

High frequency new particle formation in the Himalayas

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Rising air pollution levels in South Asia will have worldwide environmental consequences. Transport of pollutants from the densely populated regions of India, Pakistan, China, and Nepal to the Himalayas may lead to substantial radiative forcing in South Asia with potential effects on the monsoon circulation and, hence, on regional climate and hydrological cycles, as well as to dramatic impacts on glacier retreat. An improved description of particulate sources is needed to constrain the simulation of future regional climate changes. Here, the first evidence of very frequent new particle formation events occurring up to high altitudes is presented. A 16-month record of aerosol size distribution from the Nepal Climate Observatory at Pyramid (Nepal, 5,079 m above sea level), the highest atmospheric research station, is shown. Aerosol concentrations are driven by intense ultrafine particle events occurring on >35% of the days at the interface between clean tropospheric air and the more polluted air rising from the valleys. During a pilot study, we observed a significant increase of ion cluster concentrations with the onset of new particle formation events. The ion clusters rapidly grew to a 10-nm size within a few hours, confirming, thus, that *in situ* nucleation takes place up to high altitudes. The initiation of the new particle events coincides with the shift from free tropospheric downslope winds to thermal upslope winds from the valley in the morning hours. The new particle formation events represent a very significant additional source of particles possibly injected into the free troposphere by thermal winds.

aerosols | high altitude | nucleation | free troposphere

A better understanding of aerosol sources and their variability is needed for predicting the future evolution of the Earth's climate. In particular, the formation of secondary particles through nucleation of their gaseous precursors is not well constrained although it potentially represents a significant source in specific areas of the troposphere (1). This is because new particle formation is a complex process that depends on the nature of gaseous precursor species, which differ according to the environment (2, 3); on meteorological factors such as UV-radiation, temperature, and relative humidity (4); and on boundary layer dynamics (1). Thanks to recent advances in measurement techniques, new particle formation has now been observed in rural, marine, urban, and background environments (see ref. 5 for a review). However, the spatial extent of new particle formation events, in particular, their occurrence at high altitude, has rarely been documented on a long-term basis. Elevated concentrations of ultrafine particles have sporadically been observed during airborne campaigns (6, 7), and over longer time periods during ground-based measurements at the high-altitude stations of Izana [3,200 m above sea level (asl), Canary Islands] (8), and Jungfraujoch (3,580 m asl, Switzerland) (9). Although quite scarce, these studies provided indications that the process of new particle formation may not only be surface-

linked, but may constitute an entire atmospheric column. However, they did not allow differentiation between *in situ* nucleation of new particles and transport of newly formed particles from the boundary layer. From a unique dataset of particle size distributions gathered over a 16-month period at the 5,079 m asl Himalayan Nepal Climate Observatory at Pyramid (NCO-P) site (10) in the Khumbu Valley, coupled with additional measurements of ions clusters performed over a two-week pilot study, this article shows that new ultrafine particle formation at high altitudes takes place very frequently, preceded by *in situ* nucleation observed during the pilot study. This process may, therefore, represent a significant source controlling the aerosol number concentration in the free troposphere throughout the whole year and may lead to substantial radiative forcing in South Asia with potential effects on the monsoon circulation (11) and, hence, on regional climate and hydrological cycles (12), as well as dramatic impacts on glacier retreat (13).

Experimental Results and Discussion. Measurements of aerosol-size distributions at the NCO-P site were continuously performed by using the scanning mobility particles sizer (SMPS) technique (see *Methods*). The mean diurnal variation of the particle size distribution (diameter d_p in the range of 10–700 nm), including all 511 days of observation, was calculated for each of the four distinct periods related to monsoon circulation: premonsoon (April–June), monsoon (July–September), postmonsoon (October–December), and dry (January–March) seasons (Fig. 1). The dataset is available at <http://www.rrcap.unep.org/abc/data/abc/index.html>. The variability of the diurnal size distribution (relative standard deviation of the mean) is available [see [supporting information \(SI\) Fig. S1](#)]. To our knowledge, this database represents the first long-term record of particle size distribution at >4,000 m asl. Night-time number concentration of particles [from 03:00 to 08:00 local time (LT)] are relatively constant throughout the year (560 ± 160 no. cm^{-3}), indicating the free-tropospheric background. For all seasons, the aerosol number concentration shows a clear enhancement $\approx 9:00$ LT. The observed concentrations are surprisingly high for this high

