

# 1 Observations of particle number size distributions and new 2 particle formation in six Indian locations

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23  
24 **Abstract.** Atmospheric new particle formation (NPF) is a crucial process driving aerosol number  
25 concentrations in the atmosphere; it can significantly impact the evolution of atmospheric aerosol  
26 and cloud processes. This study analyses at least one year of asynchronous particle number size  
27 distributions at six different locations in India. We also analyze the frequency of NPF and its  
28 contribution to cloud condensation nuclei (CCN) concentrations. We found that the NPF frequency  
29 has a considerable seasonal variability. At the measurement sites analyzed in this study, NPF  
30 frequently occurs in March-May (pre-monsoon, about 21% of the days) and is the least common  
31 in October-November (post-monsoon, about 7% of the days). Considering the NPF events in all  
32 locations, the particle formation rate ( $J_{LDS}$ ) varied by more than two orders of magnitude (0.001 -

33 0.6 cm<sup>-3</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>) and the growth rate **between the lowest detectable size and 25 nm (GR<sub>LDS-25nm</sub>)** by  
34 about three orders of magnitude (0.2 - 17.2 nm h<sup>-1</sup>). We found that **J<sub>LDS</sub>** was higher by nearly an  
35 order of magnitude during NPF events in urban areas than mountain sites. **GR<sub>LDS</sub>** did not show a  
36 systematic difference. Our results showed that NPF events could significantly modulate the shape  
37 of particle number size distributions and CCN concentrations in India. The contribution of a given  
38 NPF event to CCN concentrations was the highest in urban locations (4.3×10<sup>3</sup> cm<sup>-3</sup> per event and  
39 1.2×10<sup>3</sup> cm<sup>-3</sup> per event for 50 nm and 100 nm, respectively) as compared to mountain-background  
40 sites (2.7×10<sup>3</sup> cm<sup>-3</sup> per event and 1.0×10<sup>3</sup> cm<sup>-3</sup> per event). To better understand atmospheric NPF  
41 and its contribution to CCN concentrations, we would need **a high spatial and temporal resolution**  
42 **network of particle number size distributions and aerosol precursors measurements in diverse**  
43 **environments in India**, aided with regional model simulations to help interpret field observations.

44

45 **Keywords:** new particle formation, particle number size distribution, Aitken mode, accumulation  
46 mode, cloud condensation nuclei

47

## 48 **1 Introduction**

49 Cooling by atmospheric aerosols offset a significant fraction of the radiative forcing of the  
50 greenhouse gases (Paasonen et al., 2013) directly by scattering and absorbing solar radiation and  
51 indirectly by altering cloud microphysical properties via activation of cloud condensation nuclei  
52 (CCN) (Rosenfeld et al., 2014; Sarangi et al., 2018). New particle formation (NPF), as a result of  
53 the gas-to-particle conversion, is the largest source of the aerosol number to the terrestrial  
54 atmosphere (Kulmala et al., 2007; Zhang et al., 2012). While nucleated particles from NPF are  
55 initially very small molecular clusters (1-2 nm; Kerminen et al., 2012), these molecular clusters  
56 can grow to large sizes within a few hours to a few days and ultimately reach CCN-active sizes  
57 (>50-100 nm) (Pierce and Adams, 2007; Westervelt et al., 2013). Thus, CCN forms the direct  
58 microphysical link between aerosols and clouds and plays a vital role in the hydrological cycle and  
59 climate.

60 In India, several intensive field campaigns such as the Indian Ocean Experiment  
61 (INDOEX) (Ramanathan et al., 2001), Indian Space Research Organization (ISRO)-Geosphere-  
62 Biosphere Programme (GBP)- Land campaign II (Tripathi et al., 2006; Tare et al., 2006), and  
63 Integrated Campaign for Aerosols, gases, and Radiation Budget (ICARB) (Moorthy et al., 2008;

64 Nair et al., 2020; Kompalli et al., 2020) measured sub-micron particle number size distributions  
65 (PNSDs). There are also short- and long-term field observations of sub-micron PNSDs in a variety  
66 of diverse locations in India (Hyvärinen et al., 2010; Kanawade et al., 2014a; Shika et al., 2020;  
67 Tripathi et al., 1988; Komppula et al., 2009; Singh et al., 2004; Moorthy et al., 2011; Babu et al.,  
68 2016; Kompalli et al., 2018). But there are sparse studies in India characterizing seasonal variation  
69 in PNSDs and number concentrations (Kanawade et al., 2014a; Hyvärinen et al., 2010; Komppula  
70 et al., 2009; Hooda et al., 2018; Laj et al., 2020) and atmospheric NPF (Sebastian et al., 2021b;  
71 Siingh et al., 2018; Neitola et al., 2011; Moorthy et al., 2011; Kanawade et al., 2014b; Kanawade  
72 et al., 2014c; Kanawade et al., 2020a). The characterization of PNSDs is critical because the PNSD  
73 is controlled by an evolving balance between NPF, condensation of vapor on pre-existing particles,  
74 evaporation of particles, coagulation and sedimentation (Ipcc, 2013). Previous field measurements  
75 and modeling studies globally demonstrated a substantial enhancement in CCN number  
76 concentrations from nucleation (Yu et al., 2020; Wiedensohler et al., 2009; Sihto et al., 2011; Rose  
77 et al., 2017; Tröstl et al., 2016; Kalivitis et al., 2015; Westervelt et al., 2013; Pierce et al., 2012;  
78 Pierce et al., 2014; Westervelt et al., 2014; Kerminen et al., 2012; Kerminen et al., 2018; Merikanto  
79 et al., 2009; Gordon et al., 2017). For instance, Merikanto et al. (2009) revealed that 45% of the  
80 global low-level CCN at 0.2% supersaturation originates from nucleation. Westervelt et al. (2014)  
81 also found that nucleation contributes to about half of the boundary layer CCN (at supersaturation  
82 of 0.2%), with an estimated uncertainty range of 49 to 78%, which is sensitive to the choice of  
83 nucleation scheme. In contrast, Reddington et al. (2011), using the global model GLOMAP against  
84 ground-based measurements at 15 European sites, found that CCN-sized particle number  
85 concentrations were driven by processes other than nucleation at more than ten sites. They  
86 explained that the weakened response of CCN-sized particles to boundary layer nucleation arises  
87 from an increase in coagulation and condensation sinks for ultrafine particles, thereby reducing  
88 the condensational growth of ultrafine particles to CCN-active sizes (Kuang et al., 2009; Pierce  
89 and Adams, 2007). Tröstl et al. (2016) also revealed that only a small fraction of total particles less  
90 than 50 nm grew beyond 90 nm (50-100 particles  $\text{cm}^{-3}$ ), even on a timescale of several days.  
91 Therefore, to better understand atmospheric NPF and its contribution to the boundary layer CCN  
92 budget, we need highly-resolved spatiotemporal observational data in diverse environments  
93 globally, aided with aerosol model simulations, to help to interpret field observations.

94 Overall, studies pertinent to the impact of NPF on aerosol-cloud interactions are highly  
95 sparse in India. The sources of aerosols, and gaseous precursors required for secondary aerosol  
96 formation, depict a considerable spatiotemporal heterogeneity over India. Therefore, observational  
97 aerosols and precursors data must be synthesized to understand the processes that govern NPF and  
98 its contribution to CCN concentrations in different settings of India. The primary objective of this  
99 study is to harmonize observational PNSDs data from six diverse locations in India to present  
100 analyses of PNSDs, atmospheric NPF, and the contribution of NPF to CCN concentrations.

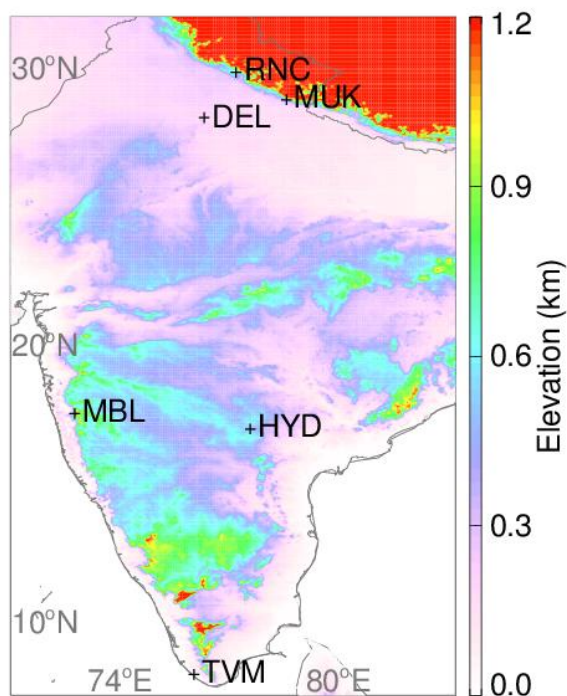
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## 102 2 Methods

### 103 2.1 Observation sites and aerosol sampling instrumentation

104 Figure 1 shows the geographical location of measurement sites on the surface elevation  
105 map. Table 1 provides details of measurement sites and particle data analyzed in this study.

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107

108 **Figure 1.** The geographical location of measurement sites on the surface elevation map.  
109 Measurement sites such as Ranichauri (RNC), Mukteshwar (MUK), Mahabaleshwar (MBL),  
110 Hyderabad (HYD), Thiruvananthapuram (TVM), and Delhi (DEL) are shown by the plus sign.  
111 The global 1-arcsecond (30-m) SRTM digital surface elevation data is obtained from the United  
112 States Geological Survey ([https://dds.cr.usgs.gov/srtm/version2\\_1/SRTM30/](https://dds.cr.usgs.gov/srtm/version2_1/SRTM30/)).

113 **Table 1.** Details of the measurement sites and particle number size distribution measurements  
 114 analyzed in this study.

