ln^2 S_c}, \quad A = \frac{4\sigma_{s/a}M_w}{RT\rho_W}$$

in which $\sigma_{s/a}$ is the surface tension of water, M_w and ρ_W is the molecular weight and density of water respectively, R is 8.317 J • mol⁻¹ • K⁻¹, T is the ambient temperature. With the κ of the particles, the critical diameter D_c of the CCN activation can be achieved with this formula. Then the number concentration of CCN can be calculated as number concentration of particles larger than D_c.

209 **3.** Results and discussion

210 3.1 Particle number size distribution

211 3.1.1 Particle and meteorology parameters

Fig.1 shows the time series of PNSD and correlating meteorological parameters. Temperature and relative humidity was 6.1±3.5 °C and 54.9±19.7 %, respectively (Fig.1b). Southeast wind was dominant during the campaign, followed by South wind and Southwest wind. Average wind speed was 2.9±1.8 m/s (Fig S1). Most of the monitoring days were sunny, in favor of nucleation process, while short time rainfall occurred on 24, 26 March and 4, 6, 7, 8, 10, 11 April. During April 12, there was a heavy snow with the RH more than 90 %.

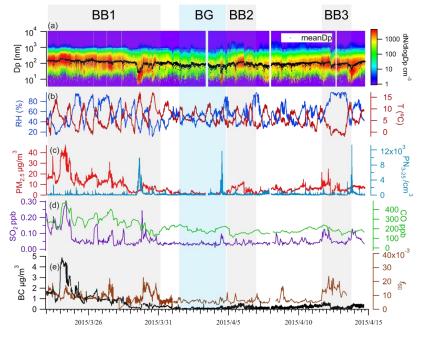
As a background high altitude site in TP, Mt. Yulong site revealed the feature of low particle concentration and strong oxidation capacity. On average $PM_{2.5}$ was 10.51±9.16 µg/m³, similar with the result on Northeast slope of Tibet Plateau (Xu et al., 2014). This result was only 1/10-1/3 of that in the atmosphere of urban and rural regions in China, indicating a background situation in Southwest China (Zheng et al.,





224 2016). However, the $PM_{2.5}$ at Yulong background site during the monsoon season was 225 around 3 times as that at a Qilian Shan Station in Northeast of Tibet Plateau (Xu et al., 226 2015) and at Jungfraujoch, Switzerland (Bukowiecki et al., 2016), with similar 227 altitude, indicating relatively stronger anthropogenic influence in Southeast Tibet 228 Plateau. During 22 to 30 March, 4 to 5 April and 11 to 12 April, particle mass 229 concentration exceeded 10 μ g/m³, building up a pollution episode.

During the measurement, ozone level was 50.1 ±7.0 ppbv, similar with the results 230 at high mountain sites in Europe (Cristofanelli et al., 2016;Okamoto and Tanimoto, 231 2016), higher than the results in Beijing during spring. The concentration of NO_x and 232 NO was 0.94±0.62 ppbv and 0.07±0.05 ppbv, respectively. SO₂ concentration was 233 0.06 ± 0.05 ppbv, around the detection limit, showing no strong primary pollution. CO 234 concentration was 0.22±0.07ppmv, and showed higher level during the start of the 235 campaign (24 to 30 March), which could be resulted from the influence of BB (Fig 236 237 1d).



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Figure 1. Time series of (a) particle number size distribution and geometric mean diameter, (b) ambient temperature, relative humidity, (c) PM_{2.5} mass





concentration, number concentration of nucleation mode (3-25 nm) particles
(PN₃₋₂₅), (d) SO₂ and CO concentration, (e) black carbon concentration, fraction
of *f*60 (organic fragment ions with m/z=60) during the monitoring campaign.
Periods influenced by biomass burning (BB1, BB2, BB3) were marked by grey
shades, period representing background condition (BG) was marked by blue
shade.

Although particles we measured in this study had larger size range than most of 247 other studies, the results can still be comparable, considering that Aitken and 248 accumulation mode particles, which all measurements included, constitute most of the 249 particle number concentration (PN). Table 2 showed particle number concentrations in 250 atmosphere at Mt. Yulong and other high altitude stations. Total number concentration 251 of PM₁₀ was 1600±1290 cm⁻³ during monsoon season of Mt. Yulong, slightly lower 252 than those measured at other sites around Tibet Plateau, e.g. Waliguan and 253 254 Mukteshwar, and Mt. Huang. However, this result is several times higher than those of areas with scarce emission sources, e.g. Alps and Antarctica. On the other hand, PN 255 didn't show clear trend as the altitude increases, which means the regional emission 256 257 and transport had larger impact on aerosols in upper troposphere, rather than the vertical distribution. We define N₃₋₂₅, N₂₅₋₁₀₀, N₁₀₀₋₁₀₀₀, N₁₀₀₀₊ as number 258 259 concentrations of particles with diameters of 3-25 nm, 25-100 nm, 100-1000 nm and 1-10 µm, respectively. There were bursts of N₃₋₂₅ on midday of 29 March, 4 April, 13 260 April, with the peak value at 9900 cm⁻³, 11700 cm⁻³ and 5400 cm⁻³, respectively 261 (Fig.1c). During those periods, the geometric mean diameter of the particles was 262 263 lower than 25 nm. Those events could be resulted from local or regional new particle formation, which would be discussed later. 264

