



# 1 Atmospheric new particle formation characteristics in the Arctic as 2 measured at Mount Zeppelin, Svalbard, from 2016 to 2018

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13 **Abstract.** We conducted continuous measurement of nanoparticles down to 3 nm size in the Arctic at Mount Zeppelin, Ny  
14 Ålesund, Svalbard, from 2016 to 2018, providing a size distribution of nanoparticles (3–60 nm) with a higher resolution than  
15 ever before. A significant number of nanoparticles as small as 3 nm were often observed during new particle formation (NPF),  
16 particularly in summer, suggesting that these were likely produced near the site rather than being transported from other regions  
17 after growth. The average NPF frequency per year was 24% having the highest percentage in August (63%). The average  
18 particle formation rate (J) for 3–7 nm particles was 0.1 cm<sup>-3</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> and the average growth rate (GR) was 2.62 nm h<sup>-1</sup>. Although  
19 NPF frequency in the Arctic was comparable to that in continental areas, the J and GR were much lower. The number of  
20 nanoparticles increased more frequently when air mass originated over the south and southwest ocean regions; this pattern  
21 overlapped with regions having strong chlorophyll- $\alpha$  concentration and dimethyl sulfide (DMS) production capacity  
22 (southwest ocean), and was also correlated with increased daily NH<sub>3</sub> concentration, suggesting that marine biogenic and animal  
23 sources were responsible for gaseous precursors to NPF. Our results show that previously developed NPF occurrence criteria  
24 (low loss rate and high cluster growth rate favor NPF) are also applicable to NPF in the Arctic.

## 25 1 Introduction

26 The Arctic climate system is affected by the region's snow-covered land, sea ice, and ocean, making the region  
27 vulnerable to global climate change (Jeffries and Richter-Menge, 2011). Greenhouse gases and aerosols are significant factors  
28 affecting the regional climate (Quinn et al., 2007; IPCC, 2014). In particular, aerosols in the ambient atmosphere affect the  
29 radiation balance by scattering or absorbing incoming solar light (direct effect) (Toon and Pollack, 1980; Satheesh et al., 2005)  
30 and forming clouds by acting as cloud condensation nuclei (CCN) (indirect effect) (Merikanto et al., 2009).



31 New particle formation (NPF), which significantly enhances the number of particles in the ambient atmosphere, has  
32 been observed in various locations and at various times (Kulmala et al., 2004; Wang et al., 2017; Yu et al., 2017). In favourable  
33 conditions, newly formed nanoparticles can, through condensation and coagulation, grow to sizes allowing the formation of  
34 CCN. NPF is observed regardless of pollution level, from very clean (e.g., background sites) to heavily polluted (e.g., urban  
35 sites), suggesting that various pathways are involved depending on the location and time (Kulmala et al., 2004; Wang et al.,  
36 2017). Nucleation can occur almost anytime in diverse environments, but NPF is observed only when freshly nucleated clusters  
37 grow to a detectable size (1–3 nm) (McMurry et al., 2010). Previously developed criteria for NPF occurrence suggest that a  
38 low loss (or scavenging) rate and high growth rate (GR) of clusters increase fresh nuclei survivor probability and thus favoring  
39 NPF, while a high loss rate and low cluster GR suppress it (Kuang et al., 2012).

40 In the Arctic, specific phenomenon called “Arctic haze” related to long range transport of polluted air masses  
41 typically occurs in the late winter and early spring (Iziomon et al., 2006; O’Neill et al., 2008, Hirdman et al., 2010). The Arctic  
42 haze is associated with elevated concentrations of accumulation-mode particles. (Radke et al., 1984; Shaw, 1995; Law and  
43 Stohl, 2007; Quinn et al., 2007). High concentration of accumulation-mode particles results in a high condensational sink (CS)  
44 for precursor vapors, which could suppress NPF. The NPF in the Arctic was often reported in summer, when the CS was  
45 smaller (Wiedensohler et al., 1996; Covert et al., 1996; Sharma et al., 2013; Willis et al., 2016; Croft et al., 2016). In addition,  
46 strong biogenic production from marine and coastal environments in the Arctic region (e.g., Alaska, Alert, and Svalbard) was  
47 reported to be linked to NPF due to an increased amount of biogenic sulfur compounds such as dimethyl sulfide and its  
48 oxidative products (methane sulfonate and biogenic sulfate) (Leaitch et al., 2013; Park et al., 2017). Like in sulfuric acid-rich  
49 regions, organic-based new particles were observed in pristine environments (Quinn et al., 2002; Leaitch et al., 2013;  
50 Heintzenberg et al., 2015). Asmi et al. (2016) reported that NPF was more common in air masses of oceanic origin compared  
51 to continental ones in the Arctic (Tiksi station, Russia). Dall’Osto et al. (2018) suggested that NPF at Station Nord in North  
52 Greenland was related to seasonal sea-ice cycles (i.e., the NPF was associated with air masses coming from open water and  
53 melting sea-ice regions).

54 There are several past studies of NPF at the Zeppelin Observatory at Mount Zeppelin in Svalbard, Norway (Tunved  
55 et al., 2013; Dall’Osto et al., 2017; Heintzenberg et al., 2017). The location of the station is 474 m above sea level and ~2 km  
56 from a small scientific community, with minimal effects from anthropogenic sources; its unique geographical location is ideal  
57 for investigating NPF in the Arctic environment. Tunved et al. (2013) studied seasonal variations in particle size distribution  
58 and NPF based on aerosol size distribution data (10–790 nm) from 2000 to 2010. Heintzenberg et al. (2017) developed a new  
59 NPF search algorithm using size distribution data (5–630 nm) from 2006 to 2015. Dall’Osto et al. (2017) determined the  
60 relationship between NPF and the extent of Arctic sea-ice melt using size distribution data (10–500 nm) from 2000 to 2010  
61 and used hourly data to classify the size distributions and NPF types. It was reported that NPF at the Mount Zeppelin site  
62 mostly occur during summer, which was attributed to the low CS and high biological activity in summer (Leaitch et al., 2013;  
63 Heintzenberg et al., 2015; Park et al., 2017). NPF occurrence was low during the Arctic haze (with high CS) period (Covert et  
64 al., 1996; Tunved et al., 2013; Croft et al., 2016). Heintzenberg et al. (2017) suggested that NPF at the Mount Zeppelin site



65 was related to solar flux and sea surface temperature, affecting marine biological processes and photochemical reactions with  
66 less CS. They reported the potential source regions for NPF to be the marginal-ice and open-water areas between northeastern  
67 Greenland and eastern Svalbard. Although particle size distribution data from the Mount Zeppelin site are available (Ström et  
68 al., 2003; Tunved et al., 2013; Dall'Osto et al., 2017), no data regarding the size distribution of nanoparticles smaller than 5  
69 nm are available, though these could provide greater insight into NPF characteristics. Currently, the initial formation and  
70 growth of nanoparticles below 10 nm cannot be resolved, and weak NPF events with no substantial particle growth up to 10  
71 nm cannot be detected.

72 In this study, we measured size distribution of nanoparticles down to 3 nm for the first time at Zeppelin station. and  
73 obtained continuous size distributions of 3–60 nm particles every 3 min from 2016 to 2018. This allowed the size distribution  
74 of nanoparticles to be determined with a higher resolution than ever before, enabling better identification of whether freshly  
75 nucleated particles formed on-site or were transported from other regions after substantial growth. We were also able to detect  
76 NPF events when particle growth was terminated below 10 nm. The particle size distributions were classified into several  
77 clusters, and the seasonal (monthly), daily, and diurnal variations of the nanoparticle concentrations were examined. We also  
78 applied the NPF criteria to Arctic data to determine whether or not NPF should occur<sup>10</sup> and investigated the characteristics of  
79 NPF events related to formation rate, GR, CS, and meteorological parameters. Finally, potential source regions for NPF were  
80 explored using air mass backward trajectory and satellite-derived chlorophyll- $\alpha$  concentration data.

