

Anonymous Referee #1

Dall'Osto et al. present an interesting 3-year analysis of multi-site aerosol size distributions in the Atlantic Arctic and attempt to assess the sources based on spectral characteristics and linkages to collocated compositional information. This work is an extension of Freud et al. (2017), who presented a Pan-Arctic evaluation of aerosol size distributions but without chemistry linkages. Although the results are useful and warrant their place in the literature, there are several issues that need to be addressed prior to publication, as discussed in more detail below.

We thank reviewer 1 for finding the analysis interesting. Comments addressed below in italic.

General issues:

The authors allude to the fact that the reason the 3 sites were chosen was because they surround the Fram Strait. There is nothing wrong with focusing on a specific region within the Arctic; however, the introduction describes Arctic processes in general and does not provide sufficient rationale for why this region in particular, other than it is warming the greatest during the last three decades. This reasoning is important but is only briefly mentioned. If the focus is sites surrounding the Fram, then more background and motivation is needed to clearly provide the link for why only these 3 sites are used and only for 3 years, as compared to the many sites presented by Freud et al.

Freud 2017 presents data from five Arctic stations, which was extraordinary and very valuable. However, it is important to stress that some of the data coverage (ie Barrow for example, 25%) was not good enough to compare stations. We therefore chose a different time period (2013-2015). For example, the VRS dataset provided here (2013-2015), was mostly not included in Freud et al., 2017 (2011-2013). The group of authors for the present paper is a consortium representing the three measurements sites, and those performing the mathematical analysis. Additional discussions are made in the introduction, including comparing stations nearby (ZEP, GRU) and compare a part of the Arctic that is changing rapidly (Svalbard region) and, finally, a discussion about different Arctic bioregion is also discussed.

We use data from the stations Gruebadet (GRU), Zeppelin (ZEP) and Villum Research Station – Station Nord (VRS). The European Arctic is understood here as the part of the circumpolar Arctic located between Greenland and northwest Russia. Geographically, Greenland is part of the continent of North America. The Fram Strait, roughly between 77°N and 81°N latitude and centered on the prime meridian, is located between Greenland and Svalbard. The climate in the Northern hemisphere is centered in the Fram Strait. The Gulf Stream brings warm water to the eastern part of Fram Strait, where Svalbard is located creating a mild climate, whereas an ice stream is flowing out of the Arctic Ocean along the East Coast of Greenland with a strong

cooling effect. As a consequence is a large atmospheric temperature gradient exists across the Fram Strait of 16 °C with an annual average temperature at Villum Research Station at Station Nord of -16 °C and -2 °C at Longyear byen, Svalbard (Last climate normal). This gradient has large consequences for the physical and chemical processes as well for the biological systems

On P6, l14, the authors even state, “However, to capture all scales of the variability of Arctic aerosols....” But that is not the goal of this work based on the information earlier in this paragraph. Along these lines, I get that the GRU site is the new addition from what Freud et al. presented, but other than that and a surface level utilization of the chemistry to infer the aerosol sources, I question what is new and novel about this work. Freud et al. presents all years possible at 5 sites and does a similar cluster analysis. Surely, the information is here, but the emphasis on how this study is a progression or even improvement from Freud et al. is not evident. The authors should take care to highlight the new findings and what is different from previous work. Also, in general, it would help if the introduction was rewritten to be more focused on the goals and motivation, with the appropriate background.

Freud et al. (ACP) presents a complete analysis focusing mainly on the Accumulation mode and its transport, leaving smaller ultrafine particles only partially presented. Additionally, the comparison between GRU and ZEP is not made, which is an important part of the discussion, as now stated in the paper. Finally, the cluster analysis reported here is a more in-depth analysis, not only because the number of clusters is higher and more accurate, but also because they are compared with a number of physical and chemical variables. In conclusion, whilst the Freud et al paper focuses more on Arctic particle number concentration and Accumulation mode anthropogenic transport, here we focus on a smaller dataset (3 stations) with higher time resolution (we report hourly and daily size distributions, not only monthly), discussing also chemical measurements reported across the stations, not discussed in Freud et al. (ACP).

Some of the categories need further explanation. First, it is not clear what the bursting category would originate from—any indication on the source? Why do they not grow to larger sizes? Is it possible this is local primary or secondary pollution particles, say, from generators?

The categories have been explained a number of times in a number of different papers (Dall’Osto et al., 2017,2018) and repeating the explanation would be redundant. We explain the possible sources without being too speculative. We exclude “generators” as data were checked for anthropogenic contamination, as also discussed in previous papers and in this current one.

Second, the definitions of Arctic haze and aged accumulation mode are solely based on a difference of 70 nm in the mode, but even with the chemical information presented, how can these sources be told apart? Where exactly does “aged accumulation mode” originate from? This distinction is not clear.

We would like to stress that one of the main difference - as discussed and emphasized in the manuscript - is also striking difference on the annual temporal trend shown in Figure 4. As discussed in the text, the Arctic haze shows a precise annual distribution, as reflected in the cluster name. Additional information on this specific accumulation clusters can also be found in a specific paper cited (Lange et al., 2018, Lange et al., Characterization of distinct Arctic aerosol accumulation modes and their sources. Atmospheric Environment 183 (2018) 1–10, 2018). This is now described in the text.

Along these lines, a couple sentences on the background of Arctic haze is warranted in the introduction.

Added.

Third, how can there be a coarse category when the coarse mode ($> 1\mu\text{m}$) was not measured? Is this extrapolated from the tail of the spectra?

*The author is correct in stating we did not measure particles $>1\mu\text{m}$, we stated coarse particles are the one detected in the highest detectable size of the SMPS, now edited in the paper. Main modes can be seen at 150 nm (category *accumulation_150*), at 220 nm (category *accumulation_220*) and in the largest detected SMPS modes at about 400-500 nm (category *coarse*).*

Fourth, it is not clear what the nascent categories are—nascent as in sea spray? In general, more explanation and descriptions of the assumptions made are needed for the categories.

Again, we cannot speculate much about this source. Edited and added.

Provide uncertainties or standard deviations for any % values listed in the text and in a number of the figures (i.e., Figs 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9).

We added standard deviation where averages are reported. Edited.

It seems as if the chemistry is a crucial supporting aspect of the classifications. Perhaps these should be discussed first in the results and discussion, in tandem with the shapes of the spectra to justify the categories. I get lost in which sites had which chemical components measured. A table containing this information would be useful and would elucidate why most of the composition figures only have 1 site. In parallel, how can the limited information at each of the sites, with regard to the supporting chemical and CCN data, be used to glean information about the other sites? The sources/categories were not always the same as seen in Fig 4, so how can we expect to extrapolate the chemistry and CCN to all 3 sites?

We do not extrapolate any information about other sites, and each figure and legend has the names of the stations where the data were collected. This is a limitation of the study, and it shows to stress that very limited information are

collected simultaneously on different Arctic sites, as discussed in the conclusion, implication and recommendation.

Here we discussed the results of each station where data are available, in order to enhance - where possible - the SMPS cluster analysis. In other words - in addition to the aerosol size distribution clustering analysis - we report, where possible - chemical information for each station, where possible.

There is a bit of redundancy throughout. For example, the brief synopsis of Freud et al. is given twice with the same information in the introduction. Additionally, acronyms are defined but then the words are spelled out afterwards several times throughout. The manuscript could be streamlined by removing such redundancies.

The manuscript text was generally enhanced and streamlined, the mentioned redundancy was remedied. We thank for comments.

Specific comments:

Abstract: The importance of the ability to predict aerosol number concentration is not clearly stated. Please provide the broader scope.

It was added that aerosols are, of course, an important part of the Arctic climate system.

P4, I15: Barrow has a long history of chemistry measurements there that support this generalized statement.

Added

P4, I21: "continental sources", i.e., Arctic haze? Natural continental sources (e.g., mineral dust)? This needs to be made clearer.

Continental anthropogenic sources were meant. This has been rephrased.

P4, I24: What is "these frequent nucleation events" referring too? Which events?

The ambiguity has been clarified.

P5, I3 and 4: Provide appropriate references here.

The statement was rephrased to be slightly more hypothetical, and references were provided.

P6, I3-4: The fact that the Fram is the only deep-water connection between the oceans and the Arctic does not seem relevant.

While interesting, we agree that it might not be very relevant. The phrase was removed.

P7, I22 (and herein): The coordinates are all provided differently and are odd. Take care to fix throughout.

The way coordinates are displayed were harmonized.

P7, I24: By local sources, I assume the authors mean local anthropogenic sources. Surely, there are local emissions from natural processes.

Indeed the purpose is to state that the ZEP station is not influenced by local anthropogenic activity. This has been clarified.

P8, I20: The information about the hut name is unnecessary, since the coordinates are provided.

Historically a large number of important measurements have been made at Flyers Hut. It is a specific location of the Station Nord premises, where VRS is located. Since the establishment of VRS in 2015, the SMPS measurement setup has physically been moved to a different location, which is the "Air measurement hut". The two locations are very close, but the naming distinguishes these two locations. Flyers hut receives more anthropogenic influence, due to vehicle passages. It is an important information for readers who are familiar with the location and the record of measurements. Therefore, we prefer to keep the name.

P9, section 2.2.1: How does the overlapping sizes of the distributions compare?

The ZEP station is part of ACTRIS and aerosol size distributions are checked and validated. Overall, the overall size distributions overlap well. More information can be found in the ACTRIS web site, and in previous papers published in the ZEP site, including a long term analysis of Tunved et al., 2013.

Section 2.2: Some of the stations are missing the dates, time resolutions, or missing data. More details on the data are most certainly needed. Are there consistent specs between the measurements at the 3 sites?

Edited. Yes.

Section 2.3: Do these days overlap with the size distributions? I would assume so, but it is not clear. More details on the dates and where data were acquired are needed.

Yes, they do overlap. More information added. Simultaneously collected data are presented for the whole years (2013-2015).

P11, I5: Was this monthly average calculated from the daily averages or the highest time resolution of the data? Please be clear on how the averages were calculated, here and elsewhere.

Averages calculated from hourly data available, edited.

P15, I12-13: Or due to the large numbers of preexisting particles transported from midlatitudes.

Edited.

P29, I8: Methane sulphonic acid. Methane sulphonate is molecularly different.

Indeed, sulphonate is the corresponding base. Corrected to sulphonic acid

Figs 1 and 2: These are redundant. Figure 2 provides the information needed.

Figure 1 shows maps, while figure 2 shows size distributions. We assume that the reviewer refers to panel a and b of figure 1. While the impact of surface cover (ice, water, snow or ground) was a part of the analysis, only fractional sea ice cover is included in this paper. Thus, the reviewer is correct in addressing the redundancy of the figure parts. However, they are provided with two different satellite measurements, and they are two different analysis. Whilst Fig 1a provide the total amount of sea ice, Fig 1b provides the amount of sea ice (open pack ice, consolidated pack ice) and these are important information given these marginal sea ice zones may be playing an important role in the aerosol size distributions, as discussed in the manuscript.

Fig 3: Redundant panels. Try combining or don't show each spectrum twice.

Agreed, since the y-axes are similar on each panel, the distributions don't need to be shown together all at once.

Figs 4, 5, and 6: I assume these are data from all 3 years? Provide more details in the captions when appropriate.

More explanatory figure captions have been provided.

Fig 5: Color for accumulation is not consistent between the graphs and legend. *Well spotted, this has been remedied.*

Anonymous Referee #2

Received and published: 8 July 2018

The authors collected a unique data set of particle size distributions as well as chemical properties from three high Arctic sites during a three-year period and performed cluster analysis of the PSD to investigate the aerosol sources. Since there are few studies on Arctic aerosols, this paper certainly provides meaningful and valuable findings. It extends our knowledge of Arctic aerosols regarding particle size distribution, possible sources and chemical composition. I would recommend this paper be accepted for ACP, but major revision is needed.

We thank the reviewer for the appreciation of the paper, comments are found below

1. Is it possible to improve the title to a more precise one? Because the readers may expect to see the quantitative apportionment of natural and anthropogenic sources of Arctic aerosols. The sources are mentioned in the abstract, but there is no clear description or speculation later in results and conclusions about which category may link to natural/anthropogenic origin. I understand this apportionment could be very difficult. Perhaps authors can find a better way to summarize the main findings of the paper and show it in the title.

Edited. "Simultaneous European measurements of Arctic aerosol size distributions". Comment welcome, fair point.

2. The introduction looks quite long, so it could be shortened and the structure could be improved. For example, the third paragraph is very big (page 5 to page 7), mixing the research motivations of the three sites, the analysis method, and the need of international cooperation for future researches. Maybe authors can split the paragraph into two or more with a key sentence at the beginning or end of the paragraph, or remove some content.

The language of the introduction has been streamlined, and the overall text has been shortened a little. The paragraph was split up into three and topic sentences were added in the beginning of each new paragraph.

