

1 **Opinion: A paradigm shift in investigating the general characteristics of atmospheric new**  
2 **particle formation using field observations**

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26  
27 **Abstract**

28  
29 Atmospheric new particle formation (NPF) [and associated](#) production of [secondary](#)  
30 [particulate matter](#) dominate aerosol particle number concentrations and submicron particle  
31 mass loadings in many environments globally. Our recent investigations show that  
32 atmospheric NPF produces a significant amount of particles on days when no clear NPF  
33 event has been observed/identified. Furthermore, it has been observed in different  
34 environments all around the world that growth rates of nucleation mode particles vary little,  
35 usually much less than the measured concentrations of condensable vapors. It has also been  
36 observed that the local clustering, which in many cases acts as a starting point of regional  
37 new particle formation (NPF), can be described with the formation of intermediate ions at  
38 the smallest sizes. These observations, together with a recently developed ranking method,  
39 leads us to propose a paradigm shift in atmospheric NPF investigations. In this opinion paper,  
40 we will summarize the traditional approach to describe atmospheric NPF, and describe an  
41 alternative method, covering both particle formation and initial growth. The opportunities  
42 and remaining challenges offered by the new approach are discussed.

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44 **1. Background**

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46 Atmospheric new particle formation (NPF) includes the formation of molecular clusters via  
47 different chemical pathways, and the activation of some of these clusters for growth to  
48 larger sizes (Zhang et al., 2012; Kulmala et al., 2014; Lee et al., 2019; Kirkby et al., 2023).  
49 Depending on their subsequent fate in the atmosphere, essentially whether and how long

56 they will survive from various sink processes (e.g. Kerminen et al., 2004; Pierce and Adams,  
57 2007; Kulmala et al., 2017; Cai et al., 2022), these newly formed particles will contribute to  
58 the cloud condensation nuclei in a regional and global atmosphere (Spracklen et al., 2008;  
59 Wiedensohler et al., 2009; Kerminen et al., 2012; Gordon et al., 2017; Ren et al., 2021), and  
60 will act as seeds for haze particles during air pollution episodes in urban environments (e.g.  
61 Guo et al., 2014; Kulmala et al., 2022a).

62  
63 In order to understand how atmospheric NPF influences climate and air quality, and how  
64 these influences have changed over time or will change in the future as a result of  
65 anthropogenic and natural emission changes, we need to have detailed knowledge about  
66 the following issues in different atmospheric environments: 1) what is the general  
67 characteristics of atmospheric NPF, including its frequency and intensity, 2) by which  
68 chemical mechanisms and constituents molecular clusters form and grow to larger sizes, and  
69 3) how effectively newly formed particles reach sizes relevant to climate or air quality. In this  
70 opinion paper, we will focus on the first issue, acknowledging that the synergic effects of all  
71 of them need to be considered in order to get a full understanding of atmospheric NPF. We  
72 concentrate solely on field observations, as the power of laboratory experiments and model  
73 simulations is the strongest when investigating the issues 2 and 3 mentioned above.

74  
75 Traditionally, the general characteristics of atmospheric NPF have been investigated by  
76 concentrating on so-called NPF events, during which the formation of new particles has  
77 been so intense that a new mode of particles has been clearly observed. These events take  
78 place either locally close to emission sources of precursor compounds for this phenomenon,  
79 or regionally over distances up to 1000 km or more (Kerminen et al., 2018, and references  
80 therein; Chu et al. 2019). With this approach, the particle concentrations resulting from  
81 atmospheric NPF can be quantified only for these clear NPF events, leaving little room for  
82 potentially low-intensity NPF in a regional atmosphere, and providing practically no tools to  
83 handle local NPF. Another problem with the traditional approach is that the subsequent  
84 growth of newly formed particle to sizes relevant to climate or air quality can only be  
85 estimated for a small subset of cases, essentially those when both particle formation and  
86 growth take place relatively homogeneously in the regional atmosphere. In this opinion  
87 paper, we will propose an alternative approach to investigate atmospheric NPF, covering  
88 both particle formation and initial growth on all days with suitable aerosol data. We will  
89 discuss the opportunities that the new approach will offer for future investigations, as well  
90 as the remaining challenges, noting its complementary role when compared with traditional  
91 NPF event analysis and large-scale atmospheric model simulations.