81

## 82 **2 Methods**

83 The measurement site was located at the Zeppelin Observatory at Mount Zeppelin, Svalbard (78°54'N, 11°53'E),  
84 which is 474 m above sea level and ~2 km from the small scientific community in Ny-Ålesund, Norway (78°55'N, 11°56'E)  
85 (Figure 1). Ny-Ålesund lies within the west Spitsbergen current at the northernmost point of the warm Atlantic influx; this  
86 location provides an ideal location for observing climate parameters and investigating the long-range transport route by which  
87 contamination is often carried via southerly air masses (Neuber et al., 2011). The dominant wind patterns (east and southeast  
88 from the Kongsvegen glacier (40%) and northwest from the Kongsfjorden channels (14%) during the measurement period)  
89 and elevation suggest that the effects of local sources on the Zeppelin Observatory are small (Beine et al., 2001).

90 An air inlet with a flow rate of 100 L min<sup>-1</sup> was used to introduce ambient aerosols into the instruments. The flow  
91 temperature was maintained above 0 °C to prevent ice and frost formation in the tube. The observatory was kept warm and  
92 dry, with an indoor temperature and relative humidity (RH) of ~20 °C and < 30%, respectively (Tunved et al., 2013;  
93 Heintzenberg et al., 2017). A nano-scanning mobility particle sizer consisting of a nano-differential mobility analyzer (nano-  
94 DMA) (model 3085, TSI, USA) and an ultrafine condensation particle counter (model 3776, TSI, USA) was used to measure  
95 the size distribution of nanoparticles (3–60 nm) every 3 min; the aerosol flow rate was 1.5 L min<sup>-1</sup> and the sheath flow rate  
96 was 15 L min<sup>-1</sup>. The size distribution data were processed using the method described by Kulmala et al. (2012).



97 Daily ionic species ( $\text{Na}^+$ ,  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{K}^+$ ,  $\text{NH}_4^+$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-$ ,  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ , and  $\text{Cl}^-$ ) in particulate matter and gas data ( $\text{NH}_3$  and  $\text{SO}_2$ ) at  
98 Zeppelin Observatory, along with meteorological parameters (temperature, RH, wind, and pressure), were obtained from the  
99 Norwegian national monitoring program (Aas et al., 2019) via the EBAS database (<http://ebas.nilu.no/>). Daily ionic species  
100 and gas data are daily measurements collected with a 3-stage filterpack sampler with no size cut-off in the inlet. It should be  
101 noted that for the nitrogen compounds the separation of gas and aerosol might be biased due to the volatile nature of  $\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3$ .  
102 Solar radiation (SRAD) at the AWIPEV observatory in Ny-Alesund were obtained from the Baseline Surface Radiation  
103 Network (BSRN) (Maturilli, 2019). Hourly data for number size distributions of particles from 5–810 nm and 10–790 nm,  
104 measured with discrete mobility particle sizers (DMPS), were obtained from Stockholm University and the Norwegian Institute  
105 for Air Research (NILU), respectively. The data from the DMPS and filterpack measurements are reported to several  
106 international monitoring programmes (i.e. EMEP, ACTRIS, GAW-WDCA), and they are openly available from the database  
107 infrastructure EBAS.

108 Satellite-derived chlorophyll- $\alpha$  concentration data in the Svalbard region (70–85°N, 25°W–50°E) was obtained from  
109 the level-3 product of the Aqua-Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) at a 4 km resolution. Air mass  
110 backward trajectories arriving at the Zeppelin Observatory were calculated for up to 5 days using the National Oceanic and  
111 Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) Hybrid Single Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory (HYSPPLIT) model based on  
112 Global Data Assimilation System (GDAS) 1° data. A potential source contribution function (PSCF) method (Pekney et al.,  
113 2006; Wang et al., 2009; Fleming et al., 2012) was also used to relate the air mass to NPF occurrence by analyzing the residence  
114 time of the air mass relative to the concentration of nanoparticles at the receptor site (Wang et al., 2009). In addition, the k-  
115 means clustering method, an unsupervised data classification/partitioning approach, was used to classify potential air mass  
116 origin along with the size distributions (Beddows et al., 2009; Dall'Osto et al., 2017).

117 The particle GR was calculated as the change rates of representative particle diameters ( $d_1$  and  $d_2$ ) with the highest  
118 concentrations at particular times ( $t_1$  and  $t_2$ ) (Hussein et al., 2005; Kulmala et al., 2012). The CS, which determines how rapidly  
119 condensable vapor molecules will condense on the existing aerosols (Kulmala et al., 2012), was calculated from the size  
120 distribution data (3–810 nm) with an assumed sulfuric acid diffusion coefficient of  $0.117 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$  (Gong et al., 2010; Cai et al.,  
121 2017). The number concentration in the size range  $d_i$  to  $d_j$  ( $N_{i-j}$ ) was derived from the measured size distribution data.  
122 Considering the particle loss and production processes allowed the following balance equation for  $N_{i-j}$  to be derived:

123

$$\frac{dN_{i-j}}{dt} = J_{i-j} - F_{\text{coag}} - F_{\text{growth}} \quad (1)$$

124

125

126 where  $J_{i-j}$  is the particle formation rate in the size range of  $d_i$  to  $d_j$ ,  $F_{\text{coag}}$  is the particle loss rate related to coagulation scavenging  
127 in the size range of  $d_i$  to  $d_j$ , and  $F_{\text{growth}}$  is the condensational GR of the nucleation-mode particles. Based on methods suggested  
128 by Kulmala et al. (2012), the particle formation rate ( $J_{i-j}$ ) was calculated as:

129



130 
$$J_{i-j} = \frac{dN_{i-j}}{dt} + \frac{N_{i-j}}{d_j - d_i} \cdot GR + N_{i-j} \text{CoagS}_{i-j} \quad (2)$$

131

132 where  $\text{CoagS}_{i,j}$  represents the mean of the coagulation sink (CoagS) in the size range of  $d_i$  to  $d_j$ .

133 The dimensionless criterion ( $L_\Gamma$ ), which can be used to predict the occurrence of NPF events (McMurry et al., 2005;  
134 Cai et al., 2017), was calculated as:

135

136 
$$L_\Gamma = \frac{\bar{c}_1 A_{\text{Fuchs}}}{4\beta_{11} N_1 \Gamma} \quad (3)$$

137

138 where  $\bar{c}_1$  is the mean thermal velocity of vapor (sulfuric acid),  $A_{\text{Fuchs}}$  is the Fuchs surface area (a coagulation scavenging  
139 parameter),  $\beta_{11}$  is the free molecule collision frequency function for monomer collisions,  $N_1$  is the sulfuric acid number  
140 concentration during the nucleation event, and  $\Gamma$  is the growth enhancement factor obtained by dividing the measured GR by  
141 the growth determined based on the condensation of only sulfuric acid. The sulfuric acid number concentration was predicted  
142 from the measured daily  $\text{SO}_2$ , hourly CS, hourly solar radiation, and hourly meteorological data (RH and temperature) using  
143 the method proposed by Mikkonen et al. (2011).

144

### 145 3 Results and discussion

146 The data coverage for the size distribution data collected by nano-SMPS was about 89% during the 27 months  
147 sampling period. The monthly variations of the number concentrations of the 3–20 nm nanoparticles ( $N_{3-20}$ ) and 20–60 nm  
148 nanoparticles ( $N_{20-60}$ ) in 2016–2018 (averaged from hourly data) are shown in Figure 2. Both  $N_{3-20}$  and  $N_{20-60}$  were highest in  
149 summer and lowest in winter, indicating that NPF occurred frequently in summer. The higher SRAD and lower CS (calculated  
150 from the 3–810 nm size distribution data) in summer also favored nanoparticle production. The highest monthly SRAD (199  
151  $\text{W m}^{-2}$ ) was observed in June. Due to the higher latitude of the site, the SRAD was lower than values reported at other  
152 continental sites (449  $\text{W m}^{-2}$  during NPF in Lanzhou, China (Gao et al, 2011); 442–445  $\text{W m}^{-2}$  during NPF in Pallas, Finland  
153 (Asmi et al., 2011); and 700  $\text{W m}^{-2}$  during NPF in Atlanta, USA (Woo et al., 2001)). The wind speed in summer was lower  
154 than in other seasons, as expected from local climatology (Maturilli et al., 2013). In addition, marine biogenic sources, which  
155 provide gaseous precursors for nanoparticle formation, were abundant in summer. For example, chlorophyll- $\alpha$  concentration  
156 (a proxy for marine phytoplankton biomass) in the Arctic Ocean surrounding the observation site from 2016 to 2018 began to  
157 increase in April and reached a maximum in May to June (Supplementary Figure S1). During the Arctic haze period, the  
158 amount of accumulation-mode particles (>100 nm) increased considerably. A significant CS increase occurred in Mar (Figure



159 2). The high amount of accumulation-mode particles in spring and the high amount of nucleation-mode particles in summer  
160 are consistent with previous findings (Tunved et al., 2013; Dall’Osto et al., 2017; Heintzenberg et al., 2017).