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Table 1. Frequency of occurrence of ultrafine particle events by days, 10- to 20-nm particles concentration for nonevent days and ultrafine particles mode apparition days and mean new particle number concentration formation rate for all days (J_{10}) and for ultrafine particle events days (J_{10} ultrafine events)

Season	Event days/ total days	Most frequent time period for ultrafine events	CN ₁₀₋₂₀ nonevent days, no. cm ⁻³		CN ₁₀₋₂₀ during ultrafine events, no. cm ⁻³		J_{10} , no. cm ⁻³ s ⁻¹	J_{10} ultrafine events, no. cm ⁻³ s ⁻¹
			Mean ± standard deviation	Percentile 25/50/75	Mean ± standard deviation	Percentile 25/50/75		
Dry season	18/72 (25%)	13–14h	101 ± 102	37/70/119	1,559 ± 1,080	510/1,670/2,372	0.05	0.20
Premonsoon	66/173 (38%)	11–12h	73 ± 87	30/47/82	1,328 ± 1,435	510/871/1,860	0.06	0.14
Monsoon	84/147 (57%)	10–11h	50 ± 123	12/27/51	1,186 ± 1,270	480/825/1,433	0.11	0.19
Postmonsoon	32/67 (48%)	11–12h	102 ± 66	52/81/152	1,210 ± 1,190	348/791/1,543	0.13	0.16

hours, which indicates that the events are extended, at least, to the valley scale. Indeed, a 3- to 8-h continuous growth indicates that the events can extend over >15 km (calculated from an average wind speed of 2 m s⁻¹).

- The occurrence of new particle formation is linked to meteorological conditions at the station. Clear-sky and cloudy conditions were identified on the basis of the ratio between measured to theoretical solar irradiance. We observe that new particle formation events are inhibited under cloudy and favored under clear-sky conditions. The frequency of ultrafine particle events is 0.44 for clear-sky conditions observed from 9:00 and 10:00 LT, whereas it is only 0.22 for cloudy conditions. However, because new particle formation does not systematically occur when sunny conditions are encountered, solar irradiance is clearly not the unique driving factor.
- Factors such as the condensational sink (CS), which is related to the amount of surface available for semivolatile gases to condense on preexisting aerosols, plays a significant role as well. When 9:00 to 10:00 LT sunny conditions are selected, the frequency of ultrafine particle events on all measurement days is 0.49 when the CS is <2.1 × 10⁻³ s⁻¹, and 0.09 when the CS is higher than this value, respectively.
- A marked diurnal variability of CN₁₀₋₂₀ is found for days with ultrafine particle events, but not on days without events (Fig. 2). Clearly, the morning peak in particle concentration does not coincide with the maximum concentration of primary aerosol tracers, represented by the black carbon concentration (eqBC). As documented in ref.10, the eqBC concentration peak in the afternoon (14:00–16:00) shows a 4-hour delay to the CN₁₀₋₂₀ peak, with the latter corresponding to the

accumulation mode (≈100 nm) increase seen in Fig. 1. In the absence of ultrafine particle events, eqBC still peaks in the afternoon hours. The higher eqBC concentration during nonevent days illustrates the fact that ultrafine particle events are inhibited by higher preexisting particle concentrations. These factors strongly indicate that the increase in particle number concentration is decoupled from the primary pollution aerosols transported from the valley.

The lowest particle size detected by the SMPS is 10 nm. At this size, particles may have nucleated at several tens of kilometers and traveled considerably before reaching the measurement site. Thus, it is questionable whether the nucleation process preceding the ultrafine particle events took place at the sampling site or whether it occurred in the lower valley. To provide evidence of *in situ* nucleation at this altitude, an Air Ion Spectrometer (AIS) measuring ions down to the size of 0.4 nm was installed at the station during February–March 2007. Ionic small entities can either agglomerate to clusters formed by homogeneous nucleation from gaseous precursors or represent precursors themselves. Hence, the growth of cluster ions in the 1-nm range is a proxy for particle nucleation. Cluster ions (diameter smaller than 1.4 nm) were observed to grow into larger sizes before each ultrafine particle event (detected with the SMPS) on 11 of 13 measurement days, as shown in Fig. 3.