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271 Table 2. Particle number concentration of high altitude sites around the world, in

Location	Altitude [m]	Date	Size range [nm]	PN [cm ⁻³]	Reference
Sierra Nevada Mountains, US	1315	May-Nov 2002	10-400	4300	(Lunden et al., 2006)
Mt. Tai, China	1534	July 2010-Feb 2012	3-2500	11800±6200	(Shen et al., 2016)
Mt. Huang, China	1840	April-Aug 2008	10-10000	2350	(Zhang et al., 2016)
Mukteshwar, India	2180	Nov 2005-Nov 2008	10-800	2730	(Komppula et al., 2009)
Izana Observatory, Spain	2367	Nov 2006-Dec 2007	3-660	480-4600	(Rodr guez et al., 2009)
Mt. Norikura, Japan	2770	Sep 2001, July-Sep 2002	9-300	260-1600	(Nishita et al., 2008)
University of Colorado Mountain Research Station, US	2900	July 2006	3-800	2881-19947	(Boy et al., 2008)
Dome C, Antarctica	3200	Spring, 2008-2009	10-600	17.9-457	(Järvinen et al., 2013)
Storm Peak Laboratory, US	3210	Mar 2012	10-10000	3100	(Yu and Hallar, 2014)
Jungfraujoch, Switzerland	3580	1995-2015	10-10000	757	(Bukowiecki et al., 2016)
Wangliguan, China	3816	Sep 2005-May 2007	12-570	2030	(Kivek äs et al., 2009)
Mt. Yulong, China	3410	May-April 2015	3-10000	1600±1290	This Study

272 comparison with this study

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274 3.1.2 Analysis of PNSD and PVSD

Average of PNSD during the measurement is showed in Fig.2a. In this study, we sorted the particles by their sizes (Dal Maso et al., 2005). N_{25-100} correlates to primary emission, and $PN_{100-1000}$ has stronger connection with secondary formation (Wu et al., 2008). The diameter with highest particle number concentration (D_{p-max}) was 107 nm. Number concentration (dN/dlogDp) was larger than 1000 cm⁻³ between 40-200 nm, which was the adjacent area of N_{25-100} and $N_{100-1000}$. This indicates that both primary emission sources and secondary formation process had influences at Mt. Yulong site.

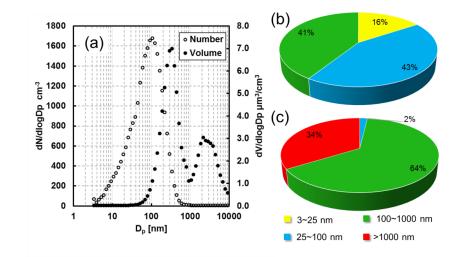




282 N_{3-25} , N_{25-100} , $N_{100-1000}$ were 244 cm⁻³, 676 cm⁻³ and 638 cm⁻³, constituting 16 %, 43 %

and 41 % of total concentration, respectively.

Different from PNSD, particle volume (PV) exhibited a bimodal distribution (Fig 284 2a). The first peak had an extreme value at 340 nm, representing the contribution of 285 primary emission and aging processes. This mass peak constituted 66 % of total PV, 286 including PV₂₅₋₁₀₀ (2 %) and PV₁₀₀₋₁₀₀₀ (64 %). 3-25 nm particles had negligible 287 influence on PV. Another mode in PV size distribution is within range of 1µm-10µm, 288 with the D_{p-max} at 2.2 µm. This mode could be attributed to the suspended soil. 289 Volume of 1-10µm particles constituted 34 % of total PV, similar with Qilian Shan 290 station (38 %) at Northeast Tibet Plateau (Xu et al., 2015), but higher than that urban 291 Beijing (25 %) (Wu et al., 2008), due to the much less emission sources and stronger 292 wind at Mt. Yulong. 293



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Figure 2. Particle size distribution in atmosphere at Mt. Yulong. (a) Mean size
distribution of particle number (hollow circle) and volume (filled circle)
concentration; Contribution of different fractions to total particle (b) number
concentration and (c) volume concentration. Different colors represent different
size ranges: yellow (3-25 nm), blue (25-100 nm), green (100-1000 nm), red (1-10
µm).