161 The size distributions of the 3–60 nm particles from 2016 to 2018 (hourly data) were classified into several major  
162 groups using the k-means clustering method. Four distinct clusters were found (Figure 3 (a)), with mode diameters of around  
163 10 nm (cluster 1), 20 nm (cluster 2), 30 nm (cluster 3), and 50 nm (cluster 4). Cluster 1 included newly formed particles with  
164 high population. Cluster 4 had the lowest ultrafine particles concentration, representing the background condition. The  
165 frequencies of each cluster by month are shown in Figure 3 (b). The annual average percentages of each cluster were 7%  
166 (cluster 1), 15% (cluster 2), 23% (cluster 3), and 55% (cluster 4). The frequencies of clusters 1 and 2 increased significantly  
167 and the cluster 2 was often appeared after the cluster 1 in the late spring and summer months (May, June, July, and August),  
168 suggesting that strong particle growth (i.e., increases in mode diameter) after NPF occurred during those months.

169 We identified two distinct types of NPF (Figure 4). In type 1,  $N_{3-20}$  increased significantly with subsequent particle  
170 growth (the freshly formed particles experienced gradual growth), a typical banana-shaped nucleation event, which is regularly  
171 observed at many locations worldwide. In type 2,  $N_{3-20}$  increased significantly without clear subsequent particle growth (almost  
172 no increase of the mode diameter with time, or not clear for growth); this type of event lasted more than 2 hours. Therefore,  
173 the GR could be calculated only for type 1. The cases not matching either of these, they were classified as “undefined” NPF  
174 which  $N_{3-20}$  increased for a short period of time (less than 2 hours). This NPF classification approach was similar to methods  
175 employed previously (Dall Maso et al., 2005; Kulmala et al., 2012; Nguyen et al., 2016). The mean occurrence percentage of  
176 NPF days (all types) per year from 2016 to 2018 was ~24%. Dall’Osto et al. (2017) found that the average of yearly NPF  
177 occurrence from 2000 to 2010 was 18%, lower than our value, and that this increased over time as the coverage of sea-ice melt  
178 increased. In addition, DMS originating from marine sources can be a key precursor contributing to NPF in the remote marine  
179 atmosphere. In the Arctic region, the DMS concentration increased by ~33% per decade from 1998 to 2016 (Galí et al., 2019),  
180 potentially leading to the increase in the annual NPF occurrence in this area.

181 The highest percentage of NPF occurrence for all types was observed in August (63%) and June (61%), followed by  
182 May (47%) and July (44%) as shown in Figure 5. NPF was observed only occasionally in winter during the Arctic night from  
183 November to February, consistent with previous observations (Ström et al., 2009; Heintzenberg et al., 2017). Although NPF  
184 occurrence could be expected to be lowest in April due to highest CS (Figure 2), that was not the case. Our results showed that  
185 NPF occurrence increased significantly in April, was maintained at a high level from May to August, then decreased in  
186 September and October. The higher biological and photochemical activity, lower transport of pollutants from mid-latitudes,  
187 and increased wet scavenging of particles (low CS) in summer likely favored NPF (Ström et al., 2009). In addition, the melting  
188 of sea ice in summer can increase the availability of marine biogenic sources, promoting NPF (Quinn et al., 2008; Tovar-  
189 Sánchez et al., 2010; Dall’Osto et al., 2018). Overall, NPF occurrence is mainly affected by the availability of solar radiation  
190 (photochemistry) and gaseous precursors in addition to the survivable probability of clusters or particles (Kulmala et al., 2017).

191 A so-called “weak NPF” event, in which initial formation and growth were completed to < 10 nm without further  
192 growth, was observed. The weak NPF events documented here could not be detected in previous studies where the minimum



193 detectable size was  $\sim 10$  nm. The fraction of weak NPF occurrences (out of all NPF occurrences each month) was highest in  
194 April (58%) and October (50%), compared to values in May (20%), June (14%), July (7%), August (15%), and September  
195 (25%). In April, this was likely caused by the combination of strong solar radiation (i.e., strong photochemistry for production  
196 of condensing vapors responsible for particle growth) and high CS; in contrast, October's combination of the low solar  
197 radiation (i.e., weak photochemistry) and low CS led to a similar result.

198 NPF lasted for several hours with similar start times (Figure 5). NPF duration was around 6–7 h on average and was  
199 longest in summer. Typically, NPF started between 11:00 and 12:00 (UTC), suggesting that photochemical activity with strong  
200 solar radiation played an important role in NPF initiation. The variations in start time from month to month (Mar to Nov) were  
201 smaller than the monthly variations in NPF occurrence or duration.

202 Figure 6 shows the MODIS monthly chlorophyll- $\alpha$  concentrations around Svalbard, which increased from April and  
203 decreased after August, consistent with the NPF occurrence frequency. Full monthly values of satellite-derived chlorophyll- $\alpha$   
204 concentration are summarized in Supplementary Figure S1. The chlorophyll- $\alpha$  concentration was intense in the ocean regions  
205 southwest and southeast of Svalbard. A recent study revealed that the DMS production capacity of the Greenland Sea (to the  
206 southwest) was 3 times greater than that of the Barents Sea (to the southeast) (Park et al., 2018); this is further discussed in the  
207 context of air mass trajectory data in a later section.

208 The existence of significant amounts of nanoparticles as small as 3 nm during NPF events at the study site suggests  
209 that NPF occurred there, rather than the particles being transported from other regions after growth. In other words, if NPF  
210 occurred at other locations far from the study site, the nanoparticles would have grown during transport to the site and few 3  
211 nm particles would have been detected there. To determine the characteristics of particle growth, we calculated the GR in the  
212 3–25 nm size range ( $GR_{3-25}$ ) (Figure 7). The average  $GR_{3-25}$  for all months was  $2.62 \text{ nm h}^{-1}$ , comparable to previously reported  
213 GR data ( $0.2\text{--}4.1 \text{ nm h}^{-1}$ ) in the Arctic region (Kerminen et al., 2018). The highest monthly average  $GR_{3-25}$  was observed in  
214 July ( $3.15 \text{ nm h}^{-1}$ ) and the maximum individual value ( $7.55 \text{ nm h}^{-1}$ ) occurred in June. However, the  $GR_{3-25}$  was much lower  
215 than the values observed in typical urban areas (Table 1), suggesting a lower availability of condensing vapors contributing to  
216 particle growth in the Arctic atmosphere. The calculated formation rates of particles down to 3 nm ( $J_{3-7}$ ) are the first in the  
217 Arctic region. The average  $J_{3-7}$  during NPF events was  $0.1 \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$  in a range from  $0.01\text{--}1.68 \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ . The highest monthly  
218 average and maximum  $J_{3-7}$  were both found in June ( $0.14 \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$  and  $1.68 \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ , respectively). The formation rate  
219 ( $RSD=55\%$ ) varied by month more significantly than for  $GR_{3-25}$  ( $RSD=35\%$ ). Values for  $J_{3-7}$  ( $0.01\text{--}1.68 \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) and  $J_{3-25}$   
220 ( $0.02\text{--}1.62 \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) were much lower than those reported in continental areas (Stanier et al., 2004; Hamed et al., 2007; Wu et  
221 al., 2007; Manninen et al., 2010; Xiao et al., 2015; Shen et al., 2016; Cai et al., 2017). A good linear relationship was found  
222 between  $J_{3-7}$  and  $N_{3-7}$  ( $r = 0.90$ ; not shown here), indicating that 3–7 nm particles were produced by gas-to-particle conversion  
223 rather than direct emissions in the particle phase (i.e., not primary) (Kalivitis et al., 2019). No significant correlation ( $R^2=0.006$ ,  
224  $p\text{-value} = 0.6$ ) was found between  $J_{3-7}$  and  $GR_{3-25}$ , suggesting that the vapors participating in the early stage of NPF could be  
225 at least partly different from the vapors contributing to subsequent particle growth (Nieminen et al., 2014). However, detailed  
226 chemical data for nanoparticles during formation and growth should be obtained to achieve complete understanding of the



227 participating chemical species. Our data indicate that, although NPF occurrence frequency in the Arctic was comparable to  
228 continental areas, the J and GR were much lower.

