

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

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Abstract

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

1. Background

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

50 they will survive from various sink processes (e.g. Kerminen et al., 2004; Pierce and Adams,
51 2007; Kulmala et al., 2017; Cai et al., 2022), these newly formed particles will contribute to
52 the cloud condensation nuclei in a regional and global atmosphere (Spracklen et al., 2008;
53 Wiedensohler et al., 2009; Kerminen et al., 2012; Gordon et al., 2017; Ren et al., 2021), and
54 will act as seeds for haze particles during air pollution episodes in urban environments (e.g.
55 Guo et al., 2014; Kulmala et al., 2022a).

56
57 In order to understand how atmospheric NPF influences climate and air quality, and how
58 these influences have changed over time or will change in the future as a result of
59 anthropogenic and natural emission changes, we need to have detailed knowledge about
60 the following issues in different atmospheric environments: 1) what is the general
61 characteristics of atmospheric NPF, including its frequency and intensity, 2) by which
62 chemical mechanisms and constituents molecular clusters form and grow to larger sizes, and
63 3) how effectively newly formed particles reach sizes relevant to climate or air quality. In this
64 opinion paper, we will focus on the first issue, acknowledging that the synergic effects of all
65 of them need to be considered in order to get a full understanding of atmospheric NPF. We
66 concentrate solely on field observations, as the power of laboratory experiments and model
67 simulations is the strongest when investigating the issues 2 and 3 mentioned above.

68
69 Traditionally, the general characteristics of atmospheric NPF have been investigated by
70 concentrating on so-called NPF events, during which the formation of new particles has
71 been so intense that a new mode of particles has been clearly observed. These events take
72 place either locally close to emission sources of precursor compounds for this phenomenon,
73 or regionally over distances up to 1000 km or more (Kerminen et al., 2018, and references
74 therein; Chu et al. 2019). With this approach, the particle concentrations resulting from
75 atmospheric NPF can be quantified only for these clear NPF events, leaving little room for
76 potentially low-intensity NPF in a regional atmosphere, and providing practically no tools to
77 handle local NPF. Another problem with the traditional approach is that the subsequent
78 growth of newly formed particle to sizes relevant to climate or air quality can only be
79 estimated for a small subset of cases, essentially those when both particle formation and
80 growth take place relatively homogeneously in the regional atmosphere. In this opinion
81 paper, we will propose an alternative approach to investigate atmospheric NPF, covering
82 both particle formation and initial growth on all days with suitable aerosol data. We will
83 discuss the opportunities that the new approach will offer for future investigations, as well
84 as the remaining challenges, noting its complementary role when compared with traditional
85 NPF event analysis and large-scale atmospheric model simulations.

86 87 **2. Approaches to investigate atmospheric NPF using field observations**

88
89 In this section, we shortly discuss the approach traditionally used to investigate atmospheric
90 NPF, including the history leading to this approach and its weaknesses. Based on our very
91 recent work and findings, we then propose an alternative approach to tackle the problem,
92 which may lead to a paradigm shift in investigating the general characteristics of
93 atmospheric new particle formation using field observations. The main features of both
94 approaches are summarized in Figures 1 and 2, and are discussed in more detail in the
95 following sections.

96

97 2.1 Traditional approach and associated shortcomings

98

99 Before continuous field observations, our understanding of atmospheric NPF relied entirely
100 on theories and laboratory experiments. The first steps of NPF were described using classical
101 nucleation theories which predict a very high dependence of the particle formation rate, or
102 the nucleation rate, on the concentrations of vapors participating in NPF (e.g. Doyle et al.,
103 1961; Jaecker-Voirol and Mirabel, 1989; Kulmala et al., 1991; Vehkamäki et al., 2002; Gaman
104 et al., 2005). For many years, in conducted laboratory experiments, it has been assumed the
105 binary water-sulfuric acid nucleation to be the only atmospherically relevant NPF pathway,
106 and early experiments on this system supported the high sensitivity of the nucleation rate to
107 the gas-phase sulfuric acid concentration (e.g. Wyslouzil et al., 1991; Viisanen et al., 1997).
108 As a consequence, atmospheric NPF was essentially thought to be an on/off phenomenon
109 that occurred sporadically under specific atmospheric conditions, essentially at high sulfuric
110 acid concentrations.