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## 92 93 **2. Approaches to investigate atmospheric NPF using field observations**

94  
95 In this section, we shortly discuss the approach traditionally used to investigate atmospheric  
96 NPF, including the history leading to this approach and its weaknesses. Based on our very  
97 recent work and findings, we then propose an alternative approach to tackle the problem,  
98 which may lead to a paradigm shift in investigating the general characteristics of  
99 atmospheric new particle formation using field observations. The main features of both  
100 approaches are summarized in Figures 1 and 2, and are discussed in more detail in the  
101 following sections.  
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105 **2.1 Traditional approach and associated shortcomings**

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107 Before continuous field observations, our understanding of atmospheric NPF relied entirely  
108 on theories and laboratory experiments. The first steps of NPF were described using classical  
109 nucleation theories which predict a very high dependence of the particle formation rate, or  
110 the nucleation rate, on the concentrations of vapors participating in NPF (e.g. Doyle et al.,  
111 1961; Jaecker-Voirol and Mirabel, 1989; Kulmala et al., 1991; Vehkamäki et al., 2002; Gaman  
112 et al., 2005). For many years, in conducted laboratory experiments, it has been assumed the  
113 binary water-sulfuric acid nucleation to be the only atmospherically relevant NPF pathway,  
114 and early experiments on this system supported the high sensitivity of the nucleation rate to  
115 the gas-phase sulfuric acid concentration (e.g. Wyslouzil et al., 1991; Viisanen et al., 1997).  
116 As a consequence, atmospheric NPF was essentially thought to be an on/off phenomenon  
117 that occurred sporadically under specific atmospheric conditions, essentially at high sulfuric  
118 acid concentrations.

119

120 The first field measurements of atmospheric NPF were made for specific types of plumes,  
121 including power plant plumes, in which NPF did not reach a regional extent (see Kerminen et  
122 al., 2018, and references therein). Such measurements were campaign-based, and thus lack  
123 of a statistical view on how frequent and intense NPF was or whether the newly formed  
124 particles were able to grow into sizes relevant to climate or air quality, [essentially particles](#)  
125 [larger than about 50-100 nm in diameter](#). Later field observations, based either on campaign-  
126 wise or more continuous measurements at fixed locations, made it possible to identify and  
127 characterize regional NPF (Mäkelä et al., 1997; Kulmala et al., 2004; Kerminen et al., 2018).  
128 While such observations have dramatically enhanced our understanding of atmospheric NPF,  
129 they suffered from instrumental limitations and the non-homogenous nature of air masses  
130 that reach the measurement sites. As a result, it became a common practice to characterize  
131 regional NPF by first estimating the NPF event frequency at the measurement site (i.e.  
132 fraction of days showing clear NPF) using some NPF event classification criteria (e.g. Dal  
133 Maso et al., 2005; Kulmala et al., 2012; Dada et al., 2018), and then determining particle  
134 formation and growth rates for a relatively small sub-set of days (Fig. 1), essentially those  
135 being strong and homogenous enough to permit determination of these quantities (e.g.  
136 Nieminen et al., 2018; Chu et al., 2019; Kanawade et al., 2022).

137

138 The traditional approach to investigate and characterize atmospheric NPF based on event  
139 classification has obvious drawbacks. First, there are days when NPF is either relatively weak  
140 or affected by air mass non-homogeneities or changing weather conditions. Such days are  
141 often classified as undefined days (e.g. Dal Maso et al., 2005; Kulmala et al., 2012),  
142 sometimes further divided into a small number of sub-categories (e.g. Buenrostro Mazon et  
143 al., 2009, Dada et al., 2018), or incorrectly classified as non-event days (Kulmala et al.,  
144 2022b). Long-term measurements indicate that these [mislabeled](#) days tend to constitute a  
145 large or even a dominant fraction of all the days (Asmi et al., 2011; Kyrö et al., 2014; Dada et  
146 al., 2017; Wang et al., 2017; Kalivitis et al., 2019; Salma and Nemeth, 2019). Further analyses  
147 are thus difficult for such days. Second, the traditional approach is limited in providing  
148 information about the spatial and temporal variability of regional NPF, especially what it  
149 comes to regional intensity. Third, this approach is practically unable to capture sub-regional  
150 scale NPF.