229 Five air mass clusters were found (Figure 8 (a)), representing the contributions of different air masses in different  
230 seasons: clusters 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 represented southwest (slow), south (slow), southeast (fast), northwest (fast), and northeast  
231 (fast) air masses, respectively. The air mass speed (travel distance/time) was used to determine whether the air mass was slower  
232 or faster compared to the average air mass speed during the measurement period. Cluster 1 dominated in summer, when NPF  
233 occurrence was highest; it had the lowest air mass speed, the lowest fraction of land influence (15%), and the highest fraction  
234 of time spent over the sea (50%) compared to other air mass clusters. Time spent over sea-ice was 35%. Our data suggest that  
235 a slowly moving air mass, which spent most of the time over the ocean and sea-ice is the most favourable for NPF.

236 We further explored the potential source regions of the air masses in relation to NPF using air mass backward  
237 trajectory data and the 75<sup>th</sup> percentile of  $N_{3-20}$  (Figure 8 (b)). Increases in the amount of nanoparticles (i.e., NPF events)  
238 occurred more frequently when the air mass passed over the oceanic regions to southwest and south of Svalbard (overall, 49%  
239 of the air mass during NPF was southwest, i.e., cluster 1). As shown earlier (Figure 6), the chlorophyll- $\alpha$  concentration was  
240 strong in the southwest and southeast ocean regions, and the DMS production capacity of the southwest ocean was 3 times  
241 greater than that of the southeast ocean (Park et al., 2018). These results suggest that marine biogenic sources from the  
242 southwest ocean region play an important role in NPF in the Arctic.

243 We then examined the chemical characteristics of total suspended particles and daily concentration of gaseous  $NH_3$ .  
244 The seasonal characteristics of ionic species ( $Na^+$ ,  $Mg^{2+}$ ,  $K^+$ ,  $NH_4^+$ ,  $NO_3^-$ ,  $SO_4^{2-}$ , and  $Cl^-$ ) in PM from 2016 to 2018  
245 (Supplementary Table S1) revealed that the contributions of primary sea salt particles ( $Na^+$ ,  $Mg^{2+}$ , and  $Cl^-$ ) increased in winter  
246 with high wind speeds, while the contributions of  $NH_4^+$ ,  $NO_3^-$ , and  $SO_4^{2-}$  (secondary species) increased in spring and summer.  
247 The slope of the cation equivalents ( $Na^+$ ,  $Mg^{2+}$ ,  $K^+$ , and  $NH_4^+$ ) versus the anion equivalents ( $NO_3^-$ ,  $SO_4^{2-}$ , and  $Cl^-$ ) (= 0.98; not  
248 shown) suggested that the measured cations were mostly neutralized by the anions (Zhang et al., 2015). These ionic species  
249 can exist in large particles, and do not necessarily represent the chemical composition of the nanoparticles, but they can provide  
250 information about the overall chemical properties of the particles in different seasons. The concentration of non-sea-salt sulfate  
251 (nss-sulfate) was derived from the sulfate and sodium concentrations. The nss-sulfate ratio (nss-sulfate/total sulfate) was  
252 significantly higher on NPF event days than on non-event days (p-value < 0.05; Figure 9). The nss-sulfate could have had a  
253 secondary origin from the DMS from the sea. The  $NH_3$  could also have been involved in NPF (Kirkby et al., 2011) with strong  
254 nucleation rate enhancement (Lehtipalo et al., 2018). Dall'Osto et al. (2017) showed that the  $NH_3$  concentration was higher on  
255 NPF event days than on non-event days, similar to the results shown in Figure 9 (p-value < 0.01).  $NH_3$  in the Arctic can  
256 originate from biological and animal sources (e.g., seabird colonies) (Tovar-Sánchez et al., 2010; Croft et al., 2016; Dall'Osto  
257 et al., 2017) and contribute to NPF.

258 We calculated the NPF criterion ( $L_T$ ) values for NPF event and non-event days (Figure 10). The 20 non-event days  
259 when GR could be obtained from pre-existing aerosols were selected for the calculation of the  $L_T$  (Kuang et al., 2010). The  
260 NPF duration time was determined using the proposed method (Kulmala et al., 2012), with the time range of non-event days



261 set as daytime (06:00–18:00). When NPF occurred, the  $L_T$  ranged from 0.02–2.39 with a mean and median of 0.47 and 0.37,  
262 respectively; most values (95%) were less than 1. The  $L_T$  values of non-event days ranged from 0.19–14.11 with a mean and  
263 a median of 4.27 and 2.09, respectively; most values (90%) were larger than 1. These observations were consistent with  
264 previous studies of NPF events in clean or moderately-polluted areas (Tecamac, Atlanta, Boulder, and Hyytiälä), ranging from  
265 0.0075–0.66 (Kuang et al., 2010), and in a highly-polluted area (Beijing), ranging from 0.22–1.75 (Cai et al., 2017). Our data  
266 suggest that  $L_T$  can also be useful for determining the occurrence of NPF in the Arctic, but not at 100% certainty. Uncertainties  
267 in sulfuric acid concentration inferred from daily  $\text{SO}_2$  data (as discussed in the experimental section) and other parameters  
268 such as the measured GR and averaging time for  $L_T$  (i.e., NPF duration time) could contribute to unclear separation of NPF  
269 event and non-event days (Figure 10).

#### 270 4 Conclusions

271 We examined the characteristics of Arctic NPF at the Mount Zeppelin site by conducting continuous measurements  
272 of nanoparticles down to 3 nm size from 2016 to 2018. The size distributions of 3–60 nm particles were classified into distinct  
273 clusters with strong seasonal variability and mode diameters of 10 nm (cluster 1), 20 nm (cluster 2), 30 nm (cluster 3), and 50  
274 nm (cluster 4). A significant number of nanoparticles as small as 3 nm often appeared during NPF, particularly in summer,  
275 suggesting that there is a good chance that these were produced near the site rather than being transported from other regions  
276 after growth. The average NPF occurrence frequency per year was 24%.  $J_{3-7}$  averaged  $0.1 \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ , ranging from 0.01–1.68  $\text{cm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ,  
277 and  $\text{GR}_{3-25}$  averaged  $2.62 \text{ nm h}^{-1}$ , ranging from 0.35–7.55  $\text{nm h}^{-1}$ . These data suggest that the NPF occurrence frequency  
278 in the Arctic is comparable to those in continental areas although the  $J$  and GR were lower in the Arctic. We next identified  
279 five major air mass clusters using backward trajectory analysis; PSCF results indicated that air masses from the south and  
280 southwest ocean regions were related to the elevated concentrations of nanoparticles at the site. This region was consistent  
281 with elevated chlorophyll- $\alpha$  and DMS production capacity, suggesting that marine biogenic sources should play an important  
282 role in Arctic NPF. The concentration of gaseous  $\text{NH}_3$  was higher on NPF event days than on non-event days, suggesting that  
283 marine animal sources also significantly affected Arctic NPF. Previously developed NPF criteria (a low ratio of loss rate to  
284 growth rate of clusters favors NPF) were applicable to Arctic NPF occurrence.

285

286

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295

296 *Data availability.* The nano-SMPS data (3-60 nm) we measured in this publication are available in Korea Polar Data Center  
297 (KPDC) web site ('<https://kpdc.kopri.re.kr/search/>'), and the raw data will be available upon request to the corresponding  
298 author (kpark@gist.ac.kr).