111

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

129

130 The traditional approach to investigate and characterize atmospheric NPF based on event
131 classification has obvious drawbacks. First, there are days when NPF is either relatively weak
132 or affected by air mass non-homogeneities or changing weather conditions. Such days are
133 often classified as undefined days (e.g. Dal Maso et al., 2005; Kulmala et al., 2012),
134 sometimes further divided into a small number of sub-categories (e.g. Buenrostro Mazon et
135 al., 2009, Dada et al., 2018), or incorrectly classified as non-event days (Kulmala et al.,
136 2022b). Long-term measurements indicate that these mislabeled days tend to constitute a
137 large or even a dominant fraction of all the days (Asmi et al., 2011; Kyrö et al., 2014; Dada et
138 al., 2017; Wang et al., 2017; Kalivitis et al., 2019; Salma and Nemeth, 2019). Further analyses
139 are thus difficult for such days. Second, the traditional approach is limited in providing
140 information about the spatial and temporal variability of regional NPF, especially what it
141 comes to regional intensity. Third, this approach is practically unable to capture sub-regional
142 scale NPF.

143

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

163
164 Investigations on the growth of newly formed particles to larger sizes are usually based on a
165 relatively small subset of days on which NPF clearly occurs at a measurement site (Fig. 1).
166 The main reason for this is that the most commonly used methods for determining particle
167 growth rates (GR) are applicable only for days during which there is a clear new mode of
168 particles present in the particle size distribution that can be followed for several hours, and
169 that the growth is minimally affected by changes in measured air masses (e.g. Dal Maso et
170 al., 2005; Kulmala et al., 2012). There is a danger that this approach gives a biased view on
171 GR associated with atmospheric NPF, including the average level, variability and particle size
172 dependency of GR. Another, very common assumption is that the GR is determined almost
173 solely by condensation of low-volatile vapors onto newly formed particles. This view is
174 challenged by two findings. First, the average values of GR have been observed to vary little,
175 often less than a factor of 2-3, between different environments, and even less between
176 different sites within a certain type of an environment (e.g. Kerminen et al., 2018; Nieminen
177 et al., 2018). Second, and perhaps more importantly, GR was found to depend weakly on
178 concentrations of “known” low-volatility vapors at two entirely different sites: urban Beijing,
179 China (Kulmala et al., 2022a) and SMEAR II station in boreal forest, Finland (Kulmala, 2023).
180 Acknowledging that aerosol physical processes (coagulation and cluster collisions with
181 growing particles) have usually minor influences on GR (Stolzenburg et al., 2023), this
182 “growth mystery” has two apparent explanations: either 1) our understanding of the mixture
183 of vapors effectively condensing onto small particles, or the associated thermodynamics, is
184 fundamentally incomplete, or 2) more species of volatile atmospheric vapors contribute to
185 GR, e.g. via chemical reactions on particle surfaces (see detailed discussion in Kulmala et al.,
186 2022a).

187 188 **2.2 New, alternative approach and new opportunities**

189

190 Instead of separately estimating the frequency of NPF and its intensity for a sub-set of days,
191 often comprising only a small fraction of all days at any individual site, we propose that
192 these two quantities will be combined into a probability distribution of the intensity of NPF
193 that in practice covers all the days (Fig. 2). The intensity of NPF would in this case mean the
194 formation rates of new particles, J_c , at some fixed particle diameter, d_c . Provided that the
195 particle growth rate at sizes close to or slightly above d_c are known, or can be estimated, the
196 values of J_c can be determined in the same way as in the traditional NPF event analysis (e.g.
197 Kulmala et al., 2012), and then integrated over a desired period of time (daily, sub-daily or
198 instantaneous values). To get the best benefit of the derived distribution of J_c for subsequent
199 application purposes, the chosen value of d_c should be large enough so that the complicated
200 and poorly understood processes that determine survival probabilities of growing clusters
201 and particles would mainly be restricted to the sizes below d_c (see, e.g. Kulmala et al., 2017).
202 According to our current understanding in this respect (Cai et al., 2022; Tuovinen et al.,
203 2022), d_c should be 3 nm in minimum, and preferably somewhat larger under heavily
204 polluted conditions. The upper limit of d_c should be selected so that the calculated values of
205 J_c would be minimally affected by primary particle sources. While this is of little concern in
206 remote or most rural areas, fresh primary particles, e.g., from traffic emission, are known to
207 extend in size well below 10 nm (e.g. Rönkkö et al., 2017).