Site Name	Site code	Site type	Instrument	Size range (nm)	Time resolution (minutes)	Time Period
Ranichauri	RNC	Mountain background	DMPS	10.1–757	10	12/2016 – 09/2018
Mukteshwar	MUK	Mountain background	DMPS	10.1–757	5	01/2012 – 12/2013
Mahabaleshwar	MBL	Mountain semi-rural	WRAS	5.14–1000	4	03/2015 – 03/2016
Hyderabad	HYD	Urban	SMPS	10.9–514	5	04/2019 – 03/2020
Thiruvananthapuram	TVM	Semi-urban coastal	SMPS	14.6–661.2	5	01/2013 – 01/2014
Delhi	DEL	Urban	WRAS	5.14–1000	5	11/2011 – 01/2013

115 DMPS: Differential Mobility Particle Sizer, WRAS: Wide-Range Aerosol Spectrometer, SMPS:  
 116 Scanning Mobility Particle Sizer

117  
 118 Ranichauri observation site (RNC, 30.2° N, 78.25° E; ~1930 m above mean sea level, amsl)  
 119 is located in Tehri–Garhwal district of Uttarakhand state in the southern slope of the Western  
 120 Himalaya. The RNC site is situated on an isolated hilltop within the campus of the College of  
 121 Forestry in the Ranichauri village. The RNC site is a Climate Monitoring station managed by the  
 122 India Meteorological Department (IMD). It is a mountain background remote observatory  
 123 (Sebastian et al., 2021b) and located about 70 km to the northeast of Rishikesh city, about 100 km  
 124 to the northwest of the Srinagar city, and about 100 km to the east of Dehradun. Here, particle  
 125 number size distributions in the size range from 10 nm to 757 nm (30 size bins) is measured using  
 126 a differential mobility particle sizer (DMPS, Finnish Meteorological Institute assembled) from  
 127 December 2016 – September 2018 are used (Sebastian et al., 2021b). The DMPS consisted of a  
 128 Vienna-type differential mobility analyzer (DMA) that classifies the charged particles according  
 129 to their electrical mobility and a TSI 3772 condensation particle counter (CPC) that counts  
 130 particles of the selected mobility. The sample air was drawn inside through a stainless-steel inlet  
 131 tube of about 2 meters in length and dried to less than 40% relative humidity with a Nafion dryer  
 132 (Perma Pure model MD-700-48). Diffusion losses in the inlet and inside the DMPS instrument  
 133 were considered in the data inversion. The inversion method was identical to that presented by  
 134 Wiedensohler et al. (2012) for the Finnish Meteorological Institute (FMI) DMPS.

135 Mukteshwar observation site (MUK, 29.43° N, 79.62° E, 2180 m amsl) is located in the  
136 Nainital district of Uttarakhand state in the southern slope of the Central Himalaya. The  
137 Mukteshwar village is situated 3 km to the northeast of the measurement site at a similar altitude  
138 with ~800 inhabitants (Census of India, 2011). MUK can be considered a mountain background  
139 site, with the annual mean black carbon (BC) concentration of 0.9  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ . The town of Almora  
140 (1650 m amsl, 34,000 inhabitants) is located at about 16 km to the north, Nainital (1960 m amsl,  
141 41000 inhabitants) is located at about 25 km to the southwest, and the city of Haldwani (424 m  
142 amsl, 150,000 inhabitants) is located at about 32 km to the southwest to MUK. Delhi, the major  
143 metropolitan city (215 m amsl, 16.8 million inhabitants), is located approximately 250 km to the  
144 southwest. Systematic measurements of aerosol properties have been conducted at MUK since  
145 2005 in Indo-Finnish cooperation with the Finnish Meteorological Institute (Hooda et al., 2018  
146 and references therein). Here, we used only two years (January 2012 to December 2013) of  
147 measurements of particle number size distributions in the size range of 10 nm to 757 nm (30 size  
148 bins). The air sampling procedure was similar to that of the RNC observation site. **More details of  
149 the site and aerosol sampling can be found in Hyvärinen et al. (2009).**

150 Delhi observation site (DEL, 28.64° N, 77.17° E, 215 m amsl) is located at CSIR-National  
151 Physical Laboratory (NPL). Delhi, India's national capital and largest metropolitan city in South  
152 Asia, is located in the northwestern Indo Gangetic Plain (IGP) in northern India. Delhi city has a  
153 population of 16.8 million, with a population density of 11,320  $\text{km}^{-2}$  (Census of India, 2011). The  
154 Great Indian Desert (Thar Desert) of Rajasthan state is located to the southwest, hot central plains  
155 to the south, and hilly regions to the north and east of Delhi. Long-range transported air masses  
156 often influence Delhi's air quality from the northwest (agricultural residue burning from Punjab  
157 and Haryana in October-November) and southwest (dust storms from Thar and Arabian Peninsula  
158 in April-June) (Kanawade et al., 2020b; Srivastava et al., 2014). Wide Range Aerosol  
159 Spectrometer (WRAS, manufactured by GRIMM, Germany), installed on the second floor of the  
160 NPL main building, was used to measure particle number size distributions. WRAS consists of a  
161 Scanning Mobility Particle Sizer (SMPS) and an Environmental Dust Monitor (EDM). GRIMM-  
162 SMPS system consists of a Vienna-type monodisperse differential mobility analyzer (M-DMA).  
163 DMA classifies the particle according to their electrical mobility, which is then counted using a  
164 CPC. EDM uses an Optical Particle Counter (OPC), which works on the light scattering  
165 technology for particle counting gives the particle number size distribution in the size range from

166 250 nm to 32  $\mu\text{m}$  (Grimm and Eatough, 2009). The WRAS system uses a stainless-steel inlet tube  
167 with an integrated Nafion drier to dry the aerosol samples. A detailed description of the site and  
168 aerosol sampling is given elsewhere (Jose et al., 2021). Thus, the WRAS system gives the particle  
169 number size distribution in the size range from 5.5 nm to 32  $\mu\text{m}$  (72 size bins). The detailed  
170 description and principle of the instrument are discussed elsewhere (Grimm and Eatough, 2009).  
171 In this study, we used particle number size distributions in the size range of 5.14 nm to 1000 nm  
172 from November 2011 to January 2013.

173 Mahabaleshwar observation site (MBL, 17.92° N, 73.65° E; 1378 m amsl) is located in the  
174 small town named Mahabaleshwar in the forested Western Ghats range in the Satara district of  
175 Maharashtra State. In MBL, a High-Altitude Cloud Physics Laboratory (HACPL) was established  
176 by the Indian Institute of Tropical Meteorology (IITM), Pune, in 2012, to study monsoon clouds  
177 in this region. HACPL site details are found elsewhere (Anil Kumar et al., 2021). Mahabaleshwar  
178 town is a tourist attraction consisting of dense vegetation, residential houses, hotels, and a rural  
179 market. Pune city is located on the leeward side of the Western Ghats about 100 km to the north,  
180 Mumbai city is located approximately 250 km on the northwest, and Satara city is located  
181 approximately 50 km to the southeast of Mahabaleshwar. Measurements of particle number size  
182 distributions were carried out using the GRIMM-WRAS system. The detailed description and  
183 principle of the instrument are discussed elsewhere (Grimm and Eatough, 2009). The WRAS has  
184 a stainless-steel inlet tube with a an integrated Nafion dryer to reduce the relative humidity to  
185 ~40%. In this study, we used particle number size distributions in the size range of 5.14 nm to  
186 1000 nm from March 2015 to March 2016.

187 Hyderabad observation site (HYD, 17.46° N, 78.32° E; 542 m amsl), University of  
188 Hyderabad, is located in the outskirts of Hyderabad urban city. HYD observation site details can  
189 be found in Sebastian et al. (2021a). Briefly, particle number size distributions in size range from  
190 10.9 to 514 nm (108 size bins) were measured using TSI SMPS, which consists of an electrostatic  
191 classifier with a long differential mobility analyzer (TSI LDMA, model 3082) and a butanol CPC  
192 (TSI, model 3772), on the second floor of the Earth Sciences building located in the University of  
193 Hyderabad campus from April 2019 to March 2020. The scanning cycle of SMPS was 300  
194 seconds, yielding a particle number size distribution every 5 minutes.

195 Thiruvananthapuram (Trivandrum) observation site (TVM, 8.55° N, 76.97°E, 3 m amsl) is  
196 a tropical semi-urban coastal city with a population of ~1 million (Census of India, 2011), located

197 on the southwestern coast of the Indian peninsular. The observations were carried out at the Space  
198 Physics Laboratory (SPL) within the Thumba Equatorial Rocket Launching Station, which is about  
199 500 m due east of the Arabian Sea coast and 10 km northwest of the urban area of  
200 Thiruvananthapuram. The experimental site is free from major industrial or urban activities (Babu  
201 et al., 2016). TVM station is a part of the Aerosol Radiative Forcing over India (ARFI) project  
202 network of the Indian Space Research Organisation - Geosphere-Biosphere Program (ISRO-GBP).  
203 Measurements of particle number size distributions in size range from 14.6 nm to 661.2 nm (108  
204 size bins) were made using TSI SMPS, which consists of an electrostatic classifier with an LDMA  
205 (3081) and a water-based CPC (3786) from January 2013 to January 2014. **The ambient air was  
206 sampled from a height of 3 m above ground level through a manifold inlet fitted with PM<sub>10</sub> size  
207 cut impactor at 16.67 LPM flow rate. Subsequently, the flow was distributed among various  
208 aerosol instruments connected with electrically conductive tubing. To restrict high relative  
209 humidity conditions, a diffusion dryer (Make: TSI, Model: 3062) employing silica gel was used.**  
210 More details about the site and prevailing meteorology are described in Babu et al. (2016).

211 Particle number size distributions are categorized by season. We have defined four seasons  
212 as indicated in Table 2. The overall particle number size distribution data coverage was adequate  
213 (>60 %) at the RNC, MUK, MBL, and HYD sites (Fig. 2) for determining the main seasonal and  
214 annual features of particle number size distributions and NPF characteristics. The data coverage at  
215 TVM (34%) and DEL (47%) was lower. We also analyzed the number concentration of three sub-  
216 micron aerosol modes: Aitken mode (25-100 nm), accumulation mode (100-514 nm), and total  
217 particles (<514 nm). **Figure S1 shows the three-day air mass backward trajectories arriving at 500  
218 m above the ground level at all sites for winter, pre-monsoon, monsoon and post-monsoon seasons.  
219 RNC and MUK generally experience a mixture of relatively cleaner free tropospheric air and  
220 polluted air from the highly polluted Indo-Gangetic Plain. MBL experiences marine air masses  
221 during pre-monsoon and monsoon seasons while continental air masses during post-monsoon and  
222 winter. HYD experiences mixed marine and continental air masses from the northeast during post-  
223 monsoon and winter seasons while from southeast and west during pre-monsoon and monsoon,  
224 respectively. TVM predominantly experiences air masses of marine origin throughout the year,  
225 with continental influence during the winter season. DEL mostly experiences air masses from the  
226 northwest during pre-monsoon, post-monsoon and winter seasons and from southeast and  
227 southwest during monsoon season.**

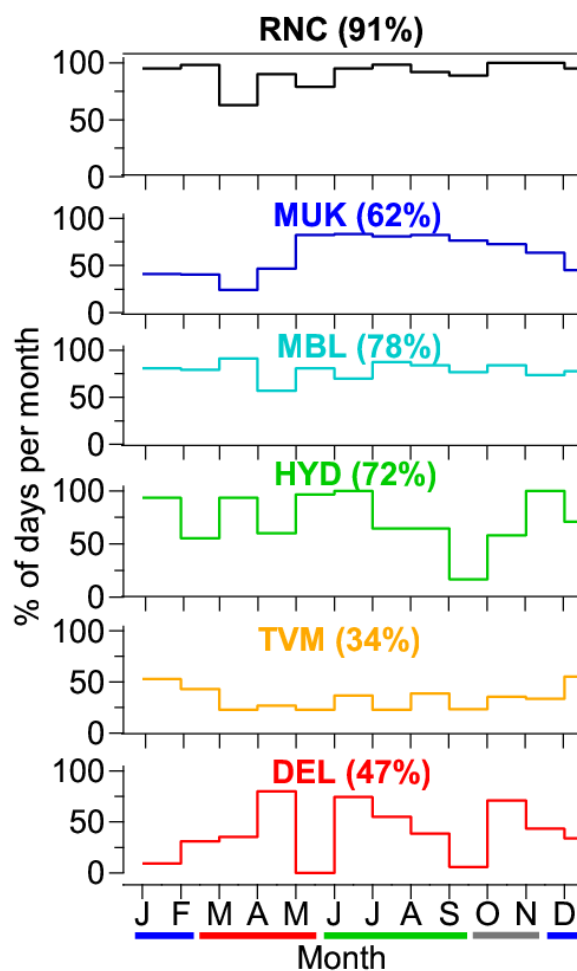


228

229 **Table 2.** Seasons are defined in the analysis and average weather conditions.