302 To better characterize the contribution from different process, the mean PNSD was fitted to three lognormal modes (Fig. 3, Table 3). We define the three fitted modes 303 as nucleation mode, Aitken mode and accumulation mode, based on their geometric 304 mean diameters, which were within 3-25 nm, 25-100 nm and 100-1000 nm, 305 respectively. Nucleation mode can be derived from nucleation process. Nucleation 306 mode contributed 15 % to total PN, which was half lower than proportion of 307 nucleation mode particles at Mt. Tai, indicating relatively less impact from nucleation 308 events. Median diameter of Aitken mode and accumulation mode particles are 52 nm 309 and 130 nm. These mean diameters are similar with the results at Jungfraujoch 310 (Bukowiecki et al., 2016) and Beijing (Wu et al., 2008). Accumulation mode particles, 311 correlating with secondary formation (mode_3), contributed 54 % to total PN, which 312 is twice higher than the result in urban Beijing (Wu et al., 2008), and similar with that 313 in pristine atmosphere of Jungfraujoch (Bukowiecki et al., 2016). This result indicates 314 315 that aerosols arrived at Mt. Yulong were aged during the transport.

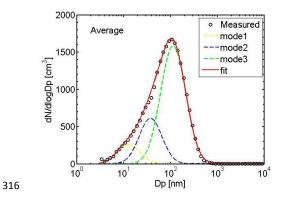


Figure 3. Lognormal fit (3 modes) of average particle number size distribution during the campaign at Mt. Yulong. Black circles mark the measured PNSD, colored dash lines represent the PNSD of fitting modes, and red full line marks the sum of PNSD of all fitting modes. Mode 1, 2 and 3 were nucleation mode, Aitken mode and accumulation mode, respectively.

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323 3.2 Influence of PBL diurnal variation on PNSD

324 Figure 4 shows the diurnal variation of N₃₋₂₅, N₂₅₋₁₀₀, N₁₀₀₋₁₀₀₀ during the 325 sampling period. The particle number concentration in nucleation fraction and Aitken fraction showed a clear diurnal variation. Mean value of N₃₋₂₅ started to increase at 326 10:00 in the morning, and reached around 500 cm⁻³ at noon due to nucleation events 327 at noon (Fig. 4a). However, the median of N₃₋₂₅ didn't showed similar diurnal 328 variation because of low NPF frequency. On the other hand, both mean and median of 329 N₂₅₋₁₀₀ showed a local maximum during 10:00-14:00 (Fig. 4b). NPF events could not 330 cause this variation, since newly formed particles were not able to grow to 25 nm in 331 the morning. So the increased 25-100 nm particles originated from primary sources, 332 e.g. traffic sources and biomass burning. Considering that no anthropogenic emission 333 sources around the site, those primary particles could be transported from other 334 regions. During noon time, as the convection is strongest, N₂₅₋₁₀₀ could be raised by 335 the elevated urban PBL during the day, and anthropogenic particle injected during this 336 process (Tröstl et al., 2016b). Adak et al. (2014) also reported that number 337 concentration of PM1 increased during day time, corresponding with the up-slope 338 valley wind. In the afternoon, the convection become weaker, and the larger wind 339 speed (Fig. 4e) had stronger scavenging effect on those primary particles, so N₂₅₋₁₀₀ 340 decreased at around 14:00. 341

The diurnal change of absolute water content also support that Mt. Yulong site 342 was influenced by elevated PBL during midday. The water concentration was 343 344 calculated based on temperature and relative humidity, and showed an increase from 3.3 g m^{-1} to 4.2 g m^{-1} during 9:00-12:00, and descended back to 3.6 g m^{-1} till 14:00 345 (Fig. 4f). This systematic water content variation indicates that the site was influenced 346 347 by the PBL during day time. Shen et al (2016) used the increase of water content together with Aitken mode particles, to separate the PBL conditions at Mt. Tai. The 348 349 value of CO/NO_y and NO_y/NO_x was used in other studies to determine the age of the air masses arriving high altitude sites (Tröstl et al., 2016b;Zellweger et al., 350 2003; Jaeglé et al., 1998). Because NO_y was not measured in this study, we used 351