299

300 *Competing interests.* The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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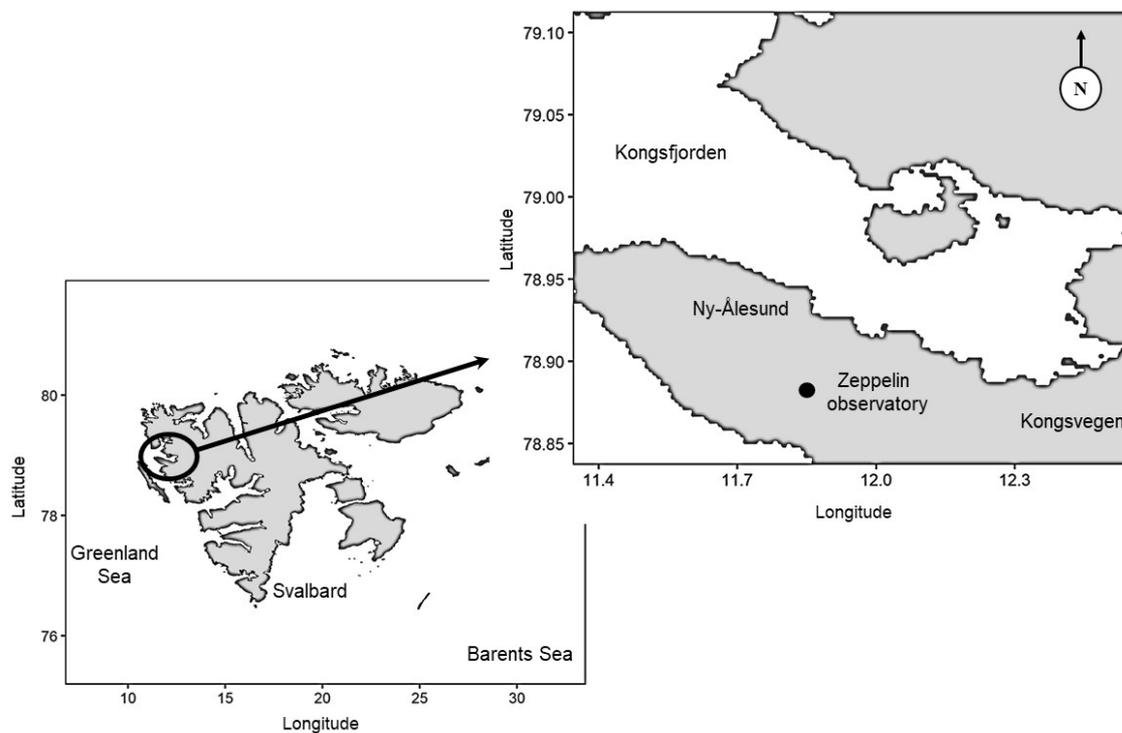
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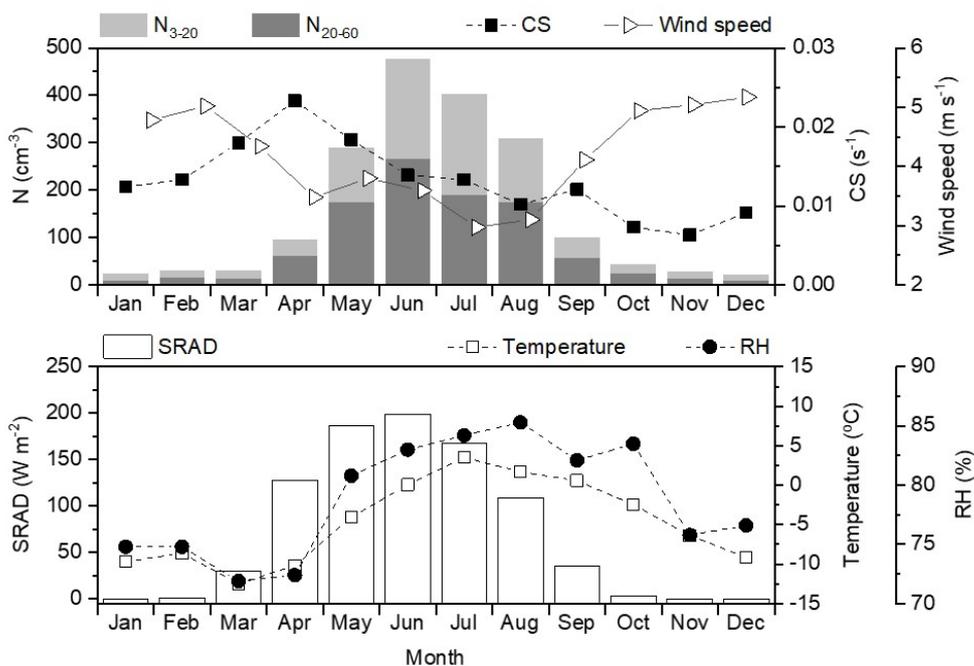
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519 Figure 1. Measurement site (Zeppelin Observatory) in the Svalbard Archipelago, Ny-Ålesund, Norway.

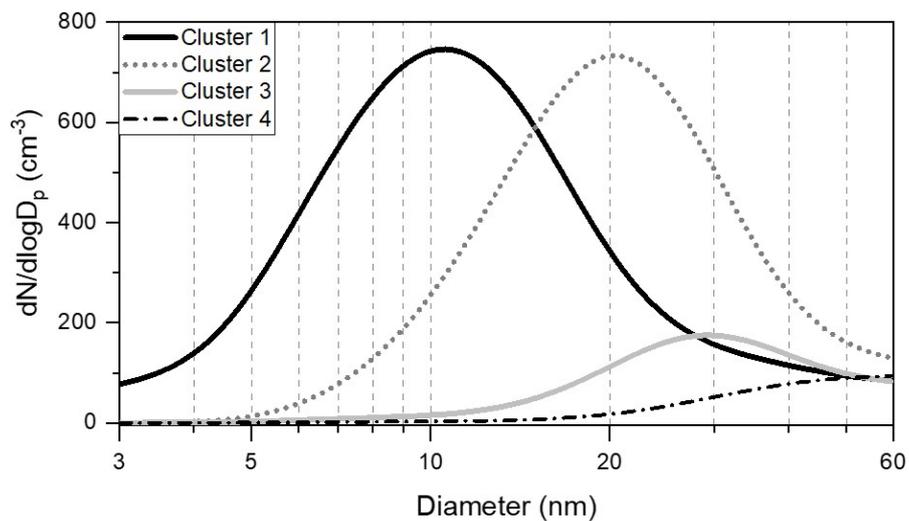
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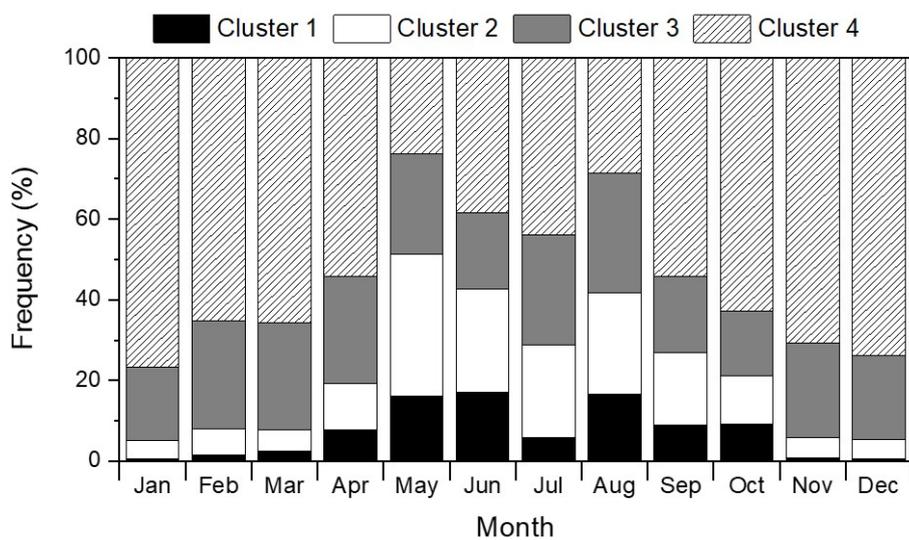
522 Figure 2. Monthly variations of  $N_{3-20}$ ,  $N_{20-60}$ , CS, and wind speed (upper panel), temperature, RH, and SRAD<sup>37</sup> (lower panel)  
523 from 2016 to 2018.