3. The method part actually does not contain the main method used in this paper, i.e. cluster analysis, which was found in the result part (Page 12, Lines 15-23). Any special reason for this arrangement? I would recommend authors to put the brief introduction of cluster analysis after the section 2.3. Also, the authors may provide more details of how to decide the cluster number and the reason of the current selection.

The section explaining the cluster analysis method, was moved to the method section.

4. The monthly average size distributions provide very interesting results but with limited interpretation. I would be interested to know the reason for the mode transition from June to August (single mode – bimode - single mode as shown in Fig.2). The size distributions in August and in October are very similar, anything wrong here? Should the diameter be shown as D_p to be consistent with previous text?

Many thanks for this comment, really well taken and much appreciated. The Figure of October was replaced with the correct one. All figures checked and edited and validated from original files.

I would be interested to know the reason for the mode transition from June to August (single mode – bimode - single mode as shown in Fig.2). We edited this in the text.

5. There are eight clusters of the aerosols in this paper, which are merged into three categories. The three categories were named quite early in section 3.2.1, but the following discussion was still pointing to eight clusters. I was lost in the middle of reading the paper. Maybe the authors can emphasize the three categories in the conclusion part rather than naming them early without discussion accordingly.

A clearer terminology was implemented. The cluster analysis resulted in eight size distribution categories, these categories are further assigned to three different classes. As shown here:

Class:	Category:
<i>Nucleation mode dominated</i>	<i>Pristine</i> <i>Bursting</i> <i>Nucleation</i>
<i>Aitken mode dominated</i>	<i>Nascent</i> <i>Nascent broad</i>
<i>Accumulation mode dominated</i>	<i>Accumulation_150</i> <i>Accumulation_220</i> <i>Coarse (>300)</i>

Table 1 edited

6. The authors are suggested to double check the seasons mentioned in the text with the months. For example, Page 15, Line 7: spring months are mentioned in the text while the peak of the curve was shown in June (summer?) at GRU site in Fig. 4a.

The description of the seasons and months where the categories appear was improved. Also, the caption of Figure 5 was made more precise.

7. Please double check the language to make sure the sentences are correct or precise enough on what you want to say. For example, Page 12, Lines 22-25, grammatical error? Page 18, Lines 12 - 14, it may be better to add a constraint of the sentence because the biogenic source could also be the major source for the nss-SO₄ over the remote ocean. Page 19, Lines 11-13, does the “it” here refer to DMS or MSA? You may want to say DMS?

The text of the entire manuscript was generally streamlined and language precision improved.

We hope to have made a more correct statement about nss-SO₄

Note that DMS is released by the marine phytoplankton, MSA is formed later by atmospheric photooxidation. This was clarified in the text as well.

Other general comments:

1. Please use the uniform unit, e.g. degree for latitudes, Page 7 Line 22, Page 8 Line 11, Page 8 Line 16; for distance, km or Km; Fig. or Figure.

Use of units for coordinates, distance and figure references within the text have been harmonized. Please note that “Figure” should be spelled out, and not abbreviated “Fig.” at the beginning of a sentence, according to the ACP author guidelines.

2. It seems there are many “double blank” between two words, which should be removed, e.g. Page 4, Line 20, between “they” and “have”; Page 4 Line 24, between “analysis” and “linked”.

Double spaces have been removed.

3. Please correct the title of the Figure 1, should be Jan – Dec. (a – i), also Fig. 1a – i was covered by a shadow.

Caption of figure 1 has been corrected, please note that panel (a) was found to be obsolete at was removed. We could not identify any shadow, hopefully this was a temporary technical issue.

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Simultaneous measurements of aerosol size distributions at three sites in the European High Arctic

Eliminado: Apportioning aerosol natural and anthropogenic sources thorough simultaneous aerosol size distributions and chemical composition in the European high Arctic¶
Con formato: Centrado

Manuel Dall'Osto^{1*}, David C.S. Beddows²,
Peter Tunved³, Roy. M. Harrison^{2†},
Angelo Lupi⁴, Vito Vitale⁴,
Silvia Becagli⁵, Rita Traversi⁵
Ki-Tae Park⁶ Young Jun Yoon⁶
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and Radovan Krejci³

Eliminado: Harrison³

Eliminado: Robert Lange⁷
Con formato: Sin Resaltar

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1 ABSTRACT

2 Aerosols are an integral part of the Arctic climate system due to their direct interaction with
3 radiation and indirectly through cloud formation. Understanding aerosol size distributions
4 and their dynamics is crucial for the ability to predict these climate relevant effects. When

5 of favourable size and composition, both long range transported_ as well as locally formed
6 particles _ may serve as Cloud Condensation Nuclei (CCN). Small changes of composition
7 or size may have a large impact on the low CCN concentrations currently characteristic of
8 the Arctic environment. We present a cluster analysis of particle size distributions (PSD,
9 size range 8-500nm) simultaneously collected from three high Arctic sites during a three
10 year period (2013-2015). Two sites are located in the Svalbard archipelago: Zeppelin
11 research station (ZEP, 474m above ground), and the nearby Gruvebadet Observatory
12 (GRU, about 2 km distance from Zepplelin, 67m above ground). The third site (Villum
13 Research Station – Station Nord, VRS, 30m above ground) is 600 km west-northwest of
14 Zeppelin, at the tip of north-eastern Greenland. The GRU site is included in an inter-site
15 comparison for the first time. K-means cluster analysis provided eight specific aerosol

16 categories, further combined into broad PSD classes with similar characteristics, namely:
17 pristine low concentrations (12-14% occurrence), new particle formation (16-32%), Aitken
18 (21-35%) and accumulation (20-50%). Confined for longer time periods by consolidated
19 pack sea ice regions, the Greenland site GRU shows PSD with lower ultrafine mode
20 aerosol concentrations during summer, but higher accumulation mode aerosol
21 concentrations during winter, relative to the Svalbard sites. By association with chemical
22 composition and Cloud Condensation Nuclei properties, further conclusions can be
23 derived. Three distinct types of accumulation mode aerosol are observed during winter
24 months. These are associated with sea spray (largest detectable sizes, >400 nm), Arctic
25 haze (main mode at 150nm) and aged accumulation mode (main mode at 220nm)

Eliminado: Aerosols are an integral part of the Arctic climate system due to their direct interaction with radiation and indirectly through cloud formation. Understanding aerosol size distributions and their dynamics is crucial for the ability to predict these climate relevant effects.

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Eliminado: The Gruvebadet site is included in an inter-site comparison for the first time.

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1 aerosols. In contrast, locally produced particles, most likely of marine biogenic origin,
2 exhibit size distributions dominated by the nucleation and Aitken mode during summer
3 months. The obtained data and analysis points towards future studies; including
4 apportioning the relative contribution of primary and secondary aerosol formation
5 processes, and elucidating anthropogenic aerosol dynamics, and transport and removal
6 processes across the Greenland sea. In order to address important research questions in
7 the Arctic on scales beyond singular station or measurement events, it is imperative to
8 continue strengthening international scientific cooperation.

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10 **1. INTRODUCTION**

11
12 The Arctic is a region sensitive to perturbations of the radiation budget, with complex
13 feedback mechanisms. Since the 1980s this has led to a temperature increasing more
14 than twice the global average (Cohen et al., 2014, Pithan and Mauritsen, 2014). Aerosols
15 perturb the radiation balance of the Arctic environment in numerous ways (Carslaw et al.,
16 2013). The contribution by aerosols to radiative forcing is a very important parameter,
17 although still highly uncertain (IPCC, 2014). In order to improve the ability to estimate
18 direct and indirect climate effects, a better knowledge of aerosols is an essential requisite.

Eliminado: The Arctic is a region sensitive to perturbations of the radiation budget, with complex feedback mechanisms. Since the 1980s this has led to a temperature increasing more than twice the global average (Cohen et al., 2014, Pithan and Mauritsen, 2014).

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19 This includes aerosol properties and seasonal variability, their sources, and the associated
20 atmospheric reactions and transport processes. One of the main characteristic properties
21 to of an aerosol, is the size distribution. The size distribution of Arctic aerosols show a
22 strong annual cycle. For example, the first full year of measurements of Arctic aerosol size
23 distributions and chemical composition was conducted at the Zeppelin station on Svalbard
24 (Strom et al. 2003), showing a very strong seasonal dependence of the number mode

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1 particle size. Tunved et al. (2013) subsequently reported a qualitative and quantitative
2 assessment of more than 10 years of aerosol number size distribution data from the same
3 location. The reported that seasonal variation seems to be controlled by both dominant
4 sources as well as meteorological conditions. This can be broadly summarised in three
5 distinctly different periods: accumulation mode aerosol during the haze period (March–
6 May), followed by high concentrations of locally formed small particles (June–August), and
7 low concentrations of accumulation mode particles and negligible abundance of ultrafine
8 particles for the remainder of the year (September–February). Additional results from
9 multi-year measurements reported similar conclusions using aerosol number size
10 distributions collected at Tiksi (Asmi et al., 2016), Alert (Croft et al., 2016), Barrow (Latham
11 et al., 2013, Sharma et al., 2006; Polissar et al., 2001) and Villum Research Station -
12 Station Nord (Nguyen et al., 2016).

Eliminado: Tunved et al. (2013) subsequently reported a qualitative and quantitative assessment of more than 10 years of aerosol number size distribution data from the same location.

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13 Currently, the Arctic haze is not well represented within atmospheric models, mainly due to
14 inadequate representation of scavenging processes, different transport mechanisms, and
15 underestimation and an unknown number of aerosol sources (Browse et al., 2014).

16 Recently, the aerosol population was categorised via cluster analysis of aerosol size
17 distributions taken at Mt Zeppelin (Svalbard, Dall’Osto et al., 2017a) during an 11 year
18 record (2000-2010) and at Villum Research Station (Greenland, Dall’Osto et al., 2018b)
19 during a 5 year period (2012-2016). Outside the Arctic haze season, natural aerosol
20 sources have been emphasized to be more important than transport from continental
21 anthropogenic sources. Air mass trajectory analysis linked frequent nucleation events to
22 biogenic precursors released by open water and melting sea ice regions, especially during
23 the summer season. Both studies reported a striking negative correlation ($r = -0.89$ and -
24 0.75, respectively) between sea ice extent and nucleation events. Given the likely
25 decrease in future Arctic sea ice extend (Holland et al., 2006; Stroeve et al., 2012), the

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1 production and impact of natural ultrafine Arctic aerosols could increase as well in the
2 future (Burkart et al., 2017; Dall’Osto et al., 2017a; Dall’Osto et al., 2018b,c). However, it
3 was stressed that further studies are needed, given other new particle formation source
4 regions and mechanisms exist, including an influence of emissions from seabird colonies
5 (Croft et al., 2016; Weber et al., 1998) and intertidal zones (O’Dowd et al., 2002; Sipila et
6 al., 2016).

7 With this work, we wish to extend the knowledge of pan-Arctic aerosol dynamics. It is
8 becoming evident that coordinated field measurement studies of ambient aerosol size
9 distributions are essential to elucidate the complex interactions between the cryosphere,
10 atmosphere, ocean, and biosphere in different regions (Dall’Osto et al., 2018 a, b). In this
11 regard, an emerging multi-year set of observed aerosol number size distributions in the
12 diameter range of 10 to 500 nm from five sites around the Arctic Ocean (Alert, Villum
13 Research Station – Station Nord, Zeppelin, Tiksi and Barrow) was recently assembled and
14 analysed (Freud et al., 2017). Major accumulation mode aerosol sources were found in
15 central Siberia and western Russia, and wet removal by snow or rain was found to be the
16 main sink for accumulation mode particles. It was argued that there is no single site that
17 can be considered as fully representative for the entire Arctic region with respect to
18 aerosol number concentrations and distributions. Following the pioneering study of Freud
19 et al. (2017), the aim of this paper is to present a detailed analysis of the main differences
20 and similarities of the general features of the number size distributions between three
21 different sites across a more specific area in the Arctic in the North Atlantic sector. We use
22 data from the stations Gruebadet (GRU), Zeppelin (ZEP) and Villum Research Station –
23 Station Nord (VRS). The European Arctic is understood here as the part of the circumpolar
24 Arctic located between Greenland and northwest Russia. Geographically, Greenland is
25 part of the continent of North America. The Fram Stait, roughly between 77° N and 81° N

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1 latitude and centered on the prime meridian, is located between Greenland and Svalbard
2 islands. The climate in the Northern hemisphere is centered in the Fram Strait. The golf
3 Stream brings warm water to the eastern part of Fram Strait, where Svalbard is located
4 creating a mild climate, whereas an ice stream is flowing out of the Arctic Ocean along the
5 East Coast of Greenland with a strong cooling effect. As a consequence, a large
6 atmospheric temperature gradient exists across the Fram Strait of 16 °C with an annual
7 average temperature at Villum Research Station at Station Nord of -16 °C and -2 °C at
8 Longyear byen, Svalbard. 18 yr of observational data form the basis for a Ny-Ålesund
9 atmospheric surface climatology provided a statistical analysis showing an increase of air
10 temperature of 1.35 °C per decade for the years 1994–2010 (Maturilli et al., 2013, 2015).
11 This gradient has large consequences for the physical and chemical processes as well for
12 the biological systems (Fadeev et al., 2018; Randelhoff et al., 2018). In a nutshell, the
13 Svalbard archipelago is among the Arctic regions that has experienced the greatest
14 temperature increase during the last three decades (Nordli et al., 2014), therefore
15 comparing aerosol measurements simultaneously collected in Greenland and Svalbard is
16 essential to better understand aerosol sources and processes that may affect the changing
17 climate. Previous studies have focused on the characterization via air mass origin
18 frequency and occurrence of different aerosol modes over time scales in the order of
19 weeks to years (Strom et al., 2003; Tunved et al., 2010; Nguyen et al., 2016; Lupi et al.,
20 2016), but only using a single station as monitoring site. A brief comparison between ZEP
21 and GRU was made in Lupi et al (2016), showing good agreement over a period of three
22 months.