208
209 An immediate question is how to determine the probability distribution of the particle
210 formation rate, especially at the lower end of this distribution that represents weak to
211 moderate NPF. Kulmala et al. (2022b) demonstrated that by averaging and suitably scaling
212 over a large number of measurement days, it is possible to estimate particle formation rates
213 on days previously classified as non-event days using the traditional NPF event classification
214 methods. However, this is not the only available option. Previous analyses have shown that
215 atmospheric NPF is strongly associated with concentrations of intermediate ions, i.e., ions in
216 the size range from 2 to a few nm (e.g. Tammet et al., 2014; Leino et al., 2016). Motivated by
217 this finding, we recently investigated the sensitivity of the total particle number
218 concentration in that size range to NPF using long-term measurement data from the SMEAR
219 II station in Finland (Aliaga et al., 2023). We found that the days with higher 2.5-5 nm
220 particle concentrations showed, on average, both higher particle formation rates and, in
221 terms of traditional NPF event classification, higher probability of a NPF event to occur
222 (Aliaga et al., 2023). Such a ranking method appears a promising candidate for creating a
223 probability distribution of particle formation rates; however, its performance in different
224 environments needs to be carefully tested. So far, besides the SMEAR II station, the
225 preliminary results from a mountain site (Chacaltaya in Bolivia) and polluted sites (Beijing in
226 China, Po Valley in Italy, El Alto city in Bolivia) are promising.

227
228 Concerning particle growth, we propose that rather than determining GR for only a small
229 subset of days, as usually done when analyzing field measurements, one should aim to find a
230 relation between GR and the prevailing chemical environment. By a chemical environment
231 we mean the presence (concentrations) of vapors that potentially contribute to GR, and the
232 activity of processes (condensation, heterogeneous reactions) that link these vapors to GR.
233 We note that in any physical environment, its chemical environment determining GR may
234 vary with time due to the variability in ambient temperature, solar radiation and relatively
235 humidity, or due to changes in anthropogenic or biogenic emissions affecting this
236 environment. Important to keep in mind when doing all this is that not only the least volatile

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

249
250 Analysis of both ions and particles in the 2-5 nm size range might provide a tool to combine
251 regional and sub-regional NPF into the same framework. By using measurement data from
252 the SMEAR II station and performing a theoretical analysis, it was demonstrated that the
253 concentration of negative ions in a narrow size range of 2.0-2.3 nm could be related to the
254 intensity of NPF averaged over a spatial scale of the order 1 km surrounding the
255 measurement site (Tuovinen et al., 2024; Kulmala et al., 2024). If this is more generally
256 applicable, including other sites with differing molecular particle forming mechanisms,
257 targeted measurements of 2.0-2.3 nm ions could thereby be applied for identifying, and
258 possibly quantifying, how effectively a specific (local) environment will produce new
259 particles into the atmosphere (Fig. 2). Although such measurements say nothing about the
260 subsequent fate of these particles, to a first approximation we may assume that they will
261 grow essentially in the same manner as any newly formed in the same regional atmosphere
262 or, more specifically, in the same prevailing chemical environment mentioned above. We
263 cannot go to sizes smaller than 2 nm, since concentrations and dynamics of smaller ions are
264 determined by processes which have very little to do with NPF (e.g. Tammet et al., 2014).