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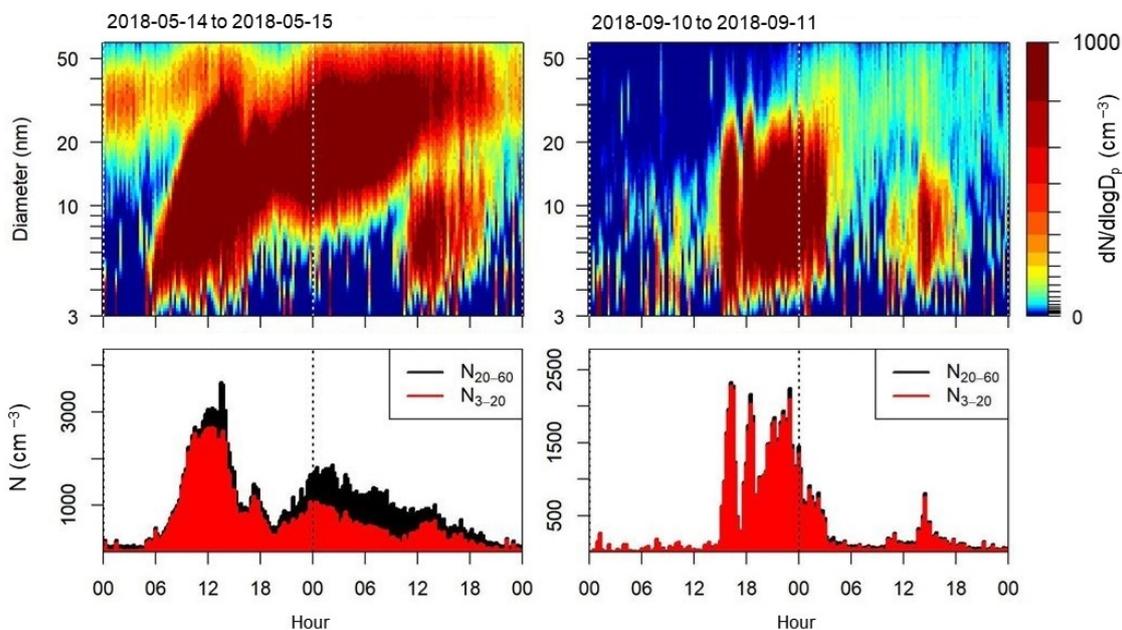
(a)



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(b)

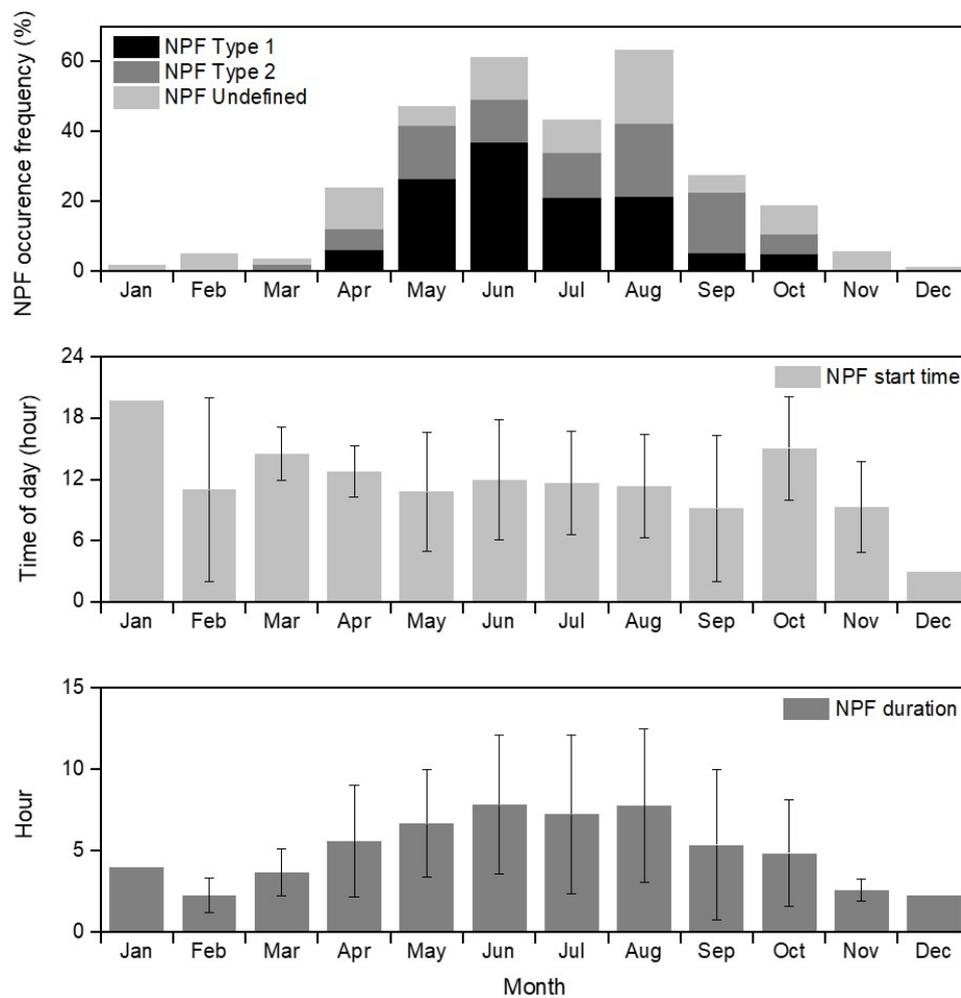
529 Figure 3. Major particle clusters by (a) size distribution and (b) monthly frequency from 2016 to 2018.  
530



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532 Figure 4. Examples of distinct NPF types identified in this study. In type 1 (left),  $N_{3-20}$  increases significantly with continuous  
533 particle growth, while in type 2 (right) it increases significantly without significant particle growth.

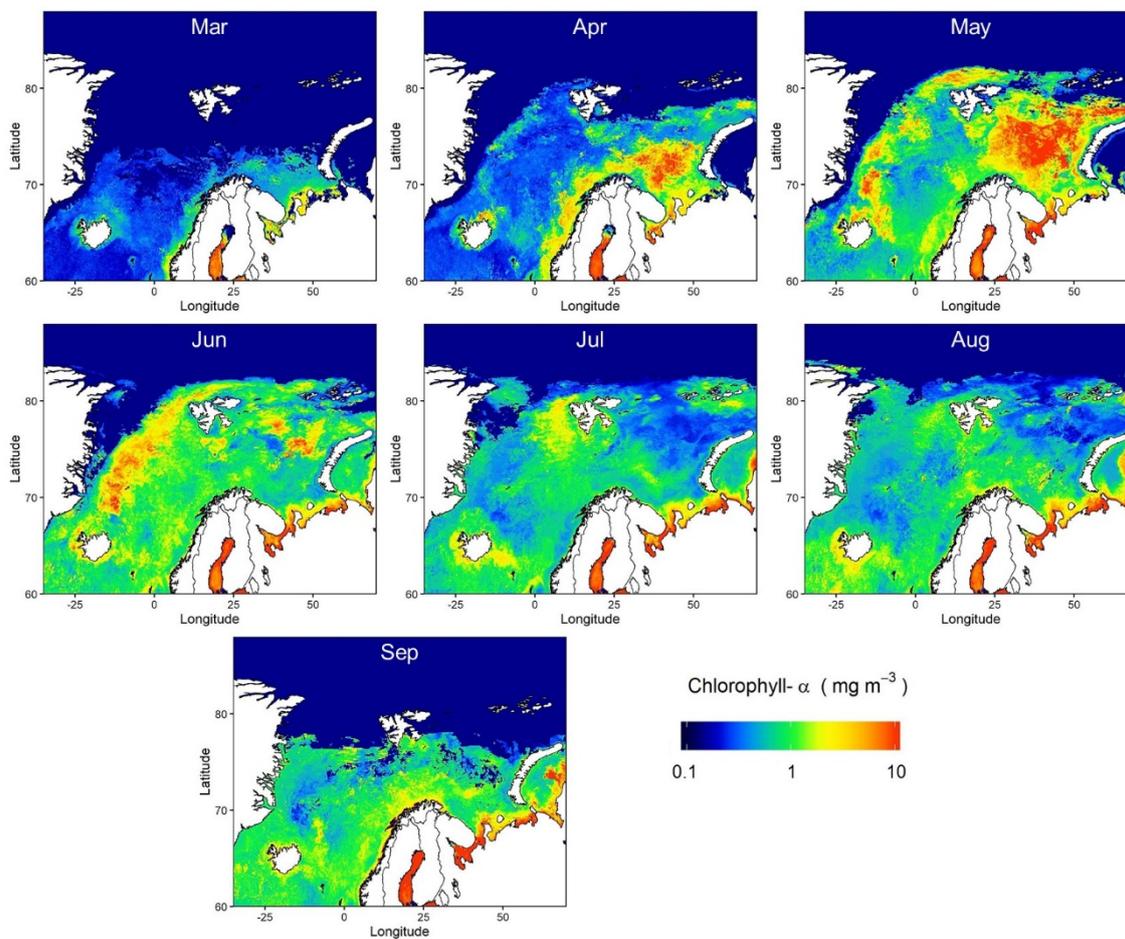
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536 Figure 5. Monthly variations of NPF occurrence, start time (UTC), and duration; error bar represents standard deviation.