352 CO/NO_x to estimate the age of air mass since contact with primary emission. CO/NO_x was 287±146 at Mt. Yulong, lower than Jungfraujoch (Herrmann et al., 2015), Mt. 353 Cimone (Cristofanelli et al., 2016) and Kansas (Jaeglé et al., 1998), indicating a 354 stronger anthropogenic influence. The diurnal variation of CO/NOx showed minimum 355 during 9:00-14:00 (Fig. 4d), consistent with the local maximum of water content and 356 N₂₅₋₁₀₀. The diurnal variation of O₃/NO_x exhibited a similar trend as CO/NO_x, with an 357 average of 69.6 during 10:00-14:00, and 83.6 during 1:00-6:00 (Fig. S2). Those 358 evidences indicate that at least during 10:00-14:00, Mt. Yulong site was influenced by 359 elevated PBL. On the other hand, we consider the data during 1:00-6:00 as the 360 condition within FT, when N₂₅₋₁₀₀ and water content were lowest and CO/NO_x were 361 highest. However, N₁₀₀₋₁₀₀₀ didn't show obvious diurnal variation, indicating the 362 elevated PBL didn't inject large amount of 100-1000 nm particles. 363

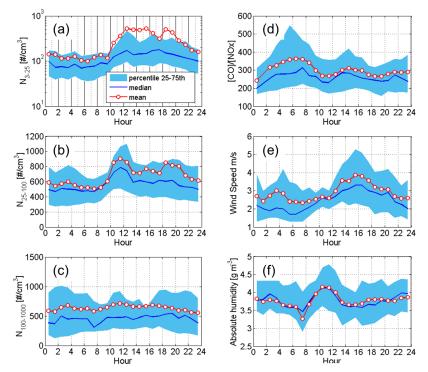




Figure 4. Diurnal variations of N₃₋₂₅, N₂₅₋₁₀₀, N₁₀₀₋₁₀₀₀, CO/NO_x, wind speed, and absolute humidity at Mt. Yulong during monitoring campaign. Red lines with circles, blue lines mark the mean and median results, respectively. Light blue





area marks the range between 25th, and 75th percentiles of the data.

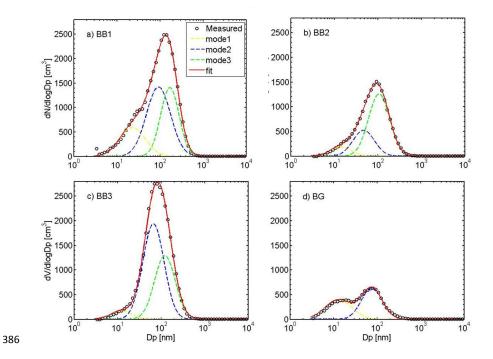
- 369 3.3 Influences of BB on Mt. Yulong
- 370 3.3.1 Identification of BB episodes

Background condition (BG) was picked during 1 to 4 April, when the concentration of BC was 85 ng m⁻³ on average. During this period, the wind was relatively stronger, and fire spots were barely found on the westward path of the air mass (Fig. S3). Based on the background condition, three BB events were identified by the following criteria: 1) BC was more than the background level (85 ng m⁻³); 2) higher fraction of *f*60 than during BG (0.4 %); 3) fire spots appeared in the source regions of the air masses or surrounding areas of the site.

During the first BB event (BB1, 22 to 30 March), dense fire spots were found on the source region in north Burma. BC concentration (1.2 μ g m⁻³), PV and *f*60 signal showed highest level during BB1. Trajectories of BB2 (5 to 6 April) passed fewer fire spots in South Asia than BB1, and the BC concentration was lower (0.3 μ g m⁻³). The proportion of *f*60 was highest (1.4 %) during BB3 (11 to 12 April), showing strong BB influence. However, few fire spots were observed on the path of air mass, indicating the BB particles could be derived from domestic heating nearby.







385 3.3.2 Influences of BB on PNSD and CCN

Figure 5. Lognormal fit (3 modes) of average PNSD during (a) BB1, (b) BB2, (c) BB3, (d) BG at Mt. Yulong site. Black circles mark the measured PNSD, colored dash lines represent the PNSD of fitting modes, and red full line marks the sum of PNSD of all fitting modes. Mode 1, 2, 3 were nucleation mode, Aitken mode and accumulation mode, respectively.

The average PNSDs during BB events and BG condition were plotted in Figure 5, and fitted by 3-mode lognormal distributions. The fitting results are showed in Table 3. For the BG condition, only two modes were obtained (Fig. 5d), including nucleation mode (mode_1, $D_{mean} = 15$ nm) originated from nucleation events and Aitken mode (mode_2, $D_{mean} = 79$ nm). Their total number concentration was 669 cm⁻³, similar with the level at Swiss Jungfraujoch (Herrmann et al., 2015), exhibiting an Eurasia background character.

The averaged PNSD during those BB episodes showed discrepancies, indicating the variant influences of transported and local BB on particles in atmosphere of Mt.