The lifetime of such small ions can be estimated from the ion-balance equation (see *Methods*). For cluster ions to be measurable, the ion production rate from radon isotopes and cosmic rays must be higher than the ion-to-ion recombination rate and ion-aerosol attachment rate. In our case, a scale calculation results in an attachment timescale of 250 s. This means that for wind speeds of 1–3 m s⁻¹, the formation of cluster ions takes place <1 km away. Consequently, nucleation must have been initiated up to high altitudes.

Peak concentrations of 2,000 to 3,000 no. cm⁻³ cluster ions were detected on each nucleation day. Cluster ion concentrations remain very high until midafternoon. The diurnal variation of cluster ion concentrations detected at the NCO-P site has never been observed elsewhere. Contrary to other observations (20, 21), the electrical conductivity of atmospheric air associated with cluster ion concentrations does not vary with the condensational sink caused by preexisting particles, meaning that the source of ion clusters is considerably larger than their sink. The calculated source of ions shows a very strong diurnal variation with a maximum between 09:00 and 14:00 of 9 ion pair cm⁻³. This is twice as high as the ionization rates found in the clean continental areas such as Hyttälä (21, 22). Ion clusters, hence, are present at this high-elevation site at high enough concentrations to act as nucleation precursors and be activated as soon as condensable vapors reach a threshold limit. The subsequent apparent cluster ion growth is clear evidence that nucleation takes place everywhere in the valley as soon as photochemistry is triggered by solar radiation. Ions and particles continue to

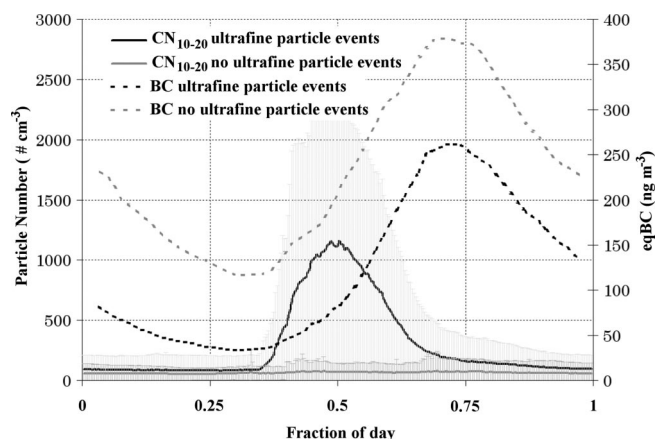


Fig. 2. Mean diurnal variation of ultrafine particles of diameter detected between 10 nm and 20 nm (plain line) and eqBC (dotted line) during days with ultrafine particle events (black, 200 days) and during days without ultrafine particle events (gray, 254 days).

chemical (organic and inorganic, soluble and insoluble), physical (PM10 mass and number size distribution), and optical (aerosol optical depth, absorption and scattering coefficients) properties of aerosols. Measurement of the light absorption coefficient by using MultiAngle Absorption Photometer is converted to equivalent Black Carbon (eqBC). In addition, measurements of reactive (O₃) and greenhouse (halocarbons) gases and meteorological parameters (wind, temperature, pressure, and surface irradiance) are performed at the station. The aerosol size distribution between 10 and 700 nm was measured with the SMPS technique by using a TSI Inc. 3010 Condensation Particle Counter (CPC) and a custom-made Differential Mobility Analyzer (DMA) (23). The data quality of the size distribution was checked by comparison of the integrated SMPS number concentration with the total concentration measured by an additional TSI Inc. 3010 CPC connected to the same sampling line. Measurements were performed at two-minute resolution from March 2006 to August 2007, with a one-month gap from August 6, 2006 to September 17, 2006 because of instrumental failure. Moreover, measurements of the charged fraction of aerosols and ion clusters down to a size of 0.4 nm were performed with an AIS (15). The AIS was operated during an intensive observation period from February 25, 2007 to March 8, 2007.