23 Statistical tools are valuable when analysing large datasets from multiple locations. To
24 capture more scales of Arctic aerosol variability, it is important to merge intensive field
25 campaigns and long-term measurements across different stations. Provision of the

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1 extensive resource-demanding equipment required is only possible by means of
2 international collaborations such those created in the present work. A growing effort in
3 understanding recent drastic changes in the Arctic climate has stimulated more
4 ~~measurements, and a growing number of monitoring sites have become active. In the~~
5 ~~present work, aerosol size distributions are analyzed by using k-means cluster analysis~~
6 (Beddows et al., 2009) applied to a long term dataset composed of three years (2013-
7 2015) simultaneously recorded data at three stations (GRU, ZEP, VRS). This is the first
8 time that the GRU site is used in a comparison of multi-year aerosol number size
9 distribution datasets. All size distributions are quality assured, and not filtered according to
10 any other criteria. The cluster analysis applied herein uses the degree of similarity
11 between individual observations to define groups and to assign group membership. By
12 doing so, our clustering method provides a number of group average size distributions
13 which can be compared across different time periods and monitoring sites (Beddows et al.,
14 2009; Dall'Osto et al., 2011; Dall'Osto et al., 2018b). Whilst a number of intensive field
15 studies have focused on single site datasets (Tunved et al., 2004; Dall'Osto et al., 2017a,
16 Dall'Osto et al., 2018b), cluster analyses of multi-site long-term particle size distributions
17 measurements are scarce (Freud et al., 2017; Dall'Osto et al., 2018b). It is important to
18 stress the the only aim of this study was to compare the three stations by apportioning
19 different aerosol categories and possible source associations. Future studies will look at
20 transport, both vertical (i.e. between VRS and GRU/VRS) and horizontal (i.e between GRU
21 and ZEP) of both anthropogenic and natural aerosols.

Eliminado: measurements, and a growing number of monitoring sites have become active. In the present work, aerosol size distributions are analyzed by using k-means cluster analysis

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23 **2. METHODS**

24 **2.1 Site Description**

1 Ultrafine aerosol size distributions were measured at three different sites. Fig. 1 shows the
2 location and the sea ice coverage across the whole of 2015 taken as an example. The
3 measurement site of Zeppelin Mountain (ZEP) in the Ny-Ålesund community on Svalbard
4 is situated at 78° 54' N and 11° 53' E on the. The Zeppelin (ZEP) station is located 474 m
5 above sea level, and practically unaffected by local anthropogenic aerosol and pollution
6 sources. Compared to stations closer to sea level, the Zeppelin station is less affected by
7 local particle production occurring in the surf zone, and to local air flow phenomena such
8 as katabatic winds (Strom et al., 2003). The ZEP station is part of ACTRIS Data Centre
9 (ACTRIS DC, developed through the EU project Aerosols, Clouds, and Trace gases
10 Research InfraStructure Network - URI: <http://www.actris.eu> - within the EC 7th
11 Framework Programme under "Research Infrastructures for Atmospheric Research"), part
12 of the Global Atmosphere Watch (GAW) programme, and it has likely produced the
13 longest Arctic aerosol size distribution dataset existing (Strom et al., 2003, Tunved et al.,
14 2010; Freud et al., 2017).

15 The Gruvebadet (GRU) observatory is also located in the proximity of the village of Ny-
16 Ålesund (78° 55' N, 11° 56' E) in the island archipelago of Svalbard. The observatory is 67
17 m above sea level, located south-east of the main buildings of the village. It is located
18 about 2 km distant from the ZEP station, at about 350m lower altitude. Aerosol size
19 distributions were collected usually from the end of March to the beginning of September.

20 About 800 km away from Svalbard, the Villum research station (VRS) is situated at the
21 Station Nord military facility. Located at 81° 36' N, 16° 40' W the station is situated in the
22 most north-eastern part of Greenland, at the coast of the Fram Strait. The sampling took
23 place about 2 km south-west of the main facilities of the military camp, in two different
24 sampling stations, as measurements were shifted in summer 2015 from the original hut

Eliminado: Ultrafine aerosol size distributions were measured at three different sites. Fig. 1 shows the location and the sea ice coverage across the whole of 2015 taken as an example. ¶
The measurement site of Zeppelin Mountain (ZEP) in the Ny-Ålesund community on Svalbard is situated at 78° 54' N and 11° 53' E on the. The Zeppelin (ZEP) station is located 474 m above sea level, and practically unaffected by local anthropogenic aerosol and pollution sources. Compared to stations closer to sea level, the Zeppelin station is less affected by local particle production occurring in the surf zone, and to local air flow phenomena such as katabatic winds (Strom et al., 2003).

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Eliminado: About 800 km away from Svalbard, the Villum research station (VRS) is situated at the Station Nord military facility. Located at 81° 36' N, 16° 40' W the station is situated in the most north-eastern part of Greenland, at the coast of the Fram Strait.

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1 called “Flygers hut” to the new air observatory, 300 m west of “Flygers hut”. The sampling
2 locations are located upwind of the military camp for most of the time (Lange et al., 2018).
3 Detailed descriptions of the site and analysis of predominant wind directions are available
4 elsewhere (Nguyen et al., 2016; Nguyen et al., 2013)

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5 6 **2.2 Dataset**

7 **2.2.1 ZEP DMPS**

8 The Differential Mobility Particle Sizer (DMPS) system comprises a custom-built twin
9 differential mobility analyser (DMA) setup, including one Vienna-type medium DMA
10 coupled to a TSI Condensation Particle Counter (CPC) 3010 covering sizes between 25
11 and 800 nm and a Vienna-type short DMA coupled with a TSI CPC 3772, effectively
12 covering sizes between 5 and 60 nm. The number size distributions from the two systems
13 are transferred to a common size grid and merged. Both systems use a closed-loop setup.
14 The instrument has been inter-calibrated during an ACTRIS (www.actris.eu) workshop.
15 Sizing and number concentrations are within 1 and 5% from the standard DMPS,
16 respectively (Freud et al., 2017).

17

18 **2.2.2 GRU SMPS**

19 Aerosol size distribution in the diameter range from 10 to 470 nm using 54 channels were
20 measured with a commercial Scanning Mobility Particle Sizer SMPS TSI 3034, (Hogrefe et
21 al. 2006), with a time resolution of 10 min and particle size with a resolution of $d\log D_j$
22 equivalent to 0.0312, where D_j indicates the instrumental class size. Further information
23 can be found elsewhere (Lupi et al., 2016).

1 2.2.3 VRS SMPS

2 Scanning Mobility Particle Sizer (SMPS) data was collected in the period 2013-2015 in the
3 size range of 9-915 nm in diameter. The SMPS is custom built with a Vienna-type medium
4 column, it used either a model TSI 3010 CPC or model TSI 7220 CPC. To ensure correct
5 functioning, volumetric flow rates, temperatures and relative humidity (RH) of the aerosol-
6 and sheath flow were monitored, as well as inlet ambient pressure. No additional drying
7 was performed, as the transition from the low ambient temperatures outside of the huts (-
8 45 to +15 °C, yearly average -15 °C) to the heated inside (>20 °C) generally provides
9 sufficient decrease in RH.

10

11 2.3 K-means cluster analysis

12 Approximately 25,000 aerosol size distributions obtained at one hour resolution at the
13 three monitoring sites were averaged to daily resolution, normalised by their vector-length
14 and analysed for clusters (Beddows et al., 2009). The standard procedure used (Beddows
15 at al., 2014), including the Cluster Tendency test, provided a Hopkins Index of 0.20
16 (Beddows et al., 2009). The method minimizes the sum of squared distances between all
17 points and the cluster centres. This allows identification of homogeneous groups by
18 minimizing the clustering error defined as the sum of the squared Euclidean distances
19 between each data point and the corresponding cluster centre. The complexity of the
20 dataset is reduced, allowing characterization of the data according to the temporal and
21 spatial trends of the clusters. In order to choose the optimum number of clusters, the
22 Dunn-Index (DI) identifies dense and well separated clusters. It provided a clear maximum
23 for eight clusters, some of which belonged only to specific times of day, specific
24 mechanisms as well as specific seasons.

Eliminado: 2.3 K-means cluster analysis¶

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2 **2.4 Data analysis and additional chemical and physical supporting data**

Eliminado: 2.4 Data analysis and additional chemical and physical supporting data

3 SMPS data from the three different stations were combined and only days where
4 measurements were available at all three stations were considered in this analysis,
5 resulting in 584 total days. Additional chemical and physical data was included in this
6 study, in order to better describe the sampled aerosol types, these data were overlapped
7 according the same temporal trends, when possible, PM₁₀ sampling was performed at the
8 GRU station by a TECORA Skypost sequential sampler equipped with a PM₁₀ sampling
9 head, operating following the EN 12341 European protocol. Aerosol samples were
10 collected daily on Teflon (PALL Gelman) filters from March to September 2013-2015, in
11 total 385 daily samples were analysed and overlapped with the GRU aerosol size
12 distributions. Methane sulfonic acid (MSA) was determined by ion chromatography on the
13 aqueous extract obtained from one half of each filter (Becagli et al., 2016). Gaseous NH₃
14 and SO₂ data, and inorganic aerosol species (Na, Mg, Cl, K, sulphate, nitrate, ammonium)
15 at the ZEP monitoring site were obtained at daily resolution from the NILU website data for
16 the period 2013–2015 (total days 650 overlap). Concentrations of Cloud Condensation
17 Nuclei (CCN) were measured continuously using a commercially available Droplet
18 Measurement Technology (DMT) CCN counter at the ZEP station. In this study we used
19 CCN concentrations at a supersaturation of 0.4%. In total, 723 days of sampling were
20 obtained at hourly resolution for the years 2013-2015 and overlapped with the aerosol size
21 distributions obtained at ZEP. The size distribution data was averaged over 24 hours using
22 the start and end time of the chemical measurements.

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1 3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

2 3 3.1 Average monthly size distributions 4

5 The monthly averaged aerosol size distributions - averaged from the hourly data available
6 at the three sites - are presented in Fig. 2. Simultaneously collected data are presented for
7 the whole years (2013-2015). However, GRU did not have data coverage during winter
8 months (November through February). The average size distributions at ZEP and VRS are
9 broadly similar during the months of January and February (2a-b), with low particle number
10 concentrations and a broad accumulation mode, although larger at the ZEP site (about
11 250 nm) than at the VRS one (about 180 nm). The months of March and April (Fig. 2c-d)
12 present similar size distributions among the three stations, showing a main large
13 accumulation mode peak at about 190 nm, likely associated with the Arctic haze occurring
14 mainly during these months. It is worth noting that higher ultrafine particle number
15 concentrations are seen in these two months relative to Jan-Feb (Fig. 2a-b). During the
16 month of May (Fig. 2e) a clear increase of ultrafine particles can be seen at the Svalbard
17 sites (GRU, ZEP) due to local new particle formation. The increased occurrence of new
18 particle formation (NPF) events in May was found to correspond with the increasing
19 concentration of biogenic aerosol in the Svalbard sites (Becagli et al., 2016; Dall'Osto et
20 al., 2017a). Interestingly, the VRS site does not show this enrichment, likely due to the fact
21 that sea ice is still covering most of the areas near north-eastern Greenland (Dall'Osto et
22 al., 2017a).
23 In contrast, during the summer months of June-August, progressively higher
24 concentrations of ultrafine particles can be seen at all sites. Tunved et al. (2013)
25 extensively discussed a strikingly sharp transition between spring and summer periods, a
26 regime shifting between polluted spring and relatively cleaner summer at the ZEP site.