401 Yulong. During the BB2, Aitken mode number concentration was similar with that during BG condition. But an accumulation mode (mode_3, $D_{mean} = 106$ nm) with 402 higher PN (775 cm⁻³) appeared (Fig. 5b). This mode with larger size could be the aged 403 particles transported from BB source regions in South Asia. Different from BB2, 404 Aitken mode particles were increased by a factor of 3 and became dominant in PNSD 405 during BB3 the local event (Fig. 5c). The number concentration of this mode was 406 1309 cm⁻³, 2 times more than accumulation mode particles. The reason could be that 407 the particles during BB3 were freshly emitted from sources nearby the monitoring site. 408 The study of Zheng et al (2017) also showed that during this period, the OOA fraction 409 in organic aerosols was relatively lower, while BBOA fraction was higher, indicating 410 impacts from more local BB sources. The geometric mean diameters of accumulation 411 mode were 169, 106, 130 nm during BB1, BB2, and BB3, smaller than that of aged 412 biomass burning particles at Mt. Bachelor, USA (Laing et al., 2016), indicating the 413 414 particles at Mt. Yulong were more fresh. Nucleation mode had lower PN during BB2 and BB3, since the higher PN of larger particles played as strong coagulation sink of 415 nucleation mode particles. Aitken mode and accumulation mode were comparable 416 417 during BB1 (Fig. 5a), indicating the fresh aerosols from sources surrounding the site had comparable influence as the transported aged BB aerosols. 418

In a word, the BG condition at Mt. Yulong could represent the background level
of particles of TP or even Eurasia. The local and long-range transported BB emissions
would increase the level of Aitken mode and accumulation mode particles,
respectively.

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431	Table 3. Fitted parameters of lognormal modes for different period. μ,σ and N							
432	represent the mean diameter, standard deviation, and total number							
433	concentration of each mode, respectively. "Total" represents the mean result of							
434	all data achieved from the campaign.							

Period	μ[nm]				σ [nm]			N [cm ⁻³]		
	mode_1	mode_2	mode_3	mode_1	mode_2	mode_3	mode_1	mode_2	mode_3	
Total	16	52	130	1.75	1.75	1.77	221	488	861	
BB1	23	92	169	1.94	1.91	1.63	428	1014	744	
BB2	16	47	106	1.75	1.75	1.75	117	302	775	
BB3	15	70	130	1.75	1.75	1.72	106	1309	628	
BG	15	79	-	2.03	1.73	-	301	368	-	

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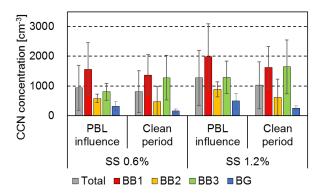
Concentration of CCN was calculated following method described in section 436 2.3.3. κ value during the sampling period was 0.12±0.01, only 1/3 from urban Beijing 437 (Wu et al., 2016) and a rural site at Thuringia, Germany (Wu et al., 2013), but 438 consistent with the results in Alberta, Canada (0.11±0.04) during BB events (Lathem 439 et al., 2013). Pierce et al (2012) reported that κ was around 0.1 for >100 nm particles 440 in a forest mountain valley during biogenic secondary organic aerosols formation and 441 growth events. Similarly, organic volume fraction was 0.73 in particle at Mt. Yulong, 442 explaining the low value of κ . As a result, the D_c at SS of 0.6 % and 1.2 % was 443 72.0±2.2 and 45.4±1.4 nm, respectively. There could be uncertainties for value of κ 444 445 and D_c, since here we used a manually set hygroscopicity of organics, which may varied with oxidation level or other factors (Wu et al., 2016). Considering the 446 447 variation range of D_c was small, the CCN concentration was mainly controlled by size 448 distribution of particle number.

BB events raised the CCN level in atmosphere by influencing the PNSD. Increase of PN was observed during BB events, i.e. 2207 ± 1388 cm⁻³, 1214 ± 638 cm⁻³, 2062 ± 1112 cm⁻³ during BB1, BB2, BB3, respectively. As a consequence, the increased particles played as CCN in atmosphere of Mt. Yulong, forming a readily increase of CCN concentration during BB events. Figure 6 showed the mean number concentration of CCN in periods under PBL influence (10:00-14:00, as discussed in 3.2) and FT condition (1:00-6:00) during BG and BB events. Mean number





concentration of CCN under supersaturation of 0.6 % was 936 ± 754 cm⁻³ and 807 ± 705 456 cm⁻³ for PBL and FT periods at Mt. Yulong, comparative with boreal forest station in 457 Finland (Cerully et al., 2011). The concentration of CCN in PBL condition during 458 459 BB1, BB2, BB3 was 5, 2, 2 times as that during BG. Promotions of CCN during BB1, BB2, BB3 were more remarkable for FT, i.e. 9, 3, 8 times as BG (Fig. 6). This result 460 indicates that the BB particles from South Asia could have strong influence on the 461 climate parameter. For the data under supersaturation of 1.2 %, the ratios between 462 CCN concentration of BBs and that of BG were less, i.e. 2-4 times for periods 463 influenced by PBL, and 2-7 times for FT conditions. This is because critical diameters 464 under supersaturation 0.6 % and 1.2 % were around 72 nm and 45 nm, respectively. 465 And PN within 45-72 nm was relatively stable compared to the larger particles, 466 because of the daily input of anthropogenic primary aerosols from urban air masses. 467



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Figure 6. Mean number concentration of CCN under supersaturation of 0.6 %
and 1.2 % during whole monitoring period (labelled as "total"), BB1, BB2, BB3
events (marked by shadow in Fig. 1). PBL (10:00-14:00) and FT (1:00-6:00)
conditions were separated.