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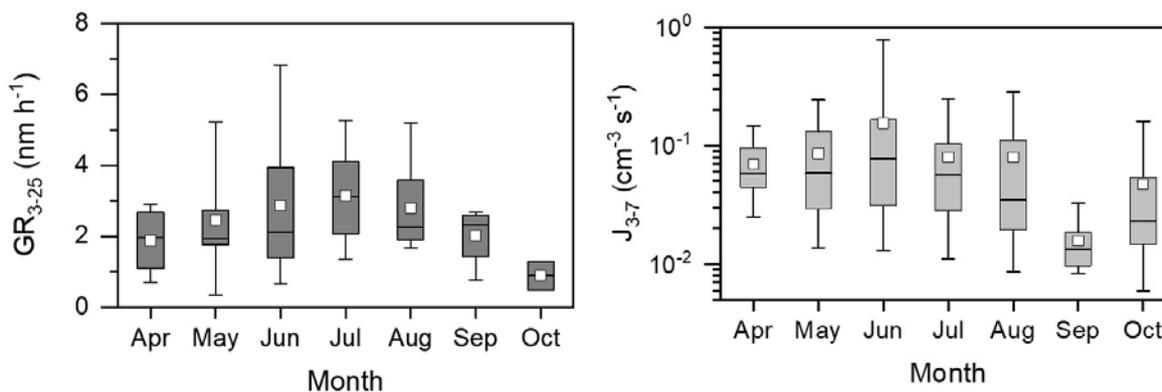
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539 Figure 6. MODIS-derived monthly chlorophyll- $\alpha$  concentration from 2016 to 2018 at 4 km resolution.

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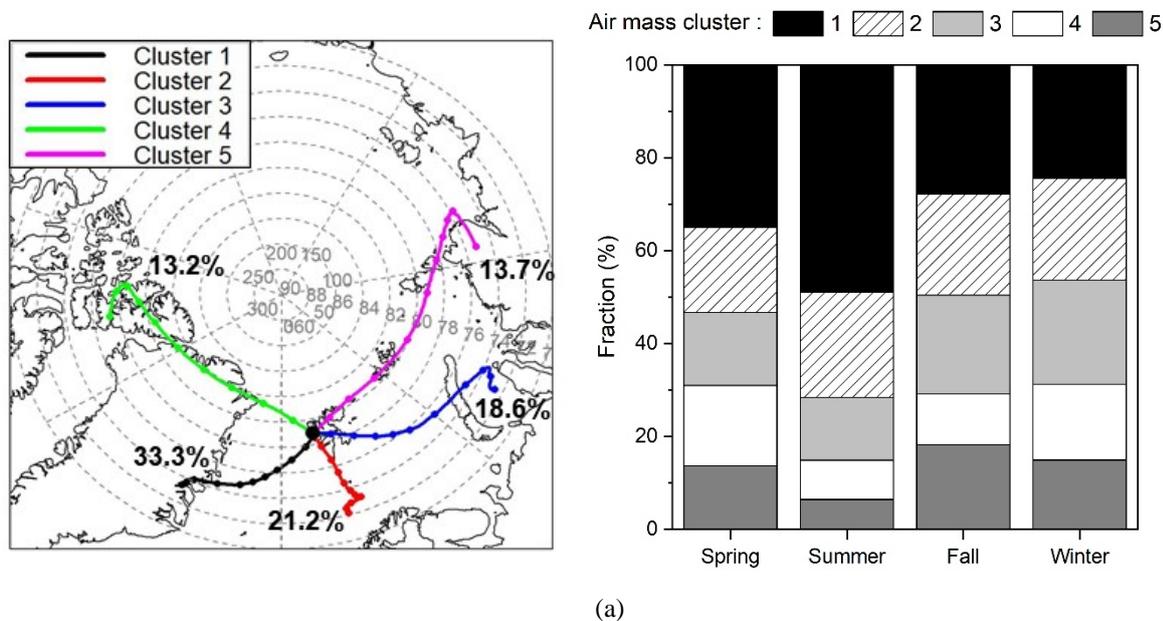


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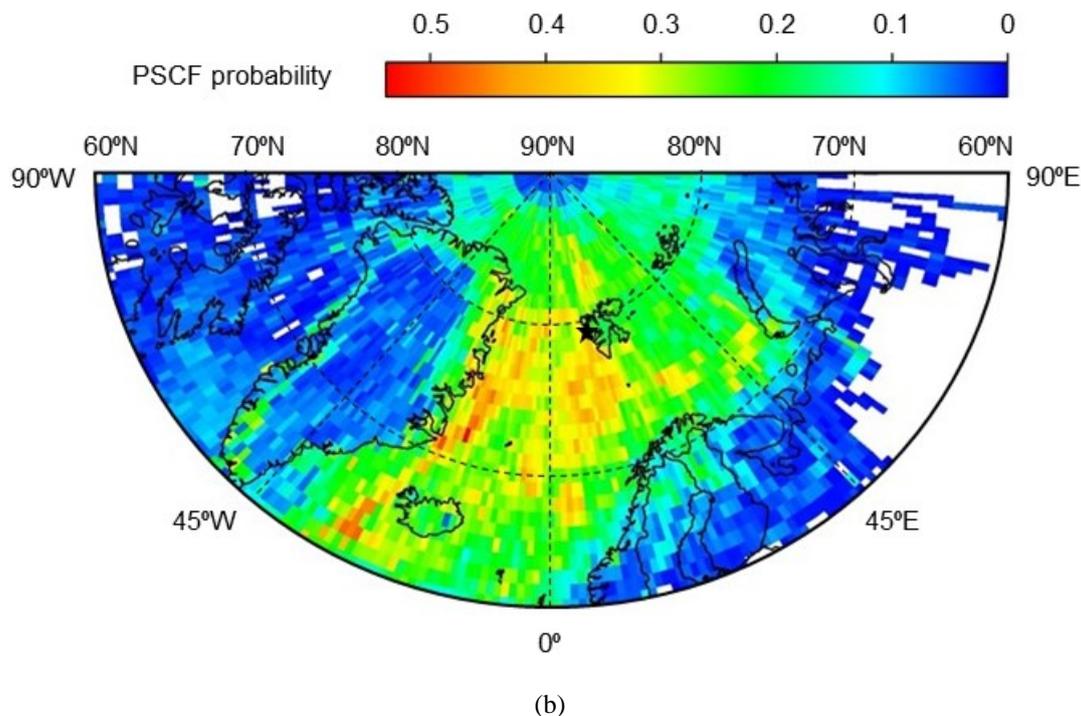
543 Figure 7. Monthly variations of  $GR_{3-25}$  and  $J_{3-7}$  for NPF in the Arctic. Boxes and whiskers represent the 25<sup>th</sup>–75<sup>th</sup> percentiles  
544 and 10<sup>th</sup>–90<sup>th</sup> percentiles, respectively; squares indicate means and horizontal lines within boxes indicate medians.