1 Indeed, in a short period of time the accumulation aerosol dominating the spring time is
2 diminished in favour of smaller particles (Engvall et al., 2008; Tunved et al., 2013).
3 The aerosol mode transition from June to August is interesting. Already reported in Tunved
4 et al. (2013), there is a shift from a monomodal mode at about 20-30nm (June) to a
5 monomodal mode at about 40-50nm (August), with a transition bimodal mode in between
6 (July). The reasons for this transition are likely to be multiple, including wet removal
7 resulting in reduced condensation sink, leading to higher concentration of gaseous
8 precursors suitable for nucleation and new particle formation growing to larger modes (40-
9 50nm). Additionally, different nucleating gas and precursors may be playing a role on
10 different seasons. Indeed, a strong increase in phytoplankton abundance typically occurs
11 in the early spring (Arctic spring bloom) contributing to emissions of biogenic gas
12 precursors (Becagli et al., 2016; Park et al., 2018). During summer, phytoplankton
13 production beneath the ice-covered Arctic Ocean is considered to be minor because of the
14 strong light attenuation properties of snow and sea ice; however this paradigm is being
15 challenged by observations of under-ice phytoplankton blooms during the summer melt
16 season (Arrigo et al., 2012; Mundy et al., 2014; Assmy et al., 2017).

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17 Changes in sources, sinks and processes associated with colder autumn months (Tunved
18 et al., 2013; Freud et al., 2017) later shifts the aerosol modes seen at about 20-40 nm
19 (September, Fig. 2i) to a bimodal-like aerosol distribution seen in October (Fig. 2j), with
20 two main aerosol modes at about 50 nm and 150 nm, respectively. The remaining winter
21 months show low particle number concentrations, where data is available for ZEP and
22 VRS only. As expected, whilst the sites at GRU and ZEP are broadly similar, the VRS site
23 located in Greenland seems to have fewer new particle events happening at a lower
24 frequency. In order to fully elucidate the chemical and physical processes affecting the

1 aerosol size distributions, we use statistical tools to reduce the complexity of these SMPS
2 datasets.

3

4

5 **3.2 K-means clustering analysis**

6

7 The eight K-means clusters obtained exhibited frequencies of occurrence which varied
8 between 1% and 42% (Table 1), without any clusters dominating the overall population.

Eliminado: The eight K-means clusters obtained exhibited frequencies of occurrence which varied between 1% and 42% (Table 1), without any clusters dominating the overall population.

9 The individual clusters could be distributed into three main groups named nucleation,
10 Aitken and accumulation classes. This additional classification was based not only upon
11 their similar size distributions (see Fig. 3a–d) but also by considering strong similarities
12 between chemical and physical parameters presented in the following sections. The
13 reduction to the three more-generic classifications was based on our data interpretation.
14 The average aerosol size distributions of each aerosol category are presented in Fig. 3: (a)
15 pristine and nucleation mode classes; (b) Aitken mode dominated classes and (c)
16 accumulation mode dominated classes.

17

18 **3.2.1 Aerosol categories and occurrence**

19

20 An aerosol K-means cluster can be interpreted as a particle size spectrum which is
21 determined by a superposition of individual sources and processes. Therefore, the name
22 of each cluster aims only to reflect a main feature associated with the particle size
23 spectrum. It is not possible to associate a single source or process, given that each cluster
24 results from a combination of multiple sources. The same aerosol category terminology
25 was used in previous work, additional information can be found elsewhere (Dall'Osto et
26 al., 2017a, 2018b, Lange et al., 2018). Figure 3a (blue line) shows that the *pristine*

1 category is associated with very low particle number concentrations (<100 particles cm^{-3}).
2 Average aerosol number concentrations across different sizes are shown in Fig. 3a, with
3 two minor modes at 35 nm and 135 nm. The *nucleation* category (Fig. 3a, red line) shows
4 average daily aerosol number size distributions peaking in the smallest detectable size at
5 10 nm. The name of this category - which will be used below to represent new particle
6 formation events - stands for continuous gas-to-particle conversion occurring after the
7 particle nucleation event. By contrast, Fig. 3a (green line) shows the average number size
8 distribution with an ultrafine mode peaking at about 20-30 nm. We refer to this *bursting*
9 category as a population that bursts and begin to exist or develop. Contrary to the
10 *nucleation* category, this one fails to grow to larger sizes. The origins of this aerosol type
11 can be multiple, including new particle formation with limited growth (so called "apple" new
12 particle formation events), or open ocean nucleation, an Arctic ultrafine primary origin can
13 also not be ruled out.

Eliminado: The origins of this aerosol type can be multiple, including new particle formation with limited growth (so called "apple" new particle formation events), or open ocean nucleation, an Arctic ultrafine primary origin can also not be ruled out.

14 Fig. 3b shows two main aerosol categories with a dominating aerosol mode peaking in the
15 Aitken size range at about 30-60 nm. Whilst aerosol the *nascent* category possess a main
16 mode at about 40 nm, the category *nascent broad* shows a much broader Aitken mode
17 peaking at about 60 nm. The name of this category is meant to be associated with aerosol
18 (of about 30-60nm) related mainly from growing aerosol of secondary origin related to local
19 and regional marine biogenic sources, occurring mainly during summer (Quinn et al.,
20 2011; Tunved et al., 2013). By contrast, Fig. 3c shows three aerosol categories whose
21 aerosol size distributions are all mainly located in size ranges larger than 100 nm. Main
22 modes can be seen at 150 nm (category *accumulation_150*), at 220 nm (category
23 *accumulation_220*) and in the largest detected SMPS modes at about 400-500 nm
24 (category *coarse*).

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1 The temporal frequency during the years 2013-2015 of the eight aerosol categories is
2 presented in Table 1. The category *pristine* presents a remarkably similar occurrence
3 among the three monitoring sites (12-14%). The *nucleation* category is more frequent at
4 the Svalbard sites (11-15%) relative to the VRS site (8%). A similar pattern can be seen for
5 the *bursting* category. It is also more frequent at GRU-ZEP (14-21%) relative to VRS (8%).
6 Interestingly, the *bursting* shows high occurrence at GRU (21%), perhaps reflecting some
7 processes occurring near sea level across the fjord. The two Aitken categories (*nascent*
8 and *nascent broad*) do not show such variability (7-21%). By contrast, strong differences
9 are seen in the accumulation mode dominated aerosol categories. For example,
10 *accumulation_150* is frequent at the ZEP site (19%), whereas at the VRS site the
11 dominating category is *accumulation_220* (42%), confirming a recent study specific on
12 characterization of distinct Arctic aerosol accumulation modes and their sources (Lange et
13 al., 2018). Finally, the *coarse* aerosol category shows minor occurrence at all three sites
14 (1-4%).

Eliminado: confirming a recent study specific on characterization of distinct Arctic aerosol accumulation modes and their sources (Lange et al., 2018).

16 3.2.2 Annual behaviour

18 The *pristine* category did not present a clear annual seasonality at the ZEP and VRS sites,
19 although at the GRU site it occurred mainly during early summer months (Fig. 4a). The
20 *nucleation* category clearly showed high occurrence during summer months at the VRS
21 site. By contrast, at the Svalbard sites (GRU, ZEP) aerosol concentrations dominate in
22 May and in August (Fig. 4b). Similar trends can be seen for the *bursting* category (Fig. 4c).
23 Whilst at the VRS site this category shows occurrence similar to the *nucleation* category
24 (Fig. 4b), at the Svalbard sites (GRU, ZEP) it mainly occurs during May-July. As previously
25 discussed (Dall'Osto et al., 2017a, Dall'Osto et al., 2018) the lack of gaseous precursors

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1 during spring may be the limiting factors for the formation of new particles, and or due to
2 the large numbers of preexisting particles transported from midlatitudes. The two Aitken
3 mode dominated aerosol categories (*Nascent* and *Nascent broad*) show very similar
4 temporal trends, peaking mainly during summer months at all three stations (Fig. 4d, e).
5 Previous studies already discussed freshly and locally produced aerosol particles
6 dominating the Arctic summer, driven by an increase in both biological activity and
7 photochemistry, as well as limited long range transport from mid latitudes (Ström et al.,
8 2009). Therefore, particles are not growing further than into a pronounced Aitken mode in
9 summer months, particularly in July and August (Tunved et al., 2013, Dall’Osto et al.,
10 2017a). The *accumulation_150* category peaks mainly during the months of February-April
11 confirming its association with the Arctic haze phenomenon (Fig. 4f) at all three stations.
12 By contrast, the larger *accumulation_220* mode category occurs during all autumn and
13 winter months at ZEP, including October-December (Fig. 4g). Finally, the *coarse* category
14 does not show any clear trend due to its low frequency (Fig. 4h). The overall annual
15 frequency is summarised in Fig. 5, where the aerosol classes are shown. It is well known
16 that the Arctic atmosphere is more heavily impacted by transport of air pollution from lower
17 latitudes in spring compared to in summer (Heidam et al., 2004; Law and Stohl, 2007). The
18 continent-derived winter and spring aerosols, known as Arctic haze, reach their maximum
19 number concentration during late spring, approximately in April (Tunved et al., 2013;
20 Nguyen et al. 2016). We would like to remind at this stage that the recent intercomparison
21 of particle number size distributions from several Arctic stations by Freud et al. (2017)
22 suggests differences between the studied stations regarding cluster frequency of
23 occurrence throughout the year. The most prominent differences were observed between
24 the stations at Barrow and Zeppelin, but the GRU site was not consider in their analysis.

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25

3.2.3 Association of aerosol categories with chemical and physical parameters

Different chemical species of natural and anthropogenic origin may contribute to the Arctic aerosol (Tunved et al., 2013; Hirdman et al., 2010). In this section we compare - where possible - the aerosol size distribution categories herein apportioned with the chemical and physical parameters available in selected Arctic stations. A limitation of this study is that chemical and physical parameters were not simultaneously collected at the three stations for the entire period of study (2013-2015). Nevertheless, this section add value to the work by presenting chemical and physical parameters when available. SO₂ in the Arctic has both anthropogenic and natural sources (Barriel et al., 1986), but in our study it is mainly occurring with accumulation mode aerosols during wintertime (Fig. 6a, ZEP site only). Combustion-derived particles can be transported to the Arctic and experience aging of the aerosol through condensational processes. Our study confirms previous findings where SO₂ was shown to correlate with black carbon both at VRS and ZEP (Nguyen et al., 2013; Massling et al., 2015, Dall'Osto et al., 2017a). By contrast, we find the highest concentrations of ammonia associated with the *nucleation* category. Interestingly, also the two Aitken mode dominated categories (*nascent* and *nascent broad*) show high concentrations of ammonia (Fig. 6b, ZEP site only). Ammonia can increase rates of new particle formation and growth via stabilization of sulphuric acid clusters (Kirkby et al., 2011). There is growing interest to better constrain the ammonia emissions of the Arctic. Zooplankton excretion and bacterial remineralization of phytoplankton-derived organic matter is believed to be a dominant source in the marine environment (Carpenter et al., 2012), although there remains considerable uncertainty (Lin et al., 2016). The melting of sea ice is also a significant source of ammonium (Tovar-Sanchez et al., 2010) with protein-like compounds accumulating at the sea-ice interface (Galgani et al., 2016). Similar

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In this section we compare - where possible - the aerosol categories apportioned with chemical and physical parameters available in selected Arctic stations. A limitation of this study is that chemical and physical parameters were not simultaneously collected at the three stations for the entire period of study (2013-2015).

Eliminado: Different chemical species of natural and anthropogenic origin may contribute to the Arctic aerosol (Tunved et al., 2013; Hirdman et al., 2010).

1 processes have also been seen at Antarctic sea ice (Dall'Osto et al., 2017b). There is
2 evidence that coastal seabird colonies are sources of NH_3 in the summertime Arctic
3 (Wentworth et al., 2016), although this is still uncertain (Riddich et al., 2012). Recently,
4 ammonia from seabirds was found to be a key factor contributing to bursts of newly formed
5 coastal particles at Alert, Canada (Croft et al., 2016). However, regions of open water and
6 melting sea ice were found to drive new particle formation in North East Greenland
7 (Dall'Osto et al., 2018b). These new particle formation events did not seem to be related
8 to coastal zone bird colonies.