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474 3.4 New particle formation events

475 3.4.1 NPF events at Mt. Yulong under anthropogenic influences

476 Following the method Tröstl et al (2016b) and Yli-Juuti et al (2009) used, we





477	define the three NPF events on 29 March, 4 and 13	April as follows:
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a) Type A event on 29 March: appearance of newly formed particles (3 nm, the first 478 bin of nano-SMPS) and continuous growth of those particles, reaching the upper 479 480 limit of nucleation mode (25 nm). This NPF event was within the period of BB1, the air mass arriving at Mt. Yulong was from North part of Burma with slow 481 movement before 28 March, transporting abundant pollutants to this area. During 482 28 March 12:00 to 29 March 6:00, the air mass was from west upper troposphere 483 (Fig S4), cleaning out the pre-existing particles built up by BB events. CS at Mt. 484 Yulong decreased from 0.006 s⁻¹ to 0.002 s⁻¹ on morning of 29 March. On the 485 other hand, the concentration of SO2 was stable (around 0.04 ppb) before 486 occurrence of nucleation. The calculated H₂SO₄ increased before nucleation, 487 reaching 5×10^6 cm⁻³ (Fig. S4). The nucleation rate was 1.43 cm⁻³s⁻¹, increasing 488 nucleation mode particles to around 10⁴ cm⁻³. Benefited by the increase of 489 α -pinene (from 0.02 ppb to 0.10 ppb), β -pinene (from 0.03 ppb to 0.20 ppb) and 490 SO₂ in day of 29 March, the formation of secondary aerosol continued, and the 491 newly formed particles grew over 30 nm before night. This process could be from 492 493 gaseous oxidation and condensation. Particle growth stopped during night of 29 March, when the gaseous reaction was inhibited because of absence of sunlight. 494 495 After sunrise on 30 March, the particle continued growing and reached 40 nm. 496 Concentration of toluene was lower than 0.1 ppb, indicating small contribution from anthropogenic VOCs. The GR was 3.48 nm h⁻¹ within size range of 3-25 nm. 497 In a word, under the influence of transported pollutants, nucleation was triggered 498 499 by the upper clean air mass, which reduced level of pre-existing particles. While growth of particles was favored by the photochemical reaction and condensation 500 501 process.

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b) Type B event on 4 April: newly formed mode occurred with growing trend, but
growth stopped at early stage (<15 nm), and there were temporal low values of
N₃₋₂₅ during the event. The event on 4 April was under BG condition, during
which concentration of SO₂ was lower (around 0.02 ppb). Started from 2:00 on 4

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507 April, the air mass arrived at Mt. Yulong was transported by upslope flow from west lower troposphere. While during 9:00-12:00, the air mass arrived at Mt. 508 Yulong passed Northeast India, where fire spots could be observed on the MODIS 509 map during 2 April. Thus, the gaseous pollutants and particles from anthropogenic 510 sources nearby or from BB sources in Northeast India was transported to this site 511 on morning of 4 April. Concentration of SO₂ and [H₂SO₄] increased to 0.07 ppb 512 and 6×10^6 cm⁻³ at 11:00, respectively, corresponding to occurrence nucleation (Fig. 513 S5). SO₂ shared similar time series with black carbon, indicating a combustion 514 source. FR and GR were 0.93 cm⁻³ s⁻¹ and 3.2 nm h⁻¹, respectively. N₃₋₂₅ fluctuated 515 during NPF events, showing low values when there were temporary changes in 516 cloud condition (influencing radiation) and wind direction. Concentrations of 517 β -pinene and Toluene were stable and lower than 0.10 ppb and 0.65 ppb 518 respectively throughout the NPF event, which could be the reason of smaller 519 520 growth rate. At around 14:00, the source region of air mass varied to west upper troposphere, and the stronger wind cleaned out both the nucleated mode particles 521 and gaseous precursors, terminating the NPF event. In summary, type B event 522 523 under background condition was triggered by the injection of gaseous pollutants 524 from elevated PBL and short term transport of BB pollutants.