Season	Months	Comments
Winter	December, January, February	Cold and dry
Pre-monsoon	March, April, May	Hot and dry
Monsoon	June, July, August, September	Warm, humid, and wet
Post-monsoon	October, November	Cool and humid

230



231

232 **Figure 2.** Particle number size distributions data coverage (% of days/month) at the sites. The  
233 values in the bracket indicate total data coverage. The blue, red, green, and grey colored thick lines  
234 indicate winter, pre-monsoon, monsoon, and post-monsoon months. **Note that measurements are**  
235 **from different time periods for each site (refer to Table 1).**

236

## 237 **2.2 New particle formation event classification and features**

238 We classified observation days into three types of events: NPF event day, non-event day,  
239 and undefined event day using visual inspection of the particle number size distributions following  
240 the methodology given by Dal Maso et al. (2005). A day was classified as an NPF event day by  
241 the presence of a distinctly new mode of particles with a diameter smaller than 25 nm and steady  
242 growth in diameter of this new mode such that the particle number size distributions display a  
243 noontime "banana" shaped aerosol growth. The particle mode diameter (i.e., the local maximum  
244 of the particle number size distribution) was obtained by fitting a log-normal distribution to the  
245 measured particle number size distribution. A day without any evidence of a distinctly new mode  
246 of particles diameter smaller than 25 nm was identified as a non-event day. Those days, which  
247 were difficult to be classified as any one of the above two event types, were identified as undefined  
248 event days. For NPF events, the particle growth rate was calculated by fitting a first-order  
249 polynomial line through growing particle mode diameter between the lowest detectable size (LDS)  
250 of the instrument (e.g., 10 nm for RNC) and 25 nm as a function of time and calculating its slope  
251 ( $GR_{LDS-25nm}$ ). The formation rate of a particle at the LDS ( $J_{LDS}$ ) was also found using the simplified  
252 approximation of the General Dynamic Equation (GDE), describing the evolution of the particle  
253 number size distribution as given below;

$$254$$
$$255 J_{LDS} = \frac{dN_{LDS-25}}{dt} + F_{CoagS} + F_{growth} \quad (1)$$
$$256$$

257 where the first term in Eq. (1) is the rate of the change of nucleation mode particle number  
258 concentrations, the second term is the coagulation loss of nucleation mode particles, and the third  
259 term is the flux out of the size range of LDS-25 nm, i.e., condensational growth (Dal Maso et al.,  
260 2005). A direct comparison of  $J_{LDS}$  and  $GR_{LDS-25nm}$  between the sites is not possible because of  
261 the different size ranges covered by the instruments.

262

## 263 **2.3 Increase in CCN concentrations from NPF**

264 The increase in CCN concentrations from any given NPF event can be estimated by  
265 comparing the CCN concentration before the event ( $N_{CCNprior}$ ) and the maximum CCN  
266 concentration during the event ( $N_{CCNmax}$ ) following the methodology developed by Kerminen et  
267 al. (2012), which we modified further. In typical ambient in-cloud supersaturations, the total

268 number of particles from 50 nm to >100 nm can be considered as a proxy for CCN concentrations  
 269 **assuming fixed chemical composition** (Westervelt et al., 2013; Kerminen et al., 2012).  $N_{CCN_{prior}}$   
 270 was chosen to be a one-hour average concentration of particles larger than 50 nm (and 100 nm)  
 271 just before the start of the NPF event. **The start of the NPF event is the time when nucleation mode**  
 272 **particle number concentrations increase rapidly during an NPF event.**  $N_{CCN_{max}}$  was taken as a  
 273 maximum one-hour average concentration of particles larger than 50 nm (and 100 nm) during the  
 274 event. The  $N_{CCN_{max}}$  is not the best representation of CCN concentration after the NPF event  
 275 because it is not possible to estimate the end of an NPF event. But it gives a rough estimate of the  
 276 observed maximum number of primary and secondary particles present in the atmosphere during  
 277 an event (Kerminen et al., 2012). **For non-event days, the seasonally averaged start of the NPF**  
 278 **event time was chosen to calculate  $N_{CCN_{prior}}$ .  $N_{CCN_{max}}$  on non-event days was taken similar to NPF**  
 279 **event days, as a maximum one-hour average concentration of particles larger than 50 nm (and 100**  
 280 **nm).** The second term in Eq. (2) gives approximate CCN concentrations from processes other than  
 281 NPF. Then, the absolute increase in CCN concentration from NPF is calculated as given below,

$$282$$

$$283 \text{CCN increase} = (N_{CCN_{max}} - N_{CCN_{prior}})_{\text{NPFevent}} - (N_{CCN_{max}} - N_{CCN_{prior}})_{\text{non-events}} \quad (2)$$

$$284$$

285 The first term on the right-hand side in Eq. (2) indicates the CCN increase during an NPF event,  
 286 while the second term indicates the CCN increase during a non-event. But the atmospheric  
 287 condition on non-event days is generally different from NPF event days; therefore, the calculated  
 288 increase in CCN concentrations from NPF may be imprecise.

### 289

## 290 **3. Results and discussion**

### 291 **3.1 Variability in particle number size distributions and number concentrations**

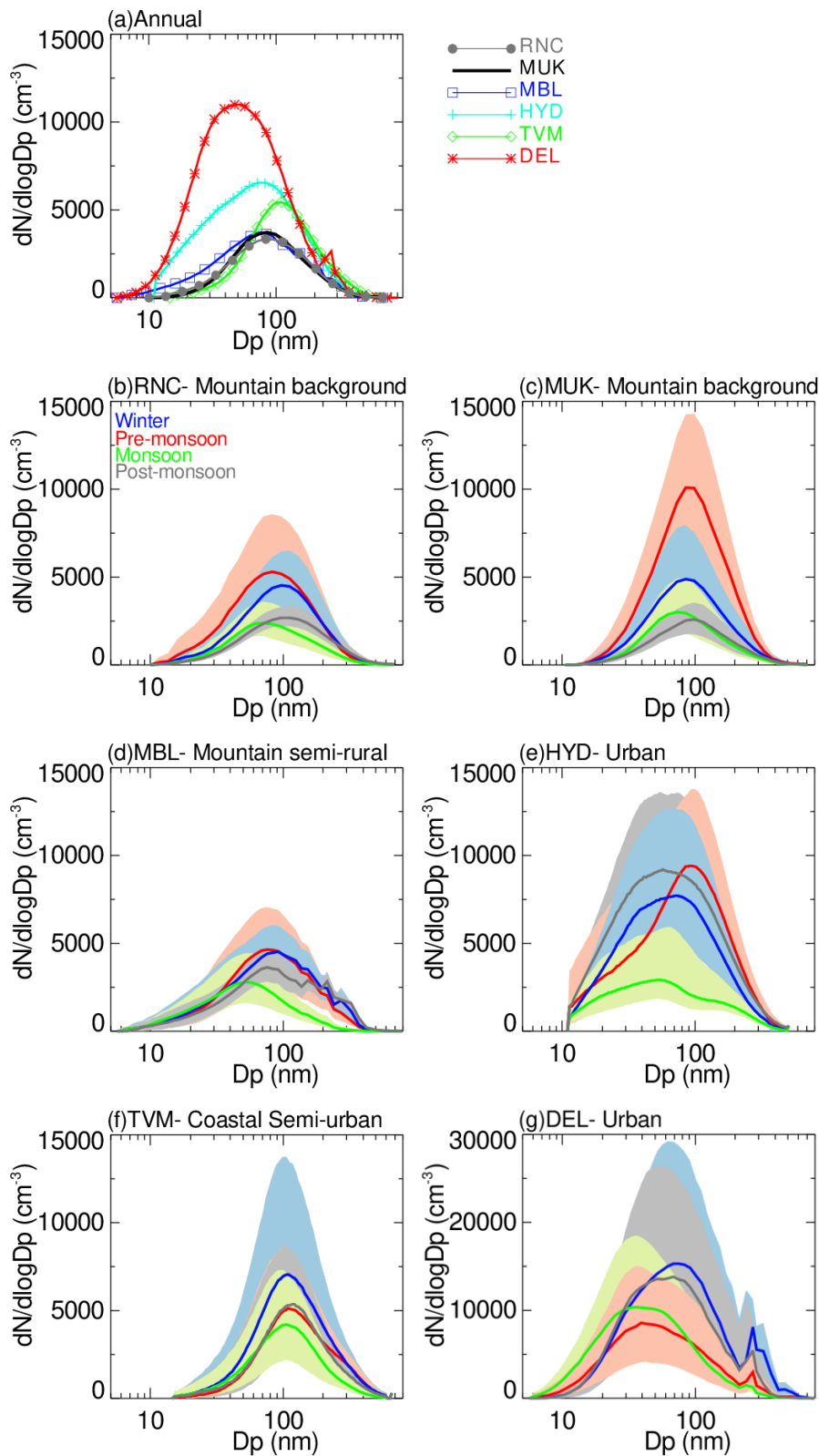
292 Figure 3 shows the annual and seasonal median and 25<sup>th</sup> and 75<sup>th</sup> percentile values of  
 293 particle number size distributions at all the sites. The thick line represents the median value,  
 294 whereas the shaded area indicates particle number size distribution between 25<sup>th</sup> and 75<sup>th</sup>  
 295 percentiles. The mountain sites (RNC, MUK, and MBL) all show similar mode diameters, with  
 296 the lowest concentrations at RNC. Amongst urban areas (HYD, TVM, and DEL), TVM has the  
 297 largest mode diameter, which is frequently influenced by the influx of marine air masses  
 298 containing high moisture and coarser sea salt aerosols (Babu et al., 2016) (Fig. 3a). The peak

299 number concentration of PNSDs is the highest in pre-monsoon (MAM) than in other seasons at  
300 **the mountain background sites** RNC and MUK (Fig. 3b-c), while it was similar in winter and pre-  
301 monsoon at MBL (Fig. 3d). These elevated concentrations are accompanied by a smaller mode  
302 diameter of the Aitken mode particles. The highest number concentration is attributed to the  
303 frequent occurrence of NPF in these locations in pre-monsoon (Sebastian et al., 2021b; Neitola et  
304 al., 2011). The contribution of newly formed particles to total particles is also visible in the 75<sup>th</sup>  
305 percentile PNSDs at these sites. The number size distributions of particles were significantly the  
306 lowest in monsoon and post-monsoon.