9 The association of size distribution categories with selected aerosol chemical components
10 measured at GRU and ZEP are shown in Fig. 7. The shown aerosol chemical composition
11 is derived from PM_{10} measurements, and thus does not necessarily reflect the chemical
12 composition of the aerosol covered by the size distribution analysis herein presented and
13 discussed. Nevertheless, the comparison may help apportioning aerosol sources and
14 processes. Figure 7 (a-c) shows similar trends for three chemical elements (Cl, Na, Mg).
15 Mechanically generated sea salt particles are normally found in the coarser size fraction,
16 indicating a marine source for Na, Mg and Cl. Indeed, the highest concentrations are seen
17 for the *coarse* category (about 350 ng m^{-3} , 300 ng m^{-3} and 40 ng m^{-3} for Cl, Na and Mg,
18 respectively), followed by categories *accumulation_150*, *accumulation_220* and *pristine*.
19 Sea spray aerosol (SSA) is generated by bubble bursting due to surface winds. The
20 contribution of SSA to the global aerosol burden is multiple times larger than that of
21 anthropogenic aerosols (Raes et al., 2000; Grythe et al., 2014). Potassium can be
22 associated with sea salt, although K-rich particles are often also attributed to biomass
23 burning (Hudson et al., 2004; Moroni et al., 2017), correlating with gas-phase acetonitrile,
24 a good biomass-burning tracer. Indeed, accumulation mode aerosol categories show high
25 concentrations of potassium (about $25\text{-}30 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$), but the trend is not observed for the

1 | *pristine* category, likely more associated with biogenic Arctic activity. Non-sea-salt
2 sulphate (nss-SO₄) is a mixed source tracer with a large anthropogenic fossil and biomass
3 fuel component. At the same time nss-SO₄ is also formed in large quantities from
4 atmospheric oxidation of dimethyl sulphide (DMS), this is further elaborated below. Aerosol
5 nitrate is predominantly anthropogenic and arises from the oxidation of NO_x from
6 combustion processes associated with vehicles and industrial activity. A considerable
7 proportion of acidic nitric and sulphuric aerosols are neutralized in the atmosphere by NH₃
8 (Asman et al., 1998). The two categories with the highest concentrations of sulphate,
9 nitrate and ammonium are found to be *accumulation_150* and *accumulation_220* (about
10 500 ng m⁻³, 120 ng m⁻³ and 65 ng m⁻³, respectively) suggesting that these two categories
11 are composed of a number of combined primary and secondary components of
12 anthropogenic origin. It is interesting to note that ammonium is only partly neutralising the
13 Arctic aerosols (in average with one-third). Following, the aerosols are highly acidic.
14 Overall, the lowest aerosol mass concentrations seen in Fig. 7 (a-e) are the *nucleation*,
15 *nascent* and *nascent broad* categories. This is not surprising, because the occurrence of
16 NPF events and growth to the Aitken mode is mainly controlled not only by the presence of
17 precursor gases, but also by pre-existing particle concentrations (Kulmala et al., 2001).
18 Indeed, these events are often found under low aerosol concentration conditions in remote
19 areas (Tunved et al., 2013). The low aerosol mass concentrations associated with these
20 recently formed categories still allow us to draw important conclusions about the possible
21 sources forming these new particles. An opposite trend relative to the previously discussed
22 chemical aerosol markers can be seen in Fig. 7h, showing methane sulphononic acid (MSA)
23 concentrations sampled at the GRU monitoring site. The highest concentrations can be
24 seen for the categories *bursting*, *nucleation*, *nascent* and *nascent broad*. MSA is formed
25 via oxidation of DMS, a gas produced by marine phytoplankton (Gali et al., 2015). DMS is

1 the most abundant form of biogenic sulphur released from the ocean (Lovelock et al.,
2 1972; Stefels et al., 2007). Previous studies show that the emission of oceanic DMS may
3 impact aerosol formation in the Arctic atmosphere (Levasseur et al., 2013; Becagli et al.,
4 2016, Dall'Osto et al., 2017a). A recent study at the ZEP size shows that during summer,
5 the impact of the anthropogenic sources upon sulphate is lower (42%), with a contribution
6 comparable to that coming from biogenic emissions (35%) (Udisti et al., 2016). The
7 association of MSA not only with the *nucleation* but also with the *bursting* category
8 suggests that secondary processes may drive both categories. However, it is important to
9 stress that high uncertainty regarding the mechanism of aerosol production in the Arctic -
10 especially from leads and open pack ice - still remains (Leck et al., 2002). The interactions
11 between the surface layer of the ocean and the atmosphere are highly variable and
12 ecosystem interactions are more important than any single biological variable. For
13 example, Park et al. (2018) discussed atmospheric DMS in the Arctic Ocean and its
14 relation to phytoplankton biomass. The DMS production capacity of the Greenland Sea
15 was estimated to be a factor of three greater than that of the Barents Sea, whereas the
16 phytoplankton biomass in the Barents Sea was more than two fold greater than that in the
17 Greenland Sea, stressing the occurrence of a greater abundance of DMS-producing
18 phytoplankton in the Greenland Sea than in the Barents Sea, during the phytoplankton
19 bloom periods.

20 The chemical nature and origin of the fine particulate matter over Arctic regions, and
21 especially of its organic fraction, are still largely unknown (Kawamura et al., 1996a, b;
22 Leaitch et al., 2018). Water-soluble dicarboxylic acids, oxocarboxylic acids and α -
23 dicarbonyls are ubiquitously found from the ground surface to the free troposphere
24 (Decesari et al., 2006; Kawamura and Bikkina, 2016). Primary sources include fossil fuel
25 combustion and burning of biomass and biofuels. Secondary sources include production of

1 volatile organic compounds (VOCs) via photooxidation and unsaturated fatty acids (UFAs)
2 derived from anthropogenic and biogenic sources. VOC sources include wildfire,
3 emissions from snow, ocean, sea ice, boreal forest and tundra (Tunved et al., 2006;
4 Carpenter et al., 2012, Kos et al., 2014; Haque et al., 2016, Mungall et al., 2017). For this
5 study, we were able to compare our SMPS aerosol categorization with two organic
6 chemical species measured at daily time resolution at the GRU monitoring sites. Results
7 are shown in Fig. 8. A clear anti-correlation can be seen for oxalic and pyruvic acid.
8 Broadly, in the remote marine atmosphere, pyruvic acid may be produced by
9 photochemical oxidation of isoprene and other biogenic volatile organic compounds
10 (BVOCs) emitted from marine biota, which are finally oxidized to produce oxalic acid
11 (Carlton et al., 2007; Carpenter et al., 2012; Bikkina et al., 2014). Oxalic acid is often found
12 as the most abundant water-soluble organic compound in aerosols, and in-cloud
13 processing is recognized as its major production pathway (Yu et al., 2005). Figure 8 further
14 supports our hypothesis that the aerosol categories defined by low mass concentrations
15 and numerous ultrafine sub-50 nm particles are associated with rather local secondary
16 processes from marine VOC sources. Recent studies have found that lower organic mass
17 (OM) concentrations but higher ratios of OM to non-sea-salt sulfate mass concentrations
18 accompany smaller particles during the summer (Leitch et al., 2018), illustrating that
19 marine Arctic organic components are responsible for the ultrafine aerosol population.
20 CCN number concentrations influence cloud microphysical and radiative properties, and
21 consequently the aerosol indirect radiative forcing (IPCC, 2014). The variability of even low
22 concentrations of CCN is important in the Arctic, an environment where cloud formation –
23 and hence cloud forcing – is limited by the CCN availability (Mauritsen et al., 2011). Figure
24 | 9 ([ZEP site only](#)) shows that the two accumulation categories (*accumulation_150* and
25 *accumulation_220*) are associated with the highest CCN concentrations (about 125 cm⁻³)

1 as well as the highest ratio of CCN over N. Usually, ultrafine particles smaller than 100 nm
2 in diameter are considered too small to activate to cloud droplets. However, Leaitch et al.
3 (2016) concluded that 20–100 nm particles from Arctic natural sources can have a broad
4 impact on the range of cloud droplet number concentrations (CDNC) in clean
5 environments, affirming a large uncertainty in estimating a baseline for the cloud albedo
6 effect. Changes in pressure and temperature may not be efficient enough to generate the
7 required supersaturations needed to activate smaller particles (Browse et al., 2014;
8 Leaitch et al., 2013). However, the low concentrations of accumulation mode aerosols
9 often found in the Arctic may lower water vapour uptake rates during droplet formation,
10 and the resulting increased supersaturation may enable smaller particles to become cloud
11 droplets. The *nascent* and *nascent broad* categories also show associations with high
12 CCN concentrations, despite the much lower average size distributions (Fig. 3d). Natural
13 sources indeed have a significant impact on particle number over summer. Hereby these
14 natural sources facilitate aerosol activation to cloud droplets and thus cloud formation.
15 *Pristine*, *bursting* and *nucleation* categories show very low associated CCN concentrations
16 (about 50-75 cm⁻³), only about 30% of the total N being activated. In the previously
17 mentioned study by Dall'Osto et al. (2017a) it is also shown that the new particle formation
18 (NPF) events and the growth of these particles to a larger size can affect the CCN number
19 concentration, reporting an increase of the CCN number concentration (measured at a
20 supersaturation of 0.4%) of 21%, which is linked to NPF events. Low level clouds are one
21 of the major factors controlling the radiative balance in the Arctic. Further multidisciplinary
22 studies are needed in order to understand the processes that determine cloud properties
23 on which particles actually form cloud droplets under various conditions.

Eliminado: ¶

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4 IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

Aerosol size distributions sampled simultaneously in three background locations in the Arctic during 2013-2015 were analysed by k-means clustering techniques. The k-means analysis identified eight distinct aerosol size distributions, representing specific aerosol categories: low particle number concentrations (*pristine*, 12-14%), new particle formation and bursts of ultrafine particles (*nucleation*, 8-21%; *bursting*, 11-21%), ultrafine aerosols dominating the Aitken mode (*nascent*, 7-21%; *nascent broad*, 10-14%), accumulation mode dominated aerosols (*accumulation_150*, 13-42%; *accumulation_220*, 8-19%) and coarse sea spray aerosols (*coarse*, 1-4%). During winter months, mass concentrations of atmospheric aerosols in the Arctic are higher compared to summer. Broadly, this is due to differences in the transport of anthropogenic particles and wet scavenging (Stohl, 2006); local boundary layer height, stability and stratification also play a role (Brooks et al., 2017). By contrast, total aerosol number concentrations in the Arctic are often found to be similar throughout the period of March–September (Tunved et al., 2013). However, the number concentrations in spring (March–April) are almost exclusively governed by accumulation mode aerosols peaking at 150 nm, while the summer concentrations are associated with elevated numbers of Aitken mode particles and frequent new particle formation events. The main findings of this work follow:

- The three monitoring sites experience very pristine low particle number concentrations only 12-14% of the time.
- New particle formation, growth and bursts of sub-30 nm particles are detected 8-21% of the time. The lower frequencies detected at VRS (8%) relative to the ZEP and GRU (11-21%) are likely due to the former site being surrounded by the ice stream from the Arctic Ocean, being isolated from open ocean and melting sea ice regions, emitting biogenic gas precursors. The Aitken mode aerosol categories

1 dominate the summer time periods at all sites (19-35%), but VRS has a shorter
2 summer season due to longer sea ice coverage and 14 °C lower yearly average
3 temperature compared to the stations at Svalbard.

- 4 • Two types of accumulation mode aerosols are found, one associated with the Arctic
5 haze peaking in March-April (monomodal at about 150 nm) and one seen during the
6 winter months (monomodal at about 220 nm). VRS is exposed to accumulation
7 mode aerosols longer than ZEP and GRU. This is likely due to different transport
8 pathways into the polar dome, a boundary which separates cold air in the Arctic
9 from the relatively warm air in midlatitude regions (Stohl, 2006).

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11 The aerosol size distributions data herein compared from three different stations were
12 intercompared for the first time. The study adds additional knowledge to the findings
13 presented by Freud et al. (2017), with a focal point on the NPF phenomena observed in
14 the Arctic environment. This important exercise had to be carried out, and the results -
15 although not striking - set the ground for important future studies. In the future, a decrease
16 in sea ice coverage across the Arctic Ocean may increase the annual primary production
17 (Arrigo et al., 2008), and may alter the species composition of phytoplankton (Fujiwara et
18 al., 2014). Hence, the emissions of biogenic sulphur gases that are aerosol precursors and
19 hence affect aerosol growth and formation would increase in summer. In this regard, the
20 location of the monitoring sites at Svalbard and Greenland are ideal to study aerosol
21 formation and transport across the two different regions. The two stations are separated by
22 the Greenland Sea, a highly productive region with a great abundance of DMS-producing
23 phytoplankton (Park et al., 2018). As the DMS production capacity of the ocean depends
24 critically on the phytoplankton species composition and the complex food web
25 mechanisms (Stefels et al., 2007), multidisciplinary studies across these regions are

1 warranted. The recent transformations in the Arctic and their global causes and
2 consequences have put international cooperation in the Arctic Council at the forefront of
3 research in governance (Knecht et al., 2016). Larger atmospheric chemistry and physics
4 datasets are being collected by a number of countries, and this work highlights the benefit
5 that can be gained from international cooperation. Given that the present work has
6 validated the quality of the presented aerosol size distributions, these data will be used
7 again to address specific questions, including vertical transport (i.e. the two sites at the
8 Svalbard) and horizontal transport (i.e. Arctic aerosol transport from Greenland to Svalbard
9 regions). The significant costs associated with these types of coordinated international
10 collaborations can provide far more information than individual sites operating on their
11 own. This may help to better understand the complex interactions and feedbacks between
12 the aerosol, the clouds, the longwave and shortwave radiation, the ocean dynamics, and
13 the biota (Browse et al., 2014). Special concern is arising also from increasing navigability
14 in the rapidly melting Arctic Ocean with expanding community re-supply, fishing, tourism,
15 fossil fuel exploitation and cargo trading, which is projected to cause a large increase in
16 emissions by 2050 (Melia et al., 2016). Future studies looking simultaneously at different
17 Arctic monitoring sites will reduce the uncertainties in future projections of Arctic climate
18 changes and its implications for our planet (Koivurova et al., 2012; Byers, 2013; Conde
19 Perez et al., 2016). Our study supports international environmental cooperation concerning
20 the Arctic region.