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526 c) Off-site NPF event on 13 April: A narrow Aitken mode band (25-50 nm) was observed from 13 to 14 April. The primary particles should have wider range and 527 larger size. These particles were mostly likely nucleated off-site, and transported 528 529 to Mt. Yulong site by uplifting air mass. On the afternoon of 13 April, the air mass arrived at Mt. Yulong passed the local ground layer (yellow trajectory in Fig S6). 530 SO₂ increased from 0.06 ppb to 0.13 ppb, and toluene reached highest level at 531 0.098 ppb (Fig. S6), indicating an anthropogenic impact. As a result, particles 532 formed from the ground level were transported to the site and a burst of N_{3-25} 533 occurred at around 18:00, with FR at 1.64 cm⁻³ s⁻¹. β-pinene also showed higher 534 value at dawn of 13 April. Those nanoparticles showed a growth trend, with GR at 535 2.99 nm h⁻¹. To summarize, occurrence of nucleation mode particles were off-site 536





- 537 nucleated in PBL and transported to this site.
- 538
- 539 3.4.2 Limiting factors of NPF events

Frequency of NPF was 14 % during our measurement. This NPF frequency is 540 clearly less than polluted atmosphere of North China Plain (40-65 %) in March and 541 April (Wang et al., 2013; Shen et al., 2011), the top of Mt. Huang (38 %) during April 542 (Zhang et al., 2016), and a remote rural site in the Sierra Nevada Mountains (47 %) in 543 spring (Creamean et al., 2011). A common knowledge is that CS is the limiting factor 544 545 that controls the NPF (Cai et al., 2017). Thus, pre-existing particle levels on event days should be less than non-event days, at high altitude mountain sites (Shen et al., 546 2016;Guo et al., 2012) as well as urban sites (Wang et al., 2011;Wang et al., 2017). 547 The low NPF frequency was unexpected in clean atmosphere of Mt. Yulong, since the 548 mean CS at Mt. Yulong was 0.0038 s⁻¹. On the other hand, similar low frequency of 549 NPF events were also observed in pristine atmospheres, e.g. 24 % at Antarctic site 550 551 Neumayer (Weller et al., 2015), 12-17 % at Dome C, Antarctica (Järvinen et al., 2013). 552

During the first five days of the campaign (22 to 27 March), the nucleation 553 events could be prevented by large amount of pre-existing particles acting as big 554 condensation sink. The CS was more than 0.005 s⁻¹, similar with polluted Beijing on 555 days with NPF events (Wu et al., 2007). However, on rest of days when CS was even 556 lower than 0.002 s⁻¹, the NPF events were still scarce. Considering that the content of 557 condensable vapor participated in nucleation is determined by the competition 558 between formation from precursor oxidation and condensation on surface of 559 560 pre-existing particles (Zhang et al., 2012), the lower NPF frequency at pristine sites could be resulted from lack of precursor, e.g. VOCs and SO₂ from fossil fuel and 561 biomass burning sources. 562

To further evaluate the effect of different parameters on NPF, daily variations of SO₂, CS, J(O¹D), Benzene and β -pinene during 28 March to 14 April were calculated and plotted in Figure 7. The results during 10:00-14:00 were picked up as the





occurrence time of nucleation, and compared between NPF days and non-event days.

567 As shown in Fig. 7, NPF days and non-NPF days shared same level of J(O¹D), and

568 15 % difference in CS when nucleation happened, indicating small influence of solar

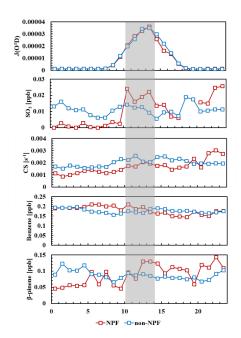
569 radiation and pre-existing particles on NPF.

The concentration of SO₂ showed increase on NPF days, 60 % higher than 570 non-event days, indicating the anthropogenic SO₂ as the controlling factor of NPF at 571 Mt. Yulong. Studies at Jungfraujoch (Bianchi et al., 2016; Tröstl et al., 2016b), Izaña 572 (Garc *h* et al., 2014) and Mukteshwar (Neitola et al., 2011) also reported that the 573 nucleation events in upper troposphere corresponded to increase of anthropogenic gas 574 pollutants by elevated PBL. At Daban Mountain on the North slope of TP, the PM_{2.5} 575 level was similar with Mt. Yulong, but NPF could be observed nearly every day. It 576 may be caused by that the SO_2 was around 2 ppb on average, two order of magnitude 577 higher than Mt. Yulong. 578

579 Organics may also be a driven factor on NPF. The concentration of β -pinene showed higher value (40 %) in the afternoon on NPF days, while there was little 580 difference (9 %) between NPF days and non-event days on anthropogenic benzene. 581 582 Recent studies considered that apart from sulfuric acid, the highly oxidized 583 multifunctional organics from biogenic VOCs could take part in nucleation as well as 584 growth (Huang et al., 2016;Tröstl et al., 2016a), in free troposphere, the pure organic 585 nucleation without sulfuric acid may even be dominant (Bianchi et al., 2016;Gordon et al., 2016). So the increase of biogenic VOCs could benefit the nucleation and 586 growth of nucleation mode particles at Mt. Yulong. 587







588

Figure 7. Diurnal variation of J(O¹D), SO₂, CS, Benzene, β-pinene during days
with NPF events (labelled as "NPF", red lines with marks), and without NPF
events (labelled as "non-NPF", blue lines with marks). Shadow marks the time
period during which nucleation occurred.