265

266 **3. Paradigm shift and remaining challenges**

267

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

271

- 272 1) Instead of making binary (event, non-event) classification of NPF, we will utilize all
273 days in the analysis and use a more continuous approach, such as the ranking
274 method, for statistical information on the intensity of NPF.
- 275 2) We use particle and ion number concentrations in the smallest possible size regimes:
276 a. total particles (2.5-5 nm) or intermediate ions (2-7 nm) to study regional NPF;
277 b. ions at diameters as close to 2 nm as possible to study local NPF.
- 278 3) We use the regionally representative particle growth rates, derived from the largest
279 possibly subset of data, to calculate:
 - 280 a. regional values of particle formation rates at selected sizes (3-5 nm) and
281 integrated over desired time periods (instantaneous to daily);
 - 282 b. local particle formation rates over selected areas, and their relative
283 contributions to regional NPF.

- 284 4) The particle formation rates can be determined for all days, and its distribution can
285 be given as a continuous function of different parameters.
286

287 The main advance over the traditional method is that the new paradigm provides estimates
288 of particle formation rates for all measurement days, and in principle even continuous values
289 as a function of time. But it remains to be investigated what the best time resolution is for
290 doing this analysis in practice. This, together with regionally representative particle growth
291 rates, provides us with a tool to quantify the contributions of both local and regional NPF to
292 total particle number concentrations in a regional atmosphere.
293

294 Despite its highly promising potential to investigate atmospheric NPF, the new paradigm
295 faces apparent challenges as well. For example, while continuous aerosol size distribution
296 measurements are being conducted in tens of locations worldwide (e.g. Rose et al., 2020), a
297 dominant fraction of these sites do not currently have proper instrumentation (e.g. NAIS,
298 PSM, nano-DMPS) for measuring the sub-5 nm size range needed for applying the
299 alternative approach introduced here. The lack of available measurement is even more
300 severe for ion measurements necessary for determining local or sub-regional NPF.
301

302 Dealing with primary emissions has been found to be difficult when investigating regional
303 NPF in polluted environments (e.g. Woo et al., 2001; Ahlm et al., 2012; Nemeth et al., 2018;
304 Pushpawela et al., 2018; Zhou et al., 2020; Kanawade et al., 2022), and the new, alternative
305 approach introduced here is not expected to be free from the influences of primary
306 emissions. Recently, methods have been developed to estimate, and potentially exclude,
307 primary emissions originating from emissions, e.g., traffic (Okuljar et al., 2021; Chen et al.,
308 2023), but the suitability of these methods for this proposed new approach remains to be
309 investigated.
310

311 Particle survival probabilities are sensitive to the combined effect of the degree of pollution
312 and particle growth rate, and there are large uncertainties in predicting this quantity in the
313 sub-3 to 5 nm size range, especially in polluted environments (e.g. Kulmala et al., 2017; Cai
314 et al., 2022; Tuovinen et al., 2022). This feature does not cause a major problem for
315 investigating regional NPF, as long as the probability distribution of the particle formation
316 rate is derived at large enough sizes, preferably at 5 nm and in minimum at 3 nm.
317 Concerning sub-regional NPF, we need to investigate whether and how particle survival
318 probabilities influence the connection between ion concentrations close to 2 nm and
319 particles formation rates at larger sizes, more specifically how the survival of sub-5 nm
320 particles depend on their growth rate and background particle loading (condensation sink) in
321 the considered environment (e.g. Tuovinen et al., 2022).
322

323 It is well known that both the occurrence and intensity of NPF vary seasonally at most of the
324 sites (Dall'Osto et al., 2018; Kerminen et al., 2018; Nieminen et al., 2018; Chu et al., 2019,
325 Brean et al., 2023). The potentially large seasonal variability of the mixture and
326 concentrations of vapors contributing particle formation and growth needs to be kept in
327 mind when calculating particle formation and growth rates, and when determining
328 representative distributions for these quantities.
329

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

336 337 **4. Conclusions**

338
339 In this opinion, we have proposed a new method/approach and elucidated a paradigm shift
340 in investigating atmospheric NPF using field observations. Contrary to the traditional event-
341 based classification of individual days, the new approach looks at atmospheric NPF in a more
342 statistical sense, aiming to create a probability distribution of particle formation and growth
343 rates for all the days from continuous measurements at individual sites. While generally
344 applicable to regional NPF, we also present ideas on how this same framework could be
345 extended to sub-regional, or local, NPF.