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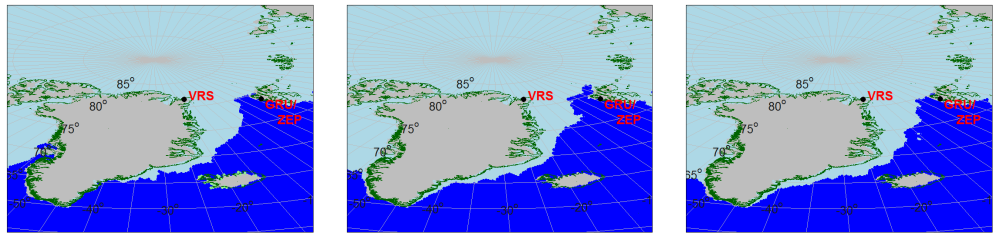
Acknowledgements

The study was supported by the Spanish Ministry of Economy through project BIO-NUC (CGL2013-49020-R), PI-ICE (CTM2017-89117-R) and the Ramon y Cajal fellowship (RYC-2012-11922). The research leading to these results has received funding from the European Union’s Horizon 2020 research and innovation programme under grant agreement No 654109, the Danish Council for Independent Research (project NUMEN, DFF-FTP-4005-00485B) and previously from the European Union Seventh Framework Programme (FP7/2007-2013) under grant agreement n° 262254. The authors would like to acknowledge the Swedish EPA (Naturvårdsverket) and the Swedish Research Council Formas for the financial support. The work at Villum Research Station, Station Nord, was financially supported by the Danish Environmental Protection Agency via the MIKA/DANCEA funds for Environmental Support to the Arctic Region, which is part of the Danish contribution to the Arctic Monitoring and Assessment Programme (AMAP) and to the Danish research project “Short-Lived Climate Forcers” (SLCF). The Villum Foundation is acknowledged for funding the construction of Villum Research Station, Station Nord. CCN measurements are supported by a KOPRI program (PN18081), funded by National Research Foundation of Korea Grant (NRF-2016M1A5A1901769). Data used in this article are archived and accessible from the EBAS database operated at the Norwegian Institute for Air Research (NILU) (<http://ebas.nilu.no>). Data management is provided by the WMO Global Atmosphere Watch World Data Centre for Aerosol. This project has received funding from the European Union’s Horizon 2020 research and innovation programme under grant agreement No 654109 (ACTRIS). [SEANA \(Shipping Emissions in the Arctic and North Atlantic Atmosphere\), Reference NE/S00579X/1, is also acknowledged.](#)

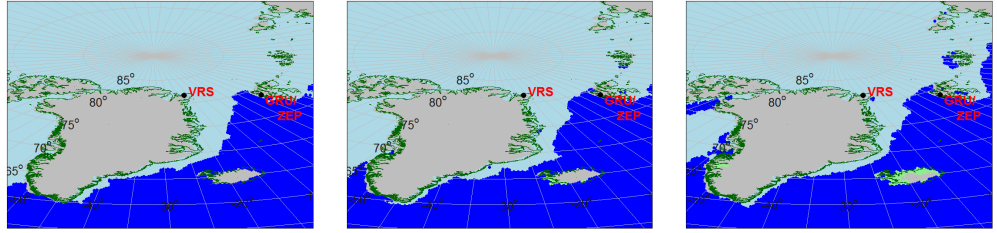
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Author information

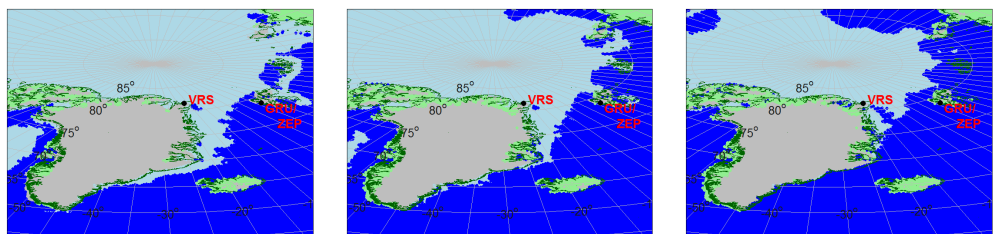
The authors declare no competing financial interests. Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to M.D. (dallosto@icm.csic.es).



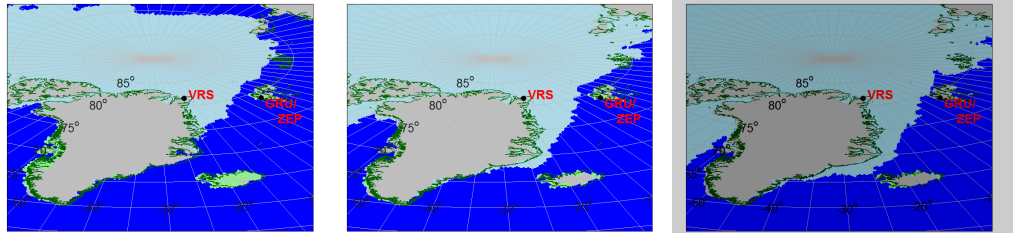
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(d) April (e) May (f) June

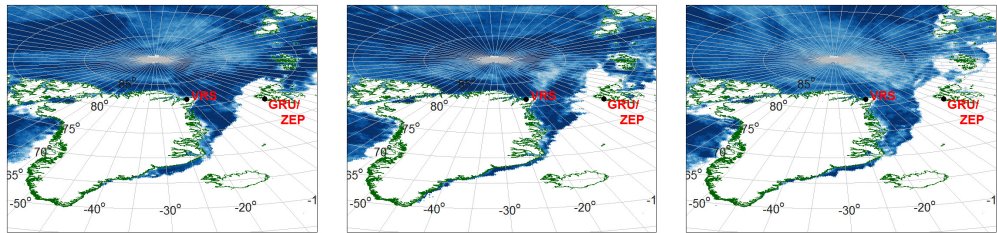


(g) July (h) August (i) September



(j) October (k) November (l) December

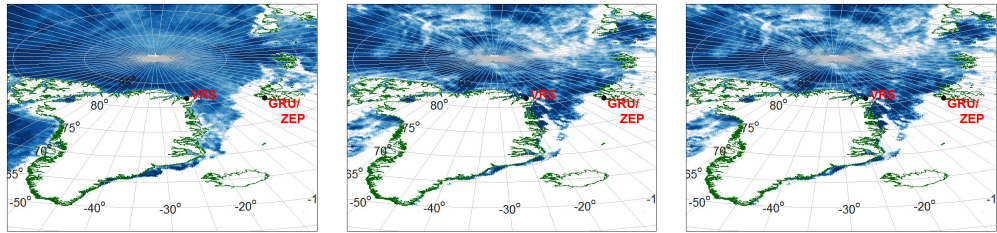
Figure 1a. Sea ice (light blue), open water (dark blue), snow on land (grey) and land (light green) maps for the period March-October (a-h). Land borders are marked in dark green.



(a) January

(b) February

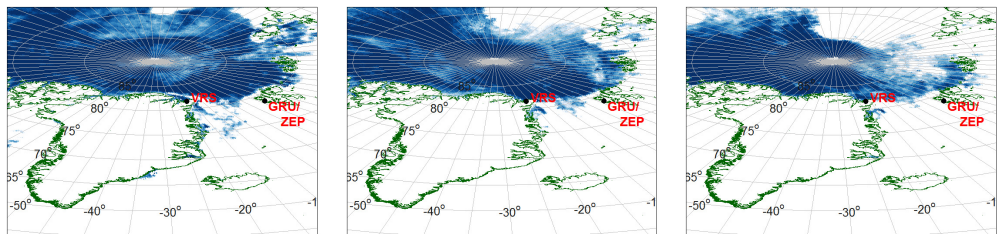
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(d) April

(e) May

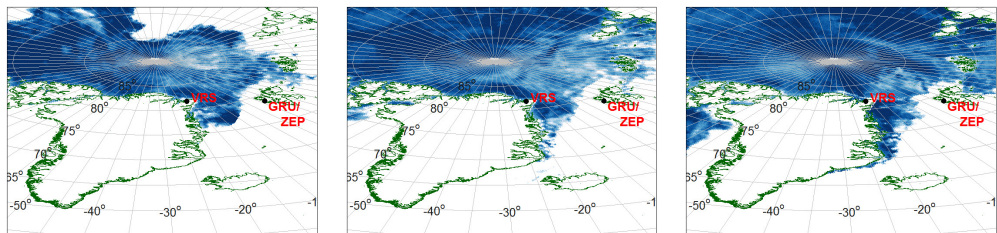
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(g) July

(h) August

(i) September



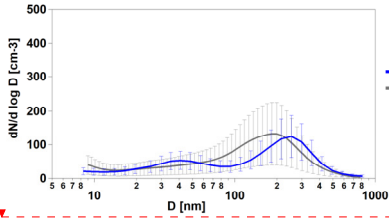
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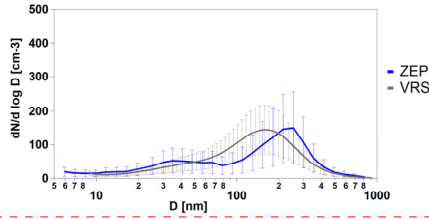
(l) December

Figure 1b. Sea ice maps (sea ice in dark blue) for the period March-October (a-h). Land borders are marked in dark green. Snow, land and open water in white.

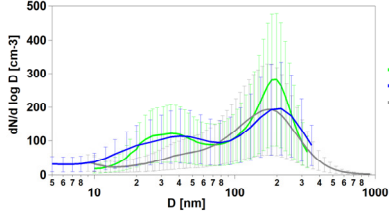
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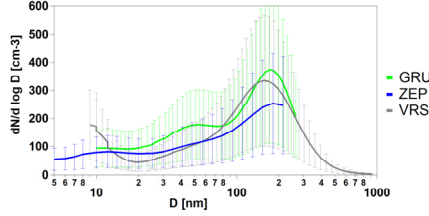
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(b) February

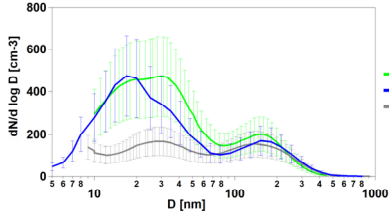


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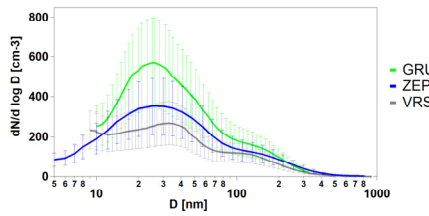


(d) April

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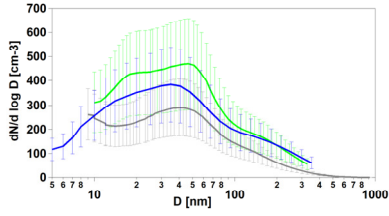


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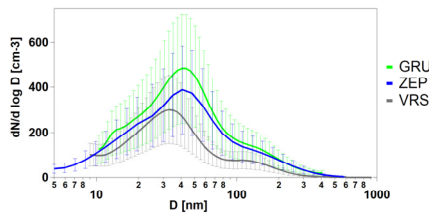


(f) June

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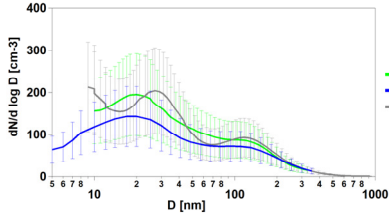


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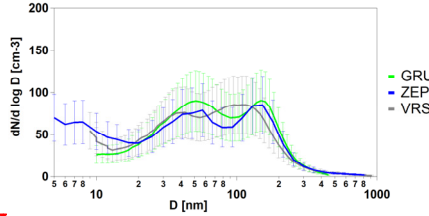