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153 Over the years, the expected on/off behavior of atmospheric NPF has not been borne out by  
 154 observations. Since the first simultaneous measurements of NPF and gas-phase sulfuric acid  
 155 concentration (Weber et al., 1995, 1996), it has become clear that the observed formation  
 156 rate of new particles in the atmosphere often scales between the first and second power of  
 157 the sulfuric acid concentration (Sihto et al., 2006; Kuang et al., 2008), a much weaker  
 158 dependency than predicted by classical nucleation theories discussed above. Such relatively  
 159 weak dependence of the particle formation rate on gas-phase concentrations of compounds  
 160 participating in NPF have been observed for practically all the NPF pathways identified as  
 161 relevant for the atmosphere (Paasonen et al., 2010; Lehtipalo et al., 2018; Yao, et al., 2018;  
 162 Brean et al., 2020; He et al., 2021; Yan et al., 2021; Kirkby et al., 2023). Combining these field  
 163 and laboratory observations strongly indicate that atmospheric NPF requires additional  
 164 vapors beyond sulfuric acid and occurs over much larger concentration ranges of its  
 165 precursor compounds than that has been thought before. Kulmala et al. (2022b) developed  
 166 a method by which one could detect and even quantify the intensity of NPF on days  
 167 traditionally classified as non-event days. They showed that NPF indeed occurs on such days,  
 168 and termed it “quiet NPF” because this phenomenon does not produce a visible NPF event  
 169 in a surface plot illustrating the time evolution of a particle number distribution over a single  
 170 day. The overall contribution of “quiet NPF” to the total production of new atmospheric  
 171 aerosol particles appears to be non-negligible (Kulmala et al., 2022b, Tammet et al. 2014).

172  
 173 Investigations on the growth of newly formed particles to larger sizes are usually based on a  
 174 relatively small subset of days on which NPF clearly occurs at a measurement site (Fig. 1).  
 175 The main reason for this is that the most commonly used methods for determining particle  
 176 growth rates (GR) are applicable only for days during which there is a clear new mode of  
 177 particles present in the particle size distribution that can be followed for several hours, and  
 178 that the growth is minimally affected by changes in measured air masses (e.g. Dal Maso et  
 179 al., 2005; Kulmala et al., 2012). There is a danger that this approach gives a biased view on  
 180 GR associated with atmospheric NPF, including the average level, variability and particle size  
 181 dependency of GR. Another, very common assumption is that the GR is determined almost  
 182 solely by condensation of low-volatile vapors onto newly formed particles. This view is  
 183 challenged by two findings. First, the average values of GR have been observed to vary little,  
 184 often less than a factor of 2-3, between different environments, and even less between  
 185 different sites within a certain type of an environment (e.g. Kerminen et al., 2018; Nieminen  
 186 et al., 2018). Second, and perhaps more importantly, GR was found to depend weakly on  
 187 concentrations of “known” low-volatility vapors at two entirely different sites: urban Beijing,  
 188 China (Kulmala et al., 2022a) and SMEAR II station in boreal forest, Finland (Kulmala, 2023).  
 189 Acknowledging that aerosol physical processes (coagulation and cluster collisions with  
 190 growing particles) have usually minor influences on GR (Stolzenburg et al., 2023), this  
 191 “growth mystery” has two apparent explanations: either 1) our understanding of the mixture  
 192 of vapors effectively condensing onto small particles, or the associated thermodynamics, is  
 193 fundamentally incomplete, or 2) more species of volatile atmospheric vapors contribute to  
 194 GR, e.g. via chemical reactions on particle surfaces (see detailed discussion in Kulmala et al.,  
 195 2022a).

197 **2.2 New, alternative approach and new opportunities**  
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219 Instead of separately estimating the frequency of NPF and its intensity for a sub-set of days,  
220 often comprising only a small fraction of all days at any individual site, we propose that  
221 these two quantities will be combined into a probability distribution of the intensity of NPF  
222 that in practice covers all the days (Fig. 2). The intensity of NPF would in this case mean the  
223 formation rates of new particles,  $J_c$ , at some fixed particle diameter,  $d_c$ . Provided that the  
224 particle growth rate at sizes close to or slightly above  $d_c$  are known, or can be estimated, the  
225 values of  $J_c$  can be determined in the same way as in the traditional NPF event analysis (e.g.  
226 Kulmala et al., 2012), and then integrated over a desired period of time (daily, sub-daily or  
227 instantaneous values). To get the best benefit of the derived distribution of  $J_c$  for subsequent  
228 application purposes, the chosen value of  $d_c$  should be large enough so that the complicated  
229 and poorly understood processes that determine survival probabilities of growing clusters  
230 and particles would mainly be restricted to the sizes below  $d_c$  (see, e.g. Kulmala et al., 2017).  
231 According to our current understanding in this respect (Cai et al., 2022; Tuovinen et al.,  
232 2022),  $d_c$  should be 3 nm in minimum, and preferably somewhat larger under heavily  
233 polluted conditions. The upper limit of  $d_c$  should be selected so that the calculated values of  
234  $J_c$  would be minimally affected by primary particle sources. While this is of little concern in  
235 remote or most rural areas, fresh primary particles, e.g., from traffic emission, are known to  
236 extend in size well below 10 nm (e.g. Rönkkö et al., 2017).