307 The median number size distribution of particles at HYD is the highest in pre-monsoon  
308 and post-monsoon (Fig. 3e). The highest particle number concentrations in pre-monsoon and post-  
309 monsoon can be attributed to the frequent occurrence of NPF in these seasons at the site. The  
310 influence of NPF is also noticeable in the 75<sup>th</sup> percentile PNSDs. The PNSD is consistently the  
311 lowest in monsoon, attributed to the wet scavenging of particles. The concentrations of Aitken and  
312 accumulation mode particles are the highest in winter compared to the other seasons. The mode  
313 diameter of PNSDs at TVM is comparatively similar in all seasons (Fig. 3f). At DEL, the mode  
314 diameter of PNSDs is the highest in winter compared to the other seasons (Fig. 3g). The shallow  
315 boundary layer height, stagnant atmospheric conditions, and high emission rates of aerosol  
316 precursors in winter (Kanawade et al., 2020b) allow particles to stay close to the surface and grow  
317 larger under high relative humidity and high condensable vapor concentrations. The median PNSD  
318 is consistently the lowest in monsoon at TVM due to extensive wet scavenging. The strong  
319 seasonality in PNSDs is similar to those reported earlier in India (Hooda et al., 2018; Komppula  
320 et al., 2009; Gani et al., 2020; Kanawade et al., 2014a). **The uni- and bi-modal parameters of the**  
321 **particle number size distributions presented in Fig. 3 are tabulated in Table S1.**

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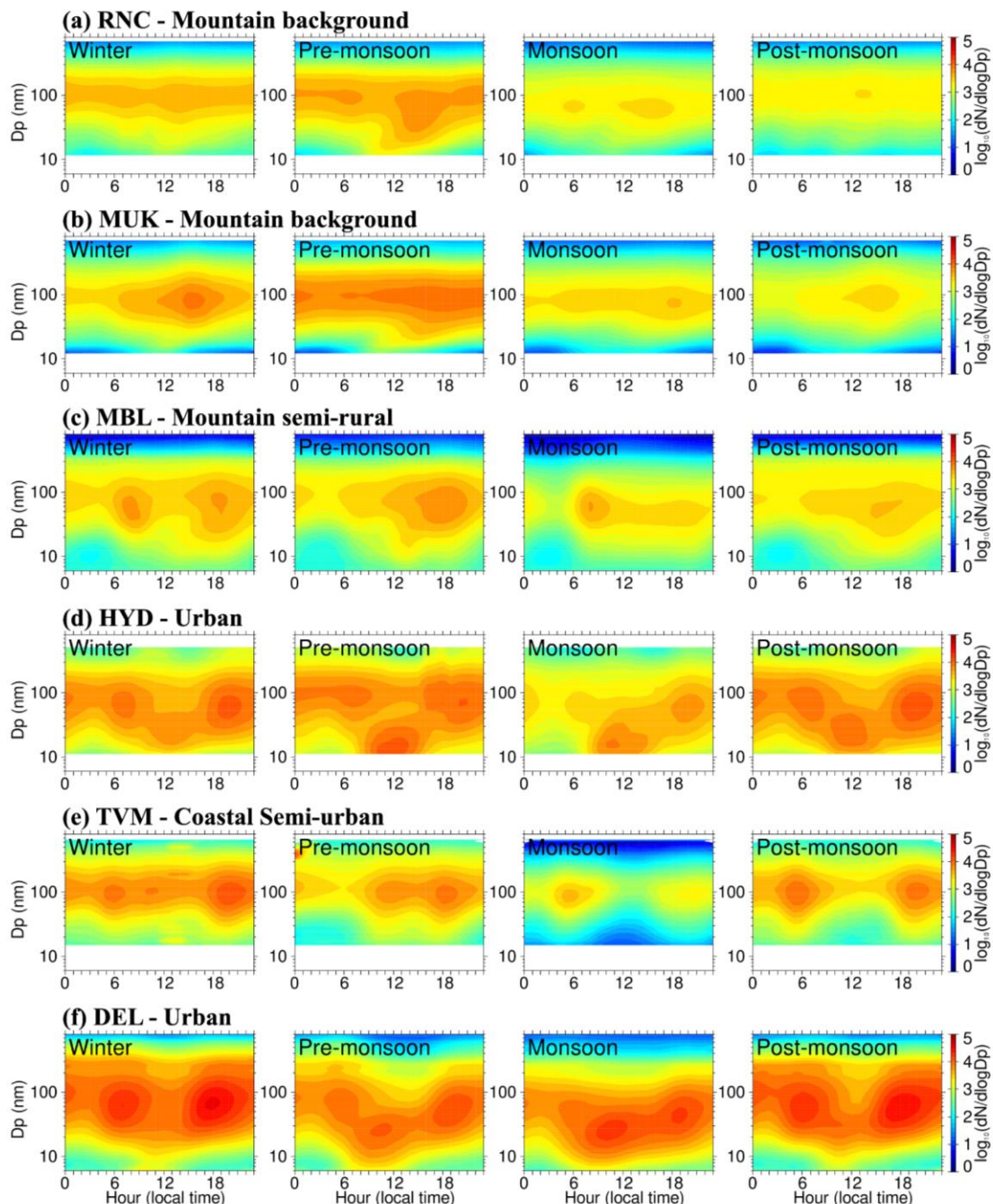
328 **Figure 3.** (a) Annual and (b-g) seasonal median particle number size distributions at all the sites.

329 The solid line indicates the median, and the light-colored shading indicates 25<sup>th</sup> and 75<sup>th</sup> percentile

330 distributions. The blue line and shading indicate winter (DJF), red line and shading indicate pre-  
331 monsoon (MAM), green line and shading indicate monsoon (JJAS), and grey line and shading  
332 indicate post-monsoon season (ON). Note that the y-axis scale is different for the DEL site. **Note**  
333 **that measurements are from different time periods for each site (refer to Table 1).**

334  
335 Figure 4 shows the average observed PNSDs evolving over the day for each season, as a  
336 contour plot, at all the sites. **For the mountain background sites** RNC and MUK, the average  
337 seasonal contour plot indicates daytime NPF in pre-monsoon. However, winter, monsoon, and  
338 post-monsoon had the lowest concentrations of smaller particles that are not associated with NPF.  
339 For MBL, NPF occurred in winter, pre-monsoon, and post-monsoon. For all urban sites (HYD,  
340 TVM, and DEL), the average seasonal contour plot indicates the highest concentration of particles  
341 in morning and evening peak traffic hours, in addition to daytime NPF. In Section 3.2, **we have**  
342 **considered this high particle concentration from evening peak traffic while investigating** the  
343 frequency of occurrence of NPF and its contribution to CCN concentrations.

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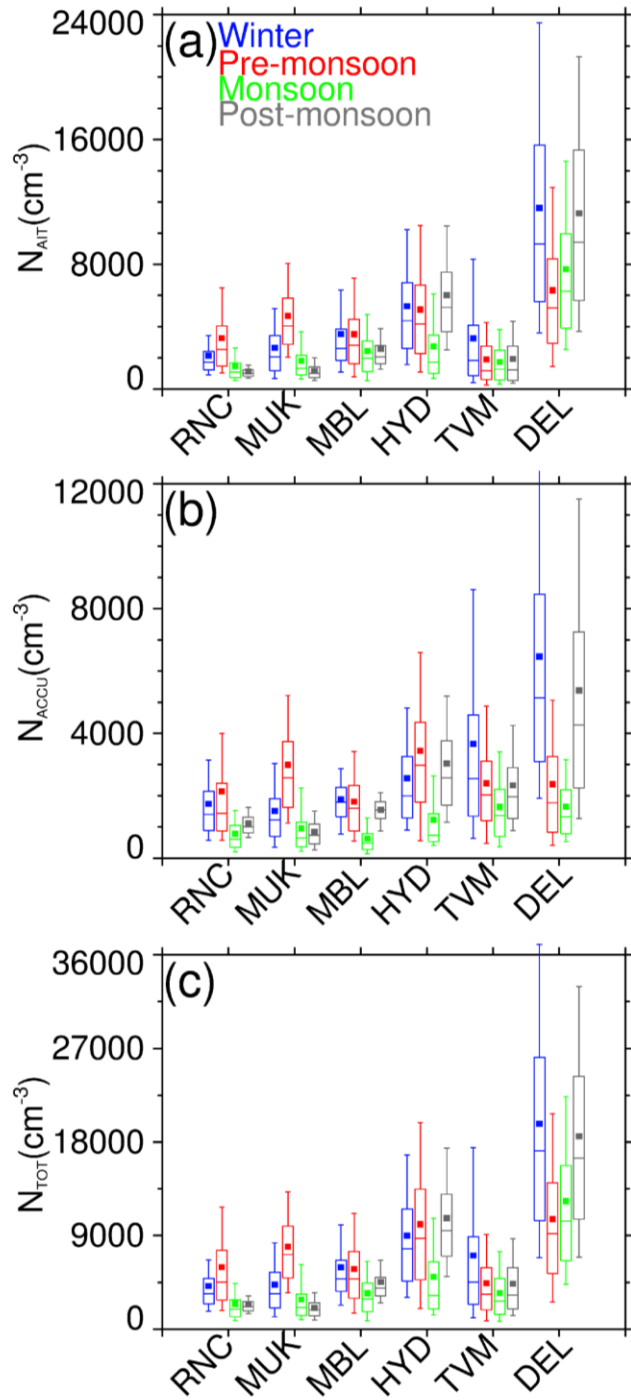


346  
 347 **Figure 4.** The diurnal-seasonal median particle number size distributions at all the sites; a)  
 348 Ranichauri, b) Mukteshwar, c) Mahabaleshwar, d) Hyderabad, e) Thiruvananthapuram, and f)  
 349 Delhi. **Note that measurements are from different time periods for each site (refer to Table 1).**

350  
 351 Figure 5 shows the box-whisker plot of the **seasonal** number concentrations of Aitken,  
 352 accumulation, and total particles at all the sites. **The periods of study are different for all the sites,**

353 where direct comparison of particle number concentrations is not possible. The median Aitken  
354 mode particle number concentrations are the lowest at RNC ( $1.4 \times 10^3 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ ) and the highest at DEL  
355 ( $7.1 \times 10^3 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ ). The median accumulation mode particle number concentrations are the lowest at  
356 MUK ( $0.9 \times 10^3 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ ) and the highest at DEL ( $2.4 \times 10^3 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ ). The total particle number  
357 concentrations are the lowest at MUK ( $2.7 \times 10^3 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ ) and the highest at DEL ( $12.5 \times 10^3 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ ).  
358 The median particle number concentrations are about 5-fold higher in urban locations (HYD,  
359 TVM, and DEL) than mountain sites (RNC, MUK, and MBL). Overall, the size-segregated particle  
360 number concentrations show strong seasonal spatial variability, with the lowest concentrations at  
361 the mountain sites and the highest at the urban sites. Further, the size-segregated particle number  
362 concentrations also show the large variability in each urban location than the mountain sites. Next,  
363 we discuss the seasonality in the number concentration of Aitken, accumulation, and total particles  
364 in all locations to understand space- and time-varying heterogeneity in particle number  
365 concentrations.  
366  
367 .