(h) August

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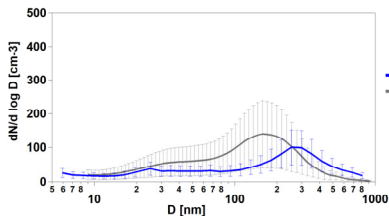


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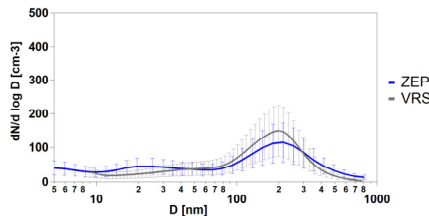


(j) October

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(k) November

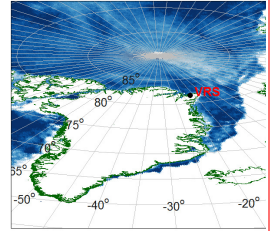
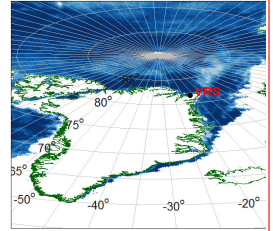
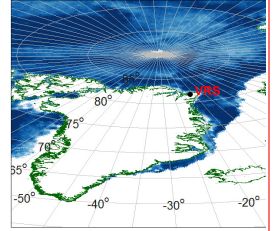


(l) December

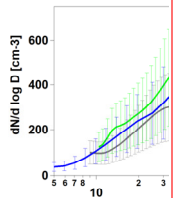
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Eliminado: ¶

LIST OF FIGURES ¶



¶ (a) January . . . (b) February . . . (c) March . . . [1]

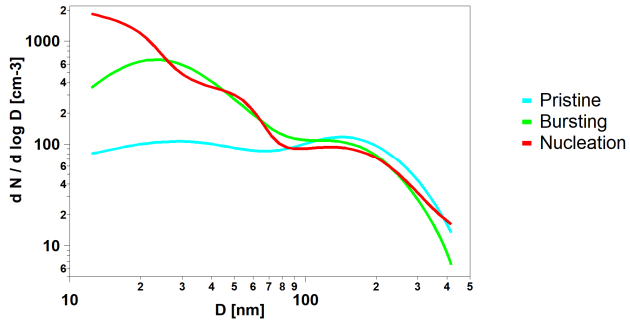


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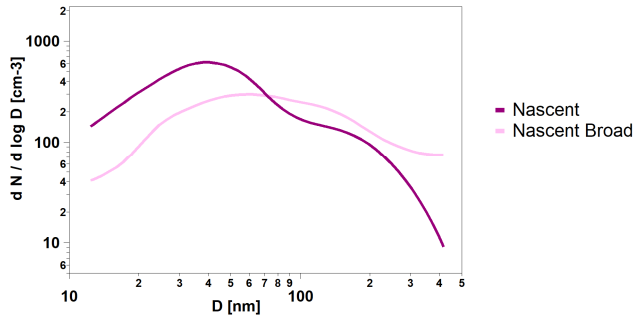
Con formato: Fuente: (Predeterminado) Arial

1 **Fig. 2.** Monthly average size distributions taken at the three sampling sites for the period
 2 January-December (a-l).

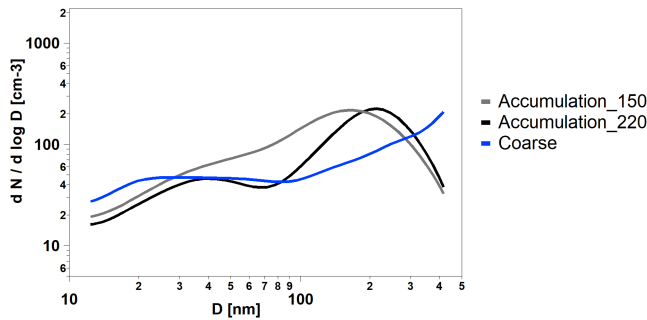
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(a)



(b)



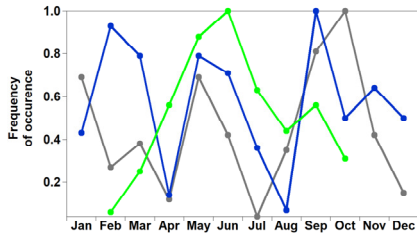
(c)

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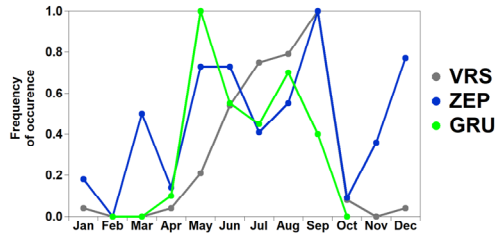
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Fig. 3. K-means aerosol categories for separated in the three classes (a) *Pristine*,
Bursting, *Nucleation*, (b) *Nascent*, *Nascent Broad*, (c) *Accumulation_150*,
Accumulation_220, *Coarse*.

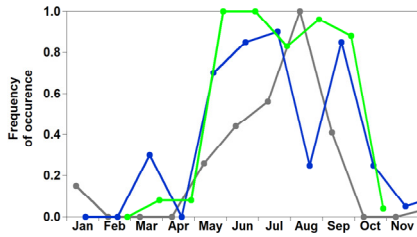
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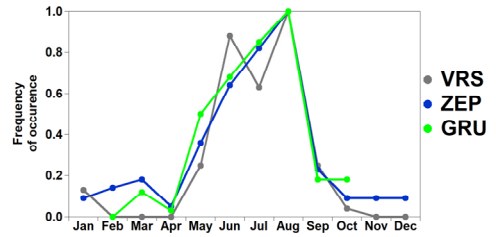
(a) Pristine



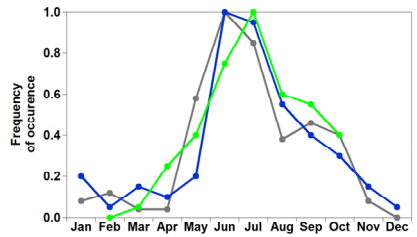
(b) Nucleation



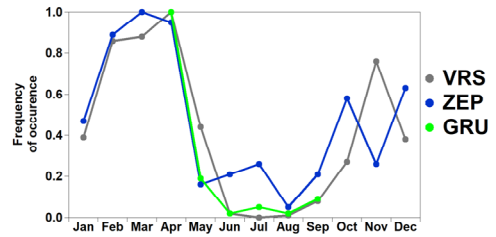
(c) Bursting



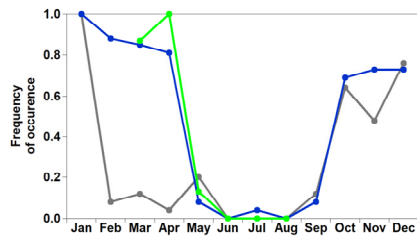
(d) Nascent



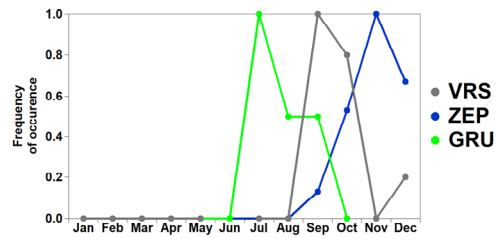
(e) Nascent Broad



(f) Accumulation_150



(g) Accumulation_220



(h) Coarse

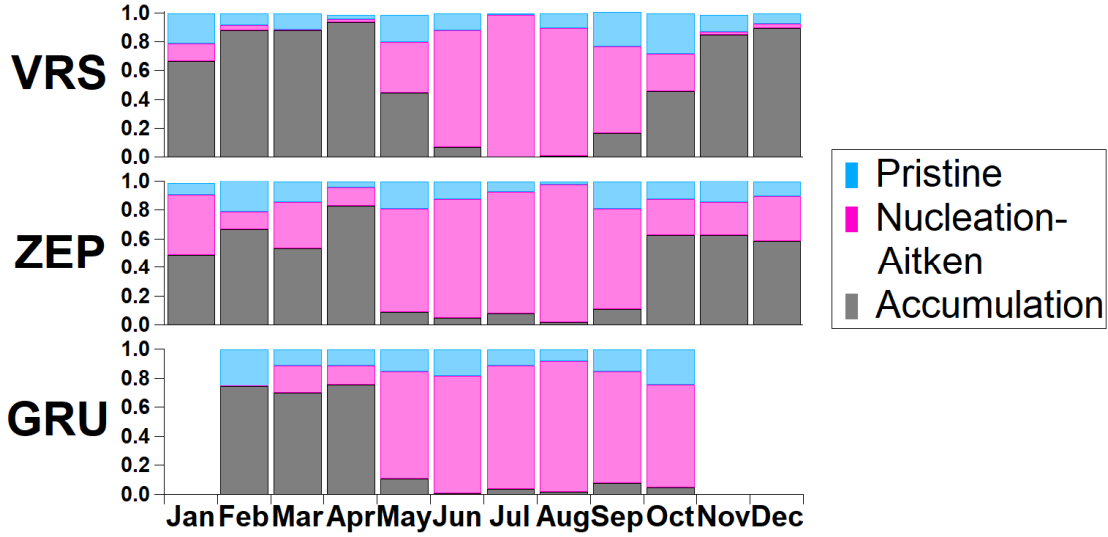
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Fig. 4. Monthly occurrence of each size distribution category (a-h) over the entire available data period (2013-2015), at each measurement site (VSR, ZEP, GRU), reported as total counts, relative to the maximum frequency of occurrence.

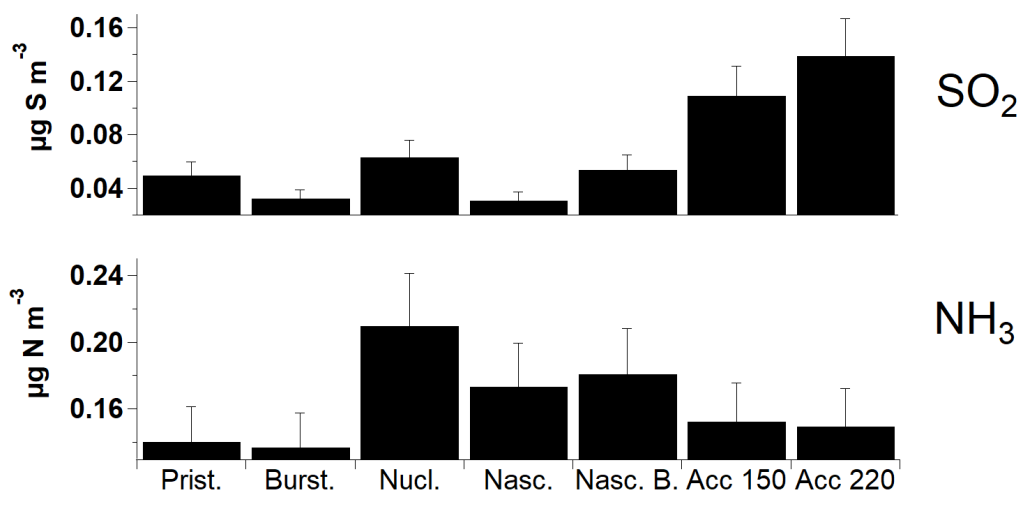
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Fig. 5. Average monthly occurrence of the classes of size distribution categories for the three sites, for the entire data period. The nucleation and Aitken mode dominated classes are binned together, while individual *Pristine* category is shown individually. Top) Villum Research Station, middle) Zeppelin Mountain, and bottom) Gruvebadet.

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0.14
0.12
0.10
0.08
0.06
0.04
 $\mu\text{g S m}^{-3}$

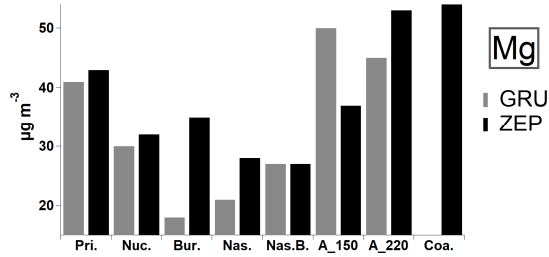
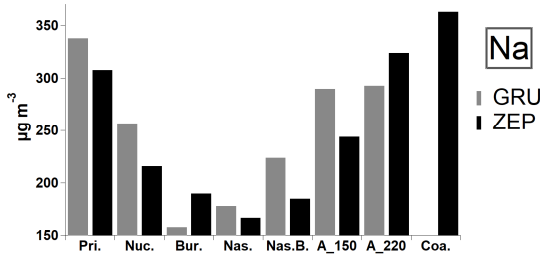
0.20
0.18
0.16
0.14
 $\mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$

Eliminado:
Con formato: Fuente:
(Predeterminado) Arial

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Fig. 6. Average concentration of gaseous species, associated with the occurrence of each size distribution category over the entire SMPS data period, at the Zeppelin Mountain site. Top) SO₂, bottom) NH₃.