346
347 The new approach provides a method to quantitatively estimate the contribution of
348 atmospheric NPF to particle number concentration budgets in a regional atmosphere. If
349 supported by additional measurements in areas with distinct sources for NPF precursors, the
350 relative contributions of such source areas to the regional NPF can, in principle, be
351 estimated. The results from the new approach can be extended to continental scales,
352 provided that continuous measurement data from different representative regions are
353 available.

354
355 The approach proposed here should be thought as complementary to the traditional NPF
356 event analysis and large-scale model simulations. The traditional NPF event analysis has
357 been widely used in the past, so its application to an entirely new data set offers a simple
358 way to get idea on how important NPF is in that particular environment, and how it
359 compares to other environments investigated earlier. The traditional NPF event analysis
360 remains to be a powerful tool to select cases (days) for some special investigation purposes,
361 such as investigating atmospheric NPF pathways and associated precursor chemistry
362 associated with atmospheric NPF. The large-scale view on atmospheric NPF, including its
363 climatic and health effects, as well as the associated feedback processes, has relied almost
364 entirely on model simulations in the past. The proposed approach brings atmospheric
365 measurements on NPF closer to results from large-scale model simulations and, at the very
366 least, the new paradigm offers an improved way to utilize measurement data to constrain
367 and evaluate models simulating atmospheric NPF.

368 369 **Author contribution**

370 Markku Kulmala and Veli-Matti Kerminen had the original idea for opinion paper. YC, AD
371 and DRW contributed to developing the idea further. VMK, MK, KL and PP wrote the first
372 version of the paper. DA, ST, RC, CY, FB, TP, HJ, VMK and MK developed the material
373 and results behind the opinion paper. All coauthors contributed the final version of the paper.

374 375 **Competing interests**

376

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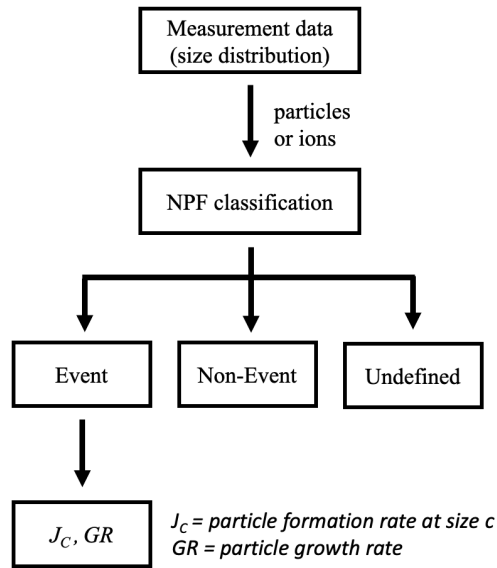
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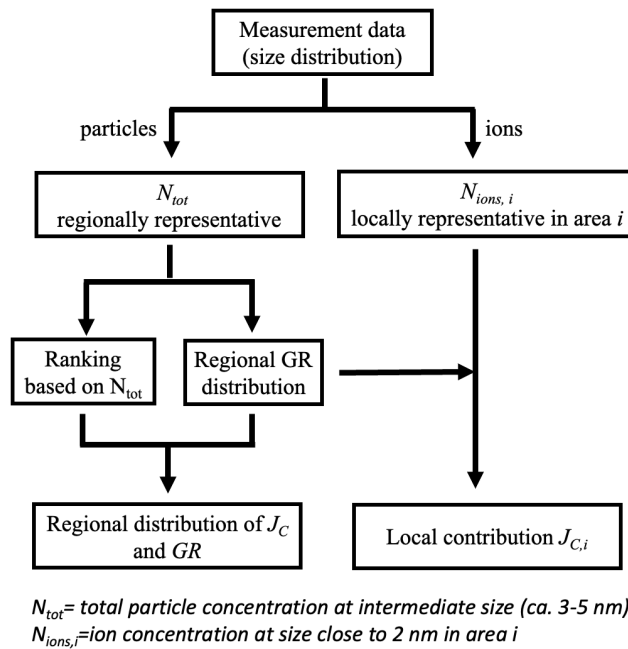
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Figure 1. Schematics of the traditional method used to characterize regional atmospheric NPF.



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