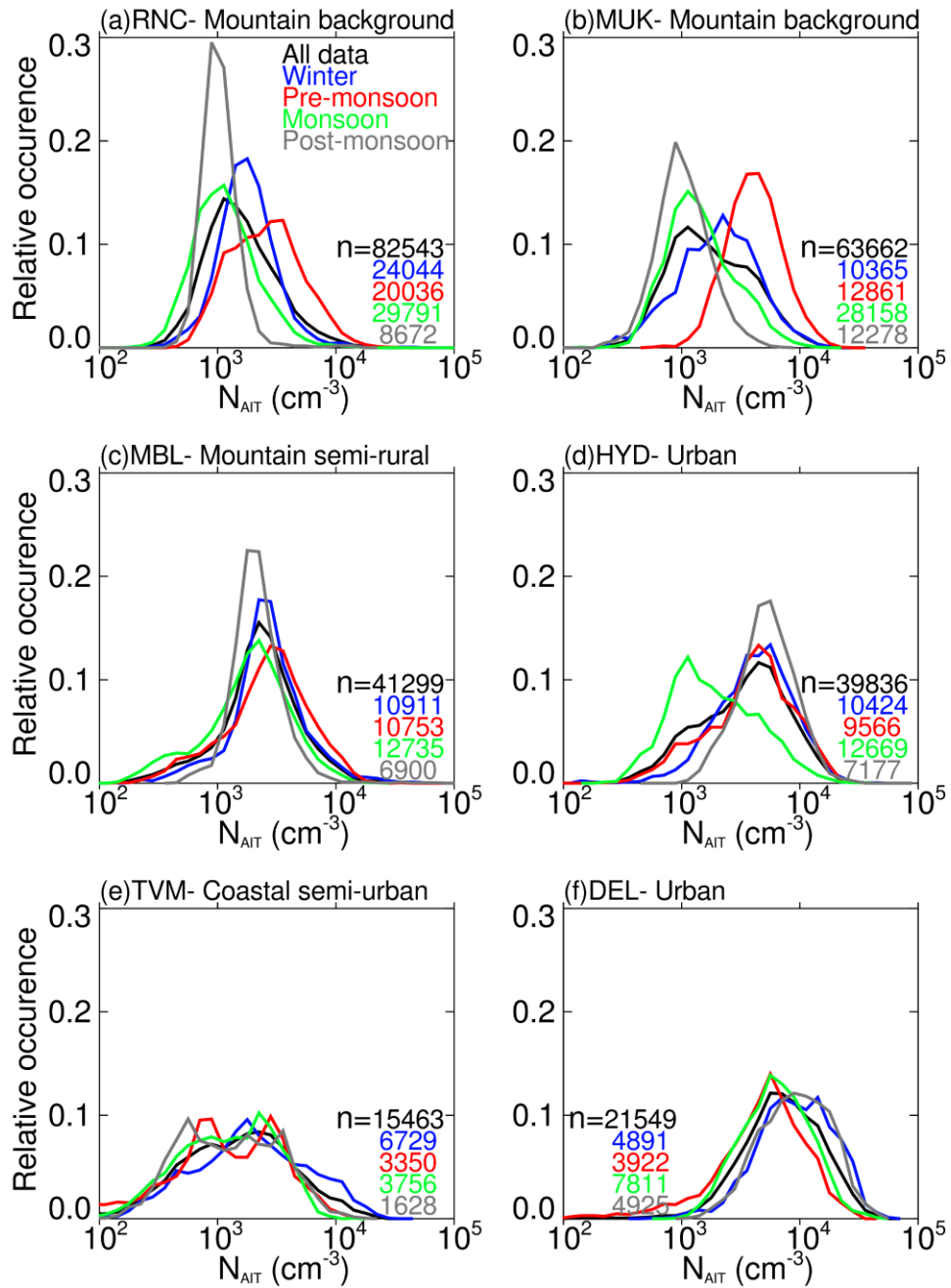
368

369 **Figure 5.** Box-whisker plot of seasonal number concentrations of (a) Aitken mode (b)  
 370 accumulation mode, and (c) total particles using the entire data. The blue, red, green, and grey  
 371 colour indicate winter (DJF), pre-monsoon (MAM), monsoon (JJAS), and post-monsoon (ON)  
 372 months. The filled square indicates the mean, the horizontal line indicates the median, the top and  
 373 bottom of the box indicate 25<sup>th</sup> and 75<sup>th</sup> percentile values, and the top and bottom whiskers indicate

374 10<sup>th</sup> and 90<sup>th</sup> percentile values. Note that measurements are from different time periods for each  
375 site (refer to Table 1).

376  
377 The histograms of the relative occurrence of Aitken mode particle number concentrations  
378 at all the sites are presented in Figure 6(a-f). The mountain background sites RNC and MUK show  
379 a similar seasonality in number concentration histograms of Aitken mode particles, with the  
380 highest concentrations in the pre-monsoon season. The lowest concentrations are observed in  
381 monsoon and post-monsoon due to increased removal of particles by wet-scavenging. MBL does  
382 not show notable seasonality in the number concentration histograms of Aitken mode particles.  
383 HYD, TVM, and DEL are urban environments but show different seasonality in the number  
384 concentration histograms of Aitken mode particles. DEL shows the highest Aitken mode particle  
385 number concentrations in winter, and post-monsoon, TVM show the highest concentrations in  
386 winter. In contrast, HYD shows comparable number concentrations in winter, pre-monsoon, and  
387 post-monsoon. The highest Aitken mode number concentrations in pre-monsoon at mountain-  
388 background sites are attributed to the high frequency of NPF occurrence in pre-monsoon (see Sect.  
389 3.2.1). The highest Aitken mode number concentrations in winter at urban sites can be explained  
390 by the high pre-existing particle concentration. DEL has the highest concentration of Aitken mode  
391 particles during winter owing to the anthropogenic sources and the stagnant atmospheric  
392 conditions during the season (Kanawade et al., 2020b). The difference in seasonality in the number  
393 concentration histograms of Aitken mode particles can be explained by the differences in the  
394 atmospheric conditions (e.g., prevailing synoptic air masses, mesoscale processes such as  
395 atmospheric boundary layer dynamics, and particle removal processes) and considerable  
396 heterogeneity in aerosol composition (natural versus anthropogenic aerosol emission sources);  
397 DEL is representative of a sub-tropical climate, HYD is representative of a tropical climate, and  
398 TVM is representative of a tropical-coastal climate.

399  
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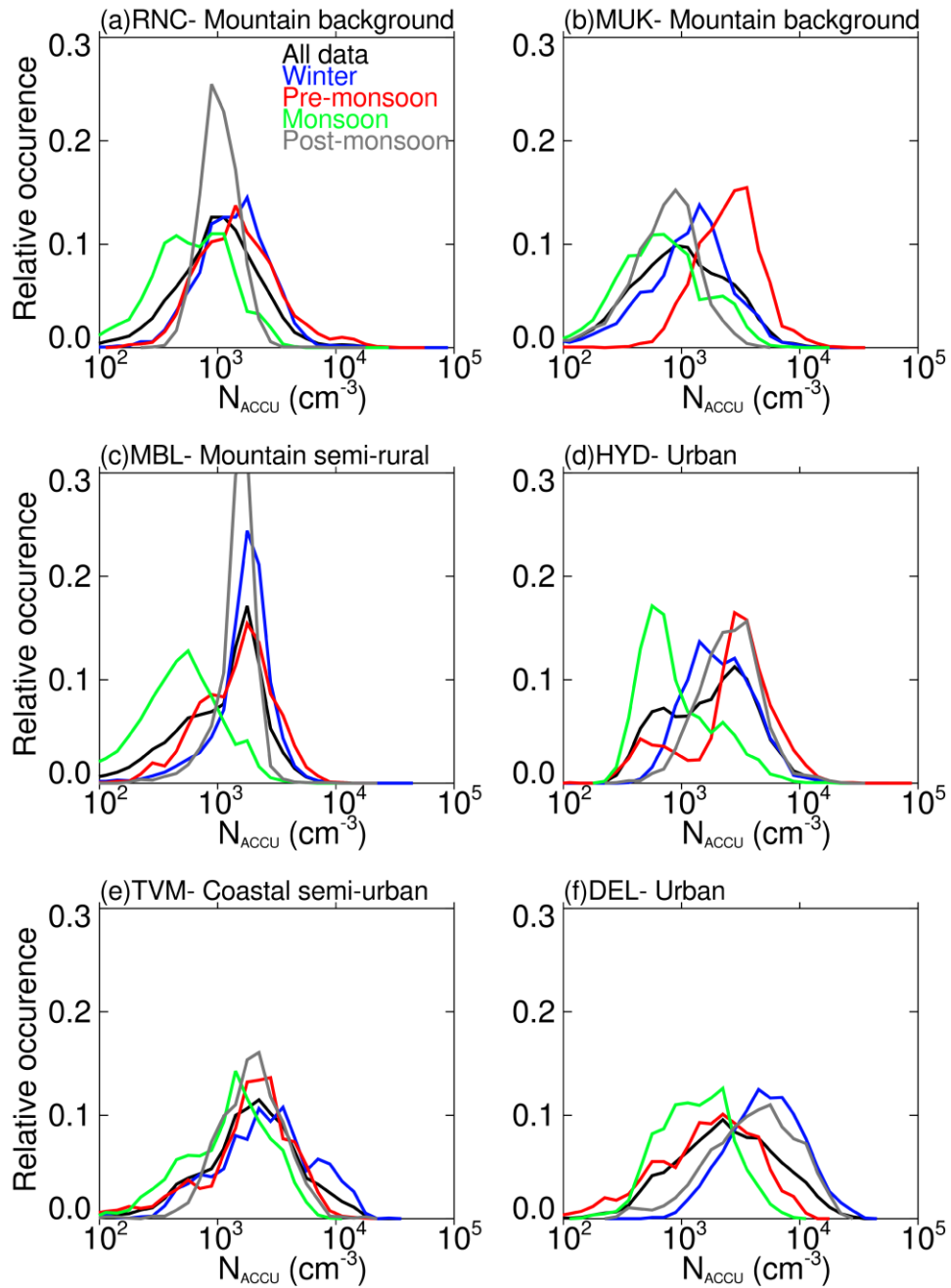


401  
 402 **Figure 6.** Histogram of the relative occurrence of Aitken mode particle number concentrations at  
 403 the sites. The concentration bins are logarithmically spaced in the x-axis, and the y-axis shows the  
 404 relative occurrence of values in each bin compared to the total number of valid observations. The  
 405 thick black line indicates all data. The blue, red, green, and grey lines indicate winter (DJF), pre-  
 406 monsoon (MAM), monsoon (JJAS), and post-monsoon (ON) months. n indicates the number of

407 10 minutes averaged valid data points. Note that measurements are from different time periods for  
408 each site (refer to Table 1).