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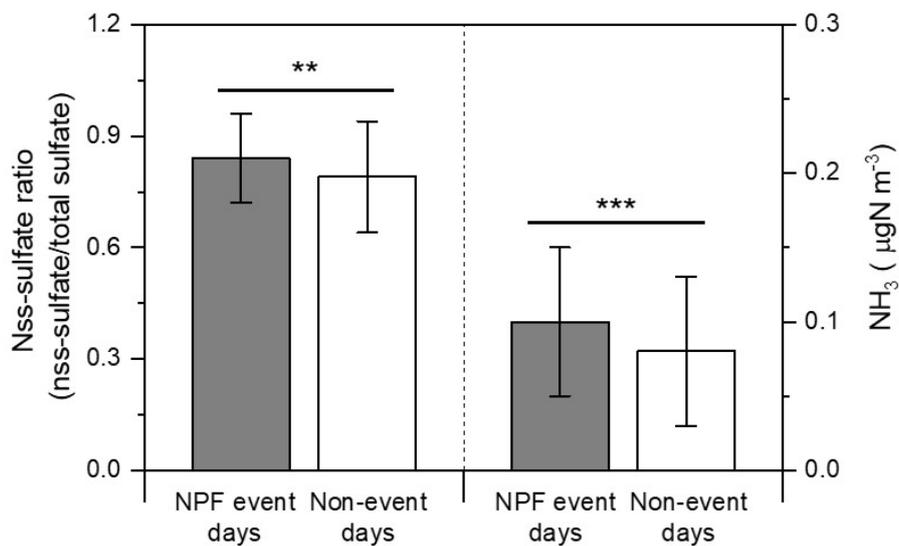
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551 Figure 8. (a) Five major clusters for air mass back trajectories from 2016 to 2018 and the fraction of each cluster by seasons.  
 552 (b) PSCF back-trajectory analysis for air mass origins affecting NPF at the 75<sup>th</sup> percentile of  $N_{3-20}$ .

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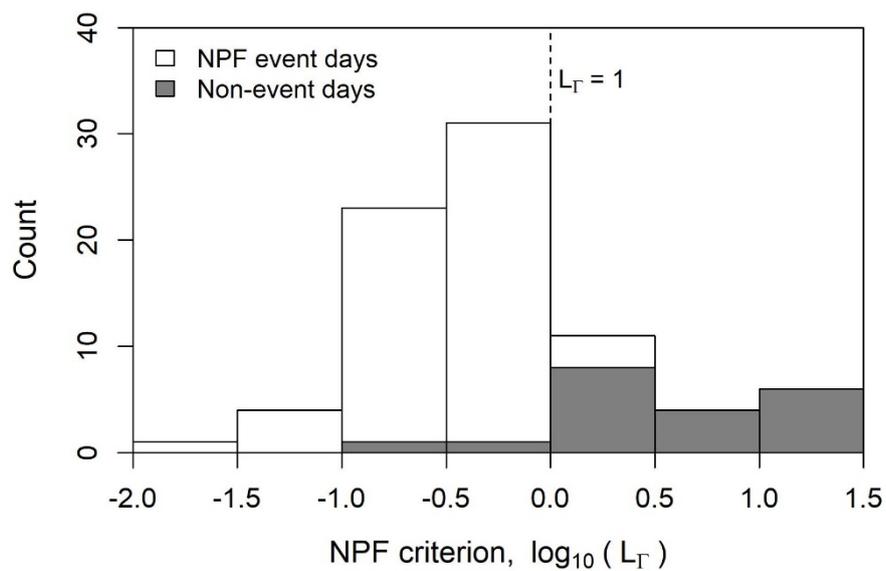
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555 Figure 9. Comparison of average nss-sulfate ratio (nss-sulfate/total sulfate) and concentration of  $\text{NH}_3$  between NPF events and  
556 non-event days: error bar and stars represent the standard deviation and  $p$ -values of a t-test (\*\*:  $< 0.05$  and \*\*\*:  $< 0.01$ ),  
557 respectively.

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561 Figure 10. Distribution of NPF criterion ( $L_{\Gamma}$ ) values for NPF event days (white) and non-event days (grey) in the Arctic.

562



Table 1. Summary of NPF frequency, J, and GR at various sampling sites, including the present study.

Site name and characteristics		Period	NPF frequency	GR (nm h <sup>-1</sup> )	J (cm <sup>-3</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> )		Reference	
Zeppelin, Norway	Arctic	2016 to 2018	24%	GR <sub>3-</sub>	0.35–	J <sub>3-7</sub>	0.01–	This study
				<sub>25</sub>	7.55	J <sub>3-25</sub>	1.68	
Finokalia, Greece	Marine background	Jun 2008 to Jun 2018	27%	GR <sub>9-</sub>	5.4±3.9	J <sub>9-25</sub>	0.02–	Kalivitis et al. (2019)
				<sub>25</sub>			1.62	
Beijing, China	Urban	Mar 2004 to Feb 2005	40%	GR <sub>3-</sub>	0.1–	J <sub>3-25</sub>	3.3–81.4	Wu et al. (2007)
<sub>25</sub>					11.2			
Pittsburgh, USA	Urban	Jul 2001 to Jun 2002	30%	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	Stanier et al. (2004)
San Pietro Capofiume, Italy	Sub-urban	Mar 2002 to Mar 2005	36%	GR <sub>3-</sub>	2.9–	J <sub>3-20</sub>	0.2–36.9	Hamed et al. (2007)
<sub>20</sub>					22.9			
12 European sites (EUCAARI project) <sup>a</sup>	Rural and background	2008 to 2009	21–57%	GR <sub>7-</sub>	3.6–6.8	J <sub>2-3</sub>	0.7–32.4	Manninen et al. (2010)
<sub>20</sub>								
Hyytiala, Finland	Rural	1996 to 2003	>24%	GR <sub>3-</sub>	0.9–5.3	J <sub>3-25</sub>	0.2–1.1	Dal Maso et al. (2005)
<sub>25</sub>								
ShangDianzi station, China	Rural	Mar 2008 to Dec 2013	36%	GR <sub>3-</sub>	0.7–	J <sub>3-25</sub>	0.5–39.3	Shen et al. (2016)
<sub>25</sub>					13.4			
Pyramid, Nepal	Himalayas	Mar 2006 to Aug 2007	>35%	GR <sub>10-</sub>	1.8 ±	J <sub>10-</sub>	0.05–0.2	Venzac et al. (2008)
<sub>20</sub>					0.7	<sub>20</sub>		
Dome C	Antarctica	Dec 2007 to Nov 2009	5–54%	GR <sub>10-</sub>	0.5–4.6	J <sub>10-</sub>	0.022–	Jarvinen et al. (2013)
<sub>25</sub>						<sub>25</sub>	0.11	
Neumayer	Antarctica	Jan 2012 to Mar 2012 Feb 2014 to Apr 2014	N/A	GR <sub>3-</sub>	0.4–1.9	J <sub>3-25</sub>	0.02–0.1	Weller et al. (2015)
<sub>25</sub>								



King Sejong	Antarctica	Mar 2009 to Dec 2016	6%	GR <sub>10-</sub> 25	0.02– 3.09	J <sub>2.5-</sub> 10	0.16– 9.88	Kim et al. (2019)
Nord, Greenland	Arctic	Jul 2010 to Feb 2013	17–38%	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	Nguyen et al. (2016)

<sup>a</sup> Pallas and Hyttiala (Finland), Vavihill (Sweden), Mace Head (Ireland), Cavauw (Netherlands), Melpitz and  
565 Hohenpeissenberg (Germany), K-Puszta (Hungary), Jungfrauoch (Switzerland), Puy de Dome (France), San Pietro  
Capofiume (Italy), and Finokalia (Greece).