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594 3.4.3 Parameters of NPF events at Mt. Yulong

Formation rate, growth rate and condensation sink of NPF events at Mt. Yulong 595 were summarized in Table 4. Compared with other high mountain measurements, this 596 study reported a higher FR, e.g. 3 times as that at Storm peak laboratory (Hallar et al., 597 2011). But the GR at Mt. Yulong was within average level, indicating different 598 599 precursors participating in nucleation and growth process. Even though SO₂ was well correlated with nucleation events, the calculated growth rate by condensation of 600 H₂SO₄ can only explain 5 % of the measured GR. This result indicated participation 601 of some other precursors in particle growth, e.g. organics. 602

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Site	Region	Altitude [m]	Size [nm]	FR [cm ⁻³ s ⁻¹]	GR [nm h ⁻¹]	CS [s ⁻¹]	Reference
Mt. Yulong	Asia	3410	3-25	1.33	3.22	0.002	This research
Mukteshwar	Asia	2180	15-20	0.44	2.47	0.015	(Neitola et al., 2011)
Storm peak laboratory	North America	3210	9-334	0.39	7.5	0.001	(Hallar et al., 2011)
Mt. Tai	Asia	1500	3-25	4	6.1	0.02	(Shen et al., 2016)
Iza ña	Atlantic Ocean	2400	10-25	0.46	0.43	0.002	(Garc á et al., 2014)
Jungfraujoch	Europe	3580	3.2-15	1.8	4.0	-	(Tröstl et al., 2016b)
Dome C	Antarctica	3200	10-25	0.023	2.5	0.0002	(J ärvinen et al., 2013)

Table 4. Comparisons of NPF parameters (FR, GR, CS) with the other studies.

606

607 4. Conclusion

PNSD, meteorological parameters, trace gases and particle chemical composition were measured at Mt. Yulong site (3410 m a.s.l.) in Southeast corner of Tibet Plateau, during pre-monsoon season (22 March to 15 April) of 2015. PNSD in background atmosphere of Tibet Plateau was characterized. As a background site in Southwest China, the atmosphere of Mt. Yulong exhibited a feature of low particle level and strong oxidation.

PBL convection is an influencing factor of PNSD, which caused readable diurnal
variation of N_{ait}. Diurnal variation of CO/NO_x and absolute humidity showed that the
monitoring site was influenced by PBL during 10:00-14:00, and showed typical FT
condition during 1:00-6:00.

618 Three different types of BB event periods were identified by content of BC, f60, air mass backward trajectory and fire spot map. Accumulation mode was dominant in 619 transported BB particles from Myanmar, but less aged compared with other Tibet 620 621 Plateau sites under influence of BB. Under local biomass burning episode, Aitken 622 mode was dominant in PNSD. The biomass burning from South Asia had strong 623 influence on climate parameters, especially for FT. Concentrations of CCN in FT at 624 Mt. Yulong during BB events were 3-9 times as that during BG period. Due to high fraction of organic compounds, the CCN activity of particles in atmosphere of Mt. 625 Yulong was lower than other high altitude sites and ground level sites. 626





627 Unexpected low NPF frequency was found in clean atmosphere at Mt. Yulong, due to low concentration of anthropogenic precursor, i.e. SO₂. Occurrence of NPF 628 events were favored by elevated surface emission of SO2 and transported BB 629 630 pollutants from South Asia. Off-site NPF event was also observed, during which nanoparticles were formed in PBL and transported to the site. Condensation of 631 sulfuric acid can only explain 5 % of GR in on-site NPF events, indicating other 632 precursors participating in particle growth. NPF can hardly contribute to CCN, since 633 the newly formed particles cannot reach the critical diameter. 634

Our study provided important data in vertical profile of particles at Tibet Plateau. Influences of BB activities in South Asia and local area on PNSD and CCN in atmosphere of Tibet Plateau were highlighted. Different types of NPF in upper troposphere in Southwest China were characterized, and role of SO₂ were analyzed. Results of our study could be used in regional and global climate model, and help building up the knowledge of NPF in upper part of troposphere.

641

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