409  
410 Similar histograms of accumulation mode particles are presented in Fig. 7(a-f). The  
411 seasonality in accumulation mode particles is slightly different as compared to Aitken mode  
412 particles at some sites. RNC shows similar number concentration histograms of accumulation  
413 mode particles in winter and pre-monsoon instead of dissimilar histograms for Aitken mode  
414 particles. The number concentration histograms of accumulation mode particles at MUK are  
415 similar to Aitken mode particles. MBL shows similar number concentration histograms in winter,  
416 pre-monsoon, and post-monsoon, with the lowest concentrations in monsoon due to wet  
417 scavenging. Among the urban sites, DEL shows the highest accumulation mode concentrations in  
418 post-monsoon and winter. TVM and HYD show the highest accumulation mode concentrations in  
419 winter and post-monsoon, respectively. The seasonality in total particles was also similar to Aitken  
420 mode particles, indicating that Aitken mode particles constituted the most considerable fraction of  
421 total particles at all the sites (Figure S2). However, it is difficult to separate a fraction of Aitken or  
422 accumulation mode particles that originated from NPF from that of the primary emissions,  
423 especially in urban areas where the primary emission rates of aerosols are very high (Thomas et  
424 al., 2019). The survival probability of newly formed particles to >50-100 nm size depends on many  
425 factors such as the frequency and intensity of the NPF occurrence, availability of condensable  
426 vapors, pre-existing particles, and atmospheric conditions. In Sect. 3.2.3, we estimate the absolute  
427 increase of CCN concentrations from NPF following the methodology given by Kerminen et al.  
428 (2012) and modified to calculate CCN concentrations for any given NPF event.

429  
430



431

432 **Figure 7.** Histogram of the relative occurrence of accumulation mode particle number  
 433 concentrations at the sites. The concentration bins are logarithmically spaced in the x-axis, and the  
 434 y-axis shows the relative occurrence of values in each bin compared to the total number of valid  
 435 observations. The thick black line indicates all data. The blue, red, green, and grey lines indicate  
 436 winter (DJF), pre-monsoon (MAM), monsoon (JJAS), and post-monsoon (ON) months. n

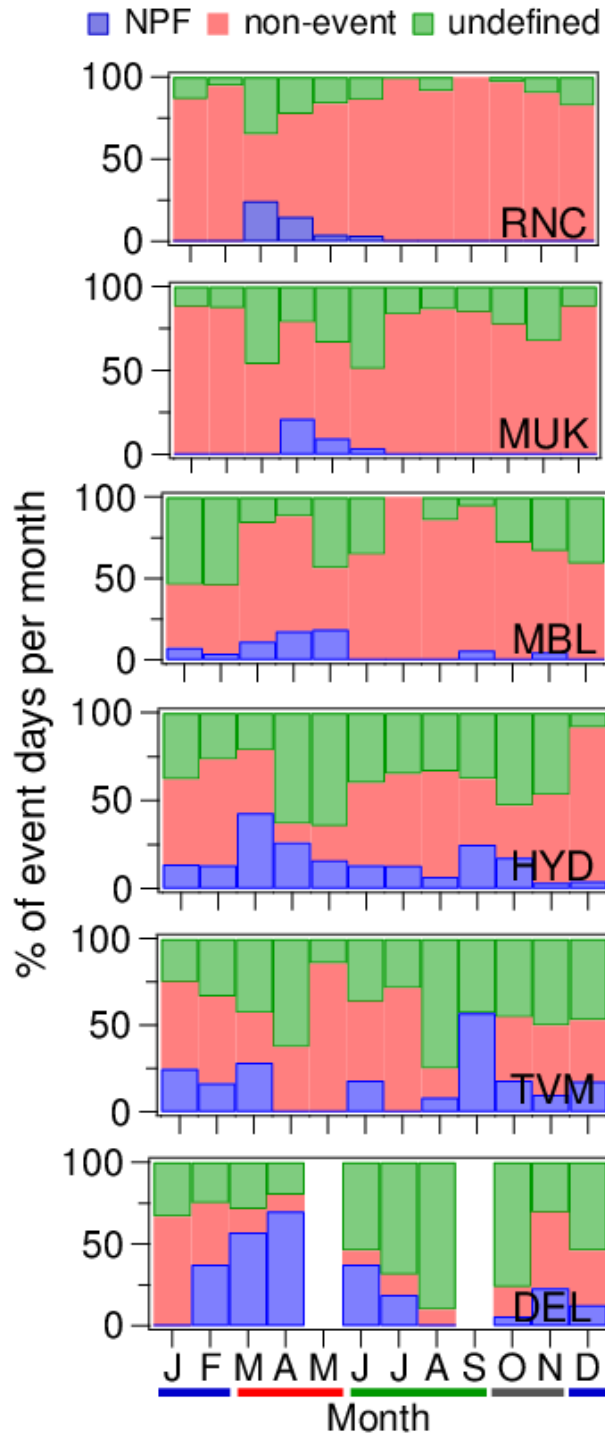
437 indicates the number of 10 minutes averaged valid data points. Note that measurements are from  
438 different time periods for each site (refer to Table 1).

439

## 440 **3.2 New particle formation and its contribution to CCN concentrations**

### 441 **3.2.1 NPF event characteristics**

442 The frequency of occurrence of NPF events, the particle formation rate of nucleation mode  
443 particles ( $J_{LDS}$ ), and the particle growth rate of nucleation mode particles ( $GR_{LDS-25nm}$ ) are typically  
444 derived to quantify the NPF (Kerminen et al., 2018; Nieminen et al., 2018; Kulmala et al., 2004).  
445 These NPF characteristics are closely associated with aerosol precursor concentrations, pre-  
446 existing aerosol particles, and atmospheric conditions. As a result, the frequency of occurrence of  
447 NPF events varies from one location to another as well as seasonally. NPF is thought to occur  
448 frequently during the spring (pre-monsoon) and rarely during the winter (Kanawade et al., 2012;  
449 Dal Maso et al., 2005; Nieminen et al., 2018). However, NPF events were also observed frequently  
450 during the thermal winter (Kulmala et al., 2004; Pikridas et al., 2012) and fall (September, October,  
451 and November) (Rodríguez et al., 2005). These studies indicate that there is no universal pattern  
452 in the occurrence of NPF events. Figure 8 shows the percentage of NPF, non-event, and undefined  
453 event days based on valid observation days at all the sites. Out of a total of 586 valid observation  
454 days at RNC, NPF events occurred on 21 days (3.9%), whereas 493 (83.7%) days were non-event  
455 days. Out of a total of 440 valid observation days at MUK, NPF events occurred on 13 days (2.9%),  
456 whereas 321 (73.1%) days were non-event days. Out of a total of 281 valid observation days at  
457 MBL, NPF events occurred on 16 days (5.9%), whereas 188 (66.1%) days were non-event days.  
458 Out of a total of 270 valid observation days at HYD, NPF events occurred on 38 days (16.3%),  
459 whereas 124 (44.8%) days were non-event days. Out of a total of 133 valid observation days at  
460 TVM, NPF events occurred on 23 days (16.6%), whereas 55 (41.4%) days were non-event days.  
461 Out of a total of 139 valid observation days at DEL, NPF events occurred on 39 days (28.1%),  
462 whereas 30 (21.1%) days were non-event days. **The frequencies of NPF occurrence at all six sites**  
463 **are tabulated in Table S2.**



464  
 465 **Figure 8.** Monthly percentage of occurrence of NPF, non-event, and undefined events days based  
 466 on total valid observations days at all the sites. The blue, red, green, and grey colored thick lines  
 467 indicate winter, pre-monsoon, monsoon, and post-monsoon months. *Note that measurements are*  
 468 *from different time periods for each site (refer to Table 1).*

469

### 470 **3.2.2 Particle formation rate and growth rate**

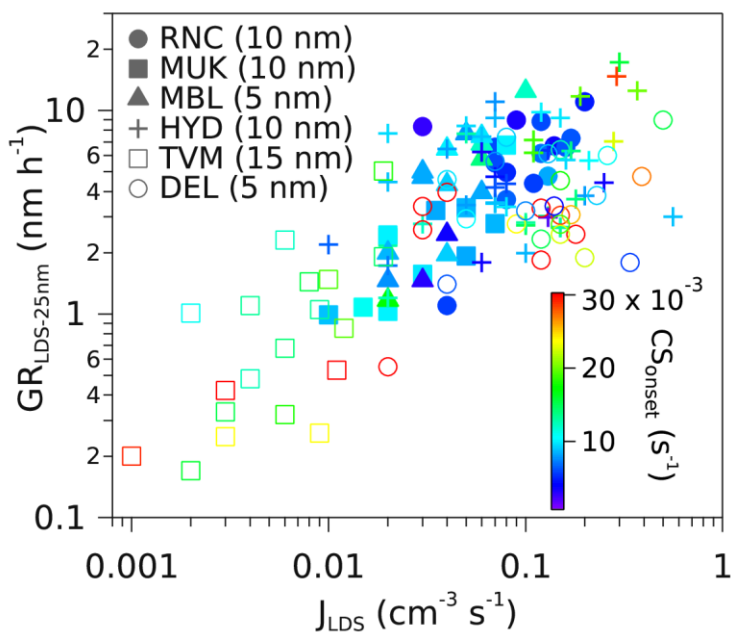
471 Overall, the frequency of occurrence of NPF is the highest in pre-monsoon as compared to  
472 other seasons. There is also an exception to this, with the highest frequency of NPF occurrence in  
473 the late monsoon (September) at TVM. Babu et al. (2016) have reported that NPF events over this  
474 site occurred due to a mixing of contrasting air masses due to the combined effect of mesoscale  
475 land-sea breeze circulation and local ABL dynamics. Though prevailing air masses are oceanic,  
476 the wind speeds and total rainfall were lower during September than other monsoonal months. A  
477 cleaner synoptic air mass (i.e., lower background concentrations and condensation sink), combined  
478 with the occurrence of well-defined mesoscale land-sea breeze transitions and horizontal  
479 convergence of contrasting air masses during September, was responsible for the highest NPF  
480 frequency. Amongst the sites, the mountain-background sites in the Western Himalaya (RNC and  
481 MUK) have the lowest annual mean frequency of occurrence of NPF (3.9% and 2.9%,  
482 respectively), with the highest seasonal frequency of occurrence of NPF in pre-monsoon. Previous  
483 studies also showed the infrequent occurrence of NPF at RNC (Sebastian et al., 2021b) and MUK  
484 (Neitola et al., 2011), with the highest frequency in pre-monsoon. The highest NPF frequency in  
485 pre-monsoon was connected to the planetary boundary layer uplifting to the measurement site  
486 elevation that appeared to transported aerosol precursors from nearby polluted lower-altitude  
487 regions (Hooda et al., 2018; Raatikainen et al., 2014). However, NPF occurred frequently (39%)  
488 at the Nepal Climate Observatory-Pyramid (NCO-P) site in the Eastern Himalaya (Venzac et al.,  
489 2008). A recent study also observed a very high NPF frequency (69%) at NCO-P from November  
490 to December when cleaner conditions prevailed, with little transportation from the polluted lower-  
491 altitude regions (Bianchi et al., 2021). They showed that up-valley winds bring gaseous aerosol  
492 precursors to higher altitudes. These precursors are oxidized into compounds of very low volatility  
493 and are subsequently converted into new particles during their transport to the site. The above  
494 discussion indicates that RNC and MUK mountain-background sites in the Western Himalayas are  
495 strikingly different from the NCO-P site in the Eastern Himalayas (Bianchi et al., 2021). The  
496 annual NPF frequency at RNC and MUK is lower than MBL and the high-altitude sites in Europe  
497 (Nieminen et al., 2018). DEL has the highest frequency of occurrence of NPF events in pre-  
498 monsoon (63.8%), followed by HYD (28.4%) and MBL (15.9%). TVM coastal semi-urban site  
499 witnesses frequent NPF events under the influence of continental air masses. As the air masses