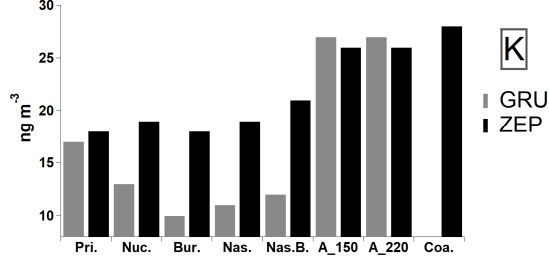
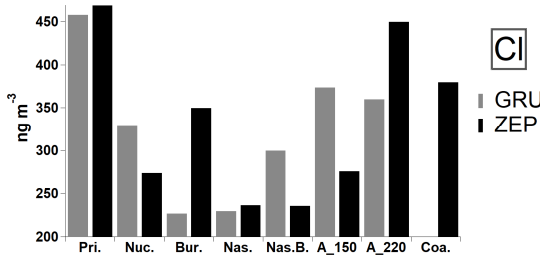
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(a)

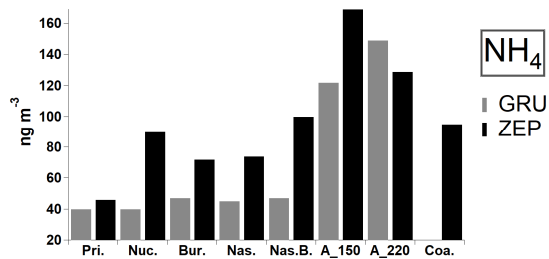
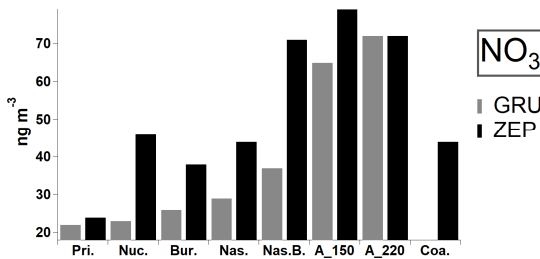
(b)



(c)

(d)

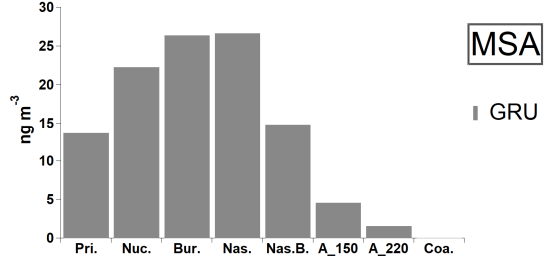
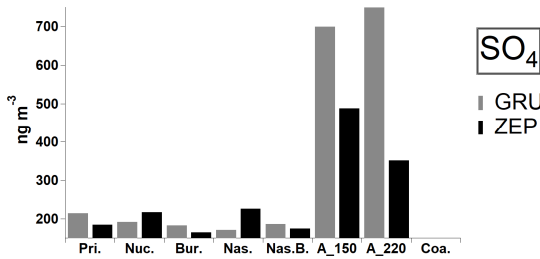
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(e)

(f)

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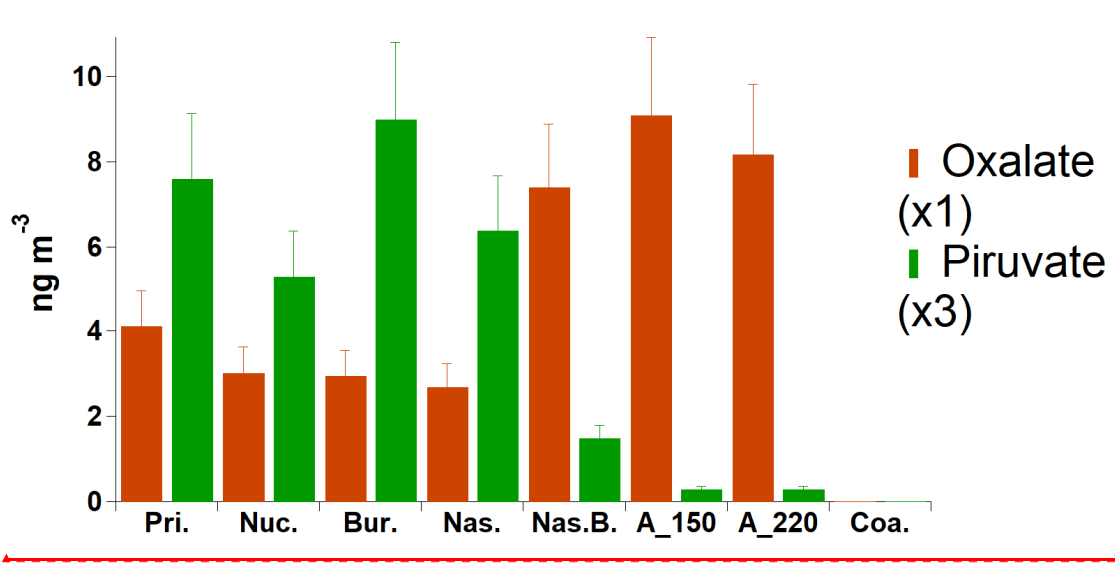
(g)

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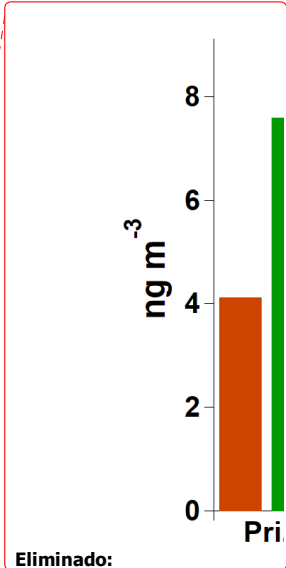
Fig. 7. Average daily concentrations of selected chemical tracers for each aerosol category (ZEP and GRU only). Standard deviations are not shown (about 25-35%).

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Comentario [RL1]: The legend states the corresponding bases to the acids stated in the text.

Con formato: Fuente: (Predeterminado) Arial, Negrita

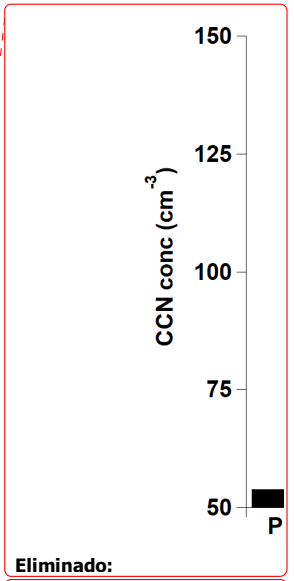
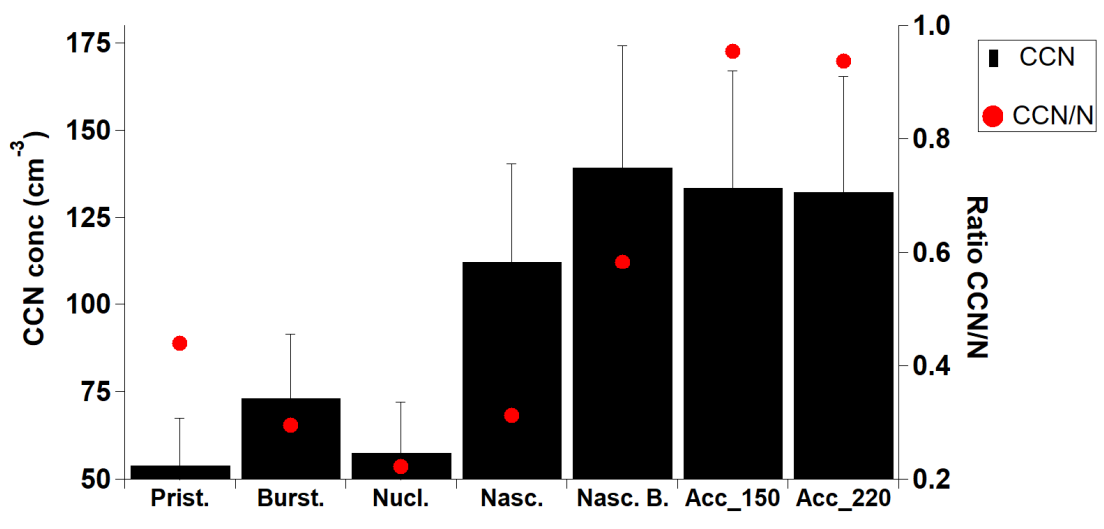


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Fig. 8. Average daily concentrations of selected chemical tracers for each aerosol category (GRU only).

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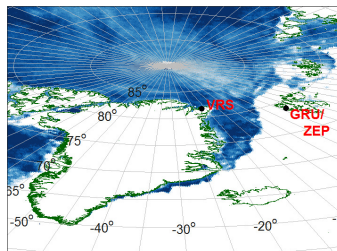
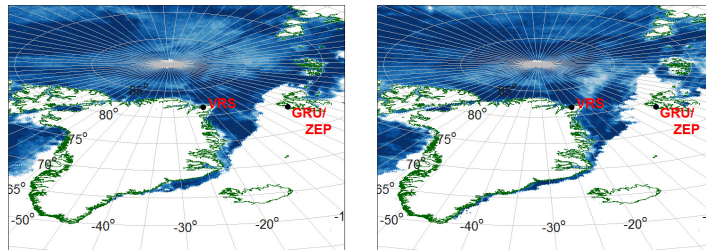


Eliminado:
Con formato: Fuente:
(Predeterminado) Arial, Negrita

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Fig. 9. Average daily concentrations of CCN concentrations for each aerosol category (ZEP only).

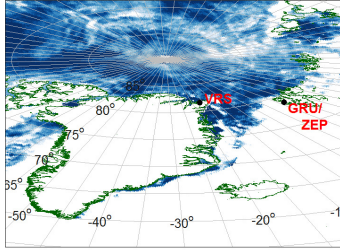
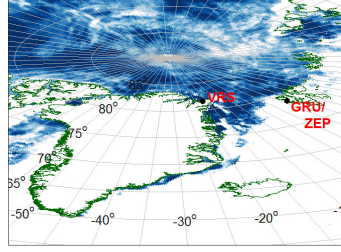
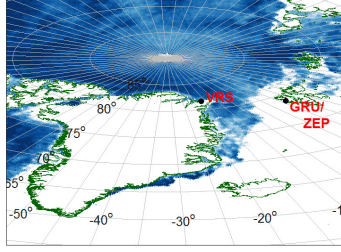
LIST OF FIGURES



(a) January

(b) February

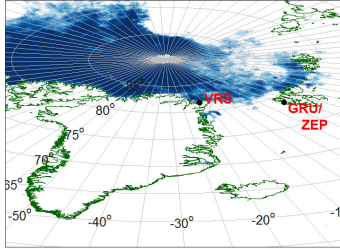
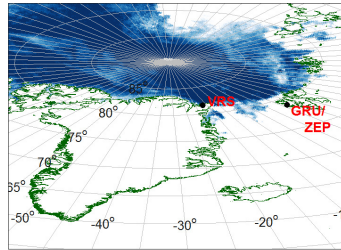
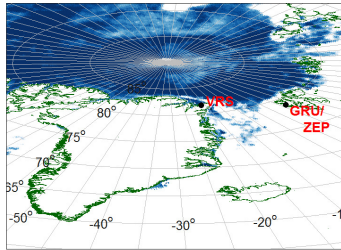
(c) March



(d) April

(e) May

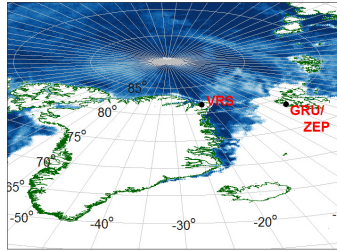
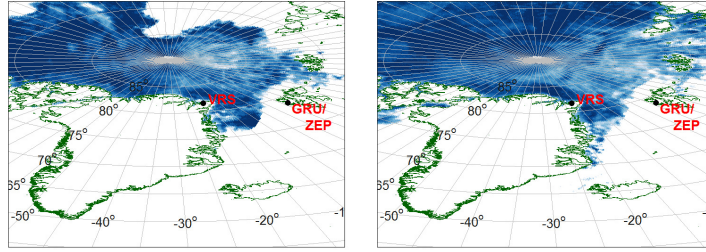
(f) June



(g) July

(h) August

(i) September



(j) October

(k) November

(l) December

Fig. 1. Sea ice maps (sea ice in dark blue) for the period January-December 2015 (a-l). Land borders are marked in dark green. Snow, land and open water in white.