Variability of the Mean Diurnal Size Distribution of Particles. Fig. S1, shows the variability (relative standard deviation of the mean) of the mean size distribution shown in Fig. 1. The large degree of coherence (low relative standard deviation) of the size distribution in the Aitken range (30–40 nm)—not influenced by ultrafine particle events—clearly appears in the figure. This is in opposition to the large variability of the ultrafine particle events only occurring on specific days. The variability modal diameter follows the average modal diameter, which indicates that the structure of ultrafine particles events is regular and not favored at specific sizes. The variability is highest at ≈10 nm and decreases with time. The increasing diameter reflects the fact that the growth of the ultrafine particles seen in Fig. 1 is not an averaging artifact.

Identification of Ultrafine Particle Events. Three-dimensional plots of the aerosol size distribution daily variation were visually analyzed on a day-to-day basis. Each day was either classified as ultrafine particle event day or ultrafine particle nonevent day according to the criteria exposed by Dal Maso *et al.* (18). The criteria were the apparition of a clear new mode in the ultrafine size range for a substantial time period (hours) followed by a growth of these new particles to larger sizes. In our case we have used the following criteria: CN > 1,000 no. cm⁻³ above background and duration >2 h. Nevertheless, some days could not unambiguously be classified as ultrafine particle event days and were classified as “undefined.” The proportions of ultrafine particle event days stated in the article are consequently minimum estimates.

Ion Loss and Source Balance Scale Analysis. The ion-balance equation equals the temporal variation of ion cluster concentration with the ion production rate from radon isotopes and cosmic rays (q) minus the ion loss rate from ion-to-ion recombination ($\alpha n_{\pm} n_{\pm}$) and the ion-aerosol attachment ($n_{\pm} \beta_{\text{eff}} N_{\text{tot}}$) according to Hoppel and Frick (24):

$$\frac{dn}{dt} = q - \alpha n_{\pm} n_{\pm} - n_{\pm} \beta_{\text{eff}} N_{\text{tot}} \quad [1]$$

where n_{\pm} is the number of cluster ions, α is the ion-to-ion recombination coefficient, N_{tot} is the number of aerosols, and β_{eff} is the effective ion-to-aerosol attachment coefficient. The ion sink was calculated from the ion-to-aerosol attachment coefficient (25) and the SMPS size distribution for the 9:00 to 15:00 period during the dry season. The resulting loss rate is $1 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ for ion concentration of 2,000 ion pairs cm⁻³. The ion-to-ion recombination coefficient α is classically used as mean value of $1.5 \times 10^{-6} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$ derived from Hoppel and Frick (25). These scale calculations allowed us to derive an ion cluster lifetime and, for steady-state conditions, the ion cluster source rate q .

Growth Rate, Nucleation Rate, and Condensational Sink Calculation. Growth rate calculations were performed from the AIS ion size distribution obtained during the intensive February–March 2007 campaign. The growth calculation was performed for periods during which the wind direction and speed were constant, that is, from 13:00 to 16:00 LT. An ion growth was clearly detectable during this period on 5 of the 10 measurement days. The procedure comprises fitting the ion size distribution with a log-normal structure and calculating the temporal change in the modal diameter according to the method presented in Dal Maso *et al.* (18). The condensational sink is classically estimated by using sulfuric acid as a condensing molecule on the surface available from the total aerosol population according to Kulmala *et al.* (26). The formation rate of 10-nm particles was calculated from the aerosol size distribution obtained from the SMPS (10–700 nm) according to:

$$J_{10} = \frac{dCN_{10-20}}{dt} + \text{CoagS} \times CN_{10-20} \quad [2]$$

where CN_{10-20} is the number of particles detected between 10 and 20 nm and CoagS represents the sink of 10- to 20-nm particles by coagulation.

Mixing Ratio Calculation. The mixing ratio is expressed as the ratio of grams of water vapor, m_w , per kilogram of dry air, m_d , at a given pressure.

$$Q_v = \frac{m_w}{m_d} = 22 \times \frac{e}{P - e}$$

where e is the partial pressure of water vapor, and P is the pressure. $e = RH \times e_{\text{sat}}/100$; e_{sat} is the water vapor to the saturated vapor pressure of water at a given temperature.

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