500 change from continental to mixed or marine origin, the NPF event frequency decreases (Babu et  
501 al., 2016). NPF was also observed commonly at other urban sites in India (Kanpur and Pune) under  
502 a high source of aerosol precursors when pre-existing particle concentrations reduced sufficiently  
503 due to dilution (Kanawade et al., 2020a; Kanawade et al., 2014b). While the severe air pollution  
504 episode in Delhi in November 2016 suppressed the NPF, the co-condensation of vapors of  
505 anthropogenic origin along with water onto primary particles assisted the rapid particle growth  
506 ( $1.6$  to  $30.3 \text{ nm h}^{-1}$ ) (Kanawade et al., 2020b). The emission of precursor compounds from traffic  
507 and other sources in Beijing, China, also contributed significantly to the molecular cluster  
508 formation, particle growth and secondary aerosol mass formation, leading to haze formation under  
509 favorable meteorological conditions (Kulmala et al., 2021). In Europe, the atmospheric conditions  
510 (such as the solar radiation and relative humidity) appear to dictate the NPF occurrence at rural  
511 sites, whereas the increased concentrations of precursor gases are more important for the  
512 occurrence of NPF in urban areas (Bousiotis et al., 2021). This explains why NPF occurs more  
513 frequently in urban areas than rural, remote or high-altitude locations (Guo et al., 2020; Nieminen  
514 et al., 2018; Sellegri et al., 2019). This also indicates that the balance between the precursor  
515 concentration and pre-existing particles plays a vital role in the NPF occurrence. Owing to large  
516 spatial heterogeneity in aerosol precursor emissions and **background aerosol concentrations** in  
517 India, the chemical species contributing to aerosol nucleation and growth is unidentified  
518 (Kanawade et al., 2021).

519 Figure 9 shows the scatter plot of the  **$J_{\text{LDS}}$  and the  $\text{GR}_{\text{LDS-25nm}}$**  as a function of condensation  
520 sink at each site. A fairly good correlation between  **$J_{\text{LDS}}$  and  $\text{GR}_{\text{LDS-25nm}}$**  at each site (Pearson  
521 correlation coefficient of 0.48, 0.78, 0.85, 0.33, 0.68, and 0.18 at RNC, MUK, MBL, HYD, TVM,  
522 and DEL, respectively) indicates that  **$J_{\text{LDS}}$  and  $\text{GR}_{\text{LDS-25nm}}$**  are strongly coupled. The large scatter  
523 in data points is a result of important factors influencing the NPF, such as nucleation mechanisms  
524 (Dunne et al., 2016), the availability of other condensable vapors that are needed to stabilize  
525 molecular clusters containing sulfuric acid (Kirkby et al., 2011; Schobesberger et al., 2015), and  
526 atmospheric conditions (Bousiotis et al., 2021). A recent study showed that amines stabilize the  
527 nucleating cluster while organics contribute to higher concentrations of condensable vapors,  
528 particularly in urban areas (Xiao et al., 2021). **The mean particle formation rates and growth rates**  
529 **for all six sites are tabulated in Table S2.** Considering all the sites,  **$\text{GR}_{\text{LDS-25nm}}$**  during NPF events  
530 varied from 0.2 to  $17.2 \text{ nm h}^{-1}$ . Overall,  **$J_{\text{LDS}}$  and  $\text{GR}_{\text{LDS-25nm}}$**  are within the observed large range

531 of values in diverse environments in India and elsewhere (Nieminen et al., 2018; Kerminen et al.,  
 532 2018; Kulmala et al., 2004). Expectedly, the mean condensation sink at the start of the NPF event  
 533 is higher at urban sites than the mountain sites. The mean condensation sink at urban sites  
 534 ( $16.1 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) was twice as compared to mountain sites ( $7.9 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ). A previous study also  
 535 showed that the higher pre-existing particles at Kanpur than at Pune suppressed the particle  
 536 formation rate but favored the particle growth under high concentrations of condensable vapors  
 537 (Kanawade et al., 2014b)



538  
 539 **Figure 9.** Scatter plot of the particle formation rate and the growth rate as a function of  
 540 condensation sink at each site. The condensation sink at the start of the event ( $CS_{\text{onset}}$ ) is taken as  
 541 a one-hour average CS just before the start of the NPF event. The lowest nucleation mode  
 542 detectable size at each site is shown in the bracket. Note that measurements are from different time  
 543 periods for each site (refer to Table 1).

544  
 545 **3.2.3 Increase in CCN concentrations during NPF events**

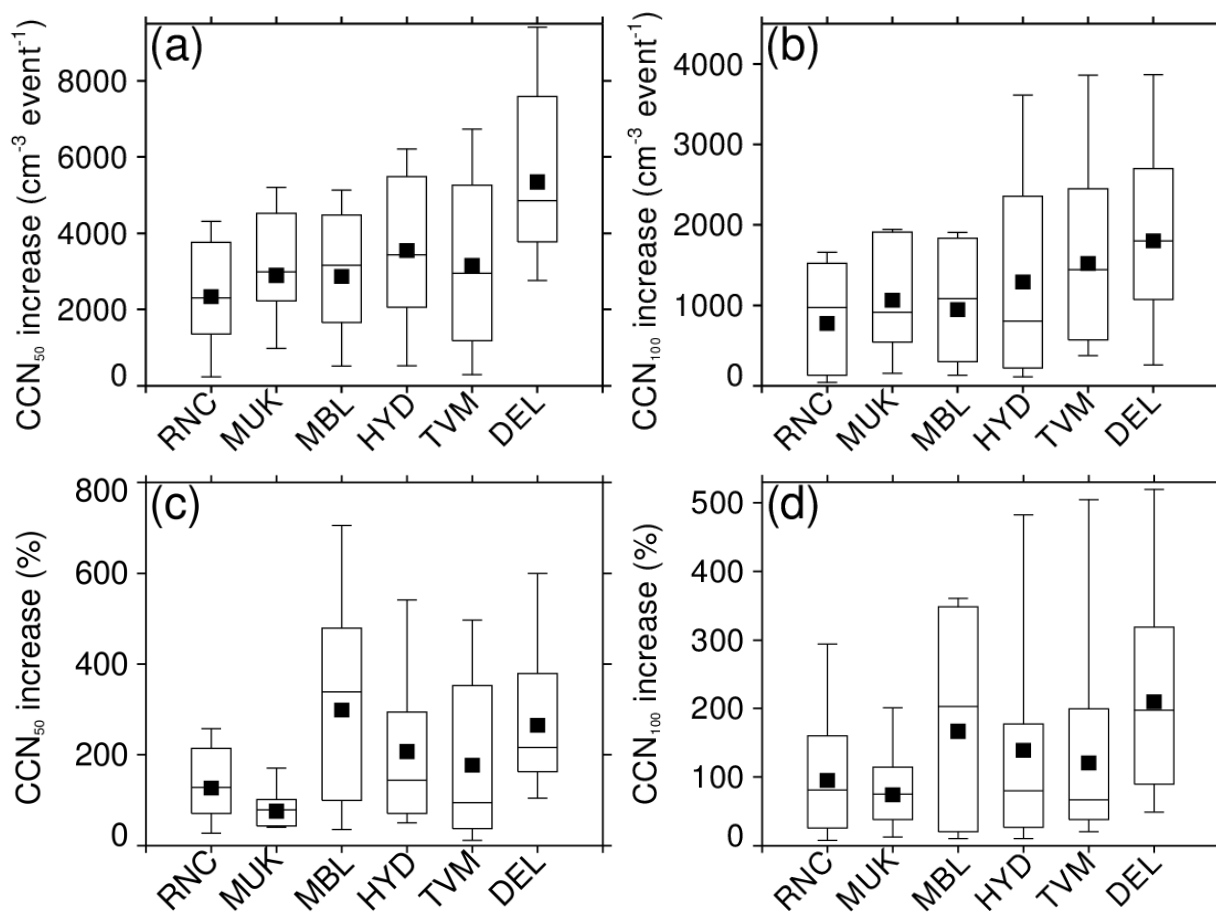
546 To reach climatologically relevant sizes, the newly formed particles must grow by  
 547 condensation while avoiding coagulation removal by pre-existing particles because these freshly  
 548 formed particles are small and highly diffusive (Vehkamäki and Riipinen, 2012). Based on the  
 549 observed range of particle growth rates at all the sites (0.2 to  $17.3 \text{ nm h}^{-1}$ ), newly formed particles  
 550 may take from a few hours to 1-2 days to grow to CCN-active sizes (>50-100 nm). Over such time

551 scales, it is observationally challenging to separate CCN originating from NPF from those  
552 emanating from the growth of small primary particles and direct emission of CCN-active sized  
553 particles. The increase in CCN concentrations during any given NPF event was estimated  
554 following the methodology developed by Kerminen et al. (2012), which we modified to remove  
555 CCN originating from the growth of small primary particles and direct emission of CCN-active  
556 sized particles based on non-event days.