237  
238 An immediate question is how to determine the probability distribution of the particle  
239 formation rate, especially at the lower end of this distribution that represents weak to  
240 moderate NPF. Kulmala et al. (2022b) demonstrated that by averaging and suitably scaling  
241 over a large number of measurement days, it is possible to estimate particle formation rates  
242 on days previously classified as non-event days using the traditional NPF event classification  
243 methods. However, this is not the only available option. Previous analyses have shown that  
244 atmospheric NPF is strongly associated with concentrations of intermediate ions, i.e., ions in  
245 the size range from 2 to a few nm (e.g. Tammet et al., 2014; Leino et al., 2016). Motivated by  
246 this finding, we recently investigated the sensitivity of the total particle number  
247 concentration in that size range to NPF using long-term measurement data from the SMEAR  
248 II station in Finland (Aliaga et al., 2023). We found that the days with higher 2.5-5 nm  
249 particle concentrations showed, on average, both higher particle formation rates and, in  
250 terms of traditional NPF event classification, higher probability of a NPF event to occur  
251 (Aliaga et al., 2023). Such a ranking method appears a promising candidate for creating a  
252 probability distribution of particle formation rates; however, its performance in different  
253 environments needs to be carefully tested. So far, besides the SMEAR II station, the  
254 preliminary results from a mountain site (Chacaltaya in Bolivia) and polluted sites (Beijing in  
255 China, Po Valley in Italy, El Alto city in Bolivia) are promising.

256  
257 Concerning particle growth, we propose that rather than determining GR for only a small  
258 subset of days, as usually done when analyzing field measurements, one should aim to find a  
259 relation between GR and the prevailing chemical environment. By a chemical environment  
260 we mean the presence (concentrations) of vapors that potentially contribute to GR, and the  
261 activity of processes (condensation, heterogeneous reactions) that link these vapors to GR.  
262 We note that in any physical environment, its chemical environment determining GR may  
263 vary with time due to the variability in ambient temperature, solar radiation and relatively  
264 humidity, or due to changes in anthropogenic or biogenic emissions affecting this  
265 environment. Important to keep in mind when doing all this is that not only the least volatile

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272 vapors, but also more volatile vapors capable of producing non-volatile vapors via  
273 heterogeneous reactions in and/or on particles, may have a significant contribution to GR  
274 (e.g. Stolzenburg et al., 2023). To a first approximation, regionally representative values of  
275 GR and its variability could be derived using the largest sub-set of high rankings that display  
276 particle growth; even without detailed information needed to tie GR with the chemical  
277 environment. This approach can be justified by the fact that GR is determined by the  
278 prevailing chemical environment rather than the intensity of NPF, so that losing information  
279 from days with low-intensity NPF does not cause a serious bias in GR estimates (Kulmala et  
280 al., 2022b). It is also possible to improve the representativity of the GR for individual days,  
281 depending on the length of the observation data set, by investigating the typical GR in  
282 different seasons, under different meteorological conditions or under otherwise varying  
283 situations in the chemical environment.

284  
285 Analysis of both ions and particles in the 2-5 nm size range might provide a tool to combine  
286 regional and sub-regional NPF into the same framework. By using measurement data from  
287 the SMEAR II station and performing a theoretical analysis, it was demonstrated that the  
288 concentration of negative ions in a narrow size range of 2.0-2.3 nm could be related to the  
289 intensity of NPF averaged over a spatial scale of the order 1 km surrounding the  
290 measurement site (Tuovinen et al., 2024; Kulmala et al., 2024). If this is more generally  
291 applicable, including other sites with differing molecular particle forming mechanisms,  
292 targeted measurements of 2.0-2.3 nm ions could thereby be applied for identifying, and  
293 possibly quantifying, how effectively a specific (local) environment will produce new  
294 particles into the atmosphere (Fig. 2). Although such measurements say nothing about the  
295 subsequent fate of these particles, to a first approximation we may assume that they will  
296 grow essentially in the same manner as any newly formed in the same regional atmosphere  
297 or, more specifically, in the same prevailing chemical environment mentioned above. We  
298 cannot go to sizes smaller than 2 nm, since concentrations and dynamics of smaller ions are  
299 determined by processes which have very little to do with NPF (e.g. Tammet et al., 2014).