557 Figure 10 shows the box-whisker plot of the absolute increase in CCN concentrations (50  
558 and 100 nm) at all the sites. Considering all NPF events at mountain sites, increase in  $CCN_{50}$   
559 ranged from  $168\text{ cm}^{-3}$  per event to  $5.2\times 10^3\text{ cm}^{-3}$  per event, with a median value of  $2.7\times 10^3\text{ cm}^{-3}$   
560 per event, whereas the increase in  $CCN_{100}$  ranged from  $0.02\times 10^3\text{ cm}^{-3}$  per event to  $1.9\times 10^3\text{ cm}^{-3}$   
561 per event, with the median value of  $1.0\times 10^3\text{ cm}^{-3}$  per event. The increase in  $CCN_{50}$  and  $CCN_{100}$  is  
562 about two-fold lower than the free tropospheric site, Chacaltaya (5240 m amsl, Bolivia), for NPF  
563 events started in the boundary layer ( $5.1\times 10^3\text{ cm}^{-3}$  per event and  $1.5\times 10^3\text{ cm}^{-3}$  per event for 50 and  
564 100 nm, respectively) (Rose et al., 2017). The median increase in  $CCN_{50}$  and  $CCN_{100}$  at RNC  
565 ( $2.3\times 10^3\text{ cm}^{-3}$  per event and  $0.9\times 10^3\text{ cm}^{-3}$  per event) and MUK ( $2.9\times 10^3\text{ cm}^{-3}$  per event and  $0.9\times 10^3$   
566  $\text{cm}^{-3}$  per event) are comparable to those reported at Botsalano (1420 m amsl, South Africa);  
567  $2.5\times 10^3\text{ cm}^{-3}$  per event and  $0.8\times 10^3\text{ cm}^{-3}$  per event, respectively, but about three-fold higher than  
568 those reported at a remote continental site in Finland ( $1.0\times 10^3\text{ cm}^{-3}$  per event and  $0.2\times 10^3\text{ cm}^{-3}$  per  
569 event for 50 nm and 100 nm, respectively) (Kerminen et al., 2012). Considering all NPF events at  
570 the urban sites,  $CCN_{50}$  increase ranged from  $0.08\times 10^3\text{ cm}^{-3}$  per event to  $9.4\times 10^3\text{ cm}^{-3}$  per event,  
571 with a median value of  $4.3\times 10^3\text{ cm}^{-3}$  per event, whereas  $CCN_{100}$  increase ranged from  $0.03\times 10^3$   
572  $\text{cm}^{-3}$  per event to  $4.9\times 10^3\text{ cm}^{-3}$  per event, with a median value of  $1.2\times 10^3\text{ cm}^{-3}$  per event. These  
573 values are about two-folds lower as compared to values reported at the station of San Pietro  
574 Capofiume, in a polluted region of the Po Valley;  $7.3\times 10^3\text{ cm}^{-3}$  per event and  $2.4\times 10^3\text{ cm}^{-3}$  per  
575 event, respectively for 50 nm and 100 nm (Laaksonen et al., 2005). High background number  
576 concentrations of  $CCN_{50}$  and  $CCN_{100}$  in Delhi resulted in a smaller relative increase of CCN from  
577 NPF during post-monsoon and winter seasons when compared to the other sites. In order to  
578 comprehensively investigate the atmospheric CCN budget and the contribution of NPF to it,  
579 Kerminen et al. (2012) pointed out that the analysis should include not only NPF events but also  
580 non-event days. Therefore, the modified methodology applied here following Kerminen et al.  
581 (2012) provides the best representative of the increase in CCN concentrations for an NPF event.

582

583



584

585 **Figure 10.** Box-whisker plot of absolute increase in CCN concentrations for (a) 50 nm and (b) 100  
586 nm particles and percentage increase in CCN concentrations for (c) 50 nm and (d) 100 nm at all  
587 the sites based on the observed NPF and non-event events. The filled square indicates the mean,  
588 the horizontal line indicates the median, the top and bottom of the box indicate 25<sup>th</sup> and 75<sup>th</sup>  
589 percentile values, and the top and bottom whiskers indicate 10<sup>th</sup> and 90<sup>th</sup> percentile values. **Note**  
590 **that measurements are from different time periods for each site (refer to Table 1).**

591

592 The sites with low pre-existing particle concentrations (hence, low condensation sink values), high  
593 solar radiation, and cooler temperatures at high-altitude (or free tropospheric) (RNC, MUK, and  
594 MBL) should favor NPF with enhanced frequency as compared to near-surface urban  
595 environments (HYD, TVM, and DEL) wherein pre-existing particles concentration are high,  
596 leading to faster removal of nucleating vapors. However, NPF in polluted environments occurs  
597 more often than expected, with enhanced growth rates (Yu et al., 2017). Guo et al. (2014) also

598 reported that NPF leads to winter-time haze formation in Beijing. Kulmala et al. (2021) recently  
599 showed that >65% of the number concentration of haze particles resulted from NPF in Beijing.  
600 The observation sites at altitudes higher than 1000 m amsl also favored NPF at the high  
601 condensation sinks and linked precursor gases needed to initiate nucleation and early growth  
602 (Sellegrì et al., 2019). Therefore, the low condensation sinks are not necessarily required to trigger  
603 nucleation and early growth, provided there are high vapor production rates. **The high pre-existing  
604 particle concentration is also an indication of precursor-laden air. But when the condensation sink  
605 gets very high, it inhibits aerosol nucleation.** Further, at Hyderabad, about half of the NPF events  
606 did not display aerosol nucleation (sub-3nm particle formation) with subsequent growth of these  
607 particles to larger sizes (>10 nm), perhaps due to lower organic vapor concentrations (Sebastian et  
608 al., 2021a). Rose et al. (2017) also reported a high frequency of NPF occurrence for boundary layer  
609 (48%) than free troposphere (39%) conditions at Chacaltaya mountain (5240 m amsl), Bolivia.  
610 Thus potential CCN formation was higher for NPF events initiated in the boundary layer (67%)  
611 than free troposphere (53%). Sellegrì et al. (2019) reviewed the CCN concentrations from NPF  
612 events in the boundary layer and high-altitude locations. They revealed that the CCN production  
613 is the highest at San Pietro Capofiume, a polluted region of the Po Valley ( $7.3 \times 10^3 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ )  
614 (Laaksonen et al., 2005) as compared to high-altitude sites (Rose et al., 2017; Kerminen et al.,  
615 2012). Our findings are similar to these studies showing the highest increase in CCN  
616 concentrations in urban locations (HYD, TVM, and DEL) compared to mountain locations (RNC,  
617 MUK, and MBL) in India. It is not possible to track the nucleated particle until it becomes a CCN,  
618 and they are always mixed with CCN originating from primary sources. This makes it extremely  
619 difficult to estimate CCN arising from a given NPF event. In the light of the above discussion,  
620 these results offer some insights into potential CCN concentrations originating from NPF.

621

#### 622 **4 Conclusions**

623 In this study, we used at least one year of asynchronous particle number size distribution  
624 measurements from six locations in India, consisting of mountain background sites (Ranichauri  
625 and Mukteshwar), mountain rural site (Mahabaleshwar), urban sites (Delhi and Hyderabad), and  
626 semi-urban coastal site (Thiruvananthapuram). The results from this study provide some insights  
627 into the processes influencing particle number size distributions and CCN concentrations in  
628 different environments (mountain and urban) of India.

629 We found that the regional NPF was most common in the pre-monsoon (spring) at all the  
630 measurement sites, with an exception at TVM where NPF occurred mostly in the late monsoon  
631 season (September), which was linked to the inflow of continental air masses that provided a  
632 source of low volatile vapors for nucleation. During pre-monsoon, DEL has the highest frequency  
633 of NPF occurrence (63.8%), followed by HYD (28.4%) and MBL (15.9%). NPF was the least  
634 common during winter at all the sites, particularly at the mountain-background sites (RNC and  
635 MUK) without a single NPF event. The high solar insolation (active photochemistry) and the  
636 elevated boundary layer (efficient ventilation leading to low pre-existing particles near the surface)  
637 explain the most common occurrence of NPF in the pre-monsoon (spring), but this is not a  
638 universal NPF frequency pattern in India and elsewhere globally. We found that the  $J_{LDS}$  during  
639 NPF events tends to increase with an increasing anthropogenic influence, with an order of  
640 magnitude higher in urban areas ( $0.12 \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) than mountain sites ( $0.06 \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ). We did not find  
641 any systematic pattern in  $GR_{LDS-25nm}$ , with the highest  $GR_{LDS-25nm}$  at RNC ( $6.3 \text{ nm h}^{-1}$ ) and the  
642 lowest at TVM ( $1.1 \text{ nm h}^{-1}$ ). The observed values of the NPF frequency,  $J_{LDS}$ , and  $GR_{LDS-25nm}$   
643 indicate that the regional NPF events can significantly influence the evolution of particles in the  
644 atmosphere. We found that NPF modulates the shape of the particle number size distributions  
645 significantly, especially at the mountain background sites (RNC and MUK), which are not directly  
646 influenced by the local direct emissions of aerosols (traffic and industries). The number size  
647 distribution of particles is higher in pre-monsoon at mountain-background sites, whereas it is  
648 higher in winter at urban sites, with the exception of HYD. All sites generally show lower  
649 concentrations of particles in monsoon due to the increased removal by wet-scavenging. The  
650 histograms of size-segregated particle number concentrations show large variability from one site  
651 to another, reflecting the varying contribution of different processes to the total aerosol loading.  
652 For instance, the Aitken mode particle concentrations were the highest in pre-monsoon at  
653 mountain-background sites (RNC and MUK), whereas they were the highest in winter at urban  
654 sites (HYD, TVM, and DEL). Amongst the sites, the lowest measured median total particle number  
655 concentration was found in MUK ( $2658 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ ) and the highest in DEL ( $12519 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ ).

656 We found that the increase in CCN concentrations during an NPF event is higher in urban  
657 locations ( $4.3 \times 10^3 \text{ cm}^{-3}$  per event and  $1.2 \times 10^3 \text{ cm}^{-3}$  per event for 50 nm and 100 nm, respectively)  
658 compared to mountain-background sites ( $2.7 \times 10^3 \text{ cm}^{-3}$  per event and  $1.0 \times 10^3 \text{ cm}^{-3}$  per event for  
659 50 nm and 100 nm, respectively). We modified Kerminen and colleagues' approach for removing

660 the potential contribution of primary CCN-active particles to give the best possible estimate for  
661 the increase in CCN concentrations during a given NPF event. Such analyses should be  
662 supplemented by regional model simulations or high spatial resolution measurements of NPF and  
663 CCN concentrations.

664

#### 665 **Code availability**

666 Particle number size distributions data was analyzed in IGOR Pro 8.0. Figure 8 was created in  
667 IGOR Pro 8.0, while all other figures were created in IDL 8.0.

668

#### 669 **Data availability**

670 Particles data will be made available upon a reasonable request to the corresponding author.

671

#### 672 **Author contribution:**

673 VPK conceived the idea and designed the research. MS and VPK carried out a comprehensive  
674 data analysis. MS carried out CCN estimation analysis and interpretation with critical inputs  
675 from JRP, VV, and VPK. MS, SKK, VAK, and SJ performed particle size distribution  
676 measurements and analysis. MS and VPK wrote the first draft, and MS edited with critical inputs  
677 from all co-authors.

678

#### 679 **Competing interests**

680 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

681

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