### 301 3. Paradigm shift and remaining challenges

302  
303 Based on these recent results and the new reasoning presented above, we suggest the  
304 following paradigm shift when investigating the general characteristics of atmospheric NPF  
305 using field measurements (see also Fig. 2):

- 306  
307 1) Instead of making binary (event, non-event) classification of NPF, we will utilize all  
308 days in the analysis and use a more continuous approach, such as the ranking  
309 method, for statistical information on the intensity of NPF.  
310 2) We use particle and ion number concentrations in the smallest possible size regimes:  
311 a. total particles (2.5-5 nm) or intermediate ions (2-7 nm) to study regional NPF;  
312 b. ions at diameters as close to 2 nm as possible to study local NPF.  
313 3) We use the regionally representative particle growth rates, derived from the largest  
314 possibly subset of data, to calculate:  
315 a. regional values of particle formation rates at selected sizes (3-5 nm) and  
316 integrated over desired time periods (instantaneous to daily);  
317 b. local particle formation rates over selected areas, and their relative  
318 contributions to regional NPF.

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321 4) The particle formation rates can be determined for all days, and its distribution can  
322 be given as a continuous function of different parameters.

323

324 The main advance over the traditional method is that the new paradigm provides estimates  
325 of particle formation rates for all measurement days, and in principle even continuous values  
326 as a function of time. But it remains to be investigated what the best time resolution is for  
327 doing this analysis in practice. This, together with regionally representative particle growth  
328 rates, provides us with a tool to quantify the contributions of both local and regional NPF to  
329 total particle number concentrations in a regional atmosphere.

330

331 Despite its highly promising potential to investigate atmospheric NPF, the new paradigm  
332 faces apparent challenges as well. For example, while continuous aerosol size distribution  
333 measurements are being conducted in tens of locations worldwide (e.g. Rose et al., 2020), a  
334 dominant fraction of these sites do not currently have proper instrumentation (e.g. NAIS,  
335 PSM, nano-DMPS) for measuring the sub-5 nm size range needed for applying the  
336 alternative approach introduced here. The lack of available measurement is even more  
337 severe for ion measurements necessary for determining local or sub-regional NPF.

338

339 Dealing with primary emissions has been found to be difficult when investigating regional  
340 NPF in polluted environments (e.g. Woo et al., 2001; Ahlm et al., 2012; Nemeth et al., 2018;  
341 Pushpawela et al., 2018; Zhou et al., 2020; Kanawade et al., 2022), and the new, alternative  
342 approach introduced here is not expected to be free from the influences of primary  
343 emissions. Recently, methods have been developed to estimate, and potentially exclude,  
344 primary emissions originating from emissions, e.g., traffic (Okuljar et al., 2021; Chen et al.,  
345 2023), but the suitability of these methods for this proposed new approach remains to be  
346 investigated.

347

348 Particle survival probabilities are sensitive to the combined effect of the degree of pollution  
349 and particle growth rate, and there are large uncertainties in predicting this quantity in the  
350 sub-3 to 5 nm size range, especially in polluted environments (e.g. Kulmala et al., 2017; Cai  
351 et al., 2022; Tuovinen et al., 2022). This feature does not cause a major problem for  
352 investigating regional NPF, as long as the probability distribution of the particle formation  
353 rate is derived at large enough sizes, preferably at 5 nm and in minimum at 3 nm.

354 Concerning sub-regional NPF, we need to investigate whether and how particle survival  
355 probabilities influence the connection between ion concentrations close to 2 nm and  
356 particles formation rates at larger sizes, more specifically how the survival of sub-5 nm  
357 particles depend on their growth rate and background particle loading (condensation sink) in  
358 the considered environment (e.g. Tuovinen et al., 2022).

359

360 It is well known that both the occurrence and intensity of NPF vary seasonally at most of the  
361 sites (Dall'Osto et al., 2018; Kerminen et al., 2018; Nieminen et al., 2018; Chu et al., 2019,  
362 Breat et al., 2023). The potentially large seasonal variability of the mixture and  
363 concentrations of vapors contributing particle formation and growth needs to be kept in  
364 mind when calculating particle formation and growth rates, and when determining  
365 representative distributions for these quantities.

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369 Finally, although the tools introduced here provide a first-order estimate on particle growth  
370 rates in different environments, we are far from a full understanding on which vapors and  
371 processes determine GR in different environmental conditions. As a result, much future work  
372 is needed to define, characterize, and quantify the chemical regimes and processes that  
373 eventually determine GR and its variability, and how this variability feeds back into  
374 estimating particle formation rates during low-intensity NPF.  
375

#### 376 **4. Conclusions**

377  
378 In this opinion, we have proposed a new method/approach and elucidated a paradigm shift  
379 in investigating atmospheric NPF using field observations. Contrary to the traditional event-  
380 based classification of individual days, the new approach looks at atmospheric NPF in a more  
381 statistical sense, aiming to create a probability distribution of particle formation and growth  
382 rates for all the days from continuous measurements at individual sites. While generally  
383 applicable to regional NPF, we also present ideas on how this same framework could be  
384 extended to sub-regional, or local, NPF.  
385

386 The new approach provides a method to quantitatively estimate the contribution of  
387 atmospheric NPF to particle number concentration budgets in a regional atmosphere. If  
388 supported by additional measurements in areas with distinct sources for NPF precursors, the  
389 relative contributions of such source areas to the regional NPF can, in principle, be  
390 estimated. The results from the new approach can be extended to continental scales,  
391 provided that continuous measurement data from different representative regions are  
392 available.  
393

394 The approach proposed here should be thought as complementary to the traditional NPF  
395 event analysis and large-scale model simulations. The traditional NPF event analysis has  
396 been widely used in the past, so its application to an entirely new data set offers a simple  
397 way to get idea on how important NPF is in that particular environment, and how it  
398 compares to other environments investigated earlier. The traditional NPF event analysis  
399 remains to be a powerful tool to select cases (days) for some special investigation purposes,  
400 such as investigating atmospheric NPF pathways and associated precursor chemistry  
401 associated with atmospheric NPF. The large-scale view on atmospheric NPF, including its  
402 climatic and health effects, as well as the associated feedback processes, has relied almost  
403 entirely on model simulations in the past. The proposed approach brings atmospheric  
404 measurements on NPF closer to results from large-scale model simulations and, at the very  
405 least, the new paradigm offers an improved way to utilize measurement data to constrain  
406 and evaluate models simulating atmospheric NPF.  
407

#### 408 **Author contribution**

409 Markku Kulmala and Veli-Matti Kerminen had the original idea for opinion paper. YC, AD  
410 and DRW contributed to developing the idea further. VMK, MK, KL and PP wrote the first  
411 version of the paper. DA, ST, RC, CY, FB, TP, [HJ](#), VMK and MK developed the material  
412 and results behind the opinion paper. All coauthors contributed the final version of the paper.  
413

#### 414 **Competing interests**

415



416 Markku Kulmala is a member of the editorial board of Aerosol Research. The peer-review  
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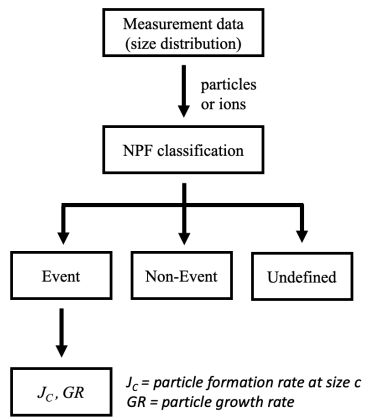
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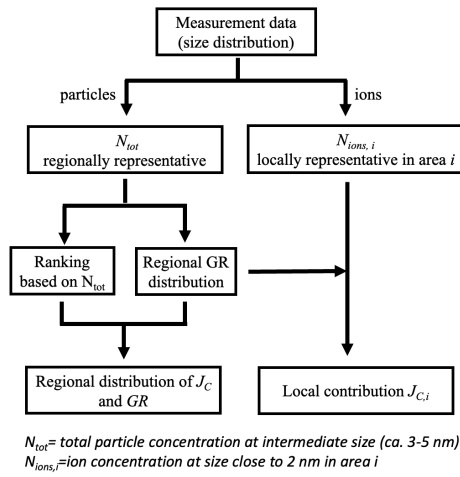
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818 **Figures**



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Figure 1. Schematics of the traditional method used to characterize regional atmospheric NPF.



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Figure 2. Schematics of the new method proposed in this paper to characterize both regional and local NPF.